Preparing adolescents with intellectual disabilities for support-based adult service provision: How schools can help.

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Abstract

This paper is designed to help educators to prepare themselves to assume the important responsibility of assisting adolescents with intellectual disabilities to be able to contribute to, and benefit from, support-based adult service provision. The paper reviews ideas about supports and support based planning found in literature from the areas of self-determination, choice-making, supported employment, and transition and individual education planning. Skills, attitudes, experiences, and environments that will help to prepare students with intellectual disabilities for support-based systems of planning are discussed. Applicable strategies and approaches are presented. It is suggested that the field of support-based service provision will grow and become an area of increasing interest over the next five years.
Chapter 1

*Introduction*

Service for adults with intellectual disabilities is moving away from pre-planned and segregated, group services toward person-centred, support-based services provided in natural environments (Luckasson et al., 2002; Thompson et al., 2002). A support-based approach relies on people with intellectual disabilities deciding what they would like to do and where they would like to spend their time, and support providers working with them, and their families, to identify, and put into place, the required supports (Thompson et al., 2004). Support-based service provision springs from, and is bolstered by, some global changes in the provision of service to adults with intellectual disabilities including increased emphasis on inclusion, equity, and quality of life and use of supports, person-centred planning, and ecological approaches (Luckasson et al., 2002).

Societal attitudes toward people with intellectual disabilities are constantly evolving (Klein & Strully, 2000). Society has come a long way from the era of institutionalization when family support entailed “relieving” families from the “burden” of raising children with intellectual disabilities (Turnbull & Turnbull, 2000). Today it is assumed that people with intellectual disabilities not only can, and should, but will live quality lives with their families. A brief look at the rise of the quality of life movement will help to put support-based planning and service provision in perspective. The term quality of life was coined in 1939 by Thorndike and was used throughout the 1940s in municipal planning and politics (Edgerton, 1990, cited in Galambos, 1995). In Europe in the 1950s Nirje championed the cause of normalization, which re-emerged in North America in the 1980s with Wolfensberger’s ‘social role valorisation’ (Rapley & Baldwin, 1995). The work of Nirje and Wolfensberger had sparked a change; society was beginning to believe that people with disabilities should lead lives similar to those of people without disabilities (Rapley & Baldwin, 1995). By the mid 1980s the quality of life movement had gained significant momentum (Galambos, 1995). For example, the Australian Disability Services Act of 1986 afforded people with disabilities the same rights as other members of society “to services which support their attaining a reasonable quality of life” (Parmenter, Cummins, Shaddock, & Stancliffe, 1994, p. 101).

Schalock (2000) explained that the concept of quality of life was defined in the 1980s, and clarified in the 1990s, and that the emphasis is now on helping people to pursue
lives of quality through the provision of supports and services. Cimera and Rusch (2000) expressed that all of society benefits when students with intellectual disabilities have the skills required for successful community living and when schools provide them with the supports they need to reach their goals. Schools must therefore seek ways to contribute to the success of society by fostering the abilities of young adults with intellectual disabilities to contribute to, and benefit from, support-based service provision.

**Aim**

Wehmeyer, Bersani Jr., and Gagne (2000) acknowledged a need to explore the role of schools and families in developing the skills and attitudes necessary for adults with disabilities to control their own lives. Pearson (2000, p. 148) stressed that education be “something done with, rather than to, students.” This will only be possible when students with intellectual disabilities have the skills, attitudes and experiences to take part in support-based planning. Teachers need the opportunity to consider, and put into practice, educational planning that will address these needs. This paper is a much needed, and timely, step toward helping teachers to prepare adolescents with intellectual disabilities for support-based adult service provision.

**Research Questions**

With the change in adult service provision comes a new responsibility for schools. Ruble and Dalrymple (1996, p. 12) expressed: “Part of learning to be a responsible adult comes from people believing that you can achieve and succeed and providing you with the supports and adaptations to do so.” Whitney-Thomas and Maloney (2001, p. 386) advised that “students must be taught the skills to identify the need for support, who to turn to for help, and how to put supportive help to use in their lives.” In order to be prepared to create quality lives for themselves, students with intellectual disabilities will need to be able to indicate what they would like to do and help to determine what types and levels of supports they will need. Schalock and Alonso (2002, p. 298) indicated that the following three tracks were essential to helping students to determine their own lives: “instruction to promote capacity (skills and knowledge), opportunities to experience control and choice, and the design of supports and accommodations.”

Much of the literature in the broad field of intellectual disabilities points to movement toward support-based planning. Requisite skills are alluded to, or introduced as single
methods, but few resources exist that focus specifically on globally preparing students to take active roles in support-based plans. This paper focuses on the following questions in an effort to fill that void:

1. What skills and attitudes will students need to be able to contribute to a support-based system of planning?
2. What experiences will enhance students' abilities to benefit from a support-based system of planning?
3. How can schools help to prepare students to be ready and willing to contribute to support-based plans?

Outline of Methods and Literature Review

Due to its recent growth, support-based planning has not yet been established as its own sub-discipline of intellectual disabilities. The literature search was expanded to include articles from areas that are intertwined with, and have lead to the subsequent growth of, support-based planning. A search of Special Educational journals available through Flinders University electronic resources uncovered relevant information in the areas of self-determination, choice-making, individual education and transition planning, and supported employment. Using these parameters a search was made by scanning the titles of journal articles from the field of intellectual and developmental disabilities. Care was taken to include both “popular” and more scholarly research articles. Journals from Europe, Australia and North America were included in the search to highlight the global nature of the concern. Journal articles from the past decade from these areas were reviewed to glean explicit and implied requisite skills, attitudes and experiences for successful participation in support-based planning. Recommendations for teachers are made based on an analysis of these bodies of literature and a synthesis of the component ideas.

Significance and Theoretical Framework

The importance of the movement toward support-based service provision is highlighted by the fact that the American Association on Mental Retardation (AAMR) now includes within its definition of intellectual disabilities the intent of determining supports and the belief that, with supports, life functioning should improve (Luckasson et al., 2002). The AAMR also discussed the move toward direct funding as a means of maintaining the implementation of support-based provision of service (Thompson et al., 2004). As an example of what support-based service provision could look like, in British Columbia,
Canada, there is a movement toward province-wide implementation of individualized funding (Community Living British Columbia (CLBC), 2005). Individualized funding is “an allocation of public funds that are given directly to an individual and/or representative to meet disability-related needs” and is designed to increase the flexibility and choice afforded to people and “to allow for innovative and creative supports” (CLBC, 2005, p. 6). Moreover, responsibility for the delivery of service and supports for adults with developmental disabilities has recently been transferred from the Ministry of Children and Family Development to CLBC based on the belief that people with intellectual disabilities, with the support of their families, are best able to decide what they need (Hagen, 2005). Hagen (2005, p. 2) further indicated: “CLBC envisions a future where children and adults with developmental disabilities, supported by family members and friends, have the opportunities and supports needed to pursue their own goals and participate as full valued citizens in their communities.” The high school students of today must be ready to enter into this new era of opportunity and potential. Educators need time to consider how they can contribute to the future successes of their students with intellectual disabilities.

**Definition of Supports**

Schalock and Alonso (2002, p. 320) defined supports as “resources and strategies used to enhance a person’s well-being and perceived quality of life”. Beirne-Smith, Ittenbach, and Patton (2002, p. 287) stated that supports are resources that enhance people’s abilities “to live, learn, and work with greater independence.” Luckasson et al. (2002, p. 15) elaborated by defining them as, “resources and strategies that aim to promote the development, education, interests, and personal well-being of a person and that enhance individual functioning.” Unger (1999, p. 172) added that supports are “any type of assistance required or desired by an individual that aids or facilitates participation in community and employment environments.” Thompson et al. (2002, p. 390) reiterated that supports are: “resources and strategies that promote the interests and welfare of individuals and that result in enhanced personal independence and productivity, greater participation in an independent society, increased community integration, and/or an improved quality of life.” Increased well-being, opportunity, and participation in community life are key components of supports.

One of the most appealing aspects of support-based service provision is its universal nature. Patton, Cronin, and Jairrels (1997, p. 297) explained: “The use of supports is desirable and a natural part of life”. Similarly, Beirne-Smith et al. (2002) expressed that
all adults use community services and supports and Parmenter (1994) stated that everybody uses natural supports to enrich their lives. Another essential and appealing component of supports is the view that they can enhance people's lives, not just help with meeting basic needs. Wehman, Bricout, and Kregel (2000) acknowledged the ability of supports to enhance peoples' success, independence, and control over their own lives.

Consideration of the range of possible supports helps to clarify the meaning and intent of the support-based paradigm. Beirne-Smith et al. (2002) discussed services, and natural, personal, and technical supports. Thompson et al. (2002) similarly listed natural, technological, and generic supports, and supports offered directly by organizations for people with disabilities. Luckasson et al. (2002) explained that the intensity of support needs are variable and can be described as intermittent, limited, extensive, or pervasive. Luckasson et al. (2002) also suggested that supports should be based with the person in need of support, family, friends, or informal situations, with management becoming the responsibility of generic services if necessary, and of specialized services only as a last resort.

Some other basic rules govern the proper use of supports. Dalrymple (1995) explained that environmental supports should be individualized, socially validated, consistently used, age appropriate, and adaptable. Thompson et al. (2002) expressed that supports must be flexible and address individual preferences, needs, and levels of importance. Luckasson et al. (2002) believed that supports should be based in the community, directed by the people with support needs, individually planned and developed using a person-centred approach, and should enhance the ability of people to function and participate while facilitating their self-determination. Thompson et al. (2004, p. 6) similarly expressed: “People in a person’s network need to provide support that enables that person to engage in chronological-age-appropriate activities in community settings that are consistent with his or her personal goals and preferences.”

The success of a support-based model depends on systematic and careful planning. Luckasson et al. (2002) described the process as follows: identify areas of needed support and appropriate activities, determine the levels of support that will be required and, finally, write a support plan. Schalock (1996, cited in Beirne-Smith et al., 2002) similarly explained that following evaluation of the demands of the activity and the environment, and assessment of barriers to success, appropriate supports should be developed. The Supports Intensity Scale (Thompson et al., 2004) was developed to
assist professionals with these tasks. The scale looks at frequency, daily support time, and type of support in the areas of home living, community living, lifelong learning, employment, health and safety, and social activities as well as protection and advocacy, and medical and behavioural supports (Thompson et al., 2004).

**Background and Perspective**

A brief overview of quality of life and the related areas of self-determination and choice will help to highlight the importance of support-based planning and place it in context in the larger picture of intellectual disability study. Quality of life, self-determination and choice are hierarchically related. Choice is a key element of self-determination and self-determination is one of eight core elements of quality of life (Wehmeyer & Schalock, 2001 cited in Schalock & Alonso, 2002).

**Quality of life**

Support based planning is firmly rooted in the quality of life movement. Quality of life “is experienced when a person’s basic needs are met and when he or she has the same opportunity as anyone else to pursue and achieve goals in the major settings of home, community, and work” (Schalock, 2000, p. 339). Brown, Brown, and Bayer (1994) similarly explained that choice and natural environments are key components of quality of life. Butterworth, Steere, and Whitney-Thomas (1997, cited in Schalock & Alonso, 2002) described the following characteristics as being essential: people primarily direct their own lives supported by family and friends; personal relationships are the most important ones; resources and supports are ideally generic, informal, and local; preferences, talents and dreams are more important than limitations; and goals are based on visions of the future, not on present, restrictive resources. Goel (2000) similarly explained that the quality of life movement points toward person-centred planning, inquiring about people’s thoughts and feelings, and supporting people to achieve their desires. These basic quality of life sentiments also dictate the implementation of support-based planning.

The eight core elements of quality of life are emotional well-being, social inclusion, interpersonal relationships, personal development, self-determination, physical well-being, material well-being, and rights (Schalock & Alonso, 2002). The following hierarchy is based on these core elements. In order to live quality lives people with intellectual disabilities want and need to:
Have our dreams and our own journeys.
Have opportunities to meet new people; to change with whom and where we live.
Have what/who is important to us in everyday life; people to be with; things to do; places to be.
Stay healthy and safe on our own terms. (Schalock & Alonso, 2002, p. 307)

Brown et al. (1994) contended that quality of life would greatly impact service provision, and governmental policies and programs. Schalock (2000, p. 353) agreed: “the concept of quality of life has extended beyond the person and has now impacted an entire delivery system.” Galambos (1995) also discussed the importance of quality of life to the provision of service and highlighted the necessity of empathetic, individualized planning.

**Self-determination**

Self-determination, one of the core quality of life domains emerges frequently in supports related literature. Stodden and Whelley (2004) explained that the self-determination movement led to the growth of flexible, individualized models of support and service. Self-determination is defined as: “acting as the primary causal agent in one’s life and making choices and decisions regarding one’s quality of life free from external influence or interference” (Schalock & Alonso, 2002, p. 296). Field and Hoffman (1994, cited in Field, Hoffman, & Posch, 1997, p. 285) defined self-determination as “the ability to identify and achieve goals based on a foundation of knowing and valuing oneself”. More specifically:

The self-determined individual knows a great deal about him or herself, has a clear vision for the future, feels a sense of control over the immediate environment and decisions, can self-advocate, and can muster the necessary supports to accomplish what he or she wants. (Whitney-Thomas & Moloney, 2001, p. 376)


When considering self-determination, it is essential to avoid confusing the intent of autonomy with doing everything oneself. Wehmeyer, Martin, and Sands (1998) explained that autonomy implies acting on one’s own preferences and interests but does not preclude the value of interdependence. Browder et al. (2001), Parmenter et al. (1994), and Shaddock, Guggenheimer, Rawlings, and Bugel (1993) similarly
emphasized the importance of interdependence. Smart (2004, p. 134) recommended a “shift in focus ... from an insistence upon ‘independence’ towards a more mature acceptance of the support people may continue to need at certain points in their lives and development.”

**Choice**

Choice-making, an important element of self-determination, is also a prominent area of study in the field of intellectual disabilities. Schalock and Alonso (2002, p. 298) explained: “Making a choice is, quite simply, the communication of a preference and instruction in choice making focuses on either the identification of a preference or the communication of that preference.” Beirne-Smith et al. (2002) pointed out that it is essential that people have supports in order to put their choices into action. Similarly, Harris (2003) warned that choice is restricted when people don’t have the means or awareness to make a choice and explained that the two necessary components are an awareness that at least two options exist, and an understanding that an outcome is under personal influence. Brown et al. (1994, p. 52) asserted: “Choice must be provided even if it is at a tactile or visual level, and even when it contradicts our preconceived perception of what is needed.” It is essential that all people with intellectual disabilities be supported to make, and act upon, essential choices about their lives.

**Limitations and Delimitations**

Its length and its nature as a literature review limit the scope of this paper. It is not intended as a comprehensive study of support-based planning. The paper provides educators with a brief conceptual overview but focuses on practical suggestions about how they can begin to prepare students for support-based adult service provision. It makes implications about where to look for, and how to look at, contemporary literature from the broad field of intellectual disabilities for ideas to put into their own teaching practices.

The paper does not offer training in diagnosing intellectual disabilities based on support needs or in using the Support Intensity Scale (Thompson et al. 2004) to determine depth or range of needs. It does not cover the constructs that make up the complex social service arena of support-based adult service provision. The paper does not provide the type of intensive recommendations that a research paper would allow. The
paper also does not focus on formal curricula designed to address individual components of support-based planning, which would unto themselves provide educators with a solid starting point.

The paper starts with the basic assumption that educators are noticing a change in the way that services are being provided to their students when they leave high school, but that they are not already teaching within a school environment that supports this change. Chapter 1 introduces the concept of support-based adult service provision, outlines the aim and focus of the investigation, and places it within the background of choice-making, self-determination, and quality of life. Helpful skills, attitudes and experiences are presented in Chapter 2 under broad sub-disciplines of intellectual disability study and common themes that emerged from the literature. Chapter 3 offers a summary of suggested supports and more specifically addresses the third question, “How can schools help to prepare students to be ready and willing to contribute to support-based plans?” Chapter 4 provides final summaries of aims and findings and offers recommendations for future investigation.
Chapter 2

Literature Review

A collection of practices is presented to aid educators in providing their students with sound grounding in support-based practices. The section focuses on the skills, attitudes and experiences that will enable youths with intellectual disabilities to benefit from support-based planning as adults. Specific ideas are grouped under more global recommendations and are summarized in Appendices A and B.

Ways to Prepare Students for Support-based Service Provision

Encourage self-determination

One of the most important ways in which students can be prepared for support-based adult service provision is by being self-determined, or at least possessing some of the defining skills. The component elements of self-determination are as follows: “choice-making, decision-making, and problem-solving abilities; goal-setting and attainment skills; self-observation, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement skills; an internal locus of control; positive attributions of efficacy and outcome expectancy; a realistic, positive self-awareness; and a comprehensive self-knowledge” (Wehmeyer et al., 1998, p. 194). Because the ability to benefit from a support-based system is intertwined with self-determined behaviour, teaching skill in these areas will help students to more effectively control their own lives.

Field, Martin, Miller, Ward, and Wehmeyer (1998, cited in Karvonen, Test, Wood, Browder, & Algozzine, 2004) expressed that students must believe in their capabilities. Direct teaching and opportunities to succeed can help students to become more self-determined and be able to direct support based plans. Price, Wolensky, and Mulligan (2002) included the following in their list of best practices: self-directed, problem centred, and cooperative learning, community-based instruction, using future adult roles and responsibilities to trigger learning, including students in goal setting, and providing safe risks and opportunities for choice making. Hoffman and Field (1995, cited in Field et al., 1997) identified ten cornerstones for self-determination education; modelling, cooperative and experiential learning, interdisciplinary teaching, integrated or inclusive environments, support from family members and friends, listening, humour, finding teachable moments, and teachers and students acting as co-learners.
Frankland, Turnbull, Wehmeyer, and Blackmountain (2004) explained that people who are self-determined are self-realizing, self-regulating, psychologically empowered, and autonomous. They must know their strengths and limitations and be able to use their knowledge; know how to set goals, make decisions, and solve problems; believe that they can positively effect their lives; and be able to act based on their own preferences (Frankland et al., 2004). Schalock and Alonso (2002, p. 299) explained: “Making a decision is a process of selecting or coming to a conclusion about which set of potential solutions is the best, given one’s circumstances, values, priorities, and needs.” Schalock and Alonso (2002) further reported that emphasis on solving problems, and making choices and decisions that are honoured by those around them, would help students to gain a sense of control. Schalock and Alonso (2002) also asserted that an environment promoting inquiry, exploration, generalization, and problem-solving ability would support students to identify, clarify, analyse, and resolve impersonal and interpersonal problems. Thoma, Baker, and Saddler (2002) explained that there must be a change from teachers acting as primary decision makers to students learning to make choices and decisions and teachers learning to support them. Similarly, Steere and Cavaiuolo (2002, p. 54) stated: “students must know what they like, are good at, and are interested in.”

Field and Hoffman (1999) pointed out that the fact that many self-determination skills are challenging for students with developmental disabilities would have an effect on the types of strategies chosen for use. The field of self-determination is rich with ideas. The examples provided are not intended as an exhaustive list but to provide teachers with some ideas about where to start. As with all education for students with intellectual disabilities, techniques must be individually chosen to suit situations and needs. Browder et al. (2001) recommended that teachers develop their own lists of strategies to use with different students. Moreover, Field et al. (1997, p. 292) explained: “In a self-determination framework, students play an active, participatory role in deciding what they want to learn, why they want to learn it, and how they are going to learn it.”

Malian and Nevin (2002) championed participation, stating that students should be involved in searching for services, experience the consequences of their choices, and be given opportunities to reflect upon and redesign their plans. Blacher (2004) recommended enhancing student interest, enjoyment and satisfaction by explaining the value of activities, providing opportunities for responsible choice making, acknowledging feelings and perspectives, and providing new and varied experiences.
Karvonen et al. (2004) stated that the three most important determinants of successful decision-making skill development are students' abilities to make informed choices, their awareness of a range of options, and teachers honouring students' choices even when they doubt the wisdom.


In the quest for independence, self-reliance and self-determination, Agran et al. (2005) highlighted the importance of teaching self-monitoring skills where students must decide whether a given response has occurred and record that it has happened. Wehmeyer, Agran, and Hughes (2000) recommended focusing on self-monitoring, self-recording, student-directed goal setting, self-instruction, self-evaluation or self-judgement, and self-reinforcement. McConkey (1998, p. 57) outlined some essential strategic reasoning skills: “Identifying alternatives, anticipating outcomes, making choices, recognising errors and experimenting with solutions”. Martin et al. (2003, p. 434) recommended using behavioural contracting that “cues performance, requires some self-evaluation, and then provides opportunities for reinforcement.” Ganz and Sigafoos (2005) described teaching self-monitoring systems, including tally marks and token collection, and pointed out the importance of explaining the value of the systems to students. Pierce and Schreibman (1994, cited in Ganz & Sigafoos, 2005) explained that self-management techniques can be easily generalized and help students to decrease their reliance on other people for routine monitoring. Schalock and Alonso (2002) observed that self-monitoring skills, especially those relating to attention, completion, and accuracy, are of particular value to work-related environments.

Fullerton and Coyne (1999) recommended a number of organizational supports designed to help young adults with autism to develop self-determination skills, but that would be equally beneficial for students with intellectual disabilities. Their visual supports included life maps showing life now and in five years, illustration of temporal and goal concepts, dream boxes, and strips of ideas that students could put in sequence with support. Fullerton and Coyne (1999, p. 44) recommended encouraging students to categorize their ideas as “something that I would want to do to meet this
goal...something that I might do later to meet this goal... and something that does not work for me, or that I have already tried."

Price et al. (2002) recommended structuring work experience opportunities, and providing students with a choice of educational methods including, manipulatives, work sheets, word problems, peer tutoring, games, quizzes and cooperative learning. Browder et al. (2001) suggested using small-group instruction, role-play, and picture checklists for routine instruction and offering students choices regarding classroom routines, equipment use, and purchases.

Palmer and Wehmeyer (2003) recommended presenting students with a series of questions about goals, plans and progress. When exploring their interests, Palmer and Wehmeyer (2003) suggested that students write or draw pictures of activities they like to do at home and at school, choose three things they would like to learn, and then choose one of those things about which to answer subsequent questions. Family members, peers, and educators can all help to model goal setting and attainment skills including identifying long and short term goals, determining plans and objectives, and re-evaluating and refining goals (Schalock & Alonso, 2002).

Wehman, et al. (2000) pointed out that teachers must help students to decide what level of support they want and to identify, choose, and access supports in community settings. The Supports Intensity Scale can act as a valuable teaching tool. Students can learn to consider if, how often, and for how long they need support to complete desired activities. The time descriptors of hourly, daily, weekly, monthly, 30 minutes, 2 hours and 4 hours, as presented by Thompson et al. (2004) can be discussed and considered. Students can also learn to indicate whether they need full or partial physical assistance, verbal or gestural prompting, or just monitoring (Thompson et al., 2004). Frequent practice with picture based forms completed during, or immediately following, activities can help students to develop their skills.

Promote the expression of choice

Price et al. (2002, p. 110) expressed that “...choice fuels the engine of self-determination." Students with intellectual disabilities need to learn skills essential for choice-making and be given opportunities to express, and act on, their choices. Schalock and Alonso (2002) explained that students must learn that options are restricted for all people, including them. The following methods were presented as
ways to infuse choice into day-to-day life at school: choosing an activity with which to engage; making choices within an activity; deciding when, where, and with whom, to participate in an activity; and refusing to participate in, or deciding when to end, an activity (Brown, Appel, Corsi, & Wenig, 1993, cited in Schalock & Alonso, 2002).

Harris (2003) suggested that choice making can be encouraged through verbal encouragement or offering intrinsically reinforcing options. Harris (2003) recommended structuring plenty of opportunities to make choices and providing people with intellectual disabilities with a range of experiences and cautioned against inadvertently restricting choice-making ability. Price et al. (2002) suggested allowing students to choose from a variety of assignments in order to practice making choices, solving problems, making decisions and acting more independently. Rawlings, Dowse, and Shaddock (1995, cited in Harris, 2003) expressed that people with intellectual disabilities must be allowed to refuse to do something without being punished.

Ware (2004) recommended using photographs or videos to support students to contribute ideas to meetings and to help to teach students to express preferences, choices, and views. Similarly, Karvonen et al. (2004) described using photos from digital cameras to support students in remembering, and expressing preferences for, various vocational experiences. Digital cameras allow pictures to be printed very soon after they are taken and can therefore help to reinforce connections with the events they represent.

Cameron and Murphy (2002) described their use of ‘Talking Mats’ to facilitate communication about likes, dislikes, and opinions for young adults with leaning and communication difficulties. Cameron and Murphy (2002) used the pictorial framework to allow people with intellectual disabilities to express their opinions about living arrangements, work, education, indoor and outdoor leisure pursuits, people and transportation. When pictures had been sorted into the emotional categories of happy, maybe and sad (like/want, not sure about, don’t like/want) to the users satisfaction the mats were photographed as a record of their views. Talking mats are easy to use and can be created in non-pressure situations for future use in individual education, transition or planning meetings, or in day-to-day discussions with family, friends, or other support providers (Cameron & Murphy, 2002). Students who are able to make, and communicate, choices are more likely to become self-determined and be able to benefit from a support-based system.
Develop and use community-based physical supports

A variety of creative, physical object supports have been presented in the literature. They are not offered as generic solutions but as examples of the power of creativity when addressing people’s support needs. Experience with a variety of easily implemented and portable supports will help students to discover what sorts of support objects work for them and allow them to practice the skills required for using physical supports.

Daly and Ranalli (2003) described ‘countoons’ to teach students to monitor their own behaviours by marking, in some way, when they have performed certain behaviours. Daly and Ranalli (2003) explained that ‘countoons’ should be individually developed to support students as needed, have the benefit of being highly visual by using faces, numbers, symbols, drawings or photographs, can be used to count behaviours or academic skills, can be very simple or more complex, and can be used in any location. Daly and Ranalli (2003) argued that ‘countoons’ help students to develop and practice self-determination skills by allowing them to monitor, evaluate, and reinforce their own behaviours.

Peck (2004) discussed ‘Spend the day with me books’: personalized books to facilitate transitions using photographs depicting critical skills and explanations based on students’ expressions. Germain (2004) suggested providing people with single-use cameras to record activities in which they participated at home and in the community. A ‘talking mat’ could then be used to enable the person to visually categorize activities into things they like to do, are unsure about, and do not like to do (Germain, 2004).

Post, Storey, and Karabin (2002) suggested using headphones with auditory prompts to support autonomy and self-management by helping people to stay focussed, remind themselves about tasks and the expected level of quality, and provide self-encouragement. More technologically advanced approaches to the same end could include using MP3 players or Personal Data Assistants (PDAs). In an effort to inconspicuously support more independent completion of home and school routines, Ferguson, Smith Myles, and Hagiwara (2005) suggested using PDAs with audible and visual alarms to cue the initiation of tasks. Denham and Lahm (2001) also recommended the use of technological supports, this time in the form of computers, which can act as supports in themselves or assist in the creation of other supports. Denham and Lahm (2001) described the creation of ‘Intellikeys templates’ to assist
students in creating their own assessment portfolios and pointed out the tendency for peers to increase their understanding of students’ abilities. Increased social status, as highlighted by Denham and Lahm (2001) and Post et al. (2002), is one of the most compelling arguments for the use of community-based supports.

Help to establish natural people supports

A support-based approach to service provision will necessitate an important change in the way teachers provide services to students with intellectual disabilities. Thompson et al. (2004, p. 5) defined natural supports as “people who can provide assistance on a daily basis that is not particularly intrusive or time consuming, and who provide similar support to others in the environment.” Paid staff must work to identify natural supports and help to establish networks of support (Parmenter, 1994; Thompson et al., 2004). Shaddock et al. (1993, p. 48) similarly expressed the necessity of “natural relationships...not just paid relationships.” There are many benefits to established networks of natural people support including: communities become more able to include people with disabilities, more people are invested in the success of each individual, and people with intellectual disabilities are better able to establish social relationships (Thompson et al., 2004).

Establish service-learning opportunities

The self-determination literature yielded more than one mention of service-learning, which proved itself worthy of special attention (Brown, Zager, Brown & Price, 1998; Kleinert et al., 2004; Love & Malian, 1997). Service-learning provides an excellent training ground in skills that will help students to benefit from support-based planning. Brown et al. (1998) pointed out that service-learning could help to increase intellectual, personal, and social skills. The benefits mentioned by Brown et al. (1998) included overcoming discomfort with social and community settings, increased self-knowledge and awareness of other people, exposure to skills for the work place, improved communication and interpersonal skills, and increased knowledge and incentive to reach personal goals.

Kleinert et al. (2004) championed service-learning opportunities as a means for students with intellectual disabilities to improve their social, communication, and problem-solving skills while giving back to their communities. Love and Malian (1997) explained that the value of service-learning lies in encouraging students with
disabilities to learn about their communities and the value of supporting others. Brown et al. (1998) asserted that service learning could help to bolster self-esteem, and sense of dignity, by affording students the opportunity to contribute to their communities. Group service-learning activities are also an excellent example of natural peer supports and give students without disabilities practice in supporting their peers with disabilities while providing them with first hand experiences at seeing what they can all do when given the opportunity.

Apply person-centred planning principles

The theme of person-centred planning emerged strongly in the self-determination literature and deserves individual consideration. Adopting a person-centred planning approach will help individual teachers or schools to steer toward a support-based system. Person-centred planning refers to a number of approaches including “whole life planning, personal futures planning, essential lifestyle planning, and outcomes based planning” (Schalock & Alonso, 2002, p. 320). Butterworth et al. (1997, cited in Luckasson et al., 2002, p. 150) listed the following principles of person-centred planning: the individual is a valued part of the process; family, friends and personal relationships are the primary supports; preferences, talents, and dreams are more important than needs; goals are made to create desired lives and should not be hindered by existing resources; and supports should be “as local, informal, and generic as possible”. Callicott (2003) pointed out that person-centred planning uses methods designed to involve students with intellectual disabilities and their families in meaningful ways and should revolve around naturally existing supports, not specialized services for people with disabilities. Callicott (2003, p. 61) also expressed the importance of originality and creativity and “looking beyond what is available to what might be possible.”

Involve students in individual education planning

Individual education plans (IEPs) provide excellent opportunities for addressing skills, attitudes and environments conducive to success in support-based systems. The work of many authors in the area of IEPs addressed support needs and much practical advice was offered. The examples presented are not intended to be an exhaustive list, but to provide a range of ideas. Three main themes emerged: student involvement, goals and objectives, and creation of environments contributing to self-determination.
The primary focus of the IEP literature as related to support-based planning was on increasing student involvement in the creation and maintenance of their own plans (Hapner & Imel, 2002; Karvonen et al, 2004; Martin, Marshal, & Sale, 2004; Mason, McGahee-Kovac, & Johnson, 2004; McGahee, Mason, Wallace, & Jones, 2001; Meyers & Eisenman, 2005; Rose, Fletcher, & Goodwin, 1999; Schreiner, 2005; Snyder, 2002; Test et al., 2004; Wood, Karvonen, Test, Browder, & Algozzine, 2004). For example, Mason et al. (2004) pointed out that involvement in IEP planning provides practical reasons for skill mastery and responsibility and teaches students the importance of planning as well as the value of their ideas. Added to this, Snyder (2002, p. 340) expressed that participation in the IEP process “is a logical way to learn skills related to self-advocacy.” Martin et al. (2004) suggested that before an IEP meeting takes place, students should understand the process, including terminology and roles, know a bit about their disabilities, and have had an opportunity to practice skills required for participation. In addition, Hapner and Imel (2002) and Karvonen et al. (2004) suggested incorporating working with IEPs into various subject areas. Including IEPs in day-to-day classroom learning will serve to demystify the process and encourage the relationship between education and IEPs, which all too often appear to be unrelated.

In an effort to determine a starting point for the process, Wood et al. (2004) recommended finding out how well students are able to identify strengths, weaknesses, and favoured objects, people, places, and activities. Rose et al. (1999) offered valuable skill sets in the areas of negotiation, skill prediction, self-knowledge and recognition of potential. While their article hints at a readiness model which is generally advised against (Racino, Walker, O’Connor, & Taylor, 1993 cited in Parmenter, 1994; Shumway, 1999; Wehmeyer, Bersani Jr, & Gagne, 2000) Rose et al. (1999) detailed a list that has great potential for helping teachers to begin to assess and address student needs. An example from each list is offered to provide examples of the range of ideas and level of detail: ability to respond with ‘yes’ and ‘no’, understanding of different time scales, and ability to realize that something they cannot do at present may be achievable later (Rose et al., 1999).

Mason et al. (2004) recommended that IEP training and preparation take place over several weeks during a minimum of four individual or small group sessions. Myers and Eisenman (2005) suggested beginning by finding out what students think about their interests, strengths and needs, and helping them to develop some goals and prepare to present information at their IEP meetings. Karvonen et al. (2004) suggested that
students and teachers meet to discuss goals prior to the formal IEP meetings. Myers and Eisenman (2005) recommended going through each part of their IEPs with students to ensure that they understand what they say and why. Karvonen et al. (2004) further recommended that involvement in meetings take place in incremental steps, with introductions occurring as a first step, followed by the presentation of pre-prepared statements regarding their goals, strengths and needs. While inviting students to attend or chair a meeting may be an important first step for some, Wehmeyer, Bersani Jr., and Gagne (2000) cautioned against confusing token roles with actual self-determination. It is essential that students be provided with the required skills and support to be able to contribute legitimately.

Myers and Eisenman (2005) offered a number of other practical suggestions including using a computer to generate invitations, using photos or computer presentation programs to help students to share their goals at meetings, and helping students to create goals out of activities they would like to be able to do but cannot do at the moment. Mason et al. (2004, p. 20) suggested reading through their current IEPs with students and "highlighting sections of the IEP in which the student disagrees or has questions and placing check marks next to goals that the student feels have been met." Some common approaches to student involvement with IEPs include; structuring IEPs so that students can lead the parts with which they are most comfortable, working on role playing and script-writing, encouraging students to discuss their interests, preferences, and goals with their families, collaborating with all stakeholders, and expanding students' support networks (Myers & Eisenman, 2005).

McGahee et al. (2001) suggested the initial use of predetermined questions to enable students to participate successfully in their meetings. McGahee et al. (2001) further recommended that students help to create draft IEPs prior to their meetings, be given opportunities to present some information and, when ready to do so, play a leading role. Schreiner (2005) developed a method to help to meet student needs: GO FOR IT (Goal set, Organize my plan, Follow my plan, Observe my progress, Record my progress, Inspect my progress and Try again). Students sought input from those around them, used checklists and tally systems, and were responsible for keeping their plans safe (Schreiner, 2005).

Preplanning and skill development are essential to the successful inclusion of students in their own IEPs. The ways in which IEP meetings are facilitated also significantly contribute to the successful inclusion of students in the IEP process. Test et al. (2004)
advised that students could be encouraged to become more involved in their own planning meetings through experience with published IEP curricula and person-centred planning techniques. While they do not negate the value of more informal approaches they caution that more research is required before the impact can be fully understood. Test et al. (2004, p. 406) recommended “directing questions to the student, avoiding jargon, and using language and vocabulary that were understandable to the student.” Wood et al. (2004) recommended using “I” statements in IEPs when students have indicated their preferences. This practice will encourage students, and those supporting them, to correctly view the students as being at the centre of the plan. McGahee et al. (2001) similarly suggested asking questions of students first and recommended using person-centred planning techniques, including mapping, to create visual representations of supportive people and community settings of importance to the students.

Many of the skills inherent in IEP development can be learned through direct involvement in the process. These include increased ability to: describe strengths, needs, preferences, and interests; evaluate progress; determine, accept responsibility for, and formally present goals; and participate in discussions (Test et al., 2004). Test et al. (2004, p. 393) emphasized; “If students practiced these behaviors over a period of years, they would be more likely to master the skills needed to represent themselves in meetings, serve as self-advocates, and assume responsibility for their individual lives.” Snyder (2002) similarly pointed out that involvement in the management of their meetings can help students to become more aware of their strengths and needs, develop skills in self-monitoring and become more able to regulate their own academic and behavioural goals. Myers and Eisenman (2005), expressing the views of a teacher, stated that involvement in student-led IEPs contributes to the development of social, communication, and goal-setting skills and strategies for seeking out required support.

The second recommendation to emerge from IEP work is the inclusion of goals and objectives specific to self-determination and transition (Johnson, Stodden, Emanuel, Luecking, & Mack, 2002; Wood et al., 2004). IEPs have the power to positively influence life after secondary school. Malian and Nevin (2002) explained that the inclusion of goals, objectives, and processes related to self-determination in the IEPs and transition plans of students with intellectual disabilities would help to ensure the success of their transitions to adulthood. The following measurable self-determination skills can be used to formulate IEP goals and objectives: making choices and decisions; solving problems; risk taking, safety skills and other skills for independent
living; setting and attaining goals; self-observation, evaluation, and reinforcement; self-instruction, self-understanding, self-advocacy, and leadership; self-efficacy, outcome expectancy; and developing self-awareness and an internal locus of control (Wehmeyer, Agran, & Hughes, 1998, cited in Wood et al., 2004). Wood et al. (2004) further suggested that teachers will need to have a clear understanding of requisite skills for self-determination, the needs of individual students and a knowledge of where to look for instructional materials.

The third main support theme arising from IEP literature is the importance of providing an environment conducive to the development of self-determined behaviour. Brown et al. (1994, p. 47) observed: “the best that can be done is to provide an empowering environment in which individuals can assert themselves and have opportunities to develop self-image.” Similarly:

The environment remains a critical factor in how well a student achieves self-determination, in that the people in the student's lives must
- Encourage generalization of self-determination skills and behaviour.
- Honor the choices and decisions the student makes.
- Support the goals that the student sets. (Wood et al., 2004, p. 10)

**Involve students in transition planning**

Transition planning focuses on long-term needs, and the complex challenges that will be faced in adulthood (Patton et al., 1997). Johnson et al. (2002) pointed out that transition planning must begin by the time students are 14 years old. Transition planning represents a specialized subset of IEP creation and, not surprisingly, the themes of student involvement, goals and objectives, and supportive environments re-emerged. Additionally, the theme of community involvement came to the forefront. Storms, O’Leary, and Williams (2000, cited in Thoma, Held, & Saddler, 2002) suggested that teachers encourage students to plan for life after high school, create environments conducive to the acquisition of requisite skills and competencies, and establish links with adult supports. Cimera and Rusch (2000) pointed out that including students in the planning and execution of their lives will increase their motivation, self-worth, and confidence and will assist other people to understand the students’ strengths, weaknesses, and desires. Involvement in transition planning is a valuable and essential step toward active participation in support-based planning in adulthood.

Johnson et al. (2002, p. 524) recommended the following from the National Centre for the Study of Postsecondary Educational Supports: provide “opportunities for students
to understand themselves and their disability in relation to needed services and supports, with a focus on advocating for those needs in different postschool educational and employment settings." Similarly, Whitney-Thomas and Moloney (2001) expressed that students must be given the chance to develop their skills and independence in order to more successfully manage support systems.

The greatest successes will be reached when transition planning and self-determination are integrated into daily life at school. Held, Thoma, and Thomas (2004, p. 181) suggested using self-determination as a “framework for curriculum and instruction” and infusing it into every day throughout the school year. Kohler and Field (2003) recommended that once successful supports have been identified, knowledge and skills should be developed while providing students with guidance and opportunities to apply their new skills.

Modell and Valdez (2002) suggested that, based on the interests expressed by students, teachers locate services and determine requisite skills for students to learn and practice. In an effort to increase self-definition, Whitney-Thomas and Moloney (2001, p. 386) recommended using peer mentors, introspection, and future-oriented thinking, and focusing on “strengths, needs, interests, and goals”. Whitney-Thomas and Moloney (2001) further suggested teaching self-determination skills, giving students opportunities to act independently, and helping students to form significant relationships. Johnson et al. (2002) recommended classes focussing on decision-making skills, promotion of self-determination and goal setting, and communication with parents to help them to support their children to participate in meetings. In a similar vein, Thoma, Held, and Saddler (2002) suggested helping students to role play and develop goals and portfolios prior to their transition meetings.

Held et al. (2004) offered a descriptive case study providing an example of technological support. Students were taught to run PowerPoint presentations in order to direct their own IEP meetings. Students were able to choose pictures, graphics, music, and sound effects, record some instructions or questions for the transition team, and, if necessary, choose someone to speak for them. Held et al. (2004) contended that affording students the ability to direct their transition meetings in this way altered how they were viewed at the time and how they would be treated in the future.

Even more importantly than with IEPs, transition plans should involve goals that target self-determination and the future success of support-based measures. Patton et al.
(1997, p. 296) explained: “Transition goals reflect two general types of needs: instructional needs (knowledge and skills acquisition/ refinement) and linkage needs (connection with appropriate supports and requisite services).” Steere and Cavaiuolo (2002) recommended including goals that address choice-making, decision-making, and the articulation of choices and desires. On route to goal creation, Steere and Cavaiuolo (2002, p. 58) suggested helping students to “develop a profile of ...current interests, strengths, support needs, and close relationships.” They further suggested providing students with enough experience and information to make informed choices and encouraging the investigation of personal support connections.

The development of an effective plan that will allow students to transition successfully from high school to support-based adult service provision is dependent to a large degree on the attitude and support from the school community. Patton et al. (1997) pointed out that schools, families, and the students themselves are all involved in the creation of environments and communities conducive to the acquisition of knowledge and skills for accessing supports and functioning successfully in adulthood. Brown et al. (1998, p. 227) recommended “functional academics, community-based instruction, and the facilitation of community and adult service linkages” as a means of creating future-oriented environments. Similarly, Smyth and McConkey (2003) suggested using person-centred planning and ensuring that there is cooperation between support-providing agencies. Whitney-Thomas and Moloney (2001) recommended creating environments of supported independence through the gradual increase of independent decision making while leaving backup plans in place. Ward, Mallett, Heslop, and Simons (2003, p. 136) suggested easing transition by gradually changing work styles to encourage students to “feel more grown up” and providing ample opportunities for making choices. Kohler and Field (2003) recommended transition-focused education tailored to individual needs and local contexts.

Community involvement during high school rose as a main theme in transition literature because it can help students to make choices and develop goals, and increase their chances of remaining involved in community life as adults. Modell and Valdez (2002) expressed that in order for adults to choose to participate in their communities they must have developed requisite skills, and been offered a variety of experiences, while still in school. Similarly, Thompson et al. (2002, p. 394) observed: “A person’s lack of experience in expressing choices or lack of opportunity to participate in a variety of community-based and other activities may limit his or her ability to state personal goals or make informed choices.” Wehman (2001, cited in Steere & Cavaiuolo, 2002)
expressed that students need to have experience in order to decide what they want to do and recommends participation in community work experience placements. Similarly, Kohler and Field (2003, p. 177) suggested emphasizing “life, employment, and occupational skill development through school-based and work-based learning experiences.” In order to benefit from support-based service provision as adults, students must have had ample opportunity for community participation during their school years.

*Learn from the future environment of supported employment*

The literature on supported employment is an important source of information regarding skills and attitudes valuable for support-based service provision. People working in the field are adept at identifying support needs. Unger (1999) provided the following examples of support needs: learning tasks, remembering duties, getting to and from work, picking up pay cheques, socializing, asking for time off, recording work schedules, taking breaks, and following opportunities for advancement. Educators can learn a great deal from the depth and range of considered needs. An important point to remember, as pointed out by Wehman et al. (2000, p. 144), is that supports are only useful when they respond to “the aspirations, abilities, and enthusiasms of the consumer.” Similar in spirit is the idea that “customers of supported employment services must be viewed in terms of their abilities, strengths, and interest, rather than in terms of their disabilities” (Wehman, Gibson, Brooke, & Unger, 1998, p. 131).

Another important idea put forth in the literature is the notion that many supports exist naturally within the employment setting and are available to all employees. Rogan, Banks, and Howard (2000, p. 7) provided the following comment from an employment consultant: “Natural supports are other than paid agency staff (eg., coworker, friends, calendars, clocks, objects used for support).” Unger (1999) listed the following examples: experienced coworkers, typical instruction, videos, and orientation meetings. Wehman et al. (1998) pointed out that verbal prompts are a natural part of teamwork environments.

The creation of supportive environments is again essential to success. Unger (1999) suggested that job coaches act as facilitators so that employers can increase their skills and awareness and, in turn, create environments encouraging the continuation of successful employment. Wehman et al. (1998, p. 141) expressed: “the immediate and long-term infusion of supports by coworkers, first-line supervisors, and other personnel
who are regularly in the work environment is critical to long-term retention”. Unger (1999) pointed out that accommodations made for individuals are frequently helpful for other employees as well. Rogan et al. (2000) expressed that best practice in the field includes using natural supports and finding good matches and supportive climates. The ability to work with the support of co-workers will require a unique set of skills and attitudes. Farris and Stancliffe (2001) described a coworker-training model in which job coaches train and support coworkers to support workers with disabilities. Some supportive strategies have been found to be consistently helpful including: “maintaining a consistent schedule and set of job responsibilities, using organizers to structure the job, reducing idle or unstructured time, being direct when communicating with the employee, and providing reminders and reassurances” (Hagner & Cooney, 2005, p. 91).

Creative physical supports can help to reduce the need for direct supervision or assistance from employers, coaches or coworkers. Supports must be designed to meet the needs of the worker and the demands of the environment. Unger (1999) suggested using a watch alarm to cue the beginning and end of breaks, using checklists with known words or pictures, using containers to help with carrying goods, and highlighting important information for data entry. Wehman et al. (1998) recommended using audiotape prompts and Hagner and Cooney (2005) added using labels, instruction sheets, schedules, and in and out boxes. Looking at supports that have been successful in the past can help in the design of future accommodations. Providing students with intellectual disabilities with opportunities to use the types of supports that have been successful in supported employment will help to prepare students to plan for, and put into practice, their future use in adult environments.

Learn from the future environment of post secondary education

Post secondary education is a second important future environment field that has much to offer educators interested in enhancing success with support-based service provision. Grigal, Neubert, and Moon (2002) pointed out that the two main models, program and individual support, should complement each other and not be seen as mutually exclusive. Lessons can be learned from this as the support-based approach becomes more prominent in all areas of service for adults with intellectual disabilities.

Neubert, Moon, and Grigal (2002) described college campus programs for students with disabilities that incorporate classroom instruction, individual participation in college
classes, work placements on campus or in the larger community, and involvement in recreation and social activities. The programs remain true to a person-centred planning approach with the emphasis on creative solutions to the support required to meet goals and not on the specifics of programming (Neubert et al., 2002). Grigal et al. (2002, p. 69) added that any adult setting could be used to help with the achievement of personal goals for adults with intellectual disabilities including “4-year colleges or universities, community colleges, and various locations in the community (e.g., businesses, apartments, and community rehabilitation programs).” Zafft, Hart, and Zimbrich (2004, p. 46) described College Career Connections “designed to assist students with significant intellectual disabilities...to choose, gain admission to, and successfully complete an inclusive post secondary educational experience at their local community colleges.”

Three themes seen in the supported employment literature re-emerged in post secondary literature. Zafft et al. (2004) advocated for the recurring concepts of person-centred planning, collaboration, and use of naturally existing supports. Weir (2004) explained that students must remain in control supports and that many natural supports already exist on campuses to support all students. The post secondary literature also advocated strongly for a change in teacher roles. Hart et al. (2001, cited in Neubert et al., 2002) recommended a move toward case managing or coordinating services. Similarly, Neubert, Moon, and Grigal (2004) suggested that teachers would need to help students with intellectual disabilities to gain the support of family members, friends and other students in order for them to enjoy the many available post secondary social options.

Consider families and cultural background

Throughout the process of preparing students for support-based adult service provision it is essential to remain cognisant of different cultural outlooks. Frankland et al. (2004) recommended remaining sensitive to cultural values, expectations, and beliefs. Browder et al. (2001) cautioned educators against assuming that their personal goals are those of their students and that their cultural views are the same. Similarly, Zhang, Wehmeyer, and Chen (2005, p. 63) expressed that concerns of parents “must be legitimately addressed within the context of the families’ values, cultural and ethnic priorities, and long-term goals.” Butterworth, Hagner, Kieman, and Schalock (1996, cited in Luckasson et al., 2002) offered guidance by suggesting that natural supports are by definition culturally appropriate. Galambos (1995, p. 13) similarly suggested that
the use of a quality of life based model of support provision “demands the ability to empathize with another person without substituting one’s own values, beliefs and interpretations for those of another.”

The importance of working with families surfaced frequently throughout the self-determination, choice-making, IEP and transition planning, and supported employment literature. Browder et al. (2001) expressed the importance of carefully listening to, and honouring the views of, students and their families and cautioned educators against putting students into adverse relationships with their parents. Carpenter (2000) acknowledged that families would require access to life long support in raising their children with special needs. Florian, Dee, Byers, and Maudslay (2000, p. 125) warned of “extensive and ongoing support needs” that may make it difficult to afford older students with intellectual disabilities suitably adult roles within the family. Parmenter (1994) looked to the past practice of institutionalism and questioned what supports parents themselves would need in order to successfully raise children with intellectual disabilities within their family homes. Beverage (2004) highlighted the importance of developing home-school relationships that enhance student participation. Neubert et al. (2004, p. 24) pointed out that strong family partnerships are essential “to ensure that students continue to access those activities and experiences that are not traditionally supported by the adult service system.”

Families are able to provide essential support to their adolescents in determining their own lives but may need to be supported in their efforts. Zhang et al. (2005, p. 62) commented: “...families can help their son or daughter set goals and take steps to achieve them, and it would seem useful to support parents and family members in their efforts to do so.” Beverage (2004) pointed out that parents frequently seek guidance in the related areas of independence, negotiating, consistency, choice, self-advocacy, and autonomy. Browder et al. (2001) explained that parents sometimes need support with transferring control of decision-making to their adolescents.

A number of specific practices to help educators to help families to support their children are offered in the literature (Dunst, 2002; Field & Hoffman, 1999, 2002; Johnson et al., 2002; Wehmeyer, Morningstar, & Husted, 1999, cited in Zhang et al., 2005). For example, Dunst (2002) recommended actively providing families with opportunities to participate in the support and education of their children and Johnson et al. (2002, p. 529) suggested that providing families with “concise and user-friendly information on school and community services” should help to encourage increased
involvement. Wehmeyer et al. (1999, cited in Zhang et al., 2005) recommended that educators explain to families that problem solving and decision-making are primarily learned within the context of families. Similarly, Field and Hoffman (1999) indicated that home environments provide opportunities for students with intellectual disabilities to explore choice-making, risk taking and being in control. Field and Hoffman (2002) suggested finding creative ways to encourage involvement including newsletters and student/family worksheets. The Steps to Self-Determination curriculum (Field & Hoffman, 1996, cited in Field & Hoffman, 1999) honoured the essential nature of family involvement by requiring involvement in workshop sessions and homework assignments.

Avoid basing right to control on skill acquisition

It is important, while teaching the skills necessary for success in a support-based system, to avoid the trap of allowing control only after a set of prerequisite skills has been acquired. McConkey and Smith (2002, cited in Smart, 2004, p. 135) cautioned that the view of people with intellectual disabilities were seen as “at worse irrelevant and at best inadequate” due to difficulties with communication, conceptualization, and abstract thought. Wehmeyer, Bersani Jr., and Gagne (2000, p. 331) explained: “it is through the interaction of capacity building, opportunities to exercise choice and control, and providing supports that the goal of enabling people to achieve self-determination is accomplished.” Shumway (1999) and Racino et al. (1993, cited in Parmenter, 1994) similarly rejected using a readiness model to determine right to control. Wehmeyer (1998, cited in Browder et al., 2001) explained: “Assuming that self-determination only applies to individuals who will achieve independent living as adults is a misrepresentation of the concept.” Wehmeyer (1998, cited in Wehmeyer, Agran, & Hughes, 2000) further explained that an undue emphasis on independent, and unsupported, performance might cause this misrepresentation. Wehmeyer, Agran, and Hughes (2000) suggested that all people with intellectual disabilities could become more involved in solving problems and making important decisions. It is important to keep this ideal at the forefront of all planning to help students with intellectual disabilities to take control over their lives. In a similar vein, Racino et al. (1993, cited in Parmenter, 1994), Luckasson et al. (2002) and Wehmeyer, Bersani Jr., and Gagne (2000) cautioned against confusing intensity of support needs with location of service. People should not have to live, work or play in more restricted settings in order to receive more support.
Chapter 3

Summary of recommendations

The areas of study in which information about supports and support-based planning can be found offer the first recommendations for preparing students for support-based planning. Educators should encourage self-determination, promote choice-making, develop and use community-based and natural supports, provide service-learning opportunities, involve students in developing and maintaining their own IEPs and transition plans, and learn from the future environments of supported employment and post secondary education. Two other ideals deserving of special consideration emerged from the literature. It is essential that educators consider the needs of families in a culturally sensitive manner and ensure that students are afforded the right to assume control over their lives without having to first demonstrate the acquisition of particular skills.

An analysis of these bodies of literature and ideas leads to the drawing out of key skills and attitudes that students will need in order to be able to contribute to, and the experiences and environments that will enhance their ability to benefit from, support-based systems of planning.

Skills and attitudes

The literature offered a wealth of ideas for enhancing skills and attitudes essential for successful involvement with support-based planning (See Appendix A for a summary). In particular, the area of self-determination offered many fundamental skills. In order to fully contribute to support-based planning, students must view themselves positively and realistically (Wehmeyer et al., 1998). They must be able to make choices and decisions, solve problems, and set and work toward goals (Schalock & Alonso, 2002; Wehmeyer et al., 1998). Students must understand and believe that they can control what happens in their lives, and observe, evaluate, and reinforce their own behaviours (Frankland et al., 2004). Any work toward the attainment of these essential skills will bring students with intellectual disabilities closer to determining their own lives.

Familiarity with a wide variety of natural supports, and the corresponding skills to be able to recognize and use them, will assist students to help themselves (Schalock & Alonso, 2002; Whitney-Thomas & Maloney, 2001). Support use can be easily infused
into daily life at school and can include a vast array of skills including practical sight word recognition, knowing how to turn off a watch alarm, using a pictorial schedule, using a prop to help with a job, and asking for help (Unger, 1999).

The development of certain attitudes will also help students to have a say in the planning of their lives, and benefit from people, environmental and object supports. Students who are able to take risks, and who are open to trying new methods or supports, will be better serviced by support-based planning than those students who are reluctant to try (Field & Hoffman, 1999). Similarly, students who are willing to accept support from friends, other students or workers, and family members (Neubert et al., 2004), and who see themselves as able to contribute to their communities (Brown et al., 1998; Kleinert et al., 2004; Love & Malian, 1997), will be more successful with the paradigm.

Experiences

The literature also offered teachers guidance in the types of experiences that encourage the development of essential skills and attitudes and prepare students for support-based systems of service-provision (See Appendix B for a summary). Exposure to these environments or experiences will enhance the success of more direct teaching of skills. Supportive, inclusive environments, and opportunities to participate in a wide variety of activities, including work experience (Kohler & Field, 2003) and service learning (Brown et al., 1998; Kleinert et al., 2004; Love & Malian, 1997), will help students to be prepared to live active lives in their communities as adults. For example, consistent, well organized, and predictable learning environments will help students to succeed with less direct help from paid adults (Hagner & Cooney, 2005; Wehman et al., 1998). The experience of repetitive success will encourage students and help to prepare them emotionally for support-based planning. Practice with control over their learning and lives will also increase their preparedness to control their lives in the future (Frankland et al., 2004). Students also need the opportunity to discover their likes, talents and interests (Steere & Cavaiuolo, 2002). Until students with intellectual disabilities know themselves they will not be able to start to find the lives that they want. The experiences offered by person-centred approaches to IEP and transition planning can go a long way toward helping students to make and voice these discoveries. In a similar way, a learning environment built with future needs, hopes, and dreams in mind will help students to grow into adults who are prepared for the challenges of life (Butterworth et al., 1997, cited in Luckasson et al., 2002).
Environment

There are a number of global ideals that emerged from the literature that will help schools to prepare students to be ready and willing to contribute to support-based plans (See Appendix C for a summary). One is the nature of the endeavour as a holistic, whole-school approach (Field & Hoffman, 2002; Wood et al, 2004). The other ideals revolve around the readiness of educators to embrace change, seek self-growth, and look for the underlying wisdom inherent in the areas of literature that touch upon the concept of support based planning (Browder et al, 2001; Held et al., 2004; Wehmeyer, 1998, cited in Thoma, Baker, & Saddler, 2002; Wehmeyer, Agran, & Hughes, 2000).

One of the strengths of self-determination education is that it can happen anywhere. Field and Hoffman (2002, p. 95) listed the following successful locations for using the steps to self-determination curriculum: “special education self-contained and resource room classes, general education language arts, career English, creative writing, social studies, math, ninth-grade orientation, study skills, ninth-grade academies, advisory rooms, and alternative education”. Price et al. (2002) similarly listed community based instruction, service learning, recreation and leisure, and inclusive and integrated classrooms as potential learning environments. The more environments and people that are involved in supporting students to become more self-determined and take part in planning their own lives, the more successful everyone will be. Field and Hoffman (2002) pointed out that all staff members are important in the promotion of self-determination and Wood et al. (2004) added that staff and parent education would be required when teachers decide to embark on the journey toward student self-determination.

Successful creation of an environment conducive to preparing students for support-based adult service provision will require a change in the role teachers play in the lives of their students. Karvonen et al. (2004) envisioned teachers as instructors, case managers, counsellors, and mentors. Lehmann, Bassett, and Sands (1999, p. 167) went further: “As adults we must abdicate our roles as purveyors of knowledge and ‘case managers’ to become collaborators with students when planning for the future.”

Preparing students to take an active role in planning their own lives and supports may also require an essential change of mindset by educators. If teachers adopt a philosophy in keeping with a support-based approach they will be a long way toward
reaching the ideal of self-determined students. If teachers believe that adults with intellectual disabilities should determine the paths their lives take, they are more likely to develop curricula which involves teaching their students the requisite skills, nurture the appropriate attitudes, and give them the necessary years to practice those skills in safe and supportive environments.

Students need to be prepared to plan their own lives and have a group of people around them who are prepared to listen and support them. Cimera and Rusch (2000) pointed out that including students in the planning and execution of their lives will increase their motivation, self-worth and confidence and that it will assist other people to understand the students’ strengths, weaknesses and desires. Brown et al. (1994) similarly explained that peoples’ self-perceptions, and the perceptions of others, are linked to the opportunities that they will be afforded. Increasing the ability of students to contribute to support-based planning will have the duel benefit of helping to prepare those around them as well. The following thought illustrates the ideal that is sought:

Now, they support their youth in the “dignity of risk” that adult life brings but build in assurances for safety through the depth of social networks and individually targeted planning. They can also advocate for the resources needed to support their youth’s choices. (Stodden & Whelley, 2004, p. 11)

Preparing to Embrace the Challenge

Once the willingness to change has been embraced, educators must embark on their own educational journeys. Wehmeyer (1998, cited in Thoma, Baker, & Saddler, 2002) suggested that being self-determined themselves would help teachers to promote the requisite skills in their students. Wehmeyer, Agran, and Hughes (2000) advocated for preservice and inservice education and observed that most teachers learn about self-determination by reading journals, and attending conferences. By setting out to learn about self-determination and support-based planning, educators will be making a first important step toward supporting student success. Browder et al. (2001) expressed the importance of considering both conceptual and practical ideas. Held et al. (2004) similarly recommended that educators base their instructions and supports on recommendations from research literature. This paper is one step toward helping educators to understand the far reaching implications of support-based adult service provision and to be able to begin to implement some of the necessary changes in their classrooms and schools.
A number of ideals from the literature stand out as especially noteworthy. Educators must look first at what students can do, and base all of their supports and efforts on their students’ interests, desires and dreams (Butterworth et al., 1997, cited in Luckasson et al., 2002). They must remember that students do not have to be independent in order to have some control over their lives (Browder et al., 2001; Parmenter et al., 1994; Shaddock et al., 1993; Smart, 2004; Wehmeyer et al., 1998). All efforts should be made within an environment mindful of cultural and familial values, expectations, and beliefs (Browder et al., 2001; Frankland et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2005). Families may also need support in order to successfully raise their children to be self-determined adults who are able to choose their own lives (Beverage, 2004; Browder et al., 2001; Carpenter, 2000).

Work will be required outside of the classroom, with families, co-workers, administrators, and community and post-secondary resources to ensure that efforts are coordinated and that students and adults with intellectual disabilities will have receptive audiences when ready to voice their goals and support needs. Creativity and collaboration lie at the heart of support-based service provision. Thoma, Nathanson, Baker, and Tamura (2002) pointed out the importance of collaboration and innovation in helping to support students with intellectual disabilities to be able to live lives based on their personal preferences. With these ideas at the core of planning, educators will be ready to begin to prepare their students for the challenges that lie ahead.

Conclusions

The latest challenge that faces educators of students with intellectual disabilities is preparing them for support-based adult service provision. The lives that students must learn to choose for themselves are unique, varied, and creative. The support networks that will help them to achieve their goals must be similarly based in variety and creativity. There are no easy answers, set curricula, or programs to make this happen. Valentine (1994, p. 2) when discussing the independent living movement, stated: “these ideas and solutions are not exclusively found in textbooks, but rather stem from the life experiences of individuals. Solutions have no prescribed pattern or textbook approach and, as a result, there is no one typical answer.” Each student must be taught and supported based on individual goals, interests, personality, and needs. Despite the vastness of the possibilities, success is possible if the strategies and approaches presented in the literature review, and summarized in Appendices A, B, and C, are kept at the heart of planning and interactions.
Several authors offer some words of wisdom and encouragement that are well worth considering as educators embark on the journey toward adult lives of quality with their students. McGahee et al. (2001, p. 4), referring to student involvement in the IEP process, but equally relevant for support based planning in general, stated: “First realize there is much you can accomplish even if you only do a little each day.” Held et al. (2004, p. 184) asserted that “small successes [build] upon each other”. And finally:

There is much we do not know about how to make that a reality, but we do know that it is the right direction in which to head and, as a field, we must remain diligent and stay the course. (Wehmeyer, Bersani Jr., & Gagne, 2000, pp. 331-332)
Chapter 4

Summary

Summary of aims

Service provision for adults with intellectual disabilities is going through a radical change from pre-planned, group services generically designed by social service systems, to individualized support designed to maintain people in natural community settings. Success of this new system depends on the creation of a new generation of adults with intellectual disabilities who are comfortable with support use and planning. In order to be prepared to benefit from support-based service provision, students need time and opportunity to gain knowledge, learn requisite skills, and develop essential attitudes while they are still in school. Teachers also need time and opportunity to build the knowledge, skills, and attitudes required to create the types of learning environments that will support their students in becoming adults who are prepared to plan and live their own lives. The following three questions guided the exploration of intellectual disability literature touching upon supports and support-based planning:

1. What skills and attitudes will students need to be able to contribute to a support-based system of planning?
2. What experiences will enhance students’ abilities to benefit from a support-based system of planning?
3. How can schools help to prepare students to be ready and willing to contribute to support-based plans?

Summary of findings

The literature review revolved around self-determination and choice-making; physical and people supports; person-centred, IEP, and transition planning; and service-learning, supported employment, and post secondary education. The ideals of working within familial and cultural backgrounds, and avoiding basing right to control on the acquisition of specific skills, are highlighted as important grounding principles. The literature yielded a wealth of innovative and easily implemented strategies that can be put into place in any educational setting. These strategies are presented and discussed in Chapters 2 and 3 and summarized in Appendices A and B.
Students who go to school in an atmosphere that strives to support their abilities to make choices and act in self-determined ways will be a long way toward being able to benefit from support-based planning. Appendix C offers a summary of school wide recommendations. When educators focus on preparing their students for support-based planning they will discover activities, methods, and environments that work for their unique circumstances.

Further Investigation

Many of the ideas presented here are based on informal case studies and, as such, cannot be generalized. Further investigation could focus on researching some of the informal methods and comparing measured success of formal and informal methods of addressing specific skills.

It is interesting to note that none of the reviewed articles set out to answer the proposed questions or directly address the topic of support-based adult service provision. Investigation of support-based planning required looking at fields that successfully use supports or that focus on requisite skill sets. As the use of support-based planning becomes more widespread, a greater number of authors will start to use it as a focal point. It will be worth reviewing the literature again in five years to see what the growing field has to offer.
References


Snyder, E. P. (2002). Teaching students with combined behavioral disorders and mental retardation to lead their own IEP meetings. *Behavioral Disorders, 27* (4), 340-357.


Summary of skills and attitudes that students will need to be able to contribute to a support-based system of planning

Note: To facilitate the locating of references within the paper, authors are listed in each subsection in the order in which they occur in the main text

### Self-determination and choice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Strategies and approaches</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frankland et al. (2004)</td>
<td>• Opportunities to believe in abilities to positively affect own lives and act on personal preferences; goal setting, decision making, problem solving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thoma, Baker, &amp; Saddler (2002)</td>
<td>• Choice- and decision-making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steere &amp; Cavaiuolo (2002)</td>
<td>• Knowledge of personal preferences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agran et al. (2005)</td>
<td>• Self-monitoring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wehmeyer, Agran, &amp; Hughes (2000)</td>
<td>• Self-monitoring, self-recording, goal setting, self-instruction, self-evaluation, self-judgement, self-reinforcement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McConkey (1998)</td>
<td>• Looking at alternatives, errors, and solutions; anticipating outcomes; choice-making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ganz &amp; Sigafoos (2005)</td>
<td>• Self-monitoring through tally marks or token collection</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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### Physical and people supports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Strategies and approaches</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Daly and Ranalli (2003); Germain (2004); Post et al. (2002); Ferguson et al. (2005); Denham &amp; Lahm (2001)</td>
<td>• Teach skills for using specific physical supports</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Person centred, IEP, and transition planning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Strategies and approaches</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mason et al. (2004)</td>
<td>• Understanding importance of planning and value of own ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snyder (2002)</td>
<td>• Self-advocacy; self-awareness; self-monitoring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martin et al. (2004)</td>
<td>• Understanding of IEP process, terminology, and disability</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Strategies and approaches</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rose et al. (1999)</td>
<td>• Negotiation, self-knowledge and recognition of potential; skill prediction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test et al. (2004)</td>
<td>• Describing strengths, needs, preferences, and interests; evaluating progress; determining, accepting responsibility for, and presenting goals; participating in discussions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myers &amp; Eisenman (2005)</td>
<td>• Social, communication and goal-setting skills; seeking out support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malian &amp; Nevin (2002); Wehmeyer et al. (1998, cited in Wood et al., 2004)</td>
<td>• Include self-determination skills in goals and objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whitney-Thomas &amp; Maloney (2001)</td>
<td>• Skills for navigating adult support systems; self-determination skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kohler &amp; Field (2003)</td>
<td>• Teach skills required for use of specific supports; teach life, employment and occupational skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Johnson et al. (2002)</td>
<td>• Skills for navigating adult support systems; decision-making, goal setting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modell &amp; Valdez (2002)</td>
<td>• Focus skill development on student interests and community-living needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steere &amp; Cavaiuolo (2002)</td>
<td>• Choice- and decision-making; articulation of choices and desires</td>
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- Service learning, supported employment, and post secondary education

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Strategies and approaches</th>
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<tr>
<td>Unger (1999)</td>
<td>Teach skills for using specific physical supports</td>
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Appendix B

Summary of experiences that will enhance students’ abilities to benefit from a support-based system of planning

Note: To facilitate the locating of references within the paper, authors are listed in each subsection in the order in which they occur in the main text

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Strategies and approaches</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Price et al. (2002)</td>
<td>• Self-directed, problem centred, and cooperative learning; community and future-based instruction; setting goals, making choices, and taking risks; work experience; choice of educational methods including manipulatives, work sheets, word problems, peer tutoring, games, quizzes, cooperative learning; problem-solving; acting independently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hoffman &amp; Field (1995, cited in Field et al., 1997)</td>
<td>• Modelling, cooperative and experiential learning; interdisciplinary teaching; integrated or inclusive environments; support from family and friends; humour; teachable moments; teachers and students as co-learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schalock &amp; Alonso (2002)</td>
<td>• Solving problems; making choices and decisions; inquiry, exploration, generalization; self-monitoring (attention, completion and accuracy); observing other people setting and attaining skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field et al. (1997)</td>
<td>• Active role in determining education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malian &amp; Nevin (2002)</td>
<td>• Searching for services; experiencing consequences of choices; opportunities to reflect upon and redesign plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blacher (2004)</td>
<td>• Understanding value of activities; making choices; feelings and perspectives acknowledged; new and varied experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karvonen et al. (2004)</td>
<td>• Making choices; awareness of options; choices honoured; choosing people to help with goal acquisition; digital photographs to support remembering and expressing preferences; teachers as instructors, managers, counsellors, and mentors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wehmeyer (1999, cited in Frankland et al., 2004)</td>
<td>• Opportunities for self-monitoring, self-reinforcement, self-instruction, and observational learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test et al. (2005)</td>
<td>• Self-advocacy through personal interactions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martin et al. (2003)</td>
<td>• Behavioural contracts involving self-evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fullerton &amp; Coyne (1999)</td>
<td>• Life maps, dream boxes, illustrations of temporal and goal concepts, visual sequencing and categorising of ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Browder et al. (2001)</td>
<td>• Small-group instruction and role play; picture checklists; choice about routines, equipment use and class purchases</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Strategies and approaches</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Palmer &amp; Wehmeyer (2003)</td>
<td>• Exploring interests and goals; evaluating progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wehman et al. (2000)</td>
<td>• Identifying, choosing and accessing support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thompson et al. (2004)</td>
<td>• Experience with Supports Intensity Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brown et al. (1993, cited in Schalock &amp; Alonso, 2002)</td>
<td>• Choice about all aspects of participation in activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harris (2003)</td>
<td>• Wide range of experiences; many opportunities for choice making; intrinsically reinforcing options</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rawlings et al. (1995, cited in Harris, 2003)</td>
<td>• Right to refuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ware (2004)</td>
<td>• Photographs or videos to support contribution of ideas; developing abilities to express preferences, choices, and views</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameron &amp; Murphy (2002)</td>
<td>• Talking Mats to facilitate communication about likes, dislikes, and opinions</td>
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<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Daly &amp; Ranalli (2003)</td>
<td>• Countoons for self-monitoring, evaluating and reinforcing</td>
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<td>Peck (2004)</td>
<td>• Spend the day with me books</td>
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<td>Germain (2004)</td>
<td>• Single-use cameras to record own activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Post et al. (2002)</td>
<td>• Headphones with auditory prompts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferguson et al. (2005)</td>
<td>• PDAs with audible and visual alarms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denham &amp; Lahm (2001)</td>
<td>• Computers; Intellikeys templates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parmenter (1994); Thompson et al. (2004); Shaddock et al. (1993)</td>
<td>• Experience with natural people supports</td>
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<tr>
<td>Butterworth et al. (1997, cited in Luckasson et al., 2002)</td>
<td>• Experience with person-centred planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Strategies and approaches</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Callicott (2003)</td>
<td>● Creative approach to planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hapner &amp; Imel (2002)</td>
<td>● Involvement with IEP planning in a variety of subject areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wood et al. (2004)</td>
<td>● Identification of strengths, weaknesses, and favoured people, things, places, and activities; encourage generalisation of skills and behaviours; honour choices and decisions; support goals; &quot;I&quot; statements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mason et al. (2004)</td>
<td>● Individual or small group training and planning sessions; highlighting and checking IEPs to show agreement and disagreement;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meyers &amp; Eisenman (2005)</td>
<td>● Practice developing goals and presenting ideas and information; overview of IEPs with explanations; create scripts, role play, gradual involvement based on student comfort; encourage family involvement and collaboration; computer generation of invitations; photo or computer presentations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karvonen et al. (2004)</td>
<td>● Involvement with IEP planning in a variety of subject areas; opportunity to discuss goals prior to IEP meeting; incremental involvement with IEP meetings starting with introductions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McGahee et al. (2001)</td>
<td>● Predetermined questions; draft IEPs; gradual involvement; ask students first person-centred planning and visual representations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schreiner (2005)</td>
<td>● GO FOR IT; seeking input; checklists and tally systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test et al. (2004)</td>
<td>● Published IEP curricula and person-centred planning; direct questions to students, avoid jargon, and use understandable language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brown et al. (1994)</td>
<td>● Encourage the development of self-image and ability to assert oneself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whitney-Thomas &amp; Maloney (2001)</td>
<td>● Peer mentors; introspection; future-oriented thinking; opportunities for independence; facilitation of relationships; gradual increase of independent decision-making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thoma, Held, and Saddler (2002)</td>
<td>● Role playing; develop portfolios</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Held et al. (2004)</td>
<td>● PowerPoint presentations; infuse self-determination into every day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patton et al. (1997)</td>
<td>● Include instructional and linkage needs in transition goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steere &amp; Cavaiuolo (2002)</td>
<td>● Profile strengths, needs, and relationships; provide enough experience and information for informed choices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brown et al. (1998)</td>
<td>● Functional academics; community-based instruction; links with community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Strategies and approaches</td>
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<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Smyth &amp; McConkey (2003)</td>
<td>Person-centred planning, links with support-agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward et al. (2003)</td>
<td>Choice-making and gradual change in work style</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kohler &amp; Field (2003)</td>
<td>Transition-focused education; work experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modell &amp; Valdez (2002); Thompson et al. (2002)</td>
<td>Create experience-rich school environments</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Strategies and approaches</th>
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<tr>
<td>Brown et al. (1998); Kleinert et al. (2004); Love &amp; Malian (1997)</td>
<td>Experience with service-learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wehman et al. (1998; 2000)</td>
<td>Environment focused on abilities, interests, and strengths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rogan et al. (2000)</td>
<td>Experience with supportive environments and natural supports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farris &amp; Stancliffe (2001)</td>
<td>Practice working with coworkers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hagner &amp; Cooney (2005)</td>
<td>Consistent schedule and responsibilities; organizers to provide structure; labels, instruction sheets, schedules, in and out boxes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unger (1999)</td>
<td>Watch alarm to cue breaks, checklists, containers to help with carrying, highlighting data entry information</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wehman et al. (1998)</td>
<td>Audiotape prompts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grigal et al. (2002)</td>
<td>Use of program based and individual supports</td>
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<tr>
<td>Zafft et al. (2004)</td>
<td>Person-centred planning; collaboration, natural supports</td>
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<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Strategies and approaches</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Browder et al. (2001)</td>
<td>• Listen to and honour views of students and their families</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beverage (2004)</td>
<td>• Home-school relationships encouraging student participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dunst (2002)</td>
<td>• Actively provide families with opportunities to support and educate their children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Johnson et al. (2002)</td>
<td>• Encourage involvement by providing families with information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wehmeyer et al. (1999, cited in Zhang et al, 2005)</td>
<td>• Support families to support their children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field &amp; Hoffman (2002)</td>
<td>• Support families to support their children; newsletters, student/family worksheets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field &amp; Hoffman (1996, cited in Field &amp; Hoffman, 1999)</td>
<td>• Workshop sessions and family homework assignments</td>
</tr>
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</table>
**Appendix C**

*Summary of ways in which schools can help to prepare students to be ready and willing to contribute to support-based plans*

Note: To facilitate the locating of references within the paper, authors are listed in the order in which they occur in the main text

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
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<tr>
<td>Patton et al. (1997)</td>
<td>• Creation of school communities conducive to the acquisition of skills for adult life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brown et al. (1998)</td>
<td>• Future oriented environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field &amp; Hoffman (2002)</td>
<td>• Involve all staff members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price et al. (2002)</td>
<td>• Whole community as arena for learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wood et al. (2004)</td>
<td>• Staff and parent education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lehman et al. (1999)</td>
<td>• Adults as collaborators with students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stodden &amp; Whelley (2004)</td>
<td>• Advocate for resources; support “dignity of risk”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wehmeyer, Agran, &amp; Hughes (2000)</td>
<td>• Preservice and inservice education; support staff in attending conferences and reading journals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Browder et al. (2001)</td>
<td>• Consider conceptual and practical ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Held et al. (2004)</td>
<td>• Base instruction and supports on research literature</td>
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<tr>
<td>Thoma, Nathanson, et al. (2002)</td>
<td>• Support collaboration</td>
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