

**SURVEY OF TRANSITION SKILLS INSTRUCTION FOR YOUTH WITH
EMOTIONAL AND BEHAVIORAL DISORDERS**

By

AMY L. (LANGDON) MUETING

B.S., Emporia State University, 1990

M.S., Kansas State University, 1992

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

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Abstract

The current study, based solely on teacher-report, provides descriptive data regarding current transition-related instructional practices among Kansas special educators of secondary-aged youth with emotional and behavioral disorders. Students with E/BD are the least likely of all students with disabilities to gain and maintain positive post-school outcomes in the areas of employment, personal-social skills, and community and independent living. Students who demonstrate functional life skills and self-determination skills independent of instruction and directive generally report a higher quality of life than those who are unable. Transition-related instruction specifically addressing functional life skills and self-determination skills may assist these students in their quest for positive post-school outcomes. Research indicating what, if any, transition skills instruction these students receive is not available.

Teachers (N = 165) reported a desire to provide transition skills instruction to youth with E/BD (N = 1,076) yet reported having very little transition training (fewer than eight clock hours) and providing very little instruction (less than two hours weekly). Teachers reported that many students with E/BD do not demonstrate life skills and self-determination skills independent of instruction or directive, yet fewer than 11% of the student population had, within their IEP, a goal addressing the specified transition skills. IDEA 2004 regulations mandate that teachers address the transition needs of students with disabilities within a statement of needed transition services, which is not happening with any regularity. The self-determination skills of demonstrating positive social interactions, making appropriate choices and decisions, and employing self-regulation, though often deficits of youth with E/BD, were among the skills mentioned least frequently within the goals of these students.

Based on the Pearson r correlation-coefficient analysis no significant relationship was indicated between the number of years of experience of the teachers and the number of minutes of transition instruction teachers provided to this student population. Very few significant relationships existed between the level of independence students reportedly demonstrate each life skill and self-determination skill and a) the amount of transition training the teacher had received and, b) the amount of transition-related instruction teachers reportedly provide. The teacher's focus has frequently shifted from transition to educational reform.

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**Approved by:
Major Professor
Warren J. White, Ph.D.**

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to the most valuable people in my life, my family. Foremost it is dedicated to my children Kyle, Derek, and Danielle (ages 13, 10, & 7, respectively), husband Ray, parents Jules and Janice Langdon, and parents-in-law Hub and Mildred Mueting. This lifetime goal would not have been possible without your love, patience, and encouragement. In addition, this work is dedicated in memory of Margurete Langdon (my grandmother) who instilled in me the power of believing in oneself, the passion for learning and teaching, and the will to persevere to the completion of my every goal.

CHAPTER 1—INTRODUCTION

American public education was fundamentally changed with the passage of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (PL 94-142) in 1975. Public schools could no longer ignore or exclude children with disabilities. For the next 15 years, schools struggled to find the best ways to prepare students for life after formal education. As Congress prepared to reauthorize the law in 1990, it examined research that asked adults with disabilities who were products of the public schools how they were adjusting to adult life (Yell, 1998). What Congress found was not encouraging (Benz, Yovanoff, & Doren, 1997; Field & Hoffman, 1994; Field, Martin, Miller, Ward, & Wehmeyer, 1998; Ward & Kohler, 1996).

Youth and young adults with disabilities had not been appropriately prepared for the world they would face following their school years (i.e., the world of work, community experiences, and independent living). Schools had provided little, if any, vocational or career-related training to address the specific post-school needs of the individual. Therefore, the re-authorized special education law (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1990, IDEA, PL 101-467) contained a major additional requirement: Schools were expressly responsible for preparing students for their future post-school life, that is, for the “transition” from being a student to being an adult (Yell, 1998).

The Federal Regulations to PL 108-446, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act of 2004 (IDEA), state that beginning at age 16 the Individualized Education Plan (IEP) of each student with a disability must include a statement of transition service needs (STSN) that relates directly to the student’s post-secondary goals (Kansas State Department of Education, KSDE, Special Education Process Handbook, SEPH, 2000). Kansas maintains the IDEA 1997 regulation requiring the inclusion of a STSN at age 14 (Student Support Services - Kansas State Department of Education, SSS-KSDE, 2004). The STSN, developed by the student and his or her IEP team, is based on an outcome-oriented process that promotes movement from school

to post-school activities (KSDE, SEPH, 2000). STSN within the plan should reflect the individual's interests, need for instruction, related services, and community experiences.

Models of transition education date back as far as the 1930's. Transition education, in brief, is "the direct instruction of skills needed for successful adult functioning" (Flexer, McMahan, & Baer, 2001a). Teachers during this period began to acknowledge and address the needs of mildly handicapped students differently than the needs of non-handicapped students, by providing instruction that would directly prepare the individual for post-school life. By doing so, they were able to identify and address the functional living skills and job skills of each student with a disability (Brolin & Loyd, 2004; Clark, Field, Patton, Brolin, and Sitlington, 1994; Clark & Kolstoe, 1995; Flexer, et al., 2001b; Wehmeyer, Agran, & Hughes, 2000a). The original skills addressed, known as functional life skills (LS), have not changed qualitatively for over seventy-five years.

Students, with and without disabilities, who transition smoothly from school to the world of work, demonstrate the ability to maintain career-track employment, live independently, and attend post-secondary school (Morningstar & Benitez, 2004). Students who earn a high school diploma, regardless of disability status, generally experience less difficulty making the transition than do their non-graduating peers (Benz, et al., 1997; Sitlington & Neubert, 2004; Wehman, 1996).

Students with disabilities generally struggle in their transition from school to the world of work (KSDE, SEPH, 2000). They frequently experience unemployment, underemployment, social isolation or a lack of involvement in community activities (Abery, Rudrud, Arndt, Schauben, & Eggebeen, 1995). They exhibit negative self-concepts; poor social relationships, poor academic performance, and school failure at a higher frequency than non-disabled students do (Morningstar & Benitez, 2004).

Graduation rates of students with disabilities are dismal compared to same-age, non-disabled students, 57.4%, and 87%, respectively (Stoops, 2004; U.S. Department of Education (USDE), 2001)). Students least likely to obtain a high school diploma are those with an emotional or behavioral disorder (E/BD), at 41.9% (USDE, 2000; Wagner, Blackorby, Cameto, & Newman, 1993b).

Though dismal, current statistical reports may not accurately account for all special education students leaving services. Statistics reporting the dropout rates of

students with disabilities can be deceiving. Many students who discontinue special education services (presumably to continue their education in the general classroom setting) actually leave school unnoticed and should be listed as dropouts (USDE, 1989). An estimated 4% to 8.6%, leave special education (i.e., are declassified) because they no longer demonstrate a need for services. Declassified students who complete all high school requirements graduate as general education students, and therefore, potentially affect the statistics regarding graduation rates of students with disabilities (Carlson & Parshall, 1996).

Students with E/BD are three times more likely to drop out of school than are their non-disabled peers (Marder & D'Amico, 1992). Their high school career is generally marked with high absenteeism, poor grades, social isolation, discipline problems, and juvenile crime (Bullis & Cheney, 1999; Greenbaum, Prange, Friedman, & Silver, 1991). These students generally possess average intelligence, yet lack the ability to think clearly in social situations, make appropriate (safe) decisions, self-regulate their behaviors and emotions, and follow rules imposed upon them (Bullis & Cheney, 1999; Kauffman, Mostert, Trent, & Hallahan, 2002). They demonstrate an inability to establish satisfying relationships with peers and adults, have difficulty adjusting socially and emotionally to situations they encounter in everyday life, and demonstrate behaviors that fail to meet (or exceed) the expectations of those with whom the students come into contact (Bullis & Cheney, 1999; Kauffman, 1997; Martin, Marshall, Maxson, Jerman, Miller, McGill, & Hughes, 1996).

The behaviors exhibited by students with E/BD may not differ contextually from those exhibited by students without disabilities, yet may be markedly different in magnitude, frequency, intensity, and duration (Sitlington, Clark, & Kolstoe, 2000). The behaviors they demonstrate are usually of low frequency, yet have severe impact and may, if followed by natural consequences, have devastating effects on their home, school, and community placement (Bullis & Cheney, 1999; Powers, Singer, & Sowers, 1992).

Students with E/BD frequently suffer lifelong consequences for demonstrating the very behaviors that lead to the identification of their disability: impulsiveness, poor social skills, and poor choice or decision-making skills (Blackorby & Wagner, 1996; Bullis & Cheney, 1999; Zionts, Hoza, & Banks, 2004). Consequences may include

premature parenthood, drug or alcohol abuse, and involvement in criminal activity (Bullis & Cheney, 1999; DeStefano & Wagner, 1992). Therefore, allowing students with E/BD to suffer the natural consequences of their actions may raise both practical and ethical issues for the involved adults and may have a negative effect on society, in general (Zionts, Hoza, & Banks, 2004).

Transition outcomes of students with E/BD have not improved with the imposition of transition education mandates, which may indicate that current program and instructional efforts are not appropriate to meet the needs of these students. Student outcomes may be the result of a lack of exposure, knowledge, or practice within the areas of LS and self-determination skills (SDS) (Agran, Snow, & Swaner, 1999; Martin & Marshall, 1995).

Teaching vocational skills, practical work experience, and daily living skills (i.e., LS) may not be enough to prepare youths with E/BD for life after school (Hasazi, Johnson, Hasazi, Gordon, & Hull, 1989; Rylance, B., 1997). In addition to LS competencies, they must learn to recognize and respond appropriately to their personal needs, desires, and goals (i.e., SDS). Without these skills, they will continue to demonstrate poor post-school outcomes (Agran, Blanchard, & Wehmeyer, 2000; Mithaug, 1996). Very few programs, however, report using activities that support these concepts (Agran, et al., 1999; Agran & Hughes, 1998).

The National Longitudinal Transition Study (NLTS), a five-year study conducted by Science Research Institute (SRI) Incorporated and funded through the OSERS, sought to identify the post-school outcomes (i.e., transition) of public school students with disabilities as compared to same-age peers without disabilities (Blackorby & Wagner, 1996; Sitlington & Neubert, 2004). The NLTS identified the two factors imperative to the successful transitioning of these students: 1) The student's ability to demonstrate SDS and, 2) the level of family support they experience. The degree of vocational education and work placement experiences in which they participated were not as critical (DeStefano & Wagner, 2004; Frank, Sitlington, & Carson, 1991; Rylance, 1998; Sitlington, Frank, & Carson, 1992). Teaching these students the competencies of both LS and SDS may represent the best approach to improving their post-school outcomes (Morningstar & Benitez, 2004; Sitlington, et al., 2000).

Self-Determination

Self-determination can be defined as an individual's choice-making action that is free from external influence (Wehmeyer & Schwartz, 1998b) or, the attitude and ability of the individual to define and achieve his or her personal goals (Field & Hoffman, 1994; Ward, 1988). Self-determined persons demonstrate sufficient skills in choice-making, decision-making, problem-solving, goal-setting, task performance, self-observation, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement (Wehmeyer, Agran, & Hughes, 2000a; Wehmeyer & Kelchner, 1995). These behaviors develop and change over the span of one's life (Wehmeyer, Abery, Mithaug, & Stancliffe, 2003; Wehmeyer, Kelchner & Richards, 1996). Persons who demonstrate behaviors of self-determination act as the primary causal agents in their lives and are, therefore, more likely to experience an enhanced quality of life than those who are not proficient in the skills (Algozzine, Browder, Karvonen, Test, & Wood, 2001; Halpern, 1993; Halpern, 1994; Mason, Field, & Sawilowsky, 2004).

Research indicates a strong correlation between a student's use of SDS and his or her ability to transition smoothly from high school to adult life (Armstrong, Dedrick, & Greenbaum, 2003; Wehmeyer, et al., 2003; Zhang, Katsiyannis, & Zhang, 2002). The stronger the student's SDS the more prepared the student is for adult life (Morningstar & Benitez, 2004; Sitlington, et al., 2000). Students demonstrating SDS competencies experience improved educational outcomes, demonstrate the ability to obtain services through community agencies, gain career-track employment, and reach their personal, post-school goals (Armstrong, et al., 2003; Field & Hoffman, 1994; Morningstar, Kleinhammer-Tramill, & Lattin, 1999; Wehmeyer et al., 2000; Wehmeyer, et al., 2003; Zhang, et al., 2002).

Students taught to employ SDS competencies gain a sense of personal investment and commitment toward their own goal attainment and often experience a higher quality of adult life than do students without SDS instruction (Halpern, 1994; Mason, Field, & Sawilowski, 2004; Szymanski, 1994). Additionally, students taught to employ SDS skills develop the ability to monitor and regulate their personal behavior, demonstrate a reduction in aggressive behaviors, demonstrate improvement in the areas of academic

performance and interpersonal relations, and frequently demonstrate an enhanced sense of responsibility and self-efficacy (Mason, et al., 2004; Wehmeyer, et al., 2000b).

Self-determination research, generally conducted among students with cognitive impairments, increased dramatically from the mid-1980's through the 1990's. Funding, provided through the Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP), the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services (OSERS), and the U.S. Department of Education (USDE) was used to determine how best to teach work and independent living skills to individuals with disabilities (Agran, et al., 1999; Wehmeyer, et al., 2003). The definitive goal was to ensure that individuals with disabilities possessed the skills and abilities necessary to act on their own behalf and make personal choices.

Results of these studies led to the development of curriculums and instructional strategies that sought to address life skills, (Brolin, 1997; Brolin & Loyd, 2004; Halpern, Herr, Wolf, Doren, Johnson, & Lawson, 1997) self-determination skills, and attributes (Field & Hoffman, 1996a; Field, Hoffman, & Spezia, 1998; Mithaug, Mithaug, Agran, Martin, & Wehmeyer, 2003). Assessment tools (Powers, et al., 1992; Sitlington, Neubert, & Leconte, 1997) and skills inventories (Clark & Patton, 1997; McCarney & Anderson, 2000) were developed to identify and address the transition skill deficits of students with disabilities.

Research conducted during this time provided teachers, parents, and service-providers with a large amount of data about individuals and groups of students with disabilities, especially those with mental retardation (MR) and learning disabilities (LD). Students with MR and LD, grades K-12, can learn to employ self-determination skills. Wehmeyer, for example, has repeatedly demonstrated the efficacy of identifying and encouraging the use of self-determination skills among persons with MR and other cognitive impairments (Wehmeyer, et al., 1996; Wehmeyer & Schwartz, 1998a; Wehmeyer, Yeager, Bolding, Agran, & Hughes, 2003).

Durlack, Rose, and Bursuck (1994) found that students with LD are able to acquire, maintain, and generalize the self-determination competencies of self-advocacy and self-awareness. Multiple studies report similar benefits of teaching students with mild to severe learning difficulties the skills of goal setting and attainment, and active, purposeful participation in the IEP process (Abery, et al., 1995; Field, et al., 1998;

Powers, Turner, Westwood, Matuszewski, Wilson, & Phillips, 2001; Van Reusen, Bos, Schumaker, Deschler, 1994; Zhang, et al., 2002).

Though advocates of self-determination state that SDS skills are beneficial to all persons, regardless of disability status, the majority of research has focused on students with cognitive and learning disabilities (Mason, et al., 2004). The benefit of SDS skills among students with E/BD has received very little attention (Bullis & Fredericks, 2002; Bullis & Gaylord-Ross, 1991; Razeghi, 1998). Studies generally include such a small sample of students with E/BD that inferences and generalizations cannot safely be made from the data.

Teaching students with E/BD to employ competencies of LS and SDS may help to improve their post-school outcomes. Research, however, has not indicated that students with E/BD receive instruction in either area with any consistency (Agran, et al., 1999; Bullis & Cheney, 1999). Further assessment of the LS and SDS skills students with E/BD demonstrate independently could provide direction for future instructional programming within transition and could guide teachers in their effort to address skill deficits commonly found within this population of students (Bullis & Cheney, 1999; Bullis & Fredericks, 2002; Razeghi, 1998; Scanlon & Mellard, 2002).

Cheney (2004) questions whether many, if any, students with E/BD (despite numerous provisions made within IDEA) receive consistent, appropriate, individualized planning or instruction in either LS or SDS. The effectiveness of LS and SDS skills instruction with students with E/BD, therefore, cannot be discerned. He, among other researchers, recommends that students with E/BD receive consistent, goal-directed instruction to prepare them for community living, leisure activities, and employment (LS) as well as instruction to enhance their personal, social, and emotional well-being (SDS).

Several model projects were developed to specifically address the vocational and transition needs of students with E/BD through the efforts of community-based services, often including (but not limited to) the local public school systems. First, Project RENEW (Rehabilitation, Empowerment, Natural Supports, Education, and Work) began in 1998 in the state of New Hampshire, to address the needs of students with E/BD or a psychiatric diagnosis in an effort to improve the employment rate of this population

(Cheney, Hagner, Malloy, Cormier, & Bernstein, 1998a; Cheney, Malloy, & Hagner, 1998b).

Second, the Transition to Independence Process (TIP) system of 1997 “prepares and supports students and young adults with E/BD, ages 14 to 25, in their movement into adult roles and successful personal functioning through a person-centered, developmentally appropriate process” (Clark, H., & Davis, M., 2000; Clark, H., Deschenes, N., & Jones, J., 2000). Third, Project SUPPORT (Service Utilization Promoting Positive Outcomes in Rehabilitation and Transition for Incarcerated Adolescents with Disabilities), initiated as a service model throughout the state of Oregon, represents an effort to address the needs of juvenile offenders with E/BD, while promoting their positive post-school outcomes (Unruh & Bullis, 1999).

Each started as a joint effort of federal, state, and local agencies working contractually between agencies serving students and young adults with E/BD (i.e., juvenile justice, vocational rehabilitation, social and rehabilitation services, and mental health providers). The projects were initiated with a combination of federal and local funding. Though none was created for use in public school settings, each provides valuable concepts and constructs to assist teachers in their approach toward instructing students with E/BD to make a smooth transition from school to the world of work (Bullis & Cheney, 1999).

Current research does not indicate the type(s) of transition skills being taught in public schools to students with E/BD. It does not identify the amount of time teachers are providing transition skill instruction. Nor, does it specify whether students with E/BD are able to demonstrate LS and SDS skill competencies independent of teacher instruction and directive prior to making the transition into the world beyond school. Research does it indicate whether public school teachers generally identify and address the individual student’s skill deficits through goals and objectives included in the STSN within their IEP. Transition practices of secondary special education teachers must be identified if researchers and educators hope to address the poor transition outcomes of these students.

Statement of the Problem

Students with E/BD demonstrate the poorest transition outcomes among all students with disabilities (Bullock & Gable, 2006; Marder, 1992; Marder & D'Amico, 1992). This population of students, though relatively small, can have a significant, negative impact on society (SEPH, 2000) if they are not taught to demonstrate LS and SDS competencies. Transition outcomes of students with E/BD may not markedly improve until research can identify the instructional practices of teachers and their practices are modified to increase the quality (and, perhaps, quantity) of transition services delivered.

Federal and state mandates require that the IEP of students with disabilities age 16 and above contain a STSN (34 CFR Part 300 §300.347 (b) (1)), SEPH, 2000). No research exists that indicates whether teachers of students with disabilities understand and follow the transition services mandate as required by IDEA (Appendix A to 34 CFR Part 300, SEPH, 2000) and the state of Kansas (KSA 72-987(b) (7)). Specifically, no research exists that indicates whether students with E/BD receive transition planning and instruction based on their specific, individual needs.

Purpose of the Study

The current study sought to determine the level of independence at which students with E/BD demonstrate competencies of LS and SDS prior to leaving school to enter the adult world. It sought to determine whether IEPs typically include a STSN, and, if so, to what extent LS and SDS competencies were addressed within the goals and objectives.

The study sought to determine whether a correlation exists between the amounts of time teachers provide LS and SDS instruction and 1) the number of years the teacher has taught, or 2) the level of independence students with E/BD are able to demonstrate the skills. The study also sought to determine whether a significant correlation exists between the amounts of transition-related LS and SDS training the teacher has received and the percentage of students who are rated at the Independent and Semi-independent level for each skill.

Finally, the study sought to determine whether a correlation exists between the LS and SDS transition skills addressed within the STSN of the IEP and the amount of transition training the teacher has received in LS, SDS, and the composite. A summary of the results specify the common trends found among the transition-related instructional practices of teachers of students with E/BD.

Research Questions

This study investigated the following research questions:

1. Which life skills can students with E/BD demonstrate independently (without verbal, written, or physical assistance, instruction, or directive)?
2. Which self-determination skills can students with E/BD demonstrate independently (without verbal, written, or physical assistance, instruction, or directive)?
3. How many students with E/BD have a statement of transition service needs within their IEP directly addressing one or more of the specified life skills?
4. How many students with E/BD have a statement of transition service needs within their IEP directly addressing one or more of the specified self-determination skills?
5. Which life skills are specifically addressed within the statements of transition service needs for students with E/BD?
6. Which self-determination skills are specifically addressed within the statements of transition service needs for students with E/BD?
7. Is there a relationship between the amount of time the teacher provides life skills instruction and the number of years he or she has taught?
8. Is there a relationship between the amount of time the teacher provides self-determination skills instruction and the number of years he or she has taught?
9. Is there a relationship between the amount of time a teacher provides life skills instruction and the percentage of students who are rated at the Independent and Semi-independent level for each skill?
10. Is there a relationship between the amount of time a teacher provides self-determination skills instruction and the percentage of students who are rated at the Independent and Semi-independent level for each skill?
11. Is there a relationship between the percentage of students who are either Independent or Semi-independent level on each of the nineteen life skills and the amount of transition training the teacher has received in life skills instruction?
12. Is there a relationship between the percentage of students who are either Independent or Semi-independent level on each of the seven self-determination skills and the

amount of transition training the teacher has received in self-determination skills instruction?

13. Is there a relationship between the particular life skills and self-determination skills addressed within the statements of transition service needs in the IEP of students with E/BD and the amount of transition training the teacher has received in each of the areas (LS, SDS, and the composite)?

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations were inherent to this study. First, participants were to be limited to those of students with E/BD age 14 to 21 within the state of Kansas. Therefore, results may not generalize to those who do not teach students with E/BD, those who teach students below age 14 and above age 21 or teachers contracted to teach outside the state of Kansas during the school year of 2005-2006.

Second, survey participants were limited to secondary special education teachers who serve students with E/BD in either an Interrelated Resource classroom (IR) or a classroom for students with an Emotional or Behavioral Disorder (E/BD) classroom. As such, the data obtained provides a narrow view of transition programming and the skills demonstrated by students with E/BD. The list provided through the KSDE included all teachers within secondary (grades 7-12) IR and E/BD classrooms. Therefore, the teacher pool included several teachers who primarily teach grades K-7 (i.e., students below age 14).

The teacher pool provided through the KSDE did not include the names of those working solely as transition coordinators. Those employed as transition coordinators must be certified to teach special education, may hold the same license as those within IR and BD classrooms, and likely teach many of the same students that receive IR and E/BD services. They, however, are separated based on categorization through the KSDE. The opinions of general education teachers, parents, and students themselves, were omitted due to the focus, purpose, and time-limitations of the present study.

The Life Skills Competencies of Daily Living, Personal-Social, and Occupational Guidance and Preparation, were selected directly from Brolin & Loyd's Life Centered Career Education, LCCE (2004). These competencies have been the focus of life skills (i.e., functional life skills) instruction over the past thirty years by numerous researchers in the field of education (Clark, 1996; Clark, et al., 1994; Halpern, et al., 1997).

The skills selected as representative of SDS (Wehmeyer, Agran, & Hughes, 2000a) were limited to include only those empirically validated through studies and pilot tests to improve the transition outcomes gained by students with disabilities (Durlack, et al., 1994; Field & Hoffman, 1996b; Field, et al., 1998; Mithaug, et al., 2003; Powers,

1993). Specific skill definitions (see Appendix A) were taken, with permission (see Appendix B) directly from: Wehmeyer, M. L., Agran, M., & Hughes, C. (2000a). A national survey of teachers' promotion of self-determination and student-directed learning. *Journal of Special Education*, 34, 58 - 68.

Results of the current study provide baseline data regarding the transition-related instructional practices among Kansas teachers within IR or E/BD classrooms. In order to provide a comprehensive understanding of transition programming and practices, and student skills and deficits, future research should include responses from multiple sources.

Definition of Terms

1. *Dropout Status*: Students enrolled at some point during the reporting year who were not enrolled at the end of the reporting year and did not exit by any of the following methods and processes:

- received a certificate of attendance
- reached maximum age for special services
- no longer received special education services (due to personal choice or declassification)
- moved, not known to continue
- moved, known to continue his or her education elsewhere
- student died

(The U.S. Department of Education, Twenty-third Annual Report to Congress on Special Education, 2002; Office of Special Education Programs, Data Analysis System (DANS) 2004).

2. *Declassified Status*: Students identified, at one time, to have a disability that required special education services, who return full time to general education programs because they no longer need those services. Reportedly, 4% to 8.6% of the special education student population is declassified annually. Students declassified most frequently are those receiving services for speech and language, a learning disability, or an emotional and behavioral disorder (Carlson & Parshall, 1996).

3. *Emotional and Behavioral Disorder (E/BD) or Behavior Disorder (BD)*. E/BD and BD are acronyms used as an interchangeable label given to students of the following qualities: A condition exhibiting one or more of the following characteristics over an extended period of time and to a marked degree, that adversely affects a child's educational performance:

- An inability to learn that cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory, or health factors.
- An inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers.
- Inappropriate types of behavior or feeling under normal circumstances.
- A general pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression.
- A tendency to develop physical symptoms or fears associated with personal or school problems.

(The U.S. Department of Education, Twentieth Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of IDEA, p. 11-46).

Note: E/BD is the professionally appropriate term to use when speaking of students with emotional or behavioral disorders.

4. *Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA)*: The U.S. federal law enacted to guarantee all children and students with disabilities the right to an appropriate education. IDEA explicitly defines special education to ensure each student with a disability is offered and provided (1) a free and appropriate public education (2) delivered in the least restrictive environment, including (3) an appropriate assessment and evaluation, (4) an individualized education plan (IEP), (5) parent and student participation, and (6) due process and procedural safeguards (PL 101-467; PL 105-17; PL 108-446; U.S. Department of Education, 1998; Wright, 2004; Yell, 1998).
5. *Individuals with Disabilities Education [Improvement] Act (IDEA, 2004)* is intended to help children with disabilities achieve high standards—by promoting accountability for results, enhancing parental involvement, and using proven practices and materials; and, also, by providing more flexibility and reducing paperwork burdens for teachers, states, and local school districts. IDEA 2004 is a U.S. federal law (reauthorizing IDEA – 97) “enacted to guarantee all children and students with disabilities the right to an appropriate public education that—(1) is of high quality, and (2) is designed to achieve high standards reflected in the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) and its implementing regulations” (No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, Public Law U.S.C. 6301, 2001; Wright, 2005). www.wrightslaw.com/idea/law.htm
6. *Individualized Education Plan (IEP)*: A written statement, developed, reviewed, and revised not less than once annually, for each identified student. The IEP describes the student’s educational needs and the methods/approaches proposed to address his or her needs (Special Education Process Handbook, July 2000).

7. *Life Skills (LS)*: Skills deemed necessary for a student to function as an independent adult, generally assessed and addressed specifically with students with disabilities through special education services. LS may include, but are not limited to, the following areas: career education, vocational skills instruction, housing, transportation, health, finances, leisure activities, postsecondary education, marriage and family success, friends and associates, and general citizenship (Cullinan, 2002).
8. *Self Determination*: An individual's choice-making action(s), free from external influence or interference that allows the individual to respond to situations as the primary causal agent in his or her life (Wehmeyer, et al., 2003). A person's inner drive to determine and respond to his or her own thoughts, feelings, behaviors, and choices regarding life events. The internal motivation and self-awareness that encourages a person to define and achieve personal goals based on interests, preferences, values, and needs (Field & Hoffman, 1994; Ward, 1988).
9. *Transition*: "Transition refers to a change in status from behaving primarily as a student to assuming emergent adult roles in the community. These roles include employment, participating in post-secondary education, maintaining a home, becoming appropriately involved in the community, and experiencing satisfactory personal-social relationships. The process of enhancing transition involves the participation and coordination of school programs, adult agency services, and natural supports within the community. The foundations for transition should be laid during the elementary and middle school years, guided by the broad concept of career development. Transition planning should begin no later than age 14, and students should be encouraged, to the full extent of their capabilities, to assume a maximum amount of responsibility for such planning"(Division on Career Development and Transition of the Council for Exceptional Children (DCDT-CEC), framed by Halpern, p. 117 (1994)).
10. *Transition Services*: The coordinated set of activities developed to meet the needs of the individual student, designed within an outcome-oriented process, that promote

movement from school to post-school activities such as postsecondary education, vocational training, [and] integrated employment. The services may include supported employment, continuing and adult education, adult services, independent living, and community participation (IDEA Regulations, 34 CFR § 300.29 et seq., Special Education Process Handbook, 2000, p. 4-26).

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Transition education has evolved from the work of many individuals and agencies seeking human equality for all U.S. citizens. This chapter will begin with a description of the legislative history (1917 to present) leading to current transition education practices. Second, the chapter will identify and describe models within the two most prominent domains in transition education instruction, life skills, and self-determination skills. Third, the chapter will conclude with a description of the personal characteristics and post-school outcomes of students with emotional and behavioral disorders.

Section I: Legislative History of Transition Education

Transition education evolved in response to a culmination of human service efforts supported through federal initiatives and regulations to address the personal, social, and occupational needs of persons oppressed educationally or occupationally due to disability or lack of training. Civil rights activists sought fair and equal treatment of all U.S. citizens in the areas of vocational education, vocational rehabilitation, and special education (Flexer, et al., 2001b). The federal government attempted to meet these needs through various legislative acts and amendments dating from the 1950s to present.

The federal government supported the efforts of several vocational and occupational training initiatives. The initiatives were to address equal treatment and employment opportunities of citizens based on their ability or disability. Legislation surrounding the Civil Rights Amendments of the 1960's was instrumental in providing the foundation for change within the following five major categories: vocational education, vocational rehabilitation, special education, employment services, and services for persons with mental retardation or developmental disabilities. The resulting amendments sought to reduce the number of unskilled, unemployed, and underemployed U.S. citizens. Each amendment sought to improve the quality of life of individuals with disabilities while providing equal opportunity and access to public facilities, regardless of race, ethnicity, minority, or disability status (Rusch & Chadsey, 1998).

The terms transition education and vocational education, though often used interchangeably by teaching professionals, parents of students with disabilities, and agency workers preparing persons with disabilities for post-school life, are qualitatively different. Transition education is a broad term that involves teaching students to assume emergent adult roles in the community. These roles include obtaining employment, participating in post-secondary education, maintaining a home, becoming appropriately involved in the community, and experiencing satisfactory personal-social relationships (Sitlington, et al., 2000). Vocational education, though often addressed within transition education programs, refers specifically to the instruction provided to prepare the individual (regardless of disability or school status) for successful employment (Flexer, et al., 2001b).

Legislation addressing transition education and vocational training sought to provide persons with disabilities both the privilege and responsibility of living in society free from undue interference and guidance (Rusch & Chadsey, 1998). Transition education was one avenue through which the federal government sought to address the needs of disabled, unemployed, and underemployed citizens (Brolin & Loyd, 2004). Programs developed sought to improve the skill acquisition and employment opportunities of citizens with disabilities, thereby allowing them to become contributing members of society while encouraging them to develop personal identity, autonomy, and independent living status (Wehmeyer, Palmer, Agran, Mithaug, and Martin, 2000b). A summation of legislation leading to vocational training and transition education for persons with disabilities follows.

- 1917 P.L. 63-347** Smith-Hughes Act: Provided rehabilitation to disabled war veterans.
- 1920 P. L. 66-236** Smith-Fess Act: Offered vocational training to those injured while working civil service jobs.
- 1943 P.L. 77-113** Barden-LaFollete Act: Provided vocational training and retraining to government workers.
- 1954 P.L. 83-565** Vocational Rehabilitation Amendments to Barden-LaFollete Act (VRA): Provided seed monies for states to develop and expand both vocational and rehabilitation programs. Research

and professional training options (i.e., work-study, sheltered workshops, and job placement services) became available to qualified persons.

- 1963 P. L. 88-210** Vocational Education Act (VEA): Funding for programs that would provide vocational and occupational education was provided to all persons.
- 1965 P.L. 89-313** Amendments to Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA): Provided support for education of children with disabilities in state-operated schools and hospitals.
- 1966 P.L. 89-750** Amendments to ESEA: Changed the focus of grants from state-operated schools and hospitals to local schools. Required state plans to address the needs and priorities of students with disabilities. Established the Bureau for Education of Handicapped Children “to administer federal authorities for the education of children with disabilities” (Flexer, et al, 2001b).
- 1968 P.L. 90-391** Vocational Rehabilitation Amendments: Provided federal funding to schools (up to 10% set-aside) to address vocational skills of students with disabilities.
- 1973 P.L. 93-112** Rehabilitation Act of 1973, Section 504: Provided individuals with handicapping conditions fair and equal access to all federally supported programs (Sitlington, et al., 2000).
- 1973 P.L. 93-203** Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA): Provided occupational skills training to unemployed citizens to alleviate high unemployment rates and decrease dependency on federal monies.
- 1975 P.L. 94-142** Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA): Provided for a free appropriate public education, individualized to meet the needs of students with disabilities. The IEP could include vocational and career objectives when deemed appropriate.
- 1976 P.L. 94-482** Vocational Education Amendments: Expanded vocational education to include all students and increased the funding set-aside for vocational education of students with disabilities to 20%.
- 1983 P.L. 98-199** Secondary Education and Transition Services for Handicapped Students, Section 626 (Reauthorization of IDEA): Federal funds were provided for the development of demonstration projects and transition models. Transition outcomes, specified

through legislative language, were provided. OSERS presented the Bridges transition model [Wills, 1983], which focused strictly on employment (Flexer, et al, 2001b).

- 1984 P.L. 98-524** Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act: Extended the Vocational Education Act of 1963 – Mandated that the IEP address the student’s transition needs within the least restrictive environment.
- 1988 P.L. 99-457** Secondary Education and Transitional Services for Students with Disabilities Programs (Amendment to P.L. 94-142, 1983, through OSERS): Implementation of a self-determination initiative to provide people with disabilities with more input in the decisions that affect their lives (Grigal, Neubert, Moon, & Graham, 2003; Ward, 1991).
- 1990 P.L. 101-336** Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA): Legislation prohibiting discrimination of persons with disabilities within the areas of private employment, transportation, telecommunications, and public accommodation and services. Sought an improved quality-of-life for individuals with disabilities (Test, Mason, Hughes, Konrad, Neale, & Wood, 2004).
- 1990 P.L. 101-476** Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA): Added the transition requirement to the IEP, to assess and address transition needs as early as age 14, but no later than 16. Required direct student involvement and agency collaboration in setting goals that focused on the student’s adult adjustment preparation needs (Brolin & Loyd, 2004).
- 1990 P.L. 101-392** Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Education Act Amendments of 1990 (Perkins II): Created to help fulfill provisions to IDEA; transition needs addressed no later than 9th grade and goals and objectives to be monitored through the IEP and the Individualized Vocational Education Plan. Established appeal procedures for all persons affected by the Act (Brolin & Loyd, 2004).
- 1992 P.L. 102-569** Rehabilitation Act Amendments: Focused on supporting the needs of the individual based on their strengths, rather than deficits. Sought community participation and full-inclusion in school programming with non-disabled peers. Sought to increase the use of self-determination skills (i.e., making meaningful, informed choices with the assistance of natural support systems comprised of family and community members). Sought to align the language of the amendment with that of IDEA.

- 1994 P.L. 103-227** Goals 2000 Educate America Act of 1994: Promoted vocational and technical competency for all secondary students. Sought to increase literacy, decrease dropout rates, and assist students to transition smoothly into the world of work (Brolin & Loyd, 2004).
- 1994 P.L. 103-239** School-to-Work Opportunities Act: Integrated school-based and work-based learning, academic and vocational education, and linked secondary and postsecondary education in an effort to lead all students to a high school diploma, a skill certificate, or further skill training (Flexer, et al, 2001a).
- 1997 P.L. 105-17** Reauthorization of IDEA: Focused on enhancing self-determination of students and their family members. Required student participation, beginning at age 14, in goal identification and planning. Results based on post-school outcomes and the use of research-based instruction. Sought to increase the flexibility of state and local education agencies to fund programs for students with disabilities.
- 1998 P.L. 105-332** Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Education Act (Perkins III): Included vocational education provisions for students with special learning or behavior needs (Sitlington, Clark, & Kolstoe, 2000).
- 2001 P.L. 107-110** No Child Left Behind (NCLB): Amendment to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. Sought to close the achievement gap between disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged students while providing accountability for programming and instruction within U.S. public schools (20 USC 6301 et seq.). Title I: All students would receive instruction and evaluation of progress based on district and building goals and benchmarks. Focused on indicating teacher proficiency and adequate yearly progress of each school system (Brolin & Loyd, 2004; No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, Public Law U.S.C. 6301, 2001).
- 2004 P.L. 108-446** Individuals with Disabilities Education [Improvement] Act of 2004: Reauthorization of IDEA: The IEP must include a “statement of transition service needs” on or before age 16. Goals and objectives were to address the student’s post-secondary aspirations through instruction, skills training, and employment opportunities (§614(d) (l) (A) (i) (VIII) (aa)).

The Vocational Rehabilitation Amendments (VRA) of 1954 (P.L. 83-565), the Vocational Education Act (VEA) of 1963 (P.L. 88-210), the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) of 1973 (P.L. 93-203), and the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1990 (P.L. 101-336) were designed to fund research and develop programs to teach vocational skills that would allow all persons the opportunity to attain a desirable quality of life (Brolin & Loyd, 2004; Flexer, et al, 2001a). Among the forces driving this legislation was the desire to alleviate high unemployment rates (and therefore, the dependency rate) of unskilled students and adults (Rusch & Chadsey, 1998).

The Education for all Handicapped Children Act, 1975, (P.L. 94-142) provided educational equality to students with disabilities by ensuring a free, appropriate public education (FAPE), individualized to meet the unique needs of the students (KAR 91-40-17(h)). Students with cognitive disabilities, served under the special education umbrella, received vocational and occupational instruction based exclusively on the recommendations of those in charge of implementing their IEP (Rusch & Chadsey, 1998; Yell, 1998). If team members deemed transition instruction necessary for the success of the individual, they selected and developed appropriate methodologies to address the student's needs. Students with a learning disability and an emotional and behavioral disorder were not the focus of transition instruction until 1983 (Brolin & Loyd, 2004).

Vocational and transition-related instruction generally focused on providing students with employment and daily living skills for successful community living (Flexer, et al., 2001b). Work-study programs represent one approach schools took to address the transition needs of students with disabilities while ensuring FAPE.

The 1983 amendments to IDEA (entitled the Secondary Education and Transition Services for Handicapped Youth Act) supported the development of demonstration projects and transition models. This legislation did not mandate transition instruction or the inclusion of transition within the IEP of students with disabilities, but provided funding for projects that would promote the practice of transition education (Rusch & Chadsey, 1998; Sitlington, et al., 2000).

The Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Technical Education Act (V-TEA, 1984) extended the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1963. The V-TEA recommended the

inclusion of vocational and career objectives within each student's IEP. The career objectives were to guide teachers and other service providers toward meeting the needs of the individual student. Further, it recommended that students with disabilities receive a vocational assessment, counseling, support, and transition services. The V-TEA, though acknowledged by many state and local education agencies, did not designate nor allocate funding based on compliance and was not consistently enforced (Rusch & Chadsey, 1998).

The federal transition education initiative promoted competitive Transition from School-to-Work Project grants (section 311 of P.L. 93-112 (1973)) through the Rehabilitation Services Administration. This funding encouraged the creation of comprehensive rehabilitation projects to improve services for persons with severe disabilities that would promote optimal vocational adjustment (Martin, Van Dycke, Greene, Gardner, Christensen, & Woods, 2006; Rusch, Kohler, & Hughes, 1992). Additional transition-related funding, provided through OSERS (1991), supported a series of 5-year state systems-change programs focusing on the successful transition of students with disabilities from school to adult life and community participation (Norman & Bourexis, 1995 as cited in Brolin & Loyd, 2004).

OSERS, through the Secondary Education and Transitional Service for Youth with Disabilities Program (1988), implemented a self-determination initiative that allowed persons with disabilities more input in the decisions that affect their lives (Grigal, et al., 2003; Ward, 1991). This initiative led to the development of self-determination instruments, programs, and curricula that remain in use today. The initiative focused on empowering people with disabilities to make decisions, take responsibility for their choices, and participate fully in the activities that affect the quality of life they experience (Grigal, et al., 2003; Wehmeyer, 1999).

Amendments to IDEA (1990) were developed in response to outcomes provided through federally funded research of the 1980s. The findings indicated that young adults with disabilities were experiencing poor post-school outcomes (Armstrong, et al., 2003; Benz, et al., 1997; Field, et al., 1998a; Flexer & Baer, 2005; Ward and Kohler, 1996). These students, upon exiting school (regardless of graduation status), experienced high levels of unemployment, poor community adjustment, poor interpersonal communication

skills and social relations, and lacked appropriate independent living and employment skills (Blackorby & Wagner, 1996; Field & Hoffman, 1994, Field, et al., 1998a; Flexer & Baer, 2005; Kohler, 1998; Wagner, et al., 1992).

IDEA 1990 mandated that all students with special education services receive transition services based on the identification of their strengths and needs as reported in the IEP (Rusch & Chadsey, 1998). This legislation emphasized the need for active student participation in the IEP process (Morningstar, Kleinhammer-Tramill, & Lattin, 1999; Turnbull, R., Turnbull, A., Wehmeyer, M., & Park, J., 2003). It required the use of inclusion among all students with disabilities with age-appropriate peers in the general education setting to the extent possible for the individual (Cheney & Muscott, 1996; Mithaug, et al., 2003). IDEA 1990 sought to prepare students to live productive lives to their maximum capacity (20 U.S.C. §1400(c) (5) (E) (ii)).

The ADA (1990) supported the goals of IDEA (1990) by encouraging full participation of the client in the process of setting goals to address his or her post-school desires (Test, et al., 2004; Wehman, 1993; Yell, 1998). The wording used in ADA legislation is as follows:

“Disability is a natural part of the human experience and in no way diminishes the right of an individual to (a) live independently; (b) enjoy self-determination; (c) make choices; (d) contribute to society; (e) pursue a meaningful career; and (f) enjoy full inclusion and integration in the economic, political, social cultural, and educational mainstream of American society.”

The focus of IDEA 1990 (P.L. 101-476), ADA 1990 (P.L. 101-336), and the Rehabilitation Act Amendments of 1992 (P.L. 102-569) was to empower persons with disabilities, improve their quality-of-life outcomes, and increase their use of self-determined behaviors (Abery, Rudrud, Arndt, Schauben, & Eggebeen, 1995; Algozzine, et al, 2001; Test, et al., 2004). Each of these legislative amendments worked to omit the deficit-driven approach of serving persons with disabilities based on their needs (i.e., deficits) and replaced it with a strengths-based approach, which remains in effect to date. The strengths-based approach capitalizes on the abilities of the individual and seeks to

find ways that each person can contribute to society in a meaningful way (Armstrong, et al., 2003; Grigal, et al., 2003; Kauffman, 2001; Snyder & Shapiro, 1997; Wehmeyer, Agran, & Hughes, 1998).

In 1994, the Division on Career Development and Transition of the Council for Exceptional Children (DCDT-CEC) accepted a new definition of transition (Halpern, 1994). Halpern's definition is as follows:

“Transition refers to a change in status from behaving primarily as a student to assuming emergent adult roles in the community. These roles include employment, participating in post-secondary education, maintaining a home, becoming appropriately involved in the community, and experiencing satisfactory personal-social relationships. The process of enhancing transition involves the participation and coordination of school programs, adult agency services, and natural supports within the community. The foundations for transition should be laid during the elementary and middle school years, guided by the broad concept of career development. Transition planning should begin no later than age 14, and students should be encouraged, to the extent of their capabilities, to assume a maximum amount of responsibility for such planning” (p. 117).

The School-to-Work Opportunity Act of 1994 expanded the focus of improving post-school outcomes of special education students to increasing the outcomes of all students, regardless of disability status (Rusch & Chadsey, 1998; Wehmeyer & Ward, 1995; Yell, 1998). The focus of this act was to increase the number of students who graduate from high school with marketable skills based on student-selected, district-approved, project-oriented curricula.

The “Final Regulations of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act” of 1997 (P.L. 105-17) required that the IEP of special education students age 14 to 21 include a transition plan outlining the instruction and services they will receive based on their individual needs (Cheney, 2004; Sitlington & Neubert, 2004). IDEA 1997 required active student participation in the IEP process (i.e., selection of goals and objectives within the IEP and transition plan). IEP goals and objectives were to take into account the stated needs, preferences, and interests of the student (IDEA Amendments of 1997 602[30] [B] [C]). As such, IDEA 1997 supported the enhancement of student self-

determination and student ownership of his or her education plan (Agran, et al., 1999; Grigal, et al, 2003; Snyder, 2002).

Presently, two key legislative acts, Goals 2000 Educate America Act (1994) and No Child Left Behind (NCLB, 2001) dictate the standards-based reform movement of the Regular Education Initiative in the American education system. Through these legislative acts, the academic progress of all students, regardless of disability status, is assessed utilizing one set of academic standards, selected by the building and district personnel, within specified, core subject areas (No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, Public Law U.S.C. 6301, 2001; Sitlington & Neubert, 2004). These acts sought to improve the post-school outcomes for all students. However, they do not address the importance of using research-based transition practices to meet the individual transition needs of students with disabilities (Katsiyannis & Yell, 2004; USDE, 2002).

Based on these acts, both general and special education teachers are mandated to address the specific academic and transition needs of each individual with a disability (IDEA), as well as to prepare all students to meet the national standards of proficiency for promotion or graduation (Agran, et al., 2000; Council for Exceptional Children, 2003; Eisenman, 2003; Sitlington & Neubert, 2004; Zhang, 2001). The requirement that students with disabilities participate in district and state assessments began in 1997 with the Reauthorization of IDEA: “Until the IDEA Amendments of 1997, students with disabilities were often excluded in the reform efforts” [of state and district assessments] (National Transition Network, 1997).

The standards of excellence, sought first in Goals 2000 followed by the NCLB legislation, appear to have taken precedence over, if not replaced, meeting the post-school needs of students with disabilities (Eisenman, 2001; 2003; Wehmeyer & Schalock, 2001). Special education advocates suggest that student success cannot be measured solely based on outcome-driven testing, but must focus equally on the most important goal of education: to teach students to live independently and to be productive (Sitlington & Neubert, 2004; Storms, O’Leary, & Williams, 2000; Turnbull, et al., 2003).

IDEA 2004 was developed with the intent of “helping children with disabilities achieve to high standards—by promoting accountability for results, enhancing parental involvement, and using proven practices and materials; and, also, by providing more

flexibility and reducing paperwork burdens for teachers, states, and local school districts. Enactment of the new law provided an opportunity to consider improvements in the current regulations that would strengthen the Federal effort to ensure every child with a disability had available a free appropriate public education that – (1) is of high quality, and (2) is designed to achieve the high standards reflected in the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) and its implementing regulations,” (No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, Public Law U.S.C. 6301, 2001; Wright, 2005).

Federal regulations of NCLB and IDEA 2004, though seeking similar outcomes, appear to diffuse several major goals historically sought through special education. The first goal, to provide an education based on the individual needs of the student. The second goal, to provide students with the skills necessary for making a smooth transition into the world of work and independent living (Mooney & Gunter, 2004; Sitlington & Neubert, 2004).

Rusch and Millar (within Brodin and Loyd, 2004) recommend close monitoring of special education programs. They contend that if those who lead educational policy and finance did not protect students with disabilities, those in charge of allocating state and federal monies would fund programs specifically for youth who are most likely to contribute to society rather than those with disabilities. They emphasize the importance of maintaining laws to provide for the individual needs of youth with disabilities (including transition-related instruction) despite the current push to monitor global student progress, as required through Goals 2000 and NCLB.

Variations exist between the federal IDEA and those imposed by the Kansas State Department of Education (KSDE-SSS). The federal transition mandates of IDEA (2004) provide less strenuous requirements than those of IDEA 1997. In general, federal regulations provide ‘minimum’ standards for state departments of education while allowing each to impose greater restrictions on their own citizenry.

Federal IDEA (2004) requires that a STSN be included within the IEP of any students beginning at age 16 rather than age 14, as was the requirement within IDEA 1990 and 1997. Kansas law maintains the requirement of providing the STSN on or before the student’s 14th birthday (KAR 91-40-17(b)) (1997).

Federal and Kansas law requires that the student be invited to actively participate in the IEP process and assist with the identification of appropriate, desirable goals based on their needs and desires. Both require that the IEP include “measurable post-secondary goals based upon age-appropriate transition assessments related to training, education, employment, and, where appropriate, independent living skills” (Test, et al., 2004). They each require that the transition portion of the IEP list any outside agencies or individuals responsible for ensuring that the plan is implemented appropriately (34 C.F.R. Part 300, Appendix A, Q. 11, Federal Register, March 12, 1999).

Both federal and Kansas law require a STSN be included within the transition portion of the IEP. Kansas adds the stipulation that the STSN formally outline the student’s course of study and that it refer to the student’s preferences, interests, and abilities through post-school goals, the intended coursework, and the educational experiences proposed (KSDE-SSS, 2004). Both require that written goals and objectives focus the team’s attention on ways to provide a meaningful, goal-directed education that motivates the student to complete school and to make a smooth transition to post-school life (34C.F.R. Part 300, Appendix A, Q.11, Federal Register March 12, 1999).

The following services may be considered when developing the transition plan: instruction, community experiences, employment, and other living objectives. According to both federal and Kansas law, the IEP must include goals and objectives that address the transition needs of the individual, along with a disclosure statement for services deemed inappropriate or unnecessary for the individual. The disclosure statement must indicate how the determination to omit services was made (IDEA, P.L. 101-476, and 34 CFR Section 300.18).

In 1995, the Kansas State Department of Education agreed to participate in the nationwide Transition Outcomes Program (TOP) sponsored by Ed O’Leary and the Mountain Plains Regional Resource Center [MPRRC] of which Kansas is a member (MPRRC, 2003). The MPRRC, an affiliate of the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, seeks to improve special education services provided at both the state and local level (O’Leary, 2006).

The focus of the project was to determine whether schools were effectively meeting IDEAs’ transition service requirements, and to improve graduation rates and

post-school outcomes of students with disabilities. The data-driven project model sought “to assist local schools to evaluate the effectiveness of providing and delivering transition services to students and families through the IEP process” (O’Leary, 2006).

Participation in the [Kansas] Transition Outcomes Project (KTOP) was voluntary for both KSDE and the special education cooperatives (N = 33). Data obtained through participation was incorporated into the Kansas State Performance Plan as a means of demonstrating Continuous Improvement Monitoring (KSDE, 2004). The MPRRC, with the support of KSDE, was able to assist cooperatives (and the districts they serve) to demonstrate Continuous Improvement Monitoring and evaluate employees and programs that provide services to address the needs of transition-aged students with disabilities (O’Leary, 2006).

Participating cooperatives provided the MPRRC with information regarding the IEPs developed for students in 1996 and 2002. The data was analyzed to determine the relative strengths and weaknesses of the IEPs prepared for these students. Feedback was provided to both the cooperating districts and the KSDE. Statewide data was then compiled, revealing several areas of concern. KSDE, with the assistance of a Statewide Improvement Grant, assisted special education cooperatives to address the concerns identified through the project (KSDE, 2004). Transition education was one of the major concerns identified. School districts were out of compliance with regard to transition regulations provided at the state and federal levels.

The MPRRC conducted a file review of the IEPs submitted from the 1996 school year. Several areas within transition instruction, among the participating districts, demonstrated a need for improvement. File reviews indicated 0% compliance within two areas of the written notification sent to students and parents regarding the upcoming IEP, a) notifying teachers that one of the purposes of the meeting would be to address transition planning and b) indicating that the student was invited to the meeting. File reviews of data obtained during the 2001-2002 school year (six years following the initial review) indicted an overall improvement in both areas to 38% and 44%, respectively (KTOP, 2005).

KTOP indicated 72% of the files reviewed did not include a STSN that specified a course of study during the school year of 2001-2002. There were also indications that

many professionals did not understand the statement of transition service needs, course of study, and appropriate documentation requirements for IEP's of students age 14 to 21. The needs identified were then listed within the State Performance Plan and monitored both by the participating cooperatives or districts and the KSDE (<http://www.kansped.org/ksde/research/spp/indicator.html>) (KSDE, SSS, 2005).

Graduation rates of students with disabilities were also a concern identified through KTOP (KTOP, 2005). The number of students with disabilities who drop out in the state of Kansas is comparable to the national average (4.2% and 4.1%, respectively) (<http://www.kansped.org/ksde/research/spp/indicator.html>). The number of students with disabilities who graduate high school, however, is reportedly much higher than the national average (80.6% and 63.5%, respectively).

The number of dropouts in the state increase steadily following students 16th birthday. One possible explanation for this occurrence may be that Kansas law currently allows students 16 and above, with proper parental agreement and the completion of specific paperwork, to drop out following their 16th birthday.

According to KSDE, participation in KTOP was beneficial to professionals across the state. The KSDE was encouraged by the improvements that occurred statewide since the inception of KTOP (1995). Many cooperatives were able to self-evaluate, adapt current practices, address the identified needs within their service provisions, and develop appropriate goals to serve the needs of transition-aged students, with the assistance provided through the project (KSDE, 2004).

The 2004 amendments to IDEA and changes pending current legislation have halted the project until further notice. Many participating cooperatives had not met the compliance goals they set with regard to transition prior to the project ending. However, when the project resumes (or perhaps changes to meet new legislative mandates) cooperatives will again have the opportunity to participate. Results obtained within the first several years of operation were deemed beneficial by the (KSDE-SSS, 2004).

To summarize, transition education prepares students with disabilities for the adult roles of employment, community living, independent living, post-secondary education, and appropriate personal relationships. Transition education, though addressed and recommended for the past fifty years within various legislative acts, was

first mandated for all students with disabilities age 14 to 21 with the passage of IDEA in 1990.

The federal government became an advocate for transition and vocational instruction in the 1980s is when they realized that the post-school outcomes of students with disabilities had not improved markedly since the inception of special education via PL 94-142 (1975). Students with disabilities were failing to graduate high school, to gain independent living status, and to obtain and maintain employment. As such, students with disabilities represented a large portion of the citizenry dependent upon the federal government for sustenance.

Current transition education requirements, though guided by federal mandate, are specific to the state in which the services are provided. Kansas, for example, has imposed a more restrictive age requirement for transition instruction to begin and has specified that the transition plan outline the student's post-school career goals.

The KSDE has sought to identify statewide strengths and needs within the area of transition education practices (as required through the State Performance Plan and Continuous Improvement Monitoring). They have also voluntarily participated in innovative groups such as KTOP, designed to assist service providers to identify the strengths and needs present as well as to assist with the development of a manageable plan through which teachers can improve program service provisions.

Section II: Transition Education Historical Research and Models

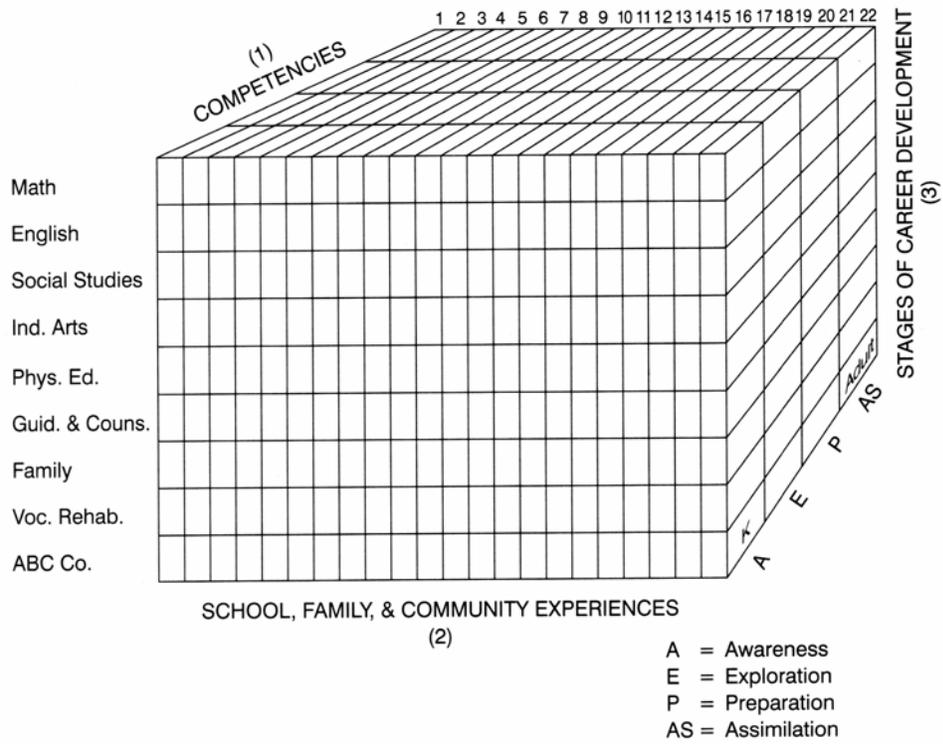
Two distinct, yet overlapping domains of transition instruction have proven effective in meeting the needs of students with disabilities: [functional] life skills and self-determination skills.

Life Skills

Functional life skills are the basic behaviors required for adult adjustment and daily existence. The instructional areas often addressed within a functional life skills program may include, but are not limited to domestic, community, vocational, personal skills, certain academic skills, and recreation and leisure (Flexer, et al., 2001a). A person's ability to demonstrate functional life skills often depends on the amount of exposure and practice he or she has had regarding the skill. According to Clark (1994), "A functional life skills curriculum approach has no restrictions regarding the type or location of instructional delivery."

Donn Brolin, an educator and researcher, dedicated his life-long studies to developing and testing the effectiveness of teaching functional life skills to students with disabilities. In 1974, he published his first of many transition modules and curricular guides for instructors of students with physical and mental handicaps. His Life-Centered Career Education model (1997) provided a rubric of skills and competencies to be used in an endless number of combinations, to encourage the infusion of career education into all facets of the curriculum (see Figure 1) (Brolin, 1997).

Figure 1. Life-Centered Career Education (LCCE)



Source: *Life Centered Career Education: A Competency-Based Approach* (5th ed., pp. 12-13) by D.E. Brolin, 1997, Arlington, VA: The Council for Exceptional Children. Copyright 1997 by the Council for Exceptional Children.

The timeless concepts he promoted involved teaching daily living skills, personal-social skills, employment-related skills preparation, and occupational guidance (Brolin & Loyd, 2004). The functional life skills addressed within the model include academic and related skills critical for successful independent living, social communication, leisure and recreation, and vocational or occupational skill development (see Appendix C) (Rusch & Chadsey, 1998). Each of the skills can be incorporated into one of the following life domains:

1. Daily Living Skills

- Managing personal finances
- Selecting and managing a household
- Raising children & meeting marriage responsibilities

- Buying, preparing, and consuming food
- Buying and caring for clothing
- Exhibiting responsible citizenship
- Utilizing recreational facilities & engaging in leisure
- Getting around in the community

2. Personal-Social Skills

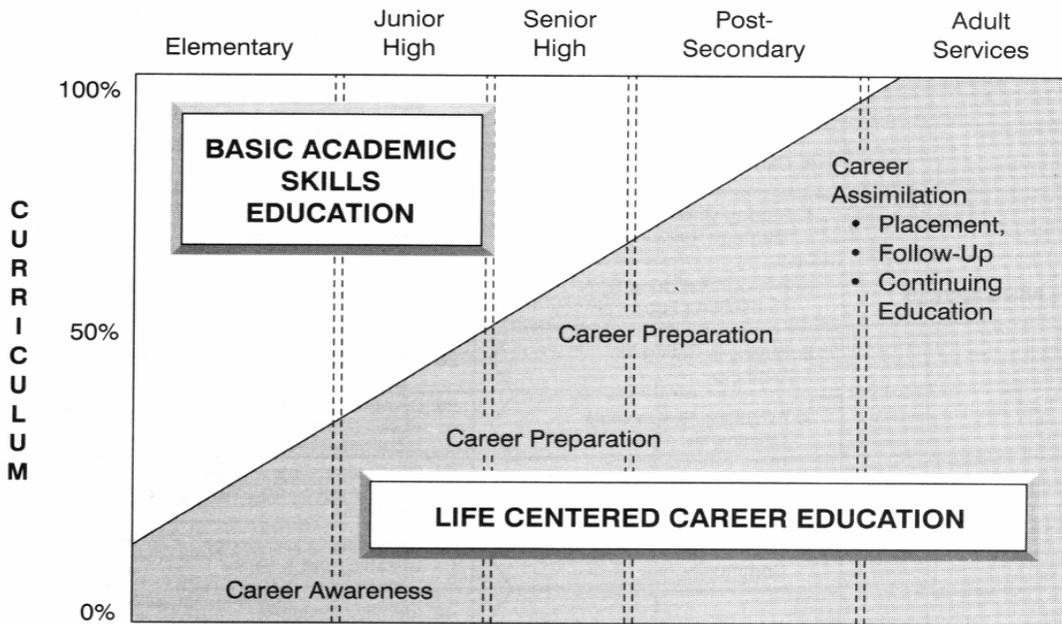
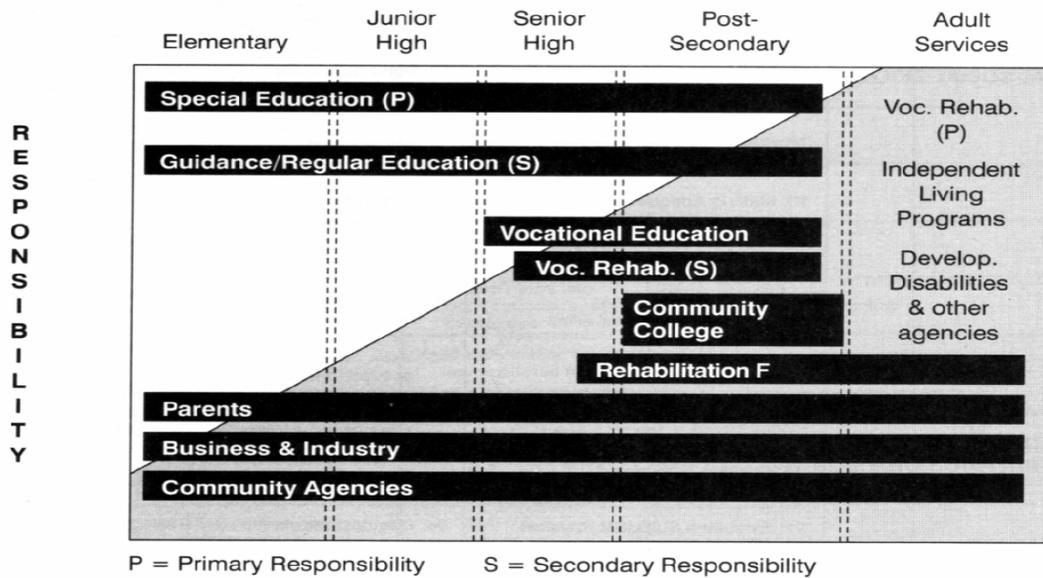
- Achieving self awareness
- Acquiring self confidence
- Achieving socially responsible behavior
- Maintaining good interpersonal skills
- Achieving independence
- Making adequate decisions
- Communicating with others

3. Occupational Guidance and Preparation

- Knowing and exploring occupational choices
- Selecting and planning occupational choices
- Exhibiting appropriate work habits and behavior
- Seeking, securing & maintaining employment
- Exhibiting sufficient physical/manual skills
- Obtaining specific occupational skills

Brolin's life work ended with the fourth and final edition of the life skills curriculum entitled Life Centered Career Education Competencies for Mild and Moderate Disabilities (LCCE) (Brolin & Loyd, 2004). Within the LCCE, he and Loyd identified (with the assistance and opinions of school personnel) 22 competencies and 97 sub-competencies reflective of skills required for successful living and working. Figure 2 provides a visual guide to the distribution of roles and responsibilities of the various service providers assisting in the transition process throughout the lives of students with disabilities.

Figure 2. Life Centered Career Education

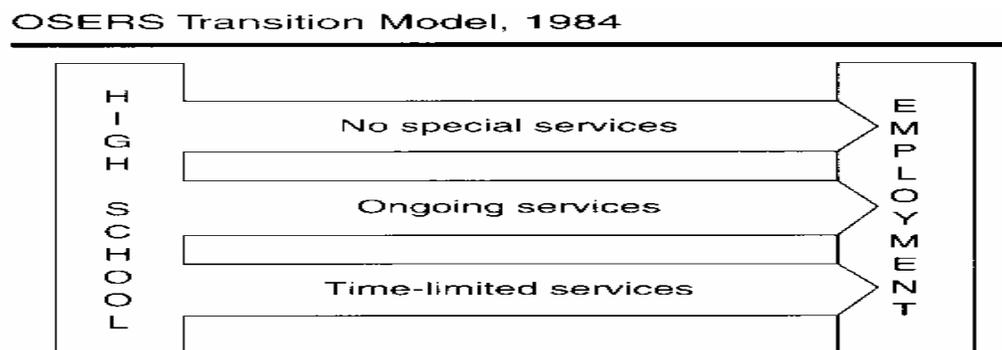


Note. From Life Centered Career Education Professional Development Activity Book (p. 43) by The Council for Exceptional Children, 1993. Arlington, VA: The Council for Exceptional Children. Copyright 1993 by The Council for Exceptional Children.

The focal point of a student entering elementary school is basic academic skill acquisition laced with information to increase the student’s level of career awareness. At the high school level (and, throughout adulthood) the focal point is career preparation and assimilation laced with basic academic skills education.

The Bridges from School to Working Life model (see Figure 3) developed in 1984 through the OSEP of USDE demonstrated and emphasized the importance of improving adult outcomes and living objectives (Cheney, 2004; Hughes & Eisenman, 1996; Sitlington, et al., 2000; Wills, 1984). OSEP defined transition as “an outcome-oriented process encompassing a broad array of services and experiences that lead to employment” (Will, 1984). The model focused strictly on meeting the employment needs of adults with disabilities regarding adjustment and service provision (Brolin & Loyd, 2004).

Figure 3. OSERS Transition Model, 1984



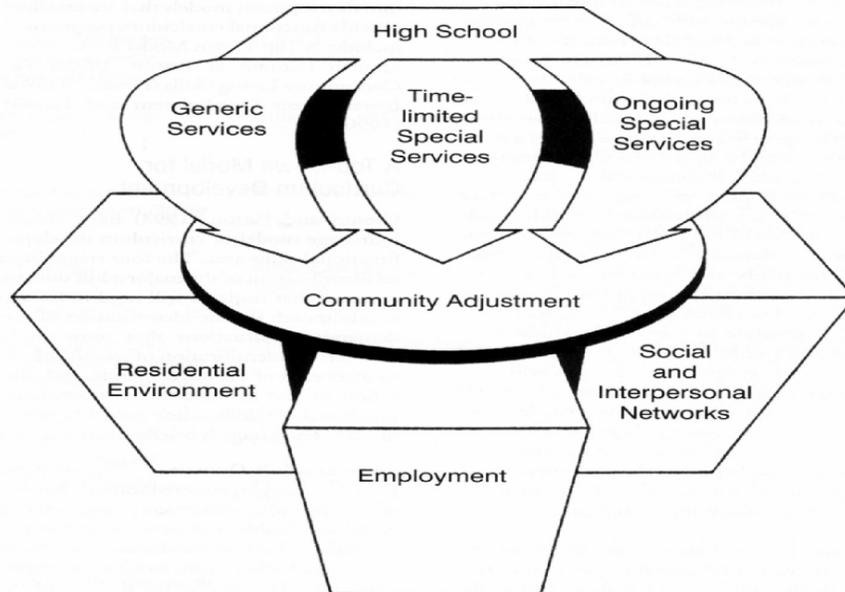
Source: From OSERS programming for the transition of youth with disabilities: Bridges from school to working life, by M. Will, 1984, U.S. Office of Education.

OSERS identified a continuum of three levels of service to ensure the success of the individual transitioning from school to the world of work based on his or her needs and abilities, 1) no special education services needed, 2) time-limited services, and 3) ongoing services. The model recommended evaluating the client to determine the appropriate level of services necessary for the development of employment skills, while maintaining the personal identity and dignity of the client.

Conversely, Halpern’s model (see Figure 4) suggests that transition is not only a period of change and movement from school to the adult world of work but that it must

consider the full-scope of the human being making this change from school to community living.

Figure 4. Transition: A look at the foundations



Source: Transition a look at the foundations, by A.S. Halpern, *Exceptional Children*, 51(6), 1985, p.481. Copyright (1985) by the Council for Exceptional Children.

Halpern (1985) expanded the vision presented by the Bridges model to include the following requirements critical for successful transition programs:

- Team members must explore all possible solutions to meet student needs
- Commitment of all who are invested in the success of the person
- Expanded interagency linkages
- Sharing ideas and strategies among agencies
- Favorable community atmosphere toward the students and their employment
- Decreased duplication and overlapping of services
- Efficient referral system, sending students directly to the most appropriate agencies

Halpern's model addressed transition from the global perspective of preparing persons with disabilities to transition from school to the world of work and independent living (Sitlington, et al., 2000). Halpern recommended that transition education focus on

the residential, personal-social, and employment needs of the individual. His approach focused on the system-of-care model, currently utilized within the fields of rehabilitation, education, and mental health to provide an effective means of meeting the needs of the individual while enlisting the investment and commitment of all persons responsible for the student's success (Flexer, et al., 2001b).

Halpern identifies three Quality of Life Domains that express the system-of-care model of service delivery to persons with disabilities: a) Physical and material well-being, b) performance of adult roles, and c) personal fulfillment (Sitlington, 1996). Halpern later assisted in the development of the Next STEP Student Transition and Educational Planning transition skills inventory and curricula (Halpern, Herr, Wolf, Doren, Johnson, & Lawson, 1997). The following is a list of the major concepts found within the Next STEP curricula. This skills inventory, similar to Brolin's LCCE rubric, focuses on four life domains: the person's personal life, jobs, education and training, and living on your own (Halpern, et al., 1997).

Next STEP Student Transition Skills Inventory (TSI)

1. Personal Life --

- Communicating with other people
- Relating to authorities
- Relating to peers
- Responsibility
- Solving problems
- Controlling your anger
- Leisure activities

2. Jobs --

- Knowing about jobs
- Finding a job
- Skills on the job

3. Education and Training --

- Reading
- Writing
- Math

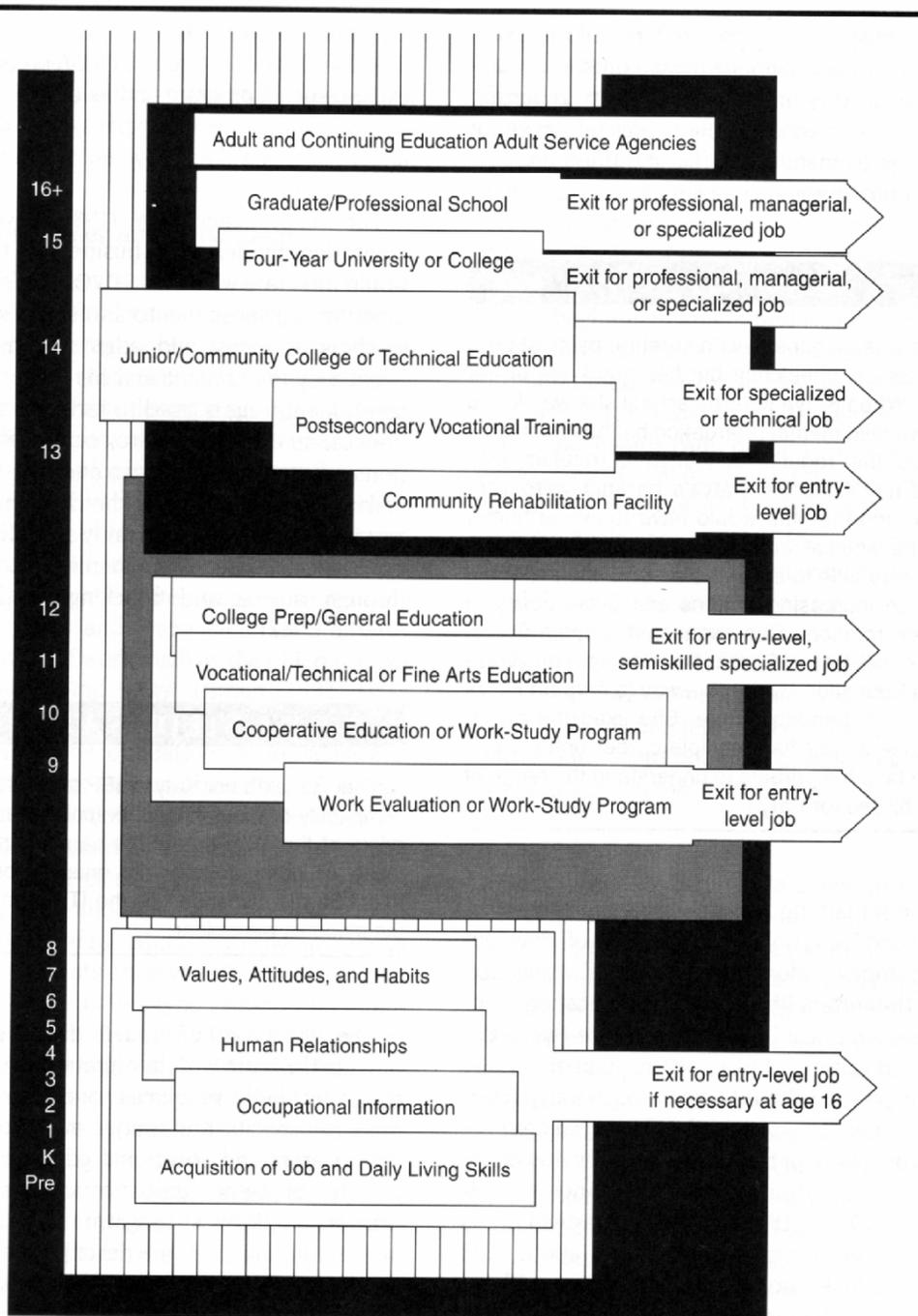
4. Living on your own --

- Self-Care
- Nutrition and fitness
- Money-management
- Home management
- Leisure activities
- Personal safety

Similarly, Salomone (1996) suggested addressing the transition needs of students with disabilities from a global perspective. He identified five stages to career development through which to evaluate the growth of the individual student, based on the students understanding of 1) self, 2) the world of work and other relevant environments, 3) the decision-making process, 4) implementation of career and educational decisions, and 5) ways to adjust and adapt to the world of work and school.

The functional life skill models developed from 1980 to present emphasize teaching persons with disabilities to use social skills that will enhance their ability to get along with others and function in a socially acceptable manner. Clark (1991, within Flexer, et al., 2001b) describes functional life-skills curriculum as “the instructional content that focuses on the concepts and skills youth need in the areas of personal-social, daily living, and occupational adjustment.” Clark’s School-Based Career Development and Transition Education Model for Adolescents with Disabilities, 1995, (see Figure 5), includes a wide range of skills through which to address the full spectrum of needs of students with disabilities. The model includes a continuum of skills ranging from those appropriate for use with severe and profound disabilities (i.e., self-help skills) to those with either a mild disability or no disability (i.e., independent living skills required of a college-bound students) (Clark & Kolstoe, 1995, within Flexer, et al., 2001b).

Figure 5. A School-Based Career Development and Transition Education Model for Adolescents with Disabilities



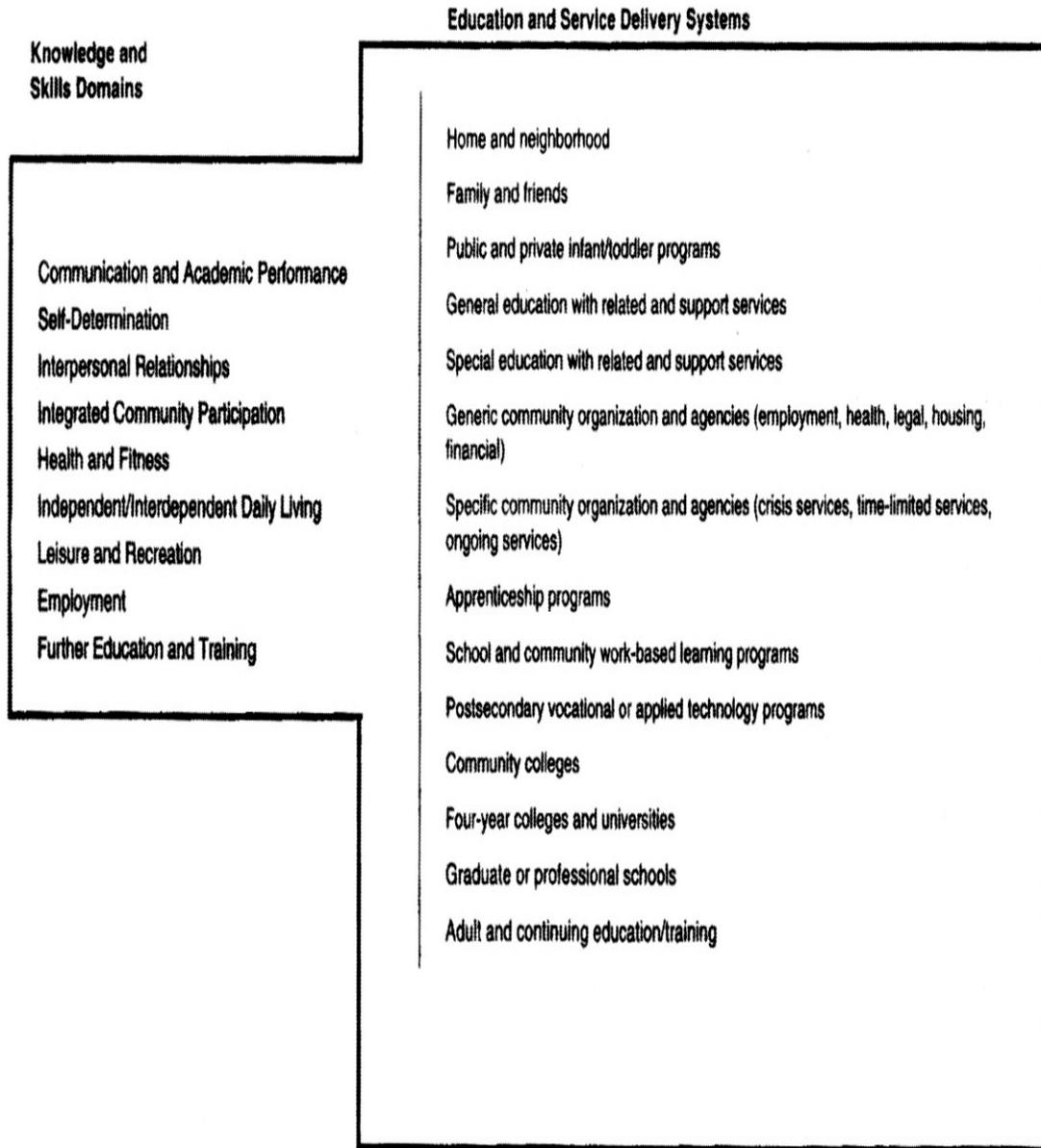
Source: From Clark, G.M., & Kolstoe, O.P. (1995). *Career development and transition education*. Allyn & Bacon Publishing Co.

Studies conducted during the 1970's and 1980's sought to determine the efficacy of teaching transition-related skills to students with disabilities due to their continued poor post-school outcomes. Research of the 1980s sought to identify transition-related teacher practices that yielded positive, independent, adult outcomes for youth with disabilities (Cheney & Muscott, 1996). One prominent theme within transition research was the identification of services that would span the entire life of the individual as demonstrated in the model provided by Clark & Kolstoe (1995). The skills and needs of the individual were taken into consideration, as was his or her ability to function independently and live a satisfying life (i.e., to possess self-determination) (Clark & Kolstoe, 1995; Halpern, et al., 1997; Field, Martin, Miller, Ward, & Wehmeyer, 1998a; Morningstar, 1997).

Life skills instruction has evolved from addressing mostly employment and independent living skills to addressing the student's ability to get along with others, set personal goals, and advocate for his or her personal needs. In this way, LS is very similar to the second domain of transition instruction, self-determination (SDS). Both LS and SDS emphasize the ability of the student to function independently within the community and society by enhancing the student's competence to assume responsibility for his or her life actions (Cheney, 2004). Both also emphasize the importance of attaining a positive quality of life marked by emotional, physical, and material well-being, positive social relationships and social inclusion, and personal development with an awareness and understanding of personal rights (Brolin & Loyd, 2004).

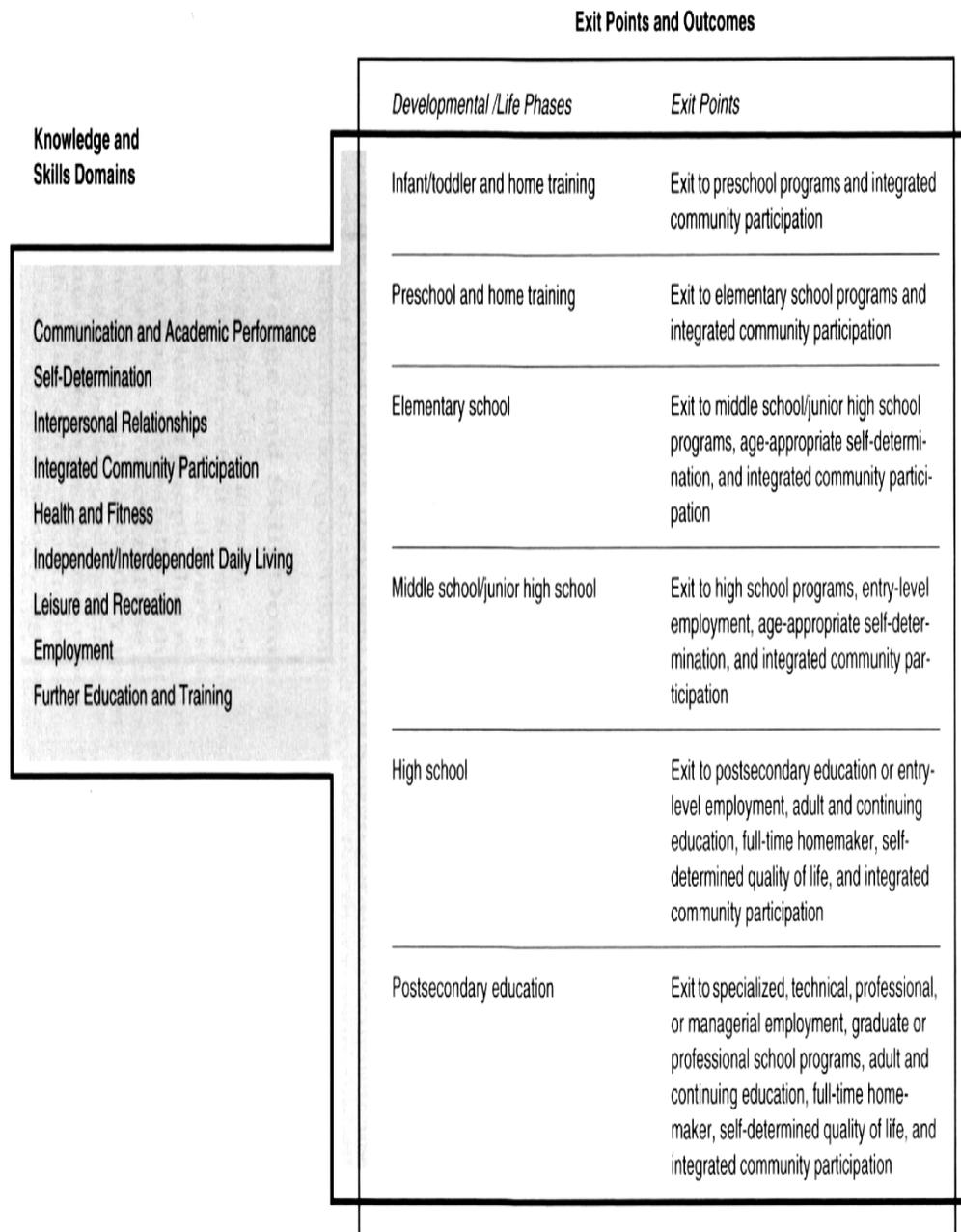
The Comprehensive Transition Services Model: A School-Based Career Development and Transition Education Model for Adolescents with Disabilities, provides one example of how life skills instruction and self-determination skills instruction are being combined to address the global transition needs of students with disabilities (Sitlington, Clark, & Kolstoe, 2000). The model demonstrates the trend of the 1990's toward acknowledging the benefit of including services from agencies other than the school and incorporates their role into the transition process in an effort to meet the student's needs. The model is divided into skill areas that are essential for creating age-appropriate transition instruction (see Figures 6.1 & 6.2).

Figure 6.1. Comprehensive Transition Services Model: A School-Based Career Development and Transition Education Model for Adolescents with Disabilities



Note: *From Transition Education and Services for Adolescents with Disabilities, Third Edition by P. Sitlington, G.M. Clark, & O.P. Kolstoe, Boston: Allyn & Bacon. Copyright 2000 by Pearson Education.*

Figure 6.2. Comprehensive Transition Services Model: A School-Based Career Development and Transition Education Model for Adolescents with Disabilities



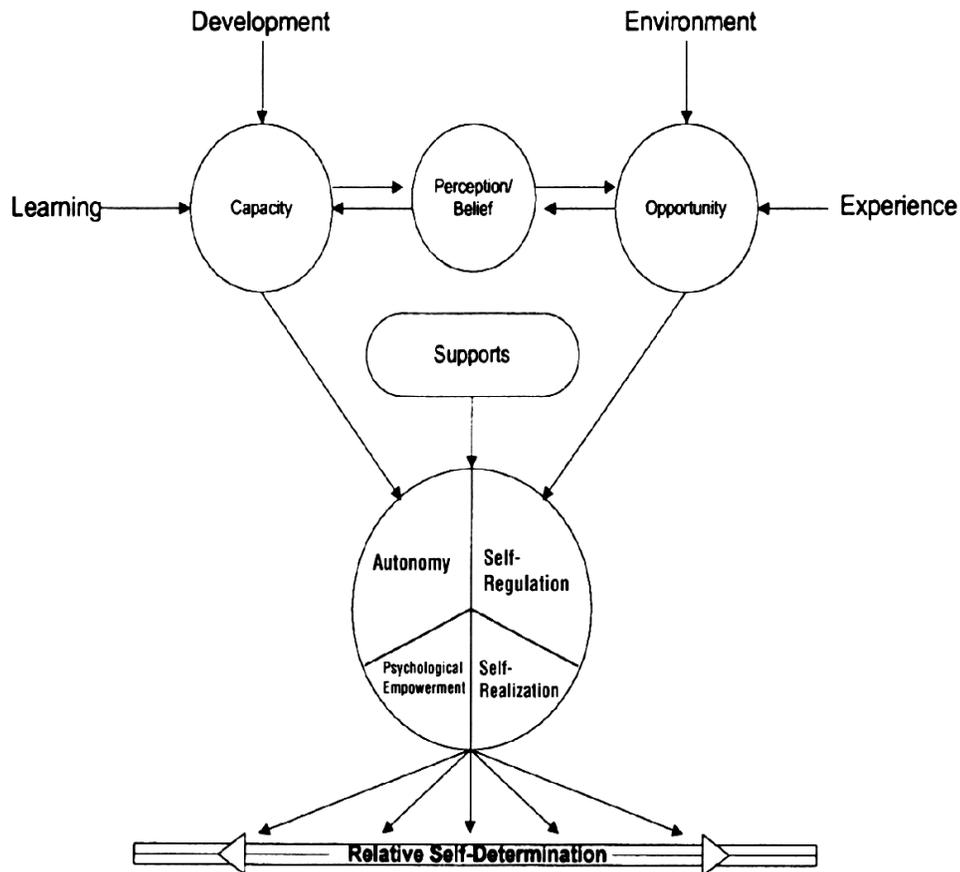
Note: From Transition Education and Services for Adolescents with Disabilities, Third Edition by P. Sitlington, G.M. Clark, & O.P. Kolstoe, Boston: Allyn & Bacon. Copyright 2000 by Pearson Education.

Students must have the opportunity to practice and incorporate life skills and self-determination skills into their everyday repertoire of behaviors before they can effectively demonstrate the skills in their adult lives and reap the benefits within their adult outcomes (Morningstar, 1997). Morningstar (1997) recommends that educators “broaden their focus of attention from the narrow [post-school] outcomes of employment to the skills, attitudes, and knowledge necessary for on-going career development.” She suggests that career development (a critical aspect of post-school success) is a life long process of seeking, obtaining, and processing information about self, occupational, and educational alternatives, life styles, and role options.

Self-Determination Skills

Self-determination refers to a person’s ability to define and achieve goals based on a foundation of knowing and valuing oneself, acknowledging one’s personal strengths and needs, and responding to life events in a psychologically empowered manner (Field & Hoffman, 1994; Thoma, Williams, & Davis, 2005; Wehmeyer, 1996). A person’s level of self-determination is identified based the person’s ability to manage and direct his or her personal behaviors and respond to life events (see Figure 7) (Wehmeyer, et al., 1996, Wehmeyer, et al., 2003). People demonstrate self-determination by making their needs known, setting, and attaining personal goals, adjusting their performance based on the setting, and creating new approaches to solving problems (Bullis & Fredericks, 2002; Martin, Mithaug, Cox, Peterson, Van Dycke, & Cash, 1993; Wehmeyer & Schalock, 2001).

Figure 7. A Functional Model of Self-Determination



From Wehmeyer, M.L. (1998). Self-determination and individuals with significant disabilities: Examining meanings and misinterpretations. *Journal of the Association for Persons with Severe Handicaps*, 23, 5-16.

Self-determination is a key factor in taking ownership for one's actions and future. Research indicates a positive link between an individual's level of self-determination, his or her positive adult outcomes, and the quality of life he or she will attain (Eisenman & Chamberlin, 2001; Halpern, 1993; Szymanski, 1994; Wehmeyer, et al., 2003; Wehmeyer & Schwartz, 1998a). Those who score highest on self-determination tend to live more independently, have higher rates of employment, earn higher wages, and manage their personal transportation needs more independently than their peers with lower levels of self-determination (Agran, et al., 1999; Wehmeyer, 1996).

Beginning in the 1990's the federal government sought to demonstrate the effectiveness of the transition mandates set forth through IDEA (Blackorby & Wagner, 1996; Carson, Sitlington, & Frank, 1995; Field & Hoffman, 1994; Wagner & Blackorby, 1996). Funding provided by the U.S. Department of Education assisted in the development of more than 60 curricula models to address the need for self-determination and self-advocacy skills among persons with disabilities (Agran, et al., 1999; Sitlington & Neubert, 2004; Wood, Karvonen, Test, Browder, & Algozzine, 2004; Zhang, 2001).

The self-determination initiative was stimulated with funding from the U.S. Department of Education, OSEP. In addition to the curricula models developed, the federal government provided funding to assist with the development of more than 26 model projects that sought to determine the effectiveness of the 1990 transition mandates within IDEA and to provide students with the necessary skills for successful employment and independent living (Ward & Kohler, 1996; Wehmeyer, Field, Doren, Jones, & Mason, 2004). This initiative led to the development of self-determination instruments, programs, and curricula that remain in use today. Independent and collective research, funded through the OSERS and OSEP of the U.S. Department of Education, has provided a view into the broad continuum of assessment instruments, curricular models, teacher practices, and student performance reports of those serving the transition needs of students with disabilities.

The NLTS is among the well-known studies conducted with regard to transition education practices (Cheney, 2004). The study sought to identify the types of transition services and programs offered to students with disabilities, as well as to identify the impact each had on the skill levels of the students (Valdes, et al., 1990; Wagner, et al., 1993a; Wagner, et al., 1993b; Wagner & Cameto, 2004).

This 3-part study investigated responses from an international sample of parents, teachers, and students (N = 8,000) regarding students age 13-21 who had been in special education during the 1985-1986 school year. NLTS studies the post-school outcomes of students with disabilities at two and three [to 5] years after leaving school with regard to employment, post-secondary education, and residential independence (Blackorby & Wagner, 1996; Newman & Cameto, 1993).

The study provided baseline data regarding the process of identifying student needs, identifying how the needs were met, and determining whether any statistically significant relationship existed between the student's personal demographic variables (i.e., age, disability, and type of school attended), and his or her post-school success (DeStefano & Wagner, 1992; 2004; Wagner & Cameto, 2004). Results indicated poor transition outcomes of students with disabilities in comparison to non-disabled peers and helped to provide a better understanding of how well transition education was working in the public school systems (Blackorby & Wagner, 1996).

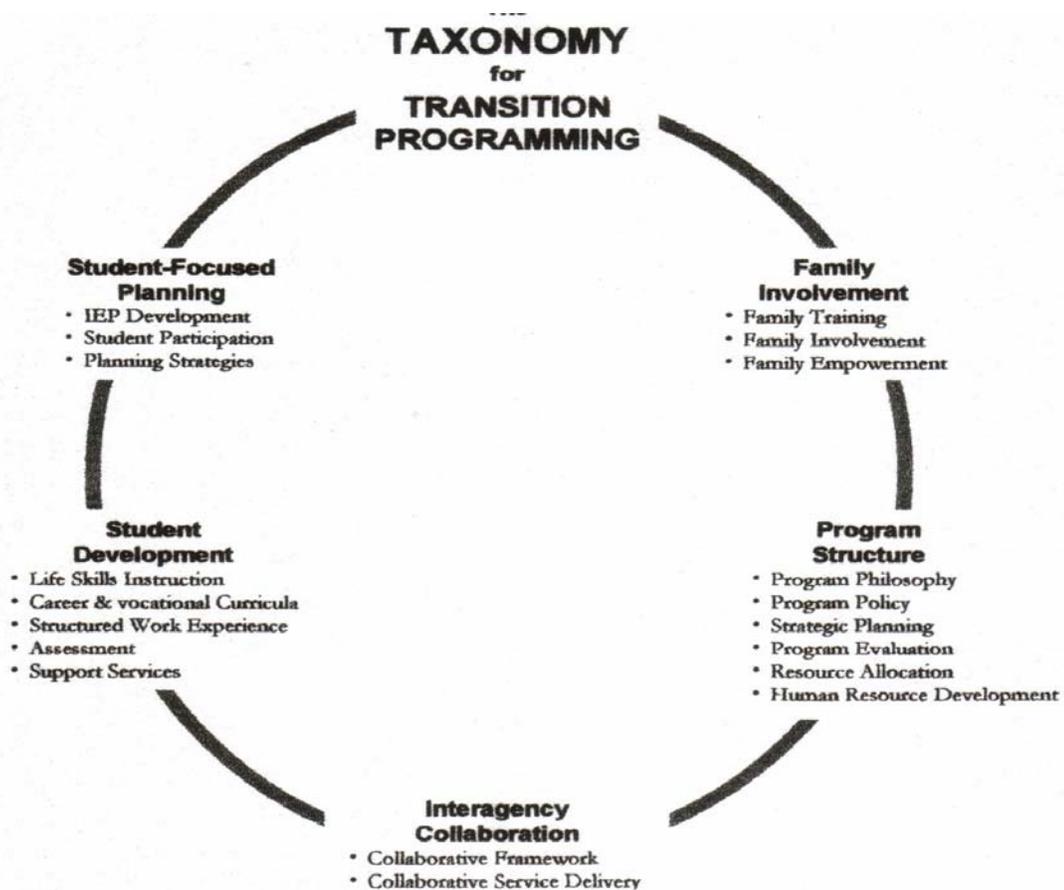
Many program models and legislative mandates created from 1990 to the present have sought to empower individuals with disabilities and encourage their use of self-determined behaviors, both important indicators of personal success (Mithaug, et al, 1998; Powers, et al., 2001; Szymanski, 1994; Wehmeyer, et al, 2000b). Research sought to determine effective transition program practices. According to the Study of Personnel Needs in Special Education (SPeNSE), teaching students to employ self-determination is a key practice in facilitating positive transition (Carlson, Chen, Schroll, & Klein, 2003).

Models developed within the 1990's guided teachers and other professionals to view transition programming from a strengths-based, holistic, and longitudinal perspective (Flexer, et al., 2001a). Kohler (1998) emphasized the importance and connectedness that self-determination skills training and social skills training had in providing youth appropriate skills for post-school living (Flexer & Baer, 2005). Her work helped to streamline the approach used in transition instruction and vocational education for students with disabilities. She identified common constructs and best practices of effective transition and vocational instruction and incorporated them into The Taxonomy for Transition Programming (Kohler, 1998). Constructs deemed critical for successful transition programming include social skills training, paid work experience, individualized transition planning, team planning, and interagency collaboration. According to Kohler, effective transition is best facilitated with family involvement, collaboration, student development, and program integration.

The Taxonomy for Transition Programming: A Model for Planning, Organizing, and Evaluating Transition Education, Services, and Programs (Kohler, 1996) provides a standard by which teachers can evaluate transition programs (see Figure 8). The

Taxonomy is based on the skills promoted in most LS and SDS models. Teachers may use the model to evaluate their current transition practices and programs, assess them for the inclusion of student-focused planning, student development, interagency collaboration, program structure, and family involvement, along with each subcategory listed within the Taxonomy for Transition Planning.

Figure 8. The Taxonomy for Transition Programming



Note. From Kohler, P. (1998). *Taxonomy for Transition Programming*. Champaign: University of Illinois.

Students, regardless of disability, can learn to employ the self-determination skills of choice making, goal setting and attainment, and problem solving (Agran, Blanchard, Wehmeyer, & Hughes, 2002; Agran, Blanchard, & Wehmeyer, 2000; Van Reusen, et al.,

1994). Wehmeyer, among other noteworthy researchers, encourages educators to use curricula that promote the concepts within the *Component Elements of Self-Determined Behavior* (Martin & Marshall, 1995; Wehmeyer, et al., 2003; Wehmeyer, Agran, & Hughes, 1998; 2000a).

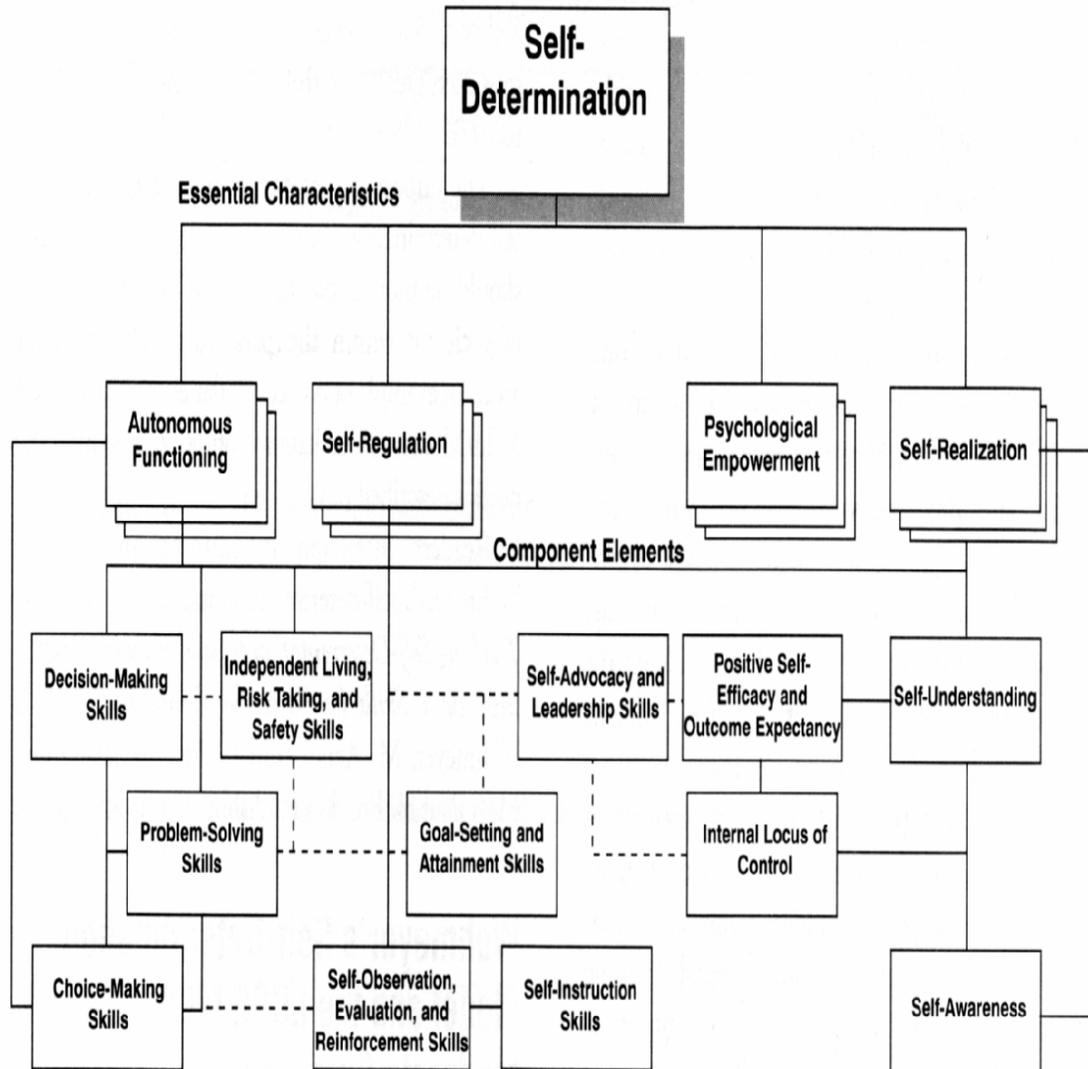
Component Elements of Self-Determined Behavior

- Choice-making skills
- Decision-making skills
- Problem-solving skill
- Goal-setting and attainment skills
- Independence, risk taking, and safety skills
- Self-observation, evaluation, and reinforcement skills
- Self-instruction skills
- Self-advocacy and leadership skills
- Internal locus of control
- Positive attributes of efficacy and outcome expectancy
- Self-awareness
- Self-knowledge

IDEA (1983) was the first federal education mandate requiring teachers to assess the transition needs of students with LD and E/BD and, more specifically to address their self-determination skills (i.e., their ability to function in society) (Sitlington, 1996; Wehmeyer, 1996; Wehmeyer, 1999; Wehmeyer & Schwartz, 1998a). The 1983 IDEA amendments included the provision that teachers prepare students with disabilities for employment and a wide variety of additional adult outcomes, namely, the ability to function in society (Sitlington, 1996).

Wehmeyer outlines the Essential Characteristics of Self-Determination and their Component Elements (see Figure 9) to further demonstrate the many aspects of human life and human characteristics of the individual that play a role in determining the degree to which he or she will become self-determined.

Figure 9. Essential Characteristics of Self-Determination and Their Component Elements



Note. From Wehmeyer, M. L., Agran, M., & Hughes, C. (1998), *Teaching self-determination to students with disabilities: Basic skills for successful transition* (p. 8). Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Co.

Self-determination competencies, regardless of authorship, tend to include the same general concepts (Field & Hoffman, 1996b; Mithaug, 1993; 1996; Wehmeyer, 1996, 1998, 2001). Powers, et al., (2001) for example, suggests the following list.

- Choice making
- Decision-making
- Problem solving
- Goal setting and attainment
- Self-observation skills
- Self-reinforcement skills
- Internal locus of control
- Positive attribution of efficacy and outcome expectancy
- Self-awareness
- Self-knowledge

Abery and Stancliffe (1996), offer a similar, yet more comprehensive list, including one area exclusive to their model entitled “Declarative and Procedural Knowledge.”

SELF-DETERMINATION COMPETENCIES

Skills:

- Goal Setting
- Decision Making
- Self-Regulation,
- Problem Solving
- Personal Advocacy
- Communication
- Social
- Independent Living

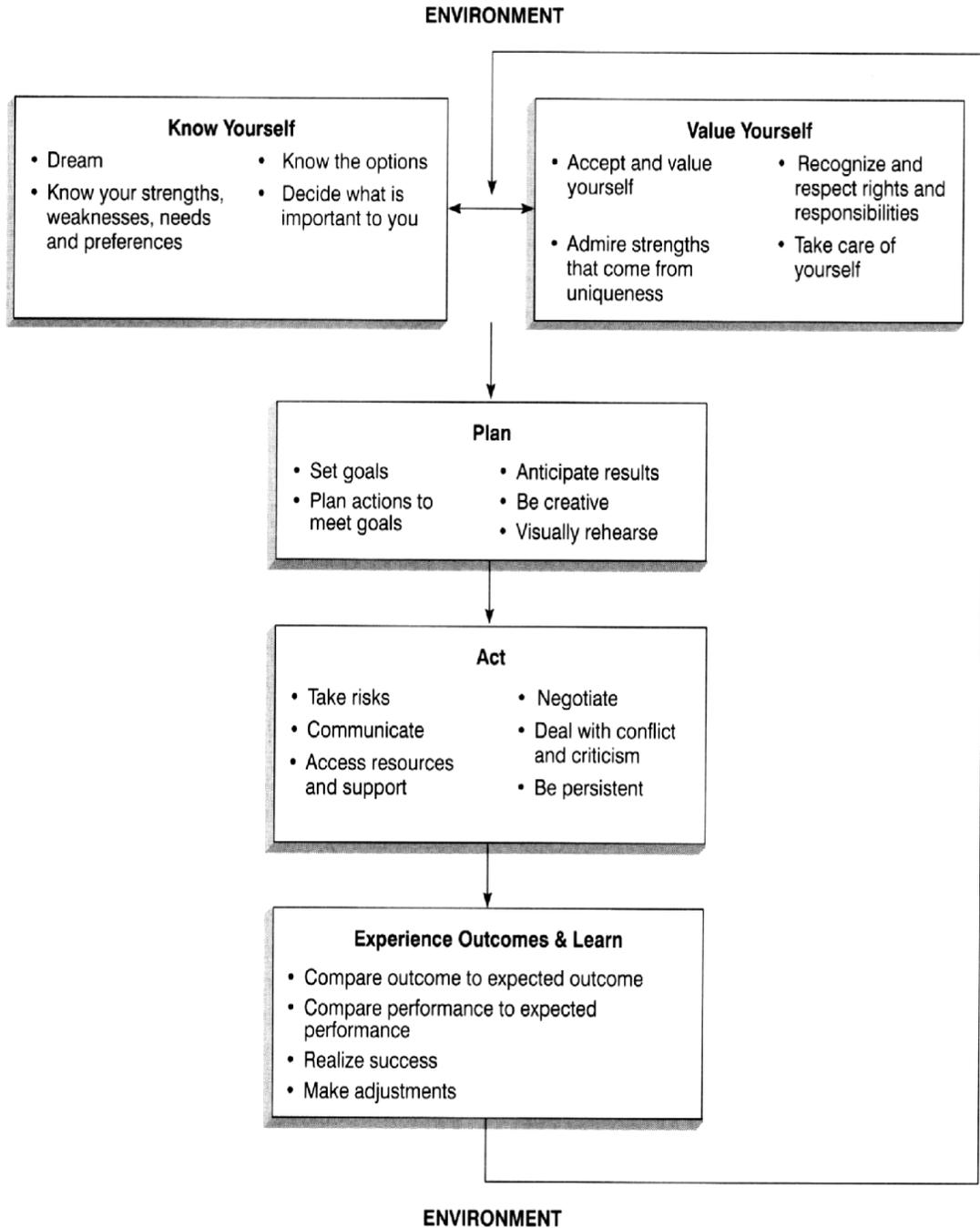
Knowledge:

- Declarative & Procedural Resources
- Rights & Responsibilities
- Identification of Options
- Self-Knowledge
- Attitudes and Beliefs
- Locus of Control
- Self-Confidence and Self-Efficacy
- Self-Esteem and Self-Acceptance

- Determination
- Feeling valued by Others
- Positive Outlook

Field and Hoffman (1994) provide specific concepts and ideas to consider when approaching self-determination as a curriculum for students with disabilities (see Figure 10). Their curriculum promotes teaching strategies to students with disabilities to increase their daily use of self-determined behaviors.

Figure 10. Self-Determination Strategies



Note. From “Development of a Model for Self-Determination” by S. Field and A. Hoffman, 1994, *Career Development for Exceptional Individuals*, 17 (2), p. 165. Copyright 1994 by the Division on Career Development and Transition, The Council for Exceptional Children.

Multiple studies have demonstrated the necessity of allowing students to control aspects of their destiny, set and attain appropriate goals, and demonstrate choice-making skills (Powers, et al., 2001; Snyder & Shapiro, 1997; Test, Fowler, Brewer, & Wood, 2005; Test, et al., 2004). One key indicator of the success of special education programs is the level to which students with disabilities become causal agents in their lives (Agran, et al., 2000; Grigal, et al., 2003). Encouraging students to make an investment in their own learning and achievement is, perhaps, the most important skill we can help students develop (Agran, et al., 2000; Agran, et al., 2002; Mithaug, et al., 2003).

Students of varying disability levels can learn to self-regulate behavior and participate appropriately in planning meetings regarding their educational experience (Algozzine, et al., 2001; Morningstar, et al., 1999; Snyder & Shapiro, 1997; Ward & Kohler, 1996; Wood, et al., 2004). For example, they can be taught to take an active and appropriate role in their educational planning and IEP meeting (Martin, et al., 2006; Wood, et al., 2004).

Several curricula developed during the transition initiative sought to increase student investment and commitment toward their educational process. The general goal of each was to assist students toward meeting the IDEA standard requiring active student involvement in the IEP process.

- *Next S.T.E.P.* (Halpern, Herr, Wolf, Doren, Johnson, & Lawson, 1997). A student-directed transition approach consisting of 19 lessons that address personal life, jobs, education and training, and living on your own. S.T.E.P. is an acronym for Student Transition and Educational Planning (Halpern, et al., 1997).
- *TAKE CHARGE* (Powers, Turner, Westwood, Matuszewski, Wilson, & Phillips, 2001). TAKE CHARGE encourages the use of four specific strategies 1) skill facilitation, 2) mentoring, c) peer support, and d) parent support to develop student skills in achievement, partnership, and coping.
- *I PLAN* (VanReusen, Bos, Schumaker, & Deshler, 1994). A method of using person-centered planning that stands for a) Inventory, b) Plan, c) Ask, and d) Name your goals.
- *ChoiceMaker Curriculum*: Infusing self-determination instruction into the IEP and transition process (Martin, J., Marshall, L., Maxson, L., Jerman, P., Miller, T., & McGill, T. et al., 1996). The focus is on choosing goals, expressing goals, and taking action in an effort to increase student 1) Self-awareness, 2) Self-advocacy,

3) Self-efficacy, 4) Decision-making, 5) Independent performance, 6) Self-evaluation, and 7) Adjustment (see Figure 11).

Figure 11. ChoiceMaker Self-Determination Constructs

1. <i>Self-awareness:</i>	Identify needs; identify interests; identify and understand strengths Identify and understand limitations; identify own values
2. <i>Self-advocacy:</i>	Assertively state wants and needs; assertively state rights; determine needed supports Pursue needed support; obtain and evaluate needed support; conduct own affairs
3. <i>Self-efficacy:</i>	Expects to obtain goals
4. <i>Decision making:</i>	Assess situation demands; set goals; set standards Identify information to make decisions; consider past solutions for new situation; generate new creative solutions Consider options; choose best option; develop plan
5. <i>Independent performance:</i>	Initiate tasks on time; complete tasks on time; use self-management strategies Perform tasks to standards; follow through on own plan
6. <i>Self-evaluation:</i>	Monitor task performance; compare performance to standards; evaluate effectiveness of self-management strategies Determine if plan completed and goal met
7. <i>Adjustment:</i>	Change goals; change standards; change plan Change strategies; change support; persistently adjust Use environmental feedback to aid adjustment

Source: Adapted from a table originally published in: **Martin, J.E., & Marshall, L.H. (1996a). ChoiceMaker: Infusing self-determination instruction into the IEP and transition process. In Sands, D.J., & Wehmeyer, M.L. (Eds.) (1996), *Self-determination across the life span* (pp. 215-236). Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.**

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction (S-DLMI) seeks to provide a model of instruction for use with students with disabilities (see Appendix D). The focus of the model mirrors that of others within the field (i.e., Sitlington & Neubert, 2004; Snyder & Shapiro, 1997). The learning model was designed to encourage students with disabilities to learn through discovery and exploration and, in doing so, to become causal agents in their lives (Mithaug, et al., 1998, p. 161). The curriculum prepares students to

take control of their lives and environments via three distinct phases of learning and exploring: 1) Set a goal, 2) Take action, and 3) Adjust the goal or plan.

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction (S-DLMI) fulfills the objectives set forth through IDEA regulations and provides students the opportunity to take control over two very critical aspects of their lives their education and their behavior (Mithaug, Wehmeyer, Agran, Martin, and Palmer, 1998; Snyder, 2002; Snyder & Shapiro, 1997; Wehmeyer & Schalock, 2001).

Education, Employment, and Empowerment, developed for use within the Midtown Alternative Program (see Appendix E) presents a multitude of options by which students with E/BD can obtain a high school diploma (Cheney, et al., 1998b). The curriculum guide, *Paths to Successful Living*, focuses on skill acquisition geared toward addressing three specific outcomes: 1) Educational Outcomes, 2) Vocational Outcomes, and 3) Community Life Outcomes.

The deeper the commitment, confidence, and investment the youth has in planning for his or her future, the more likely he or she will seek to achieve personal goals, complete high school or post-secondary education, and acknowledge and utilize his or her strengths and weaknesses (Sitlington & Neubert, 2004). Therefore, educators (and all service providers of youth with disabilities) must make a conscious commitment toward enabling individuals to set and achieve the personal goals they value, rather than allow or encourage them to use their disability as an excuse or reason for lack of achievement in life (Snyder & Shapiro, 1997).

Research indicates that special education teachers support the concept of teaching self-determination, but seldom provide educational opportunities for their students to learn to apply the skills (Agran, et al., 1999; Grigal, et al., 2003; Wehmeyer, et al., 2000; Wehmeyer & Schwartz, 1997). In a study conducted by Agran et al., (1999), 75% of teachers surveyed, rated self-determination as a high priority, yet 55% indicated that goals and objectives within student IEPs did not address SDS skills. Similar results were found in research conducted by Test, et al. (2004), Test, et al. (2005), and Wehmeyer & Schwartz (1997). Mason, et al., (2004) found that 86% of the teachers, they had surveyed rated self-determination and self-advocacy as very important, yet very few reported providing instruction in either.

To summarize, students with disabilities struggle to grasp the skills deemed essential for success in employment, socialization, and independent living without some level of instruction or directive. Two specific domains of transition instruction have emerged over the course of thirty years: life skills and self-determination skills. Both domains have incurred at least moderate success in addressing the transition needs of students with disabilities.

Current models and curricular approaches to LS and SDS are the compilation of a vast number of research findings and test-pilot projects, beginning in the 1970's and continuing to date. Studies indicate similarities among the skills and concepts that have been provided within each domain. Each has components of teaching independence and self-reliance, communication skills, and employment skills.

The federal government provided funding toward the development of many of the models currently in use. The government supports the concept of teaching students with disabilities LS and SDS skills through transition and vocational education programs. The thrust behind their support is to ensure success of both the individual and society, preparing citizens for gainful, satisfying employment, and thereby alleviating dependence on the federal dollar.

Section III: Students with E/BD and Their Transition Outcomes

Students presenting challenging behaviors have consistently presented complex challenges to those in the field of education. Teachers have attempted to address their challenging behaviors through special education services via P.L. 94-142, since 1975. The Federal Register (1977) developed the description of youth with E/BD currently used in the identification of the disorder.

“Students with E/BD exhibit one or more of the following characteristics over a long period and to a marked degree, which adversely affects educational performance: a. an inability to learn which cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory, or health factors; b. An inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers; c. inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under normal circumstances; d. A general pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression; e. A tendency to develop physical symptoms or fears associated with personal or school problems” (*Federal Register*, 1977, p. 42478).

The educational placement options for students with E/BD vary based on the severity and need of the students. Students with E/BD receive instruction to the greatest extent possible in the general education classroom utilizing the general education curriculum, based on both federal and state statute. Current models of special education service delivery, listed in order from least to most restrictive include Consultative, Resource Room (with or without inclusion), Self-Contained, Special Purpose or Day School, Institution, or Hospital setting. One additional placement option, not based on the continuum of restrictiveness is the Community-Based Program, for students 18-21 years of age (Cullinan, 2002; Kauffman, 1997).

The post-school outcomes of students with E/BD remain poor despite the many improvements attained by other students through the transition initiative. Students with E/BD demonstrate an inability to function in society beyond their school years. They typically disrupt the learning process for themselves as well as others and demonstrate behaviors, attributed to their disability, that are not conducive to the learning environment of general education (Bullock & Gable, 2006; Cheney & Muscott, 1996; Kauffman, 1997).

These students often enter adulthood ill prepared to communicate their needs, make responsible choices, take responsibility for their actions, and manage their personal effects. Students with E/BD are often unable to understand and respond to social cues, to refrain from impulsive behaviors, and to assess social situations effectively. These attributes often result in one or more of the following negative outcomes: school failure or expulsion, early parenthood, chemical use or abuse, and incarceration (Greenbaum, et al., 1991; Morningstar & Benitez, 2004; Unruh & Bullis, 1999; Unruh & Bullis, 2005). Additionally, students with E/BD demonstrate behaviors that often lead to dismissal from work, eviction from living environments, and separation from intimate relationships (Cheney & Muscott, 1996; Frank, et al., 1991; Marder, 1992).

Graduation rates of students with E/BD are daunting. These students are the least likely among all students, regardless of disability status, to graduate high school (41.9%) compared to all students with disabilities (63%) and those without disability (80%) (Blackorby, Edgar, & Kortering, 1991; Blackorby & Wagner, 1996; Rylance, 1998). Graduation or high school completion rates of students with E/BD vary based on the interpretation and definition applied to the term dropout (Carlson & Parshall, 1996). The OSEP requires that school districts count only the students who formally withdraw from school as dropouts. Therefore, students who simply stop attending school but do not formally withdraw are not reported as dropouts (USDE, 2002).

OSEP, in their Twenty-second Annual Report to Congress (regarding the 1997-1998 school year), reported 14,600 students with E/BD who obtained a high school diploma or certificate, 7,800 who were declassified, 16,600 who exited as dropouts, and an additional 14,200 who moved from a district without proof that they had enrolled elsewhere. The fact that students did not enroll elsewhere may indicate a large error in calculating the actual population of dropouts (USDE, 1999). The students who do not enroll elsewhere give credence to the statement “Children with disabilities are not dropping out of special education; they are dropping out of school” (Kaufman, Kameenui, Birman, & Danielson, 1990).

A declassified student is one who has participated in special education over the course of his or her educational career, but is dismissed from the program because he or she 1) no longer meets the criteria for services, 2) has met the program goals, or 3) elects

to discontinue special education services. When a student becomes declassified, he or she returns to the roster of general education students and is expected to attend general education classes and abide by the same discipline plan devised for students of the general education population.

By declassifying students, removing the special education label and services, students with E/BD tend to slip through the cracks of our American public education system (USDE, 2004). These students are afforded the rights and responsibilities of general education students, which allow the school district to use methods of discipline including suspension and expulsion (without the option of due process). Kansas students with disabilities who either discontinue special education services or are declassified may elect to drop out of school at age 16. These students often sign out of school, stating their intent to finish their education elsewhere, never to re-enroll (USDE, 2004).

Dropouts with E/BD are at high-risk of never returning to school to seek skills associated with career training. They are also at high-risk of becoming involved in anti-social behaviors. Wagner, 1991, found that 58.6% of students with E/BD had dropped out of school. Of those, 73% were arrested at least once within three years of dropping out (Bullis & Cheney, 1999; Wagner, 1991).

Research indicates a strong relationship between school dropout status and unemployment or underemployment (Newman, 1992; Razeghi, 1996; Wagner, 1991). Results obtained through the NLTS indicate 41% of youth with E/BD were unemployed two years after leaving school, rising to 52%, three to five years afterward (D'Amico & Marder, 1991). Those employed generally did not earn wages conducive to independent living; many worked only part-time and numerous others had changed jobs multiple times. Only 15-17% sought post-secondary education within two years of leaving school. This factor (along with others) limited their careers, employment opportunities, and perhaps quality of life (National School Board Association, 1997; USDE, 2000; Wagner, et al., 1993b).

Unfavorable statistics regarding this population are abundant. According to NLTS Wave-1 results, 25.6% of youth with E/BD had experienced pre-marital parenthood, and over 50% had experienced incarceration at least once prior to leaving school, rising to 58% three to five years following school. These figures are nearly three

times as high as the rate of their non-disabled peers (Blackorby, Edgar, & Kortering, 1991; Greenbaum, et al., 1991; Heal & Rusch, 1995; Marder & D'Amico, 1992; Razeghi, 1996; Unruh & Bullis, 2005). An estimated 50% were deemed likely to engage in anti-social behaviors of crime, substance abuse, and driving violations (Benz, Yovanoff, & Doren, 1997; Bullis, et al., 1993; Bullis, Nishioka-Evans, Fredericks, & Davis, 1993; National Center for Educational Statistics, 2003a).

Student self-reports, via NLTS; indicate 58% of youth with E/BD had been enrolled in a vocational education program during high school compared to 65% of all students with disabilities (Armstrong, et al., 2003; Wagner, Blackorby, Cameto, Hebbeler, & Newman, 1993a). Vocational training, though a positive experience for the students, was not as essential to their post-school success as was the level of involvement of the family and the social support network (Flexer & Baer, 2005; Newman & Cameto, 1993; Rylance, 1997).

Statistics favor students with a diploma over those without, regardless of disability (Rylance, 1998). According to Sitlington and Neubert (2004), students with E/BD with a diploma reported employment rates of 53%-two years following high school, compared to 36% without a diploma. Three to five years following graduation an average of 65% of those with a diploma reported employment, compared to 47% of those without.

Two years after graduating school, 15% of students with E/BD reported living independently as compared to 10% of their non-graduating peers (Sitlington, et al., 1992). Three to five years after graduation 41% reported living independently, compared to 35% without a diploma (D'Amico & Marder, 1991; Newman, 1992). Two years following graduation, 19% of the population had enrolled in some form of post-secondary education, compared to 6% of non-graduates. Three to five years after graduation, these figures rose to 37% and 11%, respectively (Sitlington & Neubert, 2004).

NLTS-Wave II data (Wagner & Cameto, 2004) suggest several factors that may contribute to the poor school and post-school outcomes of youth with E/BD. Students with E/BD are typically identified for special education services at or beyond age 9, which means they do not typically receive early interventions and therefore, may have struggled a long time prior to having their disability recognized. These students tend to

come from mobile families: Over 40% of students with E/BD have attended five or more schools since starting kindergarten, which may help to explain their inability to establish appropriate relations with peers and adults, and may help to explain some of the gaps they demonstrate in learning. It may also help to clarify why 38% have repeated at least one grade level since kindergarten, and why 75% of the students identified with E/BD report having been suspended or expelled from school. Though these factors are not assumed the direct (and, sole) cause for poor post-school outcomes, they are assumed to have a significant, negative impact on the post-school success of these youth (Rylance, 1998; Wagner & Cameto, 2004).

Frequently students with E/BD leave school unable to function outside the controlled environmental structure that it provides (Agran, et al., 1999; Bullock & Gable, 2006). The rules and guidelines teachers impose (i.e., external control) deny students the opportunity to make choices and decisions, and to gain autonomy (i.e., internal control). Special education provides these students a safety net that, perhaps, denies them access to becoming self-determined individuals and inadvertently encourages dependency (Agran, et al., 1999).

Students with E/BD, though identified by their inability to develop appropriate social relations, receive minimal, if any, instruction regarding how to manage their personal-social behaviors (i.e., self-determination). They seldom have opportunities to practice behaviors indicative of self-determination (Wehmeyer, et al., 2003). Without practice, they do not acquire the skills necessary for personal, social success (Mithaug, et al., 2003). As such, they do not transition smoothly into post-school life and the adult world of work.

Teaching students with E/BD to take responsibility for their personal choices (Martin & Marshall, 1995; Sitlington, Clark, & Kolstoe, 2000) and actions (i.e., to become causal agents of their lives) can be a delicate process (Zionts et al., 2004). Teachers and parents of students with E/BD may want them to demonstrate self-determination and independent living skills, and yet may not be able to gain the necessary adult support (from those in control of educational programming and funding) to ensure the appropriate instruction occurs (Martin & Marshall, 1995).

“The special education process does little to empower youth with learning and behavior problems. As a result, these youth do not learn the skills needed to manage their lives. They remain dependent on other people to make decisions, provide support, and make needed changes. Perhaps one of the biggest culprits in the process of teaching students to gain control of their lives is the IEP process. Students are often left out of the planning aspect of their educational experiences” (Martin & Marshall, 1995, p. 148.)

Teachers of students with E/BD often struggle to obtain a balance between training these students in independent decision-making skills and personally making decisions for them to avoid potential negative consequences (Zionts, et al., 2004). Teaching these students to demonstrate self-assertiveness, conflict-resolution, and problem-solving skills (i.e., self-determination), however, may assist teachers to attain the appropriate balance necessary for success of the student with little or no negative impact on the school and society (Morningstar & Benitez, 2004; Snyder & Shapiro, 1997; Zionts, et al., 2004).

Students with E/BD maintain relations with peers and adults outside the school setting more frequently than do their general education peers. Based on results from Wave 1 of the NLTS, students who seek friends outside the school setting are more likely to demonstrate absenteeism and poor academic performance in school than those who build relations within the school setting. Conversely, those who demonstrate high absenteeism and low academic performance have significantly higher dropout rates than peers without such behaviors (Wagner, 1991).

NLTS I and II analyzed several common risk factors among students with E/BD. Multiple high-risk factors were identified (via self-report data) to be present among students with E/BD. Students with E/BD reported the following high-risk factors: 68% come from homes in which the head of the household did not possess a high school diploma. Approximately 75% of youth with E/BD were males, raised in a single parent household and belonging to a minority race (namely, African American) (D’Amico & Blackorby, 1996; Heal & Rusch, 1995; Razeghi, 1996).

Parent reports indicated 68% of these students were diagnosed to have Attention-Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder during their school years (Blackorby & Wagner, 1992; Wagner, 1991; Wagner & Cameto, 2004). Over 50% of these students were from low

income or poverty level income; poverty being the single greatest predictor of academic and social failure in America's schools (USDE, 2002). These risk factors, though not assumed the causal agent of their disability, were present among students with E/BD more frequently than was reported by non-E/BD students.

The poor post-school outcomes obtained by these youth negatively affects not only the student, but also his or her parents, school, employers, and society (Kazdin, 1987; Rusch & Chadsey, 1998). As a result, advocates in support of these youth generally focus their attention toward meeting the needs of the student while seeking to benefit society in general (Benz, et al., 1997).

Established program models and curricula developed specifically to address the needs of students with E/BD in public school settings are scarce (Bullis & Fredericks, 2002). Several program models developed in the 1990's sought to address the poor post-school outcomes of students with E/BD, through funding provided by local, state, and federal agencies. The following models were selected based on the moderate level of success they have yielded among students with E/BD and the quality example of program methodology they offer to public school teachers regarding appropriate transition and vocational instruction for students with E/BD (Bullis & Cheney, 1999; Bullis & Fredericks, 2002).

First, Project RENEW (Rehabilitation, Empowerment, Natural Supports, Education, and Work), started in 1998, served youth with E/BD or psychiatric conditions (Cheney, et al., 1998a; Cheney, et al., 1998b). The focus of the program was to address student needs in the areas of high school completion (diploma or G.E.D.) community adjustment, and community living. Project RENEW followed the federal IDEA guidelines regarding service provisions, transition planning, the use of positive behavioral supports, and the positive practice of teaching students to advocate for themselves (Bullis & Cheney, 1999). The program provided both life skills and self-determination skills instruction to youth with E/BD.

Second, the Transition to Independence Process (TIP) system, developed in 1997, sought to assist youth with E/BD to make a smooth transition from school to the world of work and adulthood. The TIP system focused on the life domains of employment, continuing education, and community-life functioning, and selecting and maintaining

appropriate living situations (Clark, H., 1998; Clark, H., & Davis, M., 2000; Clark, H., Deschenes, N. & Jones, J., 2000). The program, developed around seven guidelines, emphasizes teaching life skills and self-determination skills to students with E/BD and their families.

Third, Project SUPPORT (1999) was developed through the efforts of the Oregon Department of Education, the Oregon Office of Vocational and Rehabilitative Services, the Oregon Youth Authority, and the University of Oregon to address the needs of youth returning from correctional facilities to the mainstream of community living, school, and employment (Unruh & Bullis, 1999). The project promotes two goals:

- To develop a system-wide service delivery model resulting in lowering rates of recidivism and more positive rates of employment and education outcomes for incarcerated youth with E/BD returning to the community.
- Embed the program model within the existing community and state agencies to preserve sustained support for this target population.

Projects RENEW, the TIP system, and Project SUPPORT present three moderately successful programs developed within the last decade to meet the specific transition needs of students with E/BD. They each seek to prepare students for high school completion and post-school success. The models were used within private, self-contained, special purpose or day schools to address the wide range of student needs, and to provide teachers and service providers ideas, approaches, and concepts to consider in their attempt to serve this population adequately. School districts willing to employ techniques from such programs, particularly job and career opportunities based on student choice, may encourage youth with E/BD to complete their high school education (Cheney, 2004; Rylance, 1998).

Leaders within the field of education, along with leaders from the federal and state government, often seek to limit the number of students who receive special education under the category of E/BD (currently an estimated 2-7% of the school-aged population) (Bullis & Cheney, 1999; Cullinan, 2002; Kauffman, 2001). Ethical questions often guide placement decisions of how and when students are identified as needing an IEP. Many do not qualify for services based on (and, in honor of) these biases (Bullis &

Cheney, 1999). Bullis and Cheney (1999) suggest that 2-4% of the student population should qualify for services for an E/BD, while only 1-2% actually does.

Persons charged with providing services and funding for these students often act based on their underlying concern of whether these students deserve special education services or whether they are “acting on their own volition in a manner outside the realm of general society” (Bullis & Cheney, 1999; National School Boards Association, 1993). Policy makers may hesitate to label these students because of the risk of increasing the number of special education students served, and the expenditure of programs and projects targeted to yield privileges to those with anti-social behaviors (Bullis & Cheney, 1999).

In summary, students with E/BD demonstrate the poorest post-school outcomes among all youth with disabilities. They demonstrate an inability to understand and respond appropriately to social situations, which often leads to poor school performance, an inability to obtain and maintain career-focused employment, and an inability to obtain positive community living experiences. These students frequently exhibit behaviors that prevent them from making a smooth transition into adult life.

Students with E/BD, representing a small portion of the entire student population, are expensive to educate (Bullock & Gable, 2006; Cheney & Muscott, 1996). Over half drop out of school prior to graduation. Without the necessary skills to gain career-track employment, they frequently remain dependent upon others for housing and sustenance (Armstrong, et al., 2003; Benz, Yovanoff, & Doren, 1997; Wagner, et al., 1993b). Their behaviors are frequently deemed a burden on society, causing officials charged with programs and funding to seek methods of denying them services or allowing them to quit school.

Perhaps post-school outcomes of students with E/BD have not markedly improved because they do not receive adequate transition skills instruction and the opportunity to practice the skills prior to leaving school. Regardless of federal and state special education laws, these students do not receive adequate skills training and interventions (i.e., LS and SDS instruction) to deter them from dropping out and prepare them for post-school living.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Purpose

Transition outcomes for students with E/BD are dismal. The poor transition outcomes they achieve have a strong, negative affect on both the individual youth and society in general (Zionts, 2004). Efforts to improve the transition outcomes of these students, through amendments made to IDEA (1997 to present), have not been particularly successful (Stoops, 2004; Wagner, D'Amico, Marder, Newman, & Blackorby, 1992).

The effectiveness of transition education in improving the overall transition outcomes of youth with disabilities, other than E/BD, has been empirically validated (Abery, et al., 1995; Algozzine, et al., 2001; Field & Hoffman, 1996b; Wehmeyer, et al., 2000). Further research is necessary to determine what, if any, transition-related instruction is provided to youth with E/BD, followed by the benefits gained from such instruction. The present study sought to determine the amount and types of instruction provided to students with E/BD and the resulting benefits as reported by special education teachers.

The focus of transition instruction should be to enhance the student's personal, social, and emotional well-being (SDS), as well as to assist him or her to develop healthy leisure activities, independent living skills, personal-social skills, vocational skills, and employment skills (LS) (Agran, et al., 1999; Bullis & Cheney, 1999; Wagner & Cameto, 2004). By combining the LS and SDS instructional domains, students obtain the skills required for independent living and successful employment.

The primary purpose of this study was to provide a descriptive analysis of secondary transition programs and practices among Kansas public school teachers within IR and E/BD classrooms containing students with E/BD, ages 14 to 21. The information gained through this study provides baseline data for future research with the intent of identifying the missing link(s) that are necessary to ensure students with E/BD are appropriately prepared to make the transition from school to the adult world of work and independent living.

The purpose of this study was to determine at what level of independence students with E/BD most frequently demonstrate LS and SDS competencies (Independent, Semi-independent, Dependent). One goal of the study was to determine the percentage of students who have a STSN within their IEP that addresses each independent LS and SDS skill and the frequency each was addressed. The study sought to determine the average amount of time LS and SDS instruction was provided weekly and whether a correlation existed between the amount of instructional time provided and a) the number of years the teacher had taught, and b) the percentage of students rated as Independent or Semi-independent on each of the LS and SDS skills.

A second goal of the study was to determine whether a correlation existed between the percentage of students rated at the Independent and Semi-independent level on each of the LS and SDS skills and the total amount of transition training the teacher received in LS, SDS, and the composite. Finally, the study sought to determine whether a correlation existed between the skills addressed most frequently within STSN and the amount of transition training the teacher had received in LS, SDS, and the composite.

Research Questions

This study investigated the following research questions:

1. Which life skills can students with E/BD demonstrate independently (without verbal, written, or physical assistance, instruction, or directive)?
2. Which self-determination skills can students with E/BD demonstrate independently (without verbal, written, or physical assistance, instruction, or directive)?
3. How many students with E/BD have a statement of transition service needs within their IEP directly addressing one or more of the specified life skills?
4. How many students with E/BD have a statement of transition service needs within their IEP directly addressing one or more of the specified self-determination skills?
5. Which life skills are specifically addressed within the statements of transition service needs for students with E/BD?

6. Which self-determination skills are specifically addressed within the statements of transition service needs for students with E/BD?
7. Is there a correlation between the amount of time the teacher provides life skills instruction and the number of years he or she has taught?
8. Is there a correlation between the amount of time the teacher provides self-determination skills instruction and the number of years he or she has taught?
9. Is there a correlation between the amount of time a teacher provides life skills instruction and the percentage of students who are rated at the Independent and Semi-independent level for each skill?
10. Is there a correlation between the amount of time a teacher provides self-determination skills instruction and the percentage of students who are rated at the Independent and Semi-independent level for each skill?
11. Is there a correlation between the percentage of students rated at the Independent or Semi-independent level for each of the nineteen life skills and the amount of transition training the teacher has received in life skills instruction?
12. Is there a correlation between the percentage of students who are either Independent or Semi-independent level on each of the seven self-determination skills and the amount of transition training the teacher has received in self-determination skills instruction?
13. Is there a correlation between the particular life skills and self-determination skills addressed within the statements of transition service needs in the IEP of students with E/BD and the amount of transition training the teacher has received in LS, SDS, and the composite?

Sample Size Determination

Five-hundred teachers from the KSDE listing of all secondary IR and E/BD teachers employed in the state of Kansas were selected through a simple random sample to represent the teacher population. The number of teachers was determined by employing two independent formulas and selecting the larger of the two sample-size recommendations (see Appendix F).

The first formula (Dillman, 2000) suggested a completed survey rate of 281 (56% of the sample of 500), based on a population size of 1049, a 50/50 split regarding those who provide and those who do not provide LS and SDS instruction, and a projected sampling error of $p < .05$. Data are not available to indicate the number of special education teachers who provide either LS or SDS transition instruction (i.e., the homogeneity among the population) to students with E/BD. Therefore, the conservative 50/50 split was selected to represent the variation among teachers. Each additional variable within the study will assume the 50/50 split. A sampling error of $p < .05$ (5%), strongly suggests that responses obtained using additional samples of the same population base would yield similar results at the 95% confidence level.

The Dillman formula seeks to determine the most appropriate sample size by employing sound statistical processes and by addressing the four factors asked most frequently when selecting a representative sample size (See Appendix F, p. 1 of 2):

- Population size from which the sample is selected
- Sampling error that can be tolerated
- Population homogeneity regarding the items assessed
- Level of confidence that the answers provided by teachers are representative of the total population

The second formula (Fowler, 2002) suggests a completed survey rate of 300 (60% of the selected sample) based on a population size of 1000, a 50/50 split between those who provide and those who do not provide LS and SDS instruction, and a projected sampling error of 6% (see Appendix F, p. 2 of 2) (Fowler, 2002, p. 34). This formula rounds the population size from 1049 to 1000. The desired sample size, however, is relatively equal to that provided through the Dillman formula. Five hundred teachers were selected from the population. The desired sample size of 300 completed surveys would represent a 60% return rate (Fowler, 2002).

Selection of Participants

Participants were selected from the KSDE list of secondary special education teachers (N = 1,049) contracted to teach in either an IR or an E/BD classroom during the 2005-2006 school year (i.e. those reimbursed with State Aid). Names within the KSDE teacher pool (N = 1,049) appeared by district in alphabetical order. The list met the criteria of random-order prior to teacher selection, in that the names were not listed in an identifiable order based on any personal characteristic of the individual (i.e., level of certification or years of experience). Names appearing in the list were assigned an identification number based on the order in which they appear in the list. The assigned identification number remained in effect throughout the study for the sole purpose of indicating survey completion.

Five hundred teachers (48% of the total population, N = 1,049) were selected to participate. The desired sample, N = 500/1,049, could have been selected by simply starting at the beginning of the list, choosing either even or odd numbered teachers, and selecting every other number in the list. This method of selection, however, would deny 49 teachers the possibility of selection. To allow equal opportunity for participant selection, the researcher assumed that half of the 49 (i.e., 25) were still eligible, (similar to the procedure of simply selecting the even or odd numbered teachers), leaving 25 numbers to choose from. The numbers (1-25) were listed on separate slips of paper and placed in a box from which the researcher selected one number. The number selected was the point at which the researcher began selecting every other number within the list, until the 500 teachers were identified.

Instrumentation

A three-part mail survey was used to identify current transition practices among teachers of students with E/BD and to determine the level of independence students can demonstrate the LS and SDS competencies. Responses identified several instructional practices currently used among secondary special education teachers serving students with E/BD within the public school systems in Kansas.

The assigned independent variables of the study included the grade level(s) taught by the teacher and his or her years of teaching experience. They also included the number of students with the label of E/BD taught by the teacher, and the skills selected to represent LS and SDS. The dependent variables included the frequency that statement(s) of transition service needs (STSN) were included in the IEPs of students with E/BD, the specific LS and SDS competencies addressed within the statement(s), and the amount of time teachers provide instruction in each of the domains. They also included the levels of independence students with E/BD could demonstrate each LS and SDS competency, and the type(s) and amount of training teachers had received in each domain.

Section 1 identified general, demographic information about the teachers. In this section, teachers reported their level of certification and the number of years they had taught. Teachers identified the type(s) and amount of training or formal education they had received in transition. Next, they indicated the number of students they taught with disabilities, followed by the number they taught with E/BD.

Section 2 asked specific information regarding the transition-related instructional practices of secondary special education teachers of students with E/BD age 14 to 21 within public school IR and E/BD classrooms in Kansas. Teachers completed the second section of the survey solely based on the students they were teaching with E/BD age 14 to 21 at the time of the survey.

First, teachers listed the number of students who could demonstrate the specified LS and SDS competencies at each of the following levels of independence: Independent, Semi-independent, Dependent, or Not Observed. Students rated Independent could demonstrate the skill without assistance, instruction, or directive. Those rated Semi-independent could demonstrate the skill with minimal initiative or directive of the

teacher. Students rated Dependent could demonstrate the skill ONLY with specific assistance, instruction, and/or directive. Teachers marked the Not Observed rating if he or she had not observed the student demonstrating the skill. Teachers finished Section 2 by indicating the number of minutes they provided LS and SDS instruction weekly.

Section 3 asked teachers to indicate the number of students they taught with E/BD that had STSNs within their IEP addressing each specific LS and SDS competency. Following Section 3, teachers were encouraged to comment and ask questions regarding the topic or the survey items on the back sheet of the survey.

Validation of the Research Instrument

Dr. Gary Clark, Dr. Reece Peterson, Dr. Mary Morningstar, and Dr. Patricia Sitlington, each viewed as transition experts in the training of teachers of students with E/BD, evaluated the survey items, and made recommendations regarding the clarity of each item and the skills selected to represent LS and SDS. Adjustments were made to the survey to reflect their recommendations.

Research Procedures

A mail survey was conducted during the fall semester of 2005 to obtain descriptive data regarding current transition practices among Kansas special education teachers of students with E/BD. The survey process, following suggestions made in Dillman (2000) included three independent stages. In stage one, each of the 500 teachers received a postcard (see Appendix G) requesting their active participation in a survey regarding transition skills instruction for students with emotional or behavioral disorders. The postcard introduced the purpose of the study, requested active, timely participation, indicated the estimated date of arrival for the survey, and specified the amount of time the survey would take to complete.

In stage 2, four days following the mailing of the postcard, teachers received a second mailing including the cover letter (see Appendix H), the survey (see Appendix I),

and a self-addressed, stamped envelope (with the teachers' identification number marked in the lower left-hand corner) in which to return the completed survey. The letter briefly described the purpose of the study and provided directions for completing and returning the survey. It explained the research procedures that were being used to ensure their privacy and confidentiality as well as the intended purpose of the identification number to indicate survey completion. Finally, the letter requested that those choosing not to participate either return the survey in the enclosed envelope or forward it to a more appropriate teacher.

Identification numbers were recorded as received, indicating survey completion or teacher refusal, thus eliminating the teacher from future mailings. Envelopes marked with the teachers' identification numbers were discarded prior to data recording.

In stage 3, two weeks following the initial mailing of the survey, the teacher identification numbers remaining on the list as non-respondents received a second request. The second mailing included a reminder letter (see Appendix J), a second copy of the survey, and a second, self-addressed, stamped envelope. The letter requested their timely participation, emphasized the value of attaining a representative sample, and restated the value of their personal response. The letter also thanked the teachers who had recently returned their survey but had received a second copy due to mail delay.

Survey Response Rate

The larger the sample size surveyed, the more likely the data would be representative of the teacher population who teach students with E/BD age 14 to 21. The desired response rate for the mail survey, $N = 300$ (60%) was not obtained with the first mailing (Fowler, 2002) (see Appendix F). Therefore, the second letter of request, a second copy of the survey, and a self-addressed stamped envelope were sent in an effort to obtain the desired number of completed surveys. Responses received within the two-week period following the second request were added to the data obtained from the first mailing.

Two-hundred forty-eight surveys were returned. Of those, 165 were complete and usable. Eighty-three responses did not contain usable data (three surveys were

returned as undeliverable by the mail system, nine teachers sent an e-mail stating their inability to complete the survey, and seventy-one surveys returned either incomplete or without any data filled in. A note generally accompanied the non-complete surveys stating the reason for non-participation. The most common reason given for non-participation was a lack of students with E/BD on the teacher's current student roster. Several teachers stated that the district in which they were employed did not use labels of categorization for students after the initial evaluation identified them for services. Therefore, though they knew of several students who might qualify for services based on the criteria for students with E/BD, they could not comment regarding the actual number taught or the specific methods employed for particular students.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was set at the .05 alpha (95% confidence level) to help ensure responses were, in fact, representative of the population and was the result of the individual variation among teachers, rather than the teacher's desire to provide responses to meet the projected expectations of the researcher. The following statistical methods were employed for each of the research questions:

Questions 1 & 2: The levels of independence students demonstrate each skill component of LS and SDS are reported as a frequency distribution. The total number of students rated at each observed level (Independent, Semi-independent, Dependent) is listed, along with the percent total. Response values are listed in rank order from most to least frequent based on the level of independence students demonstrate the competencies of LS and SDS.

Questions 3 & 4: The number of students with E/BD whose IEP's included statements of transition service needs addressing either LS or SDS skills within their IEP is reported as a sum as well as a percentage of the total response sample.

Questions 5 & 6: Specific LS and SDS skills addressed within the STSN are rank ordered from the skill addressed most frequently to the skill addressed least

frequently within STSN. A composite list of LS and SDS skills addressed within STSN is provided within the tables pertaining to research questions three and 4,

Questions 7 & 8: Data from survey item 4 of Section 1 and items 27-28 of Section II assessed the relationship between the number of years the teacher has taught special education and the amount of transition instruction students received within the LS and SDS skill domains. Each variable, evaluated independently, was reported using the mean as the measure of central tendency. The Pearson r then established whether a correlation existed between the two variables. Twenty LS and SDS outliers were removed prior to analysis, leaving a total response based on $N = 145$.

Questions 9 & 10: Data from survey items 1-26 and items 27-28, both from Section II, were analyzed to determine whether a correlation existed between the percentage of students rated at the Independent and Semi-independent levels on each LS and SDS skill and the amount of time transition-related instruction is provided. Prior to conducting these analyses, nineteen outliers identified by SPSS were removed, leaving a total response based on $N = 146$. The Pearson r (product-moment correlation coefficient) (Pearson r) established whether a correlation existed between the two variables.

The observed levels of independence demonstrated by students were assigned numerical values of Independent = 4 and Semi-independent = 3. These scores were compiled to yield the percentage of students rated at the Independent or Semi-independent levels who could actually demonstrate the skill (with minimal instruction or directive). Combining these skill levels improved the student ratings dramatically and possibly provided a more accurate description of the abilities of these students. Students with E/BD are able to demonstrate many of the SDS skills upon request or directive yet, may not elect to demonstrate them independently. A composite score was calculated regarding the amount of transition-related instruction each teacher had provided with regard to LS and SDS skills. The Pearson r then determined whether a correlation existed between the two variables.

Question 11 & 12: Survey items 5 & 6 (Section 1) were correlated with items 8-26 and 1-7 (Section II) to determine whether a correlation existed between the percentage of students at either the Independent or Semi-independent level on each LS and SDS skill and the total amount of transition training (number of hours) the teacher

had received. Teachers reported having received a wide range of transition-related training (i.e., LS = 0 – 7200 hours and SDS= 0-5100 hours) with regard to college clock hours, workshops, in-Services, and other training.

To preserve a normal distribution of responses, the criteria of 120 hours was set as the maximum allowed per type of training. The criterion was set based on the premise that 120 hours was equivalent to 2.5, three credit hour college courses: a figure lenient enough to account for the maximum number of classes assumed to exist at the university level focused specifically on transition. Outliers (n = 83 LS and n = 76 SDS) were identified based on those reporting a figure in excess of 120 hours and those who did not respond to the item, leaving approximately one-half of the participants (i.e., n = 82 LS and n = 89 SDS) for data analysis. The selection criteria did not take into consideration training time available via multiple-day seminars, symposiums, and university sponsored Learning Institutes. Two-thirds of the outliers were the result of non-response; while one-third were the result of unreasonably large figures. The Pearson *r* then determined whether a correlation existed between the variables.

Question 13: The total amounts of transition-related training the teacher had received with regard to LS and SDS skills (items 6 and 5, respectively, of Section I) were correlated with the percentage of students with STSN in LS and SDS (items 36-54 and 29-35, respectively, of Section III). The majority of outliers (N = 79) were identified based on non-response rather than unreasonably large figures. Those reporting extreme numbers ranged from a maximum of n = 16 regarding the LS training received and a maximum of n = 28 regarding SDS training received.

Three analyses were completed regarding this research question. First, the total amount of LS transition training was correlated with the total percentage of students with STSN addressing LS skills. Second, the total amount of SDS transition training was correlated with the total percentage of students with STSN addressing SDS skills. Third, the overall amount of transition training was correlated with the overall percentage of students with STSN regarding the composite of LS and SDS skills. Outliers for LS (n = 83), SDS (n = 76), and the composite of LS and SDS (n = 83) were removed prior to conducting the Pearson *r*.

Teacher comments helped to clarify why responses varied greatly. Fifty-six teachers (34%) provided no response to the questions asking the amount of training they had experienced. As a result, the training figures reported were of very little value in determining the degree to which these teachers and students were representative of the population of teachers and students within the state. Likewise, the small number of responses cannot be generalized to any population beyond Kansas.

Twenty-four teachers reported an inability to identify the number of hours of training due to the length of time that had passed since their latest training, the number of years that they had taught, and the enormous amount of training they had received. Several teachers (n = 25) indicated that LS and SDS instruction was provided throughout every aspect of instruction offered each day. Outliers (i.e., non-response and those reporting figures in excess of 120 hours) were removed based on the premise that LS and SDS may be addressed within subject material but would not likely be the sole focus of the instruction in a typical school setting.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

The following results represent data obtained from 165 of the 500 randomly selected teachers of transition-aged students with E/BD across the state of Kansas during the school year of 2005-2006. Names and addresses were selected from the State Aid Reimbursement database of the KSDE, dated October 1, 2005. The teacher pool (N = 1,049) represented 21% of the Kansas PreK-12 special education teacher population of 4,953 during the 2005-2006 school year (4,780 specifically contracted to teach special education and 173 contracted to teach a combination of general and special education).

Employment data was available regarding the total population of special education teachers for the school year of 2004-2005. The KSDE reported 276 teachers on Waiver status and 700 with Provisional certification across all areas and grade levels of special education for the school years of 2004-2005 (KSDE, SSS – www.kansped.org, revised 5/25/2005).

Participants (N = 500) included, but were not limited to those teaching students with E/BD grades 7-12. Teachers reported a variety of instructional service delivery models including Resource Room, Self-Contained, etc. Responses following the second mailing totaled slightly less than 50% (n = 248) of the teacher pool (N = 500). Of those received, one-third (N = 165 of 500) provided useable surveys, while 1/5th (n = 83 of 500) did not, for an effective percent of 39.6% (500 less 83 non-useable = 165/417).

The most current information available regarding the number of teachers per level of certification and the number of students per disability category at the time of the study was from the 2004-2005 school year. During that school year, 65,291 PreK-12 students with disabilities and 80,334 students with an exceptionality (i.e., disabled plus gifted and talented) received special education services. Those with E/BD (N = 4,195) were equivalent to 6.4% of the disabled population and 5.2% of the exceptional population. Assuming the number of students with disabilities remained the same for the 2005-2006 school year, the students reported within the survey (N = 1076) would be equivalent to 2% of the disabled population and less than 1/10th of one percent of the exceptional population.

KSDE compiles specific data with regard to teachers and students at the close of each fiscal year. Therefore, it was impossible to determine whether the sample population was representative of special education teachers statewide. Figures regarding the 2004-2005 teacher and student populations provide a reference point from which further analysis will be possible when exact figures from the 2005-2006 year become available (Kansas State Department of Education, Student Support Services (2004) (<http://www.kansped.org>)).

Demographics

Demographic information obtained in Section 1 of the survey included:

- 1) Grade level(s) taught at the time of the survey
- 2) Service delivery model (based on the model used with the majority of the teacher's students)
- 3) Level of teacher certification
- 4) Years of teaching experience in special education
- 5) Number of exceptional students taught by the teacher at the time of the survey
- 6) Number of students with E/BD taught by the teacher at the time of the survey
- 7) Amount of LS training received by the teacher
- 8) Amount of SDS training received by the teacher
- 9) Amount of LS instruction provided to students with E/BD
- 10) Amount of SDS instruction provided to students with E/BD

Grade Levels Taught

KSDE provided the teacher pool based on the grade levels (7-12) taught and the type of classroom (IR or E/BD). The grade level options available to teachers were as follow:

- Middle School - Grades 5 - 8
- Junior High – Grades 7 - 8
- Senior High – Grades 9 - 12
- Other - ____ (please specify)

Nearly 70% of the teachers (n = 113) reported teaching students at the senior high level, while 20% (n = 21) reported teaching at the junior high level (see Table 1).

Table 1. Grade Levels Taught by Participants

<i>Grade Level</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>
Middle School (5-8)	10	6.1%
Junior High (7-8)	21	12.7%
Senior High (9-12)	113	68.5%
Junior- Senior High (7-12)	14	8.5%
Middle – High School (5-8)	4	2.4%
Senior High + Community-Based	1	0.6%
Kindergarten – Senior High (K-12)	2	1.2%
Total	165	100.0%

The remaining 10% were split between middle school, junior – senior high, middle – senior high, K-12, and Community-Based programs including high school students (grades 9-12) and those seeking to complete their G.E.D.

Teacher Service Delivery Model

The designated participant selection criteria included the service delivery models of IR and E/BD classrooms. Teachers (N = 165), however, reported the multiple service delivery models (see Table 2).

Table 2. Teacher Service Delivery Model

<i>Service Delivery Model</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>
Resource Room	104	63.0%
Self-Contained	28	17.0%
Special Day	17	10.3%
Resource Room	7	4.2%
Self-Contained - Resource Rm.	6	3.6%
Consultative	2	1.2%
Community-Based	1	0.6%
Total	165	100.0%

The majority, 63% (n = 104) reported teaching within an Interrelated Resource Room (IR), followed by 17% (n = 28) in a Self-Contained room, and 10.3% (n = 17) in a Special Purpose or Day School. The remaining sixteen taught within the following combination of models: Consultative - Resource, 4.2% (n = 7), Self-Contained - Resource, 3.6% (n = 6), Consultative, 1.2% (n = 2), and a Community-Based Program .6% (n = 1). No teacher reported a hospital delivery model.

Teacher Certification Level

The majority of teachers (90.9%, n = 150) reported having Full Certification, followed by 5.5% (n = 9) on Waiver Status, and 3.6% (n = 6) with Provisional Endorsement (see Table 3).

Table 3. Teacher Certification Level

<i>Certification</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>
Full Certification or Licence	150	90.9%
Provisional Endorsement	6	3.6%
Waiver	9	5.5%
Total	165	100.0%

The only certification data available through KSDE for the current, 2005-2006 were the number of teachers with Provisional Certification. The KSDE-SSS employment roster, based on September 1, 2005 State Aid Reimbursement data, included 193 teachers with Provisional Certification solely within IR and E/BD classrooms; 189 in IR and 4 in E/BD. Participants included six of the 193 (3%).

Exact figures were not available for the current school year and, therefore, no direct comparisons could be made. Survey participants included nine on Waiver status. If employment figures remained constant from 2004-2005 to 2005-2006, teachers (n = 9) on Waiver status (teaching a minimum of grades 7-12) would represent 4% of the total population of the PreK-12 teacher population under this provision.

Teaching Experience in Special Education and Student Caseload

Teachers (N = 165) averaged 14.45 years of experience (range: 1 – 37 years) and taught an average class roster of 23.44 special education students (range: 3 – 120 special education students) 6.52 with E/BD (range: 1 – 47 students) (see Table 4).

Table 4. Teaching Experience and Student Caseload

	<i>Yrs SE Teaching Experience</i>	<i>SE Students / Teacher Roster</i>	<i>E/BD Students Teacher Roster</i>
Mean	14.5	23.4	6.5
Median	13	17	4
Mode	10	17	2
N	165	165	165
Total	2,370	3,867	1,076

The average number of special education students (n = 3,867) per teacher (n = 165) was 23.44, with a median and mode each at 17. Of these, 8.5% (n = 14) report teaching more than 50 special education students, as listed on their class roster. These figures appear extreme since the majority (n = 113) report teaching at the high school level in an IR classroom (n = 104). The figures would represent an extreme number of IEPs for each teacher to manage within an IR classroom.

The number of students reportedly receiving services under the direction of each special education teacher was well beyond the acceptable number recommended by the KSDE. An average caseload and class size for special education teachers and their classrooms (as well as those for general educators) is far less than one hundred, a response given by several teachers.

Teachers reporting extremely large class rosters (and, in particular, large numbers of students with E/BD) may be due, in part, to the service delivery model employed by the teacher. Participants who taught in self-contained settings, 17% (n = 28) and those

who taught within a special purpose or day school 10.3% (n = 17) such as correctional facilities and alternative education programs, may have reported figures including all the students within the facility, rather than the students they have direct responsibility for. These figures might also be possible for the teacher providing instruction via a consultative model, as might be seen within a sparsely populated region such as western Kansas.

Teacher Training

Life Skills Training

Teachers (n = 82) reported having received an average of 14.2 college clock hours, 10.5 workshop hours, 8 in-service hours, and 1.4 other hours of LS training (an average of 8.5 hours per type) (see Table 5).

Table 5. Mean Number of Clock Hours of Life Skills Training of Teachers

	<i>Hrs LS</i>	<i>Hrs. LS</i>	<i>Hrs. LS</i>	<i>Hrs LS</i>
	<i>College</i>	<i>Workshop</i>	<i>In-Service</i>	<i>Other</i>
Missing	59	55	55	56
Mean	14.2	10.5	8	1.4
Total	1,165	858	658	117

Approximately one-third of the teachers did not respond to the question regarding each type of training. ‘Other’ was interpreted to mean any training other than the traditional college clock hours, workshops, and in-services. Due to the wide variation in responses regarding the amount of training teachers had received, responses were grouped into intervals of thirty clock-hours (see Table 6). These groupings describe the actual data received more clearly than the means.

Table 6. Life Skills Training of Teachers: 30-Hour Intervals

<i>Hours</i>	<u>College</u>		<u>Workshop</u>		<u>In-Service</u>		<u>Other</u>	
	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
0 Hours	40	48.8%	22	26.8%	30	36.6%	80	97.6%
1-30 Hours	23	28.1%	48	58.5%	46	56.1%	2	2.4%
31-60 Hours	13	15.9%	8	9.8%	5	6.1%	0	0.0%
61-90 Hours	6	7.3%	2	2.4%	1	1.2%	0	0.0%
91-120 Hours	0	0.0%	2	2.4%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%

College: Sixty-three teachers (76.8% of N = 82) reported having received between zero and thirty hours of college training in LS, of which, 40 (48.8%) reported having received zero training. No teachers reported having received more than 90 hours of college training.

Workshop: Seventy teachers (85.4%) reported having received between zero and thirty hours of workshop training in LS, of which, 22 (26.8%) reported having received zero training. Five teachers (4.6%) reported having received ninety-one or more hours of workshop training.

In-Service: Seventy-six teachers (92.7%) reported having received between zero and thirty hours of in-service training, of which, 30 (36.6%) reported having received zero training in LS. Only one teacher (1%) reported having received sixty-one or more hours of in-service training, while zero teachers reported having received ninety-one or more hours of training.

Other: All Eighty-two teachers (100%) reported having received between zero and thirty hours of other training in LS, of which, eighty (97.6%) reported having received zero training.

Self-Determination Skills Training

Teachers (n = 89) reported having received an average of 5.9 college clock hours, 6 workshop hours, 5 in-service hours, and 1.4 other hours of SDS training (i.e., an average of 2.1 hours per type) (see Table 7).

Table 7. Mean Number of Clock Hours of SDS Training of Teacher

Self-Determination	College	Workshop	In-Service	Other
Non-Response	67	63	63	64
Mean	5.9	6	5	1.4
Total	522	535	446	120

Due to the wide variation in responses regarding the amount of training teachers had received, the responses were grouped into intervals of thirty-hours (see Table 8). These groupings describe the data received more accurately than did the means.

Table 8. Self-Determination Skills Training of Teachers: 30-Hour Intervals

<i>Hours</i>	<u>College</u>		<u>Workshop</u>		<u>In-Service</u>		<u>Other</u>	
	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>
0 Hours	58	65.1%	49	55.1%	45	52.3%	86	96.6%
1-30 Hours	23	25.8%	34	38.2%	41	46.1%	2	2.3%
31-60 Hours	7	7.9%	5	5.6%	3	3.4%	1	
61-90 Hours	1	1.1%	0		0		0	
91-120 Hours	0		1	1.1%	0		0	

College: Eighty-one teachers (91%) reported having received between zero and thirty clock hours of college training in SDS, of which, 58 (65.2%) reported having received zero training. Only one teacher (1.1%) reported having received sixty-one or more hours of training, while zero reported having received ninety-one or more hours of college training.

Workshop: Eighty-three teachers (93.3%) reported having received between zero and thirty hours of workshop training in SDS, of which, 49 (55.1%) reported having received zero training. Five teachers (5.6%) reported having received between thirty-one and sixty hours of training, while only one (1%) reported having received ninety-one or more hours of workshop training.

In-Service: Eighty-six teachers (96.6%) reported having received between zero and thirty hours of in-service training in SDS, of which, 45 (50.6%) reported having received zero training. The remaining three teachers (3.4%) reported having received between thirty-one and sixty hours of in-service training.

Other: Eighty-six teachers (96.6%) reported having received between zero and thirty hours of other training in SDS, of which, 84 (94.4%) reported having received zero training. One teacher (1.1%) reported having received between 31 and 60 hours of other training.

Transition Skills Instruction Provided

Life Skills Instruction

Teachers (n = 147) reported providing LS instruction an average of 118.3 minutes weekly (fewer than 120 minutes or 2 hours weekly) or 23.7 minutes daily. The average does not clearly describe the distribution of responses. Therefore, responses were grouped into sixty-minute intervals (see Table 9).

Table 9. Life Skills Instruction: 60-Minute Intervals

<i>Minutes</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>
0	21	14.3%
0-60	52	35.4%
61-120	23	15.6%
121-180	11	7.5%
181-240	17	11.6%
241+	23	15.6%

Data indicate that just under half (n = 73) of the teachers report teaching between zero and sixty minutes per week, of which 14.3% (n = 21) of teachers reported providing zero instruction per week. Data indicate that 15.6% (n = 23) reported providing between 61 and 120 minutes per week (between 12 and 24 minutes per day). More than one-third of the teachers (34.7% or n = 51) report providing LS instruction more than 120 minutes per week or between 24 and 100 minutes per day.

Self-Determination Skills Instruction

Teachers (n = 145) reported providing SDS instruction an average of 98.4 minutes weekly (slightly more than 1.5 hours) or 19.7 minutes daily. The average does not clearly describe the distribution of responses. Therefore, responses were grouped into sixty-minute intervals (see Table 10).

Table 10. Self-Determination Skills Instruction: 60-Minute Intervals

<i>Minutes</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>
0	17	11.7%
0-60	71	49.0%
61-120	17	11.7%
121-180	9	6.2%
181-240	14	9.7%
241 +	17	11.7%

Data indicate that 60.7% (n = 88) of the teachers provide SDS skills instruction between zero and sixty minutes per week, of which 11.7% (n = 17) reported providing zero instruction in SDS skills weekly, while an additional 11.7% (n = 17) reported providing between 61 to 120 minutes weekly. More than one-fourth (27.6% or n = 40) reported providing more than 120 minutes of instruction weekly or between 24 and 150 minutes per day.

In summary, the teachers (N = 165) represent 39.6% of the available participant pool (165/417) provided through KSDE. Eighty-three teachers returned an incomplete survey because they were either unable or unwilling to respond. The majority of teachers, 68.5% (n = 113) taught solely at the senior high level, while an additional 12.7% (n = 21) taught multiple levels including senior high. Sixty-three percent (n = 104) taught in an IR classroom, followed by 17% (n = 28) in a Self-Contained and 10.3% (n = 17) in a special purpose or day school. Ninety-one percent (n = 150) reported full certification, followed by 5.5% (n = 9) on Waiver status, and 3.6% (n = 6) with

Provisional Endorsement. Since data is not available from the KSDE regarding teacher certification for the current year, any speculation regarding the similarities and differences among teacher populations would be solely conjecture.

Teachers reported an average of 14.5 years experience (with a range from 1-37 years), with a student roster of 23.4 students, 6.5 with E/BD. These figures cannot be compared to the state averages obtained through KSDE for the school year of 2004-2005 since the teacher pools were not known to be equivalent. The teacher pool included 500 IR and E/BD special education teachers of students including, but not limited to, grades 7-12. As such, many teachers within the pool were not appropriate participants (i.e., their class list may not have included students with E/BD at the time of the survey or it may have included numerous students with E/BD at grade levels other than 7-12).

Several participants reported providing direct instruction to an inordinately large number of special education students ($n = 120$) and/or an incredibly large number of students with E/BD ($n = 47$). These student numbers, though not impossible, are improbable and likely lead to measurement error. Teachers rarely are assigned the direct responsibility of managing the IEP for more than 30 students with a disability or 10 students with an E/BD.

Teachers reported having received training in LS and SDS at varying levels. In general, fifty-percent reported very little training (zero to thirty hours) in any of the four modalities (college, workshop, in-service, and other), while a few reported having received an extreme number of hours (i.e., 5,000+ hours). The variation in training, explainable only through speculation, was not clarified via teacher comments.

The amount of LS and SDS training provided to students with E/BD also varied widely. Teachers reported providing instruction in LS an average of 118.3 minutes weekly (23.7 minutes daily) and SDS an average of 98.4 minutes weekly (19.7 minutes daily). Teachers provided LS and SDS instruction from 0-100% of each day.

Research Questions & Data Responses

Question 1: Which life skills can students with E/BD demonstrate independently (without verbal, written, or physical assistance, instruction, or directive)?

The LS within Table 11 are listed in rank-order from the skill demonstrated most frequently at the Independent level to the skill demonstrated least frequently at the Independent level. The LS skills are listed in abbreviated form within Table 11, but can be viewed in their entirety in Appendix G (Brolin & Loyd, 2004).

Teacher ratings provided within Table 11 report only the observable levels of skill demonstration (Independent, Semi-independent, and Dependent) and exclude the Not Observed response provided within the survey. Not Observed was deemed an unnecessary response to include in Table 11 because the intent of the question was to determine the student's level of independence rather than the teacher's level of involvement in the student's life.

Table 11. Student Levels of Independence on Life Skills

<i>Life Skills</i>	<i>Independent</i>		<i>Self-Determination</i>		<i>Dependent</i>		<i>Total</i>	
	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>
Communicates with Others	459	47.0%	343	35.1%	175	17.9%	977	90.8%
Gets Around in Comm.	383	58.0%	170	25.8%	107	16.2%	660	61.3%
Exhibits Indep. Behavior	313	34.2%	342	37.4%	259	28.3%	914	84.9%
Managing Money	274	31.3%	362	41.8%	231	26.7%	867	80.6%
Dem. Resp. Beh.	213	22.0%	369	38.2%	384	40.0%	966	89.8%
Makes Informed Decisions	198	20.7%	423	44.2%	337	35.2%	958	89.0%
Dev. Approp. Social Rel.	158	23.8%	261	39.3%	245	36.9%	664	61.7%
Leisure and Recreation	150	66.1%	51	22.5%	26	11.5%	227	21.1%
Eat at Home / Community	142	68.3%	42	20.2%	24	11.5%	208	19.3%
Acquires Self-Identity	119	34.6%	136	39.5%	89	25.9%	344	32.0%

(Table Continues...)

Table 11 (continued)

Life Skills	<u>Independent</u>		<u>Semi-Independent</u>		<u>Dependent</u>		<u>Total</u>	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
Makes Occ. / Job Choices	118	29.9%	130	33.0%	146	37.1%	394	36.6%
Cleans / Purchases Clothes	107	58.8%	54	29.7%	21	11.5%	182	16.9%
Explores Occ. Training	105	27.3%	140	36.5%	139	36.2%	384	35.7%
Develops App. Work Skills	85	22.6%	144	38.3%	147	39.1%	376	34.9%
Develops App. Int. Rel.	83	39.3%	71	33.6%	57	27.0%	211	19.6%
Cares for Personal Health	80	37.2%	90	41.9%	45	20.9%	215	20.0%
Matches Skills to Employ.	61	33.3%	57	31.1%	65	35.5%	183	17.0%
Applies for Occ. Training	51	27.0%	75	39.7%	63	33.3%	189	17.6%
Maintains Living Env.	41	25.0%	54	32.9%	69	42.1%	164	15.2%

Teachers did not provide ratings of independence for the full student population (N = 1,076) for each skill. Ratings included a range from 90.8% (n = 977), Communicates with Others, to a mere 15.2% (n = 164), Maintains Living Environment, of the student population. Due to the variation in response rates, the data obtained, with regard to the level of independence students demonstrate each LS skill, cannot be used as baseline. The reason(s) for the variation cannot be determined with any certainty.

Of the students included within the teacher ratings, fewer than 50% of the students were Independent on any of the 19 LS competencies (see Table 11). Teachers rated more than one-third of the student population Independent in the skill areas of Communicates with Others 47.0% (n = 459) and Getting Around in the Community 58.0% (n = 383). The reader is cautioned against making declarative statements based on the variation in student population upon which the data is based.

Teachers provided a rating for fewer than 25% of the entire student population (N = 1,076) regarding 12 of the 19 LS skills. The two skills teachers rated the fewest number of students on were Applies for Occupational Training (n = 51) and Maintains Living Environment (n = 41). These were among the skills for which students were ranked least Independent (17.6% and 25%, respectively).

Teachers provided ratings for students of various population numbers. Only 22% (n = 213) of the student population Demonstrate Socially Responsible Behavior and 20.7% (n = 198) Make Informed Decisions. Of the students rated, more than one-third of the student population, 34.2% (n = 313) was rated Independent with regard to Exhibit Independent Behavior. This figure, though ranked the fourth highest with regard to the student's level of Independence was nearly equivalent to the number of students rated at the Semi-independent and Dependent levels (37.4% and 28.3%, respectively) and may therefore, neutralize the perceived strength of the level of independence obtained.

Ironically, five of the top seven SDS skills are the very skill deficits present in the identification of an emotional and/or behavioral disorder. These particular skills are not generally associated with incidental learning, but rather with experiential learning opportunities, of which students may have very little exposure (which may explain, in part, the ratings given). A few of the LS skills appear to require some form of guidance or instruction (i.e., Make Informed Decisions, Demonstrate Socially Responsible Behavior, and Manage Money) whereas others may be more the result of incidental learning (Communicates with Others and Getting Around in the Community).

To report solely on the population of students at the Independent and Dependent levels may not provide a clear picture of the skills students with E/BD are able to demonstrate, since teachers provided ratings based on such a small number of their students. Students rated at the Independent and Semi-independent levels were combined to determine the percentage of students with E/BD who could demonstrate the LS skills with a minimal amount of directive or instruction. Of those rated, more than 50% were at or above the Semi-independent level on each of the 19 LS skills.

Teachers rated more than one-fourth of the students at both the Independent and Dependent level with regard to their ability to exhibit Independent Behavior (29.1% and 24.1%, respectively). These ratings indicate that while some students are able to demonstrate the LS skills without directive, many are not (i.e., 31.8% were at the Semi-independent level). A few of the skills may possibly require some guidance or instruction (i.e., Make Informed Decisions, Demonstrate Socially Responsible Behavior, and Manage Money) while others may be more the result of incidental or experiential learning (i.e., Communicates with Others and Getting Around in the Community).

Teachers apparently overlooked the skill of Selecting and Maintaining a Living Environment (33%) when they selected transition curricula for students with E/BD, as demonstrated via the number of students rated (n = 164 or 15.2%). The rating, as the skill demonstrated Independent by the fewest number of students with E/BD, is in line with the findings of the NLTS: These students are frequently unable to obtain and maintain independent living status due to their lack of social skills, work-related skills, and lack of knowledge regarding effective budgeting of one's income (Wagner & Blackorby, 1996).

Question 2: Which self-determination skills can students with E/BD demonstrate independently (i.e., without verbal, written, or physical assistance, instruction, or directive)?

The skills listed within Table 12 are listed in rank-order from the skill demonstrated most frequently at the Independent level to the skill demonstrated least frequently at the Independent level. The SDS skills listed are in abbreviated form within the Table 12, but are provided in their entirety in Appendix A.

Table 12. Student Levels of Independence on Self-Determination Skills

SDS	<i>Independent</i>		<i>Semi-Independent</i>		<i>Dependent</i>		<i>Total</i>	
	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>
Choice Making	500	48.7%	352	34.3%	175	17.0%	1027	95.4%
Decision-Making	382	38.1%	371	37.0%	249	24.9%	1002	93.1%
Self-Advocacy	346	34.8%	276	27.7%	373	37.5%	995	92.5%
Goal Setting	175	18.4%	346	36.4%	430	45.2%	951	88.4%
Self-Awareness	136	28.7%	172	36.3%	166	35.0%	474	44.1%
Problem Solving	40	23.1%	89	51.4%	44	25.4%	173	16.1%
Self-Management	36	4.4%	350	43.2%	424	52.3%	810	75.3%

N = 1,076

Teacher ratings provided within Table 12 report only the observable levels of skill demonstration (Independent, Semi-independent, and Dependent) and exclude the Not Observed response provided within the survey. Not Observed was deemed an unnecessary response to include in Table 12 because the intent of the question was to determine the student’s level of independence rather than the teacher’s level of involvement in the student’s life.

Teacher ratings of students were based on an inconsistent number of students with a range of 95.4% or n = 810. Fewer than 50% of the student population (n = 538 of 1,076) demonstrated any particular SDS competencies at the Independent level. Choice-Making skills, ranked first among the seven, was the skill students demonstrated most independently 46.5% (n = 500).

Listing the seven SDS skills in rank order based on the level of independence students demonstrate each would appear to have merit. Upon closer evaluation, however, a similar number of students at the dependent level often demonstrate the skills that students demonstrate with relative independence. For example, 34.8% of the student population was rated Independent with regard to Self-Advocacy (i.e., third in rank order) and yet, a higher percentage (37.5%) were rated Dependent.

More than half are able to demonstrate the majority of the skills when given a written or oral directive. These responses may indicate the need for further instruction or practice of skills that could occur based on IEP goals and objectives. Teachers rated 37.0% (n = 371) of the students Semi-independent with regard to Decision-Making. Teachers rated 24.9% (n = 249) at the Dependent level. Decision-Making is clearly a skill that can be demonstrated by many students with minimal instruction and directive, yet it would not be wise to discount the fact that nearly one-fourth were considered Dependent on this very same skill. Nor would it be wise to ignore the fact that several teachers stated their ratings were based on the demonstration of the skill in its most literal form, regardless of the appropriateness of the behavior.

Teachers did not provide ratings of independence for the full student population (N = 1,076) for each skill (95.4%, N = 1,027 to 16.1%, n = 179, respectively). The ratings at which students demonstrated SDS skills were calculated based on a wide range of the student population, which could lead to an extreme misinterpretation of the data. For example, teachers rated 48.7% (n = 1,027) of the student population Independent in their ability to demonstrate Choice Making. Similarly, they rated 51.4% (n = 44) at the Semi-independent level with regard to Problem Solving. These percentages, though having a similar appearance (face value) were based on a difference in the student population of nearly 1,000 students!

To report solely on the population of students at the Independent and Dependent levels may not provide a clear picture of the skills students with E/BD demonstrate, since teachers provided ratings regarding fewer than 50% of the total student population with regard to two of the seven skills. Teachers provided ratings for only 47% (n = 510) of the student population with regard to Self-Awareness and Self-Knowledge, and 17% (n = 179) with regard to Problem-Solving.

Of the students who were rated, more than 50% were at or above the Semi-independent skill level with regard to three of the seven SDS skills: Choice-Making at 83.0% (n = 852), Decision-Making at 75.1% (n = 753), and Self-Advocacy at 55%, (n = 622). It is important to note that students at the Semi-independent level have not internalized the skill to make it an Independent skill within their behavioral repertoire and therefore are not likely to demonstrate the skill without some level of directive.

Teachers rated an inconsistent number of students in their ability to demonstrate both LS and SDS skills. If merely skimmed, the variation in numbers of students upon which the responses were based may lead the reader to inaccurate conclusions. For example, fewer than 20% of the student population (N = 1,076) was rated concerning Cares for Personal Health 20% (n = 215), Matches Skills to Employment 17% (n = 183), Applies for Occupational Training 17.6% (n = 189), and Maintains Living Environment 15.2% (n = 164). These skills would appear to be basic and necessary for daily functioning in post-school life, yet data should be considered inconclusive due to the lack of rating given for 80% of the student population (i.e., measurement error).

*Note: Research Questions 3 and 5 are addressed simultaneously, as question 5 simply adds clarity to question 3. Both questions are addressed within Table 13.

Questions 3 and 5: How many students with E/BD have a statement of transition service needs within their IEP directly addressing one or more of the specified life skills? 5. Which specific life skills are addressed within statements of transition service needs for students with E/BD?

Survey results indicate that fewer than 11% of all students with E/BD (i.e., n = 108 of 1,076) have a STSN addressing any of the LS skills (see Table 13). The skills are listed in rank order from those addressed most frequently within STSN to those addressed least frequently, followed by the percent total of N = 1,076.

Table 13. Life Skills within Statements of Transition Service Needs

<i>LIFE SKILLS</i>	<i>Freq.</i>	<i>% of 1,076</i>
Demonstrates Socially Resp. Beh.	108	10.0%
Develops Approp. Social Relations.	107	9.9%
Communicates with Others	97	9.0%
Makes Informed Decisions	94	8.7%
Exhibits Independent Behavior	93	8.6%
Leisure / Recreation	87	8.1%
Develops Appropriate Work Skills	84	7.8%
Explores Occupational Training	79	7.3%
Makes Occupational / Job Choices	77	7.2%
Cares for Personal Health	76	7.1%
Gets Around in Community	72	6.7%
Applies for Occupational Training	58	5.4%
Manages Money	53	5.4%
Develops Intimate Relationships	47	4.9%
Matches Skills to Employment	47	4.4%
Maintains Living Environment	26	4.4%
Cleans and Purchases Clothes	23	2.4%
Eats at Home / Community	23	2.1%
Acquires Self-Identity	12	2.1%

The skill most frequently addressed within the STSN (i.e., 10%, n = 108) was Demonstrates Socially Responsible Behavior. This response concurs with the Dependent rating teachers assigned the population, 35.7% (n = 108), suggesting that the skill is not possessed by the majority of students with E/BD, but that it is deemed necessary and worthy of addressing. The three skills listed within the STSN at a similar frequency were Develops Appropriate Social Relationships at 9.9% (n = 107), Communicates with Others at 9% (n = 97), and Makes Informed Decisions at 8.7% (n = 94).

The number of students with a STSN regarding the skill Develops Appropriate Social Relationships concurs with the need identified through teacher ratings regarding the levels of independence demonstrated: 22.8% (n = 245) rated Dependent and only 14.7% (n = 158) at the Independent level. The agreement between the use of STSN and the percentage of students at each level of independence suggests that the skill is both necessary and worthy of addressing through instruction. Similarly, Makes Informed Decisions, listed within STSNs of 8.7% (n = 94) of the students IEPs, concurs with the Dependent rating teachers assigned to the population of students, 31.3% (n = 337). Semi-independent was the most frequent rating with regard to the skill Makes Informed Decisions, 39.3% (n = 423).

Communicates with Others was included in the STSNs for 9% (n = 97) of the student population. By contrast, students were rated most Independent with regard to their ability to demonstrate this skill, which may indicate that students do not need further instruction in this area. It may also indicate a contradiction in teacher behavior or the inclusion of unnecessary STSNs (or goals).

The skill listed least frequently within the STSN, Acquires Self-Identity 1.1% (n = 12), is equally noteworthy. Teachers assigned ratings of independence to less than one-third of the student population regarding this skill, 32% (n = 344). Of the 1,076 students, 11.1% (n = 119) were rated Independent. This skill is rarely included in the STSNs, which suggests that either teachers do not spend time addressing the skill or, they do not list the skill within a written STSN. Teachers, as demonstrated via ratings of students, are aware that students lack either the ability or the desire to demonstrate the skill independently.

*Note: Research Questions 4 and 6 are addressed consecutively, as question 6 simply adds clarity to question 4. Both questions are addressed within Table 14.

Questions 4 and 6: Of the 1,076 students with E/BD, what percentage have a statement of transition service needs within their IEP directly addressing one or more of the specified self-determination skills? 6. Which specific self-determination skills are addressed within statements of transition service needs?

Survey results indicate that fewer than 8% of all students with E/BD (i.e., n = 79 of 1,076) have a STSN addressing any of the SDS skills (see Table 14). The SDS skills are listed in rank order from the skill listed most frequently within STSNs to the skill listed least frequently, followed by the percent total (N = 1,076).

Table 14. Self-Determination Skills within Statements of Transition Service Needs

<i>Self-Determination Skills</i>	<i>Freq.</i>	<i>% of N = 1,076</i>
Choice Making	79	7.3%
Decision-Making	78	7.3%
Problem-Solving	75	7.0%
Goal-Setting	72	6.7%
Self-Management	72	6.7%
Self-Awareness	69	6.4%
Self-Advocacy	63	5.9%

The three SDS skills listed most frequently within STSN included Choice Making 7.3% (n = 79), Decision-Making 7.3% (n = 78), and Problem-Solving 7% (n = 75). These skills, though listed most frequently among the skills addressed in STSN, were written for fewer than 8% of the student population. In contrast, based on teacher ratings, Choice-Making and Decision-Making were the two skills demonstrated most frequently at the Independent level (46.5%, n = 500 and 35.5%, n = 382, respectively). Teachers had either taught the skills that students demonstrate independently earlier in the year, or 2) the students, being taught the skills of Choice and Decision-Making skills, were

students other than those demonstrating the skills independently, or 3) teachers were listing the skills within STSN unnecessarily (i.e., listing them within the STSN of students who have already mastered the skill).

The three SDS skills listed least frequently within STSN included Self-Management at 6.7% (n = 72), Self-Awareness at 6.4% (n = 69), and Self-Advocacy at 5.9% (n = 63). These skills, though included least frequently, were included within only slightly fewer STSNs than those listed most frequently. Additionally, students were listed most frequently at the Dependent level in their ability to demonstrate two of the three skills: Self-Awareness and Self-Management, 12.6% (n = 136) and 3.4% (n = 36), respectively. This comparison suggests either that STSN are not included within the IEPs of students with E/BD or that teachers do not address SDS skills in STSN regardless of the demonstrated need of the student.

*Note: Table 15 is the composite of LS and SDS skills in rank-order from those addressed most frequently within STSN to those addressed least frequently among students with E/BD. This composite provides a visual example of the order and frequency with which each skill (and skill domain) was addressed.

Table 15. Life Skills & Self-Determination Skills: Statements of Transition Service Needs

<i>LS and SDS Skills</i>	<i>LS and SDS</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>% of 1,076</i>
Dem. Socially Resp. Behavior	LS	108	10.0%
Dev. Appropriate Social Relat.	LS	107	9.9%
Communicates with Others	LS	97	9.0%
Makes Informed Decisions	LS	94	8.7%
Exhibits Independent Behavior	LS	93	8.6%
Leisure / Recreation	LS	87	8.1%
Dev. App. Work Skills	LS	84	7.8%
Explores Occ. Training	LS	79	7.3%
Choice-Making	SDS	79	7.3%
Decision-Making	SDS	78	7.3%
Makes Occ. / Job Choices	LS	77	7.2%
Cares for Personal Health	LS	76	7.1%
Problem-Solving	SDS	75	7.0%
Gets Around in Comm.	LS	72	6.7%
Goal Setting	SDS	72	6.7%
Self-Management	SDS	72	6.7%
Self-Awareness	SDS	69	6.4%
Self-Advocacy	SDS	63	5.9%
Applies for Occ. Training	LS	58	5.4%
Manages Money	LS	53	4.9%
Dev. App. Int. Relationships	LS	47	4.4%
Matches Skills to Employment	LS	47	4.4%
Maintains Living Environment	LS	26	2.4%
Cleans and Purchases Clothes	LS	23	2.1%
Eats at Home / Community	LS	23	2.1%
Acquires Self-Identity	LS	12	1.1%

The first eight skills listed within the STSN are from the LS domain, which may indicate a trend in the curricular focus of special education teachers toward addressing the basic LS skills of students rather than their SDS skills. The final eight skills are also from the LS domain.

Teachers may not write STSN regarding the four skills listed least frequently because they may have assumed that instruction of the skill was the responsibility of the student's caretaker, or that skills demonstration was to occur in an environment other than school. The four skills were Develops Appropriate Intimate Relationships at 4.4% (n = 47), Maintains Living Environment at 2.4% (n = 26), Cleans and Purchases Clothes at 2.1% (n = 23), and Eats at Home and Community at 2.1% (n = 23).

The percentage of teachers who responded to the items by indicating a number of students (even if the number was zero) was at least consistent with (if not higher) than the percentage responding to all other items (N = 161). The high response rate would suggest that teachers were familiar with the term or could determine its meaning through the context of the instructions and yet, did not address these skills, if any, within STSN with students with E/BD. It may also be possible that a larger number of teachers than were reported actually address transition within STSN but do not specifically cover the skills listed within the LS and SDS identified. It is extremely unlikely however, that 90% actually write STSN that address skills other than those listed as LS and SDS.

Question 7: Is there a correlation between the amount of time the teacher provides life skills instruction and the number of years the teacher has taught special education?

The amount of time LS instruction was provided was not related to the number of years the teacher had taught special education. Results indicate no statistically significant correlation between the variables at either the $p < .05$ or $p < .01$ level (see Table 16).

Table 16. Years Teaching Experience Correlated with Minutes of LS Instruction

<i>Life Skills</i>		<i>Yrs Teaching Experience</i>	<i>LS MIN</i>
	Pearson <i>r</i>	1	0.07
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.38
Yrs Teaching Experience	N	158	145

The number of years the teacher had taught and the amount of time the teacher provided LS skills instruction ($p=.074$) was not statistically significant. Teachers averaged 14.5 years experience and provided LS instruction an average of 118.3 minutes per week or 23.7 minutes per day.

Question 8: Is there a correlation between the amount of time the teacher provides self-determination skills instruction and the number of years the teacher has taught special education?

The amount of time that teachers provided SDS skills instruction did not correlate significantly with the number of years the teacher had taught special education. Results indicate no statistically significant correlation between the variables at either the $p < .05$ or $p < .01$ level (see Table 17).

Table 17. Years Teaching Experience Correlated with Minutes of SDS Instruction

<i>Self-Determination Skills</i>	<i>Yrs Teaching Experience</i>	<i>SDS MIN</i>
	Pearson <i>r</i>	1
Yrs Teaching Experience	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.14
	N	159
		145

The number of years the teacher had taught and the amount of time the teacher provided SDS skills instruction was not statistically significant ($p=.136$). Teachers averaged 14.5 years experience and provided SDS instruction 98.4 minutes per week or 19.7 minutes per day.

The non-significant results were unexpected for research questions 7 and 8. Educational approaches change over time: Years of special education teaching experience ranged from 1 to 37 years, which would indicate that the teacher population had likely been exposed to a variety of approaches and professional philosophies regarding transition instruction.

Question 9: Is there a correlation between the amount of time a teacher provides life skills instruction and the percentage of students rated at the Independent and Semi-independent level for each skill?

The students rated at the Independent and Semi-independent levels were combined to determine the percentage of students with E/BD who could demonstrate the particular skills with a minimal amount of directive or instruction (see Table 18). Table 18 lists the specific correlations between the amounts of time teachers provide transition-related LS skills instruction and the percentage of students rated at the Independent and Semi-independent levels.

Table 18. LS Instruction Correlated with Percentage of Students Rated Independent or Semi-independent on LS Skills

<i>LS MIN</i>	<i>Manage Money</i>	<i>Mnt. Lvg. Env.</i>	<i>Pers. Health</i>	<i>Int. Rel.</i>	<i>Eat @ Comm.</i>
Pearson r	-0.12	-0.12	0.03	0.12	3.03
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.14	0.15	0.72	0.21	0.71
N	147	146	146	146	146

<i>LS MIN</i>	<i>Purchase Clothes</i>	<i>Leis. / Rec.</i>	<i>Comm. Lvg.</i>	<i>Self-Idty.</i>	<i>Resp. Behavior</i>
Pearson r	-0.16	0	0.1	**0.29	-0.13
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.06	0.1	0.22	0	0.11
N	146	144	145	141	147

<i>LS MIN</i>	<i>Social Rel.</i>	<i>Indep. Beh.</i>	<i>Make Dec.</i>	<i>Communicate</i>
Pearson r	*-0.18	0.11	0.12	0.02
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.03	0.18	0.15	0.85
N	146	146	146	147

*** $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.**

On only two LS skills was there a significant statistical correlation. A statistically significant negative correlation was identified between the percentage of students rated at the Independent and Semi-independent levels on 2 of the 19 LS and the amount of LS skills

instruction provided [1) Acquiring Self-identity ($r = -.29, p < .01$) and 2) Developing and Maintaining Appropriate Social Relationships ($r = -.18, p < .05$)]. These results suggest that as the percentage of students rated Independent and Semi-independent increases, the amount of time teachers spend on these particular LS skills decreases.

Acquires Self-Identity is listed within 1.1% ($n = 12$) of the student's STSN, yet teachers rated only 11.1% ($n = 119$) of the students with E/BD at the Independent level and 12.6% ($n = 136$) at the Semi-independent level. These results may indicate that teachers have identified a skill area in which students with E/BD need further instruction. However, if instruction were based on the numbers who have a STSN addressing the specific skills, very few actually receive instruction. Note: 13.8% ($n = 21$) of the responding teachers reported providing zero LS skills instruction weekly.

Question 10: Is there a correlation between the amount of time a teacher provides self-determination skills instruction and the percentage of students rated at the Independent and Semi-independent levels for each skill?

The students rated at the Independent and Semi-independent levels were combined to determine the percentage of students with E/BD who could demonstrate the particular skills with a minimal amount of directive or instruction. There was no statistically significant correlation between the amount of SDS skills instruction provided (98 minutes weekly) and the percentage of students rated at the Independent and Semi-independent levels of proficiency with regard to any of the SDS skills (see Table 19).

Table 19. SDS Instruction Correlated with Percentage of Students Rated Independent or Semi-independent on SDS Skills

<i>SDS MIN</i>		<i>Choice Making</i>	<i>Decision-Making</i>	<i>Problem Solving</i>	<i>Goal Setting</i>
Pearson r	1	0.04	-0.05	-0.01	0.02
Sig. (2-tailed)		0.68	0.54	0.91	0.77
N	146	146	146	145	146

<i>SDS MIN</i>		<i>Self-Advocacy</i>	<i>Self-Management</i>	<i>Self-Awareness</i>
Pearson r	1	0.11	0.09	0.08
Sig. (2-tailed)		0.19	0.29	0.32
N	146	146	146	145

No statistically significant correlation was indicated between the percentages of students rated Independent and Semi-independent with the amounts of time SDS skills instruction was provided.

Confounding variables were apparently affecting the majority of the correlations. The variables had to do with the number of students with E/BD on the class roster of each teacher relative to the amount of instruction he or she provided for each skill. Teachers and students generally are placed with one another somewhat at random and generally based on the enrollment within a given district. The teachers employed in the state of

Kansas vary as much in the amounts of instruction they provide, their levels of transition-related instructional training, their experience, and their level of certification, as do the students in the degree of their disability, the behaviors they demonstrate, and the academic level at which they perform. The affects of these confounding variables, though suspected to present itself in a significant way, are not discernable within the realm of the current study.

Question 11: Is there a correlation between the percentage of students teachers rated Independent and Semi-independent on each of the nineteen life skills and the amount of transition training the teacher received in life skills?

Results indicated no statistically significant correlation between the percentages of students rated Independent and Semi-independent on each of the LS skills and the amount of time teachers provided LS skills instruction (see Table 20).

Table 20. Percentage of Students Rated Independent or Semi-independent on LS Skills Correlated with the Amount of LS Teacher Training Received

<i>Life Skills: Total LS Training</i>		<i>TI LS Training</i>
Total LS Training	Pearson r	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	N	82
Manages Money	Pearson r	-0.02
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.90
	N	82
Maintains Lvg. Envir.	Pearson r	0.07
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.51
	N	82
Cares for Pers. Health	Pearson r	0.09
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.41
	N	82
Maint. Approp. Int. Rel.	Pearson r	0.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.98
	N	82
Eats @ Home / Comm.	Pearson r	0.14
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.21
	N	81
Buys / Cleans Clothes	Pearson r	-0.02
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.89
	N	82
Leisure & Recreation	Pearson r	0.19
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.10
	N	81

(Table continues...)

Table 20. (continued)

	<i>Life Skills: Total LS Training</i>	<i>TI LS Training</i>
Get Around in Comm.	Pearson r	0.17
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.14
	N	80
Acquires Self-Identity	Pearson r	0.05
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.68
	N	81
Dem. Resp. Behavior	Pearson r	0.06
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.58
	N	82
Dev. Approp. Social Rel.	Pearson r	-0.11
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.34
	N	81
Exhibits Indep. Behavior	Pearson r	-0.09
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.42
	N	82
Makes Informed Decisions	Pearson r	-0.13
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.26
	N	81
Communicates / Others	Pearson r	0.12
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.30
	N	82
Explores Occ. Training	Pearson r	0.07
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.53
	N	81

(Table continues...)

Table 20. (continued)

<i>Life Skills: Total LS Training</i>		<i>TI LS Training</i>
Makes Occ./ Job Choices	Pearson r	0.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.96
	N	81
Applies for Occ. Training	Pearson r	0.18
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.11
	N	80
Develops App. Wk. Skills	Pearson r	0.19
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.09
	N	80

Teachers do not appear to direct much time or attention toward transition instruction. The results (i.e., no correlation) concur with the results obtained regarding the amount of training provided and the number of students with a STSN within their IEP. Very few students with E/BD have a STSN that addresses one or more of the LS competencies. The number of hours of LS training received varied widely, yet the majority reported very little training (an average of 8.5 hours across all four domains).

Very little LS instruction is provided (mean = 119 minutes weekly). Those who provided a minimum of 119 minutes of LS instruction weekly were utilizing 6% of the academic school week. Grouping the results into 30-minute intervals provided evidence that fewer than half of the teachers provide LS instruction for more than one hour per week (i.e., 3% of the academic school week). 11.3% (n = 17) reported providing zero minutes of transition-related instruction.

Question 12: Is there a correlation between the percentage of students rated at either the Independent or Semi-independent level on each of the seven Self-Determination Skill competencies and the amount of transition training the teacher had received in self-determination skills instruction?

On only two SDS skills was there a significant statistical correlation. The remaining five skills did not produce a significant correlation (see Table 21).

Table 21. Percentage of Students Rated Independent or Semi-independent on SDS skills Correlated with Amount of Teacher Training Received in SDS Skills

<i>Self-Determination</i>		<i>TL SDS Training</i>
Total SDS Training	Pearson r	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	N	89
Choice Making	Pearson r	**-.039
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00
	N	89
Decision-Making	Pearson r	*-.023
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.03
	N	89
Problem-Solving	Pearson r	0.06
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.56
	N	89
Goal-Setting	Pearson r	-0.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.90
	N	89
Self-Advocacy	Pearson r	-0.02
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.85
	N	89
Self-Management	Pearson r	-0.12
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.28
	N	89
Self-Awareness	Pearson r	-0.08
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.44
	N	88

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Teachers do not appear to direct much time or attention toward transition instruction. The results (i.e., no correlation) concur with the results obtained regarding the amount of training provided and the number of students with a STSN within their IEP. Very few students with E/BD have a STSN that addresses one or more of the SDS competencies. The number of hours of SDS training received varied widely, yet the majority reported very little training (an average of 2.06 hours across all four domains).

Results of the correlations indicated two significant negative correlations in Choice-Making ($r = -.40, p < .01$) and Decision-Making ($r = -.23, p < .05$). The levels of significance ($p < .05$ and $p < .01$) indicate that there is a better than chance occurrence that one variable is impacting the other (i.e., a change or response of one variable has led to a change or response to the other). The two significant correlations were between the amount of training received and the two skills upon which students were rated most Independent: Choice Making (46.7%, $n = 500$) and Decision-Making (35.5%, $n = 382$).

This correlation suggests that as the number of hours of SDS training increases the number of students rated at the Independent and Semi-independent levels decreases. The SDS transition training the teacher received did not lead to an increased number of students who demonstrated SDS skills at the Independent and Semi-independent level. Conversely, as the amount of training increased the number of students at the Independent and Semi-independent decreased. The correlation analysis did not indicate that one caused the other, but that there was a strong negative relationship between the two. The relationship could be viewed as a positive outcome; teachers who were teaching students rated Independent in their ability to demonstrate the skills may have quit seeking additional training, while teachers who taught students needing further instruction may have sought further training.

Question 13: Is there a correlation between the particular life skills and self-determination skills addressed within the statements of transition service needs for students with E/BD and the amount of transition training the teacher has received in each of the areas, a) LS, b) SDS, and c) the composite of LS and SDS?

Question 13a: Testing for the possible relationship between the LS skills listed in the STSN and the amount of transition-related LS training obtained by the teacher.

On only two LS were there a statistically significant correlation (see Table 22).

Table 22. LS Skills within STSN Correlated with Teacher Training in LS

<i>Life Skills: Total LS Training</i>		<i>TILS Training</i>
Total LS Training	Pearson r	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	N	82
Manages Money	Pearson r	-0.02
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.84
	N	80
Maintains Lvg. Envir.	Pearson r	0.10
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.38
	N	80
Cares for Pers. Health	Pearson r	0.05
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.69
	N	80
Maint. Approp. Int. Rel.	Pearson r	0.07
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.55
	N	80
Dev. App. Int. Relations	Pearson r	0.07
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.55
	N	80
Eats @ Home / Comm.	Pearson r	0.05
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.65
	N	80
Buys / Cleans Clothes	Pearson r	0.05
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.65
	N	80
Leisure & Recreation	Pearson r	0.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.91
	N	80

(Table continues...)

Table 22. (continued)

<i>Life Skills: Total LS Training</i>		<i>TI LS Training</i>
Get Around in Comm.	Pearson r	0.03
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.77
	N	80
Acquires Self-Identity	Pearson r	0.08
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.51
	N	78
Dem. Resp. Behavior	Pearson r	0.22
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.06
	N	79
Dev. Approp. Social Rel.	Pearson r	0.17
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.14
	N	79
Exhibits Indep. Behavior	Pearson r	0.09
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.45
	N	78
Makes Informed Decisions	Pearson r	0.16
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.15
	N	79
Communicates / Others	Pearson r	0.21
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.07
	N	79
Explores Occ. Training	Pearson r	0.19
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.10
	N	79
Makes Occ./ Job Choices	Pearson r	0.18
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.12
	N	79

(Table continues...)

Table 22. (continued)

<i>Life Skills: Total LS Training</i>		<i>TILS Training</i>
Applies for Occ. Training	Pearson r	0.12
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.31
	N	79
Develops App. Wk. Skills	Pearson r	*0.24
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.03
	N	79
Matches Skills to Employ.	Pearson r	**0.29
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.01
	N	79

*** $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.**

Correlations between the number of students with LS STSN on their IEP and the amount of transition-related LS training teachers received (see Table 22) produced two statistically significant positive correlations: Matches Physical Skills to Occupational Training ($r = .29, p < .01$) and Develops Appropriate Work Behaviors ($r = .24, p < .05$).

These statistically significant correlations suggest that there is a better than chance positive relationship between the number of students with STSN addressing the skills of Develops Appropriate Work Behaviors and Matches Physical Skills to Occupational Training within their IEP and the hours of LS training the teacher received. It further suggests that as the number of students with STSN regarding the two skills increased, the number of hours of transition-related teacher training also increased.

13b) Testing for the possible relationship between SDS skills listed in the STSN and the amount of transition-related SDS training obtained by the teacher:

On only one SDS was there a statistically significant correlation (see Table 23).

Table 23. SDS Skills within STSN Correlated with Teacher Training in SDS Skills

<i>Self-Determination</i>		<i>TL SDS Training</i>
Total SDS Training	Pearson r	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	N	89
Choice Making	Pearson r	0.20
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.07
	N	86
Decision-Making	Pearson r	0.21
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.05
	N	86
Problem-Solving	Pearson r	0.15
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.17
	N	86
Goal-Setting	Pearson r	0.12
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.27
	N	86
Self-Advocacy	Pearson r	0.17
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.12
	N	86
Self-Management	Pearson r	0.15
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.18
	N	86
Self-Awareness	Pearson r	*0.27
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.01
	N	85

****p* < .05.**

One statistically significant correlation was identified between the number of students with STSN addressing Self-Awareness and Self-Knowledge ($r = .27, p < .05$) and the amount of transition-related SDS training the teacher had received. This positive correlation suggests that as the number of students with STSN with regard to Self-Awareness and Self-Knowledge increased, the amount of transition-related training the teacher had received in SDS also increased.

13c) Testing for the possible relationship between the composite of life skills training and self-determination skills training and the composite of LS and SDS statements of transition service needs:

Results of the correlations did not produce any significant correlations (see Table 24).

Table 24. Composite of LS & SDS STSN Correlated with Composite Amount of Teacher Training in LS & SDS Skills

		<i>Composite LS and SDS</i>
Choice-Making	Pearson <i>r</i>	-0.04
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.76
	N	65
Decision-Making	Pearson <i>r</i>	-0.05
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.72
	N	65
Problem-Solving	Pearson <i>r</i>	-0.03
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.81
	N	65
Goal-Setting and Attainment	Pearson <i>r</i>	-0.02
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.88
	N	65
Self-Advocacy and Ldrshp. Skills	Pearson <i>r</i>	0.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.99
	N	65
Self-Mgmt. and Self-Reg. Skills	Pearson <i>r</i>	-0.07
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.60
	N	65
Self-Awareness and Self-Knowledge	Pearson <i>r</i>	0.04
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.76
	N	64
Managing Money	Pearson <i>r</i>	-0.08
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.54
	N	66

(Table continues...)

Table 24. (Continued)

<i>Composite LS and SDS</i>		
Selecting / Maint. Living Envir.	Pearson <i>r</i>	0.09
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.48
	N	65
Caring for Personal Health	Pearson <i>r</i>	0.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.95
	N	66
Maintaining Intimate Relations	Pearson <i>r</i>	0.06
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.63
	N	66
Eating at Home and in the Comm.	Pearson <i>r</i>	0.02
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.88
	N	66
Cleaning and Purchasing Clothing	Pearson <i>r</i>	0.04
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.77
	N	66
Part. In Leisure / Rec. Activity	Pearson <i>r</i>	-0.04
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.74
	N	66
Getting Around in the Community	Pearson <i>r</i>	-0.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.97
	N	66
Acquiring Self-Identity	Pearson <i>r</i>	0.06
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.64
	N	66
Exhibits Socially Resp. Beh.	Pearson <i>r</i>	0.02
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.90
	N	66

(Table continues...)

Table 24. (Continued)

<i>Composite LS and SDS</i>		
Dev. and Maint. App. Relationships	Pearson <i>r</i>	-0.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.96
	N	66
Exhibiting Independent Behavior	Pearson <i>r</i>	-0.02
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.90
	N	65
Making Informed Choices	Pearson <i>r</i>	0.10
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.43
	N	66
Communicating with Others	Pearson <i>r</i>	0.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.97
	N	66
Exploring Occupational Training	Pearson <i>r</i>	-0.03
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.82
	N	65
Making Job Placement Choices	Pearson <i>r</i>	-0.03
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.81
	N	65
Occupational Job Placements	Pearson <i>r</i>	0.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.97
	N	65
Dev. Work Skills & Behavior	Pearson <i>r</i>	0.03
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.82
	N	65
Physical / Occupational Training	Pearson <i>r</i>	0.17
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.18
	N	65

No statistically significant correlations were indicated between the number of students who have a STSN addressing the composite skills of LS and SDS and the composite amount of transition-related LS + SDS training a teacher had received.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

General Information Regarding the Study

The survey, Transition Skills Instruction for Youth with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, examined the transition-related instructional practices of Kansas special education teachers of secondary-aged youth with E/BD during the school year of 2005-2006. In general, participants were fully certified (90%), high school level teachers (69%), providing services within an IR classroom (63%), with approximately 14 years teaching experience.

Teachers indicated having had very little transition training, 91% indicated between 0 and 30 hours of LS training (i.e., 65% reporting zero hours), and 77% indicated between zero and 30 hours of SDS training (i.e., 49% reporting zero hours). One-third of the participants did not provide a response. Additionally, teachers averaged fewer than eight hours of transition-related training via college class hours, workshops, in-services, and other forms of training. Teacher ratings indicated that students with E/BD were not able to demonstrate life skills or self-determination skills independent of instruction, yet fewer than 10% had the skills addressed within their IEP and teachers who provided transition instruction generally did so for less than two hours per week.

Few significant relationships existed between the student's level of independence (based on teacher ratings) and the a) training teachers had received, as well as, b) the amount of transition-related instruction teachers provided. The only significant correlations were found between the amount of training teachers had received in SDS and the level of independence with which students demonstrated Choice Making ($r = -.40$, $p < .01$) and Decision-Making ($r = -.23$, $p < .05$).

There was no significant correlation between the number of years of teaching experience and the amount of instruction provided in either LS or SDS. Very few correlations were indicated between the percentage of students with STSNs within their IEPs and the amount of transition-related training teachers had received in LS and SDS. Two positive correlations were indicated between the LS skill of Matches Physical Skills to Occupational Training ($r = .29$, $p < .01$) and Develops Appropriate Work Behaviors ($r = .24$, $p < .05$). One significant positive correlation was identified between the SDS skill

Self-Awareness and Self-Knowledge and the amount of transition-related SDS training the teacher had received ($r = .27, p < .05$)

Teachers stated a desire to address LS and SDS with this population of youth and yet, the quantity and quality of instruction they reportedly provided did not indicate that they were willing or perhaps able to provide the skills deemed necessary for success in post-school life (namely, LS and SDS skill competencies). Overall, results indicated a lack of teacher compliance with the mandates within IDEA 2004. Teachers stated a desire to address life skills and self-determination skills with this population of youth.

Findings

The door to research regarding the LS and SDS transition skills of youth with E/BD is wide open. No researchers have attempted to determine the LS and SDS transition skill levels of this population using the methods found within this study. Research regarding the transition needs of students with E/BD is critical to the future, post-school success of this population.

Students with E/BD do not possess the transition skills necessary to function independently in society. They continue to represent the student population least likely to obtain a high school diploma, yet, most likely to suffer lifelong social consequences for their behaviors. Research indicates the benefit of providing hands-on and on-the job training, yet these youth are frequently denied access to such programs or are dismissed prior to completion due to demonstrating the vary behaviors that caused them to qualify for special education services.

Teachers appear to understand the benefits obtained by these youth via SDS skills instruction yet, they do not provide it. Teachers do not possess a great deal of transition-related training in either LS or SDS, yet, based on IDEA requirements, they are expected to identify and address the transition needs of their students. They frequently do not assist with the identification of student needs relative to transition, and do not assist with the development of appropriate goals and objectives to address the student's needs.

They are required to involve students in the planning process of their education in order to obtain student investment and to meet IDEA requirements, yet they are not involving them. Teachers who were aware of the transition plans of their students did not indicate effort toward addressing the skill deficits through STSNs. Several did not know any of the transition-related goals written within their student's IEPs! Instead, either they were unable or unwilling to address the transition portion of the IEP or they turned all student information relative to transition over to the Transition Coordinator. Students with E/BD need both social skills (SDS) and employment skills (LS) in order to succeed in their post-school lives, yet teachers (and school systems) provide little, if any, transition-related skills instruction nor adequate opportunities for students to practice and incorporate the skills.

There appears to be a fair amount of dissonance within this study between the teacher's awareness of their student's needs and a) the percentage of youth with an IEP that included one or more statements of transition service needs, and b) the amount of time they reported having provided transition-related instruction. Similarly, multiple studies of the past decade indicate a marked degree of dissonance between that which teachers know to be effective instructional practice and the quantity and quality of transition-related instruction they provide (Agran, et al., 1999; Wehmeyer, et al., 2000b; Wehmeyer & Schwartz, 1998). Research indicates the efficacy of LS and SDS skills instruction with populations of youth with and without disabilities, yet fewer than 11% of the student population within the study had goals addressing any of the LS or SDS transition skills.

Providing instruction in the skill areas of LS and SDS likely would yield improved post-school outcomes for many of these students (Field & Hoffman, 1994, Neubert, 1997). Several teachers concurred, stating the extreme importance of teaching transition-aged students the skills necessary for successful post-school living. The current study indicates results similar to that of former research in that: Teachers acknowledge the importance of LS and SDS skill attainment, yet offer little or no instruction to address student skill deficits (Agran, et al., 1999; Wehmeyer, et al., 2000b).

Students taught to employ SDS skills may develop the ability to self-monitor and regulate their personal behavior, demonstrate a reduction in aggressive behaviors, demonstrate improvement in the areas of academic performance and interpersonal relations, and may demonstrate an enhanced sense of responsibility and self-efficacy (Mason, et al., 2004; Wehmeyer, et al., 2000b). They, however, will not gain these skills without instruction, which may require a non-traditional and/or non-academic instructional approach.

Teacher participants in the study were aware of the skill deficits of these youth but reportedly were not addressing them, as demonstrated by the small amount of transition-related instruction they provided and the absence of goals addressing the specified LS and SDS skills written into statements of transition service needs. Approximately 20% did not provide any transition-related instruction, while an additional 20 to 30% reported providing only minimal instruction.

Survey results point to the importance of identifying the transition strengths and needs of each student and planning and implementing effective transition-related instruction to address his or her needs. Many teachers, based on self-report, do not follow the IDEA guidelines of either 1997 or 2004 with regard to appropriately addressing the transition needs of students with E/BD. Perhaps these teachers were not aware of the mandates regarding how and when they were to address the transition related skills and deficits of their students. Alternatively, perhaps they were focusing a large amount of instructional time (formerly dedicated to addressing specific transition needs) on the new role they play in preparing all youth for state assessments and graduation requirements. Given the current state of special education and the role these students now play in determining the success of the district, the amount of time allotted to transition instruction may decline even further over the course of the next decade. Unfortunately, teachers who are not familiar with the practice of writing STSNs and providing instruction directly addressing LS and SDS skills, may never become familiar with them, as the push for excellence may continue to override and overpower the need for providing instruction to meet the individual needs of each student.

Teachers reportedly understand the benefits gained via SDS instruction and are therefore in favor of such instruction. The meager amount of time they provide such instruction, however, is not reflective of best practice, or of demonstrating positive regard for the subject area. Consequently, the post-school outcomes of youth with E/BD have not improved markedly. SDS instruction for youth with E/BD remains a meager 3% (97 minutes) of the school week. Teacher participants appeared able to identify the skill deficits of their students, yet unable to exert a concerted effort toward addressing the skills, as would be measured via instructional time and acknowledgement of the deficits within the transition section of the IEP.

Students able to demonstrate the skills independent of instruction are more likely to experience positive post-school outcomes than students who are dependent on excessive instruction because they generally have internalized the skills and are able to determine the appropriate time for their use. Many students were rated Semi-independent, which might suggest that the students are able to perform the skill when it is requested or required. Students with E/BD, however, are often dependent upon the adults

in their lives to determine the appropriate time and place to use the skills. Results of this study suggest that for every student who demonstrates the skills at an Independent level, there are likely as many who remain at the Dependent level.

Students with E/BD generally learn such skills and behaviors by following an example, practicing the skill in isolation, and then generalizing the skill to other, practical applications. The amount of transition-related instruction and practice provided, however, does not allow enough time for such learning to occur. Students with E/BD often learn through hands-on experience, simulations, and other experiential methods such as on-the-job training. These students are frequently dismissed from participation prior to program completion due to poor attendance or a demonstrated lack of appropriate social skills (Algozzine, et al., 2001). In addition, they may be denied access to the programs due to the perceived (or real) risks they pose to themselves, to others, and to the reputation of the district.

As determined through NLTS, more than 50% of the student population with E/BD is raised in an impoverished, single-parent home, in which the prime wage earning him or herself did not possess a high school diploma and frequently had experienced difficulty maintaining employment and a suitable living within the community (Newman, 2003). As such, frequently neither the student nor their family members had received training in either LS or SDS skills. Additionally, they may not have had an adult role model presenting the appropriate use of the skills to teach them how, when, and why to demonstrate such skills. The dismal adult outcomes of youth with E/BD will continue to cycle through the lives of these students if appropriate interventions and instruction are not provided.

Teachers reported an overall average of 8.5 hours in LS and 2 hours of transition training in the area of SDS. Training came mostly through college clock hours and workshop hours. Over 80% of the outliers were due to non-response, some due to having too many hours to identify, and some due to not having direct instruction in any of the modalities. Results indicate that some teachers received a reasonable amount of LS and SDS transition-related college training (an average of 14 hours LS and 6 hours SDS, respectively) and workshop training (10.4 LS hours and 6 SDS hours, respectively). It

would appear, however, that teachers do not provide transition-related instruction comparable to the amount of training they received.

Teachers provided far more skills instruction in LS than in SDS. Since youth with E/BD generally possess an average to above-average intelligence quotient, the forecast was that teachers would omit LS instruction from their curriculum, justifying their decision by stating that the student possessed the ability to gain the skill without instruction or that the student chose not to demonstrate the skill out of deliberate, non-compliance.

It was also surprising that teachers of students with E/BD did not address SDS with a higher frequency since the students qualified for services based, in part, on their inability to demonstrate SDS skills appropriately. IDEA guidelines require that the IEP of students with E/BD have goals and objectives addressing the areas of behavior in which the deficits exist. As such, a logical response would be to prioritize SDS skill instruction above that of LS skill instruction. Students with E/BD had very few goals and objectives written relative to either LS or SDS skills, which concurred with findings among other researchers (Wehmeyer, et al., 2000a; Wehmeyer & Schwartz, 1998). Regardless of the demonstrated need, teachers provided very little transition-related instruction and focused very little effort toward improving transition skill acquisition (also found in former research).

The instruction provided to students with disabilities should address the identified needs of the student. It appears that these teachers may not consider the LS and SDS skills essential to the post-school outcomes of these students or, more likely, they are unable to spend the time necessary for goal development and skill attainment. Teacher comments indicated they would provide more transition instruction if time were available and that they felt self-determination instruction was very important, if not essential to student growth. In a similar study, Agran and his colleagues (1999) found that 77% of their sample rated the importance of self-determination either very important or important yet, 55% did not address the need for SDS skills within student IEPs.

Students with E/BD typically need practice in order to incorporate the LS and SDS skills into their daily lives. Based on former research, this is particularly true for the SDS skills of Choice Making, Decision Making, and Self-Awareness. The current study,

however, indicates that at least some students are able to demonstrate Choice Making and Decision Making independent of instruction (46.5% and 35.5%, respectively). These teacher ratings of student independence may have been misleading because even though they were addressed more frequently than other skills, they were only included in the IEPs of fewer than 11% of the entire student population.

Responses may also have been misleading, based on the semantics applied rather than the student's ability to make appropriate choices and decisions without suffering consequences or causing negative recourse. Several teachers reported rating students independent because they frequently made choices and decisions independent of instruction, even though they were often inappropriate and based on impulsivity. Alternatively, they may be the result of teachers writing unnecessary STSN for students who possessed the skills prior to instruction.

Survey results indicate that many students with E/BD do not receive transition-related instruction and that teachers do not address LS and SDS skills within STSNs. The small number of students with a STSN addressing one or more of the LS or SDS skills would appear grossly inadequate because these youth qualified for special education based, in part, upon their lack of appropriate SDS skills. Therefore, it would be reasonable that a teacher would attempt to address the behaviors, yet results indicate otherwise. If LS and SDS skills are not listed on the IEP (as STSNs, or in any other manner) the skills will likely be ignored. If the skills are not written within IEPs, there is no accountability pressing anyone to achieve them.

Further, teachers may not write STSNs due to a misunderstanding of the regulations. This reasoning would validate the findings within KTOP (2003), which state that many special education teachers in Kansas do not understand the IDEA mandates as they relate to compliance in the area of transition. Transition goals should be addressed within the IEPs of all students with a disability, age 14 to 21 (as required via state mandate).

The numbers of STSNs reported do not necessarily prove that teachers do not address LS and SDS skills with their students. Rather, they may suggest that teachers do not write STSNs, or, that teachers do not specifically address the select LS and SDS skills within written statements. Teachers may refrain from writing STSNs to avoid making a

written commitment to address the skill, as demonstrated via Wehmeyer & Schwartz, 1998. The figures may indicate that teachers lack the time necessary to provide the instruction.

A few teachers reported teaching self-advocacy, one of the key components of self-determination (Martin and Marshall, 1996a; Mason, et al., 2004). A few also reported the use of a more traditional instructional approach of providing problem-solving activities via class simulations and community-based field trips (i.e., to banks, grocery stores, and local social service agencies), while others reported providing an in-class transition-related instructional program. When the amount of instruction was correlated with the number of years of special education teaching experience, there were no significant correlations. Correlations were expected based on the fluctuations that have occurred within teacher practices and program developments for the past thirty years. Educational philosophies and approaches change over time: Years of teaching experience ranged from 1 to 37 years, which would indicate that the current teacher population consists of professionals who have learned a variety of ways to address transition and therefore, teachers within specific eras may have correlated specifically with the various amounts of instruction provided.

The expectation was that those who have taught fifteen or more years would be providing more transition skills instruction than those new to the field. Those who have been exposed to numerous methods of teaching transition would likely have determined which methods work best with their students or are most amenable to the student population they teach. Further, they would most likely have a difficult time omitting transition education from their educational plans in honor of performing tasks relative to improving scores for state assessments. Those with fewer years experience would not only have fewer opportunities to gain new methods of instruction, but would also have built a larger percentage of their career around the standards based reforms which have developed in recent years.

In the same way, a teacher's class roster may change multiple times during the school year based on the individual class schedule of the students, the behaviors exhibited by the students, and the frequency with which students move from one school to the next. Training sought in an effort to meet the particular needs of specific students may be

futile, as families of students with E/BD are notorious for moving from school to school (DeStefano & Wagner, 2004).

Limitations and Survey Error

Several limitations were apparent within the results of this study. The limitations coincide with the four types of error commonly made in creating and utilizing a survey: Sampling, coverage, measurement, and non-response (Dillman, 2000). Errors were found in both the study design and within specific items. Each limitation is described, followed by identification of the error involved.

The participant pool was to include secondary special education teachers who provide instruction to students with E/BD, 14 to 21 years of age, within an IR or E/BD classroom. The original concern regarding this limitation was that the information obtained would be too narrow in focus and, therefore, would not generalize to the population of teachers beyond the scope of the requirements. Because the KSDE was unable to select a well-defined population, the sample included not only the select few who teach youth with E/BD at the secondary level in Kansas, but also many teachers who were inappropriate for the study due to the age or disability of the students taught (i.e., coverage error).

The results were similar to those obtained by Wehmeyer and his colleagues in the *National Survey of Teacher's Promotion of Self-Determination and Student-Directed Learning* (2000). Wehmeyer sought information from a very similar teacher population (i.e., youth age 14 and above) and indicated non-participation to be the major obstacle limiting responses. He and his colleagues struggled with the many unknown variables causing non-participation.

Similarly, though certified the same as an IR teacher, Transition Coordinators (N = 29) were omitted (by KSDE) from the participant pool due to their contracted title and the location of the service delivery. Therefore, data reported represent the opinions and beliefs solely of special education teachers. They do not represent all who have a stake in the transition outcomes for these students. Omission of this population cost the researcher a primary source of information relative to transition instruction provided in Kansas (i.e., coverage error). Since the number of Kansas Transition Coordinators is small (N = 29), any information sought in future research should be relatively easy to obtain.

Approximately one-third of the participants omitted survey items requiring open-ended response (i.e., non-response error) which created a major limitation in the degree to which responses would generalize to other similar populations or to the total population from which the sample was drawn (i.e., sampling error). Four experts in the field of secondary transition reviewed and validated the research questions and survey. Two had recommended providing response ranges from which to answer open-ended items such as the number of hours of transition-related training the teacher possessed and the average number of minutes teachers provided transition instruction. The researcher (upon agreement of the Committee Chair) considered revising the questions to include ranges, but did not do so due to the perceived restrictions ranges would impose on responses. As a result, the number of useable responses for these questions was drastically reduced, thereby decreasing their potency, along with the reliability and validity of each item (i.e., non-response error, Dillman, 2000). Non-response limits the degree to which generalizations can be drawn among larger or more inclusive populations.

Specifying the skills indicative of LS and SDS provided parameters that may have both helped and hindered results. The SDS skills (followed by a brief, behavioral description) were taken directly from Wehmeyer, et al., (2000a). Teachers rated the level of independence their students demonstrated each SDS skill. Seemingly, the descriptions would help to reduce the potential for confusion among participants regarding the application sought for each term and potentially would be of educational benefit to the participant.

Limiting the number of SDS skills and providing specific descriptions however, did not ensure full participation. Teachers did not provide ratings for over 50% of the student population regarding their ability to demonstrate the specific skill of Self-Awareness and Self-Knowledge (i.e., non-response error). As such, the results would not generalize to the entire population of Kansas special education teachers or that of any other teachers.

The LS skills, taken directly from Brolin and Loyd's Life Centered Career Education, LCCE (2004), did not include a behavioral description and were not as self-explanatory as they were presumed to be. The consequence of not providing descriptions may have been as detrimental to the responses as the consequence of describing the skills

too narrowly (i.e., restricting the use of expansive interpretation and application). Participants rated fewer than 50% of the student population (i.e., non-response error) with regard to his or her ability to display the five LS demonstrated least by this population of youth.

Participants who reported an extremely large number of training hours were possibly providing inaccurate and imprecise responses (i.e., measurement error). More likely, however, they were simply providing non-comparable responses that can also lead to measurement error. Dillman (2000) notes the causes of measurement error to be the result of poor question wording and questionnaire construction; both were examined and identified, within the current study.

The non-comparable reports may have included hours gained via non-traditional, in-house peer training and on-the-job monitoring of students (both acceptable modes of training according to Kansas' Professional Development Council). Since there was no definitive method through which to validate how teachers obtained the large numbers, responses larger than 120 clock hours were omitted from the response pool.

Sampling error occurs due to surveying a portion of a population rather than the full population. The current survey sought to obtain a sampling error of no greater than 5%. In order to obtain a representative sample, 300 participants would have had to provide complete, useable surveys either based on the entire pool surveyed ($N = 500$) or the researcher would have had to increase the number selected from the participant pool, to obtain the desired sample ($N = 300$). The error attained was 7% due to the small number of valid, useable responses (based on Dillman, 2000) and 8.5% (based on Fowler, 2002).

The poor response rate of participants may be due, in part, to the season during which the survey was conducted, just prior to the winter holidays (Dillman, 2000). The researcher was cognizant of the potential impact timing may have on response rates, yet proceeded due to the time-limitations and the stated intent of the study inherent to the dissertation process.

The Sampling error may have been less had the researcher conducted the survey during a more appropriate time of the year and/or involved either a larger number of participants or the entire participant pool. The criteria for selection could have assumed a

less homogeneous population of perhaps, 70/30 or 80/20 with regard to providing or not providing transition instruction. This, however, could only be justified if baseline data had been available prior to the current study.

Suggested Changes for the Current Study

Given the opportunity to employ hindsight, the researcher would seek to improve the design of the study, the questions within the survey, and the mode of implementation in several key directions. The scope of the study appears too expansive. First, the survey would be divided into at least two, independent studies. In honor of both the participant and the researcher, the focus would be on either LS or SDS skills, but not both.

The study could be narrowed further by addressing the transition instruction of teachers of this population as they relate, either to compliance with IDEA guidelines or to skill acquisition of LS or SDS. If the survey were focused in one, rather than several directions, perhaps the number of teachers responding would have been greater, the responses would have been more complete and concise, and the effort involved in answering the questions would have improved.

Current parameters regarding the teacher and student population, and the skills within the transition domains of LS and SDS would remain intact. If the researcher adds response-options for open-ended questions, the results will likely yield definitive baseline information, useable for future research. Conversely, future research could remain focused on both LS and SDS, but ask fewer questions. Questions could be directed toward determining the levels of independence student demonstrate the 26 transition skills, or requesting that teachers identify the number of students they teach with E/BD who have a STSN addressing each, but not ask for completion of both. An in-depth description could follow each skill indicating the same behaviors expected at each level of independence, thereby reducing the number of students rated independent whose behavior is actually detrimental when displayed independently.

Dillman (2000) suggests making the survey appear important, short, and easy to complete. Eliminating one of the two domains may reduce both the number of questions asked and the amount of time required for completion, by half, therefore accomplishing Dillman's goals. Dividing the survey into two separate studies would reduce the overwhelming size (six pages) of the survey and reduce the number of concepts for which teachers were required to respond. Further, it would provide the researcher a greater

sense of purpose and would allow him or her additional time to focus on one area within the realm of transition, rather than a smattering of many.

Future research would seek answers to a maximum of six research questions. The current study had a large number ($N = 13$) because it sought responses for each item relative to two domains of transition, LS and SDS. It was also large based on the number of correlations sought. Conducting a pilot study would help the researcher determine which variables to adjust and which to omit from data analysis. In doing so, the number of survey items asked and the number of correlations conducted could be reduced prior to surveying a larger population. Participants could provide feedback regarding the applicability of each question to the projected audience and could analyze the value and clarity of each. Survey items requesting open-ended responses would include response options, thereby eliminating the risk that responses would fall outside the normal distribution, leading to identification of outliers.

This survey could be completed via a web-based model, either sent via e-mail or accessed quickly and easily from an online location. Electronic submission of responses would allow teachers the opportunity to complete the form at their leisure, without the hassle of maintaining and mailing a hardcopy. Participants would be able to choose whether to submit the answers electronically or print a copy and return it via the mail system.

The on-line, web-based model would save the money, time, and effort of the researcher, freeing him or her to focus on the design of the study, the visual enhancements made to the survey, and the interpretation of the data, without having to handle and store multiple-page documents. The money saved on photocopies and postage could pay the labor of a typesetter rather than purchase consumable survey items. Finally, the computer program could be set to receive and analyze the data instantaneously, rather than collecting, organizing, inputting, and storing multiple data sheets from each participant, followed by photocopying and mailing the results to those requesting copies.

Reliable baseline data were not obtained in the current study. Information gleaned will perhaps assist this researcher as well as others with the design of appropriate, concise research in the future rather than provide the baseline data sought.

This study sought to determine current transition-related instructional practices among secondary special education teachers of youth with E/BD within the state of Kansas. Future research, based on an adapted form of the current study and the research that went into the development of the study, should seek to determine answers to no more than six research questions. The research questions should reflect information relative to only one domain of transition and perhaps focus entirely on teacher compliance with IDEA regulations or skill acquisition of students with E/BD in relation to the instruction provided.

Future Research

Based on the negative outcomes that dominate the post-school lives of youth with E/BD, future research should seek to identify baseline data relative to the initial intent of the study utilizing the adjusted survey and correct research procedures. Future research should focus not only on replicating the current study, but also on completing a study employing the second half of the variables.

Only then could research seek to expand the participation pool to include other populations, such as the students themselves, their parents, or outside agency members who participate in the planning and implementation stages of transition for this population of youth. Research could also seek to determine the differences between instructional practices of those within the current study as compared to those employed as Transition Coordinators. To do so would require adjusting the current study to address the varying roles of the participants. The results obtained invariably, would provide a different perspective relative to the transition skills of youth with E/BD than was provided via the special education teacher.

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Appendix A: Self-Determination Skills

1. *Choice Making*: Student identifies interests, expresses preferences, and is able to make personal choices.
2. *Decision-Making*: Student participates in making decisions regarding his education and post-school life.
3. *Problem-Solving*: Student systematically solves problems as requested or required by teachers and other school personnel.
4. *Goal Setting and Attainment*: Student sets and tracks personal goals and participates in goal-setting activities (e.g. develops steps indicative of mastery).
5. *Self-Advocacy and Leadership Skills*: Student knows his rights and is able to stand up for himself, and/or communicates effectively and assertively in the role of an effective leader or team member.
6. *Self-Management and Self-Regulation Skills*: Student monitors and evaluates his own behavior, selects and provides his own re-enforcements, sets his own schedule, and helps to direct his personal learning through strategies such as self-instruction.
7. *Self-Awareness and Self-Knowledge*: Student identifies his personal strengths, limitations, abilities, and interests and applies that knowledge to his personal advantage.

***Self-Determination competencies and skills were adapted with permission from the authors (see Appendix B): Wehmeyer, Agran, & Hughes (2000a). A national survey of teachers' promotion of self-determination and student-directed learning. *Journal of Special Education*, 34, 58-68.**

Appendix B: Permission to Use SDS Skills

-----Original Message-----

From: Wehmeyer, Michael L [<mailto:wehmeyer@ku.edu>]

Sent: Tuesday, March 29, 2005 3:27 PM

To: mueting@bluevalley.net

Subject: permission to use items from survey

Hi Amy,

I received your letter of 26 March with regard to your use of items from the self-determination and student-directed learning survey, and you certainly have my permission to use and adapt those as you see fit. More for the sake of your committee and conformity with standard protocol than my own personal requirement, I suggest you use the full APA reference for the article, which reported the use of the survey, since I was not the only person to develop the survey. That citation is:

Wehmeyer, M. L., Agran, M., & Hughes, C. (2000a). A national survey of teachers' promotion of self-determination and student-directed learning. *Journal of Special Education*, 34, 58 - 68.

Otherwise, that is fine with me...

Best wishes for your dissertation.

Mike

Michael L. Wehmeyer, Ph.D.

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Center on Developmental Disabilities Associate Director, Beach Center on Disability
University of Kansas 1200 Sunnyside Avenue, Room 3136 Lawrence, Kansas 66045-
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785.864.0723 (Voice)

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Appendix C1: Life-Centered Career Education Competencies

Curriculum Area	Competency	Subcompetency: The student will be able to:	
DAILY LIVING SKILLS	1. Managing Money	1. Count money	2. Make purchases
	2. Selecting & Maintaining Living Environments	6. Select appropriate community living environment	7. Maintain living environment
	3. Caring for Personal Health	10. Perform appropriate grooming and hygiene	11. Dress appropriately
	4. Developing and Maintaining Appropriate Intimate Relationships	16. Demonstrate knowledge of basic human sexuality	17. Demonstrate knowledge of appropriate dating behavior
	5. Eating at Home and in the Community	18. Plan balanced meals	19. Purchase food
	6. Cleaning and Purchasing Clothing	24. Wash/dry clothes	25. Buy clothes
	7. Participate in Leisure/Recreational Activities	26. Identify available community leisure/recreational activities	27. Select and plan leisure/recreational activities
	8. Getting Around in the Community	30. Follow traffic rules and safety procedures	31. Develop and follow community access routes
PERSONAL-SOCIAL SKILLS	9. Acquiring Self-Identity	33. Demonstrate knowledge of personal interests and abilities	34. Demonstrate appropriate responses to emotions
	10. Exhibiting Socially Responsible Behavior	37. Demonstrate appropriate behavior	38. Identify current and future personal roles
	11. Developing and Maintaining Appropriate Social Relationships	44. Develop friendships	45. Maintain friendships
	12. Exhibiting Independent Behavior	46. Set and reach personal goals	47. Demonstrate self-organization
	13. Making Informed Decisions	49. Identify problems/conflicts	50. Use appropriate resources to assist in problem-solving
	14. Communicating with Others	53. Demonstrate listening and responding skills	54. Demonstrate effective communication
OCCUPATIONAL GUIDANCE AND PREPARATION	15. Exploring and Locating Occupational Training and Job Placement Opportunities	56. Identify rewards of working	57. Locate occupational training and job placement possibilities
	16. Making Occupational and Job Placement Choices	58. Demonstrate knowledge of occupational interests	59. Demonstrate knowledge of occupational strengths and weaknesses
	17. Applying for and Maintaining Occupational Training and Job Placements	63. Apply for occupational training and job placements	64. Interview for occupational training and job placements
	18. Developing and Maintaining Appropriate Work Skills and Behavior	66. Perform work directions and requirements	67. Maintain good attendance and punctuality
	19. Matching Physical-Manual Skills to Occupational Training and Employment	72. Demonstrate fine motor dexterity in occupational training & job placements	73. Demonstrate gross motor dexterity in occupational training & job placements

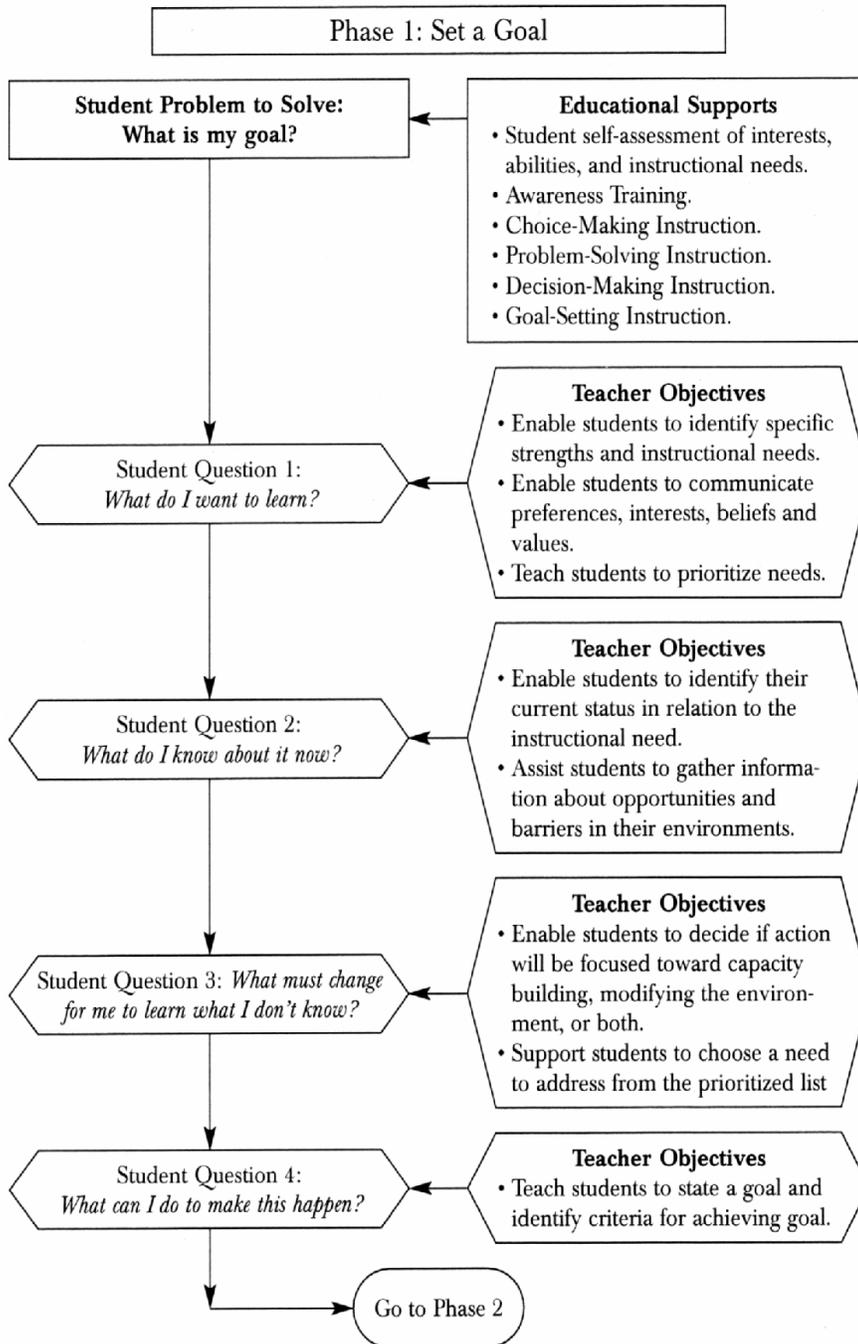
Life Centered Career Education Curriculum – Modified. Brolin, D. & Loyd, R. (2004). *Career Development and Transition Services: A Functional Life Skills Approach*. Merrill Prentice-Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ, pp. 68-70.

Appendix C2 Life-Centered Career Education Competencies

3. Keep basic financial records	4. Calculate & pay taxes	5. Use credit responsibly	6. Use banking services	
9. Select adequate housing	10. Set up household	11. Maintain home grounds		
14. Dress appropriately	15. Demonstrate knowledge of common illness prevention & treatment	16. Practice personal safety		
19. Demonstrate marriage responsibilities				
22. Store food	23. Prepare meals	24. Demonstrate appropriate eating habits	25. Plan/eat balanced meals	
28. Iron, mend & store clothing				
31. Demonstrate knowledge of the law & ability to follow the law	32. Demonstrate knowledge of citizen rights & responsibilities			
35. Demonstrate knowledge of the value of recreation	36. Engage in group & individual activities	37. Plan vacation time		
40. Find way around the community	41. Drive a car			
44. Identify emotions	45. Demonstrate knowledge of physical self			
48. Accept and give praise	49. Accept & give criticism	50. Develop confidence in oneself		
53. Demonstrate appropriate behavior in public places	54. Know important character traits	55. Recognize personal roles		
58. Make & maintain friendships				
61. Demonstrate awareness of how one's behavior affects others				
64. Develop & evaluate alternatives	65. Recognize nature of a problem	66. Develop goal-seeking behavior		
69. Know subtleties of communication				
72. Identify personal values met through work	73. Identify societal values met through work	74. Classify jobs into occupational categories	75. Investigate local occupational & training opportunities	
78. Identify occupational aptitudes	79. Identify major occupational interests	80. Identify major occupational needs		
83. Recognize importance of supervision	84. Demonstrate knowledge of occupational safety	85. Work with others	86. Meet demands for quality work	87. Work at a satisfactory rate
90. Interview for a job	91. Know how to maintain post-school occupational adjustment	92. Demonstrate knowledge of competitive standards	93. Know how to adjust to changes in employment	
96. Demonstrate manual dexterity	97. Demonstrate sensory discrimination			

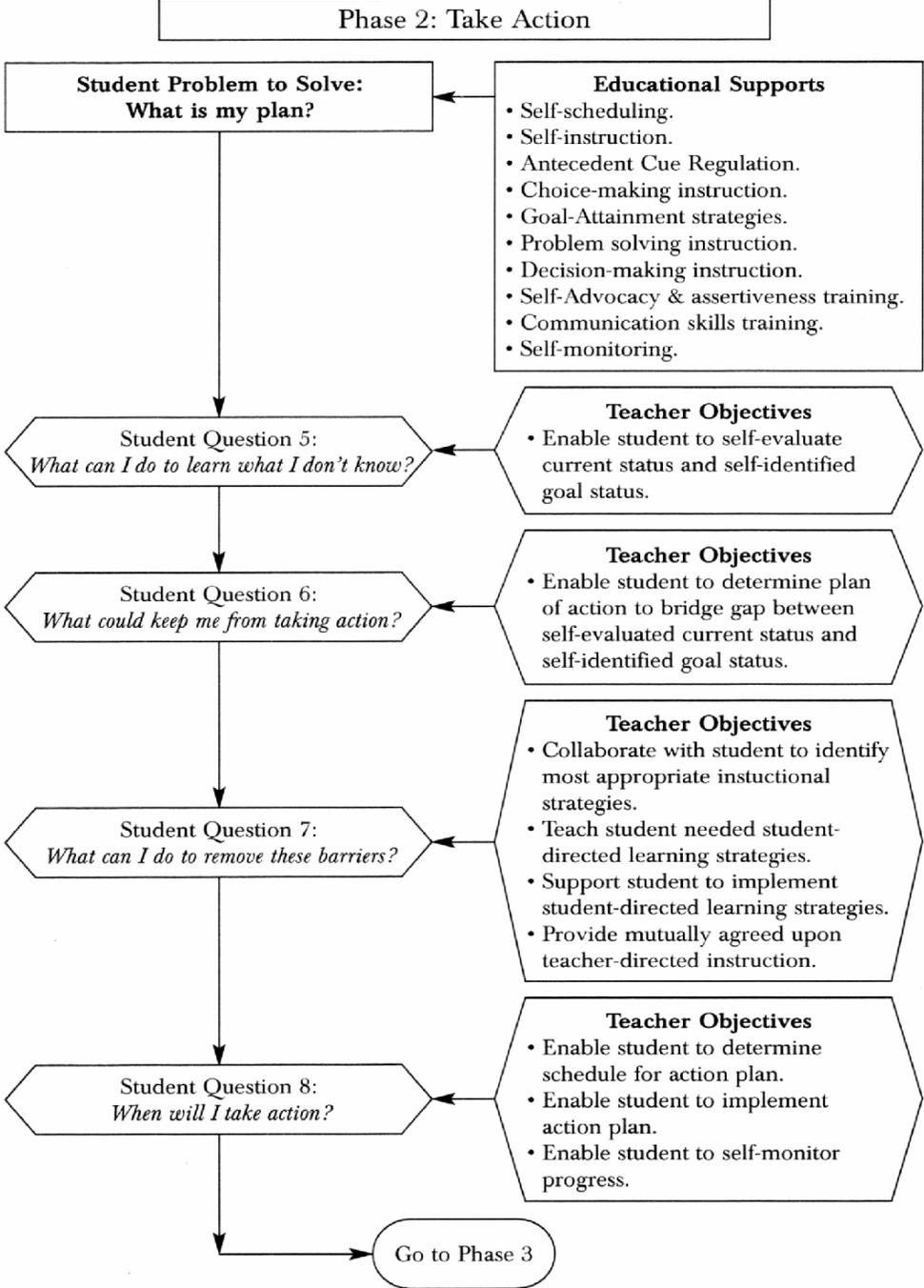
From: Life Centered Career Education Curriculum – Modified. Brolin, D. & Loyd, R. (2004). Career Development and Transition Services: A Functional Life Skills Approach. Merrill Prentice-Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ, pp. 68-70.

Appendix D1: Self-Determined Learning Theory Model of Instruction: Phase 1



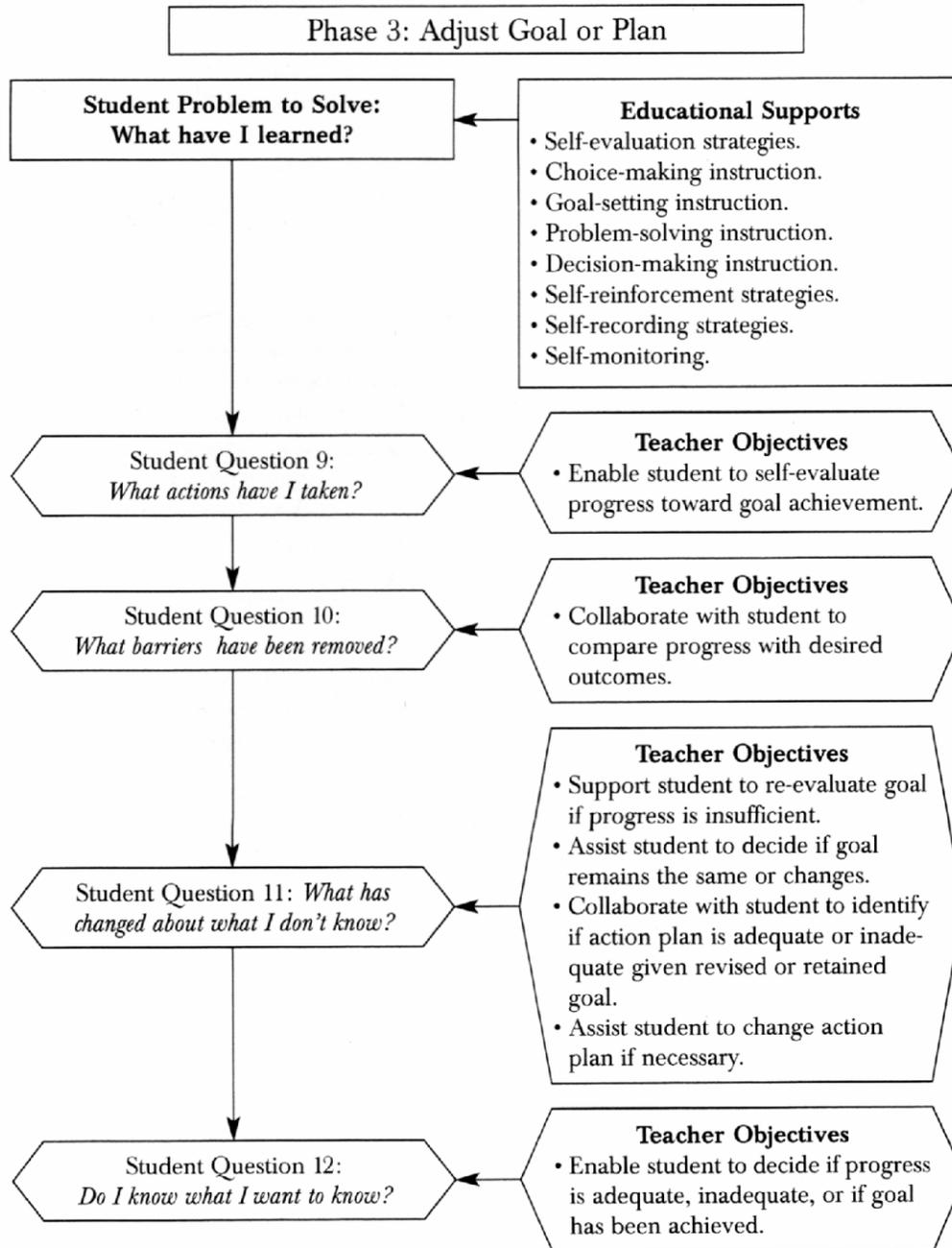
From. *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction (S-DLMI)* (Mithaug, Wehmeyer, Agran, Martin, & Palmer, 1998).

Appendix D2: Self-Determined Learning Theory Model of Instruction: Phase 2



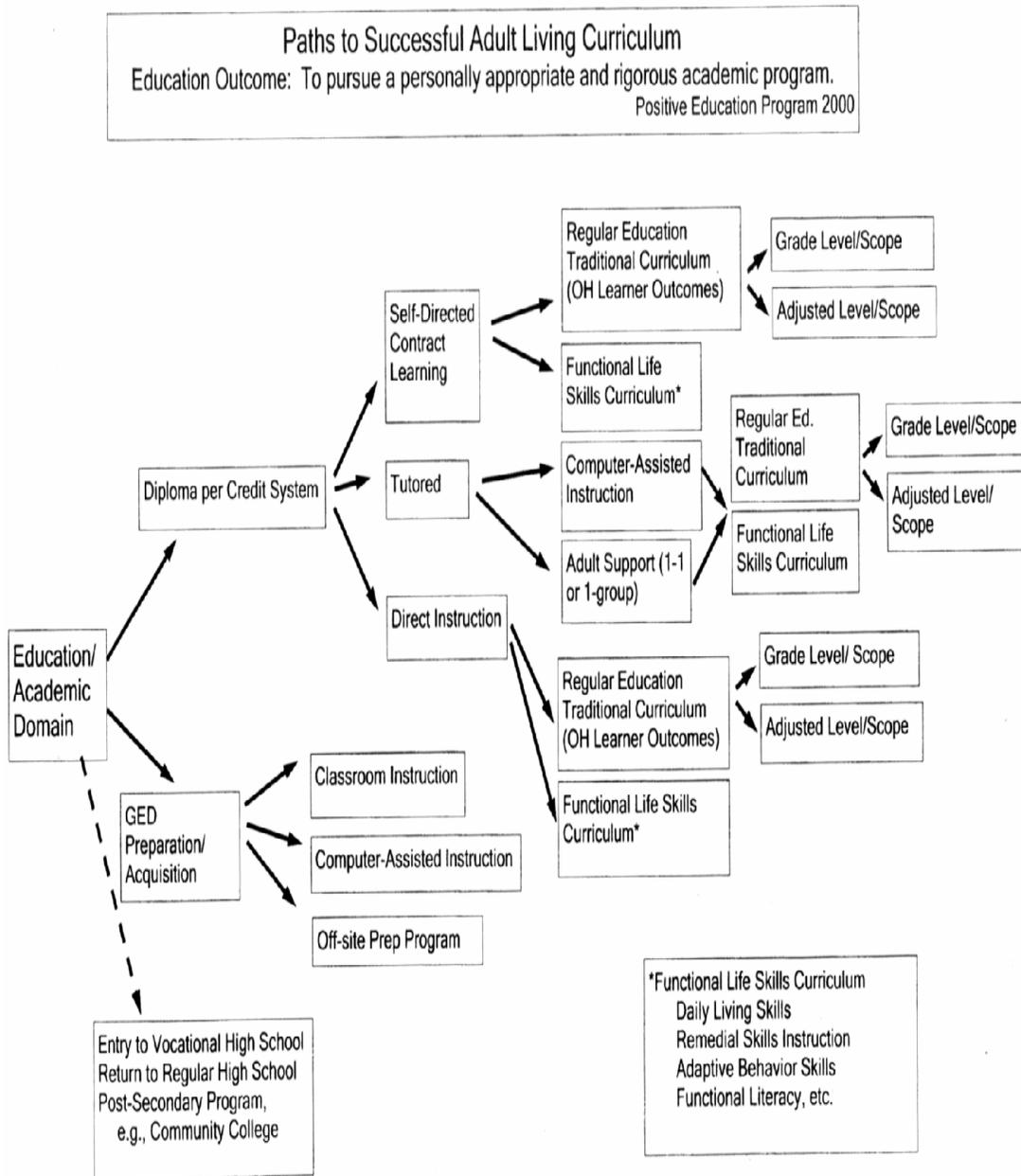
From. *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction (S-DLMI)* (Mithaug, Wehmeyer, Agran, Martin, & Palmer, 1998).

Appendix D3: Self-Determined Learning Theory Model of Instruction: Phase 3



From. *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction (S-DLMI)* (Mithaug, Wehmeyer, Agran, Martin, & Palmer, 1998).

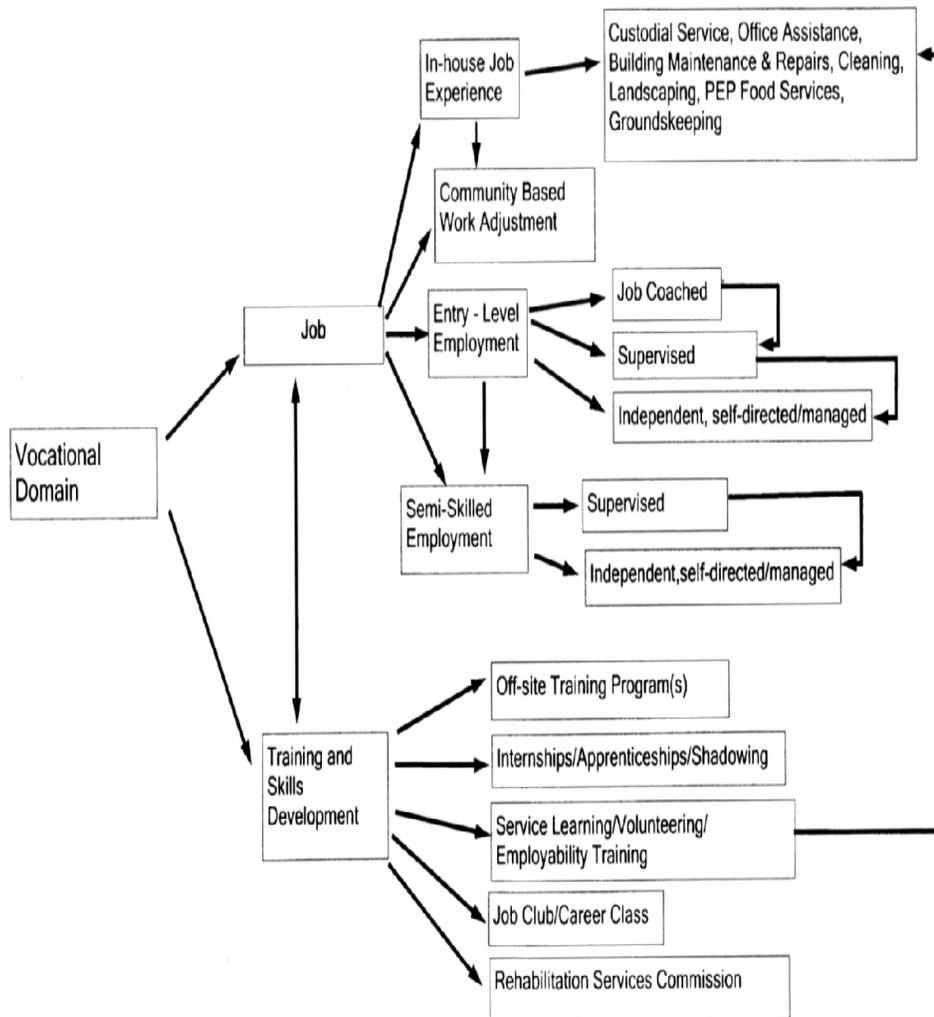
Appendix E1: Positive Education Programs



From. *Education, Employment, and Empowerment*. Cheney, D., Malloy, J., & Hagner, D. (1998b). Finishing high school in many different ways: Project RENEW in Manchester, New Hampshire. *Effective School Practices*, 17(2), 43-52.

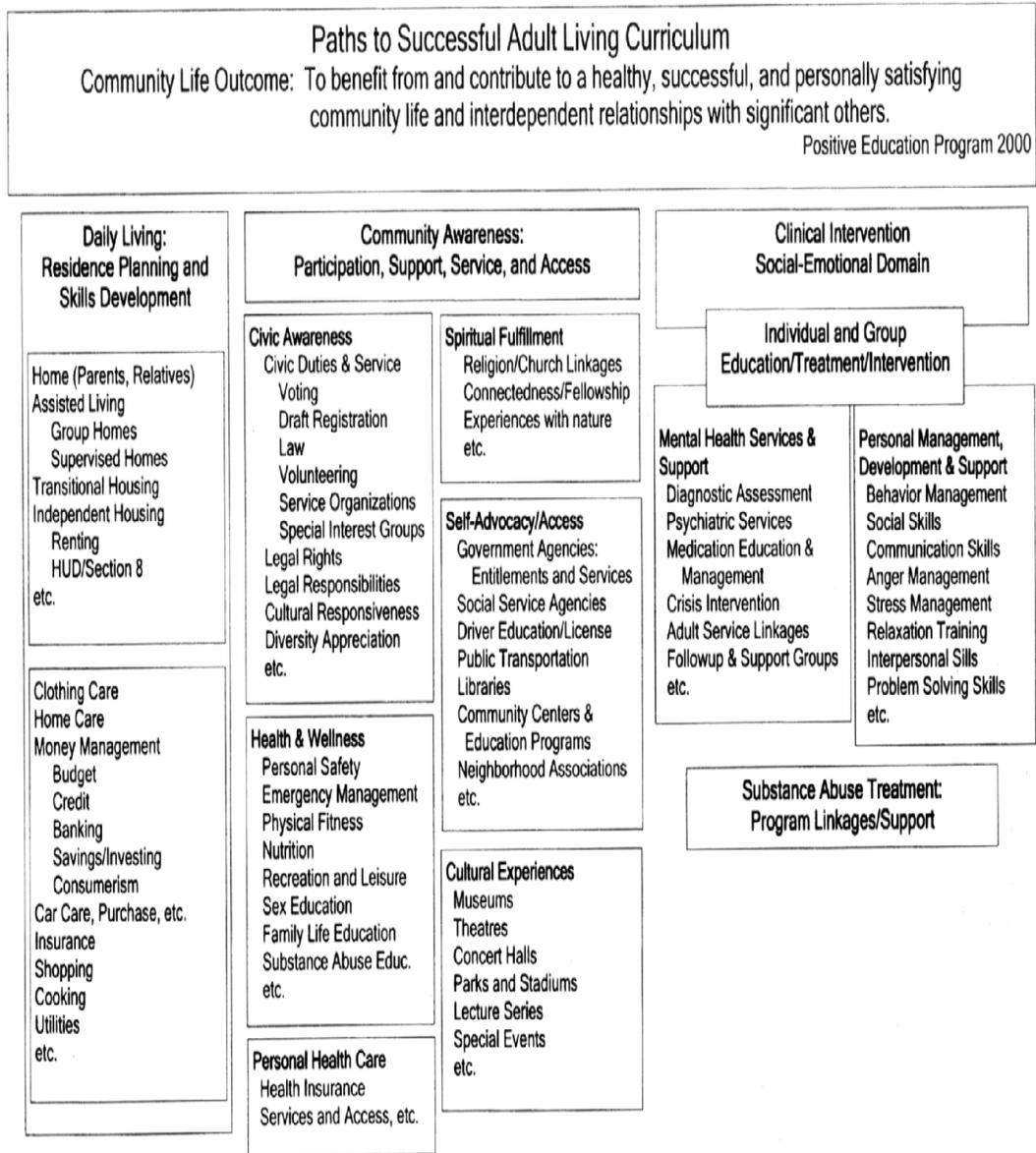
Appendix E2: Positive Education Programs

Paths to Successful Adult Living Curriculum
 Vocational Outcome(s): To gain skills leading to employment and/or to identify and begin preparation leading to a career path.
 Positive Education Program 2000



From. *Education, Employment, and Empowerment*. Cheney, D., Malloy, J., & Hagner, D. (1998b). Finishing high school in many different ways: Project RENEW in Manchester, New Hampshire. *Effective School Practices*, 17(2), 43-52.

Appendix E3: Positive Education Programs



From. Education, Employment, and Empowerment. Cheney, D., Malloy, J., & Hagner, D. (1998b). Finishing high school in many different ways: Project RENEW in Manchester, New Hampshire. Effective School Practices, 17(2), 43-52.

Appendix F1: Determining the Appropriate Sample Size

Dillman, D. (2000). *Mail and internet surveys: The tailored design method* (2nd Ed.). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

$$N_s = \frac{N_p (p) (1-p)}{(N_p - 1) (B/C)^2 + (p) (1-p)}$$

$$\frac{1049}{1049-1} = \frac{(1049) (.5) (1-.5)}{(.05/1.96)^2 + (.5) (1-.5)} \quad P_s = \underline{\quad} \% \text{ of } \underline{\quad} \text{ @.05 conf. level}$$

N_s = completed sample size needed for desired level of precision

N_p = size of population

P = proportion of population expected to choose one of the two response categories (those providing transition instruction to youth with E/BD and those who do not)

B = acceptable amount of sampling error; $p < .05 = +/-5%$ of the true population value

C = Z statistic associated with the confidence level; 1.96 corresponds to the 95% level

$$\frac{(1049) (.5) (1-.5)}{(1049-1) (.05/1.96)^2 + (.5) (1-.5)}$$

$N_s = 281$ completed/returned surveys

The actual response rates indicate the following, based on Dillman (2000).

Sampling error equation:

$$B = [\text{Sq root of } ((N_p * .25)/N_s) - .25] / [N_p - 1] (1.96)$$

$$B = [\text{Sq root of } ((1000 * .25)/165) - .25] / [1000 - 1] * 1.96$$

$$B = .0697 \text{ times } 100 \text{ to get percent}$$

$$B = 6.97\% \text{ (i.e., } 7\%)$$

Derived from formula: p. 206 in Dillman, D. A. 2000. *Mail and Internet Surveys*. John Wiley & Sons, NY.

Note: This is a simplified version of the formula that calculates the maximum sampling error using a 50:50 split (the most conservative calculation because a 50:50 split would give maximum variation).

Appendix F2: Confidence Ranges for Variability Attributable to Sampling

Confidence Ranges for Variability Attributable to Sampling*

<i>Sample Size</i>	<i>Percentage of Sample With Characteristic</i>			
	<i>5/95</i>	<i>10/90</i>	<i>20/80</i>	<i>30/70</i>
35	7	10	14	15
50	6	8	11	13
75	5	7	9	11
100	4	6	8	9
200	4	6	8	9
300	3	4	6	6
500	2	3	4	4
1,000	1	2	3	3
1,500	1	2	2	2

Note. Fowler, Floyd J. Survey Research Methods (2002). Sage Publications, Inc. Thousand Oaks, California 91320.

Notes: Chances are 95 in 100 that the real population figure lies in the range defined by \pm number indicated in table, given the percentage of sample reporting the characteristic and the number of sample cases on which the percentage is based.

- This table describes variability attributable to sampling. Errors resulting from nonresponse or reporting errors are not reflected in this table. In addition, this table assumes a simple random sample.

Using the Table provided through Fowler, 2002, with a survey completion rate of 300, based on a 50/50 split among teachers who do provide and those who do not provide LS and SDS instruction, the sampling error would be approximately 6%.

Based on the sample obtained (N = 165), Fowler would report the sampling error at approximately 8.5%.

Appendix G: Postcard to All Participants Prior to Study

Dear Teacher:

A few days from now, you will receive in the mail a request to participate in a survey for an important research project being conducted through the Department of Special Education at Kansas State University. I am writing in advance because I have found that many teachers appreciate knowing in advance that they will be contacted.

The study concerns the transition-related instructional practices of Kansas public school teachers of youth with emotional/behavioral disorders age 14 and above. Please complete and return the survey in the enclosed, self-addressed, stamped envelope within two weeks of its arrival.

Thank you for your time and consideration. It is with the generous help of people like you that research at KSU can be successful.

If you, for any reason, are unable to participate, please forward this mailing and any additional mailings to a more appropriate participant within your district.

Sincerely,

Amy L. Mueting

Appendix H1: Introductory Letter to Teachers



Special Education
301 Bluemont Hall
1100 Mid-Campus Drive
Manhattan, KS 66506 -5330
785-532-5542

Amy Mueting
P.O. Box 66
Axtell, KS 66403

Warren J. White, Ph.D.
312 Bluemont Hall
1100 Midcampus Drive
Kansas State University
Manhattan, KS 66505

Dear Teacher,

I am writing to request your assistance in a study regarding transition-related instructional practices of those who teach youth with emotional/behavioral disorders (E/BD), age 14 and above. You are one of five-hundred participants randomly selected from the list of secondary teachers of youth with disabilities in the state of Kansas. The list, compiled by KSDE, included all secondary special education teachers serving youth in either an E/BD or an Inter-Related (IR) classroom.

Youth with E/BD exhibit the poorest transition outcomes among all youth with disabilities: Over 50% fail to obtain a high school diploma and many are unable to obtain either independent living status or career-track employment as adults. The reasons behind these outcomes are unclear. Results from this study will provide baseline data regarding the transition-related instructional practices of secondary teachers of youth with E/BD and will indicate the transition skills teachers feel these youth possess.

Please take a few minutes to respond to the enclosed survey. Your participation is very valuable, though voluntary. You may skip any questions that make you feel uncomfortable. If you choose not to participate, please either return the uncompleted survey in the self-addressed, stamped envelope provided or forward the entire mailing to an appropriate colleague.

Your responses are confidential and will be released solely in the form of participant summaries from which no individual answers are identifiable. The identification number located in the lower left-hand corner of the return envelope will allow me to know which surveys have been returned and eliminate the participant from additional, unnecessary mailings.

The two-part survey asks for demographic information, followed by questions regarding the transition instruction you provide youth with E/BD. Please focus solely on the skills taught to and demonstrated by youth with E/BD as either their primary or secondary classification.

Please return the survey in the self-addressed, stamped envelope provided within two weeks from the current date. Feel free to contact my major professor, Warren J. White or me through U.S. Mail or e-mail (wwhite@ksu.edu or mueting@bluevalley.net) if you have any comments or questions regarding the survey. If you prefer, you may also contact the K-State Institutional Review Board, 203 Fairchild Hall, Manhattan, KS,

Appendix H2: Introductory Letter to Teachers

66506, 785-532-3224. Dr. Rick Scheidt is chairperson of the board. Dr. Jerry Jaax is the K-State Research Compliance Officer. Either or both may be contacted at 785-532-3224. Results of the survey will be made available, upon written request, after May 1, 2006. Thank you for assisting with this project.


Amy L. Mueting


Warren J. White, Ph.D.

Appendix I.1: Transition Skills Instruction for Youth with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders

TRANSITION SKILLS INSTRUCTION FOR YOUTH WITH
EMOTIONAL AND BEHAVIORAL DISORDERS

By

AMY L. MUETING
KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

2005

Major Professor: Warren White, PhD

Appendix I.2: Transition Skills Instruction for Youth with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders

SECTION I: DEMOGRAPHICS AND PERSONAL INFORMATION

Directions: Answer each of the following questions based on the students in your program and the transition programs and services you currently provide to youth with emotional and/or behavioral disorders (EBD) age 14 and above.

Place an 'X' next to the appropriate response for item #'s 1-4.

1. Grade level(s) of your students.
 Middle school (grade levels 5-8)
 Junior high school (grade levels 7-8)
 Senior high school (grades 9-12)
 Other combination (please describe) _____
2. Which service delivery model best describes your program?
 Consultative
 Resource room
 Self-contained classroom
 Special day school
 Hospital
 18-21 Community-based program
3. Level of your special education certification and/or License?
 Full certification and/or license
 Provisional endorsement
 Waiver
4. How many years have you taught special education? _____
5. How many hours of training have you had in each of the following types of life **skills** instruction?
(List the number of hours for each)
 College Class (clock hours, not credit hours)
 Workshop / conference
 In-Service (include special education, building, or district trainings)
 Other (please explain) _____
6. How many hours of training have you had in each of the following types of **self-determination skills** instruction?
 College Class (clock hours, not credit hours)
 Workshop / conference
 In-Service (include special education, building, or district trainings)
 Other (please explain) _____
7. How many special education students age 14 and above do you work with? _____
8. Of those, how many are labeled with E/BD? _____

Continue...

Appendix I.3: Transition Skills Instruction for Youth with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders

SECTION II: TRANSITION COMPETENCIES AND SKILLS

Directions: Using the skill level key provided, write the number of students with E/BD age 14 and above with whom you work who can demonstrate each self-determination skill at the specified levels of independence (I, S, D, or NO).

I = Independent: Student can demonstrate the skill without any assistance, instruction, &/or directive.

S = Semi-Independent: Student can demonstrate the skill at the initiative or directive of the teacher.

D = Dependent: Student can demonstrate the skill ONLY with specific assistance, instruction, &/or directive.

NO = Not Observed: Teacher has not observed the student demonstrating the skill.

Example: Choice Making – Student identifies interests, expresses preferences.

	I	S	D	NO
*A teacher of four youth with E/BD reports that three students can Demonstrate Choice-Making skills at the Independent level and one student can demonstrate the skill at the Dependent level.	<u>3</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0</u>

1. Choice-Making: Student identifies interests, expresses preferences and is able to make personal choices.	___	___	___	___
---	-----	-----	-----	-----

2. Decision-Making: Student participates in making decisions regarding his/her education and post-school life.	___	___	___	___
--	-----	-----	-----	-----

3. Problem-Solving: Student systematically solves problems as requested or required by teachers and other school personnel.	___	___	___	___
---	-----	-----	-----	-----

4. Goal Setting and Attainment: Student sets and tracks personal goals and participates in goal-setting activities (e.g., develops steps indicative of mastery).	___	___	___	___
--	-----	-----	-----	-----

5. Self-Advocacy and Leadership Skills: Student knows his rights and is able to stand up for himself, and/or communicates assertively in the role of an effective leader or team member.	___	___	___	___
--	-----	-----	-----	-----

6. Self-Management and Self-Regulation Skills: Student monitors and evaluates, monitors and evaluates his own behavior, selects and provides his own re-enforcements, sets his own schedule, and helps to direct his personal learning through strategies such as self-instruction.	___	___	___	___
---	-----	-----	-----	-----

7. Self-Awareness and Self-Knowledge: Student identifies his personal strengths his personal strengths, limitations, abilities, and interests and applies that knowledge to his personal advantage.	___	___	___	___
---	-----	-----	-----	-----

***Self-Determination competencies and skills were adapted with permission from the authors: Wehmeyer, Agran, & Hughes (2000a). A national survey of teachers' promotion of self-determination and student-directed learning. Journal of Special Education, 34, 58-68.**

Continue...

Appendix I.4: Transition Skills Instruction for Youth with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders

LIFE SKILLS: Skills deemed necessary for a student to function as an independent adult.

Daily Living Skills

	I	S	D	NO
8. Managing Money	___	___	___	___
9. Selecting and Maintaining Living Environments	___	___	___	___
10. Caring for Personal Health	___	___	___	___
11. Developing and Maintaining Appropriate Intimate Relationships	___	___	___	___
12. Eating at Home and in the Community	___	___	___	___
13. Cleaning and Purchasing Clothing	___	___	___	___
14. Participate in Leisure/Recreational Activities	___	___	___	___
15. Getting Around in the Community	___	___	___	___

Personal-Social Skills

16. Acquiring Self-Identity	___	___	___	___
17. Exhibiting Socially Responsible Behavior	___	___	___	___
18. Developing & Maintaining Appropriate Social Relationships	___	___	___	___
19. Exhibiting Independent Behavior	___	___	___	___
20. Making informed Decisions	___	___	___	___
21. Communicating with Others	___	___	___	___

Occupational Guidance and Preparation

22. Exploring & Locating Occupational Training & Job Placement Opportunities	___	___	___	___
23. Making Occupational & Job Placement Choices	___	___	___	___
24. Applying for & Maintaining Occupational Training & Job Placements	___	___	___	___
25. Developing & Maintaining Appropriate Work Skills & Behavior	___	___	___	___
26. Matching Physical/Manual Skills to Occupational Training & Employment	___	___	___	___

Life Skills competencies were selected from the Life Centered Career Education Curriculum - Modified. Brolin, D. & Loyd, R. (2004). Career Development and Transition Services: A Functional Life Skills Approach. Merrill Prentice-Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ, pp.68-70.

27. Average number of minutes you teach self-determination skills weekly. (refer to items 1-7). ____

28. Average number of minutes you teach life skills weekly. (refer to items 8-26 above). ____

Continue...

Appendix I.5: Transition Skills Instruction for Youth with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders

SECTION III: STATEMENT OF NEEDED TRANSITION SERVICES

Directions: How many of your students with E/BD age 14 and above have a statement of needed transition services addressing the self-determination and life skill competencies listed below? (Write the number in the space provided).

Example: 3 Choice-Making (i.e., "3" indicates that three students with E/BD have a statement of needed transition services addressing the skill of Choice-Making).

SELF-DETERMINATION SKILLS

- 29. ___ Choice-Making
- 30. ___ Decision-Making
- 31. ___ Problem-Solving
- 32. ___ Goal-Setting and Attainment
- 33. ___ Self-Advocacy and Leadership Skills
- 34. ___ Self-Management and Self-Regulation Skills
- 35. ___ Self-Awareness and Self-Knowledge

LIFE SKILLS

Daily Living Skills

- 36. ___ Managing Money
- 37. ___ Selecting and Maintaining Living Environments
- 38. ___ Caring for Personal Health
- 39. ___ Developing and Maintaining Appropriate Intimate Relationships
- 40. ___ Eating at Home and in the Community
- 41. ___ Cleaning and Purchasing Clothing
- 42. ___ Participate in Leisure/Recreational Activities
- 43. ___ Getting Around in the Community

Personal-Social Skills

- 44. ___ Acquiring Self-Identity
- 45. ___ Exhibiting Socially Responsible Behavior
- 46. ___ Developing and Maintaining Appropriate Social Relationships
- 47. ___ Exhibiting Independent Behavior
- 48. ___ Making Informed Decisions
- 49. ___ Communicating with Others

Occupational Guidance and Preparation

- 50. ___ Exploring and Locating Occupational Training and Job Placement Opportunities
- 51. ___ Making Occupational and Job Placement Choices
- 52. ___ Applying for and Maintaining Occupational Training and Job Placements
- 53. ___ Developing and Maintaining Appropriate Work Skills and Behavior
- 54. ___ Matching Physical/Manual Skills to Occupational Training and Employment

Continue....

Appendix I.6: Transition Skills Instruction for Youth with Emotional and Behaviors Disorders

*Thank you for participating. Please return the completed survey in the envelope provided.

The space below is reserved for your comments and/or questions regarding the survey items and/or the topic.

Amy Mueting
P.O. Box 66
Axtell, KS 66403
mueting@bluevalley.net

Appendix J: Second Letter of Request

Amy Mueting
P.O. Box 66
Axtell, KS 66403

Warren J. White, PhD
312 Bluemont Hall
1100 Midcampus Drive
Kansas State University
Manhattan, KS 66505

Dear Teacher,

You recently received a letter requesting your participation in a study regarding the transition-related instructional practices of those who teach youth with emotional or behavioral disorders (E/BD), age 14 and above. I am writing to request your assistance with this project since I do not have record of having received the survey with the number assigned your name (located in the lower, left-hand corner of the self-addressed, stamped envelope). Every response received is valuable to this endeavor and will help to ensure that the outcomes are representative of secondary teachers of youth with E/BD throughout the state of Kansas.

Youth with E/BD exhibit the poorest transition outcomes among all youth with disabilities: Over 50% fail to obtain a high school diploma and many are unable to obtain either independent living status or career-track employment as adults. The reasons behind these outcomes are unclear. Results from this study will provide baseline data regarding the transition-related instructional practices of secondary teachers of youth with E/BD and will indicate the transition skills teachers feel these youth possess.

Please complete the enclosed survey, requiring approximately ten minutes of your time. Your participation is very valuable, though voluntary. You may skip any questions that make you feel uncomfortable. If you choose not to participate, please either return the uncompleted survey in the self-addressed, stamped envelope provided or forward the entire mailing to an appropriate colleague. Your responses are confidential and will be released solely in the form of participant summaries from which no individual answers are identifiable.

The three-part survey asks for demographic information, followed by questions regarding the transition instruction you provide youth with E/BD. Please focus solely on the skills taught to and demonstrated by youth with E/BD as either their primary or secondary classification.

Please return the survey in the self-addressed, stamped envelope provided within two weeks from the current date. Feel free to contact my major professor, Warren J. White, or me through U.S. Mail or e-mail (wwhite@ksu.edu or mueting@bluevalley.net) if you have any comments or questions regarding the survey. Results of the survey will be made available, upon written request, after May 1, 2006. Thank you for assisting with this project.

Respectfully,

Amy L. Mueting

Warren J. White, PhD

Appendix K.1: Life Skills

Daily Living Skills

8. Managing Money
9. Selecting and Maintaining Living Environments
10. Caring for Personal Health
11. Developing and Maintaining Appropriate Intimate Relationships
12. Eating at Home and in the Community
13. Cleaning and Purchasing Clothing
14. Participate in Leisure/Recreational Activities
15. Getting Around in the Community

Personal-Social Skills

16. Acquiring Self-Identity
17. Exhibiting Socially Responsible Behavior
18. Developing & Maintaining Appropriate Social Relationships
19. Exhibiting Independent Behavior
20. Making informed Decisions
21. Communicating with Others

Occupational Guidance and Preparation

22. Exploring & Locating Occupational Training & Job Placement Opportunities
23. Making Occupational & Job Placement Choices

Appendix K.2: Life Skills

24. Applying for & Maintaining Occupational Training & Job Placements
25. Developing & Maintaining Appropriate Work Skills & Behavior
26. Matching Physical/Manual Skills to Occupational Training & Employment

Life Skills competencies were selected from the Life Centered Career Education Curriculum — Modified. Brolin & Loyd, R. (2004). *Career Development and Transition Services: A Functional Life Skills Approach* (4th Edition). Pearson Education, Inc., Upper Saddle River, New Jersey.