DEVELOPING AND MANAGING A VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND TRANSITION PLANNING PROGRAMME FOR INTELLECTUALLY DISABLED LEARNERS

by

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I declare that DEVELOPING AND MANAGING A VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND TRANSITION PLANNING PROGRAMME FOR INTELLECTUALLY DISABLED LEARNERS is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

________________________     _____________
MRS CJ VLACHOS      DATE
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SUMMARY

Key words:
Intellectually disabled, vocational training, transition planning, skills, individualised vocational program, adapted Revised National Curriculum Statement, independence.

Little information is available on future vocational preparation for intellectually disabled learners in South African schools. Currently teachers adapt the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) to educate these learners. A literature study was conducted to investigate relevant models in the United States of America in order to develop a framework for a South African vocational training and transition planning programme in the school. Various South African vocational training programmes designed for disabled learners with good literacy and numeracy skills, the role of employment agencies and the local employment possibilities for intellectually disabled people were investigated to assess their suitability for intellectually disabled learners. An Individualised Vocational Programme that involves the parents and their child(ren) was developed to suit the needs of intellectually disabled learners. The RNCS was adapted by means of curriculum straddling and designing down to make the learning material suitable for intellectually disabled learners. The full programme consisted of an adapted interest test, curriculum training, the placement of learners in school jobs/tasks and a home independence programme. The programme was implemented and a mixed method research design facilitated the case study done in a school for severely intellectually disabled learners. Findings revealed that a vocational training and transition planning programme in the school can be managed successfully to the benefit of the parents, learners and the Department of Education. Based on the findings recommendations were made to improve the various sections of the comprehensive programme.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Figures ................................................................. i
List of Tables .................................................................... ii
List of Appendices ............................................................... iii
List of Abbreviations ............................................................ iv

1 CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY ............................................. 6
1.1 INTRODUCTION .................................................................................................. 6
1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT ..................................................................................... 9
1.3 AIMS OF THIS STUDY ...................................................................................... 10
1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY .......................................................................... 11
1.5 DEFINITION OF TERMS ................................................................................... 13
1.5.1 Employability ........................................................................................................ 13
1.5.2 Intellectual disability ............................................................................................. 13
1.5.3 Management .......................................................................................................... 13
1.5.4 Transition .............................................................................................................. 14
1.5.5 Vocational education ............................................................................................ 14
1.5.6 Vocational training ............................................................................................... 14
1.6 CHAPTER DIVISION.......................................................................................... 14

2 CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE STUDY ............................................................... 16
2.1 INTRODUCTION ................................................................................................ 16
2.2 DEVELOPMENT OF A PROGRAMME ............................................................ 18
2.2.1 Needs analysis ....................................................................................................... 18
2.2.2 Planning and development of a programme ......................................................... 19
2.2.3 Implementation and evaluation of the programme ............................................... 19
2.2.3.1 Managing the work ............................................................................................... 20
2.2.3.2 Managing the resources ........................................................................................ 20
2.2.3.3 Managing the people ............................................................................................. 21
2.3 INTELLECTUAL DISABILITY AND HOW IT INFLUENCES LEARNERS IN THEIR FUTURE PLANS AND JOB PLACEMENTS........................................ 21
2.3.1 Intellectual disability ............................................................................................. 21
2.3.2 Physical aspects .................................................................................................... 23
2.3.3 Conative aspects ................................................................................................. 23
2.3.4 Moral aspects ....................................................................................................... 23
2.3.5 Affective aspects ................................................................................................... 24
2.3.6 Self-concept .......................................................................................................... 24
2.3.7 Social aspects ...................................................................................................... 25
2.3.8 Personality aspects .............................................................................................. 26
2.3.9 Independence ....................................................................................................... 26
2.3.10 Poverty .................................................................................................................. 27

2.4 VOCATIONAL TRAINING IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA ............................................................................. 29
2.4.1 Introduction ........................................................................................................... 29
2.4.2 Structure of the secondary programmes in the United States of America ............... 29
2.4.2.1 Outcomes- Based Programme Evaluation ............................................................ 30
2.4.2.2 Person centred vocational training and transition planning and assessment ..... 31
2.4.2.3 Community reference curriculum and instruction ........................................ 43
2.4.2.4 Individualised Vocation Programme .......................................................... 52
2.4.2.5 Job placement and training ......................................................................... 54
2.4.2.6 Family involvement .................................................................................... 59
2.4.3 Diploma options for learners with disabilities .............................................. 61
2.5 SOUTH AFRICAN VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND TRANSITION
PLANNING PROGRAMMES AND EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES .......... 63
2.5.1 Vocational training and transition planning curriculum ............................ 63
2.5.1.1 National Curriculum Statement ................................................................ 63
2.5.1.2 SETA’s ....................................................................................................... 64
2.5.1.3 Skills development centres ................................................................. 66
2.5.2 Local employment possibilities for the intellectually disabled .................... 68
2.5.2.1 Protective and sheltered employment .................................................. 68
2.5.2.2 Supported employment ......................................................................... 69
2.5.2.3 Competitive employment ....................................................................... 69
2.5.2.4 Employment agencies ......................................................................... 70
2.6 POLICY AND LEGISLATION IN SOUTH AFRICA ........................................ 71
2.6.1 The South African Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 .................................. 71
2.6.2 The South African Employment Act 1997 ................................................. 72
2.6.3 The South African Employment Equity Act, 1998 .................................... 73
2.6.4 The Disability Rights Charter of South Africa ........................................... 75
2.6.5 The 1996 South African Constitution ......................................................... 76
2.6.6 The South African Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair
Discrimination Amendment Bill ........................................................................ 77
2.7 VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND TRANSITION PLANNING PROGRAMME
IN A CULTURAL DIVERSE SOCIETY .................................................... 78
2.8 CONCLUSION ......................................................................................... 78
3 CHAPTER 3 DEVELOPMENT OF A VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND
TRANSITION PLANNING PROGRAMME ........................................... 80
3.1 INTRODUCTION ............................................................................... 80
3.2 NEEDS ANALYSIS ............................................................................ 81
3.3 PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT OF A PROGRAMME ........................... 82
3.3.1 Adaptation to the National Curriculum Statement ..................................... 83
3.3.1.1 Introduction ......................................................................................... 83
3.3.1.2 Curriculum straddling ....................................................................... 84
3.3.1.3 Designing down ................................................................................ 85
3.3.1.4 Other methods .................................................................................. 85
3.3.2 Outcomes-based programme evaluation .................................................... 86
3.3.2.1 Aims of Outcomes-Based Education ............................................... 87
3.3.2.2 Learning Area Statements .................................................................. 88
3.3.3 Person centred transition planning and assessment .................................... 89
3.3.3.1 Analysis of background information .................................................. 89
3.3.3.2 Interviews and questionnaires ........................................................... 90
3.3.3.3 Psychometric instruments .................................................................. 91
3.3.3.4 Work samples................................................................. 92
3.3.3.5 Curriculum based assessment techniques ......................... 95
3.3.4 Curriculum content ......................................................... 97
3.3.4.1 Life Orientation Learning Area ...................................... 97
3.3.4.2 Economic and Management Sciences ................................ 104
3.3.4.3 Technology Learning Area ............................................ 104
3.3.4.4 Language and Mathematics learning programme ............. 105
3.3.5 Individualised Vocational Programme, vocational training and transition planning .................. 105
3.3.5.1 Contents of the Individualised Vocational Programme ...... 107
3.3.5.2 Individualised Vocational Programme team members ...... 107
3.3.5.3 Organising, planning and holding the IVP meeting .......... 108
3.3.5.4 Putting the Individualised Vocational Programme into practice .................................................. 110
3.3.5.5 Reviewing and revising the IVP .................................... 111
3.3.5.6 Home independence programme ................................ 112
3.3.5.7 Self-assessment ......................................................... 113
3.3.6 Job placement and training ............................................. 113
3.3.6.1 Job/task sources within the school ............................. 114
3.3.6.2 Number of jobs per learner ........................................ 114
3.3.6.3 Job duty schedule ..................................................... 115
3.3.6.4 Job training .............................................................. 116
3.3.6.5 Task analysis ............................................................ 116
3.3.6.6 Task assessment ....................................................... 118
3.3.6.7 Specific job training and placement in the community ..... 119
3.3.6.8 Legal requirements ................................................... 121
3.3.7 Family involvement ....................................................... 121
3.4 Transition to adult independence and interdependent living .................................................. 122
3.5 SUMMARY ......................................................................... 123
4 CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH DESIGN .............................. 124
4.1 INTRODUCTION ............................................................. 124
4.2 RESEARCH QUESTION AND AIMS .............................. 124
4.3 RESEARCH strategies ...................................................... 125
4.3.1 Mixed method research design ....................................... 125
4.3.2 Qualitative research strategy ......................................... 127
4.3.3 Research design for this study ....................................... 127
4.4 RESEARCH METHODS .................................................... 129
4.4.1 Ethical measures ......................................................... 129
4.4.1.1 Approval for conducting the research ....................... 130
4.4.1.2 Informed consent .................................................... 130
4.4.1.3 Informed assent ...................................................... 131
4.4.1.4 Confidentiality and anonymity ................................ 131
4.4.1.5 Access to results .................................................... 131
4.4.2 Validity, reliability and trustworthiness ......................... 132
4.4.3 Data collection ............................................................. 135
4.4.3.1 The population and sampling ................................... 136
4.4.3.2 Description of the participants ................................. 137
4.4.3.3 The researcher as instrument ................................................................. 140
4.4.3.4 Data collection instruments and methods .............................................. 141
4.4.4 Data analysis ............................................................................................ 148
4.4.4.1 Qualitative data analysis ........................................................................ 149
4.4.4.2 Quantitative data analysis ...................................................................... 150
4.5 SUMMARY ................................................................................................. 151
5 CHAPTER 5 ANALYSIS OF RESULT ............................................................ 152
5.1 INTRODUCTION ......................................................................................... 152
5.2 ANALYSIS OF RESULTS .......................................................................... 152
5.2.1 Needs analysis ......................................................................................... 154
5.2.2 The influence of the programme on the skills of the participants .......... 158
5.2.2.1 Development of skills in the school ...................................................... 159
5.2.2.2 Results from the home independence programme ............................... 181
5.2.2.3 Analysis of questionnaire .................................................................... 183
5.2.3 The influences of the vocational training and transition planning programme on the knowledge of the participants ............................................. 184
5.2.4 The influence of the programme on the values of the participants .......... 185
5.3 SUMMARY ................................................................................................. 188
6 CHAPTER 6 SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS ........ 190
6.1 INTRODUCTION ......................................................................................... 190
6.2 SUMMARY ................................................................................................. 190
6.3 CONCLUSION ............................................................................................. 199
6.3.1 Conclusions from the literature study .................................................... 199
6.3.1.1 Legal enforcements ............................................................................. 199
6.3.1.2 Integration into the education system ............................................... 200
6.3.1.3 Influence of disabilities on future possibilities ................................. 200
6.3.1.4 Programme practices for successful vocational training and transition planning ......................................................... 200
6.3.1.5 Roles that stakeholders play ............................................................... 201
6.3.1.6 Work based learning experiences ....................................................... 201
6.3.1.7 Work opportunities ........................................................................... 202
6.3.2 Conclusions from the findings of this study ........................................... 202
6.3.2.1 Parents’ needs .................................................................................... 202
6.3.2.2 Planning, time constraints and programme evaluation ....................... 202
6.3.2.3 Talking Mats adapted aptitude test .................................................... 203
6.3.2.4 Individualised Vocation Programme interviews ................................. 203
6.3.2.5 School tasks ....................................................................................... 203
6.3.2.6 Parents’ motivational level ................................................................. 204
6.3.2.7 Participants’ motivational level ............................................................ 204
6.3.2.8 Education methods ............................................................................ 204
6.3.2.9 Teachers’ professional development ................................................. 204
6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS ............................................................................. 205
6.4.1 Vocational training and transition planning as part of the curriculum .... 205
6.4.2 Yearly planning and programme evaluation ........................................... 205
6.4.3 Collaboration between schools ............................................................... 206
6.4.4 In-service training ................................................................................. 206
CHAPTER 1  INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1  INTRODUCTION

“For most young people in the general population, the transition to adult life is characterized by a diminution of parental control and involvement in the child’s life” (O’Brien 2006:195). When mainstream learners exit high school, it is an exciting experience for them and their families as they enter a more independent life (Hart 2006:1). However, when learners with intellectual disabilities consider what will happen next, the possibilities are limited as the reality suggests a greater reliance on parental resources rather than any reduction in dependence on their parents (O’Brien 2006:195; Hart 2006:1).

People with intellectual disabilities find it difficult to learn and retain new information and to adapt to new situations. Children with intellectual disabilities develop more slowly than their peers and require additional support to develop (Disabled people South Africa). They may take longer to learn to walk and to take care of their personal needs, such as dressing or eating. Moreover, there may be some things they cannot learn. Rose, Saunders, Hensel and Kroese (2005:10) mention difficulty with concentration, poor communication skills, problems understanding instructions and difficulty in becoming independent. The extent of the limits of learning is a function of the severity of the disability (Mental retardation).

Intellectually disabled learners grow up in a disabling environment where they face numerous physical and social barriers daily. These may include the inability to take part in leisure pursuits, hostile attitudes or avoidance from other children, patronising behaviour from adults and exclusion from mainstream schools (Roche, Tucker, Thomson & Flynn 2004:199). Gallagher (2002:203) states that that the opposite is also evident, namely paternalism, overprotection and infantilisation.

Intellectual disability is one of the most powerful and most stigmatising labels there is. It creates strong negative expectations and stereotyping that leads to prejudice. Instead of having empathy with the intellectually disabled, we either settle for sympathy or rejection.
(Gallagher 2002:205). Parents unwittingly pass on stereotyped ideas about their child’s disability which adversely affect the young adolescent’s self-image and self-confidence throughout his or her life (Roche et al 2004:199).

According to percentage distribution of learners in ordinary schools, from pre-grade R to Grade 12, Learners with Special Educational Needs (LSEN) only constitute 0,26 % of the total number of learners in South Africa (Education Statistics in South Africa at a Glance in 2005:2006:10). In Gauteng alone, 53,5 % (of the 0,2 %) of the LSEN learners, are mildly or severely intellectually disabled (Statistical Overview of Ordinary and Special Education in Gauteng 2003), which thus accounts for more than half of the LSEN learners in Gauteng. According to these statistics an astonishing 8 000 learners’ future plans are influenced by their intellectual disabilities and their parents’ and community’s restricted expectations of their abilities.

Zhang and Stecker (2001:300) state that ‘learned helplessness’ is the main internal barrier within learners themselves that makes them believe that they are not capable of involvement in their own vocational planning. Their experience of not being able to control the environment, or learning that events are uncontrollable, leads to a psychological state of helplessness. The syndrome of learned helplessness has an effect on cognitive growth and may make it appear that learners are non-responsive, disinterested in life around them and dull (Counselling considerations no date). Barriers from the community stem from the belief that learners with disabilities do not have the capacity and motivation to make informed choices (Zhang & Stecker 2001:300).

Studies have indicated that intellectually disabled learners are more likely to show significant difficulties in coping in adult life. Adolescents with a disability may use regression as a coping strategy. It may be easier to retreat to an earlier age than struggle with interdependence. They have behavioural disorders and problems at work and in their social relationships. Physical and mental health problems and additional disabilities also weaken their coping (Counselling considerations no date; Taanila, Rantakallio, Koiranen, Von Wendt & Jarvelin 2005:218, 224).
Lindstrom and Benz (in Luftig & Muthert 2003:318) assert that, when leaving school, learners with disabilities find themselves in one of three career phases: unsettled, exploratory, or focused. They state that vocational training and transition planning help learners move quicker through the first two phases and spend relatively more time in the third phase which prepares the learners for the specialised roles and tasks that the learners will need in their particular jobs.

Halpern (in Sitlington, Clark & Kolstoe 2000:20) describes transition from school to adult life as a process. His definition states: “Transition refers to a change in status from behaving primarily as a learner to assuming emergent adult roles in the community. These roles include employment, maintaining a home, becoming appropriately involved in the community, and experiencing satisfactory personal and social relationships” (in Sitlington et al 2000:20). There is a need for realistic goal setting and vocational guidance for individuals with disabilities. Some individuals may never achieve independence but should be encouraged to strive for emotional independence, to set realistic goals and to make their own decisions regarding the course of their lives (Counselling considerations no date).

The foundations for transition should be laid during the elementary and middle school years, guided by the broad concept of career development. Transition planning in families with disabled children should start by age 14 (Sitlington et al 2000:20). In the Reconstruction and Development Programme it is stated that special education suffered massive neglect in the past and the developing of new programmes is needed (Reconstruction and Development Programme: African National Congress 1994:63). In 1997 a Green Paper on a skills development strategy was published and the subsequent National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS) was built on this. In 2004 President Mbeki set out a clear role for Vocational Education and Training (VET) with a view to strengthening Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETA’s). Unfortunately, the NSDS is at its weakest on its equity targets, especially for the disabled (Akoojee, Gewer & McGrath 2005:111, 103, 115).
Currently the National Curriculum Statement makes little provision for the limited abilities of the intellectually disabled learner. Learning outcome 5 of the Life Orientation Learning Area that forms part of the senior phase of the National Curriculum Statement states: “Orientation to the world of work”, in which the learner should be enabled to make informed decisions about further study and career choices (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2004:15). Unfortunately, because of intellectually disabled learners’ limited intellectual skills, mainly the Foundation Phase content of the Revised National Curriculum Statement is used in Special Needs Education (SNE).

In the beginning of 2005 the development of a curriculum for learners with special educational needs (LSEN) commenced, but the main focus of this curriculum is on creating a pre-grade R programme to suit the needs of the intellectually disabled learner. Vocational training and transition planning will not form part of this breakdown of the curriculum. Thus, the impetus behind this study is the development and management of a vocational training and transition planning programme for intellectually disabled learners.

### 1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Teachers in SNE for the intellectually disabled learners have identified the lack of vocational training as part of the programme for senior learners as a major shortcoming in the education of these learners. In South Africa career services in SNE is either very limited or do not exist. Currently the Foundation Phase curriculum (in which no reference is made of vocational training) is adapted by teachers and the learning material is planned according to each teacher’s own adaptation of the curriculum.

This shortcoming needs to be addressed because research has shown that when the support of the school was removed (at the age of 18), the learners’ vulnerability increased. Many parents, especially low income families, are not equipped to provide advice on employment. The home environment which learners return to full time (after leaving school) may be a contributing factor to their difficulties. They are often unable to claim income support and the consequent lack of funds adds to their vulnerability (Reiter & Palanizky 1996:29).
The problem statement can be formulated as the main research question of this study, namely:

How can a vocational training and transition planning programme be developed and managed within the framework of the National Curriculum Statement according to the needs of intellectually disabled learners in the school?

The following sub questions facilitate the demarcation of the problem more clearly:

- What steps must be taken for the development and management of vocational training and transition planning programme for intellectually disabled learners in the school?
- How will the implementation of a vocational training and transition planning programme influence the knowledge, values and skills of three selected learners?

Vocational training and transition planning for intellectually disabled learners has not received much attention in South Africa. However, much can be learned from education systems that have a comprehensive body of research on the topic and established vocational training and transition planning programmes. Aims to give direction to this study are formulated in the ensuing section.

1.3 AIMS OF THIS STUDY

The main aim of this study is to develop and manage a vocational training and transition planning programme in the school for intellectually disabled learners. From this aim follow two objectives, namely:

- To identify and describe the steps in the development and management of a vocational training and transition planning programme in the school,
- To investigate the outcomes of such a programme on the knowledge, values and skills of three selected learners.
1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A literature study on relevant aspects of vocational training and transition planning programmes that are being used in special schools and career centres in the United States of America were undertaken to explore possibilities for a vocational training and transition planning programme and to give background to this research study (section 2.4). Valuable information on the involvement of the intellectually disabled learners and their parents in the various stages of vocational training and transition planning gave direction to development of a programme which meets the requirements of the South African Constitution and the political and economic environment.

Primary and secondary literature sources included The 1996 Constitution, Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995, Employment Act 1997, Employment Equity Act 1998, the Disability Rights Charter of South Africa, Reconstruction and Development Programme, Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Amendment Bill (section 2.6), education statistics, journal articles, papers written by educational specialists, books and internet data from world wide websites concerning the intellectually disabled. Internet sources in the text are referred to by author, or by the title of the source where no author is evident. Longer titles have been abbreviated to the first phrase of the title. References to internet sources in the bibliography are listed under authors or full titles of articles and web addresses are included for easy reference.

The mixed methods research design (section 4.3) was used in an empirical investigation in which the researcher converged quantitative and qualitative data in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem. The researcher collected both forms of data at the same time during the study and integrated the information in the interpretation of the overall results. The quantitative data collection procedure was nested into the larger qualitative data collection to analyse different questions (Creswell 2003:16).

Learners from a Special School (a school for intellectually disabled learners up to the age of 18 years) were used for the sampling. In order to understand the learners and the
parents’ points of view on the development of vocational training and transition planning, it was decided to conduct in-depth case studies. Three learners and their parents were selected to promote better understanding of the gap in their current education (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:333).

During pre-recorded in-depth interviews with the learners and the parents before commencement of the vocational training and transition planning programme and after six months’ participation in the programme allowed parents and learners to discuss in detail what they had observed and experienced before and after the programme had been put into practice (chapter 5). The interview guide approach was used where the topics were selected in advance but the sequence and wording of the questions depended on the parent or learner being interviewed (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:351). In order to get as much information as possible from the intellectually disabled, Talking Mats (refer to page 40) was used as an additional interview guide to facilitate information rich interviews.

To be successful in data collection techniques, rapport, but not friendship, and empathy that communicate interest in and caring about the respondents (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:322) were built between the researcher and the respondent during the interviews and with evaluation of tasks. Establishing trust, being genuine, patient and non-confrontational, maintaining eye contact, a low key approach and cadence are mentioned by McMillan and Schumacher (2006:353) and O’Donoghue and Punch (2003:19-21) as important points to adhere to during the interviews. This was especially important because the learners are intellectually impaired. The interviewer has to tread the fine line between being unresponsive to the interviewees and their issues and being over responsive. Continuous observation of the learners in completing their tasks formed part of the learners’ own evaluation of the vocational training and transition planning programme.
1.5 DEFINITION OF TERMS

1.5.1 Employability
Thijssen (in Sanders & De Grip 2004:73-76) distinguishes between a core definition and a broader definition of employability:

Core definition: Employability encompasses all individual possibilities to be successful in a diversity of jobs in a given labour market situation. In this definition, employability only concerns someone’s capacities.

Broader definition: Employability incorporates both the capacity and the willingness to be successful in a diversity of jobs. Therefore, employability encompasses all the individual characteristics that determine the current and future position in the labour market.

1.5.2 Intellectual disability
The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders IV (DSM-IV) classifies intellectual impairment among the disorders first diagnosed in infancy, childhood, or adolescence. Intellectual impairment is characterised by an IQ of 70 or below and at least two impairments in adaptive functioning (Griswold & Goldstein 1999:315).

The latest definition of the American Association on Mental Deficiency (AAMD) (Landsberg 2005:381) reads as follow: “Mental retardation refers to substantial limitation in present functioning. It is characterized by significantly sub-average intellectual functioning, existing concurrently with related limitations in two or more of the following applicable adaptable skills areas: communication, self-care, home living, social skills, community use, self-direction, health and safety, functional academics, leisure and work.” Mental retardation manifests before age 18 (Landsberg 2005:381).

1.5.3 Management
Management is defined as the organisational process that includes strategic planning, setting objectives, managing resources, deploying the human and financial assets needed to achieve objectives, and measuring results. Management also includes recording and
storing facts and information for later use or for others within the organization (Stuhlman management consultants).

1.5.4 Transition
Halpern (1994) (as cited in Sitlington et al 2000:20) defines transition as a change in status from behaving primarily as a student to assuming emergent adult roles in the community. These roles include employment, maintaining a home, becoming appropriately involved in the community and experiencing satisfactory personal and social relationships.

1.5.5 Vocational education
Vocational education is part of a programme designed to prepare individuals for gainful employment as semi-skilled or skilled workers, technicians, or sub professionals in recognized occupations and in new and emerging occupations, or to prepare individuals for enrolment in advanced technical education, but excluding any programme to prepare individuals for employment in occupations generally considered professional or which require a baccalaureate or higher degree. Vocational education programmes are taught by professionals certified in vocational education and go by titles such as related vocational instructors, transition coordinators, job coaches and vocational special needs instructors (Sitlington et al 2000:153,155).

1.5.6 Vocational training
Vocational training is defined as training for a specific vocation in industry, trade or agriculture (The Free Dictionary).

1.6 CHAPTER DIVISION
Chapter one serves as an introduction to the study, presents the problem formulation and the aims of the study, describes the terminology and introduces the research design to the reader.

Chapter two gives information on different key aspects in the development and management of a programme. An in-depth study of intellectual disability and how this developmental problem influences the learner in his/her future plans is made. The
structure of the United States of America’s vocational training programmes is investigated and local vocational training programmes and employment agencies are mentioned. South African policies and laws are listed and shortly discussed. The chapter concludes with guidelines on the implementation of vocational training and transition planning programmes.

The development of a vocational training and transition planning programme is fully described in chapter three. The development of the programme is done according to the structure of the secondary vocational training and transition planning programme in the United States of America. In the beginning of the chapter the adaptation of the National Curriculum Statement is explained. Furthermore, a detailed description of a programme suitable for the South African intellectually disabled learner is stated.

Chapter four includes a description of the sample population, the design of the research and the research methods. The steps followed in data collection (from the learners, parents and role players) prior to and after implementing the vocational training and transition planning programme is described in detail.

The qualitative and quantitative data were collected and transcribed in chapter five. A software tool for qualitative data analysis, Hyperresearch was used for data analysis (www.researchware.com). The tool allowed for eight case studies, with 75 code names and 50 code instances to each case. The programme allowed for the viewing of the code reference of one case at a time. Each code reference consists of a code name, the source file name, the source type (text, audio, video, graphic), and a code reference. The codes menu offers a variety of commands that can be used, including duplicating code instances, recoding, and deleting.

In the last chapter a summary of the study is presented and recommendations for future research are made.
CHAPTER 2  LITERATURE STUDY

The literature study gives a description of the various steps a manager has to fulfil in the development and management of a vocational training and transition planning programme. The focus is placed on the intellectually disabled learner and how the disability influences the learner in his future plans and job placements within the framework of South African laws. The extensive programmes in the United States of America is discussed in order to serve as a guideline for the development of a local programme. A brief discussion of the absence of a South African vocational training and transition planning structure shows the need for a well researched programme that can effectively be managed in the school.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The educational managers’ role is to manage programmes on a day-to-day basis. On them will devolve the responsibility of seeing that venues are suitable, materials and equipment are available and ordered timeously and the budget is administered efficiently. Furthermore, educational managers have to be conversant with the content and the methodology of programmes and courses to be able to monitor education effectively. They act as a support for teachers, follows up on learners who have dropped out and mediates with heads of departments if problems relating to classes arise (Sparg, Winberg & Pointer 1999:17).

The Integrated National Disability Strategy states that people with disabilities are excluded from the mainstream of society and experience difficulty in accessing fundamental rights. The key forms of exclusion are poverty, unemployment and social isolation. Furthermore, it states that sectors of the society experiencing high levels of exclusion are disabled children and people with intellectual or mental disabilities. They are likely to be regarded as ill and in need of constant care. They are not, therefore, provided with opportunities to participate in society to the best of their abilities (Disabled people South Africa, Integrated National Disability Strategy White Paper 1997). Confusion manifests itself especially in the labour market (Integrated National Disability

Smith, Polloway, Patton and Dowdy (1998:195-198) state that occupational success and life skills are among the critical life adjustment variables that ensure successful transition into adulthood. The research on these variables does not inspire overconfidence regarding learners with intellectual disability. The transition period can be seen as a time of ‘floundering’, more so for learners with intellectual disability. Unfortunately, ‘productive adulthood’ is an elusive goal for these learners.

There are two critical factors influencing learners’ success in obtaining and maintaining gainful employment. First, post-school adjustment hinges on their ability to demonstrate personal and social behaviours appropriate to the workplace. Second, the quality of the transition programming provided will predict subsequent success (Smith et al 1998:198).

The vocational training and transition planning manager is held accountable to those both above and below themselves in an organisation (Sparg et al 1999:22). Thus, the manager is accountable to the learners to make sure they receive the necessary vocational training and transition planning, to the parents to keep them informed and the teachers for professional development in vocational training and transition planning.

Managers that set themselves the goal of developing and implementing a vocational training and transition planning programme to suit the needs of all the stakeholders, have to follow certain planning steps in the development of a programme.
2.2 DEVELOPMENT OF A PROGRAMME

Management encompasses different processes one must go through in order to manage. Blandford’s (2006:4) definition of management encompasses planning, resourcing, controlling, organising, leading and evaluating. The South African Quality Authorities (Quality management for education and training providers 2001:25) state that a programme must be planned and developed on the basis of research and not only on a “desktop”. Sparg et al (1999:23) developed a comprehensive framework which includes the mentioned steps and is used in this study. His framework which consists of separate but interrelated steps for starting a new project or programme is set out in Figure 2.1.

FIGURE 2.1 FRAMEWORK FOR PROGRAMME DEVELOPMENT

Each of the above steps is interrelated. Sparg et al (1999:5) states that management processes are interlinked, interdependent, coexisting and simultaneous.

2.2.1 Needs analysis
In doing a needs analysis the manager would like to know what skills learners require, why they need these specific skills, what the learners’ needs are and what is required of teachers who will teach these learners. The more detailed one’s knowledge of the needs, the more accurately planning can be done. The stakeholders involved in a needs planning
include the learners, the parents, the teachers and the Department of Education (RSA) (Sparg et al 1999:24).

The manager must work to meet the needs of the project or programme, the learners, the parents and the Department of Education (RSA). Sparg et al (1999:42) state that one cannot satisfy all people all the time. This depends on the context in which the project is to take place, the availability of resources and the importance of the stakeholders who have those needs.

Once one has established the needs of the stakeholders, a programme can be planned and developed in order to meet the needs of the stakeholders.

2.2.2 Planning and development of a programme
According to Sparg et al (1999:49) and the South African Qualifications Authorities (SAQA) (Quality management for education and training providers 2001:25-27) planning and development of a programme involve setting goals for the programme, deciding on the tasks that need to be done to meet the goals, when the programme will be launched, deciding on the staff required to do the tasks, the resources needed to facilitate the work, a budget for the project, establishing a time frame for reaching the goals and evaluating the programme.

In order to plan and develop a vocational training and transition planning programme an in-depth study of existing overseas vocational training and transition planning programmes is vital as described in section 2.4.

After the planning process the ‘doing’ or implementation and evaluation phase follows.

2.2.3 Implementation and evaluation of the programme
The implementation stage involves managing the work, the resources and the learners. Implementation often refers to structures and systems. A structure indicates who is doing
the work and a system answers the questions: what? where? and how? In other words, the system should tell what will be taught, when classes will take place, where classes will be held, how classes will be supervised and how records will be kept (Quality management for education and training providers 2001:19, 36-37; Sparg et al 1999:86-87). Evaluation of the programme includes identifying areas for improvement, setting priorities and goals, deciding on new directions, raising and maintaining standards and providing accountability to stakeholders (Sparg et al 1999:127).

The three aspects of implementation are discussed shortly.

2.2.3.1 Managing the work
To be able to manage the work the vocational training manager has to manage the process of selecting learners, running the training classes, administering the project, managing information flow and keeping the organisation’s and learners’ records (Sparg et al 1999:86).

In order to decide on the content to teach in the training classes a curriculum planning or curriculum adaptation process is needed and a timetable, which may change according to needs, must be developed. Information flow is part of all aspects of planning and implementation and includes communicating about the structures, systems and procedures, reporting on the work and keeping records so that information is readily available to all stakeholders (Sparg et al 1999:94-98).

Records are important forms of monitoring and controlling a project. Keeping records of classes is essential to evaluate learners’ work and to keep track of attendance figures (Sparg et al 1999:99-100).

2.2.3.2 Managing the resources
The second aspect in the implementation of the programme is to manage the resources, namely monies and time. Even in times of plenty, financial management presents challenges. Managing resources is essentially budgeting. A budget describes the system
in financial terms and provides the yardsticks with which organisational performance can be measured (English 2005:565).

The third aspect of implementation requires managing people, in other words the staff involved and the learners.

2.2.3.3 Managing the people

Blandford (2006:20-21) and Sparg et al (1999:13) state that to manage is to create the conditions under which the work will be done, and done well. It is important that managers always praise people when they do something right, are polite and respectful of everyone in the organisation, consult people when a management decision is going to affect them and always give people opportunities to learn and develop. Management ‘don’ts’ are: never criticise a teacher in front of their colleagues, never shout or lose your temper, never interrupt teachers in the middle of class (unless it is very urgent) and never overload people with extra tasks.

In order to manage the learners, an in-depth understanding of intellectually disabled learners and how their disability influences them in job placements is necessary.

2.3 INTELLECTUAL DISABILITY AND HOW IT INFLUENCES LEARNERS IN THEIR FUTURE PLANS AND JOB PLACEMENTS

The characteristics of learners with intellectual disability are discussed and how intellectual disability influences the learners’ future plans.

2.3.1 Intellectual disability

Landsberg (2005:381) states that the latest definition of the American Association on Mental Deficiency (AAMD) for intellectual disability reads as follow: “Mental retardation refers to substantial limitation in present functioning. It is characterised by significantly sub-average intellectual functioning, existing concurrently with related
limitations in two or more of the following applicable adaptable skills areas: communication, self-care, home living, social skills, community use, self-direction, health and safety, functional academics, leisure and work.” Mental retardation manifests before age 18.

This definition makes provision for both the significantly lower intellectual functioning of learners who experience an intellectual disability and for their problems in adjusting to the conventional social norms of society (Landsberg 2005:381). Mertens and McLaughlin (2004:136) states that the World Health Organization (2002) recognises four levels of intellectual disability, based on Intelligence Quotient (IQ): mild, with a mental age of 8,5 -11 years; moderate, with a mental age of 6,0 to 8,5 years; severe, with a mental age of 3.75 – 6,0 years, and profound, with a mental age of 0 – 3,75 years. The AAMD developed a classification system based on the degree of support required for the child to function at his or her highest level. These categories include: intermittent, limited, extensive and pervasive (Mertens & McLaughlin 2004:136).

The limited category of intellectual disability is described as: “Supports are intense and relatively consistent over time. They are time-limited but not intermittent. They require fewer staff members and cost less than more intense supports. These supports likely will be needed for adaptation to the changes involved in the school-to-adult period” (Mertens & McLaughlin 2004:137). “Extensive supports are characterised by regular involvement (e.g., daily) in at least some setting (such as home or work) and are not time limited (e.g., extensive home-living support)” (Mertens & McLaughlin 2004:137). As the learners with intellectual impairment do not fall within the intermittent or pervasive categories, these categories are not discussed here.

The learners’ intellectual disabilities and often their limited physical abilities restrict their daily exploring of their environment.
2.3.2 Physical aspects
Children with an intellectual disability reach their physical milestones, like sitting, crawling and walking later than other children (Landsberg 2005:386). This may have a disruptive influence on the child’s normal flow of development.

Mobility limitations might impede visits to stores or accompanying a parent to work, similarly, behaviour might limit the vicarious benefits gained from exposure to working role models and work settings (Szymanski 1996:2). A learner’s surroundings can be adapted to limit the effect of his/her physical disability, though he/she still needs an inner drive to successfully complete tasks.

2.3.3 Conative aspects
The term ‘conative’ refers to the personal will to consciously and intentionally do something, which is a driving force or motivation in a person’s life (Landsberg 2005:386). To formulate a goal is a cognitive exercise, but to actively follow the goal is a conative or motivational exercise. Zhang and Stecker (2001:301) conclude that the conative aspects of the intellectually disabled learner’s life have adversely been affected by their continuous experiences of failure. They later expect failure in what they do and tend not to set meaningful goals for the fear of failure. They often do not trust their own abilities and rely on others (external sources) to solve their problems for them.

Motivation plays a role in making decisions about what one would really like to do and what will be acceptable in the community.

2.3.4 Moral aspects
Moral judgment involves deciding between right and wrong and is linked to the level of cognitive development. Learners with disabilities find it difficult to predict the outcome of their actions and therefore find it difficult to avoid negative outcomes (Landsberg 2005:386).

People’s values are the basis for what they find worthy in other people and in themselves. Values undergird codes of conduct, preferences leading to choices, and ideas leading to decision-making. Examples of positive values for all high school students are courage,
honesty, cooperation, respect, justice, hope, conservation, health, perseverance, friendliness, trust, honour, integrity, efficiency, initiative, kindness, loyalty and responsibility (Sitlington et al 2000:233).

As the learners are constantly bombarded in making the right moral choices, they constantly come in contact with other people and choices in relationships are necessary.

2.3.5 Affective aspects
Affective development refers to the development of feelings, emotions and mood. As with moral aspects there is a connection between the level of cognitive development and affective development. Feelings in learners with intellectual disability are often simplistic, short in duration, difficult to control and characterised by lability. They may experience crippling unhappiness, anxiety, hostility, rejection and feelings of unworthiness. Landsberg (2005:386) refers to authors that maintain that affective problems occur more often in persons with an intellectual disability.

Szymanski (1996:3) states that parents’ reactions to having a child with a disability and their expectations of the child’s present and future abilities influence their affective behaviour toward the child. This in turn influences the child’s behaviour and the child’s development of a self-concept.

2.3.6 Self-concept
Learners with an intellectual disability find it difficult to reason accurately and logically, which distorts their self-description and could eventuate in unhappiness and self-defeating behaviours. They often experience feelings of intellectual inadequacy and incompetence when compared to other learners. Prolonged stigmatisation triggers an expectancy of failure, an attitude of helplessness and an outer directedness. All of this becomes a vicious circle that reinforces a poor self-concept and poor cognitive functioning (Landsberg 2005:387).

Since work has a central role in human life, it is not surprising that vocational development is easily viewed as the implementation of a self-concept. If a person cannot
‘be oneself’ in such a major segment of one’s life, it seems unlikely that one’s life satisfactions can be significant or that one’s general adjustment can be good (Griffin, Rosenberg, Cheyney & Greenberg 1996:142).

As with the formation of the self-concept of the learner, the learner’s general adjustment plays a role in his/her social development.

2.3.7 Social aspects
Intellectual disability causes impaired judgment which will result in inappropriate actions. Social cognition involves complex cognitive processes and skills that often create problems for persons with an intellectual disability. Landsberg (2005:387) gives examples of complex social cognitive skills as follows:

- Putting oneself in somebody else’s position (role taking)
- Perceiving and interpreting the characteristics of other persons accurately
- Interpreting other people’s motives and feelings correctly
- Understanding social role expectations
- Understanding the rules that govern social relations
- Establishing and maintaining friendships
- Appropriately judging matters on a moral basis
- Listening and understanding what other people are saying, as well as being able to communicate one’s own ideas effectively in response to them
- Being sensitive to the finer nuances of social and emotional interaction.

Appropriate social behaviour may be even more important than academic or job skills in determining whether one is perceived as a competent individual. Intellectually disabled workers who demonstrate competence in social skills are generally perceived more positively than those who lack such skills, regardless of task related skill levels (Bremer & Smith 2004:2).
Elliott, Pring and Bunning (2002:91) found that the lack of interpersonal skills is a common cause of loss of employment. Employers want employees who display positive social skills including a strong work ethic, self-discipline, self-respect, a friendly demeanour and reliability (Gramlich, Crane, Peterson & Stenhjem 2003:1).

The learner’s social ability is closely linked to many personality aspects.

2.3.8 Personality aspects
Zigler (in Landsberg 2005:387) identified several different personality attributes of learners with intellectual disability which are also found in other poor school performers especially those from low socio-economic status groups. These personality traits are:

- overdependence on adults in the immediate environment
- wariness during initial interactions with adults
- a lowered expectancy of success
- an outer directed style of problem solving
- diminished pleasure in solving challenging problems
- preference for tangible as opposed to intangible rewards
- less differentiated self-concept linked with lower ideal self-image.

Izzo and Lamb (in Discussion Paper: Current challenges facing the future of secondary education and transition services for youth with disabilities in the United States 2004:11) state that findings indicate that learners need to understand themselves and their disabilities, and be able to describe their needs and advocate for themselves in various employment settings.

The ultimate goal for intellectually disabled learners is to become partially or completely independent despite their disabilities.

2.3.9 Independence
Adequate cognition is a prerequisite for independence in even the most insignificant self-care tasks (Landsberg 2005:387). To be independent one needs to have control over one’s life based on the choice of acceptable options that minimise reliance on others in making
decisions and in performing everyday activities. This includes managing one’s own affairs, participating in day-to-day life in the community, fulfilling a range of social roles, and making decisions that lead to self-determination and the minimisation of psychological or physical dependence upon other (Sitlington et al 2000:17).

Independence does not mean to be isolated from other people as is often the case with disabled people in the lower income groups.

2.3.10 Poverty
There is a strong relationship between disability and poverty (Integrated National Disability Strategy White Paper 1997). Poverty makes people more vulnerable to disability and disability reinforces and deepens poverty. Because the emphasis is on the medical needs of people with disabilities, there is a corresponding neglect of their wider social needs. This results in severe isolation for people with disabilities and their families (Integrated National Disability Strategy White Paper 1997).

This means not only that there is a higher proportion of disabled people amongst the very poor, but also that there is an increase in families living at the poverty level as a result of disability. Disability feeds on poverty and poverty on disability (Integrated National Disability Strategy White Paper 1997). The disability survey done by the Department of Health states those parents of disabled children themselves often cannot work because they need to care for their child, due to inadequate childcare facilities (CASE Disability survey for the Department of Health. http://www.doh.gov.za/facts/1997/case.pdf).

People with disabilities are faced with a unique set of inter-connected barriers to economic self-reliance. These include, most importantly, fears, myths and stereotypes about the abilities of disabled people that compound the lack of access to routine supports and resources of daily life available to able-bodied people. People with disabilities tend to lack influence, information, power, resources, access and fulfilment of basic needs more than other people. Others tend to take decisions about the lives of people with disabilities and decide even very basic things for them. Poor people tend to become disabled because of their living conditions. This makes them even poorer. They
do not have enough food or well-balanced food, they live in unhealthy houses or shelters and they are more exposed to violence (Disabled people South Africa).

Poverty levels among people with disabilities - even in the more urban areas of the province - have remained unacceptably high compared to the average population. This has mainly been due to:

- Uncoordinated implementation of poverty alleviation programmes with the previous government
- Poverty alleviation programmes failing specifically to identify disabled persons as a target group, resulting in total or partial exclusion of people with disabilities;
- Disabled people been explicitly targeted for poverty alleviation, still face tremendous difficulties in being recognised as a group with entitlements, and as a group whose needs should be addressed on their terms, and not on terms dictated by others. This means, *inter alia*, that the physical and information arrangements related to rural poverty alleviation in particular are still not conducive to freedom of movement and communication by disabled persons (Disabled people South Africa).

Kniel (1995:359), on the other hand, found in his research that intellectually disabled learners from wealthier families were on average, less motivated and less inclined to work, than those from average or poorer families. A small number of children from wealthier families were working, mostly in crafts. It seems that these families have made every effort and used their influence to place their intellectually disabled son or daughter in some form of activity. Middle and upper class parents showed significantly more involvement in their child’s education and future than parents of low socioeconomic status (Reiter & Palnizky 1996:34).

Literature on vocational training programmes for main stream learners and disabled learners are in abundance, but literature specifically on intellectually disabled learners is scarce. Literature on vocational and transitional training programmes in the United States
of America is easily accessible and their vocational training and transition programmes have proven successful.

2.4 VOCATIONAL TRAINING IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

2.4.1 Introduction
Work-study, career education and transition education in the United States of America owed much of its acceptance to the fact that it was introduced as a federal initiative. The initiative carried the weight of legislative legitimacy and substantial funding to support innovative and imaginative programmes was granted. It emphasised the preparation of people with disabilities for work, and made possible such innovations as supported employment and job coaching. Unfortunately, little attention was paid to preparation for independent living and self-determination (Sitlington et al 2000:19).

Fortunately, there has been a broadening of the view of the transition concept beyond merely a transition from school to work. The current perspective of transition held by the Division on Career Development and Transition presents the idea that the transition concept should include concerns for employment, independent living, community participation, and social and interpersonal relationships (Sitlington et al 2000:19).

2.4.2 Structure of the secondary programmes in the United States of America
In the United States of America the secondary programmes are usually designed to provide services to learners in three distinct age groups. Middle school or junior high school programmes serve learners with severe disabilities between the ages of 11 to 15 years and high school programmes serve learners with severe disabilities between the ages of 15 years to 18 years. Post secondary or transition programmes serve severely disabled learners 19 years and older (McDonnell, Hardman, McDonnell & Kiefer-O’Donnell 1995:226).

Research has identified a number of programme practices which are associated with the successful post school adjustment of learners with severe disabilities (McDonnell et al 1995:227; Sitlington et al 2000:102-226). These practices include:
• An outcome based programme evaluation
• Person centred vocational and transition planning and transition assessment
• Community referenced curriculum content and instruction
• Person centred transition planning – Individualised Vocation Programme
• Job placement and training prior to graduation
• Family involvement
• Transition to adult independence and interdependent living.

The above are presented in Figure 2.2.

**FIGURE 2.2 PROGRAMME PRACTICES FOR SUCCESSFUL POST SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT**

Each of the above mentioned are discussed in detail as this forms the curriculum for vocational and transition education in the United States.

*2.4.2.1 Outcomes- Based Programme Evaluation*

McDonnell et al (1995:227-228) state that in the past the effectiveness of secondary programmes for learners with severe disabilities has been defined in terms of the number of skills that learners learned to perform in the classroom. This outcome has not allowed them to achieve a quality of life that is comparable to their non-disabled peers. The
outcomes should rather reflect the actual demands of living successfully in the community.

2.4.2.2 Person centred vocational training and transition planning and assessment
This section constitutes a large part of the programme and is divided into two sections, transition planning with eight sub-sections (Figure 2.3) and transition assessment with six sub-sections.

a Person centred vocational training and transition planning
Person centred vocational and transition planning strategies have several common features (Parent Brief: Promoting Effective Parent Involvement in Secondary Education and Transition 2004:1). Firstly, planning is based on the learner’s vision of life in the community after school has been completed. Secondly the vision is shaped by the needs, interests and abilities of each person, as well as the opportunities that will be available to them in home, school, work and community settings. Thirdly, the activities necessary to meet the goals are identified. Finally, the people who will assist students in carrying out their plan are identified and their responsibilities are assigned. The planning process attempts to blend all of these potential sources of support as learners move into the community (McDonnell et al 1995:238; Parent Brief: Promoting Effective Parent Involvement in Secondary Education and Transition 2004:1).

The development of a formal transition plan as part of each student’s Individualised Vocational Programme (IVP) is important for several reasons. The plan sets out what should be taught (knowledge and skills), how it should be taught and how often. It also sets out the differentiated steps and the teaching requirements needed to help the learners reach the learning targets. As an assessment tool, the plan specifies when the plan is to be reviewed so that progress can be monitored systematically in a formal as well as an ongoing way (Farrell 2004:146).
McDonnell et al (1995:240) and Sitlington et al (2000:108) emphasise that the learner’s transition plan should address all of the adult life areas. These mentioned areas are compiled into the Knowledge and Skills Domains as shown in Figure 2.3.

FIGURE 2.3 KNOWLEDGE AND SKILL DOMAINS

i Employment
The vocational and transition planning should specify the type of placement or programme that will be most appropriate for the learner (McDonnell et al 1995:236).

In most employment situations more than one person is involved in completing the job. Contact with other people in the working environment necessitates communication skills.

ii Communication and academic performance
The communication style of the intellectually disabled varies from articulate to monosyllabic and from those who have ‘verbal diarrhea’ to those who are virtually mute (Gallagher 2002:207). Keeping this in mind it is important to note that the basic skills of listening and speaking are the foundations of people’s interactions at home, in the neighbourhood, at work and in the community. If the learner is uncomfortable with
his/her ability to listen or receive information, the learner’s IVP should include some type of instructional plan to help the learner improve (Sitlington et al 2000:228).

Functional academic skills for independent living involve reading, writing and computation. Just as an inability to read, write, or solve math problems is not an insurmountable handicap for getting and keeping a job, it is not an insurmountable handicap for independent or interdependent living. One of the most common forms of assistance in an interdependent living relationship is assistance with reading, writing, and math. Parents, siblings, spouses, and sometimes even the children of persons with limited abilities in functional academics provide support for reading, writing or mathematical tasks (Sitlington et al 2000:228).

Gramlich et al (2003:1) state that learners do not see or understand a clear connection between what they are learning in school and expectations on the job. A connection needs to be made between work experiences, appropriate work behaviour, and student learning. This kind of learning can help them make better career decisions, and develop job skills relevant to future employment. Through a combined work and study experience, learners can enhance their academic knowledge, strengthen work skills and increase their understanding of the workplace, achieving both personal development and professional preparation.

Communication forms an integral part of the learners’ self-determination skills.

iii Self-determination
Self-determination skills include self-advocacy, social skills, organisational skills, community and peer connection, communication, conflict resolution, career skill building, career development and computer/technological competency (Discussion Paper: Current challenges facing the future of secondary education and transition services for youth with disabilities in the United States 2004:1).
Research shows that learners who received self-determination training were more likely to achieve positive adult life outcomes, including being employed at a higher rate and earning more per hour, when compared to peers who were not self-determined (Discussion Paper: Current challenges facing the future of secondary education and transition services for youth with disabilities in the United States 2004:1).

Work is seldom performed in complete isolation and therefore interaction is thus necessary.

iv Interpersonal relationships
The family has been rightfully viewed as the primary unit responsible for children’s basic personal social development, including interpersonal relationship skills. Adolescents with disabilities are mostly concerned about peer acceptance, making and keeping a circle of friends, dating, and engaging in the same kinds of social interactions as do most other teenagers. Most of all, teenagers are concerned about these same things, but there is other major difference between teenagers with and without disability that makes interpersonal relationships more difficult. That difference is the social stigma that is attached to being identified or labelled as a person with a disability (Sitlington et al 2000:235).

The quality of the relationships developed with different people influences our satisfaction with our lives and provides sources of support in meeting the demands and challenges of adult life. The skills necessary to develop and maintain relationships are learned between the ages of 12 and 22 years (McDonnell et al 1995:229).

Social skills are necessary to be able to take part and be accepted in community activities.

v Integrated community participation
Life skills needed for integrated community participation overlap considerably with integrated community skills, communication skills, self-determination skills, independent living skills, employment skills and leisure and recreation skills (Sitlington et al 2000:237).
For the intellectually disabled transport options are often limited. Hernandez, Cometa, Rosen and Velcoff (2006:5) state that some learners struggle to find reliable and accessible public transport and constantly had to rely on others for transportation. Rose, Saunders, Hensel and Kroese (2005:15) found that 94% of participants had transport problems.

One of the most discouraging barriers to successful transition for learners as they move from school to adult life is the lack of satisfactory or satisfying residential alternatives. In South Africa social workers render a variety of community based services to persons who experience social needs as a result of a disability and/or illness. These services are rendered through departmental service points and other service points that are managed by Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and Community Based Organizations (CBOs) (Service delivery-focus groups-disabled).

There are thousands of agencies in the United States that provide assistance for people with developmental disabilities. They include state-run, for-profit, and non-profit privately run agencies. Within one agency there could be departments that include fully staffed residential homes, day habilitation programmes that approximate schools, workshops wherein people with disabilities can obtain jobs, programmes that assist people with developmental disabilities in obtaining jobs in the community, programmes that provide support for people with developmental disabilities who have their own apartments and programmes that assist them with raising their children (Mental retardation).

As integrated community participation overlaps with other areas, so does health care and fitness overlap with community participation, self-determination and communication.

vi Health care and fitness
It is important that health and fitness be addressed individually and that all students have access to physical education and health classes. Knowing how important it may be for many learners with disabilities to improve their weight, endurance, flexibility, strength,
and stamina, physical education classes is important, both as required and elective classes (Sitlington et al 2000:241-242).

Marais and Labadarios (2004:1) state that disabled children are globally known to be at high risk for developing malnutrition. Malnutrition ranges from a 43% prevalence of under-nutrition to a 3% prevalence of over-nutrition compared with reference values for healthy children. They state that the most common factors contributing to the nutritional disorders seen in these learners include:

- Inadequate nutrient intake
- Obesity and low activity level
- Constipation and
- Nutrient-drug interactions and allergies

Health and safety concerns for which some learners might need instruction includes: preventing colds and other contagious conditions, preventing infections, preventing sexually transmitted diseases, first aid, immunizations, food handling and storage, nutrition, healthy sleep patterns, personal hygiene, substance abuse and use of over the counter and prescription medications (Sitlington et al 2000:242).

The individual’s health will determine the possibility for independent or interdependent daily living to a certain extent.

vii Independent/ Interdependent daily living

The team should determine which residential alternative is the most appropriate for the learner. Sitlington et al (2000:108) refer to independent and interdependent daily living.

The degree to which a person knows about and can perform daily living tasks is directly tied to how independent he/she is. Categories in this section include: managing finances, selecting and maintaining a home, caring for personal needs, buying and preparing food, buying and caring for clothes, engaging in civic activities, using recreation and leisure and getting around in the community (mobility). The specific transportation needs for
facilitating access to vocational, residential and leisure alternatives should be determined (Sitlington et al 2000:243).

Leisure and recreation
Facilitating recreation and leisure goals and objectives in a transition plan must be desired, preferred, and chosen by the individual. Many disabled learners need assistance to learn how to use their recreation and leisure time constructively. Do not develop transition goal statements that essentially force the learner to participate in recreational activities that are not of personal interest or value. Planning often focuses first on exploring types of skills and activities that interest the learner. The goals might focus upon supporting the learner to use his/her leisure time constructively and in ways that are personally enriching. Next steps can include helping the learner to locate those activities in the school, neighborhood, and/or community, then supporting his/her participation (Adult life roles no date). Research indicates that 56% of people with disabilities engage in no leisure time activity compared to 36% of people without disabilities (Stanish, Temple & Frey 2006:13).

Physical activity directly correlates with the development of chronic diseases such as obesity and diabetes. Individuals with intellectual disability also have fewer opportunities for exercise (Stanish et al 2006:13-14) and therefore the committee needs to emphasise the importance of leisure and recreation. As walking is one of the most common physical activities carried out by intellectually disabled learners (Stanish et al 2006:18), this can be suggested as an activity.

As with the careful planning of the learner’s transition, educators also need in-depth knowledge on the processes and procedures of vocational and transition assessment.

Transition assessment
Clark (in Sitlington et al 2000:104) defines transition assessment as a planned, continuous process of obtaining, organising and using information to assist individuals
with disabilities of all ages and their families to make a critical transition in learners’ lives both successful and satisfying.

Sitlington et al (2000:110-118) describe basic methods of gathering information on the individual in need of transition assessment as shown in Figure 2.4.

**FIGURE 2.4 TRANSITION ASSESSMENT**

1. **Analysis of background information**
   
   Existing records which contain observations of previous teachers, past IVPs and learner portfolios can be used to analyse the learner’s background. Although previous information should be considered, time must be taken to form opinions based on the teacher’s own observations and experiences with the learner as well as his/her self reports (Sitlington et al 2000:111) obtainable from interviews and questionnaires.

2. **Interviews/questionnaires**
   
   Interviews with the learner, family members, former teachers, friends and counsellors may be one of the best sources of information on how the individual functions in the real world and what he/she would like to do as an adult. Frequently brothers and sisters of learners have more realistic and accurate information than their parents about their
siblings’ long term goals, their social and personal aspiration and their abilities (Sitlington et al 2000:112).

Written and verbal tests that are easy and inexpensive to administer can assist the teacher in vocational and transition assessment.

### iii Psychometric instruments

Psychometric tests should not be used as the only method of gathering information to assist the learner and the family in vocational and transition planning. Venn (1994:358) states that the advantage of written vocational interest tests is that evaluators can administer and score them efficiently in short time periods. The major drawback is that, in some cases, written test results differ from assessment results derived from observation and actual learner performance in real work situations.

The two most often vocational interest inventories used for intellectually disabled learners are the Becker Reading Free Vocational Interest Inventory and the Wide Range Interest Opinion Test (WRIOT). The Reading Free Vocational Interest Inventory is a picture test consisting of 55 sets of three pictures that contain 11 interest areas. The test takes 20 minutes to administer and is best used as a screening, rather than a diagnostic tool (AAMD-Becker Reading Free Vocational Interest Inventory). The Wide Range Interest Opinion Test (WRIOT) is a picture test that measures vocational interest with a series of line drawings showing people in various work-related situations. In both these tests the learners indicate their preferences from among various drawings. The drawings that the learner likes best and least serve as the basis for determining vocational interests (Venn 1994:362).

The Work Personality Profile (WPP) is a 58 item, behaviourally orientated work assessment instrument scored in 11 primary scales and 5 high order factor scales. The 5 factor scales are identified as task orientation, social skills, work motivation, work conformance and personal presentation (Bolton & Roessler 2003:39).
Lately Augmentative and Alternative Communication strategies have been developed and are used by people to describe the way they supplement their communication when they can not speak clearly enough to be understood by those around them (What is AAC? http://www.caac.up.ac.za/pages/what.html). These strategies include a wide range of communication methods ranging from graphics, gestures and communication board to assistive communication devices. Augmentative and alternative forms of communication give every individual ways to express needs and wants, to share their feelings, thoughts and ideas to those with whom they interact (What is AAC? http://www.caac.up.ac.za/pages/what.html).

The Talking Mats interview tool that facilitates Augmentative and Alternative Communication strategies is a simple techniques involving physically moving the graphic symbols around on a mat to facilitate a discussion of a topic (Brewster 2004:166), in this case vocational interests. This pictorial framework, produced with a software package, is based on three sets of picture symbols that are presented to the learner. The three sets consists of topics that are relevant to vocational interests, options relating to each topic and emotions in order to allow the learners to indicate their feeling about each option. Velcro is attached to the back of the pictures which is then placed on a small mat (approximately 600 X 300 mm). The Velcro ensures that the pictures can not move around easily (Cameron & Murphy 2002:105-106; Murphy, Tester, Hubbard, Downs & MacDonald 2005:97).

Effective use of Talking Mats is linked to the participants’ functional comprehension and they need to be able to process more than two key words at a time. Talking Mats provides a low cost, simple, enjoyable, easily available resource to determine learners’ interests (Murphy, Cameron, Watson & Markova 2005:11) to encourage interaction and conversation, to express views in a non-threatening situation, to explore differences of opinions and to explore sensitive topics (Cameron & Murphy 2002:111).
Psychometric tests have limited ability to predict performance in actual vocational en transition situations (Venn 1994:366). These tests together with other assessment forms, like work samples, can provide better transition assessment.

iv Work samples

Most traditional occupational assessments for the disabled use standardised and normalised pen-and-paper psychological tests. But tests of this sort are suitable only for workers without intellectual recognition problems, and they frequently lead to under-estimation of the potential, or even to an erroneous determination of inability to work, of persons with intellectual disabilities. To address the deficiencies of this traditional test method, work samples were developed that allow testing methods and contents to more closely approximate actual working conditions while permitting observation of attitudes toward learning, interest, working habits and social skills of those being tested. This provides for an accurate assessment of the qualities and abilities of the disabled, and helps in finding suitable jobs for them. Work samples are tasks, materials, tools and equipment taken from real jobs and used to measure vocational interest and potential (The development and application of work samples for the disabled).

Most commercial work samples are expensive and require a large area to use and not suitable for classroom usage. Commercial work sample systems include Valpar Component Work Sample System, Test Orientation and Work Evaluation In Rehabilitation (TOWER) (International Centre for the Disabled), Singer Career System (Singer Educational Division) and Talent Assessment Programme (TAP) (Venn 1994:367-369).

Many teachers design and make their own samples for assessing learner interests and aptitudes. Non-commercial work samples give learners hands-on experience with tasks associated with real jobs, they are usually inexpensive and teachers can individualise them to meet the particular interests of learners. Examples of typical non-commercial work samples include the following: simple assembly tasks such as packaging, clerical
tasks such as collating, maintenance and sanitation jobs and jobs associated with running small businesses (Venn 1994:369).

Work samples can be used to assess an individual’s interests, abilities, work habits, personal and social skills. The key to administering work samples is to observe and document information concerning the level of interest, attention to the task and requests for assistance or clarification in addition to the individual’s actual performance of the task (Sitlington et al 2000:113).

The work sample approach provides assessment data that are not available from written tests and is one of the major thrusts in the field of education toward curriculum based assessment.

\[v\] \textit{Curriculum based assessment techniques.}

This assessment is based on what a learner has been taught within a curriculum. This assessment must be seen as an approach rather than one specified method. Curriculum based assessment instruments can be developed by the teacher and should focus specifically on the content being taught (Sitlington et al 2000:114).

With curriculum based assessment, information can be gathered on academic skills and how the learners learn best, as well as work habits, preferences and values (Sitlington et al 2000:116). Behavioural assessment is best done by making use of situational assessment.

\[vi\] \textit{Situational assessment}

Situational assessment is the systematic observation process for evaluating behaviour in environments as close as possible to the individual’s future living, working or educational environment (Sitlington et al 2000:114). It can be done on the job, in real or simulated environment such as vocational training settings, simulated work stations and job tryouts in the community. Situational assessment can be used to collect data on learners’ interests, abilities, interpersonal and social skills, and accommodations and needs in
school based work sites and community based work sites (Sitlington et al 2000:114). Crouch and Alers (2005:224) refer to situational assessment as “knowing the worker”.

It is important to have an organised approach for tying the information gathered through the assessment process into vocational and transition planning. This involves developing an assessment plan, making the match between each learner’s strengths, preferences and interests and the demands of future environments, and using the assessment information properly. There is a match if the learner’s profile is compared with the job profile and then it is determined that the learner will be able to perform the essential requirements of the job (Crouch & Alers 2005:224).

Vocational and transition planning and assessment are helpful in making decisions on curriculum content and instruction.

2.4.2.3 Community reference curriculum and instruction
Sitlington et al (2000:137) state that particular emphasis in community referenced curriculum and instruction will be needed in the following three areas, namely occupational awareness, employment related knowledge and skills and specific vocational knowledge and skills as shown in Figure 2.5.

**FIGURE 2.5 COMMUNITY REFERENCED CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION**
Occupational awareness.

Clark, Carlson, Fisher, Cook and D’Alonzo (in Sitlington et al 2000:138 - 139) have detailed the kinds of information that learners with intellectual disability need to learn, beginning in the early childhood years.

i. Occupational roles

The programme should provide new or expanded awareness of possible roles for the intellectually disabled. The possibility of productive work, including paid and unpaid work, must be stressed. This includes awareness of roles such as the work of the child as a learner in school, work as a volunteer, the work at home as an unpaid family worker, or the work activities which form part of daily living (washing clothes, polishing shoes, repair work) (Sitlington et al 2000:138 - 139).

Vocational tasks suitable for the intellectually disabled have been categorised in a variety of categories as follows: manufacturing or product assembly, janitorial services, recycling, food service, retail customer service, office work, research support and child care (Melchiori & Church 1997:405).

In fulfilling the occupational role, the learner will have to communicate with his/her co-workers and superiors to be socially accepted.

ii. Occupational vocabulary

Learners must develop vocabularies to acquire information basic to occupational roles. Section 2.4.2.2 refers to the importance of communication as part of the knowledge and skills domain in the person centred planning and transition assessment.

iii. Occupational alternatives

As an intellectual disability lessen opportunities and the impact of learning is experienced negatively, interest development is influenced adversely. As a result, intellectually
disabled learners may exhibit flat interest profiles or have a limited repertoire from which to choose among various occupations (Szymanski 1996:2).

Occupation alternatives are influenced by the context in which people live. Contextual factors include family, education and socioeconomic status. Socioeconomic status is known to impact on opportunity structure and subsequent employment status (Szymanski 1996:3)

Learners need basic information on the realities of the world of work in making tentative and realistic choices.

**iv. Information on realities and benefits of the world of work**

Work is a highly valued activity and offers numerous benefits to wage earners, both with and without a disability (West, Wehman & Wehman 2005:52). Lovelace (2006), Schur (2002), Stephens, Collins & Dodder (2003) and West et al (2005) refer to the benefits of work for intellectually disabled and developmentally disabled (not necessarily, but often also intellectually impaired) people. These include:

- Society tends to judge the worth of an individual by his/her productivity. Performing real work and paying taxes can enhance an individual’s status and self-worth (West et al 2005:52)
- Wages and fringe benefits received through work offer employees increased financial security and greater control over personal life choices (West et al 2005:52). Work creates economic independence and increases the standard of living. As fewer people depend on disability benefits, the government saves on the costs of grants as well as administration (Pauw no date: 1)
- Individuals who work are perceived in a productive and competent role, a role that decreases the stigma associated frequently with disability (West et al 2005:52)
- Work offers an individual with impairment the opportunity to interact with co-workers, develop interpersonal relationships, and arrange social activities after
work hours (Lovelace 2006:72, West et al 2005:52), thus alleviating social isolation. Research by Schur (2002:344) indicates that while employed people with disabilities have less time to participate in groups, they are still about 10 percentage points more likely to meet regularly with groups than those who are not employed. There is no significant difference in group attendance between employed and non-employed people without disabilities, indicating that the lack of employment is more isolating for people with disabilities.

- Earning a living through participation in work contributes to increased independence, improved quality of life, and personal satisfaction (West et al 2005:52). Employment increases overall life satisfaction and the feeling of being useful and needed; it reduces feeling “down-hearted and blue” to a greater extent among people with disabilities than among non-disabled respondents. Measures of psychological well being are particularly low among non-employed people with disabilities (Schur 2002:344).

- Employment helps people develop a variety of skills that are useful not only in the workplace but in other areas of life, such as community and political participation (Jacobsen 2003:1, Lovelace 2006:72, Schur 2002:344). Research by Schur (2002:344) found that employment plays an important role in increasing the civic skills of people with disabilities, although they remain below the level of employed people without disabilities. Stephens et al (2003:470, 483) indicates that as people move to employment, scores on adaptive skills increase, that as people move from employment, adaptive skills decrease, and that as employment status remains constant, adaptive skills also remain unchanged. The same pattern of changes in adaptive skills was found in different types of employment (sheltered, supported and competitive). Changes to more/less competitive employment was accompanied by more/less adaptive skills (Stephens et al 2003:470,483).

- Schur’s (2002:346) research findings indicate that one fifth of employed respondents with disabilities reported encountering disability discrimination in the past five years, compared with almost one third of the non-employed people with
disabilities. Employed respondents were also less likely to take action against perceived discrimination.

As with occupational awareness, there is considerable scope in the content of employment related knowledge and skills. It can be simplified with priorities established for which content elements are the most critical for learners with intellectual disability.

b. Employment related knowledge and skills
Each school programme must decide for itself what should be taught, to whom and in what way. Ideally, the school should lay out a scope and sequence curriculum for all the learners and ensure that all the learners have access to it. Decisions must be made about how learners can acquire this information (Sitlington et al 2000:144)

Teaching self-determination skills involves an important aspect of the vocational training and transition planning programme. Bremer, Kachgal and Schoeller (2003:2) state that teaching self-determination involves the following:

- how to promote choice making about clothing, social activities, family events and allow mistakes and natural consequences;
- how to encourage exploration of possibilities in jobs, hobbies and the world;
- how to take reasonable risks and how to build safety nets through family members, friends, schools and others;
- how to develop self-esteem by creating a sense of belonging within schools and communities;
- how to solve problems by teaching problem solving skills and accept problems as part of healthy development.
- how to accept an value oneself, including admiring strengths that come from uniqueness, recognising and respect in one’s own rights and responsibilities, taking care of one’s physical and emotional well being;
- how to be a self-advocate for oneself at school or in the community including how to describe the disability one has that requires special education, how to communicate needs for accommodations or supports, how to solve problems
related to barriers one experiences in pursuing goals, how to defend a position related to one’s rights, how to handle conflict or disagreements over preferences and interests;
- how to make plans for oneself, including how to set realistic goals, how to plan actions to meet goals, how to anticipate results, how to be creative in planning actions to meet goals, how to visually rehearse a plan of action;
- how to participate actively in one’s own transition planning.

Self-determination skills cannot be taught without successfully mastering the specific foundation knowledge and skills like reading, writing, creative thinking and responsibility.

c. Specific vocational knowledge and skills

Vakil, Welton and Khanna (2002:49) focus on three aspects in a vocational programme, namely learner capabilities, society expectations and market demands.

i Learner capabilities

The Secretary’s Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS) (Sitlington et al 2000:144) identified foundation skills areas and basic competency areas that must form part of the curriculum instruction. The content of these areas are taught in accordance to the learners’ capabilities.

Sitlington et al (2000:146-147) distinguish between three foundation skills, namely basic skills, thinking skills and personal qualities. Basic skills involves reading, writing, mathematics, listening and speaking while thinking skills involves creative thinking, decision-making, problem solving, seeing things in the mind’s eye, knowing how to learn and reasoning. Personal qualities are described as responsibility, self-esteem, sociability, self-management and honesty.

Social skills form the basis for social competence. Bremer and Smith (2004:1) define social competence as “the degree to which students are able to establish and maintain
satisfactory interpersonal relationships, gain peer acceptance, establish and maintain relationships, and terminate negative or pernicious interpersonal relationships. The five dimensions of social skills are:

- peer relational skills
- self management skills
- academic skills
- compliance skills
- assertion skills (Bremer & Smith 2004:1).

Sitlington et al (2000:146-147) distinguish between five competency areas to be taught to the learner in accordance with his/her capabilities, namely:

- Interpersonal competencies include: participates as a member of a team, teaches others new skills, serves customers/clients, exercises leadership, negotiates, and works with diversity
- Information competencies are described as acquiring and evaluation of information, organization and maintaining of information, interpreting and communication of information, and using computers to process information
- Competency with technology encompasses to select technology, apply the technology to the task and maintaining and troubleshooting equipment
- System competency includes understanding of systems, monitoring and correcting performance and improving or designing systems
- Resource competencies are described as being competent with time, money, material and facilities (acquires, stores, allocates and uses) and human resources (assesses skills and distributes work accordingly) (Sitlington et al 2000:146-147).

Learning occurs in circumstances other than schools (Rainbird, Fuller & Munro 2004:113). Learners with severe disabilities do not readily generalise skills learned in school settings to natural settings without substantial training. Research has shown that learners with intellectual disability, autism or multiple disabilities are the least likely to have their experiences in a general education vocational classroom be the same as those
of learners in the class as a whole (Cameto & Wagner 2003:7). A critical variable in selecting activities is whether they will become part of the learner’s day-to-day life.

Learners engage and learn in workplaces as directed by their personal goals and directions. Therefore, workplaces and homes can be as rich learning environments as any other school setting. Nonetheless, different kinds of settings provide experiences that can make particular contributions. However, participation and learning are not situationally determined, as learners elect how they engage in workplaces (Rainbird et al 2004:109-110).

Gramlich et al (2003:1) state that the potential benefits of work based learning for youth while they are still in school are amongst others that they identify their interests, skills and get to know their abilities. Furthermore they get exposed to job requirements and job responsibilities, expectations their employer may have and the workplace etiquette and dynamics. They also develop critical workplace skills and a solid foundation for good work habits. These mentioned factors will improve their post school outcomes.

In teaching knowledge and skills according to the learner’s capabilities, it must be kept in mind that the learner must fit into society.

**ii Society expectations**

Gallagher (2002:203,205) refers to Barnett’s statement, namely: “Intellectual disability cannot be understood simply as an individual characteristic, rather, the judgment that someone is intellectually disabled reflects the interaction between the cognitive abilities of the individual and those required by the society at a given historical moment”. He elaborates on this statement by saying that people are disabled by the way the society is structured. We exclude some people as too troublesome. Society subtly expects them to be failures and inadequate and unsubtly communicates this to the disabled person and his/her family on a continuous basis. More emphasis is put on acceptance of the disability than on overcoming it.
Gallagher (2002:207) asks the question: “Should the intellectually disabled learner not try to learn to read, drive a car, find a partner?” The goal is that the curriculum must meet the demands of living and working in the community and to use instructional strategies that will allow learners to transfer skills learned in school to everyday activities (McDonnell et al 1995:233). The instructional units in the curriculum must be activities rather than isolated skills and the overall structure of the curriculum content must reflect the domains of adult life. Adult life cannot be neatly segmented to reflect traditional content or curriculum domains such as reading, maths, communication-, social- or motor skills (McDonnell et al 1995:233).

Instead adult life consists of a variety of domains which can be summarised in three domains, namely a leisure domain, personal management and a work domain. The leisure domain includes activities that can occupy one’s discretionary time, such as chatting with friends during work breaks, going to a movie, making a scrapbook or playing a game. The personal management domain includes activities necessary to care for one’s personal being (e.g., medical and health issues, transport and mobility) and belongings and to manage one’s time, finances and possessions. Personal management activities include such things as home management and related activities, for example, cleaning one’s bedroom, preparing dinner, shopping and using public restrooms. The work domain includes those activities like employment that might represent an individual’s claim on wages, such as, mowing a neighbour’s lawn (McDonnell et al 1995:237, Wade 2004:no page numbers).

Learners should have access to community based instruction that expose them to the range of employment alternatives available to them following graduation. This ‘sampling’ of work alternatives in non paid job placements provides learners with the opportunities to learn work and work related skills that will be important to their future employment and to identify their own personal employment strengths and interests (McDonnell et al 1995:237).

**iii Market demands**
Vakil et al (2002:49) describe market demands as efficiency and effectiveness demanded on the job. The learner has to extend his/her basic skills further to specific skills necessary for the job, complete the task in a relevant time and according to the necessary criteria set for the job.

The responsibility for teaching the content of the curriculum is usually left to the teachers only. However, parents and family members have to actively take part in putting together the learner’s IVP.

2.4.2.4 Individualised Vocation Programme
An IVP is a written document that describes the vocational plan for a learner with a disability (McGahee-Kovac 2002:4). Among other things it talks about the learners’ disability, what skills need to be learnt, what services the school will provide and where learning will take place. Furthermore, this plan should reflect a learner’s interests and preferences, current accomplishments and skills that they still need to learn, as well as what they want to do in life. This can include a range of goals, everything from the type of career the learner would like to pursue to the kind of living situation he/she hopes to have (Parent Brief: Person centred planning: A tool for transition 2004). The IVP is developed during an IVP meeting (McGahee-Kovac 2002:4; Vakil et al 2002:49).

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA ’97) requires that a learner’s IVP includes transition planning. The four steps in the planning of an IVP include the choosing of a facilitator, designing the planning process, holding the meeting and strategising the follow up meetings as described shortly in the following four steps (Parent Brief: Person centred planning: A tool for transition 2004).

Step 1: Choosing a facilitator
A facilitator needs to be a good listener, work creatively to shape the dreams of the individual, discover the capacities within the individual and be a community builder. The facilitator can be a family member, school staff member or a consultant.

Step 2: Designing the planning process
Parents, families, and the person with a disability will develop a list of people they want to invite to the IVP meeting, identify a date and time for the initial and follow up meetings and determine the place that will be the most convenient for everyone. They should develop a history or personal life story or profile of the disabled person and describe the quality of the focus person’s life by exploring community participation and competence. They should also describe the person’s personal preferences and the dislikes to get a complete picture.

Step 3: Holding the meeting: Implementing the person centred planning process
Review the personal profile and identify ongoing events that are likely to affect the person’s life (for example: threatening health conditions) and share visions for the future through brainstorming. Identify obstacles and opportunities and identify strategies and action steps for implementing a vision. Create and action plan and identify what is to be done, who will do it, when the action will happen and when they will meet again.

Step 4: Planning and strategizing the follow up meetings
Implementing the plan can require persistence, problem solving and creativity. Periodically bring the team together again to discuss what parts of the plan are working and what parts are not. Again identify what is to be done, who will do it, when the action will happen and when they will meet again.

It is critical that the young adult with a disability actively participate in the meetings – regardless of the severity of the disability. In this regard, Gallagher (2002:206) notes that until twenty years ago the viewpoint of the disabled was not taken into account, only that of the family. They also have a number of responsibilities when it comes to participating in the meetings. They need to think about what they really want for the future, identify what kind of help and support they might need to achieve their goals, and come prepared to share this information with their team (Parent Brief: Person centred planning: A tool for transition 2004). Despite growing interest in using person centred planning to drive the transition process, it is not yet common practice. One reason for this may be that many people believe this process is too time consuming (Parent Brief: Person centred
planning: A tool for transition 2004). The law requires that the IVP is reviewed and revised at least once a year (McGahee-Kovac 2002:4). This process may be more efficient in the long run (Parent Brief: Person centred planning: A tool for transition 2004).

Cameto, Marder, Wagner and Cardoso (2003:1) state that combining the curriculum content and instruction with job placement that can be on or off the school campus will ease transition from school to work. This concept gives learners the opportunity to get curriculum content input and learn specific job skills.

2.4.2.5 **Job placement and training**

Job placement, training and supervision tasks may be assumed by a professional who does this as a full time job or by a classroom teacher who teaches for a portion of the day and serves as placement coordinator for the remainder of the day (Sitlington et al 2000:171).

Sitlington et al (2000:171) state that the advantages of a full time coordinator are that they can focus full time on the placement and supervision of learners on the job and they can be on call for the training sponsor at all times. The advantages of a position where the coordinator teaches half days and works with learners in the workplace the other half are that they work daily with learners in class, so they know them better, they know what other teachers and staff in the school and they can more easily infuse the skills needed by each learner into his/her other coursework.

Before the teacher begins to place learners she will need to have knowledge of where to find information on possible occupations and the labour market, knowledge of what to look for in work environments and an awareness of the legal considerations involved in placing learners on the work site (Sitlington et al 2000:173).

- Sources of occupational and labour market information
It is important to be aware of the range of occupations that currently exist in the world of work. The types of jobs that the disabled get warrant a closer look. For the most part, they are represented by one of the four F’s: flowers (horticulture), food, filth (janitorial), and factory (assembly) (Barbour 1999:172).

Research by Rose et al (2005:15) indicate that 42% of intellectually impaired learners wanted to work in factories, 23% in service industries, 15% chose manual work and 11,5% wanted to work in the caring professions. Morgan and Ellerd (2005:1-10) designed a CD-ROM programme for intellectually impaired learners with 120 suitable jobs divided into six domains: Mostly outdoors (grain farmer, brick mason, gardener, dairy farmer, nursery worker et cetera); Mostly indoors, heavy work done alone (for example, laundry worker, carpet cleaner, welder, shop painter etc); Mostly indoors, heavy work with co-workers (for example, restaurant cook, tool and die maker, veterinary assistant etc); Mostly indoors, heavy work with interaction with the public (for example, baggage porter, security guard, locksmith, waiter, baker etc); Mostly indoors, light work with co-workers (floral designer, pet care worker, pest control worker, bicycle repairer etc); and Mostly indoors, light work with interaction with the public (for example, manicurist, library assistant, service station attendant, dental assistant etc). The aim of the programme is to introduce the learner to a variety of suitable jobs from which a preference list can be made.

- Knowledge of the work environment

Firsthand knowledge on the information about the nature of work environments is necessary to make effective placements. Melchiori and Church’s (1997:401) research results show that extrinsic sources of job related motivation like working conditions have been repeatedly cited as more important than intrinsic sources of motivation (e.g. recognition, responsibility) for intellectually disabled learners.

Wehmeyer and Bolding (2001:380) state that the built environment (physical environment) influences activity by facilitating certain actions and limiting others. A small business tends to have a less flexible workplace and finds accommodating the
intellectually impaired correspondingly more difficult (Shaddock, Kilham, Spinks & Williams 2001:12). Employers often feel that adapting the job or the environment would put unmanageable financial pressure on the company (Robinson 2000:252). Learners with a mobility disability experienced stairs at the entrances of workplaces as the biggest barrier (Hernandez et al 2006:6).

The social networks of the intellectually impaired tend to be restricted and lack complexity (Shaddock et al 2001:6). They are less likely to socialise with friends outside the home or to be involved in religious, recreational, or other groups or activities (Schur 2002:340).

Co-workers tend to avoid interacting with employees who have speech disabilities because of the extra time and strain involved (Shur, Kruse & Blanck 2005:10). Research indicates that most interactions of the intellectually impaired concern greetings or instructions and they spent more time asking for information and joking (Shaddock et al 2001:11).

- Legal aspects of work based learning

When placing learners in work based learning sites either within the school system or in the community, it is critical to be aware of the legal issues that need to be considered. These aspects has been discussed in section 2.6 “South African laws and policies”.

To ensure successful job placement, the teacher’s knowledge on labour market information, knowledge on the working environment and the legal aspects must be applied in an organised and responsible matter.

a. Steps in placement

Many steps are involved in placing and supervising learners in the workplace. The first step, assessment of the learner, was discussed under transition assessment (refer section 2.4.4.2.b).
The second step includes conference with the learner, in other words involvement of the
learner in the assessment and overall placement process as discussed in section 2.4.2.4
under the IVP. Then contact must be made with the training person and the work site
must be analysed as discussed in section 2.4.2.5. The learner must be interviewed by the
training sponsor to discuss the role of the coordinator and the training sponsor in the
training process. The learner needs ongoing training and continuing evaluation

Research shows that work has an increased meaning for people with disabilities and also
carries a measure of esteem for these individuals. Job satisfaction has been found to be
correlated with attitudes towards one’s life and with general happiness. Uppal’s research
findings (2005:344) indicate that poor interpersonal relations have the strongest negative
impact on job satisfaction.

After job placement careful consideration must be given to the best way to teach the
learner the necessary skills needed in completing the job.

b. Job training and supervision

The amount and kind of training the learner needs varies extremely. Training is
influenced by previous work experience, physical and intellectual performance levels and
the nature of the job itself. Sitlington et al (2000:193) describe steps in the training of the
learner, namely:
- determine the method in which the task or routine is typically performed in the
  natural setting;
- decide on the content steps into which the job would be divided for the purpose of
teaching a typical employee in that setting;
- develop training and motivation strategies, taking into account the teaching,
support, reinforcement, and interaction approaches identified in the natural work
setting;
- train the learner in the actual skills in the setting in which they will be used,
- redo the training and motivation strategies, based on the individual’s needs and
learning style;
- break problem steps into smaller, more teachable steps;
- when needed, consider a different way of performing the task that is typical in the setting.

Schur et al (2005:16) suggest training programmes for employees that provide information about intellectual disability that can modify expectations, combat stereotypes and provide skills for dealing with the intellectually impaired in order to decrease discomfort and anxiety.

Advocacy activities are a major part of job training. Advocacy training can be promoted by encouraging communication and self-representation, praising all efforts of assertiveness and problem solving, providing opportunities for leadership roles at home and in school, practicing ways to disclose disability and accommodation needs and to create opportunities to speak about the disability in school, home, church, business and community (Bremer Kachgal & Schoeller 2003:2).

McDonnell et al (1995:241) state that job sampling must continue throughout high school for learners with severe disabilities. They must be placed in a number of non paid positions at actual job sites during this period. This will expose them to the actual job options available in the community in which they live, train them specific work skills (for example use of tools and equipment) and train work related skills (for example transportation, dressing skills).

Research states that students who are successful in obtaining and maintaining paid work in community settings following high school are those who receive ongoing opportunities for direct training in community employment sites throughout their high school career and obtain a paid job before graduation or after high school (Cameto & Wagner 2003:7-8; McDonnell et al 1995:241).

c. Maintaining a job
The types of jobs youth hold change, as they grow older. Younger learners are more likely to hold jobs in maintenance and personal care and older learners’ jobs in food service, retail and clerical jobs. Learners from families with higher incomes have higher rates of employment and higher wages. The employment rate for learners with disabilities from families with incomes of more than $25,000 is approximately 20 percentage points higher than that of youth from lower income families. The employment rates continue to be higher for white students (62%) than for African American (42%) or Hispanic students (36%) (Cameto et al 2003:1-5; Discussion Paper: Current challenges facing the future of secondary education and transition services for youth with disabilities in the United States 2004:13).

Gramlich et al (2003:2) refer to a lack of family involvement and support for work based learning as part of the school programme. Throughout school many families focus on success in reading, writing and maths. Many parents do not see work based learning as part of the school experience.

2.4.2.6 Family involvement
Families are very important in developing appropriate attitudes towards work in young people as they provide role models. A consistent observation in the disability literature is that learners with disabilities who have strong family support maintain their jobs. Parental attitudes to work and stable support needs are strongly linked to success. Clear and Mank’s research (as cited in Shaddock et al 2001:6) indicates that successful disabled employees relied on parents (63%), job coaches (46%), friends and neighbours (17%), and co-workers (8%). Many successfully employed people lived at home with parents.

Family involvement can be accomplished by direct participation in educational planning. They can provide invaluable information about the learner’s needs and preferences, the activities that will be the most meaningful to the learner in home, school and the community setting. According to McDonnell et al (1995:242), it is critical that educational planning be structured to encompass not only the learner’s needs but their needs as a member of a family. Unfortunately it is widely acknowledged that the participation of parents from diverse multicultural and economic backgrounds has been

Parents also have some specific needs. They may need help adjusting to the disability and understanding the probable future and employment outcomes for their child. They may feel a greater need to be involved in the child's life and decision making about their child's future education (Counselling considerations no date). Family relationships and support play a particularly influential role in the lives of youth from diverse cultural communities. Parents from culturally and racially diverse populations often prefer one on one meetings to more traditional training formats such as workshops (McDonnell et al 1995:242; Discussion Paper: Current challenges facing the future of secondary education and transition services for youth with disabilities in the United States 2004:12-13).

During the last several years of school the family must also be assisted in defining their role in supporting the learner’s transition from school to community life which may include a number of emotional issues like where the learner will live, where he/she will work, how much control the learner has over his own lifestyle choices et cetera. Recent surveys indicate that families seek information on helping youth develop self-advocacy skills, balancing academic instruction with functional life skills training, employment options that lead to competitive employment, financial planning, Medicaid, social security systems, housing options and interacting with the juvenile justices system (Cameto 2005:4; Discussion Paper: Current challenges facing the future of secondary education and transition services for youth with disabilities in the United States 2004:13).

The nature of relationships may change, but parents and family continue to play important roles in the lives of young adults with disabilities even after the age of majority. Family advocates continue to play a significant role while youth are developing their self-advocacy skills. Learners themselves report the need for their families to guide and support them as they plan for the future (Discussion Paper: Current challenges facing
the future of secondary education and transition services for youth with disabilities in the United States 2004:13).

Although parents and professionals are working together to forge new relationships, there remains a need to build the level of trust and collaboration between them. Furthermore, as communities become more diverse in culture, race, ethnicity and religious heritage, the challenge to involve families whose primary language is not English, who are recent immigrants with no formal school experience, families in poverty and low socio economic status and those who have had negative school experiences must be involved (Discussion Paper: Current challenges facing the future of secondary education and transition services for youth with disabilities in the United States 2004:12-13)

Family involvement concludes the structure of the secondary programmes in the United States. After the completion of the programme the learners receive a form of acknowledgement for their accomplishments.

2.4.3 Diploma options for learners with disabilities

The high school diploma is seen as a benchmark of success in the United States. The types of options vary from state to state. Some feel that having multiple diploma options hinder learners with disabilities because it can create confusion and doubt as to what the learner has accomplished. Instead of offering alternative diplomas to learners with disabilities they receive modified standard diplomas. Modifications may include reducing the number of credits required to graduate, lowering performance criteria, providing accommodations in coursework and altering curricula (Johnson, Thurlow, Cosio & Bremer 2005 1-2).

With learners who have an IVP the requirements are usually set by the learner’s IVP team and are therefore unique to each learner. This diploma is named and IVP Special Education Diploma. For learners who are enrolled in vocational programmes, this type of diploma certifies that a learner has demonstrated a specific level of competence in an occupational area and is named an Occupational Diploma. According to the National
Longitude Transitional Study 2 (NLTS2), research showed that learners with mental retardation, autism or multiple disabilities are the most likely to be enrolled in vocational education in a special education setting (Cameto & Wagner 2003:7-11; Johnson et al 2005:1-2).

Decisions about diploma options are made at the state level which will include administrators, educators and sometimes members of the community such as parents and concerned citizens (Johnson et al 2005:1-2). Those who support the use of multiple diploma options say it benefits learners with disabilities because by offering several paths to graduation helps some learners to stay in school rather than becoming frustrated and dropping out. Multiple diploma options are seen as providing a reasonable and fair approach to accommodating the diversity of learners’ abilities without diluting the standard diploma (Johnson et al 2005:1-2).

Proponents of a single diploma for all learners claim that the standard diploma help maintain high expectations and a consistent system across the diversity of learners who attend the schools (Johnson et al 2005:1-2).

In South Africa the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) is the system that records levels of learning achievement to ensure that the skills and knowledge that have been learned are recognised throughout the country (Cape Gateway Information on NQF qualification and unit standards 2006:1). One of the objectives of the NQF is to contribute to the full personal development of each learner and the social and economic development of the nation at large (Department of Labour. Labour market skills development programme 2006:5).

There are eight levels on the NQF. These levels are divided into three bands, namely general education and training (Grade 3-9 and ABET 1-4), further education and training (Grade 10-12, technical colleges, industry training) and higher education and training (degrees, national and higher national diplomas, research) (Cape Gateway Information on NQF qualification and unit standards 2006:1). Level 1 is the least complex with Grade 3
and ABET 1 on the same level, Grade 5 and ABET 2 and Grade 7 and ABET 3 on the same levels. Grade 9 and ABET 4 are on the same levels (The structure of the NQF 1). The opportunities for vocational training and transition education planning and diploma options for learners in South Africa differ greatly from the USA programmes.

2.5 SOUTH AFRICAN VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND TRANSITION PLANNING PROGRAMMES AND EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES

In United States of America there has been a tremendous surge in activity and achievement in vocational training and transition planning since 1993 to the present. In South Africa we are still in the process to try to develop a curriculum for learners with special education needs. Presently the mainstream curriculum is adapted to the needs of learners with intellectual disability.

2.5.1 Vocational training and transition planning curriculum
According to McGrath (in Akoojee, Gewer & McGrath 2005:1), the field of vocational education and training in southern Africa has been badly neglected. Vocational education and training has also attracted little attention in the policy community for more than a decade. This is very obvious, as no curriculum for learners with special educational needs has been formulated.

2.5.1.1 National Curriculum Statement
The Department of Education’s (RSA) documents states that the Life Orientation Learning Area will subsume the subject “guidance”. (Curriculum, institutional development and assessment. http://education.pwv.gov.za/DoE_Sites/Inclusive%20Education/Chapter5.doc). The education system in South Africa has often been criticised for its weakness in preparing learners for life and the world of work. The link between education and work becomes even more important with learners who experience barriers to learning and development. They state that providing work placements for learners while they are still in school is one important role that can be played by the
The Department of Education (RSA) states that the mechanisms and programmes that facilitate the transition of learners from school to work need to be provided by schools and this should be one of the roles of the life skills teacher. This is particularly important for learners who experience barriers to learning and development and who are generally marginalised from society as a result of negative stereotyping (Curriculum, institutional development and assessment. http://education.pwv.gov.za/DoE_Sites/Inclusive%20Education/Chapter5.doc).

The increased importance of skills in international debates suggests four main reasons why governments should pay more attention to vocational education and training. First, vocational education and training is seen as a crucial tool of economic development. Second, a lack of skills at the individual level is widely seen as a major element in poverty. Third, vocational education and training has been very powerfully linked over at least 35 years with the growing problem of youth unemployment and fourthly it also become linked to debates about responding to the HIV/AIDS pandemic. The massive death, illness and sero-positivity rates have huge implications for skills across the region (Akoojee et al 2005:4).

The Department of Labour launched a massive National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS) on 1 April 2005. The adjusted strategy replaced the first National Skills Development Strategy 2001-2005. Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA’s) and the National Skills Fund (NSF) form the core of the skills development programme in South Africa.

2.5.1.2 SETA’s
At the programme core of the new system is the learnerships. Learnerships are legislated by the Skills Development Act (Labour Relations Act Skills Development Act No. 97 of 1998) to include a complex contractual agreement for a fixed period between the learner,
the provider and the employer. The contractual agreement provides a framework for formalising the relationship between these three parties in realising the qualification. The Department of Labour’s new learnership programmes provide a ready made vehicle for combining theory, practice and work experience (Akoojee et al 2005:111).

However, there is a presently low participation in their delivery by colleges for two reasons. First, there is a financial problem with colleges receiving funding from both the Department of Education (RSA) and the Department of Labour. Second, there is a problem with accreditation by SETAs, who are responsible for registration and funding of learnerships. Private providers need to be accredited individually by the relevant SETA in order to be able to deliver a specific learnership. As a result, there is confusion and few registered learnerships being delivered in the colleges (Akoojee et al 2005:109).

Although there are signs of progress, there is too little provision of in-service training for employees, or other initiatives such as sharing of facilities and staff. Employers also need to be more proactive in making a success of the programme. Furthermore, colleges have been under resourced and undersupplied with laboratories and workshops (Akoojee et al 2005:109).

In September 2005 a school pre-learnership pilot project was launched in 53 schools countrywide with Service SETA’s. Some of the main objectives for this projects included bridging the skills gap between the world of schooling and the world of work. The project runs over two years and it is offered as an extra mural activity in the afternoons. Although it considers pupils with special learning needs, the learning material is targeted at Grades 10 and 11 learners (Services SETA notice – to all providers interested in participating in the services SETA pre-learnership programme 2006:1).

The Thabo Mbeki Development Trust for Disabled People (TMDT) has embarked on a pilot skills project for people with disabilities. Unfortunately the applicants must have between grade 8 – 10 qualifications, which is out of reach for the intellectually disabled.
Applicants are also required to have participated in a learnership before (Thabo Mebeki Development Trust – Thabo Mbeki Trust Disability Project).

There is a strong commitment to learnerships for the pre-employed. The employer commits to a period of employment during the time of the learnership, but not to subsequent employment (Akoojee et al 2005:112). According to a research study conducted by the Human Research Science Council on this project, it was clear that most learners applying for learnerships and those who are already on learnerships are not mature enough for integration into the working environment, hence this initiative (Services SETA notice – to all providers interested in participating in the services SETA pre-learnership programme 2006:1)

Twenty-seven different SETA’s are available ranging from financial and accounting, banking, chemical industries, clothing, construction, education and training, energy sector, food and beverages, forestry, health and welfare, information systems, insurance sector, local government, media, mining, manufacturing, services, tourism, transport and wholesale and retail sector (Learnerships. Transforming people transforming South Africa. 2003:4). Unfortunately the learning material of the SETA’s programmes is too difficult for learners with intellectual disability and learners with intellectual disability are not able to reach Grade 10 or 11. The Department of Education (RSA) has also decided in November 2005 not to proceed with the pre-learnerships after 2006.

Akoojee et al (2005:117) state that the greatest problem for this programme is the hostile labour market and economic environment. Take-up of learnerships and the placement in employment or learnership programmes for the pre-employed or unemployed are heavily constrained by the lack of employer demand for young labour market entrants.

2.5.1.3 Skills development centres
Skills development centres can either be state owned or privately owned. In 1996 there were 2 state owned training centres – Tembalihle and Enoch Sontoga. Presently these two centres have been amalgamated as one facility. Training centres conduct formal
accredited training courses to the disabled people. The duration of stay in these centres is only until the end of the duration of the course (Service delivery-focus groups-disabled http://www.socdev.ecprov.gov.za/services_service_delivery/focus_groups/disabled.htm).

A private skills development centre, “Progression Total Disability Solutions,” offers skills development initiatives and learnerships (Progression. Total disability solutions.1) They are situated in the Johannesburg area and their goal is to seek learnerships in the retail and wholesale, office administration and travel and tourism areas. In most cases the learner has to have a National Qualifications Framework (NQF) level 1 qualification (equals Grade 9). Very few if any intellectually disabled learner have a NQF level 1 qualification.

Living Link in Midrand offers an Adult Integration Programme, the Gap Project, employment in the open labour market by means of supported employment model, independent living and counselling (The Living Link). The Adult Integration Programme is a one year life skills training programme aimed at achieving independence at home and at work. This includes skills development, job sampling, independence camp, relationship coaching, parent workshops and work assessment. The Gap Project for intellectually disabled adults is aimed at adults who graduated from the Adult Integration Programme and are waiting to be successfully placed into permanent employment (The living link).

The Integrated National Disability Strategy White Paper states that one of the greatest hurdles disabled (intellectual disabled included) people face when trying to access mainstream programmes are negative attitudes. Disability is portrayed a ‘problem’. People with disabilities are viewed as helpless and dependent, as ill and in constant need of care and medical treatment or as tragic victims (Integrated National Disability Strategy White Paper 1997). Employers have myths and beliefs in connection with intellectually disabled learners, namely that they will demonstrate substandard attendance, productivity, dependability, adaptability to various jobs and increased costs of hiring (Blessing 1997:9). Schur et al (2005:10) add “embittered, needy and helpless” on the one hand and “saints”, meaning courageous, even tempered, easy to get along with and
unlikely to get angry on the other hand. Intellectually disabled learners are therefore often forced to take up employment in a protective environment.

2.5.2 Local employment possibilities for the intellectually disabled
Locally intellectually disabled learners have four possibilities to look at, depending on the abilities of the learner. Protective and sheltered employment, supported employment, competitive employment and obtaining employment with the help of an employment agency are discussed separately.

2.5.2.1 Protective and sheltered employment
Within the South African context protective workshops, training centres and supported employment are possible options for employment. Protective workshops are non-residential facilities in the community that are aiming at severely disabled persons. The aims of the protective workshops include to promote the quality of life and the dignity of the disabled, to promote constructive use of time amongst the disabled and to promote disabled persons’ independent functioning in the community for as long as possible. Protective workshops provide training, suitable work activities according to abilities, meals, medical services, transport, self-help skills and guidance in social functioning (Eastern Cape Department of Social Development. Service delivery-focus groups-disabled.1).

Crouch and Alers (2005:222) also refer to protective employment as sheltered employment. Sheltered employment is extended employment that is provided under special conditions to people with disabilities who, because of the nature and severity of their disability, are unable to perform a job under ordinary competitive working conditions. Sheltered employment may be provided by the state, but more often it is provided by private establishments, usually run by voluntary associations or rarely by commercial enterprises. The main disadvantages of sheltered employment is segregation from the employment mainstream, lack of (or inadequate) remuneration and hindrance of personal and vocational development.
Retish and Raiter (1999:250) differ from Crouch and Alers (2005:222) by saying that the goal of sheltered workshops is to assist their clientele in obtaining competitive employment, pay workers competitive or near competitive wages and to provide workers with typical fringe benefits found in industry. Sheltered workshops tend to be more integrated with disabled and nondisabled employees working together, and emphasise long-term rather than transitional employment. Despite this their annual placement rates for individuals with disabilities in competitive employment has remained at or below 2% annually.

2.5.2.2 Supported employment
Supported employment is a way of enabling learners who need additional assistance to obtain real jobs, so that they can enjoy the social and economic benefits of employment. Support is provided on an individual basis to both employer and employee for as long as it is required. Support is provided by either a job coach or a natural support. A job coach is usually a professional or paraprofessional who provides on-the-job support and advocacy services to the worker and helps them achieve independence in the employment setting. The job coach is expected to reduce their presence at the job site over time, as the learner becomes better adjusted and more independent. A natural support entails utilising appropriate personnel within the learner’s work environment to provide ongoing support, training and instruction. Several studies have indicated the advantage of natural supports over job coaches, in that the presence of a job coach may inhibit interaction between the worker with a disability and co-workers and supervisors (Crouch & Alers 2005:223).

2.5.2.3 Competitive employment
Competitive employment is described as normal, mainstream employment, where the employee performs work under similar conditions to all other workers, and accepts the same performance standards, regulations and remuneration system. Competitive employment can be performed with or without reasonable accommodations (Crouch & Alers 2005:223).
2.5.2.4 Employment agencies

In November 2002 an employment agency for the disabled was established in Florida in Gauteng (Dhliwayo 2002:1). They approached companies directly, talked to them, challenged and encouraged them to employ the disabled. They found the Equity Act helpful because companies are obliged to employ the physically challenged and then get a 50% subsidy for a year from the government. They screened, interviewed and verified the qualification of the candidates to ensure that employers were given the opportunity to employ suitable personnel who could do the job well. After the placement they made fortnight follow-ups for three months to see the performance of a placed person. They also talked to the placed person’s colleagues and supervisors to see if there were any problems being experienced. From the placement the company got 15% of the person’s total annual package, paid by the employer (Dhliwayo 2002:1-4).

Unfortunately the agency existed for 18 months only. The manager experienced that companies wanted to be able to ‘see’ the disability (like persons confined to a wheelchair); the other people in the workplace did not want to bond with the disabled; the intellectually disabled employees were nervous to travel on their own to the workplace and back; in general they lacked confidence and wanted to stay in protective areas; the public transport was so expensive that little if any salary was left over at the end of the month; and many intellectually disabled persons needed a volunteer to work with them.

Other employment agencies include Bradshaw LeRoux Consulting cc in Kwazulu Natal (Bradshaw LeRoux consulting cc), Abantu Bethu Consortium in Benoni (MBendi information for Africa), Progression (Progression. Total disability solutions), Inclusive Solutions and Employability Vulindlela (Disabled people South Africa). These agencies do temporary, permanent and learnership placements, disability management, disability awareness and sensitisation workshops, corporate training and other skills development services for unemployed youth and people with disabilities. They describe disability management as the selection, integration, accommodation and development of people with disabilities in the workplace in a manner that is consistent and fair.
The Association for People with Disabilities Gauteng North states that they provide further training for school leavers to equip them for employment in the open labour market to operate productively in a protective work environment. The learners are orientated using protective workshops whereby they are coached in CV compilation, job interviewing and work skills. They function as an employment agency and people capable of competing in the open labour market are placed when a position is available. This service endeavours to enhance economic independence and contribution to society instead of dependency from state grants (Association for People with Disabilities Gauteng). Although they have a well-presented and informative website, they do not give any contact possibilities and their telephone is not listed with Telkom.

Although South Africa has made progress with vocational training and transition planning, skills development, and employment possibilities, we still have a long way to go to meet the needs of the intellectually disabled learners. In creating opportunities for the intellectually disabled we need to adhere to the legal requirements.

2.6 POLICY AND LEGISLATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

Although many barriers such as widespread ignorance, fear and stereotypes have caused people with disabilities to be unfairly discriminated against in society and in employment, policies to protect the rights of people with disabilities has been formulated.

2.6.1 The South African Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995

The Labour Relations Act, 1995 reflects the vision of workers and employers’ rights as envisioned by the Constitution. The Act ensures the right to fair labour practices; to form and join trade unions and employers’ organisations; to organise and bargain collectively; and to strike and lock-out (South African Department of Labour 2004) The Code of Good Practice forms part of the Labour Relations Act.

The weakness of the Labour Relations Act lies in the fact that the Code of Good Practice is not enforceable, but rather provides employers and the courts with guidelines for
appropriate practice. The extreme levels of inequality and ongoing discrimination experienced by disabled people in the workplace suggest that the provisions of the Labour Relations Act are not sufficient to remove discriminatory practices, nor to support the creation of equal employment opportunities for people with disabilities (Integrated National Disability Strategy White Paper 1997:45).

Unfair discrimination against the disabled is perpetuated in the following ways (Government Gazette Republic of South Africa 23702 August 2002:5):

- Unfounded assumptions about the abilities and performance of job applicants and employees with disabilities;
- Advertising and interviewing arrangements which either exclude people with disabilities or limit their opportunities to prove themselves;
- Using selection tests which discriminate unfairly;
- Inaccessible workplaces;
- Inappropriate training for people with disabilities.

The government has passed the labour law to prevent the unjustified dismissal of individuals. It is the individual’s duty to know his/her rights on dismissal as well as his/her basic working conditions.

2.6.2 The South African Employment Act 1997

This law advances economic development and social justice by establishing and enforcing basic conditions of employment for workers. In the Basic Conditions of The South African Employment Act, 1998 section 28 to 43 the following are stated in connection with child labour:

- Children under 15 years of age are not allowed to work.
- Children found to be working in hazardous conditions even if it is not for gain and they are not attending school, are viewed as being engaged in child labour activities.
- Section 43 says that it is a criminal offence to employ a child. If found having
contravened the law, the employer can go to jail for up to three years (South African Department of Labour 2004).

- The South African Employment Act 1997 states that the individual may not work more than 45 hours any week. If you work continuously for more than five hours, you are allowed one continuous hour meal interval and you are not allowed to work on public holidays unless by mutual agreement between you and your employer. The individual is entitled to 21 consecutive days leave on full pay for every 12 months worked and 36 days sick leave in a three year cycle. In the case of termination of employment, you must get one week’s notice if you have worked for four weeks and if you have worked for more than four weeks but less than one year, you must get two weeks’ notice (South African Department of Labour 2004).

In the South African Employment Act working time, leave, payment, termination of work and child labour are discussed. The law also promotes and ensures equal opportunities in the workplace by eliminating unfair discrimination.

2.6.3 The South African Employment Equity Act, 1998
The South African Employment Equity Act, no 55 of 1998 constitutes one of the key legislative and policy interventions within the ethos of South Africa’s new constitution to give effect to the provisions relating to removal of policies which resulted in inequalities in the country. Specific emphasis is placed on ensuring equity, the right to equal protection and benefit of the law, inter alia, by people with disabilities (Government Gazette Republic of South Africa no 23712 2002:5).

The Disability Code of Good Practice on the Employment of People with Disabilities is part of a broader equality agenda for people with disabilities aimed at the recognition of their rights in the labour market where they experience high levels of unemployment and often remain in low status jobs or earn lower than average remuneration (Government Gazette Republic of South Africa no 23712 2002:5).
The types of discrimination that are prohibited according to the Act include discrimination against recruitment, pre-employment medical and psychological testing, access to and conditions of employment, training and promotion and classification posts, equal pay for like work and advertising relating to employment which indicates an intention to discriminate. The Act provides that discrimination occurs where one person is treated less favourably than another is, has been or would be treated (Sacht, Watkins & Niemann 2002:10).

The aims of the South African Employment Equity Act no 55 of 1998 Code of Good Practice on the Employment of People with Disabilities are as follows:

- To protect people with disabilities against unfair discrimination in the workplace and directs employers to implement affirmative action measures to redress discrimination;
- To serve as a guide for employers and employees on promoting equal opportunities and fair treatment for people with disabilities as required by the act;
- To help employers and employees understand their rights and obligations, promote certainty and reduce disputes to ensure that people with disabilities can enjoy and exercise their rights at work;
- To raise awareness of the contributions people with disabilities can make and to encourage employers to use the skills of such persons fully (Government Gazette Republic of South Africa no 23702 2002:6).

Despite the Employment Equity Act, research indicates that only 0.25% people with disabilities are employed in the public service, which is nowhere near the 2% that was the goal for 2005 (National Office on the Status of Disabled Persons (OSDP) 2003:4)

People are considered as persons with disabilities who satisfy all the criteria of having a physical or mental disability, which is long term or recurring and which substantially, limits their prospects of entry into, or advancement in employment. The act defines mental disability as a clinically recognized condition or illness that affects a person’s
thought processes, judgment or emotions (Government Gazette Republic of South Africa no 23702 2002: 7).

The Code of Good Practice on the Employment of People with Disabilities Act discusses reasonable accommodation for people with disabilities, the recruitment and selection process, medical and psychological testing and other similar assessments, the placement that involves the orientation and initial training of a new employee, training and career advancement, retaining people with disabilities, the termination of employment, workers’ compensation, confidentiality and disclosure of disability, employee benefits, employment equity planning in respect of people with disabilities and education and awareness (Government Gazette Republic of South Africa no 23702 t 2002: 7).


2.6.4 The Disability Rights Charter of South Africa
The Disability Rights Charter states that there will be no discrimination against disabled people, they shall be entitled to represent themselves, health and rehabilitation services shall be effective, accessible and affordable and they will have the right to mainstream education (Disabled people South Africa). They have the right to employment in the open labour market, to engage in sport and recreational activities, social security, housing, transport and accessibility to buildings. Disabled children and disabled women shall have the right to be treated with respect and dignity and disabled people shall be encouraged to live independently. They will have the right to communicate freely and participate in social life activities. All effective and appropriate steps shall be taken by the state and society to prevent disability, action shall be applied to address existing discriminatory practices and legislation shall be developed and enforced to provide all disable people with opportunities for the full enjoyment of all these rights (Disabled people South Africa).
The highest law in the country, to which every citizen and all other laws must abide, is the Constitution of South Africa of 1996.

2.6.5 The 1996 South African Constitution
Chapter 2 of the 1996 South African Constitution guarantees fundamental rights to all citizens (Integrated National Disability Strategy White paper 1997:23). It includes, in Section 9, the equality clause, and the right to freedom from discrimination based on a number of social criteria. Discrimination based on disability is specifically mentioned and disabled people are thus guaranteed the right to be treated equally and to enjoy the same rights as all other citizens. Provision is also made for affirmative action. Persons with disabilities have clearly been disadvantaged in the past and should benefit from this clause (Integrated National Disability Strategy White paper 1997:23).

Section 28 of the Constitution says that every child has the right to be protected from exploitative labour practices. Children should not be expected or permitted to perform work that:

- Is inappropriate for the child’s age or
- Place at risk the child’s well-being, education, physical or mental health, spiritual, moral or social development. Children who are not able to attend school are denied the right for personal development (South African Department of Labour).

Section 28(2) goes further: “A child’s best interests are of paramount importance in every matter concerning the child.” (National Office on the Status of the Disabled Persons 2003:32).

The Government has acknowledged that the first Reconstruction and Development White Paper did not address disability in an integrated manner.

2.6.6 The South African Reconstruction and Development Programme
The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) White paper states: “The Government will design, in consultation with disabled people, a comprehensive programme for the disabled which will enhance their engagement in society and remove discrimination practices against them especially in the workplace. Government will also
discuss means to reintegrate mentally and physically disabled people into their communities” (Integrated National Disability Strategy White paper 1997:22).

The goal of the mentioned programme is reached in the promotion of equality and prevention of unfair discrimination act.

2.6.7 The South African Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Amendment Bill

The act prohibits unfair discrimination on any ground, including the 16 grounds explicitly listed in the 1996 South African Constitution. Section 6 of the Act, together with section 1(1)(vii), prohibits unfair discrimination by both the State and “any person”. It defines discrimination as: “any act or omission that causes harm to an individual because it imposes burdens or withholds benefits, opportunities or advantages on one or more of the prohibited grounds” (The South African Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Amendment Bill 2002).

Prohibited grounds include race, sex, gender, sexual orientation, age, pregnancy and disability. Thus, denial of access to such benefits as housing, health care, social security, sufficient food and water and education on any of the listed grounds, or any ground similar to the listed grounds, constitutes discrimination. Furthermore, it must be noted that the Act does not prohibit discrimination but unfair discrimination (The South African Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Amendment Bill 2002).

Though the South African Equality and prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act prevents discrimination against race, vocational training and transition planning is a challenge in a cultural diverse society.
2.7 VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND TRANSITION PLANNING PROGRAMME IN A CULTURAL DIVERSE SOCIETY

Sitlington et al (2000:255) state that the IVP serves as the guiding force when anticipating the course for a learner’s future.

The role of the educator is to help each learner to reach his/her highest level of self-determined behaviour. Cultural diversity influences the teaching of self-determination skills. The cultural expectations for some families in taking responsibility for caring for their own rather than looking to schools or agencies to provide assistance or resources in that care. In some cultural groups the traditional values are interdependence rather than independence, or others make decisions for the entire family rather than each family member assuming responsibility for personal decisions (Sitlington et al 2000:258).

The two guiding factors in self-determination behaviour in cultural diverse groups are:
- Cultural influences in an individual’s learning self-determination are important. Listen and learn from the learners and their families as they respond to your efforts to teach self-determination. Try to keep the concept of self-determination in context for the cultural system of which the learner is a part.
- Respect the cultural values of your learners and their families, even when they are different from your own.

2.8 CONCLUSION
From the literature study it is clear that vocational education and transition planning for learners with intellectual disability is complex. The responsibility for vocational education and transition planning cannot be taken lightly by educators and managers. For most parents it is an awesome responsibility, especially when they realise all that it involves. It is difficult to understand that the Department of Education (RSA) has not yet developed a curriculum suitable for learners with special educational needs and that most teachers do not value their professional role enough to recognise the shortcoming of vocational education and transition planning for intellectually disabled learners.
The steps necessary for the development of a programme have been discussed and an in-depth study of intellectual disability was done. Intellectually disabled learners are an extremely heterogeneous population. These variations have implications for future plans and job placements.

This literature study intended to describe the comprehensive vocational training and transition planning model used in the United States of America. The structure of the secondary programmes, consisting of six elements, with outcomes based programme evaluation, person centered transition planning and assessment, community references curriculum and instruction, individualised education programme, job placement and training and family involvement was discussed.

The ultimate accountability criterion for a vocational and transition planning programme is that it proves useful to its learners in all aspects of their lives. In South Africa very few opportunities for the intellectually disabled are available after they have left school. It is therefore necessary that a functional, life-centered, lifelong learning competencies approach must be planned for each learner as he/she nears the age to leave school.

Educational reform efforts that are constantly in the news will continue to spur the debate on how a curriculum for learners with special educational needs should be structured along with the required instructional content. This challenge is easier if educators are aware of legislative mandates that have an impact on the learners’ access to vocational education and transition planning options. The laws setting the boundaries for vocational education were discussed in this chapter.

The chapter is concluded with a description of the complex situation in South Africa with its culturally diverse society.
CHAPTER 3 DEVELOPMENT OF A VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND TRANSITION PLANNING PROGRAMME

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The first aim of this study is to identify the facets in the planning of a vocational training programme for intellectually disabled learners and to describe the necessary inputs to put this programme into action in Learners with Special Educational Needs (LSEN) schools for intellectually disabled learners.

The Education White Paper 6 on Inclusive Education (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2005:5) sets out to address the needs of all learners in one unitary education system. It moves from the categorisation of learners according to disability (medical model) to assessing the needs and levels of support required by individual learners to facilitate their maximum participation in the education system as a whole. The focus is on ensuring that there is sufficient differentiation in curriculum delivery to accommodate learner needs but it permits all schools to offer the same curriculum to learners while simultaneously ensuring variations in mode of delivery and assessment processes to accommodate all learners.

Research in the United States has identified a number of programme practices which are associated with the successful vocational training and transition planning of intellectually disabled learners (McDonnell Hardman, McDonnell & Kiefer-O’Donnell 1995:227). These practices include an Outcomes-based approach, person-centred transition planning and transition assessment, community referenced curriculum and instruction, an IVP, job placement prior to leaving school and the importance of family involvement as discussed in chapter 2. According to this framework a vocational training and transition planning programme for the intellectually disabled learners are developed.

As stated in the literature study a needs analysis is essential as a first step in programme planning.
3.2 NEEDS ANALYSIS

Though it is difficult to meet the needs of all the stakeholders, namely the Department of Education (RSA), the learners, the parents and the teachers the aim is to develop a programme that will satisfy as many stakeholders as possible. The Department of Education (RSA) expects special schools to adapt the National Curriculum Statement according to the needs of the learners (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2004:1-244) as described later in this chapter.

The results from research studies shows that the conative development of intellectually disabled learners is adversely affected by continuous experiences of failure and they therefore do not set meaningful goals for their future (Zhang & Stecker 2001:301). The researcher’s lengthy experience with intellectually disabled learners has made it clear that they have very little awareness of occupations and employment related knowledge and skills as also confirmed by Sitlington et al (2000:137). It was thus not necessary to conduct a needs analysis with the intellectually disabled learners.

Research shows that there is a lack of easily accessible information for parents and young people about what future possibilities might be. Families say they want more information about choices; speakers from different agencies to talk to, resource packs for the young person and their family, examples of choices made by other learners, and links with other parents who had already been through the process (The road ahead – literature review: 1). No formal needs assessment was done by the researcher before commencement of the research.

With this in mind the researcher focused on the knowledge and skill domains identified by McDonnell et al (1995:240) and Sitlington et al (2000:108) as needs to address all of the adult life areas and the related adult life areas. These needs were taken as starting point for the development of the programme.

Over years it became clear to the researcher that the teachers’ expectations are that a vocational and transition programme must meet the demands for semi-independent
working and living in the community, depending on the strengths and weaknesses of each individual learner. This was mentioned over and over again at strategic planning session at The Special School and set as one of the goals for the school.

Learners, teachers and parents have very little knowledge and information about vocational education and possibilities for learners after they have left school. This motivated the researcher to conduct the research.

3.3 PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT OF A PROGRAMME

Because of the numerous disabilities of the intellectually disabled learner and the high expectations of the National Curriculum Statement the researcher aimed to develop a vocational training and transition planning curriculum within the school environment by adapting the National Curriculum Statement (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2004:1-244) to suit the needs of the intellectually disabled learner and his/her family.

The planning and development of the programme was done according to the framework of vocational education and transition planning programmes in the United States of America as described in the literature study. A schematic representation of the programme is shown in Figure 3.1. Each sub section is discussed separately.

FIGURE 3.1 FRAMEWORK FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND TRANSITION PLANNING PROGRAMME
3.3.1 Adaptation to the National Curriculum Statement

3.3.1.1 Introduction
Curriculum adaptations are modifications that relate specifically to aspects of and contents of a curriculum. A curriculum adaptation is any adjustment or modification to learning, teaching and assessment environment, the assessment techniques, the support material that enhances a learner’s performance, the structure and number of learning programmes and assessment (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2005:8).

As mentioned in the Curriculum Adaptation Guidelines of the Revised National Curriculum Statement (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2005:8), the National Curriculum Statement has several components that are flexible enough to allow for adaptation. The various components that allow adaptation are listed as follow:

- The outcomes and assessment standards emphasise participatory, learner centred and activity based education. This leave room for creativity and innovation on the part of teachers in interpreting what and how to teach (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2002: 14).
- Learning outcomes do not prescribe content or method. Therefore, content and methodology could be appropriate for a learner’s needs (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2002: 14).
- Activities can be flexible (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2003: 10).
- The context can be made relevant to the learners’ needs (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2003: 10).
- Assessment strategies are flexible (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2003: 10).
- The learning programme can be structured to meet the needs of the specific learners (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2003: 10).
- Learners can communicate using assistive devices or any other communication method (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2003: 10).
• Expectations can be adapted to the abilities of the learner within the framework of high expectations (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2002: 14).

• Teachers are encouraged to consider any particular barriers to learning and assessment that exist in different Learning Areas and make provision for these when developing learning programmes (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2003:10).

• Assessment standards can be broken into finer components (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2003: 10).

• A lesson plan time allocation can range from a single activity up to a term’s teaching or more time if necessary, depending on the needs of the learner (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2003: 10).

The scale and extent of any curriculum adaptation was determined by the needs and strengths of the majority of the learners at the school or in a specific class. The learning programme had to be designed accordingly (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2005:10).

Intellectual disability includes a variety of disabilities and these learners each have their own distinct way of learning and we should not work towards making them conform to the National Curriculum Statement but help them to be successful in their unique way (Landsberg 2005:418). The straddling of grades and phases widens the possibilities for the intellectually disabled learner in achieving success in learning.

3.3.1.2 Curriculum straddling
The learners who experience barriers because of intellectual disability require a curriculum which straddles two or more grades of phases. Straddling is when a learner or group of learners at a specific grade or level work towards attaining assessment standards from more than one grade within learning areas or learning programmes (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2005:21). Learning programmes which are designed to fit the individual needs of a learner may straddle both grades and phases. An example is where a learner experiences intellectual disability but does well in gardening
and can achieve at Grade 7 level in assessment standards which relate to skills, which are achieved within Technology and Arts and Culture and Natural Sciences; however, he only achieves at Grade 3 level in Languages (adapted from: Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2005:21,24).

All assessment standards may not be achievable and so it would be necessary to select appropriate assessment standards to design a meaningful learning programme, taking into account the learners’ needs, strengths and interests within the principle of high expectations (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2005:28).

Learners with disabilities have the potential to learn but may not follow the same time span as typically developing learners (Landsberg 2005:418) and therefore designing down as adaptation method can be used.

3.3.1.3 Designing down
Designing down (breaking down or scaffolding) is one of the important principles of outcomes-based Education and the RNCS (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2005:23). In some learning areas designing down involves breaking down the assessment standard in order to build it up in a logical progressive way. Thus, designing down involves looking at an assessment standard and dividing this minimum expected set standard for the year end into smaller, achievable components which are spread across the duration of the year.

Curriculum straddling and designing down can be used effectively in curriculum adaptation, or in combination with other methods, depending on the severity of the intellectual disability.

3.3.1.4 Other methods
The number of learning programmes within the Intermediate and Senior Phase could vary according to the needs, strengths and interests of the learners. It is essential that the
learning outcomes and assessment standards as stated in the eight Learning Areas be addressed by the various learning programmes at a school, irrespective of the final number of learning programmes offered (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2005:24).

The duration of the learning programmes in mainstream schools is either four years in the Foundation Phase or three years in the Intermediate or Senior Phases. The duration of a learning programme in LSEN schools can be longer or shorter based on the range of needs of the learners (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2005:25).

The variety of leaning programmes that is presented for learners must ensure that all learning outcomes and assessment standards of the eight learning areas are effectively and comprehensively pursued. The learning outcomes and assessment standards achieve within the range of learning programmes must be recorded against the appropriate Learning Areas and according to the grades in which they were achieved. Vocational training and transition planning will be recorded against Life Skills, Economic and Management Sciences, Technology, Literacy and Numeracy (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2005:26).

By using the different strategies of curriculum adaptation the educator can adapt the learning material to fit the needs of the learners. The outcome based programme evaluation is used as a starting point for developing an intellectually disabled friendly programme.

### 3.3.2 Outcomes-based programme evaluation

As discussed in chapter 2 the American vocational training and transition planning programme put emphasis on the fact that the disabled must achieve a quality of life that is comparable to their non-disabled peers. More broadly defined it reflects the actual demands of living successfully in the community, which can mean different things to different people. McDonnell et al (1995:228) argue that four general outcomes are universally important, namely: establishing a network of friends, developing the ability to
use community resources on a regular basis, securing a job and establishing
identified employment, communication skills and academic performance, self-
determination skills, interpersonal relationships, integrated community participation
skills, health and fitness, and leisure and recreation skills as important skills for adult
independence and interdependent living.

3.3.2.1 Aims of Outcomes-Based Education
Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) forms the foundation of the curriculum in South
Africa (Gauteng Department of Education 2004:11). OBE is aimed at stimulating the
minds of young people so that they can participate in economic and social life. It is
intended to ensure that learners are able to develop and achieve their maximum ability.
This it does by setting the outcomes to be achieved at the end of the process. The
outcomes encourage a learner-centred and activity-based approach to education (Gauteng

One of the most important features of OBE is that it is concerned with establishing the
conditions and opportunities within the system that enable and encourage all learners to
achieve those essential outcomes. With OBE all learners perform successfully, but not at
the same pace. Each successful learning experience is a stepping stone to more success
and the school is pivotal in creating the conditions for success at school (Engelbrecht,
Green, Naicker & Engelbrecht 1999:21).

In this National Curriculum Statement there are eight learning programmes, namely
Languages, Mathematics, Natural Sciences, Technology, Social Sciences, Arts and
Culture, Life Orientation and Economic and Management Sciences (Republic of South
Africa Department of Education 2004:12). The aim of the learning programmes is the
preparation of all the learners, including learners who experience barriers to learning and
development, for life after school. The intention of the essential outcomes that underpin
the eight areas of learning is to afford all learners the opportunity of being assimilated
into the world at large (Curriculum, institutional development and assessment 1).
To prepare learners for the life after school the goals are interdependence, independence and ultimately independent living. Indicators of independent living vary across age levels. In adolescence, adaptive behaviours begin to take on the form of daily living skills and independent living skills - advanced dressing skills and decision-making on clothing, personal hygiene skills, basic food preparation, care and maintenance of clothing, driving or use of public transportation, managing one’s own money, taking responsibility for one’s own medications and complying with rules at home, school and in the community (Sitlington et al. 2000:17,33).

The learning content, goals, expectations and assessment standards are embodied in the Learning Area Statement.

3.3.2.2 Learning Area Statements
Outcomes-Based Education in South Africa considers the process of learning as important as the content. Both the process and the content of education are emphasised by spelling out the outcomes to be achieved at the end of the process. With the Learning Area Statements the National Curriculum Statement identifies the goals, expectations and outcomes to be achieved through related Learning Outcomes and assessment standards (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2004:5-6). The Learning Outcomes for each Learning Area and assessments standards are discussed and adapted under curriculum content in section 3.3.4.

The outcomes-based approach of the National Curriculum Statement aims at the development of a high level of knowledge and skills for all. It sets and holds up high expectations of what South African learners can achieve (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2004:15).

To be able to develop a vocational training and transition planning programme by adapting the existing National Curriculum Statement and following an OBE programme, transition assessment is essential.
3.3.3 Person centred transition planning and assessment

Transition assessment is a planned, continuous process of obtaining, organizing, and using information to assist individuals with disabilities of all ages and their families to make all critical transitions in learners’ lives both successful and satisfying. Transition assessment relates to all life roles and to the support needed before, during, and after the transition to adult life (Sitlington et al 2000:105).

Assessment principles used in Outcomes-Based Education in South Africa is defined as a continuous, planned process of gathering information about the performance of learners measured against the assessment standards of the learning outcomes (Gauteng Department of Education 2004:236). The purposes of transition assessment will include baseline assessment prior to the vocational training programme, diagnostic assessment to find out about the nature and cause of barriers to learning experienced by the learner and summative assessment that gives an overall picture of learner’s progress (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2004:236,242).

According to the American vocational training programme, Sitlington et al (2000:110-118) describe six basic assessment methods for gathering information about the individual represented in Figure 2.4.

Each of the assessment methods will be discussed separately regarding how they can be used effectively in doing vocational and transition assessment as the first step for implementing a vocational training and transition planning programme suitable for the intellectually disabled learner in the South African context.

3.3.3.1 Analysis of background information

This can be done by using school reports, learner profiles, learner portfolios and medical files from previous years. These records are normally kept for a minimum of five years and should be easily obtainable from the school’s administrative department. Sitlington et al (2000:111) stress that time must be taken to form opinions based on the teacher’s own observations and experiences with the learners as well as his/her self-reports.
By carefully studying the background information the researcher and the other role players were able to ask more specific questions during the interviews and less time was taken up by unnecessary questions whereof the information could have been obtained from other records.

3.3.3.2 Interviews and questionnaires
As Sitlington et al (2000:112) suggest, interviews with people play an important part in the learner’s life and can add valuable information for vocational and transition assessment. The significant others in the learner’s life include family members, friends of the family, school friends, teachers, house workers and after care centre staff members. Interviews with the parents and significant others were conducted in putting together the IVP of the learners as discussed in the section on holding the IVP meeting (refer section 3.3.5).

The model for transition assessment that Sitlington et al (2000:108) propose was used in compiling a questionnaire for the South African vocational training and transition planning programme’s assessment. The eight areas in his model, namely employment, communication, self determination, interpersonal relationships, communication and academic performance, integrated community participation, health and fitness, independent and interdependent daily living, leisure and recreation are merged (as in Mc Donnell et al 1995:232) into three domains, namely leisure, work and personal management skills. Merging the eight domains into three produces a simpler questionnaire for completion and it also coincides easily with the content of instruction for the adapted vocational training and transition planning curriculum. The three proposed areas for the questionnaire are as follows:

- Leisure activities that include communication skills, interpersonal relationships, integrated community participation and leisure and recreation
- Personal management that include communication, self determination, health and fitness, independent and interdependent daily living
- Work domain that include the communication skills and employment.
Communication forms part of all three of the above categories because communication is necessary for the learner to express himself/herself.

A questionnaire that includes the mentioned assessment criteria was developed and the parents were requested to complete the questionnaires in order to give the researcher insight into the level of independence the learner experiences in leisure, personal management and field of work activities. The questionnaires gave an indication of the skills and curriculum input necessary for vocational training and transition planning in striving to greater independence for the learner.

Furthermore, the questionnaire was intended to provide the opportunity for the researcher and the parents to decide together on a home independence programme that the learner can follow at home under the supervision of the parent to become more independent. Self-evaluation as assessment technique was used to enable the learner to monitor his/her progress in the home independence programme and is discussed in section 3.3.5.6. The home independence programme was evaluated once per month by the vocational training manager.

Though it is possible to obtain some clues during the interviews on the direction the learner would prefer when leaving school, it is still important to try to obtain more accurate information of the learner’s likes and dislikes regarding occupations.

3.3.3.3 Psychometric instruments
Learners with severe and/or multiple disabilities are seen as ‘untestable’ due to the influence of their disabilities on their performance and therefore the outcomes from traditional methods of assessment, for example, standardised tests do not reflect the learners’ actual abilities of progress. Most of the standardised tests are pen-and-paper ones and it would be unreasonable to expect a learner to carry out such a test (Landsberg 2005:415).
Internationally and nationally, the validity of many tests is being seriously questioned. The Department of Education (RSA) stresses that urgent attention should be given to the re-evaluation of all standardised tests prescribed by education departments. Only tests which have proven usefulness in identifying barriers to learning and development should be used as part of the assessment process (Curriculum, institutional development and assessment: 3).

Studies showed that Talking Mats, a light-technology augmentative framework, could be used successfully to consider choices about the future with young adults with learning and communication disability (The road ahead – a literature review: 3). By using Talking Mats learners were able to indicate their likes and dislikes, to express views about choices, and to express opinions not previously known to their families and careers. The mats allowed differences of opinion to be explored and were used as a vehicle for further, deeper discussions (The road ahead – a literature review: 4).

Talking Mats, a fairly new tool, coincides with the well known Reading Free Vocational Interest Inventory by Becker and the Wide Range Interest Opinion Test (Venn 1994:362) (refer section 4.1). Both these vocational interest inventories, suitable for the intellectually disabled, use pictures to assess the learner’s job and career preferences (AAMD-Becker Reading Free Vocational Interest Inventory; Venn 1994:363).

It is always advisable to use more that one assessment method and the trend is to apply functional assessment, which should be activity based, and to do the assessment in a natural context as this would increase the authenticity of the assessment (Landsberg 2005:415). This can be made possible by using work samples.

3.3.3.4 Work samples
Work samples consist of demonstration, training and assessment phases. With the development of a vocational training programme for intellectually disabled learners the learners can be placed in jobs/tasks in the school as will be discussed later under job/task placement (refer section 3.3.6). By observing and documenting information on the
learner’s level of interest, attention to the task and requests for assistance, assessment can be done.

Venn (1994:367-369) and other authors (The development and application of work samples for the disabled) discusses commercial available work samples in which he includes Valpar Component Work Sample System, Test Orientation and Work Evaluation in Rehabilitation (TOWER), Singer Career System, Vocational Information and Evaluation Work Samples (VIEWS) and Talent Assessment Programme (TAP). Unfortunately the commercial work samples are expensive and require a large area to use. Many teachers design and make their non-commercial work samples that give learners hands-on experience with tasks associated with real jobs. They are usually inexpensive and teachers can individualise them to meet the particular interests of learners.

From practical experience with the intellectually disabled, examples of non commercial work samples with future job possibilities for learners include:

- Pushing a learner in the wheelchair to and from busses and classes with a future job possibility of a porter in a hospital, centre for the aged or retirement village
- Preparing refreshments in a school tea garden with a job possibility of working in a kitchen in a coffee shop
- Daily collecting of rubbish from all the classes in the school gives experience in the cleaning sector
- Washing and ironing towels, dishtowels and table cloths in the school add to experience that can later be used in janitorial work
- Feeding young learners and cerebral palsied learners gives experience of working as an assistant in a day care centre or centre for the aged
- Assisting with the preparation of meals for a school nutrition programme gives experience for a similar job after school
- Setting tables daily for visitors and participation in a school nutrition programme may lead to a similar job in a guest house, restaurant or hotel
• Making photocopies at the school can help the learner in acquiring a similar job in the open labour market
• Being responsible for tea and coffee in the school staff room and assisting with cleaning up thereafter creates an opportunity for a similar job in offices and institutions
• Working in a vegetable tunnel or gardens at school gives experience in gardening or a nursery in the open labour market
• Washing the staff’s cars at school gives experience in similar jobs in the open labour market, for example, working in a car wash facility at a garage
• Sewing with a sewing machine at school makes a similar job in a small home industry possible
• Creating and working in a production line at school where plastic knives, forks, spoons, serviettes and teaspoons are packed for functions teaches the learner future production line skills as found in protective workshops and factories
• Sending learners around with a message book to teachers teaches them self-confidence and social skills necessary in all employment areas.
• Teaching learners to punch holes and do simple alphabetical filing may assist in attaining a similar job in the open labour market

Numerous examples of work samples are possible, depending on the facilities available at the school, the flexibility of the school’s time table, the understanding and cooperation from the principal and the cooperation and assistance of the teaching staff. For learners to sample a variety of jobs/tasks means that they will be absent from their classes for a certain amount of time during the school day, depending on the amount of work samples they are engaged in.

The most important factor to remember is that the main purpose of assessment is to establish educational goals (Landsberg 2005:415-416).
3.3.3.5 Curriculum based assessment techniques

Within the Outcomes-Based Education framework of the National Curriculum Statement the most suitable assessment methods that accommodate divergent contextual factors are used. Assessment should provide indications of learner achievement in the most effective and efficient manner and ensure that learners integrate and apply knowledge and skills. Assessment should also help learners to make judgements about their own performance, set goals for progress and provoke further learning (Gauteng Department of Education 2004:10).

For each learning outcome assessment standards are set. Assessment standards describe the level at which learners should demonstrate their achievement of the Learning Outcome(s) and the ways of demonstrating their achievement. Assessment standards are grade specific and show how progression will occur in a learning area. Assessment standards describe the minimum level, depth and breath of what is to be learnt and will change from grade to grade (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2004:7-10).

Continuous assessment is the chief method by which assessment takes place in the National Curriculum Statement. It covers all the Outcomes-Based Education assessment principles, ensures that assessment take place over a period of time, and is ongoing. Continuous assessment supports the growth and development of learners and provides feedback from learning and teaching. It allows for the integrated assessment because a number of related Learning Outcomes within a single activity can take place. Furthermore, it uses strategies that cater for a variety of learner needs (language, physical, psychological, emotional and cultural) and allows for summative assessment (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2004:237).

The assessment standards can be adapted for the intellectually disabled as follows (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2005:49-50):
### TABLE 3.1 ADAPTATIONS OF ASSESSMENT STANDARDS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NCS ASSESSMENT STANDARD STATES:</th>
<th>ADAPTED ASSESSMENT STANDARD WILL STATE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ask</td>
<td>Communicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Answer/discuss/talk</td>
<td>Communicate using verbal or non verbal responses such as visual representations, concrete objects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explain</td>
<td>Non verbal modes such as signing, drawing and writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognise</td>
<td>Verbal and non-verbal responses such as signing and writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name/speak/say</td>
<td>Non-verbal modes such as writing, signing or pointing to an object or written word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observe</td>
<td>Refers to visual, auditory and tactile observations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggests/proposes</td>
<td>Verbal and non-verbal modes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigate</td>
<td>Use different verbal and non-verbal modes such as oral and writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write</td>
<td>Communicate, draw a picture or respond</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One of the advantages for learners that arise out of the Outcomes-Based Education approach being used as a basis for Curriculum 2005 is that their progress is measured against their previous achievements and not against those of other learners. All learners are expected to experience success and learning time is flexible (Curriculum, institutional development and assessment:3).

With the various types of assessment completed the educator can start to discuss the learning material in the proposed adapted vocational training and transition planning curriculum on a level that the learner will be able to understand, be interested in and motivated to further self-exploration.
3.3.4 Curriculum content
The National Curriculum Statement is a curriculum for all learners if the strategies of straddling of grades and phases and designing down of the assessment standards into manageable steps are followed (refer to section 3.3.4). Allowing learners enough time to demonstrate their attainment of the skills, knowledge, values and attitudes practically is essential and recommended (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2005:40).

The curriculum content necessary for vocational training and transition planning will include Learning Outcomes from various Learning Areas. Although the Life Orientation curriculum specifically refers to vocational training skills, the Foundation Phase curriculum for Literacy, Numeracy and Life Skills is equally important. Vocational training is mentioned for the first time in the Grade 7 Life Orientation learning outcome.

3.3.4.1 Life Orientation Learning Area
The aim of the Life Orientation Learning Area in the National Curriculum Statement is to guide and prepare learners for life and its possibilities. Specifically, the Life Orientation Learning Area equips learners for meaningful and successful living in a rapidly changing and transforming society (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2004:4-6). It develops skills, knowledge, values and attitudes that empower learners to make informed decisions and take appropriate actions regarding orientation to the world of work, health promotion, social development, personal development and physical development and movement (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2004:4-6).

Learning Outcome 5 of the Senior Phase Life Orientation curriculum will be discussed in detail as this learning outcome specifically mentions vocational training.

(a) Orientation to the world of work as learning outcome
Learning Outcome 5 of the Senior Phase Life Orientation curriculum (Grades 7-9) states that the learner will be able to make informed decisions about further study and career choices (Gauteng Department of Education 2004:38). In order to achieve this
successfully, the learner needs a realistic understanding of his own abilities, interests and aptitudes. The learner should be aware of various career options and the implications of choices (Gauteng Department of Education 2004:38).

Table 3.2 indicates the assessment standards (in the left column) for Orientation to the World of Work as set out in the National Curriculum Statement. In the right column the content for instruction suitable for the intellectually disabled is stipulated. The content for instruction is not prescribed by the curriculum, only the assessment standards. This enables the teacher to enjoy more freedom in selecting content. The assessment standards can be adapted according to the adaptation of the assessment standards as described in Table 3.1, designing down, the straddling of grades and phases and by adapting the duration of the learning programme.

**TABLE 3.2 CONTENT FOR DRAFT LIFE ORIENTATION CURRICULUM: ORIENTATION TO THE WORLD OF WORK FOR INTELLECTUALLY DISABLED LEARNERS.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GRADE 7: LEARNING OUTCOME 5: ORIENTATION TO THE WORLD OF WORK</th>
<th>PROPOSED CONTENT FOR INSTRUCTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS 1: Discusses interests and abilities related to career and study opportunities</td>
<td>Getting to know own interests and unique abilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Career categories: manufacturing or product assembly, janitorial services, food service, retail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>customer service, office work, child care (work with people, animals or things)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Discuss learners role in the compiling of an Individualised Vocational Programme (IVP) with them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AS 2: Explains the value and importance of work in fulfilling personal potential</td>
<td>Value and meaning of work for myself and my family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occupational vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Paid work and unpaid work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How to adjust to working life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How to adjust to change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How to set goals in the workplace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AS 3: Identifies services and sources for career and study information</td>
<td>Name and discuss vocational opportunities for LSEN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provide names of protective workshops in living</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| AS 4: Reports on an initiated or simulated career related activity | Simulate career activities by placing learners in a work samples in the school  
Mock job interviews  
Mock IVP interviews  
Mock job hunting settings  
What is a curriculum vitae and how can I compile my own? |
|---|---|
| AS 5: Demonstrates time management skills and accountability in carrying out responsibilities | Work has starting and ending times, breaks, sick leave, vacation leave  
Understanding meaning of responsibilities  
Understanding the relationship between responsibility and safety in the workplace  
The relation between duties at home and accountability in the workplace |
| GRADE 8: LEARNING OUTCOME 5: ORIENTATION TO THE WORLD OF WORK | PROPOSED CONTENT FOR INSTRUCTION |
| AS 1: Identifies and discusses career and study choices and their corresponding requirements | Occupational roles: learner in school, volunteer work, unpaid family worker, work activities of daily living  
How to get transport to work  
What study choices are available for me?  
What are the prerequisites for my choices? |
| AS 2: Investigates career and study opportunities related to own interests and abilities | Transport opportunities available to get to work  
Explain Talking Mats programme to learners and do it in class  
Naming of different vocations and what it entails |
| AS 3: Evaluates own abilities and interests related to careers and study choices | How to admire strengths that comes from uniqueness  
How to solve problems in pursuing goals  
What interests is preferable for specific jobs |
| AS 4: Discusses the role of work in relation to needs in South Africa | Hobbies that can generate an income  
What is entrepreneurship, can I be an entrepreneur?  
Disability grants and the pro’s and con’s |
| AS 5: Critically evaluates a range of Further Education and Training providers | A balance between realism and optimism  
Discusses the importance of social networks  
Discusses work agencies and the services they provide  
Name and discuss further education possibilities |
The health, social development, personal development and human movement learning outcomes of the Life Orientation learning programme forms an important part of the Orientation to the World of Work Learning Area. The content for learning from these areas is mentioned shortly.

The learning outcome for health promotion is to teach learners to make informed choices about their own health.

(b) Learning outcome 1: Health Promotion

Many social and personal problems are associated with lifestyle choices and high-risk behaviours. Sound health practices can improve the quality of life and well-being of learners (Gauteng Department of Education 2004:5). The assessment standards and thus curriculum content for the Foundation Phase on Health Promotion is suitable to integrate into the vocational training and transition planning programme. As the majority of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GRADE 9: LEARNING OUTCOME 5: ORIENTATION TO THE WORLD OF WORK</th>
<th>PROPOSED CONTENT FOR INSTRUCTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS 1: Researches study and career funding providers</td>
<td>Provide job leads to learners and parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AS 2: Motivates own career and study choices</td>
<td>Discuss how to make and change choices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AS 3: Critically reflects and reports on opportunities in the workplace</td>
<td>Advantages of permanent jobs</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Advantages of casual jobs</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advantages and disadvantages of job hopping</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Discuss the meaning of promotion in the workplace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AS 4: Discusses rights and responsibilities in the workplace</td>
<td>Relationship with boss and co-workers</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Respect for others and property of others</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Work etiquette</td>
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<td></td>
<td>The right to safety in the workplace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Simplified rights according to the Labour Relations act, Basic Conditions of Employment Act and Code of Good Practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AS 5: Outlines a plan for own lifelong learning</td>
<td>Advantages of paid and unpaid work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What is self-determination?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What is a goal and how to set realistic goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How to plan actions to meet goals</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How to participate in their own IVP interview</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
intellectually disabled learners functions on the Foundation Phase developmental level, little designing down of the Foundation Phase curriculum is necessary. These assessment standards include the necessity of eating fresh food and drinking clean water, healthy eating habits, personal hygiene, safety at home, avoiding sexual exploitation and abuse and prevention of the spreading of diseases.

Assessment standards 3 and 4 of the Intermediate Phase curriculum highlights the importance of the symptoms of diseases, knowledge of traffic signs, the effect of substance abuse on individual health and social relationships. Assessment standard 3 of the Grade 7, assessment standard 2 of Grade 8 and assessment standards 3 and 4 of the Grade 9 curriculum on health promotion can be designed down to suit the needs of the learners in the vocational training and transition planning programme. These assessment standards focus on strategies on how to live with AIDS, sexuality and where to get information and help on diseases and AIDS.

The lack of interpersonal skills is a common cause of loss of employment. These problems increase with changes in the workplace. Research found that 75% of students with intellectual disabilities had social skill deficits when compared with those without disabilities (Elliot, Pring & Bunning 2002:91). It is thus of utmost importance that social development will be included in the proposed vocational training and transition planning programme together with the straddling of the phases and designing down of the assessment standards.

(c) Learning outcome 2: Social development

The social development Learning Area deals with human rights as contained in the South African Constitution. (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2004:202). The Foundation Phase curriculum as well as the Intermediate and Senior Phase curriculum’s content is not directly relevant to the teaching of vocational training and transition planning skills. Four assessment standards are appropriate for integrating in the vocational training and transition planning curriculum, namely:
• Assessment standard 3 in Grade 3 – to discuss the importance to accept, to give and forgive
• Assessment standard 1 in Grade 4 – to discuss children’s rights and responsibilities can be adapted to discuss the rights of the disabled
• Assessment standard 2 & 3 of Grade 5 – discussions on stereotyping, discrimination, bias and the significance of friends in times of tragedy and change

While less of the social development assessment standards are directly appropriate for vocational training and transition planning, the assessment standards of personal development will form a major part of vocational training and transition planning.

(d) Learning outcome 3: Personal development

The Personal Development Learning Area equips learners to contribute effectively to community and society. This area focuses on life skills development, emotional development, self-concept formation and self-empowerment (Gauteng Department of Education 2004:6). The Foundation Phase curriculum assessment standards can successfully be used as they are or designed down if necessary. These assessment standards include that learners will be able to write their own names and addresses, describe body parts, give expression to feelings, follow instructions, describe appropriate relationships with family members, understand moral appropriate behaviour and handle own aggression. The Intermediate and Senior Phase curriculum assessment standard is very appropriate for vocational training and transition planning and can be designed down to suit the developmental level of the intellectually disabled learners. The content include identifying of own strong and weak points, respect for own and other peoples’ bodies, learning from experience, how to study and learn and expression of emotions. Suggested adapted content for instruction in the vocational training programme for the personal development area is:

• Relationships with co-workers and boss
• How to describe their own disability
• How to make choices about work attire, social activities, family events
• What is honesty and the implications thereof / dishonesty and the implications thereof
• Making mistakes and the natural consequences of making mistakes
• How to greet and introduce people

Designing down of the curriculum content in the Personal Development area will largely depend on the cognitive ability of the learners. Severely intellectually disabled learners will find comprehension of some of the above-mentioned learning material difficult and irrelevant.

From the assessment standard for Personal Development it is clear that this will form an important part in the curriculum, though Physical Development and Movement must not be overlooked.

(e) Learning outcome 4: Physical Development and Movement
With Physical Development and Movement the learner develops greater body awareness and improved body control with confidence and competence. The movement skills and body control serves as a basis for participation in general movement activities (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2004:202). The Foundation Phase and Intermediate Phase curriculum needs to be integrated into vocational training and transition planning to teach the learner to live a balanced lifestyle.

The importance of human movement cannot be emphasised enough as Stanish, Temple and Frey (2006:13) state that people with intellectual disabilities experience high rates of morbidity and mortality associated with hypoactive diseases. They are predominantly sedentary and at elevated risk for health problems associated with inactivity, characterised by low physical fitness levels and high obesity rates.

The dance, drama and music sections in the Arts and Culture curriculum can easily be integrated into the Physical Development and Movement curriculum to benefit all the learners in the vocational training and transition planning programme.
Other learning areas that play an important role in preparing the learner for independence and interdependence after school include Economic and Management Sciences and Technology.

3.3.4.2 Economic and Management Sciences
The Economic and Management Sciences Learning Area aims to equip learners with the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that will enable them to adapt, participate and survive in an economically complex society. The Foundation Phase and Intermediate Phase assessment standards are very relevant for vocational training and transition planning (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2004:207-216). The information consists of the role of formal and informal businesses and of the standards of living, saving, budgeting and poverty. Because this learning material is more abstract than the Life Skills learning area material, designing down is necessary to ensure that the learners understand the information. Practical inputs, like organising and running a class market, how to open a savings account, participating in community savings schemes (stockvels, funeral societies), the possession of bank cards, drawing up of a basic personal budget, completion of deposit and withdrawal slips and the using of auto teller cards will benefit the learner in becoming more independent.

The Economic and Management Sciences equip the learner to survive economically, while the Technology Learning Area can be valuable in making crafts to sell and benefit economically.

3.3.4.3 Technology Learning Area
Technology is defined as the use of knowledge, skills and resources to meet people’s needs and wants by developing practical solutions to problems, taking social and environmental factors into consideration. The Foundation Phase curriculum can be integrated into the vocational training and transition planning programme and will assist the learners in making simple items that can be sold from home industries or flea markets for a profit. However, learners must be cautioned as research done by Boylan and Burchardt (2003:4) indicates that a comparison of the average earnings of disabled and
non-disabled self-employed people indicates that self-employment generates significantly less income for disabled than non-disabled people.

The Technology Learning Area gets introduced mainly to the senior learners in the school, while the Language and Mathematics learning programmes form part of their first experiences with the curriculum when they enter school.

3.3.4.4 Language and Mathematics learning programme
Languages are central to our lives. We communicate and understand our world through language. Mathematical literacy enables persons to contribute to and participate with confidence in society (Gauteng Department of Education 2004:17,91). Both the Literacy and Numeracy learning programmes in the Foundation Phase curriculum will form an important part in the vocational training and transition planning programme. Learners without expressive language abilities can be taught how to communicate by means of sign language or alternative and augmentative communication methods. These learning programmes can be extended to the vocational training and transition planning programme to incorporate occupational vocabularies.

Although the Life Orientation Learning Area specifically mentions vocational training in the Senior Phase, the other learning areas, with the exception of Natural Sciences and Social Sciences, play an equal important part in preparing the learner for independence. The adapted curriculum for vocational training and transition planning can be explained to the parents during the IVP meetings to keep them informed of curriculum goals for their child.

3.3.5 Individualised Vocational Programme, vocational training and transition planning
As learners approach the school leaving years, parents more actively seek information on a variety of topics to support their adolescent in transition to life after school, employment options, financial planning, medical aid and living arrangements (Parent Brief: Person centred planning: A tool for transition 2004:3). Parents often do not know who to ask and where to seek help. The development of an IVP for each 15 - 18 year old
learner can assist the parents in taking more responsible, knowledgeable decisions that influence their child future. Done correctly, the IVP should improve teaching, learning and end results (www.ed.gov/parents/needs/speced/iepguide/index.html). In the United States the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) requires that a learner’s IVP include transition planning (Parent Brief: Person centred planning: A tool for transition 2004:3).

The learners benefit from the IVP programme because they need to think about what they really want for the future and identify what kind of help and support they might need to achieve their goals (Parent Brief: Person centred planning: A tool for transition 2004:3). With the IVP a programme according to their individual needs is developed with the inputs of the team members and they are afforded the opportunity to have a say in their own education and future (U.S. Department of Education 3).

The parents benefit from the IVP programme because:

- They may be unsure about how to prepare their teenagers for the transition to adulthood (Thorin, Yovanoff & Irvin 1996:117),
- They do not want to let go of their child although they understand the importance of independence and letting go (Thorin et al 1996:118),
- They can be connected to sheltered employment centres and work agencies for the disabled (Parent brief: Person centred planning: A tool for transition 2004:3).
- They have the opportunity to share visions for the future through brainstorming with professionals (Parent brief: Person centred planning: A tool for transition 2004:3).
- Strategies and action steps for implementing their vision can be identified (Parent brief: Person centred planning: A tool for transition 2004:4).
- They are uncertain because they do not know the work abilities of their sons or daughters with an intellectual disability (Li 1998:214). With the IVP programme they come closer to the reality of their child’s ability.
3.3.5.1 Contents of the Individualised Vocational Programme

Ideally, the IVP must state how the learner is currently performing in school. This information usually comes from the evaluation results such as classroom tests and assignment, individual tests and observations made by parents and teachers. The annual goals that the learner can reasonably accomplish in a year must be written out. The goals may be academic, address social or behavioural needs, relate to physical needs or address other educational needs. The goals must be measurable – meaning that it must be possible to measure whether the learner has achieved the goals (U.S. Department of Education: 4; Parent brief: Person centred planning: A tool for transition 2004:3).

Furthermore the IVP must state when services and tasks will begin, how often they will take place and how long they will last. Furthermore the IVP should include the learner’s interests and preferences and what they want to do in life which can include the kind of living situation he/she hopes to have. The IVP must state how the learner’s progress will be measured and how parents will be informed of that progress (U.S. Department of Education: 4; Parent brief: Person centred planning: A tool for transition 2004:3).

The content of the IVP is compiled by the IVP team members.

3.3.5.2 Individualised Vocational Programme team members

Each team member brings important information to the IVP meeting. Members share their information and work together to write the learner’s IVP. Each person’s information adds to the team’s understanding of the learner (U.S. Department of Education: 4).

Parents are key members of the IVP team. They know their child very well and can talk about their child’s strengths and needs as well as their ideas for enhancing their child’s education. They can listen to what the other team members think their child needs to work on and share their suggestions (U.S. Department of Education: 3).

At least one of the learner’s regular education teachers must be on the IVP team. He/she may talk on the curriculum in the classroom, how to adapt the curriculum to help the
learner learn and strategies to help the learner with behaviour (if behaviour is an issue) (U.S. Department of Education: 4).

The IVP team may also include additional individuals with knowledge or special expertise about the child. The parent or the school can invite these individuals to participate on the team (U.S. Department of Education: 5).

The learner must be a member of the IVP team. This allows them to have a voice in their own education and can teach them about self-determination (www.ed.gov/parents/needs/speced/iepguide/index.html). Learner with all types of disabilities – regardless of the severity of the disabilities – should be included in the planning process (Parent Brief: Person centred planning: A tool for transition 2004:2).

If the parents have a limited proficiency in English or are deaf, they may need an interpreter in order to understand and be understood. This provision should help to ensure that parents are not limited in their ability to participate in their child’s education because of language or communication barriers (U.S. Department of Education: 2).

The IVP team members are invited to the IVP meeting with certain goals in mind.

3.3.5.3 Organising, planning and holding the IVP meeting
The vocational manager schedules and conducts the IVP meetings. The vocational manager initially sends a letter home, explaining the purpose of the IVP meetings to the parents. This is followed by sending a letter home to notify the parents about possible one hour scheduled meeting times at the school from which they can choose. The parents then return the completed letter to the school and the vocational manager makes sure that the chosen interview times do not overlap.

As soon as an IVP schedule has been put together all the necessary team members must be informed of the scheduled times. They need to know ahead of time in order to familiarise themselves with background information in available records on the learner (refer to section 3.3.5).
The vocational manager must carefully plan the IVP meeting. By preparing a short programme beforehand and supplying it to the parents will ensure that the meeting takes places in a structured, well planned way. The programme will most probably include an introduction of the team members and an explanation to the parents why the different team members play an important role in the IVP planning of their child.

The introduction can be followed by asking the parents about their future vision for their child. This is shared through brainstorming and imagining ways to increase opportunities. Obstacles are identified and opportunities that give the vision a real life context can be discussed. Strategies and action steps for implementing the vision must be decided on (Parent Brief: Person centred planning: A tool for transition 2004:2). Time needs to be allocated in order for the learner to discuss his/her hopes and dreams for the future.

Thereafter, the Talking Mats programme that indicates the learner’s preferences for certain occupations can be explained to the parents. The results of this assessment done prior to the IVP meeting enrich discussions on possible jobs/tasks that the learner can be put into in the school environment. A list of the possible jobs/tasks in the school must be available for the meeting as well as a tasks analysis of each task. Together the parents, learner and the other team members can make their inputs on suitable jobs/ tasks in the school from which the learner will benefit.

It is important to explain the benefits of work samples to the parents and make sure that they understand that the learner will not receive remuneration for the tasks, as this is illegal. Parents also need to be informed that it is not the school’s responsibility to find a job for the learner on leaving school.

The questionnaire completed beforehand by the parents can serve as a platform for further discussions on the current life of the learner and how he/she can be directed towards a more independent life. The inputs of all the team members play a very valuable part in setting future goals for the learner that can be attained by means of a home
independence programme (refer section 3.3.5.6). Parents need to be encouraged to motivate their child to become more independent at home and to perform the tasks regularly.

As parents of the intellectually disabled are often ill informed about disability grants that the disabled can obtain from the government, this relevant information can be shared with the parents at an IVP meeting. Literature on which office they need to contact according to their residential address, the procedures in obtaining the necessary documents for applying for a grant and the legal aspects for qualifying for a grant are handy to give to the parents (Appendix I). New information may be too much to absorb in a single session, depending on the cognitive level of the parents.

The IVP members can each individually be asked if they have any questions after which all members present are thanked for their participation and a date set on which the parents will receive the completed IVP, preferably the next day.

Very often discussions are held, brainstorming is done, plans are made and then it rest there. These plans need to be carried out in order to reach the goals set in the meeting.

3.3.5.4 Putting the Individualised Vocational Programme into practice

When the IVP has been written, parents must receive a copy at no cost to themselves. Everyone who will be implementing the IVP must have access to the document. Each of these individuals needs to know what his/her specific responsibilities are for carrying out the child’s IVP. Teamwork plays an important part in carrying out the IVP. More than one teacher is likely to be involved in providing support to the learner. Sharing expertise and insights can help make everyone’s job easier and can certainly improve results for the learner (U.S. Department of Education:2).

Communication between home and school is important. Parents can share information about what is happening at home and build upon what the child is learning at school (U.S. Department of Education:1). A short note from the vocational manager to the parents from time to time on progress that the learner is making at school in the tasks/ job
assigned to him, may motivate the parents to spend more time teaching their child tasks at home that can be added to the home independence programme.

The vocational manager makes sure that the learner’s IVP is being carried out as it was written (U.S. Department of Education:2). Therefore, the vocational manager should motivate the team members involved to assist the learner in reaching the goals that have been set.

Although the IVP plan is put together by all the IVP team members, this programme may need change as the learner develops greater independence and acquires more skills.

3.3.5.5 Reviewing and revising the IVP
The IVP team must review the learner’s IVP at least once a year. One purpose of this review is to see whether the learner is achieving his/her annual goals. The learner may have met most or all the goals in the IVP and new ones need to be written (www.ed.gov/parents/needs/speced/iepguide/index.html). If the parents do not agree with the IVP programme, they may discuss their concerns with other teachers and try to work out an agreement (U.S. Department of Education:3). To ensure that learners’ shows progression in gaining independence, the home independence programme should be decided upon and will possibly need review and revision more than once per year.

The IVP meetings are often not executed in the correct manner as they are perceived as very time consuming: one hour per learner and three to four staff members are involved in each session. The bigger the school, the more difficult it becomes. Time constraints can be partially overcome in this way: when the learners turn 15 years, the entire vocational training and transition planning programme can be presented to all the parents in a group on one occasion. Directly after the group presentation of the programme, individual discussions of a shorter duration can take place, for example, 30 – 40 minutes. Thereafter, when the learners turn 16, 17 and 18 years respectively, these reviewing sessions can be shortened further as the parents are more familiar with the programme, and certain sections, for example, the social grants, need not to be repeated every year.
3.3.5.6 *Home independence programme*

Many families have a helper at home and often do not realise the importance of teaching their child to be as independent as possible. Practical tasks that can easily be performed by the intellectually disabled gets done by the helper at home, for example making the child’s own bed, assisting in preparing meals and cleaning up afterwards, cleaning the house, work in the garden, simple shopping errands, caring for pets and washing and ironing clothes. Parents need to be made aware that the helper may not always be there to perform these tasks for their child, they may later not be able to afford a helper, or protective employment centres with boarding will expect their child to perform these tasks.

Home tasks are critical in the learning and development of a learner who experiences barriers to learning. The IVP team members (including the child) decides together on the tasks that form the home independence programme. These tasks should include common household tasks that the learner cannot at that stage perform independently. All the tasks must be written down and initially only two or three tasks are listed on the home independence programme. After three to six months when the vocational manager is sure that the learner has acquired the necessary skills, the other tasks can be added to the home independence programme. The parents’ opinion on how regularly and well the tasks were performed can be asked, either by sending a letter home or phoning the parents. Caution must be taken not to overload the learner with homework (Republic of South Africa Department of Education 2005:22). Careful planning by the IVP team members will prevent this from happening.

The vocational manager must provide the learner with monthly self-assessment forms on which the monthly progress can be recorded. One form for each home independence task will prevent confusion for the learner. The name of the learner, the task that he/she performs, a task analysis of the task and the name of the month must appear on each self-assessment record. On the assessment form it must be indicated to the learner to return the assessment forms at the end of each month to obtain assessment forms for the following month.
On returning the assessment forms the learners must be given the opportunity to describe the problems they experienced in completing the tasks, given options how to overcome the problems and be motivated to complete the home tasks to the best of their ability. This can be done individually, or a vocational training and transition planning meeting can be called at the end of each month in which the learners have the opportunity to voice their problems. Learners also learn from each other in this way. The vocational manager must also make sure that the learners understand the importance of completing the self-assessment forms.

3.3.5.7 Self-assessment
Self-assessment is a most necessary element in developing as an effective, sociable person, aware of one’s own worth yet sensitive to one’s unsociable traits. For learners, self-assessment is a significant step towards self-controlled behaviour and helps them to take control of their own learning. It is a necessary skill which needs to be taught so that learners develop systematic habits of reflection, learning from each process and turning it into internal motivation (Engelbrecht et al 2004:120).

Learners get the opportunity to reveal what they think and how they feel about themselves, how they feel about their work and how they have met the criteria for the task (Teacher’s guide for the development of learning programmes 2003:34). Learners must constantly be reminded to be honest in the self-assessment, as honesty in the workplace is of utmost importance.

Important decisions on vocational training skills and transition planning is compiled into a programme during the IVP meeting with the parents and significant others. Together the IVP team members match the learners’ interests with possible tasks within the school environment.

3.3.6 Job placement and training
The purpose of job/task placements in the school is to provide the learners with an opportunity to explore a number of occupations, to gain work experience in the safe
surroundings of the school and to learn specific vocational skills. By rotating some of the jobs/tasks after a six-month period the learners can have the opportunity to be exposed to a number of different jobs/tasks in a one-year cycle. To be able to achieve this goal it is necessary to gather information about an individual’s needs, preferences, and interests. This can be done by analysis of background information, interviews, psychometric tests, work samples and curriculum based assessment (refer to section 3.3.3). For the purpose of this study it is then necessary to do job/tasks analysis to make a match between the individual and the jobs/tasks in the school environment. If a match is made, the learner would be placed in the job/task (in the school) and provided with training and ongoing support.

The vocational manager needs to obtain job sources to accommodate the learners in tasks/jobs in the school.

3.3.6.1 Job/task sources within the school
An easy way to initially obtain jobs/tasks for the learners within the school is to ask the teachers and office staff to send a list of jobs/tasks that they would like learners in the vocational training programme to do in their classes and offices. The vocational training manager then compiles a list of the given jobs/tasks. This list of jobs/tasks must be available for the IVP meetings with the parents in order for the IVP team to discuss the available jobs/tasks with the parents and learners at the IVP meetings. By explaining the transition assessment criteria to the parents and the learner, job/task placement in the school can then be done during the IVP meeting.

An important issue to consider is the number of jobs/tasks that the learner should be placed in.

3.3.6.2 Number of jobs per learner
There is some debate regarding whether a learner should be given experiences with a number of tasks or limited to one or two choices. This decision should be made based on the characteristics of specific learners who are placed in the training of the task. In general it seems appropriate to limit the number of tasks for learners with very severe
disabilities. Each learner should have the opportunity to experience a variety of jobs/tasks in a number of different settings to assist the learner in developing a work history, determine his/her job preferences, identify future training needs, and determine skill characteristics for future job matching (www.vcu.edu/rrtweb/techlink/iandr/voproj/chap1/chapter1.html).

3.3.6.3 Job duty schedule
A job duty schedule outlines the specific work tasks that will be performed by the learners, as well as the time that they will be performed. The following is a sample job schedule for a learner.

TABLE 3.3 SAMPLE JOB DUTY SCHEDULE FOR A LEARNER (adapted from Inge Dymond, Wehman, Sutphin, Johnson & Faina no date: 19).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VOCATIONAL TASKS</th>
<th>APPROXIMATE TIME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fetch wheel chair, fetch learner from the bus and take learner to the class</td>
<td>8:00-8:15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take message book around to each teacher</td>
<td>8:15-9:00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Put out crockery and cutlery for nutrition programme</td>
<td>12:30-13:00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water plants in nutrition programme area</td>
<td>13:00 -13:15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fetch wheel chair learner from the class and take to the bus</td>
<td>13:15-13:30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The job duty schedule makes it easy for the vocational manager to observe quickly how much time is taken up with the jobs (to ensure that one learner is not overloaded with work), that a variety of skills are developed and that the learner get exposed to a variety of occupations in his/her field of interest.

Additional to the job duty schedule job training and task analysis should also be done.
3.3.6.4 Job training

Eiker and Schneider (2000:209) point out that during job training it is important that:

- Vocational training measures have to be carried out regularly;
- Vocational training measures must be integrated into the daily life of the disabled learner;
- Trainers (teachers) have to inform their learners sufficiently about the vocational training measures;
- The number of participants should not be more than three;
- There should be a teaching conversation instead of chalk and talk.

Learners differ in basic physical and intellectual performance levels. A motivated learner will take less time to train than a less motivated learner, other things being equal. Intellectual performance levels will also give an indication of training time. Job placement on an assembly line requiring the same motor response repeatedly requires much less training than a job in which multiple responses – sensory, motor and cognitive – are the norm (Sitlington et al 2000:192-193).

It is important to train the learner in the actual skills and to redo the training based on the learners’ individual needs and learning style from time to time (Sitlington et al 2000:194).

The job that the learner is trained to do must be analysed into steps that are necessary to complete the job successfully.

3.3.6.5 Task analysis

Whatever activities are included in the job duty schedule, the teacher needs to complete a thorough task analysis of each activity. Each step of a task analysis should consist of one observable behaviour that can be taught individually. It is also helpful to word steps in the second person so they may be used as verbal prompts during instruction. The following is a sample task analysis for cleaning a toilet Inge et al no date: 22).
TABLE 3.4 TASK ANALYSIS FOR CLEANING THE TOILET

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Put toilet brush in bucket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Pick up cleanser</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Push bucket to first toilet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Squirt cleanser in toilet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Set down cleanser</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Pick up brush</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Brush top of toilet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Brush sides of toilet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Brush front of toilet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Dip brush in bucket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Brush seat of toilet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Raise seat of toilet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Brush inside seat of toilet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Dip brush in bucket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Dip brush inside toilet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Brush inside of toilet 4 X’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Put toilet brush in bucket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Pick up the cleanser</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Push bucket to next toilet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This task analysis will occur during the first several days that the teacher and learner(s) are on an ‘internal school job site’. The teacher may determine that a task needs to be broken down into more detailed steps or designed to eliminate a particular discrimination that the learner cannot make as indicated in Table 3.4 Inge et al no date: 29).

Each task need to be assessed to make sure that the task is completed correctly on a daily basis and that continuity exists.
3.3.6.6 Task assessment

Self-assessment of task performance is proposed for the tasks done in the different classes. This will ensure that the class teacher is not burdened with more paper work than what is already expected by the Department of Education (RSA). The learners on the vocational training programme must perform the tasks in order to help the teacher and not to create an extra workload which may make the teachers negative towards the programme.

As with the home independence programme the self-assessment monthly records for each task that the learner performs must be designed in such a manner that the learner can assess his/her performance on a daily basis with ease. The name of the learner, the task that he/she performs, a task analysis of the task and the name of the month must appear on each self-assessment record. The self-assessment records are kept in the class where the learner performs the task in an easy accessible place (eg by sticking the record with Prestik behind a door) so that assessment can be done immediately after completion of the task. By keeping the records in the class where the tasks are performed also enables the teacher in that class to make sure that the tasks are assessed according to the task analysis. Furthermore, it prevents the learners from unnecessary wasting time by walking to a central point to do the self-assessment.

The critical component of task assessment is that the learner is allowed to perform the task independently without providing feedback and reinforcement of prompting to the learner. Typically, a skill is considered learned when the learner performs the task correctly for three of four consecutive trails without any assistance from the teacher (Inge et al no date: 11). It is thus necessary that the teacher will initially do the assessment of the task together with the learner until the skill is learned and performed correctly.

At the end of each month all the self-assessment records must be returned to the vocational programme manager to be kept until the end of the year. The vocational manager then provides new self-assessment records for the following month for each job to the teachers in which class the jobs are done. It is thus possible that a teacher may have
eight to ten self-assessment records in a class depending on the amount of tasks that are performed in the class by the different learners.

At the end of the semester or year the frequency that the jobs have been performed successfully by the learners according to their self-assessment records are calculated in order to determine if they will receive a certificate for their tasks that they have performed. Learners must constantly be reminded that they must at least perform their tasks/jobs (work samples) satisfactorily at least nine out of ten times to qualify for a certificate at the end of the year.

As far as possible the end goal of the vocational training and transition planning programme must be to enable the learner with potential to work in the (open) labour market to obtain work in the community where he/she lives.

3.3.6.7 Specific job training and placement in the community
The cooperation of many role players is necessary to successfully implement this as is implemented in the United States. This idea can be adapted by motivating parents to assist their child in finding a casual job while he/she is still in school. It is thus necessary for the IVP team members to discuss the possibility of a casual job (for the learner) during the IVP meeting with the parents, depending on the ability of the learner.

If the possibility exists that the learner can work independently and without support in the (open) labour market, it is important that the vocational manager is aware of the range of occupations that currently exist in the market in the vicinity where the learner resides. Together with the analysis of the resources in the target environment a match can be made between the learner and his environment to make a placement in the labour market as described by Sitlington et al (2000:122) in section 2.5.2. A real effort must be made to place the learner in a job in the school with experiences that will more or less coincide with a job in the labour market.

Research done by Li (1998:214) shows that the attitude of parents is the major obstacle in assisting protective workshop workers with intellectual disabilities to move on to open
employment. One reason for parents not to want their children to move to open employment is because they do not want to lose the residential placements at these protective workshops. Parents prefer security because their offspring will have a place to stay when they are too old to provide any support.

Alant (2001:5-7) found in her study some parents did not regard open employment of young adults with disabilities as a real option. Some parents did not encourage the young adults sufficiently to attend work each day as they felt that he/she was disabled and therefore “can’t work so much”. Two parents also did not tell family and friends that the young adult was employed. They explained that they were afraid of the reaction of the community since a large percentage of able-bodied people were unemployed. One parent also mentioned that siblings were jealous because the young adult was working. Another parent terminated the young adult’s employment because he did not share his wages with the rest of the family, but kept them for himself.

Each school system’s community based curriculum will be different based on the community in which the learners reside. School systems are cautioned to analyse carefully the types of training experiences selected. It may be easy to develop a horticultural programme on the school grounds, but if these training experiences do not reflect future job possibilities, the learners may have difficulty with their transition from school to work Inge et al no date: 1).

In being successful in specific job training and placement the following steps need to be followed: identify a job in the community which matches the interests and needs of the learner, train the learner to complete the assigned job tasks to employer standards, promote the inclusion of the learner in the natural social networks of the job site and resolve logistical issues that might interfere with the learner’s ongoing success in the job placement following school. Achieving these goals may take from several months to several years (McDonnell et al 1995:241).
The age of placing the learner full time in the (open) labour market needs careful consideration.

3.3.6.8 Legal requirements
According to the Employment Act 1997, children under 15 years of age are not allowed to work full time. The vocational manager needs to be aware of the other legal requirements in the Employment Equity Act, the Disability Rights Charter of South Africa and the 1996 Constitution as described in section 2.6.

Intellectually disabled learners are very dependent on constant motivation and assistance from their families.

3.3.7 Family involvement
Families play a key role as job developers and advocates in marketing their children’s skills and abilities. Parents and family should look within their own networks – neighbours, colleagues and extended family members – to seek opportunities for their children. Networks are often excellent sources for initial work experiences because of the personal connections (Parent brief: Person centred planning: A tool for transition 2004:3). It is therefore of utmost importance that the intellectually disabled learners family will be involved in the vocational training programme and specifically in the IVP meetings where their child’s future possibilities are discussed in detail.

Young people and families need accurate, up-to-date and easy-to-understand information to help them make choices, alongside support from well-informed professionals. However, research shows that there is a lack of easily accessible information for parents and young people about what future possibilities might be. Families say they want more information about choices: speakers from different agencies to talk to, resource packs for the young person and their family, examples of choices made by other learners, and links with other parents who had already been through the process (The road ahead – a literature review no date: 3). This can easily be arranged as part of the parent involvement meetings at schools. Speakers from different employment agencies for the disabled and managers from protective employment centres can be invited to organised evenings to
speak to the parents, distribute their web site addresses and other written information. By regularly arranging the parent involvement meetings and by including them in the year programme of the school, parents get to know each other and will possibly build links with parents that have been through the process before.

The ultimate goal of vocational training and transition planning is adult independence and interdependent living.

3.4 TRANSITION TO ADULT INDEPENDENCE AND INTERDEPENDENT LIVING

Independent living is defined as, “control over one’s life based on the choice of acceptable options that minimize reliance on others in making decisions and in performing everyday activities. This includes managing one’s own affairs; participating in day-to-day life in the community; fulfilling a range of social roles; and making decisions that lead to self-determination and the minimization of psychological or physical dependence upon other. Independence is a relative concept, which may be defined personally by each individual” (Sitlington et al 2000:17).

Article thirteen of the Disability Rights Charter of South Africa states that disabled people shall be entitled, encouraged and assisted to live independently in their communities and to develop the skills necessary to enable them to live in broader society and they shall be provided with adequate and appropriate support systems to do so (Disability Rights Charter of South Africa). Though very few people, with or without disabilities, are totally independent in life. Most people conduct their individual affairs through mutual reliance with other people. Interdependent living may refer to being able to know one’s self and understand when one needs support or assistance, knowing that different people in families play different types of interdependent roles, and understanding the roles of personal attendants in interdependent relationships (Sitlington et al 2000:33).
3.5 SUMMARY
The first aim of this study is to identify and describe the steps in the development and management of a vocational training and transition planning programme within the school environment. This has been achieved by using the American programme as a framework to achieve this aim. Adaptations had to be made to suit the needs of the intellectually disabled in the South African context.

The National Curriculum Statement (RSA) has been adapted by designing down of the assessment standards and by incorporating the assessment standards of different phases into one vocational training and transition planning programme. The discussion on the assessment techniques suitable for assessing the learner prior to implementing the vocational training programme, the IVP and job/task placement within the school environment enables teachers in other schools for the intellectually disabled to set strategies in place to follow this programme. The importance of family involvement and how the needs of families can be met was discussed according to the research.

The expression: ‘It takes a village to raise a child’ is never more true than when referring to a child with a disability. Young people with disabilities need a support system that recognises individual strengths, interests, fears, and dreams and allows them to take charge of their future. Parents, teacher’s family members, and friends in the community who offer informal guidance, support, and love can create the ‘village’ for every child (Parent brief: Person centred planning: A tool for transition 2004:3).
4 CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Depending on the level of intellectual disability and the support required in adult life, successful vocational training and transition planning may require that planning activities begin early. Starting the process early prepares learners to think about what they want to be able to do in adult life (Educating our children together: A sourcebook for effective family-school community partnerships. http://www.directionservice.org/cadre/pdf/educating-our-children.pdf). In the United States of America numerous programmes and laws ensure that vocational training and transition planning starts early in the school career. In South Africa a curriculum for the intellectually disabled has not yet been formulated and transition services do not exist or are not structured so as to be easily available to parents. Research was done to see how to overcome this shortcoming in the present National Curriculum Statement.

McMillan and Schumacher (2006:22, 117) describe a research design as the procedures for conducting the study, including when, from whom and under what conditions the data will be obtained. In a research design a procedure must be followed that gives the researcher the confidence that the results obtained were due to the factors that were studied and not to extraneous or irrelevant factors.

4.2 RESEARCH QUESTION AND AIMS

For a learner to reach independence or interdependence at adulthood means that the learners must be prepared to function as productively and independently as possible in socially, vocationally, and domestically integrated adult community environments. With this in mind a research question was formulated.

How can a vocational training and transition planning programme be developed and managed within the framework of the National Curriculum Statement according to the needs of intellectually disabled learners?
The following questions facilitate the demarcation of the problem more clearly:

- What steps must be taken for the development and management of a school vocational training and transition planning programme for intellectually disabled learners?
- How will the implementation of a school vocational training and transition planning programme influence the knowledge, values and skills of three learners?

In the preceding chapter the programme was developed by combining the frameworks of successful American vocational and transitional training programmes. In combining the frameworks of American programmes the researcher constantly referred to the framework of the South African National Curriculum Statement. The National Curriculum Statement was adapted and fitted into the American programmes to the greatest benefit of the learner.

In order to investigate the outcomes of a vocational training and transition planning programme on the knowledge, values and skills of the intellectually disabled learners, a research design was drawn up.

4.3 RESEARCH STRATEGIES

Quantitative and qualitative research strategies are well known and often used by researchers. Less well known is the concept of mixing different methods to obtain a mixed method, multi method, convergence, integrated or combined method. Three general strategies within this approach, namely the sequential procedure, concurrent nested and transformative procedures exists (Creswell 2003:16). In this study the concurrent procedure was used.

4.3.1 Mixed method research design
With the concurrent procedure, the researcher converges qualitative and quantitative data in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem. Both forms of data
are collected at the same time and then integrated in the interpretation of the overall results. By simultaneously collecting the data the researcher is enabled to better understand the research problem and best convey the needs of a marginalised group of society (intellectually disabled learners) (Creswell 2003:16,18,100).

Teddlie and Tashakkori (in Mertens & McLaughlin 2004:113) state that mixed methods have particular value when a researcher is trying to solve a problem in a complex educational context. By using more than one method within a study, the researcher is able to obtain a more complete picture of human behaviour and experience. Denscombe (2003:38) says that a case study approach more or less encourages the use of mixed methods research in order to capture the complex reality under scrutiny.

The advantages of using the mixed methods model have certain strengths, namely that the researcher is able to collect the two types of data simultaneously. It provides a study with the advantages of both qualitative and quantitative data (Creswell 2003:218,219). The nature of the data collected is not confined to one type of method, which encourages producing a more complete set of research questions as well as conclusions (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:401). The limitation is that because the two methods are unequal in their priority, this approach results in unequal evidence within a study, which may be a disadvantage when interpreting the final results (Creswell 2003:218,219). A mixed-method study requires extensive data collection and more resources than many studies using only a qualitative or quantitative approach (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:401).

Creswell (2003:212) states that it is necessary to decide whether greater priority or weight is given to the quantitative or the qualitative approach or if the approaches will be treated equal. With the concurrent nested strategy that will be used for this study, a predominant method (qualitative or quantitative) guides the research (Creswell 2003:218).
4.3.2 Qualitative research strategy
The major purpose of qualitative research is to describe, explore, and show relationships between events and meanings to increase the reader’s understanding of the phenomena (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:316). A case study approach was used to allow the researcher to focus specifically on the implementation and management of the newly developed vocational training and transition planning programme.

McMillan and Schumacher (2006:26) describe a case study as a “bounded system” employing multiple sources of data found in the setting, in this case a school for intellectually disabled learners. Stake (in Creswell 2003:15) continues by saying that the case is bounded by time and activity, and the researcher collects detailed information using a variety of data collection procedures over a sustained period of time.

A research plan that describes the conditions and procedures for collecting and analysing the data (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:22) is discussed.

4.3.3 Research design for this study
As already mentioned the predominant approach in this research study was the qualitative method and the quantitative method was embedded, or nested, within the predominant method. The data collected from the two methods were mixed during the analysis phase of the project.

In this mixed methods research study two quantitative and three qualitative instruments were used. As a quantitative instrument, a three-point Lickert scale questionnaire was used to measure the learners’ skills at home that would also give an indication of the level of dependency/independency (at home) before implementation of the programme (Appendix F). After six months of implementation the learners’ skills at home were measured again on the same instrument to attain development within the vocational training and transition planning programme. A three-point Lickert scale was also used to assess the development in skills and values while observing the participant while carrying out the school jobs/tasks assigned to the learner as part of the vocational training and transition planning programme (Appendix J).
The qualitative instrument, namely four separate rounds of interviews with the parents and the learner, were conducted at a place and time convenient to the participants. Three rounds of interviews, of which the second round consisted of the Talking Mats interview (Appendix B, C & D), were done initially. After the vocational training and transition planning programme had been implemented for six months, the last round of interviews (Appendix K & L) with the parents and learners was done. With this round of interviews the outcomes of a vocational training and transition planning programme on the knowledge, values and skills of the learners and parents were established.

The Talking Mats programme as qualitative interviewing instrument was used to enable the participants to indicate their likes and dislikes, to express available choices to them and express opinions not previously known to others (Cameron & Murphy 2002:105) in connection with vocational training. Talking Mats is actively being used across many diverse specialist areas and encompasses people with and without communication difficulties (Talking mats http://www.talkingmats.com/).

The Talking Mats programme was used in a twofold way: as an interview instrument in which the learner discusses what he/she would like to do in a vocational training and transition planning programme; it was also used as an adapted aptitude test to ascertain the learner’s interests to enable the IVP team to place the learner in a suitable job / task within the school.

Brewster (2004:32) states that people with disabilities who are unable to speak or have limited language are often excluded from research. Techniques to support interviewing them can help to improve the quality of research in which they otherwise could not participate. The only requirement for using this programme effectively is that the participant needs to be able to process more than two key words at a time (Talking Mats as a communication resource to enable people with an intellectual disability to express their views on life planning. www.show.scot.nhs.uk/cso/Publications/Execsumms/JanFeb05/9.7%20MarkovocTMpdf)
The field observations were done qualitatively while the researcher was in the field with the learner observing performance of the school jobs/tasks. The criteria used were the learner’s work motivation, work endurance, basis work habits in relation to the work tasks and human environment and the learner’s productivity (Appendix P). A Lickert scale as quantitative instrument was developed to record the learner’s values and skills attainment over a lengthy time period (Appendix J). Quantitatively descriptive notes were taken and recordings made of the participants’ non-verbal body language.

Denscombe (2003:131) mentions that within the various strategies for research there remains some element of choice about which methods to use. The choice is influenced by the strategy itself, but it reflects preferences about the kind of data that the researcher wishes to obtain.

4.4 RESEARCH METHODS

The research methods describe the procedures used to collect and analyse the data. McMillan and Schumacher (2006:333) state that qualitative researchers need to be sensitive to ethical principles regarding informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity, privacy and caring.

4.4.1 Ethical measures

Most researchers devise roles that elicit cooperation, trust, openness and acceptance. When people adjust their priorities and routines to help a researcher or even tolerate a researcher’s presence, they are giving of themselves. A researcher is indebted to these persons. Verma and Mallick (1999:114) continue by saying that a case study approach is personal and for this reason the researcher has a special obligation to provide ethical protection to the subjects.

The Council for Exceptional Children (USA) developed a formal ethical code that addresses the specific ethics of conducting research with special education populations.
This code states that special education professionals are required to protect the rights and welfare of participants, interpret and publish research results with accuracy and high quality of scholarship and exercise all possible precautions to prevent misapplication or misuse of a research effort. Researchers must be alert to the implicit value commitments and consequences that attend categorising individuals as intellectually disabled and learning disabled (Mertens & McLaughlin 2004:152).

4.4.1.1 Approval for conducting the research

Approval from the Gauteng Department of Education had to be granted before commencement of the study. The necessary form was completed and signed by the supervisor and approval was granted by the Gauteng Department of Education.

The Gauteng Department of Education also stated that a copy of the approval letter and a motivation for doing the research (Appendix M) had to be presented to the District/Head Office Senior Manager, and that a copy of the approval letter had to be forwarded to the school principal and the chairperson of the School Governing Body. Research could only commence after approval by the District Senior Manager. The researcher was provided with an approval letter by the District Senior Manager (Appendix N).

The researcher, in her capacity as an educator, approached the principal for permission to involve The Special School learners in this study. The principal was verbally informed of the nature of the study and presented with the research proposal. Permission was granted.

4.4.1.2 Informed consent

In obtaining permission to enter the field, researchers give assurances of confidentiality and anonymity and describe the intended use of the data. Participants may terminate their participation at any time with no penalty (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:334)

Creswell (2003:64) states that elements of the consent form include the right to participate voluntarily, the purpose of the study, the procedures of the study, the right to ask questions, obtain a copy of the results, and have their privacy respected. The signatures of both the participant and the researcher agreeing to these provisions are
necessary. Letters in English and Afrikaans addressed to the parents were drafted to describe the purpose of the research study, sent home with, and returned by the learners after being signed by the researcher and the parents (Appendix A).

4.4.1.3 Informed assent
Researchers must obtain informed consent from adults and informed assent from minors (Mertens & McLaughlin 2004:152). Children are commonly perceived as being particularly vulnerable when serving as research participants because of their lack of social power. Researchers must treat children with the same respect and understanding as they would adults. The basic principle is to ‘do no harm’ to the participant (Vaughn, Schumm & Sinagub 1996:140). Letters were drafted and explained verbally to the learner participants by the parents and the researcher before it was signed by the learners (Appendix A).

4.4.1.4 Confidentiality and anonymity
Researchers routinely use code names of people and places. Information obtained about the subjects must be held confidential. This means that no one has access to individual data or the names of the participants except the researcher (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:334-335). The researcher adhered to confidentiality and anonymity throughout the study.

4.4.1.5 Access to results
Participant review of the case study of each individual is a means to ensure confidentiality and to protect privacy (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:335). A copy of the research design was given to the school as requested by the principal and a copy was given to the District Office as agreed upon approval of the research request.

The participants must have confidence in the researcher as far as anonymity and access to results are concerned. Chambliss and Schutt (2003:68) state to create confidence in a research instrument, it is necessary to evaluate the validity and reliability – the latter being a prerequisite for measuring validity.
4.4.2 Validity, reliability and trustworthiness

Validity refers to the degree to which the explanations of phenomena match the realities of the world (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:324). Mertens and McLaughlin (2004:173) define validity as the extent to which it measures what it was constructed to measure. In qualitative research, claims of validity rest on the data collection and analysis techniques (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:324). Many strategies to enhance design validity were used in this study.

Prolonged field work as strategy is used with the participant observation in carrying out the school jobs/tasks in the natural settings in which the tasks are performed (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:359). By spending prolonged time in the field the researcher developed an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under study and could convey details about the participants to add to the credibility (Creswell 2003:196).

Descriptive validity refers to the overall accuracy of the descriptions made in the study. Interpretive validity refers to the degree to which the researcher correctly interprets the activities, feelings, viewpoints, thoughts, intentions and experiences of the people in the study (Trustworthiness of the research http://herkules.oulu.fi/isbn9514272463/htmlx321.html). On some occasions the occupational therapist observed the participants to add to the objectivity of the observations. The observations were discussed by the researcher and the therapist in order to reach the same interpretation. This was done to prevent concerns relating to fluctuations in observations that may result because of researcher subjectivity during observation (Mertens & McLaughlin 2004:177).

The in-depth interviews with the parents and learners were conducted in settings of their choice to reflect the reality of life experience more accurately. Questions were phrased in short sentences with words that are easily understandable to the intellectually disabled learners (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:351). The researcher posed questions only on vocational training and transition planning to add to the construct validity of the interviews (Mertens & McLaughlin 2004:175).
Verbatim accounts of conversations, transcripts, and direct quotes from the interviews were given to illustrate participants’ meanings. Low-interference descriptors as strategy were used by giving concrete, precise descriptions from interviews with the learners and the parents (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:351; Trustworthiness of the research http://herkules.oulu.fi/isbn9514272463/htmlx321.html). Direct quotations were intertwined with the researcher’s interpretations (Creswell 2003:197).

During the interviews the data was recorded mechanically with a tape recorder to provide the researcher with an accurate and relatively complete record (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:205). As the whole interview was taped it also included the discrepant information given by the participants during other interviews held with the same participants. This was later used to add to the credibility of the study (Creswell 2003:196).

The findings of case study research cannot necessarily be generalised (Creswell 2003:171) to the intellectually disabled population, although Denscombe (2003:36) states that although each case is in some respects unique, it is also a single example of a broader class of things (intellectually disabled learners). The extent to which findings from a case study can be generalised to other examples in the class depends on how far the case study example is similar to others of its type. Siegle (no date:2) states that the extent to which the findings can be applied in other contexts or to other respondents depends on ‘thick descriptions’. In other words, the researcher collects sufficiently detailed descriptions of data in context and reports them with sufficient detail and precision to allow judgments about transferability to be made by the reader.

Using Talking Mats as an interview instrument the question is always asked if the responses are typical of what the learner believes, especially because the communication needs to be facilitated and sustained by clarifying and confirming meanings. Employing Talking Mats as a facilitated conversation rather than a question and answer process goes some way towards reducing these effects. Cameron and Murphy (in Brewster 2004:167-168) state that Talking Mats may reduce the likelihood of acquiescence.
The results of a study done by Murphy, Cameron, Watson and Markova (2005:1) validated and established this clinical tool as an effective resource for improving communication for people with an intellectual disability. Suran and Rizzo (in Mertens & McLaughlin 2004:173) state that tests (in Special Education) must be presented in the primary language or mode of communication of the learner and no one test or procedure can be used as the sole determinant of a learner’s education programme. Blanks are presented so that the participant can add any options that the researcher has omitted using speech, gesture or whatever communication method they can manage (Cameron & Murphy 2002:106).

The questions were formulated from The Activities Catalogue designed by Wilcox and Bellamy (McDonnell, Hardman, McDonnell & Kiefer-O’Donnell 1995:232) according to activities done by people without disabilities who live in a given community. The purpose of the questionnaire is to indicate to the researcher the level of independence of the learner before commencement of the research and six months later. When we achieve similar results with different measures of the same variable, particularly when they are based on such different methods as questionnaires and field observations, we can be more confident in the validity of each measure (Chambliss & Schutt 2003: 62).

Reliability refers to the consistency of measurement – the extent to which the results are similar over different forms of the same instrument of data collection (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:183, Mertens & McLaughlin 2004:171). Denscombe (2003:274) states that an explicit account of the aims of the research, how the research was undertaken and most importantly, the reasoning behind key decisions made (the audit trail), is instrumental in the reliability of the study.

Chambliss and Schutt (2003:73) emphasise that when more than one observer rates the same people, interobserver reliability is the goal. If observers use the same instrument to rate the same thing, and their ratings are more or less the same, there is much more confidence in the reliability of the observations. The researcher and the occupational
therapist sometimes observed the participants together and compared their ratings in this study.

Purposive sampling adds to the reliability of the study by maximising the range of specific information that can be obtained from and about the context by purposely selecting locations and participants that differ (Siegle no date:3). Although the three participants in this study are severely intellectually disabled, they have three different disabilities and grew up in three entirely different backgrounds (locations).

Golafshani (2003:601) states that to ensure reliability in qualitative research, examination of trustworthiness is crucial. Trustworthiness of a research report lies at the heart of issues conventionally discussed as validity and reliability. In contrast, Stenbacka (in Golafshani 2003:601) argues that since the reliability issue concerns measurements, it has no relevance in qualitative research. She adds the issue of reliability is an irrelevant matter in the quality of qualitative research.

McMillan and Schumacher (2006:340) state that multimethod strategies enhance the credibility of the study. Multimethod strategies were used for data collection in this study.

4.4.3 Data collection

Data collection steps include setting the boundaries for the study, collecting information through observations and interviews, as well as establishing the protocol for recording information (Creswell 2003:185). A time frame for data collection and analysis are provided in Table 4.1. It shows when sampling, obtaining consent, data collection and data analysis took place.
TABLE 4.1 TIME FRAME OF THE STUDY IN TERMS OF THE INSTRUMENT USED AND THE PURPOSE IN RESPECT TO THE STUDY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>April</th>
<th>May</th>
<th>June</th>
<th>July</th>
<th>Aug</th>
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<th>Oct</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sampling</td>
<td>To select case study participants through purposeful sampling</td>
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<tr>
<td>Obtaining consent</td>
<td>Sending letters to parents to ensure ethical measures</td>
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<td>Administration of the questionnaire</td>
<td>To collect data from parents</td>
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<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Round 1: Interviews with parents and learners</td>
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<td>Round 2: Talking Mats interviews with learners</td>
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<td>Round 3: Interviews with parents and learners – IVP interviews</td>
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<td>Round 4: Interviews with parents, learners and curriculum teacher</td>
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<tr>
<td>Implementation of developed programme</td>
<td>To evaluate the skills, values and knowledge gained by the programme</td>
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<td>Analysis of data</td>
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4.4.3.1 The population and sampling
A target population is a group of elements or cases, whether individuals, objects, or events, that conform to specific criteria and to which we intend to generalise the results of the research. (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:119). In the case of this study the target population consisted of six female and 17 male severely intellectually disabled learners in The Special School. The decision was made to select the 2007 school leavers as population because a pilot vocational training and transition planning programme had already been started with the 2006 school leavers before commencement of the study.
Purposeful sampling was used to select participants. Patton (in McMillan & Schumacher 2006:319) describes purposeful sampling as “selecting information-rich cases for study in-depth” when one wants to understand something about those cases without needing or desiring to generalise to all such cases (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:319). Careful consideration was given to each individual learner’s intellectual and multiple disabilities as possible participants for the study before a selection was made in this study.

4.4.3.2 Description of the participants
Lucy is a 17 year old female participant with Trisomy 21 syndrome. She is severely intellectually disabled and presents characteristic abnormalities of Trisomy 21 syndrome girls. She has a short stature with an awkward gait, hypotonia (low muscle tone), a small nose with a low nasal bridge, small ears, an upward slant to the eyes, a short neck, small hands with a single deep crease across the centre of the palm and a wide gap between her first and second toes (How is Down syndrome diagnosed in a newborn? http://www.ndss.org/content.cfm?fuseaction=InfoRes.Generalarticle&article=22). The diagnosis of Down syndrome was made at birth.

She was born with a normal heart, but at a young age a heart operation was done to remove a mycosmia – a small thread like tissue. In May 2004 a hysterectomy was done and in June 2004 she was diagnosed with diabetes. Lucy started to stutter seven months prior to the study.

She attended a crèche for three year and thereafter went to pre-primary school for two years. She was then placed in a special class in a mainstream school for three years. As she could not longer stay in mainstream, she was privately educated by an elderly lady for two hours daily. This was not entirely successful and she was then moved from one day mother to another. Thereafter, the family moved to Roodepoort and she was placed in The Special School where she has been since June 2004.
Lucy’s mother, a home executive for the past two years, is 42 years and her male friend who has been living with them for many years is 60 years old. He operates a civil engineering business with his youngest son. Both female and male participants have children from previous marriages, one son and three children respectively. Lucy’s biological brother also lives at home.

Mary, an obese 17 year old severely intellectually disabled female, shows dysmorphic features consistent with Prader-Willi syndrome, though blood tests done twice did not confirm Prader-Willi syndrome. Prader-Willi syndrome is a genetic syndrome caused by a micro deletion of the paternal chromosome 15q11q13 of chromosome 15. The major features are obesity, cognitive disability, behaviour problems, poor muscle tone and less than normal sex hormones. Mary’s facial features correspond with Prader-Willi syndrome with almond shaped eyes, a small mouth with a thin upper lip and down-turned corners (Prader-/Willi syndrome: What is Prader-Willi syndrome? http://www.med.umich.edu/1libr/yourchild/praders.htm). The caloric intake of these patients is less than usual for their height, but in order to control the progressive obesity, the number of calories consumed must be decreased to approximately 60% of usual. These children have problems with transition and unanticipated changes as in Mary’s case. They tend to have violent outbursts, throw temper tantrums and show rigid behaviour, as rigid behaviour is the case with Mary (Prader-/Willi syndrome: What is Prader-Willi syndrome? http://www.med.umich.edu/1libr/yourchild/praders.htm).

Jacques, a 17 year old male participant, presents with cerebral palsy and Sturge-Weber sequence. Jacques was born normal and at the age of three months was left with the biological mother’s male friend when she went to buy meat. While she was in the shop, he rushed in with Jacques in his arms not breathing. Jacques was taken to hospital and a child abuse case was opened against the male friend. The doctors diagnosed bleeding on the left side of the brain which left his left arm and leg paralysed. Two weeks later, while still in the hospital he suffered a stroke. Because of the severity of the bleeding and damage done, the neurologist gave Jacques a life expectancy of three years. The court
placed him in the care of his grandparents who took him regularly for brain scans and physiotherapy between two to three times per week up to the age of 11 years.

At the age of seven he was placed in a special class in a mainstream school for one term after which he has been placed in The Special School. He has been staying with his grandparents and had regular contact with his biological mother. His grandfather passed away a year ago and his biological mother (currently 38 years of age) has been staying with Jacques and his grandmother, now 70 years old, since October 2005 in order to take care of Jacques grandmother after a serious operation. Jacques’ two biological brothers, aged 18 and 13, are also staying with Jacques and his grandmother.

Cerebral palsy is a term used to describe a group of chronic conditions affecting body movement and muscle coordination. It is caused by damage to one or more specific areas of the brain, usually occurring before, during or shortly after birth, or during infancy like in Jacques case – this type of cerebral palsy is then called acquired cerebral palsy. Cerebral palsy is not caused by problems in the muscles or nerves, instead faulty development or damage to motor areas in the brain disrupt the brain’s ability to adequately control movement and posture. (Parenting and families: general information - cerebral palsy. http://www.ucp.org/ucp-channeldoc.cfm/1/11/10427/10427-10427/447/1/11/10427/1).

Intellectual disability and learning disabilities may occur in people with cerebral palsy. Some individuals with the disorder need to stay under the immediate care of another person for their entire lives; others might have a chance to pursue fully independent lives (Cerebral palsy fact sheet. www.asa.k12.ak.us/depts/ape/factsheet/Cerebral_Palsy.pdf).

Sturge Weber syndrome is a congenital, non-familial disorder of unknown incidence and cause. It is characterised by a congenital facial birthmark and neurological abnormalities. The facial birthmark or ‘Port Wine Stain’ is present at birth and typically involves at least one upper eyelid (the right eyelid in Jacques’ case) and the forehead (www.sturge-weber.com/aboutsws.htm). This syndrome is accompanied by the loss of nerve cells and

4.4.3.3 The researcher as instrument
Piantanida and Garman (1999:139) state, “At the heart of the inquiry is the researcher’s capacity for encountering, listening, understanding and thus experiencing the phenomenon under investigation. The researcher resonates with exquisite sensitivity to the subtle vibrations of encountered experiences”. The researcher (the self) is the instrument that engages the situation and makes sense of it. The role of the researcher as instrument is to have the ability to see and interpret significant aspects and to provide unique, personal insight into the participants performing their school tasks.

The researcher as instrument must maintain a critical distance. No matter how overwhelming the desire to fix things, the temptation must be resisted. The researcher must overcome the desire to do the tasks for the participant, which may seem easier and quicker. Flexibility in behaviour is necessary as the success of qualitative research lies in the ability to ‘go with the flow’ rather than control it. The researcher as instrument must formulate ideas, develop concepts and theories that meaningfully capture some phenomenon and describe them concisely and elegantly (Padgett 1998:20,21).

Feelings of self-doubt, uncertainty and anxiety have been documented by several qualitative researchers. It is natural to develop feelings toward one’s research participants because of the prolonged engagement in their lives. Therefore, it is important to strike a balance between the development of empathy and the pursuit of a distanced, non-judgemental stance (Ely 1997:112-115).

Ely (1997:86) state that the self as instrument connotes personal control and personal responsibility and, therefore, personal creativity. But when it comes to data analysis the frightening responsibility becomes inevitable when one realises that one must create
ongoing meaning out of the evolving and evolved data, since the raw data alone have little value. Furthermore, the researcher must accept that other people may make different meaning from the same data (Ely 1997:86).

In this study the researcher as instrument was responsible for a variety of methods of data collection over a six-month period.

4.4.3.4 Data collection instruments and methods
Typically, qualitative researchers use three main methods for collecting data, namely observation, interviews and records review (Mertens & McLaughlin 2003:101). In this study data was collected by means of in-depth interviews with the learner and parent participants, IVP (Individualised Vocation Programme) interviews, field observations, results from a home independence programme (record review) and an interview with the teacher responsible for the curriculum vocational training and transition planning input.

With the mixed method research strategy, the questionnaire was used as part of the quantitative research strategy that was nested in the qualitative research approach. It is common for the two tools to be used in the same study. The questionnaire provided what are often called the ‘hard data’ and the interviews made it possible to explore in greater detail and in depth some particularly important aspects covered by the questionnaire (Verma & Mallick 1999:122). The Lickert scale questionnaire was designed for self-completion by the adult participants (the parents).

Qualitatively, four rounds of interviews were conducted with the sample population as indicated in the time frame in Table 4.1. To avoid confusion the interviews are discussed in more depth in the order in which they were conducted. The other methods of data collection, namely planned observations, record review and the completion of questionnaires, will be discussed in the sequence that the data collection took place.

(i) Round 1: In depth interviews with the parents and learners
Powney and Watts (in Verma & Mallick 1999:122) define an interview as a conversation between two or more people where one or more of the participants take the responsibility
for reporting the substance of what is said. It involves open-ended, questioning (Appendix B & C) in which the interviewer seeks in-depth information on the interviewee’s feelings, experiences, and perceptions (Chambliss & Schutt 2003:162).

Letters of consent and letters to request suitable times and dates for the interviews (Appendix A) were sent home and returned to school with the learners. For the first round of interviews the parents and learners were able to choose a location. All three study participant cases chose their homes as the venue for the first interviews. The parent and the learner interviews were done one after the other on the same day.

The goal of the first round of interviews was to establish the parents’ feelings, knowledge and needs in connection with introducing a vocational training and transition planning programme at the school. The necessary demographic and background information was requested to establish rapport and to focus the participants’ attention. The open ended questions asked during the interviews with an approximate time schedule are outlined in the parent interview guide (Appendix B), though the sequence and wording of the questions during the interviews varied slightly.

The researcher’s purpose and focus were stated at the outset, and after asking the permission of the interviewees, the interviews were tape recorded to ensure completeness of the verbal interaction and to provide material for reliability checks. Handwritten notes were taken during the interviews to formulate probes and to record nonverbal communication to facilitate data analysis. After completion of the interviews, the participants were thanked for taking part in the study and they were assured of their anonymity in the study (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:205).

Mertens and McLaughlin (2004:103) state that interviewing learners with disabilities can present challenges because of the limited capabilities and often restricted communication of the respondents. Because of the limited verbal skills of the learners formal interviews are difficult to conduct. A short interview schedule was drafted (Appendix C). The goal of this interview was to establish the learner’s vocational dreams for the future and
opinions on vocational training and transition planning aspects. The direct quotations of
the Afrikaans speaking participant given in chapter 5 were translated into English.

(ii) Round 2: Adapted aptitude test interviews– Talking Mats
The goal of the adapted aptitude test interviews is to gain knowledge on the learners'
interests in vocational possibilities. Various studies (in Murphy et al 2005:96) show that
people with varying degrees of communication disability can express their views when a
visual framework is used. Textured mats of approximately 60 X 30 cm in size are used to
display and organise picture symbols. The symbols are produced with a software package
and attached to the mat with Velcro, which allow them to be moved as the participants
formulate their thoughts (Murphy et al 2005:97).

The issue under discussion is identified and represented by the symbol placed centre top
of the mat, in this case, “jobs or tasks that I like”. Three emotions pertaining to this
situation are placed along the top of the mat, including (from left to right); happy,
represented by a smile; maybe, represented by a straight face; and sad, represented by an
unhappy face that presents dislike (Brewster 2004:167; Cameron & Murphy 2002:106).
Various pictures, of different occupations is placed one by one in front of the learner who
then group the pictures according to his/her interest and likes, indecisiveness or dislike
under the three identifying pictures. Pictures of men are shown to the boys and pictures
with women doing the job are shown to the girls.

To make sure that the participant understands the procedure, a training topic must be
introduced. Food is always a good training topic because it is concrete and within
everyone’s daily experience (Cameron & Murphy 2002:106).

After a maximum of thirty different pictures resembling the possible vocational
possibilities (Appendix D) had been shown to the learner, a photocopy was made of the
result obtained. This was kept for the IVP interviews with the parents and served as a
guide of possible job/task placements in the school. The participant’s responses were
determined by both their verbal and non-verbal behaviour, which included speech,
vocalisations, facial expressions, eye contact, pointing, gesture and body language (Murphy et al 2005:98). A tape recording was made of the interview for later transcription to ensure completeness.

(iii) Questionnaires

This study used a questionnaire (Appendix F) to solicit information from the participants on the level of independence before the commencement of the vocational training and transition planning programme. The level of independence is measured according to the frequency of daily living tasks done at home. After six months of implementation the learner’s level of independence/dependence was measured again to attain the level of skills development at home.

The questionnaire items were based on skills completed by people living independently, as summarised by Wilcox and Bellamy (in McDonnell et al 1995:234-235). The questions items in section A which are divided into five categories are based on the variety and frequency of the learners’ leisure activities. In section B comprising four categories, questions were asked about the personal management skills of the learner and section C focused on previous and current jobs/tasks. The Likert-type scale was used because it provides great flexibility since the descriptors on the scale can vary to fit the nature of the question or statement (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:198-199).

In section D two open ended questions were asked to give parents the opportunity to state information they felt was important but not covered in the questionnaire. This information could help the researcher in making decisions on the job/task placement of the learner within the school. McMillan and Schumacher (2006:197) state that open-ended items exert the least amount of control over the respondent and can capture idiosyncratic differences.
(iv) Round 3: Individualised Vocational Programme interviews with parents and learners

The goals of the IVP interviews are to identify a learner’s individual goals and to help learners, families and professional to craft plans that will support learners as they strive to achieve their dreams. The programme should reflect a learner’s interests and preferences, what they still need to learn, as well as what they want to do in life (www.ncset.org/publications/printresource.asp?id=1431).

One hour written appointments were made with the parents for the IVP interviews (Appendix E). Three-point Likert scale questionnaires were sent home with the letter asking the parents about their child’s personal management skills, leisure activities and work experiences (Appendix F). By having the information in advance the interviewees (occupational therapist, class teacher, curriculum teacher and researcher) could do the necessary preparations ahead of the interviews.

On arrival the parents were provided with a programme for the interview. After a short introduction, explanation of the goals for the meeting was given. Parents’ views were asked on their plans for their children’s life after school. The learners’ views were asked on the same subject and the possibilities that exist were discussed with the parents. The parents were provided with relevant telephone numbers, internet addresses and pamphlets on the different possibilities in which they showed interest.

Thereafter, the occupational therapist explained the adapted Talking Mats aptitude test to the parents and the photocopy that was made of the learner’s Talking Mats interview was discussed. Internal job/task placement possibilities were discussed and the learners were placed in jobs/tasks in accordance with the aptitude tests and information that the parents provided. Copies of the job/task placements were given to the parents (Appendix G).

This was followed by asking the parents’ opinions on tasks and jobs that they feel their children can perform at home to teach them greater independence, for example making their own beds, cleaning the bathroom, et cetera. The goals and self-evaluation of the
home independence programme were explained to the parents. Their cooperation was asked in assisting and motivating their children with completing the tasks in the home independence programme. The self-evaluation forms for completion by the learners were explained to the parents and the learners within a positive, motivational atmosphere. The learners were provided with the self-evaluation form that resembles a calendar (Appendix H).

The meeting was closed by giving parents verbal and written information on different grants (Appendix I) available to the learners after leaving school, how and where to apply for the grants and the criteria set by the state for receiving these grants.

(v) Home independence programme results
Sitlington et al (2000:242) mention that the degree to which a person knows about and can perform daily living tasks is directly tied to how independent he/she is. The content of the home independence programme stems from the goals determined jointly during the IVP meeting by the IVP members. Learners receive separate forms (that resembles a calendar) for each goal to prevent confusion with self-evaluation. As explained to the parents and the learners at the IVP meeting, the learners had to return their home independence programme self-evaluation records (Appendix H) at the end of each month to the researcher. On returning the record they then received a self-evaluation form for the coming month.

These self-evaluation records were kept in a file at school to measure the frequency with which the tasks were completed over a six months’ period. The learners’ values in terms of cooperation, respect, perseverance, friendliness and responsibility (Sitlington et al 2000:234) were determined accordingly. Sitlington et al (2000:235) state that values lead people to assume attitudes or positions that are relatively consistent, which then result in relatively predictable behaviours or habits.
(vi) Field observations

Within the qualitative framework data was recorded as field notes, in other words, observations of what occurred while the researcher was in the field with the learner completing school jobs/tasks (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:359). An observational protocol for recording the observational data was used (Appendix J). This was started on a single page with a dividing line down the middle to separate descriptive notes from the criteria determining the values and skills of the learner (Creswell 2003:188). Descriptive recordings include non-verbal body language, facial expressions and body motions of the participants (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:359).

The attainment of values was recorded on a three-point Likert scale, with cooperation, respect, perseverance, friendliness and responsibility in completing these tasks in the left column and the assessment codes: very good, competent and insufficient in the top row (Appendix J). The same method was used for assessing the attainment of skills of the learner. The component for assessing the skills included work motivation, work endurance, work habits and productivity. The skills in each component were assessed as: achieved, almost there and not yet achieved (Appendix J). Also written on this form was demographic information about the time, place, and date of the field setting where the observation took place (Creswell 2003:189).

Reflex records, written immediately after leaving the site, that synthesise the main interactions and scenes observed and assess the quality of the data were also taken (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:350). This was kept separately from the field notes on an observational protocol and included the time, place, and date of each observation. Prolonged data collection continued from April to the end of September.

The teacher responsible for the theoretical curriculum input was asked fortnightly to observe the learners in terms of knowledge gaining with the theoretical curriculum. She designed her own observational protocol, according to the lesson to be presented on that day, to complete.
(vii) Round 4: Interviews with parents, learners and curriculum teacher

These interviews were conducted after the newly developed vocational training and transition planning programme had been implemented for six months. The interviewer wanted to establish the parents’ feelings and knowledge in connection with the introduced vocational training and transition planning programme at the school. McMillan and Schumacher (2001:203) describe interviews as how individuals conceive of their world and how they explain or ‘make sense’ of the important events in their lives. By establishing trust, being genuine, maintaining eye contact, and conveying through phrasing, cadence, and voice tone, the researcher connected with the participants and elicited more valid data (McMillan & Schumacher 2005:205).

Again an interview guide was used in which the researcher selected the topics in advance but she decided the sequence and formulation of the questions during the interview (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:351). Four open ended questions were asked and the interviewees were probed during the interviews to elicit elaboration and to clarify statements (Appendix K).

The second aim of the study is to investigate the outcomes of a vocational training and transition planning programme on the knowledge, values and skills of the learners. The data analysis was done qualitatively and the quantitative data qualified according to the aim of this study.

4.4.4 Data analysis

The concurrent nested mixed research model can be identified by its use of one data collection phase, during which both qualitative and quantitative data are collected simultaneously as the case in this study. The data from the two methods are mixed during the analysis phase of the project by incorporating the quantitative data with the qualitative data analysis. This model is used so that the researcher can gain broader perspectives as a result of using the different methods as opposed to using the predominant method alone (Creswell 2003:218,221).
4.4.4.1 *Qualitative data analysis*

A software tool for qualitative data analysis, HyperResearch, was used for data analysis in this study. The tool allows for eight case studies, with 75 code names and 50 code instances to each case. The fully operational instrument was downloaded from the internet (www.researchware.com/). The programme allows the researcher to choose codes and code relationships, the depth of analysis and the source of the data (text, graphic, audio and video) sources. The programme allows applying codes for multiple source files to a single case, or a single source file to multiple cases. It further allows assigning multiple codes to any chunk of source material.

The programme allows for the viewing of the code reference of one case at a time. Each code reference consists of a code name, the source file name, the source type (text, audio, video, graphic), and a code reference. The codes menu offers a variety of commands that can be used, including duplicating code instances, recoding, and deleting.

Using the software programme analysis began as soon as the first set of data was gathered (round 1 interviews, questionnaire, Talking Mats interviews and IVP interviews) and ran parallel to the rest of the data collection over a six-month period. The data were coded by starting with the predetermined categories and breaking each category into smaller subcategories (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:370). Coding was done with the HyperResearch software programme. Interim data analysis was made with the software programme to identify emerging topics and recurring patterns (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:374).

The ultimate goal of qualitative research is to make general statements about relationships among categories by discovering patterns in the data. A pattern is a relationship among categories. In searching for patterns, researchers try to understand the complex links between various aspects of people’s situations, mental processes, beliefs and actions. Qualitative analysis depends on salient, grounded categories of meanings held by the participants in the situation. Some topics fit into more than one category and a category can fit into more than one pattern. In this study the categories were grouped in
several ways to identify meanings and the categories were crossed with one another to generate new insights for further data analysis (McMillan and Schumacher 2006:373,374).

The literature study was used to allow for triangulation between the various research instruments – the interviews, field observation, home independence programme and the questionnaire (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:374). The data were reported in a 40%:60% format of description verses analysis and interpretation. Finally, the researcher developed naturalistic generalisation or ‘lessons learned’ which could be useful to the readers in applying to similar cases (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:374).

4.4.4.2 Quantitative data analysis
Quantitative data analysis use numbers to describe or measure the results. Descriptive statistics transform a set of numbers or observations into indices that describe the data. Descriptive statistics portray and focus on what is with respect to the sample data and is the most fundamental way to summarise data. It is indispensable in interpreting the results of quantitative research (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:179).

The questionnaire (Appendix F) was divided into three sections, namely section A: leisure activates that are subdivided into five sections; section B: personal management, sub divided into four sections and section C, the work domain. Each activity in section A and C is rated on a scale from 1 to 3 (never, at least twice monthly and at least twice weekly). Section B is also rated on a scale from 1 to 3, with a score of 1 for once per week in and a score of 3 for daily. A higher score indicates that activities are done more often and thus a level of higher independence.

After the six-month implementation period of the developed vocational training and transition planning programme, the same questionnaire was given to the parents to complete again. The scoring was done in the same manner.

The researcher evaluated the participants’ values in performing the school tasks once per week on a three point scale. The value scale consists of five measurements for values,
namely cooperation, respect, perseverance, friendliness and responsibility in completing these tasks. A three-point scale (very good, competent and insufficient) indicated their values on that particular day, with 3 as very good and 1 as insufficient (Appendix J). A mean score of values was calculated bi-weekly and presented on a graph.

The same method was used for assessing the attainment of skills of the learner. The five components were subdivided between four to 7 criteria. A three-point scale was used with a score of 3 for very good, 2 for competent and a score of 1 for insufficient (Appendix J). A mean score was calculated bi-weekly and presented on a graph. Also written on this form was demographic information about the time, place, and date of the field setting where the observation took place (Creswell 2003:189).

4.5 SUMMARY
In this mixed method research design the quantitative approach was embedded in the qualitative research approach. A case study approach, with a sample of three learners with their parents, was selected by using the purposeful sampling method. In accordance with ethical measures for research, approval for the research was obtained from the Gauteng Department of Education, the principal and informed consent and assent from the parents and the learners.

A time schedule was designed stretching over six months for data collection. The qualitative data collection methods included four interview rounds and field observations by the researcher. To add to the validity of the data collection the occupational therapist observed the participants together with the researcher in the field. The qualitative data was analysed by means of the Hyperresearch software programme. A three-point Likert scale questionnaire and a three-point Likert scale for values and skills development were used in the quantitative data collection procedures. With the questionnaire the level of independence before and after implementing the developed vocational training and transition planning programme was calculated.
5 CHAPTER 5 ANALYSIS OF RESULT

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results obtained from an analysis of the data obtained from interviews before and after the implementation of the vocational training and transition planning programme, the Talking Mats vocational interest interviews, continuous observation field notes, the home independence programme and the questionnaire. The qualitative results were analysed with the Hyperresearch computer programme and the findings were interpreted in relation to the research aim and relevant literature available.

The participants who contributed to this case study were the intellectually disabled learners and the parents of these learners. The participants’ class teachers, the occupational therapist and the curriculum teacher played important roles in the implementation of the programme and data obtained from the interviews were used in the analysis of the results.

5.2 ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

A visual framework of the analysis of the results was drawn up in order to make the relationships between the aspects in the study easier to comprehend.
The parents and the learners were involved in the needs analysis. According to their needs, the learners were placed in a school vocational training programme and a home independence programme was implemented at home by the parents. After six months the programme was evaluated according to the skills, knowledge and the values the learner participants gained. The programme was evaluated according to the change in their level of independence.

The National Longitudinal Transition Study (NLTS) (2004:49) indicates that 81% of parents depend on the school to provide information on transition planning for their children. It was therefore important that a needs analysis is made to see what type of information the parents need. This helped the researcher in adapting the already developed programme (chapter 3) to satisfy as many parental needs as possible and to still comply with the Gauteng Department of Education’s requirements.
5.2.1 Needs analysis

On asking the parents what they would like to see happening in a vocational training and transition planning programme to suit their and their children’s needs, they responded by saying: “We don’t know because we do not have a guideline. We are just used to do normal work. We would be very happy to have some guidelines from the school” and “There are no contact points or groups that can actually say to you here are opportunities for people with disabilities” (Mary’s father – first interview). Lucy’s stepfather responded with, “I would like to unlock the thing in her that will make her read” and “We don’t expect her to become a rocket scientist, but we would like her to acquire a certain level of literacy and of language ability” (Mary’s father). In connection with the last two remarks, Sitlington, Clark and Kolstoe (2000:230) remark, “No one would argue that the more skilled an individual is in functional academics, the more independent he/she can be.”

Parents thus need guidance on possibilities available as reflected in their limited knowledge on protective workshops and sheltered work places with the following responses to the question on where their child will be able to work: “I haven’t been down that road yet” (Lucy’s mother), “We haven’t thought about that because basically we are scared” and “We haven’t looked beyond the horizon. We know it is there but we try to procrastinate until the time is there in finding a place” (Lucy’s stepfather).

The participants themselves, as in Li’s (1998:210) study, were not able to give an indication about what they would like to do in a vocational training and transition planning programme. The participants’ needs for vocational training and transition planning were summarised by Lucy’s stepfather in the first interview as, “They don’t see in the future” and “To them they live and tomorrow is just another day.”

In the first interview, Jacques’ grandmother commented that, “…….if you can find out in what he is interested and what he would like to do, I would be glad.” The researcher accommodated this request by using the Talking Mats interview guide as an adapted aptitude test to gain knowledge of the participant’s interests in vocational possibilities.
The occupational therapist conducted Jacques’ Talking Mats adapted aptitude test (as
described in section 4.4.3.4) and the mat results are shown in Figure 5.

**FIGURE 5.2 RESULTS OF JACQUES TALKING MATS ADAPTED APTITUDE TEST**

The pictures grouped with the smiling, excited face indicated that Jacques’ interests lie,
among others, in carpentry, food preparation and packaging which Gribich and Sykes
(1995:269) describe as male dominated vocational tasks. Sewing and cleaning (the
dislikes grouped under the upset face) are described as female dominated tasks. During
the Talking Mats interview Jacques elaborated on the carpentry picture by saying, “I like
very much. Yes, I have assembled a chair. I help. I saw. I work with the saw” (direct
translation).
From the pictures grouped with the happy face Jacques showed more interest in creating something (food preparation, carpentry, and building) than in caring for people as represented by caring for children, the aged, waitering, selling newspapers and shaving men which were grouped under the unsure face. Concerning caring for children, he remarked, “Children, no, I don’t know, changing nappies, I don’t know about children.” In the fourth round of interviews with his grandmother she mentioned, “He got an offer as security when he was in hospital, but I told him to refuse because it is too dangerous.” This topic might have been discussed with him previously by his grandmother as he also indicated that he definitely does not want to work as a fireman.

Because Jacques showed an interest in preparing food and the parents’ general concern was for their children to become literate, it was decided that Jacques would be responsible for costing the food donations three times per week at the school. Although he felt confused about caring for people, he wanted to push a wheelchair. His third task was to open blinds and the windows in the consumer studies classroom in the morning and close them at home time.

Lucy’s attention span is shorter and therefore fewer pictures were shown to form an idea of her vocational interests. She placed caring for animals and children with the smiling face. Her mother commented though, “She wants to be in control. Roy’s (her stepfather) grandchildren are here often, but they are always smaller. She obviously sees herself being in charge of them because they are smaller than her.” Garden work, preparing food, working in a laundromat, cleaning, office work, farm work, sewing and having a friend were also grouped with the excited face.

No pictures were grouped with the confused face and hairdressing and caring for the sick were grouped with the upset face. Contrary to the Talking Mats findings, her mother remarked with the first round of interviews, “I have a brother-in-law who was very sick. We used to visit him ….. she would rub his hands and kiss him, she just didn’t like the oxygen pipes. That way she is very caring,” and “I suggested she will be good in an
environment where she has to assist with the elderly.” The Talking Mats adapted aptitude
test can thus be used successfully to give insight to the parents and the teachers into the
interests and dislikes of learners with intellectual disabilities.

During the interview Lucy communicated mostly by saying, “Mmmm” or nodding her
head affirmatively. She took a longer time to understand with which face the pictures
must be grouped according to the interest she showed.

Because she showed an interest in caring for children and preparing food it was decided
that she would pour milk or fruit juice each morning for the 70 learners on the nutrition
programme and prepare and serve eats once a week for two class voluntary workers and
once a week for the voluntary hairdressers. As she liked working in a laundromat and
cleaning (according to the Talking Mats adapted aptitude test), her school tasks were
further extended to washing the towels used by the hairdressers.

More pictures were shown to Mary, and as with Lucy, she placed all the pictures with the
excited face or with the upset face. No pictures were grouped under the confused face.
She placed sewing, working in a laundromat, garden work, dance assistant, beauty salon,
hairdresser and preparing food with the happy face. Working in a doggy parlour and
caring for children and animals also interested her. Her mother commented with the first
round of interviews, “I also thought in terms of maybe looking at a (indistinct) or a SPCA
(Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals) or something because she loves
animals and she is very good with them. “

She placed office work with the upset face which came as a surprise to the father which
remarked in the first round of interviews, “I thought perhaps she could do something
from home, I can create something in the office …..” The other pictures she placed in
that category included cleaning, food packaging, embroidery, care for the sick and aged,
farm work and selling newspapers. Waitressing was also grouped here and during the
Talking Mats interview she responded to the question, “Do you go to restaurants?” with a
short “No”, though the family often visit restaurants.
As she likes preparing food and garden work it was decided during the Individualised Vocation Programme (IVP) interview that she would lay the buffet table daily for the nutrition programme and deliver the flower donations three times per week to the teachers. As she also liked the idea of working in a Laundromat, the washing of dishtowels task was assigned to her.

Heinen (in Guggenheim 2003:113) states that in the case of job placement, there is seldom a perfect match between the skills profile of the disabled person and the requirements of the job in question. In most cases gaps and shortcomings exist so that the two profiles do not fit together perfectly. The jobs that the participants showed interest in were taken as starting point to assign school tasks to the participants. These steps in the school tasks were taught to the participants by the researcher and the occupational therapist to improve their job skills.

5.2.2 The influence of the programme on the skills of the participants

The objective of this study was to see if there was an improvement in the skills development of the participants over a six-month period in order for them to gain greater independence. The qualitative data collection instruments that were used for the school tasks consisted of field observations made by the researcher and the occupational therapist, the first round of parent interviews and the IVP interviews.

The quantitative results were recorded on a three-point Licker scale as presented in section 5.2.2.1. Their skills development was extended further by a home independence programme and the results are presented by a graph in section 5.2.2.2. The results obtained from the questionnaire are presented on a graph in section 5.2.2.3.

The data on the skills development of the participants was qualitatively analysed according to their work endurance, work motivation, their basic work habits and productivity (Appendix P). Each of these categories was divided into sub categories to give better insight into the different aspects of skills development.
5.2.2.1 Development of skills in the school

(i) Work endurance

The participants’ work endurance were analysed in terms of their attendance and punctuality, self-discipline and their psychological stamina.

a Attendance and punctuality

The participants’ school attendance percentage during the six-month implementation period of the programme were good, with a 98% attendance figure for Mary, 97% for Lucy and 90% for Jacques. This is well above the whole school attendance (88%) for the corresponding period. Their attendance figures with regard to fulfilment of their school tasks were recorded according to their actual school attendance and were slightly higher (except in Jacques case) as shown in Table 5.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Task 1</th>
<th>Task 2</th>
<th>Task 3</th>
<th>Task 4</th>
<th>Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jacques</td>
<td>Wheelchair pushing</td>
<td>Opening and closing of windows</td>
<td>Costing food donations</td>
<td>Wheelchair maintenance</td>
<td>70,75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>96%</td>
<td>98%</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucy</td>
<td>Nutrition program (morning)</td>
<td>Refreshments for voluntary workers</td>
<td>Equipping hairdresser salon</td>
<td></td>
<td>98,6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>97%</td>
<td>99%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>Nutrition program (lunch)</td>
<td>Washing dishtowels and hanging dishtowels</td>
<td>Delivering flower donations to staff</td>
<td></td>
<td>98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>96%</td>
<td>98%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reasons for not completing the school tasks when the participants attended school were: late arrival of school buses, school outings, visits to the school by organisations, illness and a two-week spell of bitterly cold weather.

The average attendance figures were much higher than the punctuality figures as indicated in Table 5.2, because the researcher called the participants or sent a learner to
call the participants if they did not turn up for their tasks. The punctuality percentages represent the days they came by themselves (without having to call them) at the correct time.

### TABLE 5.2 PUNCTUALITY PERCENTAGES FOR COMPLETING INTERNAL SCHOOL TASKS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Task 1</th>
<th>Task 2</th>
<th>Task 3</th>
<th>Task 4</th>
<th>Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jacques</td>
<td>Wheelchair pushing</td>
<td>Opening and closing of windows 98%</td>
<td>Costing food donations 55%</td>
<td>Wheelchair maintenance 0 %</td>
<td>51 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not recorded</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucy</td>
<td>Nutrition program (morning) 95%</td>
<td>Refreshments for voluntary workers 40%</td>
<td>Equipping hairdresser salon 20%</td>
<td></td>
<td>51.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>Nutrition program (afternoon) 88%</td>
<td>Washing dishtowels and hanging dishtowels 30%</td>
<td>Delivering flower donations to staff 10%</td>
<td></td>
<td>42.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Though the punctuality of Jacques’ wheelchair pushing was not recorded, he completed the task punctually according to his teacher. On one occasion Jacques was called twice by a learner to do the food costing and refused to come. However, on another occasion his male teacher took him with him on errands and after arriving back at school, Jacques came to inquire if he could still do the costing of the donated food. Unfortunately Jacques’ punctuality average was influenced very negatively by his failure to attend wheelchair maintenance. He showed no interest in cleaning according to the Talking Mats interest test which coincided with the occupational therapist’s finding that indicated that he never took part in the wheelchair maintenance. Unfortunately, because of time constraints during school hours, it was not possible to go and fetch him to do the maintenance.

Lucy’s punctuality was excellent and most of the time she was waiting eagerly for the classroom and cupboard to be opened so that she could perform her task. On one occasion when Lucy did not arrive on time for her nutrition programme duty, she
apologised without making eye contact and with a shy face, saying “Sorry” and laughing. On a few occasions when she failed to arrive for her tasks, she had very low blood sugar and looked pale.

Possible reasons why Mary had to be called to perform her duties included: she was busy with interesting tasks in class and did not realise it was time to complete the school duties; she did not like washing the dishtowels (contrary to the Talking Mats findings but very obvious from her body language) and tried to escape from the duty; and she cannot read time properly and only knows that it is time to perform her tasks by what they are doing in class. On asking Mary why she did not come to do her tasks, she replied by saying, “Busy”, “Forgot” and “Don’t know.”

On occasions the researcher’s field notes showed entries: “For the first time this term Mary came 15 minutes earlier than what she is supposed to come and with a broad smile on her face;” and “What a surprise when Mary came by herself and showed enthusiasm in starting her task” (washing the dishtowels).

The low punctuality averages of three of the four tasks done by Lucy and Mary, namely taking refreshments to the volunteers, equipping the hairdresser salon and delivering flower donations to the staff, were due to the fact that the participants could not complete the tasks on a regular basis. The voluntary workers came irregularly and therefore the participants did not get into a routine of reporting for duty.

b Self-discipline
Guggenheim (2003:134) states that the low level of self-control of intellectually disabled goes hand in hand with an impaired ability to estimate their own abilities. This may have been the case with Jacques as is evident in the following field observations made by the researcher and the occupational therapist: “Jacques is according to himself too busy to attend the curriculum class;” and “Within a few minutes Jacques returned the costing book and tried to leave as quickly as possible before the researcher could verify the costing figures.”
The other two participants showed better self-discipline according to observations made by the occupational therapist and the researcher; “Lucy shows sufficient self-discipline in the fact that she needs not be reminded of her job and arrives punctually every morning; Lucy left frisking after taking great care in the ticking of her self-evaluation form” and “Though Mary has been called by a learner because her mother was already waiting to pick her up from school, she continued with setting the tables for the nutrition programme. She marked her self-evaluation form, put the book back in its place and then only left for home.”

c Psychological stamina / endurance

Jacques’ endurance improved towards the end of the programme as recorded by the occupational therapist, “He (Jacques) shows endurances to complete the tasks and doesn’t easily give up”. Earlier in the programme the researcher noted, “Jacques was moaning and groaning when he saw he had to do three crates of food costing and eventually did only two where after he tried to excuse himself to go to the bathroom”, and, on a separate occasion, “after costing two crates of food he returned the costing book saying that the food in the third crate were all damaged which was not the case.”

The improvement in Jacques’ endurance corroborates Pitsch’s (in Guggenheim 2003:132) statement, namely that intellectually disabled learners cannot accomplish as much work in the same time as the non-disabled. Intellectually disabled people have less stamina and teachers should adjust to their reduced amount of work. He continues by saying that they often need a break after just ten minutes’ effort.

Lucy’s mother remarked, “She is not a child that gives up easily, if she wants to do something and is determined enough she will do it.” This corresponds with notes taken by the researcher, “Today is bitterly cold, but Lucy was waiting outside the class next to the cupboard with her head and face completely covered with a scarf. On greeting her she reached for the cupboard to take out the mugs, her face (and eyes) still completely covered with the scarf.” On another occasion, “Lucy entered the class with a small chocolate slab in her mouth, she looked extremely pale but completed her task and left.”
A short while later her mother came to fetch her as the school sister was worried about her low blood sugar levels.

Both Lucy and Mary’s work endurance was good. Although Mary did not enjoy washing the dishtowels at all and often arrived looking “like a very cross elephant on stampede”, she always completed the task successfully before leaving. On several occasions when the researcher went to call Mary to wash the dishtowels, she would immediately look down when the researcher entered her class, shook her shoulders, curled both her lips, mumbled something in dismay but got up and performed her task.

Table 5.3 shows the participants’ work endurance over an 18 week period. Every third week the participants’ attendance and punctuality, self-discipline and work endurance was recorded on a Lickert scale as very good, competent or insufficient and scored as either a 3 for very good or a 1 for insufficient.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 5.3 PARTICIPANTS’ WORK ENDURANCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participants names</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jacques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The graph shows that Lucy obtained the highest score for work endurance, followed by Mary and then Jacques. Although Mary’s punctuality percentage was lower than Jacques’, she showed better self-discipline and work endurance. Jacques’ overall lower scores may be attributed to his emotional insecurity caused by his grandmother’s illness (for nearly 8 weeks) followed by his own indisposition.
The participants’ work endurance showed a drop the first week after the school reopened after the June/July school holidays (week 10). The reason for the drop after the school holidays may be attributed to the fact that the participants forgot the routine and had to be reminded again.

No marked difference was noted by the researcher in Lucy and Mary’s work endurance when the programme was started compared to their work endurance at the end of the programme. The same applied for all three participants’ work motivation.

(ii) Work motivation

Work motivation was divided into three sub categories, namely responsibility, level of interest and effort and intrinsic motivation.

a Responsibility

The researcher depended upon the participants to complete some of their tasks daily and held them accountable for completing each step of the task according to their task analysis. The participants’ punctuality is a reflection of their responsibility: it shows if they turned up to perform the task and that they assumed the responsibility. Each of the participants had high punctuality averages for one of the tasks that they performed daily; punctuality was much lower for tasks that were performed irregularly.

Jacques developed a sense of responsibility which could be observed when he became very upset when the learner who had previously pushed his wheelchair returned to school after six months and Jacques was suddenly redundant. On the second last day of school he repeatedly complained to the researcher at different times during the day, “I don’t have a job any more” and “He (referring to the child in the wheelchair) is my child, Andre cannot take him.” After he once dropped the same learner’s schoolbag accidentally and was reprimanded by the teacher, he was very concerned that he would lose his task as wheelchair pusher. On two occasions when the class assistant opened the windows before he could, he commented, “But it is my job.”
On separate occasions when another learner took mugs out of the cupboard, Lucy immediately responded with “Leave, sit” and “No, I will.” When a learner started to pour milk, she ordered him, “Go” with her body bent slightly forward and her arm and finger pointing in the direction of the door. The occupational therapist commented, “She is assertive and performs the task with the necessary confidence and responsibility.”

Notes made on Mary’s sense of responsibility stated, “She put the dishtowels in the tub and then tried to duck off without putting the tub in the classroom,” and “Though the dishtowels were dry in the afternoon when she came to prepare the buffet table for the nutrition programme, she did not take them down.” In contrast to the mentioned (on another occasion) she kept her mother (that came to fetch her from school) waiting while she finished her school task.

The researcher trusted the participants to mark their self-evaluation forms and only checked them once a week. All three participants completed this task conscientiously.

b Level of interest and effort
Jacques’ grandmother described his level of interest and effort, saying, “If you give him one thing to do permanently, he will stay interested, but if you try to push in another thing on the side, he loses interest.” When taking a group of 20 learners to visit a protective workshop, the researcher noted: “Jacques was looking forward to the day and happily got onto the bus”, though he didn’t take much notice of his surroundings and asked no questions when time was given for questions. However, when taking a smaller group to work for an hour in a protective workshop, he was very enthusiastic, but tried to put up a negative front. Possibly this can be ascribed to the fact that all the senior learners are generally negative about working in the protective workshop. As far as the school tasks were concerned, he showed most interest in the wheelchair pushing task than in any other.

Lucy was very aware of her surroundings when completing her tasks but did not show any interest beyond her own responsibilities. When she visited the protective workshop,
she showed interest in her surroundings but acted very immaturely, possibly because her parents also attended the outing.

Mary showed more interest in completing the nutrition programme duties than in washing the dishtowels. On calling her to go to the protective workshop, she entered the class with an unhappy expression and trod heavily to convey her reluctance for the visit. Upon arriving at the workshop she had a happy expression on her face but did not show any interest in the tasks the disabled adults were doing.

c Motivation
Field notes did not indicate a change in motivation over the six months’ period. The following summing up was made by the occupational therapist concerning the learners’ motivation:

- Although Jacques appears to have the necessary skills to do the tasks, his motivation levels seem to be low;
- Lucy demonstrates a high level of motivation and drive when performing her school based task. She participates with eager and is able to take responsibility for the task;
- Because of a lack of motivation with the initiating of tasks, Mary still needs maximum encouragement on a daily basis;
- Mary’s lack of motivation or inconsistency in motivation also influences the consistency of her performance.

The three participants’ work motivation is represented by the graph in Table 5.4.
The participants’ work endurance scores were higher than their work motivation scores. Their lack of motivation coincides with Zhang and Stecker (2001:301) statement that intellectually disabled learners do not set meaningful goals for their future. Landsberg (2005:386) states that the motivation of intellectually disabled learners is influenced negatively by their continual experiences of failure.

Motivation comes from within the person while social skills are necessary to develop relationships with co-workers and superiors in the workplace.

(iii) Basic work habits in relation to the human environment
Work habits data analysis are done in two sections, namely in relation to the human environment and in relation to work tasks. Basic work habits in relation to the human environment are analysed by means of the participants’ ability to communicate and their attitude towards the teacher and other learners.

a Communication
Jacques’ verbal communication skills varied from using full sentences that make sense, “I was supposed to go and work at that place (the protective workshop) today, but they don’t have work for me” (field notes – researcher) to contradictory utterances, “Yeh,
teacher, I like dancing, but I don’t know if I like” (Talking Mats interview with occupational therapist).

In her field notes the curriculum teacher described his verbal participation in the class as, “He doesn’t hesitate to share his meaning and thoughts with the teacher and the rest of the class”; “…talkative and co-operative,” and “…well accepted by the other learners.” This correlates with Bremer and Smith’s (2004:1) finding that intellectually disabled workers who demonstrate competence in social skills are generally perceived more positively than those who lack such skills, regardless of task-related skill levels.

Although his verbal communication skills are well developed they were not always socially appropriate, as the researcher’s field notes show: “Jacques entered the class leaning forward with his body, not making eye contact at all, not greeting the researcher and started to search for the pole to open the windows. The researcher greeted him twice without his mumbling something back. On asking him what the matter was he turned his back and went to class without opening the windows.”

His written communication skills were less well developed as illustrated by the following example, where he had to write a few sentences on his visit to a protective workshop: “Die boome (bome) is te weel (veel) Die werkswinkel is te groot ek hoo (hou) van die kos Diet (dit) leik (lyk) soos ‘n doorp (dorp).” A direct translation reads: “The trees are too many. The workshop is too big, I like the food. It looks like a town.” He made a primitive drawing as shown in Figure 5.3
His drawing is of a house with two windows and one door. The trees, flowers, numerous other buildings and people present were omitted in his drawing.

Sitlington et al (2000:230) state that one of the most common forms of assistance in an interdependent living relationship is assistance with reading, writing and maths. Parents, siblings and spouses provide support for the mentioned.

Lucy has very limited verbal language skills and often uses one or two words only. She started to stutter before commencement of the study which sometimes made it more difficult to understand what she was saying as illustrated in the following examples: “Good bye, s-s-s-see you t-t-t-tomorrow”. On asking her if she enjoyed cooking, she answered, “Mmmm” and on asking, “What do you say when you answer the phone?” no response was given (Talking mats interview with occupational therapist). Her verbal communication skills were not always socially appropriate as in the following example, “She apologized by saying ‘Sorry’ and laughed.”

Though her verbal communication skills are very limited, she compensates by using easily understood sign and body language. When she wanted the learners to sit down, she indicated with her right hand moving downwards and a cross look on her face. The learners understood and obeyed the instruction.
She has no written communication skills. The learners were asked to write a few sentences about their experiences in the protective workshop or to draw a picture of what they had seen at the centre. Luca drew pictures of a dolphin, a shark and a dog.

**FIGURE 5.4 LUCY’S DRAWING OF THE PROTECTIVE WORKSHOP**

Only the dog was recognisable as an animal with a tail, four legs and a head with two eyes, a nose, one ear and a smile. The other two pictures were unrecognisable.

Mary’s verbal communication skills are characterised by single words, as illustrated in the following discussion between the researcher and Mary during the first interview.

Researcher: “Do you know what work daddy is doing?”

Mary didn’t answer.

Researcher: “Does daddy watch TV all day?”

Mary: “No”.

170
Researcher: “Okay, does he sit outside and just come in and have one cup of tea after the other?”
Mary: “No”.
Researcher: “All right, so tell me what does he do?”
Mary: “Office.”
Her father added: “…and”
She responded, “Laptop.”

Encounters between the researcher and Mary often took place with no verbal communication from Mary’s side. The following three examples taken from the researcher’s field notes record: “She came with an empty basket and stood in front of the researcher waiting for more clothe pegs”; “After finishing she stood dead still, not saying a word until the researcher thanked her for work well done. She left with a smile, but no word spoken”, and “After washing the dishtowels she dried them and then stood waiting. When the researcher enquired if she was still doing okay, she pointed to the wash line and shook her head. The builders building at the back of the class had taken the line down. She just stood there, shaking her head.”

The occupational therapist sums Mary’s communication skills up by saying: “The lack of communication and self-confidence hampers her work speed and productivity.” She also remarked, “She struggles to communicate certain needs that arise during a task, for example to ask for the washing powder if she cannot find it in the regular place.” During the first round of interviews, Mary’s mother remarked, “She feels that they (children her age in the area where they stay) tease her and that perhaps make her feel she is not good enough. So it is easier for her to communicate with the smaller younger children, they are about 8 or 9 ……”

b Attitude towards teacher and other learners
The occupational therapist remarked the following: “He (Jacques) shows interest in his fellow learners. This is obvious when he helps the learner, he pushes in the wheel chair”
and “Lucy has a very good attitude towards the teacher and learners involved in the job situation.”

The researcher noted in her field notes that although Mary did not always feel like doing the tasks, did not verbally communicate with the researcher and often did not make eye contact with the researcher. However, the researcher never got the feeling that Mary was negative towards her.

The participants’ work habits in relation to their human environment are presented in Table 5.5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 5.5 WORK HABITS IN RELATION TO HUMAN ENVIRONMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

The graph does not show a significant difference in the participants’ work habits in relation to their human environment. Although Lucy has very limited expressive verbal skills, her score was the same as Jacques who has good verbal skills.

Basic work habits in relation to the human environment focused on communication and attitude; work habits in relation to work tasks focus on concentration, memory, instruction interpretation, decision-making skills and the use of materials and tools.
(iv) Basic work habits in relation to work tasks

a Task related concentration

In observing Jacques performing his tasks, the occupation therapist remarked in her notes, “His concentration and memory doesn’t seem to be constantly the same.” The researcher’s field notes recorded: “He walks up and down purposely looking straight in front of him instead of looking around him to find the pole to open the windows with. Though he saw the pole in front of him he didn’t pick it up”.

During the IVP interviews Lucy’s class teacher remarked, “If she sits and she is busy with embroidery, she will go on and on and on and I would have to stop her some time, and she will concentrate (indistinct) finishes off and then she comes and asks for whatever items.” The occupational therapist said, “She has sufficient concentration to attend to the task at hand and is able to perform the steps in the task in the proper sequence.” In contrast with the mentioned remarks her stepfather mentioned during the initial interview, “I think her state of concentration is not long enough to take responsibility as such (for repetitive tasks).”

In observing Mary while doing her tasks, the occupational therapist pointed out, “She has sufficient memory and concentration to follow the correct sequence of each task.” Two days after demonstrating to Mary how to set the tables for the nutrition programme, the researcher’s field notes showed, “I am amazed how well she remembered where to find what” and “Though she was surrounded by at least ten very noisy, hungry kids she performed her task well”.

b Working memory

The researcher noted in her field observations that she had “showed him (Jacques) the correct procedure once more, and he had to start all over again” and “He opened the windows but left the stick on the sink instead of on the cupboard.” In relation to this Guggenheim (2003:132) states that even if intellectually disabled people can perform the individual steps in a task, they will still falter now and then and will not know how to continue.
In observing Lucy performing her task the researcher noted, “Although she knew yesterday where to fetch a tray, the researcher had to show her again” and “Two weeks have passed and Lucy had to be shown each step of her task painfully slowly once more”. In contrast with this the researcher also observed in the third week of the programme, “She remembered from the hairdresser’s tray to take out serviettes and to put it in the side plates”. Mary’s mother remarked, “She has an excellent memory” which contrasted with the occupational therapist’s observation, “She had to be reminded where to find the soap powder and how much to put in the plastic measuring glass.”

c Instruction interpretation
Both the researcher and the occupational therapist felt that Jacques understood instructions and interprets them correctly. “Simple instructions can be given to him without demonstrating to him how to perform the task” (occupational therapist’s field notes).

Lucy is more dependent on task demonstration. During the Talking Mats interview she said she would like to care for sick people but placed the appropriate illustration with the “I don’t like” group of pictures – she did not understand the verbal instruction.

Mary’s interpretation of instructions differs from time to time. When she had to give verbal feedback after the visit to the protective workshops, she spoke about her holiday. When the occupational therapist observed her completing her task, she remarked, “Mary is able to comprehend the entirety of both tasks and has the drive to complete a task with minimal encouragement from the teacher.”

d Decision-making skills
Jacques decision-making skills can be questioned as illustrated in the following dialogue between the researcher and the participant: “What did you do with the money you drew from the auto teller” Participant: “Wasted.” His grandmother added “Stickers and more stickers and he nags for more.”
Mary’s decision-making skills are also limited as this description in the researcher’s field notes shows: “Crates with food donations were standing on the buffet tables and this even put her more off in doing her task. She made no attempt at moving the crates and just stood still looking in front of her.” The researcher moved the crates and started to help her to set the tables. Her passive stance while waiting may be attributed to intellectually disabled learners’ overdependence on adults in the immediate environment (Landsberg 2005:387). Guggenheim (2003:133) states that when situations change, the algorithms those intellectually disabled learners have learned, will no longer function. They will have to be taught again; however, this will be easier and faster than the first learning process. The occupational therapist mentioned, “Problem solving is also an aspect that needs much development and can be encouraged more.”

e Use of materials and tools

Two remarks that demonstrate Jacques’ ability to use materials and tools were taken from the researchers’ field notes, “Jacques handles the wheelchair with confidence, remembers to keep to the left side of the path, know how to turn the wheelchair and how to push it downhill” and “Initially he found it difficult to operate the calculator with very small keys, but after a calculator with bigger keys was given to him, he mastered the skill of adding.”

Lucy’s stepfather remarked, “Lucy is very good at copying”. The researcher’s field notes recorded: “Though she cannot read, she time and again put the measuring cup on the shelf to prevent a parallax fault, intently focusing on the numbers on the cup (as if she is reading) to measure the powder for the cold drink as the researcher did the very first day” and “Although the wooden spoon is not hot, she keeps on putting an oven glove on before stirring the juice, just like I demonstrated it to her the first day”. After the use of materials and tools had been demonstrated to her, she imitated the process closely.

Mary’s use of materials and tools is good as the following remarks show: “From the second day Mary was able to unlock the cupboard, mix cold drink easily using a
measuring cup and wooden spoon, pouring cold drink with ease without making a mess and cleaning tables well. She had no problem in carrying a tub filled with water without spilling” (researcher’s field notes).

The participants’ work habits in relation to the work tasks are reflected in Table 5.6.

TABLE 5.6  WORK HABITS IN RELATION TO THE WORK TASKS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants names</th>
<th>week 1</th>
<th>week 4</th>
<th>week 7</th>
<th>week 10</th>
<th>week 13</th>
<th>week 16</th>
<th>week 19</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jacques</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucy</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The three participants work habits in relation to the work tasks were not as good as their work habits in relation to their human environment. However, it is significant that the lowest score for two of the three participants was directly after the school holidays (week 10) which indicates that the three-week school holiday affected their memory. Guggenheim (2003:131) states that intellectually disabled learners have difficulty with memory retention and memory recall.

Gramlich, Crane, Peterson and Stenhjem (2003:1) found that employers’ expectations of intellectually disabled employees include being courteous and friendly, completing all tasks neatly and accurately, showing self-respect and respect for others, staying on task and completing all work in a timely manner.

(v) Productivity

The productivity area of skill development seemed to be the only area in which the researcher was able to see an improvement of skills over a six-month period in all three
participants. (Jacques showed improvement in responsibility). Initially all three learners performed the tasks slowly, while the work speed and the quality of output later showed improvement.

a) Work speed
The researcher initially noted that after each step in the task analysis, all three participants paused and waited for the researcher to give the next instruction, as they could not read the written task analysis. In this regard Guggenheim (2003:132) mentions that even when teachers give detailed individual instructions for simple tasks, they should not expect these to be carried out immediately and quickly because learners are slow in their reactions. Teachers must learn to wait for such delayed reactions and be prepared to give the learners enough time to respond.

In rare cases by the end of the first week and in most cases by the end of the second week, learners were able to start and complete tasks performed daily on their own. Jacques had not done any calculator calculations for nearly 18 months at school and he initially battled to obtain the correct amount per crate for the food donations as the researcher did. A month after he started, the researcher bought a calculator with much bigger keys as Jacques struggled to press the correct key on the smaller calculator. This made a big difference and by the end of the term (nearly 8 weeks after he started doing the task), he calculated the costs of the crates correctly. After a three-week holiday period, it took two weeks to attain the same ability. Thereafter he did the costing well. The occupational therapist remarked, “He completes a task in an appropriate time with the necessary external motivation.”

The amount of items per crate differed daily and therefore a valid time comparison was not possible. However, after a six-month period he calculated three crates with food correctly within 20 minutes, while he initially started off with only one crate (which took him 20 minutes).
The first few weeks of Lucy’s training to pour the fruit juice/milk in the mornings, the researcher, one other learner and a class assistant assisted Lucy. After two weeks the researcher only supervised the task (while the other learner and class assistant still helped). By the end of the fifth week Lucy, with the help of a learner, completed the task within 15 minutes. An accurate time comparison was not possible as the number of learners who took fruit juice and bread in the morning varied on a daily basis.

One of the entries made by the researcher in the first week of Mary’s task training recorded: “Slowly, one by one she put the dishtowels in the water”. An entry three weeks later read: “She arrived with a smile and completed the task in a reasonable time according to what is expected from her.” The amount of dishtowels that had to be washed varied on a daily basis and therefore a time comparison was not feasible. The occupational therapist commented towards the end of the study, “The lack of communication and self-confidence hampers her work speed and productivity.”

Initially it took Mary 30 minutes to set the tables for the nutrition programme with the help of the researcher. Three weeks later she was able to complete the task successfully within 30 minutes. For several weeks she hesitated before starting to perform her buffet table tasks. However, the researcher observed after four weeks, “She started immediately upon arrival at the class, not the usual body language of a dead straight statue staring, no winking only waiting….” In the thirteenth week a field note entry made by the researcher read, “…and she happily left 20 minutes later.” At the end of the programme the occupational therapist noted, “Mary’s ability to focus contributes to sufficient productivity and work speed.”

The other tasks done by the participants showed fewer work speed improvements. The other tasks also involved fewer steps according to the task analysis and therefore less time improvement was seen.
b  Quality of output
The following field note entries concerning Jacques were made in the first five weeks of data collection; “On checking the costing book with him, he was unable to explain how he arrived to the total; eventually he started and did the costing of one crate in a reasonable time. Unfortunately the figure was not correct and differed with approximately 10% of the real cost of the foods,” and “He had to be reminded once again to write the date and to add the costing of the two crates to get one figure.” Later entries confirmed that he had achieved the goal of accurate calculations and could complete the date and add the value of the crates successfully.

Lucy’s quality of output was good from the beginning as showed in this remark, “Her work speed is good and the quality of work is sufficient.”(field notes - occupational therapist). The fourth week in the programme the researchers’ field note entry recorded, “The fact that the other learners obey her instructions so well (and that without verbal communication skills) really boosted her confidence which improved her quality of output.”

Early in the programme the researcher observed, “On completion the researcher pointed out that she still needed to put out the two hand wash basins. Mary then added without making eye contact, “Soap and towel” (field notes). A later entry read, “Mary’s attitude changed for the better and she completed every step of her task analysis as expected from her”. With regard to the washing of the towels, the occupational therapist remarked at the end of the programme, “The quality of outcome still needs attention but should improve with regular feedback from the teacher.”

c  Consistency of performance
Taking the participants’ work speed and quality of output into consideration, the consistency of their performance showed an improvement over the duration of the vocational training programme. All three participants’ performance was influenced on days that the normal school programme changed, for example, when a joint programme for all the learners was arranged for the day.
The consistency of Jacques’ performance improved but varied from time to time. Possible reasons were: arriving late at school though not because of his own doing emotionally upsets him which influences his performance negatively; his grandmother’s ill health upsets him very much and causes a drop in his work performance; and the knowledge that he had to go to hospital affected his emotional stability.

Although Lucy suffered from low blood sugar on a few occasions, the researcher did not feel that it influenced the consistency of her performance. Mary’s performance was not noticeably affected by any known incidence.

Table 5.7 indicates the participants’ rise in productivity levels during the programme.

**TABLE 5.7 PARTICIPANTS’ PRODUCTIVITY**

![Graph showing the productivity levels of Jacques, Lucy, and Mary.](image)

The graph shows that the participants’ productivity levels showed a slump after the school holidays but picked up again quickly. Lucy’s rise in productivity was the quickest; Mary scored well for the longest period.

The aim of the school tasks was to improve the participants’ skills and this was extended to the home during the home independence programme.
5.2.2.2 Results from the home independence programme

During the IVP interviews the researcher explained to the parents that the home independence programme self-evaluation forms would be given to each participant at the beginning of each month. Each time a task was done, the participant had to tick the self-evaluation form. The parents had to motivate their child to perform the tasks and to ensure that the form was ticked. The form had to be returned by the end of each month. The tasks decided upon are given in Table 5.8.

TABLE 5.8 HOME PROGRAMME TASKS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Task 1</th>
<th>Task 2</th>
<th>Task 3</th>
<th>Task 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jacques</td>
<td>To wash washing with the washing machine once a week</td>
<td>To buy milk and bread independently twice a week</td>
<td>To pay accounts, count change and ask for a receipt once a month</td>
<td>To wash dishes, dry and put away twice a week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucy</td>
<td>To wash the bath daily</td>
<td>To polish shoes twice a week</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>To wash own hair twice a week</td>
<td>To do a hobby twice a week</td>
<td>To ride her bicycle twice a week</td>
<td>To walk the dog twice a week</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The number of home tasks depended upon the participants’ ability to cope with them. In general it seemed appropriate to limit the number of tasks for learners with severe disabilities (www.vcu.edu/rrtcweb/techlink/iandr/voproj/chap1/chapter1.html).

The home independence programme was analysed quantitatively. All three participants did as requested and the results are given in Table 5.9. Completion of tasks is given as percentages.
Jacques showed low averages for doing the laundry (task 1) and washing dishes (task 4) at home. With regard to washing dishes his grandmother remarked, “He became so rebellious in doing the dishes … so I let that go”. The Talking Mats results show that he was not interested in cleaning and washing clothes. He completed tasks 2 and 3 more often than decided upon. Unfortunately the Talking Mats programme made no provision to determine the participants’ interests in money skills (buying, checking change and asking for receipts).

Lucy often polished her shoes daily (task 1), not only twice a week as decided upon in the IVP interview. The graph shows that she only washed the bath (task 2) 57% of the requested times but her mother explained that she often went to bed before the family members had finished bathing.

Mary walked her dog (task 4) much more often than twice a week as originally decided upon. The Talking Mats adapted aptitude test showed that she likes working with animals. During the first month she washed her hair (task 1) only once by herself which reduced her average for this particular task. Later on she performed the task much more often. Mary worked hard to complete different art articles (task 2) as the researcher recorded in her field notes, “Mary entered the class with a broad smile holding a very colourful painted picture of an Indian man against a mountainous background with
straight arms in front of her. She uttered, ‘Look!’ with a beam.” She also painted a wooden box beautifully and made guinea fowl table cloth weights. The researcher was immediately struck that the articles did not include any embroidery as she showed a dislike for embroidery during the Talking Mats programme. During August she rode her bicycle (task 3) very often, but less during the other months.

Mary had the highest average for completing the home independence programme tasks, namely 81 %, followed by Lucy with 78% and Jacques with 63%, which is much higher than the school task punctuality averages (Table 5.2).

As with the home independence programme the questionnaires were analysed quantitatively.

5.2.2.3 Analysis of questionnaire

The three sections in the questionnaire, namely leisure activities, personal management and work experience total scores are compared in Table 5.10 as calculated before the start of the programme and on completion of the programme.

TABLE 5.10 PARTICIPANTS’ INDEPENDENCE SCORES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Leisure activities</th>
<th></th>
<th>Personal management</th>
<th></th>
<th>Work experience</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>After</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>After</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>After</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jacques</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucy</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Jacques showed an increase in scores in two of the three sections, namely personal management and work experience. He showed a decline in the leisure activities as he did not swim during winter and did not replace swimming with any other leisure activity. Jacques’ level of independence thus showed an increase at the end of the six-month programme.
Lucy’s independence showed a slight increase in all three sections and she, together with Jacques, was more independent after completion of the programme.

Mary’s independence levels rose the most over the six-month period. Although her leisure levels stayed the same, she showed a big increase in personal management and a slight increase in work experience.

5.2.3 The influences of the vocational training and transition planning programme on the knowledge of the participants

Gramlich et al (2003:1) stress that intellectually disabled learners do not see or understand a clear connection between what they learn in school and job expectations. A connection must be made between work experiences, work behaviour and what they are learning.

The participants have very limited occupational awareness. Because of Lucy’s limited verbal communication abilities, she could not give much feedback on questions asked. Mary and Jacques replies were as follows:

- With the question, “Does your best friend’s mother work?” Mary replied, “Yes.” On probing her with the question: “Does she get in her car and go to work every day or does she work from home?” the reply came as, “Car.” When the researcher asked where the friend’s mother goes with the car, she replied, “Work.” (first round interviews);
- When the researcher asked Mary what type of work she would like to do, she replied, “Computer”. On asking, “What would you like to do on a computer?” The answer was: “Play.” (first interview);
- Mary had better knowledge about working in a doggy parlour and replied, “Wash dogs.” (Talking Mats interview – occupational therapist). Mary’s mother replied, “Because she (Mary) understands very well what a job is and that you get paid and she understands what her cousins do and she, I think, she would like to see herself working.” (IVP interview);
- On asking Jacques if he knew about office work, he replied, “Yes, I can do it. I type. I do paper work. I can put things in a book”;

184
- Jacques’ knowledge as a farm worker was: “Give animals’ food” and “It’s wet” (Talking Mats interview – occupational therapist).

The participants had little ability to retain verbal knowledge input as the curriculum teacher’s notes showed: “Lucy kept on talking about her mommy and paid little attention to what the teacher said” and “Lucy had no clue on what was discussed and just sat nodding her head.” The learners were asked to give their feedback on Logwood Village and Mary responded by talking about her holiday.

Pitsch (in Guggenheim 2003:133) states that models, pictures and drawings are more suitable aids than the spoken word to reinforce the storage of learning in the memory of the intellectually disabled and to retrieve it later. Learning proceeds in small steps, with many breaks, repetitions and exercises. Teachers must speak clearly and distinctly, use straightforward or explicit terms and give each object just one name. The sentences must be short and concise and not long and complicated. Teachers must use concrete and not abstract terms, they must add gestures to stress what they say and they must teach the learner to use gestures to explain themselves.

The participants had knowledge input specifically on vocations and transition planning over a six-month period, but test results on knowledge gained are not a reliable measure to analyse if they have gained knowledge. Lucy’s mother remarked, “She is not able to give feedback on what she did at school” (fourth round of interviews); Jacques grandmother reported, “He knows more now.”

Thirdly, the aim of the vocational training and transition planning programme was to ascertain if the participants’ values had changed during the programme.

5.2.4 The influence of the programme on the values of the participants
Every third week the researcher evaluated the participants’ values according to the respect and friendliness they showed towards the researcher, the other learners and the class assistant. A score of either 1 for insufficient, 2 for competent and 3 for very good was allocated. The participants’ perseverance was observed by evaluating their
punctuality and stamina in performing the task. The responsibility was evaluated according to their completion of all the steps in the task they were supposed to do. Their cooperation was evaluated on how willingly they performed the tasks.

The participants’ values are shown on the graphs in Table 5.11 – 5.13.

**TABLE 5.11 JACQUES’ VALUES**

![Graph showing Jacques' values over 18 weeks for different values](image)

No significant difference in values was experienced from the start of the programme to completion after 18 weeks. Jacques’ respect, friendliness and perseverance were slightly higher for the duration of the programme than his responsibility and cooperation.

No significant changes in values were experienced with Lucy when comparing the scores towards the end of the programme with the scores attained with the beginning of the programme.
Lucy’s values are characterised by higher scores on friendliness and cooperation. She scored overall higher scores than Jacques.

The same comments applied to Jacques and Lucy applied to Mary, with no significant changes in values during the programme.

Table 5.12 depicts Mary’s best value as her perseverance and friendliness as her poorest value. Her values for respect, responsibility and cooperation were more or less the same.
5.3 SUMMARY

Intellectually disabled learners often find themselves mysteriously hampered in building their lives. They have a fractured experience of life. Often they are prisoners of a past that alienates them from their present and prevents them from looking forward into the future (Guggenheim 2003:94). According to the needs analysis, the participants’ parents and the participants themselves did not really know what input they would prefer in a vocational training and transition planning programme.

In analysing the Talking Mats adapted aptitude test, it was striking that the views of the parents of two participants concerning the occupations that they thought their children would like differed from the test results. As stated by Cameto (2005:1), it is therefore necessary that the learner actively participates in his/her future planning. The participants were placed in either three or four school tasks according to their ability to master the tasks. They had noticeably higher punctuality scores in tasks that were performed regularly.

Qualitative and quantitative data analysis were done with the skills criteria which included work motivation, work endurance, basic work habits in relation to the human environment and work tasks and productivity. Chambliss and Schutt (2003:62) conclude that when we achieve similar results with different measures of the same variable, we can be more confident in the validity of each measure. In comparing the initial finding on skills development with the finding at the end of the study, all three participants showed an increase in productivity scores. Jacques showed an increase in responsibility. No other significant increases were found. Alberani (in Guggenheim 2003:94) states that intellectually disabled people often display an awareness of being worth nothing, or very little, in a society which, at every level is linked to images of efficiency and profitability.

The parents cooperated by motivating their child to do the home independence tasks and to submit the self-evaluation forms monthly. The same questionnaire was given to the participants’ parents at the end of the programme to compare the scores to see if the
children had become more independent. The data was analysed quantitatively and high averages were calculated for completing the tasks in the home independence programme.

McDonnell, Hardman, McDonnell and Kiefer-O’Donnell (1995:233) state that knowledge instruction must preferably take place in actual settings, such as, stores, restaurants and the actual workplace to have a significant effect. The curriculum instruction took place mainly in the classroom because of time constraints in the school’s timetable. Writing tests to determine knowledge recall is not effective with intellectually disabled learners.

The participants’ values were recorded and analysed quantitatively and no significant change was observed.

Duarte (in Guggenheim 2003: 29) provides the following comment made by an intellectually disabled employee, “If disabled people have the courage to work, employers should equally have the courage to employ them. I do not want to be left on one side, since my future then would be zero. I have to work.”
6 CHAPTER 6 SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Over the last ten years, education in South Africa has undergone numerous and radical changes. In the White Paper on Education and Training published in 1995, the Department of Education (RSA) and Training introduced Curriculum 2005. As this is a curriculum for learners in mainstream schools, schools for intellectually disabled learners are using the Foundation Phase curriculum (Grade 1 – 3) for learners up to the ages of 18 years. In the White Paper on an Integrated National Disability Strategy, strategies for access to the curriculum for learners with disabilities were emphasised. The implementation of a variety of strategies is used in this research to adapt the Life Orientation Learning Area, Grades 7, 8 and 9 in Curriculum 2005 to partially suit the needs of the intellectually disabled learner in a school vocational training and transition planning.

The purpose of this chapter is to present a summary of the study, to draw conclusions and to make recommendations based upon the findings. In addition, a recommendation for further research will be provided.

6.2 SUMMARY

The main aim of this study was to develop and manage a vocational training and transition planning programme for intellectually disabled learners in the school. From the aim two objectives were formulated, namely to identify and describe the steps in the development and management of a programme and to investigate the outcomes of a vocational training and transition planning programme on the knowledge, values and skills of three learners.

The study introduces the reader to the restrictions that the intellectually disabled learner faces in childhood development and how this later affects the learner in his/her vocational choices and possibilities (section 1.1). A research question was formulated, namely: How
can a vocational training and transition planning programme be developed and managed within the framework of the National Curriculum Statement according to the needs of intellectually disabled learners within the school? (section 1.2). An overview of the research methodology, consisting of a mixed method research design is described (section 1.4), the terminology is defined (section 1.5) and the chapter concludes with the chapter divisions as described in section 1.6.

The steps in the development of a programme are described in section 2.2, namely doing a needs analysis, planning and development of a programme and the implementation and evaluation of the programme. This is followed by a literature study on the influences of intellectual disability on learners in their future plans and future job placements (section 2.3). The ultimate goal for intellectually disabled learners is independence which includes managing one’s own affairs, participating in day-to-day life in the community, fulfilling a range of social roles, and making decisions that lead to self-determination and the minimisation of psychological or physical dependence upon others.

As South African literature on vocational training and transition planning in schools is very limited, a thorough study of this subject in the United States of America is made in section 2.4. Six programme practices that help with successful post school adjustment of learners with severe disabilities (section 2.4.1) were identified, consisting firstly of an outcomes-based programme evaluation. The second practice, person centred vocational and transition planning and assessment (section 2.4.2.2) are divided into the knowledge and skill domains consisting of employment, communication and academic performance, self-determination, interpersonal relationships, integrated community participation, health care and fitness, independent daily living and leisure and recreation. Transition assessment is done with analysis of background information, interviews and questionnaires, psychometric instruments, work samples, curriculum based assessment techniques and situational assessment. The third practice, community reference curriculum and instruction, referred to the different aspects of occupational awareness, employment related knowledge and skills and specific vocational knowledge and skills (section 2.4.2.3).
An individualised vocation programme as fourth aspect of the programme practice described the vocational plan for the learners (section 2.4.2.4) which eases the transition from school to work for the learner. With job placement and training (the fifth aspect described in section 2.4.2.5) the steps in placement and job training and supervision needs careful consideration to ensure that the learner maintains the job. Because families play a significant role in securing the learner’s job after school, family involvement forms the sixth aspect of the programme practice.

In the United States learners receive a diploma after completion of their programme (section 2.4.3) but this has been badly neglected in South Africa (section 2.5.1). South Africa started with learnerships (section 2.5.1.2) currently marked by low participation, and their pre-learnership programmes were targeted at Grades 10 and 11 which is not within the reach of the intellectually disabled learner. There are only two state owned skills development centres for intellectually disabled. Moreover, in private centres learners are required to have a National Qualifications Framework level 1 (Grade 9) qualification, which is not in their reach (section 2.5.1.3).

Locally intellectually disabled learners have four future work possibilities as discussed in section 2.5.2, namely protective and sheltered employment, supported employment, competitive employment and seeking work through employment agencies that cater for intellectually disabled learners, which are very scarce.

Numerous policies and laws are applicable in placing the intellectually disabled in employment. The Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 includes the Code of Good Practices which provides the employers and the courts with guidelines for appropriate practice (section 2.6.1). The Employment Act of 1997 enforces basic conditions of employment for workers and ensures equal opportunities in the workplace by eliminating unfair discrimination (section 2.6.2). The Employment Equity Act, no 55 of 1998 ensures equity, the right to equal protection and benefit of the law for people with disabilities. It guides the employers and employees to fair treatment and to understand their rights,
obligations, and serves as an awareness tool (section 2.6.3). The Disability Rights Charter of South Africa is discussed in section 2.6.4. Section 28 of the Constitution states that children should not be expected or permitted to perform work that is inappropriate for the child’s age or places the child’s well-being at risk (section 2.6.5). The section on laws and policies conclude with the Reconstruction and Development programme and the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act (section 2.6.6 & 2.6.7).

Different cultural groups have different expectations and views. They may prefer to take care for their own rather than looking to schools or agencies to provide assistance. Their traditional values may be interdependence rather than independence, or others make decisions for the entire family rather than each family member taking responsibility for personal decisions (section 2.7). This is followed with a conclusion in section 2.8.

The literature review in chapter 2 served as a guideline and framework to develop a South African vocational training and transition planning programme. Research showed that intellectually disabled learners do not set meaningful goals for their future and the researcher’s experience showed that they have little knowledge and skills that prepare them for employment. Parents do not have information on vocational possibilities for their intellectually disabled children as discussed under the needs analysis in section 3.2.

A framework for the development of a vocational training and transition planning programme was drawn up with adaptation to the National Curriculum Statement as starting point (section 3.3.1). Curriculum adaptations were done by making use of curriculum straddling in which two or more grades of phases were integrated within one learning area or learning programme (section 3.3.1.2) according to the needs, strengths and interests of the learners. With designing down of the curriculum the assessment standards were broken down to build up a logical progressive way of learning (section 3.3.1.3). Adaptation of the curriculum further included varying the number of the learning programmes within the Intermediate and Senior Phase and the duration of the learning programmes (section 3.3.1.4).
Outcomes-Based Education forms the foundation of the curriculum in South Africa and the aim of the learning programmes is the preparation of all the learners for life after school with the goal of independence (section 3.3.2.2). Person centred transition planning and assessment (section 3.3.3) served as vehicle to achieve independence.

Transition assessment methods included school reports, learner profiles, learner portfolios and medical files (section 3.3.3.2). A questionnaire consisting of three areas namely leisure activities, personal management and work domain gave valuable information on the learners’ level of independence (section 3.3.3.3). Talking Mats, an Alternative and Augmentative Communication programme (AAC), served as an adapted psychometric instrument to explore the learners’ interests and opinions (section 3.3.3.4). Work samples, as a method of transition assessment, were used by placing learners in jobs/tasks in the school (section 3.3.3.5). Transition assessment was concluded with curriculum based assessment techniques of which continuous assessment was the most important assessment method as indicated in section 3.3.3.6.

The fourth category of the vocational training and transition planning programme, curriculum content (section 3.3.4) was discussed under the Life Orientation Learning Area, Learning Outcome 5 of the Senior Phase curriculum, namely orientation to the world of work. Each assessment standard of the Grade 7, 8 and 9 Life Orientation curriculum was adapted according to the abilities of the intellectually disabled learner (Table 3.2). Adaptations to the four learning outcomes of the Life Orientation Learning Area, namely health promotion, social development, personal development and physical development and movement was discussed in section 3.3.4.2, a-d. Adaptations to the Economic and Management Learning Area of the Foundation and Intermediate Phase curriculum were discussed in section 3.3.4.3. The technology, language and mathematics learning programme of the Foundation Phase curriculum as part of the vocational training and transition planning curriculum was discussed in section 3.3.4.4 & 3.3.4.5.
The IVP formed the fifth component of the vocational training and transition planning programme. It held many advantages for the learners and the parents as discussed in section 3.3.5.1. The IVP members included parents, teachers, and significant others (section 3.3.5.3) and the goals set in this programme varied from academic, social, physical or behavioural needs (section 3.3.5.2). The success of the IVP meeting depended on the organising and planning of the meeting. The plans made and goals set during the IVP have to be put into practice and communication between the school and the learners’ homes are important for reaching success (section 3.3.5.5). The home independence programme was discussed during the IVP meetings and the parents were motivated to motivate the child to become as independent as possible (section 3.3.5.8). These tasks were assessed by the learners themselves on self-assessment forms provided monthly by the vocational manager (section 3.3.5.8).

After the vocational manager has placed the learner in a job/task in the school, job sources were identified and the number of jobs per learner was evaluated in order to ensure a balance between the learners’ ability and job load (section 3.3.6.2 & 3.3.6.3). A job duty schedule was drawn up to evaluate the amount of time spend on internal jobs and to ascertain the variety of skills learnt (section 3.3.6.4). Job training took place and task analysis that consisted of one observable behaviour for each school job/task in the school was made (section 3.3.6.5. & 3.3.6.6). As with the home independence programme self-assessment was proposed for the school jobs/tasks in order not to burden the teacher with extra paper work (section 3.3.6.7). Learners that have the potential to be placed in the open labour market must be carefully evaluated and placed in a job/task in the school that coincide with a job in the open labour market that they show interest in (section 3.3.6.8). Children under the age of 15 years may not be allowed to work full time (section 3.3.6.9).

As families play a crucial role in the development of their child the impact they have on vocational training and transition planning is important (section 3.3.7) in reaching the ultimate goal, adult independence and interdependent living (section 3.3.8). This chapter concluded with a summary (section 3.4).
In the next chapter the research question and aims were repeated (section 4.2) after which the mixed method research design was explained (section 4.3.1). The concurrent nested research strategy was used with the predominant method, the qualitative method (section 4.3.2) guiding the research. The quantitative method was embedded within the qualitative method. Two quantitative instruments, namely a three-point Lickert scale questionnaire and a three-point Lickert scale for assessing skills and values were used (section 4.3.3). Four separate rounds of interviews were used as qualitative instrument (section 4.3.3).

The ethical considerations of the research were discussed in section 4.4.1 and validity, reliability and trustworthiness in section 4.4.2. Table 4.1 gave the time frame of the study in terms of the instruments used and the purpose in respect to the study. The population was described and purposeful sampling was used to select the participants (section 4.4.3.1). In section 4.4.3.2 the three 17 year old participants: a Trisomy 21 female, a female with typical Prader-Willi characteristics and a male with acquired cerebral palsied and Sturge-Weber sequence were described. The researcher as instrument had to exercise personal control and responsibility (section 4.4.3.3) in using the data collection instruments.

The data collection consisted of in-depth interviews with the parents and learners (section 4.4.3.4 i) that took place at the learners’ homes. With the adapted aptitude test (section 4.4.3.4 ii) the researcher gained knowledge on the interests in vocational possibilities of the learners. The questionnaires were used to get information on the level of independence before commencement of the study and compared to results six months later after completion of the research (section 4.4.3.4 iii). The IVP interviews served to identify the participants’ individual goals and to help families and professionals to establish plans to support the learners in vocational training and transition planning (section 4.4.3.4 iv). The home independence programme as data collection method was described in section 4.4.3.4 v. Field observations were recorded qualitatively and
quantitatively (section 4.4.3.4 vi) and the section concluded with the last round of interviews with the parents, learners and the curriculum teacher (section 4.4.3.4.vii).

A software tool, Hyperresearch was downloaded from the internet and used for qualitative data analysis which was started as soon as the first set of data was gathered (section 4.4.4.1). The questionnaire facilitated quantitative data analysis in which the score was used as indication of the level of independence of the participant. The participants values in performing the school jobs/tasks were also analysed quantitatively (section 4.4.4.2). The chapter concluded with a summary as discussed in section 4.5.

The qualitative and quantitative research results were captured in narrative form, with graphs and pictures drawn by the participants. In Section 5.2.1 a needs analysis reflected that the parents did not have a guideline for their child’s future, they were scared of their child’s future and that they felt literacy and being able to communicate verbally played an important part in their children’s future. The participants were unable to verbalise their needs for a vocational training and transition planning programme which was summarised by a parent as follows: “They don’t see in the future.”

The number of pictures shown during the Talking Mats adapted aptitude test varied according to the intellectual ability of the participant. The participant with the higher intellectual ability was shown more pictures while the other participants received fewer pictures and grouped no pictures with the unsure face. The two female participants’ results from the test differed from what the parents thought they would be interested in as a vocation. The participants were placed in jobs/tasks in the school according to the results from the Talking Mats programme (section 5.2.1).

Section 5.2.3.1 presented the influences that the vocational training programme had on the skills development of the participants. All the participants had 90% or higher school attendance during the study, with lower school job/task attendance percentages (varying from 70.75% - 98.6%). The punctuality percentages were lower than the school job/task attendance percentages because the researcher called the participants if they did not turn
up to perform their tasks. The punctuality percentages varied between 0% (the occupational therapist did not call the participant when he did not attend) and 98% for opening and closing of windows.

The participants’ self-discipline varied with the two females showing better self-discipline than the male participant (section 5.2.3.1. b). Both females also showed better psychological stamina/endurance than their male counterpart (section 5.2.3.1.c). Work motivation was divided into three categories, namely responsibility, level of interest and effort and intrinsic motivation. Once again the two females showed greater work motivation than the male participant (section 5.2.3.1.ii). All three participants showed a positive attitude towards the teacher and the other learners. The male participant had better communication skills and he and one female participant obtained the same score for basic work habits in relation to the human environment (section 5.2.3.1.iii). Basic work habits in relation to work tasks were divided into five sub categories and the male participant showed better work habits in relation to the work tasks than the two female participants (section 5.2.3.1.iv). The participants’ productivity depended upon their work speed, quality of output and consistency of performance and all the participants’ productivity levels showed an increase in the latter half of the programme (section 5.2.3.1.v).

The home independence programme results varied from being done 17% of the time with rebellious behaviour to always being done (section 5.2.3.3). The number of tasks depended upon the participants’ ability to be able to cope with the tasks. The two female participants performed the one home task much more often than what was decided upon during the IVP interviews. The analysis of the questionnaires showed a slight improvement in the personal management and work experience sections with two of the three participants; the male participant showed a decrease in leisure activities compared to the beginning of the programme. One female participant showed a marked increase in personal management activities over the six months’ period (section 5.2.3.5).
The participants showed very little occupational awareness and had limited ability to retain verbal knowledge input (section 5.2.3). No significant changes in values were calculated with the three participants over the six month period (section 5.2.4).

The summaries of the five chapters concluded with a conclusion from the literature and from the findings of this study.

6.3 CONCLUSION

Conclusions were drawn from the literature study and the findings of the research.

6.3.1 Conclusions from the literature study
Learners with an intellectual disability represent the largest group of learners experiencing intrinsic barrier to learning. In our country with high poverty levels, the prevalence of this group is even higher than the available international figures (Landsberg 2005: 400) and therefore it is important to accommodate these learners in schools by preparing them for adult life. From the literature study it is clear that vocational training and transition planning for intellectually disabled learners as they are prepared for adult life is very complex as being concluded and categorised under the following headings.

6.3.1.1 Legal enforcements
Many teachers in special schools have been advocating for vocational training and transition planning for a number of years. A variety of programmes to improve the ability of the intellectually disabled appeared strongly on the scene and then slowly disappeared. In the United States of America the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) and its Amendments and legislation such as the School-to-Work Opportunities Act enforced teachers to train learners in a vocation and do transition planning (McDonnell, Hardman, McDonnell & Kiefer-O’Donnell 1995:225; Sitzlington, Clark & Kolstoe 2000:339) (section 3.3.5). When schools are forced legally to comply, they endeavour to comply with legislation and this is one reason why American intellectually disabled learners are more successful in achieving independence after they have left school. In
South Africa there is neither a law nor a curriculum that enforces vocational training and transition planning.

6.3.1.2 Integration into the education system
Vocational training and transition planning must be fully integrated into the overall educational system within the school. It is imperative that the National Curriculum Statement incorporate vocational training and transition planning in the curriculum to ensure that all intellectually disabled learners achieve the ultimate outcome of education, namely preparation for either interdependent or independent adult life (section 3.3.4).

6.3.1.3 Influence of disabilities on future possibilities
Intellectual disability influences the physical, conative, moral, affective, social and personality development of the learner. These aspects ultimately hamper the learner in becoming independent, as cognition is a prerequisite for independence in even the most insignificant self-care tasks (Landsberg 2005:17) (section 2.4). Though their disabilities hamper them in becoming independent, certain programme practices have shown to be successful.

6.3.1.4 Programme practices for successful vocational training and transition planning
Research has shown that the composition of a programme consisting of outcomes-based programme evaluation, person centred vocational training and transition planning and assessment, appropriate curriculum content orientated towards the world of work, an individualised vocation programme, job placement prior to school leaving, family involvement and transition to adult independence and interdependent living are associated with successful post school adjustment (McDonnell et al 1995:227) (section 2.5.2). In addition, Sitlington et al (2000:108) divided adult life areas into the knowledge and skills domain according to which transition planning and assessment must be done (section 2.5.2.2). By covering these areas in instruction, and by focusing on employment related knowledge and skills the educator ensures a balanced preparation for high quality adult life (Mc Donnell et al 1995:244). The content of this programme practices have to
be adapted to the South African context to better the lives of the intellectually disabled (section 3.3.4), keeping in mind the diversity of the South African population (section 2.8).

6.3.1.5 Roles that stakeholders play
Many stakeholders play an important role in vocational training and transition planning (section 2.4.2.4). The learner must be involved and motivated to actively take part in his/her vocational training and transition planning process (My child’s special needs. A guide to the Individualised Education Programme). Families need to be involved and be supportive to the child and the school and let go when appropriate (Thorin Yovanoff & Irvin 1996:118) (section 2.4.2.6). The school needs to take vocational training and transition planning seriously and keep the goal of education in mind, namely adult interdependence or independence. The National Department of Education (RSA) ultimately plays the most important role in developing a curriculum. The Department of Labour has implemented a skills development programme to improve skills attainment, which is unfortunately not accessible for intellectually disabled learners (section 2.5.1.2).

The outcomes of the process from school to adult life depend on the effectiveness of all the mentioned stakeholders and the participants in the process. If they are passive or reluctant to be involved, the best programme is doomed to be unsuccessful. Businesses in the community play an equal important participant role.

6.3.1.6 Work based learning experiences
McDonnell et al (1995:244) conclude that sampling a variety of employment alternatives while still in school helps to identify the learners’ work strengths and interests. Work based learning experiences are part of the career preparation that allows students to achieve their desired goals (Gramlich, Crane, Peterson & Stenhjem 2003:3) (section 2.4.2.5).
Work based learning and transition planning open the doors to employment in smaller steps to make the new adventure less painful.

6.3.1.7 Work opportunities
Opportunities for intellectually disabled learners in the workforce are limited. There is a choice to be made between either open competitive employment or self-employment for the majority, and sheltered employment where open employment is thought to be inappropriate. The decision about whether competitive (section 2.5.2.3) or sheltered employment (section 2.5.2.1) is more appropriate is based not on personal preference but on the productivity level the learners is thought able to achieve in comparison with a non disabled person (Hales 1996:147). Unfortunately South African families do not have a wide choice of employment agencies (section 2.5.2.4) for intellectually disabled learners as in the United States.

The last step in the planning of a programme consists of the evaluation of the programme. The programme is evaluated in terms of the conclusions made from the findings of the study.

6.3.2 Conclusions from the findings of this study

6.3.2.1 Parents’ needs
The three learners that took part in the research study’s parents were especially unsure about future possibilities for their children (section 5.2.1). The parents’ needs for information to help in future planning for their child cannot be overemphasised. Research states that 81% parents with disabled children depend on the school to give guidelines on transition planning (National Longitudinal Transition Study 2004:10).

6.3.2.2 Planning, time constraints and programme evaluation
Though vocational training and transition planning was implemented in the whole senior phase of the school, no time was provided on the school’s timetable for teaching and evaluating the tasks given to the research participants and the other learners. The teachers
and the occupational therapist had to fit this in between other lessons and found it difficult to teach the participants to do the tasks step by step. Furthermore, it took a longer period to teach the tasks to the participants and other learners. Furthermore, they took longer to master the skills properly because the teachers and occupational therapist did not assist them often enough during the beginning phase (section 5.2.3).

6.3.2.3 Talking Mats adapted aptitude test
This programme was successfully used to determine the participants’ interests in occupations. Though one participant had very limited expressive verbal skills, she understood what was expected from her (section 5.2.1). The Talking Mats adapted aptitude test served as a communication tool between the learner and the interviewer to make communication possible which could not have happened without the tool. The use of this tool can be extended further to facilitate vocational class discussions.

6.3.2.4 Individualised Vocation Programme interviews
The IVP interviews were much appreciated by the parents and they actively partook in the interviews (section 5.2.1). The parent participants were extroverts, were proficient in English and shared their concerns freely with the professionals that cared for their children and provided them with valuable information. The IVP interviews would have to be adapted for parents who are not proficient in English or Afrikaans.

6.3.2.5 School tasks
The school jobs/tasks must be built on the learners’ strengths, preferences, and interests and additional preparation and experiences, with appropriate support must be provided if needed (section 5.2.1). Care must be taken in selecting the tasks to ensure that a learner does not get overloaded with too many tasks that take too long a time to complete. Learners with fewer and less well developed skills benefit more from high repetition tasks. The skills involved in tasks that are performed less than once weekly take a long time to master successfully (section 5.2.2).
6.3.2.6 Parents’ motivational level
After the IVP interviews with the parents, they were inspired to motivate their child continually to fulfill the home tasks decided upon during the IVP interviews. Although the three participants scored high averages for half of the home tasks, they could have perhaps done better if the parents were motivated once or twice during the programme to motivate their child even more. Research has shown that intellectually disabled learners’ conative development has been adversely affected by their continuous experience of failure and they tend to expect failure (Landsberg 2005:386). Their parents’ motivation is thus very important.

6.3.2.7 Participants’ motivational level
Whenever the participants’ motivation flagged, the researcher was able to encourage and enthuse them once more. This constant support and encouragement to complete the tasks led to better results being obtained.

6.3.2.8 Education methods
Because the learners retained little to no verbal knowledge presented to them once weekly (section 5.2.3), alternative education methods must be used. The input given to the learners has to be planned in accordance with the learners’ intellectual ability and appropriately presented.

6.3.2.9 Teachers’ professional development
Until the Department of Education (RSA) takes responsibility for ensuring appropriate vocational training and transition planning training for teachers, teachers will have to take responsibility themselves for their own professional development in order to facilitate vocational training and transition planning classes. Teachers will also have to take it upon themselves to keep informed about developments in this area.

As a whole the programme development and implementation was successfully done for the intellectually disabled learners. It can be more successful and be of greater value to
learners, parents, teachers and the Department of Education (RSA) if the recommendations of the study are followed.

6.4  RECOMMENDATIONS

6.4.1  Vocational training and transition planning as part of the curriculum
The programme must form part of the LSEN curriculum (section 3.3), and not seen as an addition to the school programme or just another short lived gimmick. The same standards that are expected from teachers in teaching the National Curriculum must be made compulsory for vocational training and transition planning. The teachers have to do preparation for the knowledge input sessions, prepare education aids in advance and evaluations must be done regularly.

6.4.2  Yearly planning and programme evaluation
Learners can only perform well if they know what is expected from them. Every six months time has to be allocated to the teachers and the occupational therapist to teach the learners’ new practical vocational skills. Thus, vocational training and transition planning must form part of the short and long term strategic planning of the school. Sparg, Winber & Pointer (1999:49) state that goals must be set, tasks must be identified to reach the goals, staff must be appointed to do the tasks, a budget has to be drawn up for resources needed and a time frame has to be established for reaching the goals.

The vocational training and transition planning programme must be adapted to suit the needs of the learners following the programme (section 3.3.1). As the abilities of the learners vary from year to year, programme adaptations must be made accordingly. Evaluation of the programme must be done yearly (section 2.2.3) in order to assure improvement of the programme, maintaining and raising the standards of the programme and to provide accountability to the stakeholders, namely the learners, the parents, and the Department of Education (RSA) (Sparg et al 1999:127).
6.4.3 Collaboration between schools
Because schools do not have curriculum guidelines for vocational training and transition planning, they can motivate each other by discussing similar problems, strengths and weaknesses of their programmes on a quarterly basis and plan and strategise together. Though the learner populations of the LSEN school differ greatly (intellectual disability, learning problems, behavioural problems, cerebral disability) they can exchange valuable vocational and transition planning knowledge.

6.4.4 In-service training
Some LSEN schools have no vocational training and transition planning programmes in place. In-service training can help the educators to implement such a programme at their schools. This can be organised via the Education Department District offices.

6.4.5 Talking Mats adapted aptitude test
This tool was used with the participants individually to determine their interests (section 3.3.3.3). It can fruitfully be used in small group evaluation where the learners work individually and discussions take place around the different occupations. Learners will have more opportunity to voice their knowledge and the interviewer will be able to get more information, especially from more introvert learners.

6.4.6 Individualised Vocation Programme interviews
These interviews have to be adapted for reserved parents or those not proficient in English and Afrikaans in order to make it more valuable to them. Alternatives options may be to have an interpreter or organise small group discussions with these parents. Hearing that other parents have the same concerns may help parents to raise their concerns. Parents can also explain to other parents in their mother tongue when necessary.

6.4.7 Parents’ motivational level
Parents will benefit from quarterly motivation in order for them to motivate their child to continue with the home independence tasks (section 3.3.5.6). This can be done by
scheduling a motivational letter home to the parents, verbally motivating them during a general parent evening, organising a motivational speaker from outside to motivate the parents, phoning the parents individually and motivating them, organising speakers from outside to address the parents on any transition planning subject and/or organising a social gathering for parents with their children with the aim of motivation.

6.4.8 Learners’ motivational level
The learners will benefit from external motivation at least once per month. This can be achieved by a mass meeting during break time and giving them a motivational talk, thanking them for their work by inviting them to the school coffee shop or by giving them a token of thanks (e.g. a printed card or a sweet). The promise of earning a certificate at the end of the year presented to them during a prize giving function helps to increase motivational levels.

6.4.9 Revising the complexity of skills in the home programme
Depending on the complexity of the tasks, goals and tasks must be revised after six months. Easy obtainable goals with tasks that involve less skill, for example cleaning the bathroom and making the bed, must be followed with more complex tasks after six months. If the child has not reached an easy goal and mastered the skills for doing easy tasks, new goals involving different tasks have to be decided on after six months. Goals that are difficult to reach involving complex tasks (e.g. learning to drive) or semi permanent tasks (e.g. carrying on with the Saturday morning part time job) have to continue.

6.4.10 Knowledge input
Learners will benefit more by grouping learners with more or less the same cognitive ability in groups when presenting the learning material. The learning material and the educators input must be practical and connected to live experiences to better the attainment of knowledge. Education aids, like videos, power point slides and pictures can add to stimulate the learners’ attention.
Visits to work places, for example, fast food outlets, hairdressers, pet care facilities, building sites and a variety of stores will be enjoyed much more by the learners and knowledge retention will possibly improve. This may also serve the purpose of making businesses more aware of disabilities and the abilities of the intellectually disabled, in particular the skills but also the employment plight of the intellectually disabled.

6.4.11 Professional development programmes
Teachers in special schools are not equipped with knowledge on vocational training and transition planning in their studies. They should seek to inform themselves when unsure about a topic so that they develop the confidence needed to do vocational training and transition planning. Universities have to re-evaluate their programmes and see if it will be feasible to meet the needs of teachers in LSEN schools.

6.4.12 National Qualifications Framework
Akoojee, Gewer and Mc Grath (2005:143) state that vocational training and education (VET) in South Africa is only one part of a large education and training system. This raises issues about the appropriate education levels at which VET should be offered. It is important to consider whether VET systems should have formal educational requirements for entry or whether there is a place for recognition of prior learning. It is also important to determine the appropriate base in terms of education, age and experience for different levels.

There must also be decisions made about the relative levels of funding for VET in special schools. VET systems have typically been a minor element of overall educational expenditure in the region. Vocational training is reliant on costly infrastructure and requires low learner teacher ratios (Akoojee et al 2005:144).
6.4.13 Department of Labour skills development programme
Learners need a Grade 9 qualification to enter the SETA’s programmes which makes the programme out of reach for the intellectually disabled population (section 2.5.1.2). Though some have the practical skills to successfully master the practical sections, they do not have a Grade 9 qualification. The Department of Labour should examine the entry level qualifications in order ensure that they are within the reach of more people.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH
Few people are really interested in the relatively small population of intellectually disabled learners and many prefer not to get to know them and remain ignorant. Only by setting a higher, but achievable goal, and believing in the skills of the intellectually disabled can an individual be successful in teaching them.

Research needs to be done on the strategies for placing intellectually disabled learners in the open labour market, initially with the help of a co worker with the goal to become an independent, self- confident employee earning the same weekly wage as other employees.

Comprehensive research in the training and development of teachers to teach vocational training and transition planning for intellectually disabled is necessary to ensure that teachers constantly strive to achieve the best learning outcomes for the intellectually disabled. This is an unknown field to many which is often ignored. Where this is neglected, aims to secure an advantageous future for learners and their parents are not reached.

Research on a national level is necessary to develop programmes to teach intellectually disabled learners more advanced skills after they have left school. These programmes should be similar to the SETA’s programmes but the limited literacy and numeracy skills of the intellectually disabled population should be kept in mind. These should form part of the National Qualifications Framework to enable a more prosperous future for learners.
6.6 CONCLUSION
A coordinated set of activities for a learner, designed within an outcomes-oriented process, which promotes movement from school to post school activities, is necessary for successful adaptation to adult life (Mc Donnell et al 1995:225). Targeted goals and objectives that are tied directly to the learners’ age appropriate preferences, interests, and needs and that are supported by his/her family will lead to satisfying outcomes (Sitlington et al 2000:37).

Parents and teachers often view cognitive ability as a predictor of the general ability of the learner and tend to only focus on the Foundation Phase curriculum content in daily teaching. Research showed that people with lower IQ’s had been employed longer than those with higher IQ’s and Whelan (in Morris & Levinson 1995:509) cautioned using intelligence as a sole predictor of job success. The research findings have shown that depending on the individual, their punctuality, psychological stamina, adapted communication ability, their attitude towards others, using of materials and tools, quality of output and their consistency of performance vary between good and acceptable.

Work is a central part of our life and society. The vast majority of people will always have to provide for themselves, either directly or indirectly, through contributions to society. Most people would continue working even if they could afford not to (Hales 1996:145). The intellectually disabled population with their families is no exception.

Unfortunately the abilities and potential for work of disabled people are commonly, and inappropriately, assessed by medical rather than vocational criteria. As a result the focus is directed towards disability rather than ability. It raises questions about their potential value as employees; including, for example, their productivity and attendance at work which may be wrongly assumed to be lower than average (Hales 1996:146). Teachers, learners and parents sadly have to acknowledge this but also have to realise that they have to make the community aware of the intellectually disabled and their strengths. Moreover, they (parents and teachers) have to advocate equal wages for disabled people.
for performing the same job as others in the workplace instead of accepting a token of thanks for employing their children/learners
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1 April 2006

Dear Mrs **********, 

PERMISSION ASKED FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION IN A RESEARCH PROJECT ON VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND TRANSITION PLANNING

Since I have been at The Special School it has become obvious to me that our parents need information on possibilities for life after school for their children. Two year ago we started to address this topic at our Parent Involvement Group (PIG’s) meetings and will do so again this year.

The learners are the most important role players for future planning and their needs may be completely different from their parents’ needs and views for their future. They need education on vocational skills, practical implication thereof and knowledge of work opportunities and the commercial environment.

The National Curriculum does not make provision for vocational training and transition planning for Learners with Special Educational Needs. Because their future is important to me I have decided to do my doctoral thesis at UNISA on “The development and management of vocational training and transition planning for intellectually disabled learners”. The necessary consent to go ahead with the project was given by the Gauteng Department of Education, the principal and the chairman of the School Governing Body. Last year UNISA accepted the title and the first two chapters.

The research part of the dissertation requires an interview with the parents / guardian before and after implementation of the programme with three different families with intellectually disabled children. After six months of implementation another interview with the parents will indicate to me how they felt about the programme content and suggestions they may make in this regard.
These two interviews will take place by appointment at the learners’ residence or any place convenient to the parents / guardian. Each interview will last approximately 40 minutes. No personal questions will be asked.

All the 18 year old learners in the school are taking part in the vocational training and transition planning programme this year. Their parents / guardians will be invited to one interview, and Individualised Vocation Programme (IVP) interview. The three families that take part in the research project will also be invited to this interview that will take place at school.

I hereby request to make you part of the research study. You will remain anonymous for the purpose of the study. The results will not only benefit your child but all the other learners in the school. Kindly complete the permission form and return to the school in the envelope provided.

Regards,

____________________
Ms C.J. VLACHOS
RESEARCHER

Consent form:

I, Mrs ______________________________ , guardian of *********** hereby agree to take part in the research project on “The development and management of a vocational training and transition planning programme for intellectually disabled learners”.

I understand that I will have to be available for:

• One interview by appointment before implementation of the programme at a place convenient to ourselves,
• One IVP (Individualised Vocation Programme) interview at school,
• One interview six months after the first interview at a place convenient to ourselves.
I understand that I:

- will not be asked personal questions and may at any time decide not to answer questions that we don’t want to
- at any time we may ask for insight in the first three chapters of the dissertation
- may view the chapter that we were involved in before final approval of the research study
- will stay anonymous in the study.

______________________   ____________________________
Ms.*********  (Guardian)   Ms C.J. Vlachos (RESEARCHER)

LETTERS OF INFORMED ASSENT TO LEARNERS

Learner informed assent form.

I, _________________________ have been told that teacher Carina is doing a project on vocational training and transition planning. I have been asked to be part of this project. I will be part of three interviews.

If I don’t want to take part in the project any more, I may change my mind at any time. My name will not be reported in the project.

I want to take part in this project and I agree to be interviewed.

__________________     _____________
Sign your name        Date
APPENDIX B: PARENT INTERVIEW GUIDE – ROUND 1

Will you please state your age, education level, current occupation and marriage status? (Approximately 5 minutes)

Describe your child’s disability and his/ her abilities (approximately 10 minutes).

What would you like to see happen in (expect from) a vocational training and transition planning programme? (Approximately 5 minutes)

How do you feel about your son’s / daughter’s future after leaving school? (Approximately 10 minutes).

Tell me what you know about future job possibilities for your child (approximately 5 minutes).
APPENDIX C: LEARNER INTERVIEW GUIDE – ROUND 1

What would you like to do after you have left school? (2 minutes)

Why would you like to work as a ........................................ (probes according to the mentioned jobs)? (2 minutes)

How do your parents feel about your plans after you have left school? (2 minutes)

What tasks do you do at home? (5 minutes)

Why do you complete the mentioned tasks? (2 minutes)

Two of the questions address familiarity with the labour market:

What kind of occupations do you know? (2 minutes)

How should one behave at work? (2 minutes)
APPENDIX D: PICTURES FOR TALKING MATS INTERVIEWS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Boyfriend and girlfriend</th>
<th>Prepare food</th>
<th>Brick layer</th>
<th>Painter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carpenter</td>
<td>Office worker</td>
<td>Waiter</td>
<td>Care for the sick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work in garden</td>
<td>Dance assistant</td>
<td>Car washing</td>
<td>Care for the aged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanic</td>
<td>Security guard</td>
<td>Hairdresser assistant</td>
<td>Care for children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Care for animals</td>
<td>Sell newspapers</td>
<td>Clean</td>
<td>Farm worker</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
sewing with sewing machine
work in Laundromat
chef
fire man
15 February 2006

Dear parents,

Thank you very much for your cooperation thus far with the research project. As I have already mentioned to you with our first interview we would like to put together an Individualised Vocation Programme (IVP) for your child.

Establishing an Individualised Vocation Programme (IVP) is an important part of vocational training and transition planning. An IVP is a written document setting out the 2006 educational plan for your child. Among other things, the IVP describes the skills needed by your child and how the school can assist you in his/her future plans.

This programme will be developed during an IVP meeting attended by mesdames. ******** (occupational therapist), ********** (vocational curriculum teacher), your child’s teacher and Ms Carina Vlachos (researcher / co-ordinator). As parents/guardians play an extremely important role in the future plans of their child it is vitally important that both the mother and father / guardians attend the meeting. You are welcome to bring family or friends who know your child well to the meeting. Because of limited space we would appreciate if not more than four people (including you and your spouse) attend the meeting. Your child will also be part of the meeting.

During the IVP meeting the following aspects will be discussed:
1. You and your child’s future view on the world of work
2. Your child’s personal management skills e.g. self-, food- and personal property, and
3. Your child’s leisure activities, for example exercises, crafts, hobbies, events, media and other and
4. Your child’s previous work experience
It would be a good idea if you could discuss your future plans for your child with the people who will be attending the meeting beforehand. Also ask your child what he/she has in mind for the future.

Kindly complete the attached questionnaire and return to the school as soon as possible. This will give us time to study the information and be well prepared for the meeting.

You will receive a letter next week where you may choose a time that will suit you for the IVP meeting.

Regards,

_______________________    _____________________________
MS  C.J. VLACHOS     PRINCIPAL
COORDINATOR
APPENDIX F

Department of Education
University of South Africa
Pretoria

April 2006

Dear parents / guardians,

Please complete the questionnaire by marking how often your child does the following activities in the afternoons including weekends and school holidays. Send the questionnaire back to school with your child.

The information on the questionnaire will be discussed with you during the Individualised Vocation Programme meeting.

Surname: __________________________

Childs’ name and surname: __________________________
Please make a tick in the appropriate block.

SECTION A: LEISURE ACTIVITIES
How often does your child do the following activities?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>At least twice weekly</th>
<th>At least twice monthly</th>
<th>never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A 1: EXERCISE:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attends aerobics / spinning class for at least 30 minutes</td>
<td>V1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rides bicycle for at least 30 minutes</td>
<td>V2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plays soccer/rugby/volley ball for at least 45 minutes</td>
<td>V3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fast dancing for at least 30 minutes</td>
<td>V4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swims for at least 20 minutes</td>
<td>V5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jogs at least 2 kilometres</td>
<td>V6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walks for 35 minutes</td>
<td>V7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other form of exercise for at least 20 minutes</td>
<td>V8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A 2: GAMES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plays video games</td>
<td>V9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plays computer games</td>
<td>V10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plays play station games</td>
<td>V11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pastes pictures in book</td>
<td>V12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plays card games</td>
<td>V13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plays board games</td>
<td>V14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play games in newspapers and / of magazines</td>
<td>V15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other form of games</td>
<td>V16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A 3: CRAFTS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does embroidery / sewing</td>
<td>V17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does bead work</td>
<td>V18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does fabric painting</td>
<td>V19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attends craft classes</td>
<td>V20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes cards</td>
<td>V21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plays an instrument (piano, guitar)</td>
<td>V22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does decoupage, mosaic work etc.</td>
<td>V23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other form of crafts</td>
<td>V24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A 4: EVENTS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attends church</td>
<td>V25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goes to a movie</td>
<td>V26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goes to parties / concerts</td>
<td>V27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goes to exhibitions</td>
<td>V28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attends theatre plays</td>
<td>V29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goes to parks / botanical garden / zoo</td>
<td>V30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visits relatives, friends, grandparents</td>
<td>V31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attends any other events</td>
<td>V32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## A 5: MEDIA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plays music</td>
<td>V33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watches television</td>
<td>V34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listens to the radio</td>
<td>V35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reads magazines</td>
<td>V36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reads the newspaper</td>
<td>V37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surf on the internet</td>
<td>V38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reads billboards, roadside advertisements, pamphlets</td>
<td>V39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other form of media interest</td>
<td>V40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## SECTION B: PERSONAL MANAGEMENT

**How often does your child do the following activities?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Daily</th>
<th>Three times</th>
<th>Once per week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>B 1: SELF</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses public toilets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washes own hair</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dresses himself/herself</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brushes teeth well</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses a razor without cutting himself/herself</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut her/his own nails</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bathes properly</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses deodorant daily</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Daily</th>
<th>Three times</th>
<th>Once per week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>B 2: FOOD</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepares own breakfast</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sets the table</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepares food for lunch</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps preparing food</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stores groceries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses fast food restaurants/orders food from a menu</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepares snacks/meals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes tea, coffee, Milo</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Daily</th>
<th>Three times</th>
<th>Once per week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>B 3: SPACE AND BELONGINGS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeds pet</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shops for groceries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washes clothes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washes dishes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irons clothes / linen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleans his/her own room</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

240
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organises his / her own cupboards / dresser</td>
<td>V63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polishes his / her own shoes</td>
<td>V64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B 4: PERSONAL BUSINESS</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has a boyfriend / girlfriend</td>
<td>V65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Takes own medication</td>
<td>V66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phones friends / family members</td>
<td>V67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operates a cell phone</td>
<td>V68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operates an auto teller independently</td>
<td>V69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counts change received correctly</td>
<td>V70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes hairdresser or doctor appointments for self</td>
<td>V71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sets reminders on TV or cell phone</td>
<td>V72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SECTION C: WORK EXPERIENCE**

How often does your child do the following activities?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Twice weekly or</th>
<th>Once a month</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Packs meat / fruit / groceries / vegetables</td>
<td>V73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps with gardening / planting / raking leaves</td>
<td>V74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cares for other peoples pets / farm animals</td>
<td>V75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleans other peoples houses / washes washing</td>
<td>V76</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washes other peoples cars / windows</td>
<td>V77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operates photo copier / calculator / washing machine</td>
<td>V78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses public transport</td>
<td>V78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paints walls / roofs / fences / doors / windows</td>
<td>V79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cares for children / aged / sick people</td>
<td>V80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serves food / drinks to strangers</td>
<td>V81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Works on cars / bikes / bicycles</td>
<td>V82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

My child’s strong points:

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

My child’s weak points:

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________
APPENDIX G:

JOB / TASK PLACEMENT

LEARNER'S NAME: __________________  Date: ____________

PLANNING AREAS
1. School jobs / tasks
2. Home independence programme

GOALS:_____________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>TASK / JOB IN THE SCHOOL</th>
<th>Responsible teacher</th>
<th>Training will start by: (date)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>HOME INDEPENDENCE PROGRAMME</th>
<th>Responsible person</th>
<th>Training will start by: (date)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 3 |   | 1.                               |                     |                               |
|   |   | 2.                               |                     |                               |
|   |   | 3.                               |                     |                               |
|   |   | 4.                               |                     |                               |
|   |   | 5.                               |                     |                               |
APPENDIX I: DESCRIPTION OF AVAILABLE GRANTS

APPLICATION FOR A PERMANENT DISABILITY GRANT
2007

Description
A disability grant is income awarded to persons who, owing to physical disability or intellectual impairment, are unfit to obtain employment or the means needed to enable them to support themselves.

The maximum grant for the year 2007 is R 820.00 per month and the minimum amount paid out in 2005 was R 105.00 per month. The amount of the grant changes every year and depends on your income and assets.

What are the qualifying criteria?

The applicant:
- Must be a South African Citizen
- Must be resident in South Africa at the time of application
- Must be between 18 to 59 years of age if a female and 18 to 64 years of age if a male. Thereafter the disability grant will be converted to an old age grant when you turn 60 (woman) or 65 (if you are a man)
- Must earn less than R 13 200 per year, or R 943.00 a month (if single)
- Is married, with both spouse’s income less than R 881.50 per month or R 10 578.00 per year
- Must not be maintained or cared for in a State institution (e.g. prison, state home of the aged, state drug rehabilitation centre)
- Is single, and does not have assets worth more than R 295 200.00 (a home that you own is not taken into account if you live in it) or married with assets exceeding R 590 000.00
- Must not be in receipt of another social grant

Steps to follow to obtain the disability grant
- Complete a disability grant application form at your nearest Social Development Office (Social Welfare Office)
- If you cannot apply for a grant yourself, ask a family member or friend to apply on your behalf. The person applying on your behalf should provide a letter from you and / or a doctor’s note saying why you can’t visit the office
- Complete the application form in the presence of a welfare officer – they will assist you in filling in the form if you need help
- Attend an interview and have your fingerprints taken
- Submit the completed application form together with the following documents:
- A medical assessment report confirming your disability (this you have to obtain from a State Hospital and/or State Clinic (a medical assessment report from a private medical practitioner is not acceptable)
- A 13 digit bar – coded identity document
- A letter from The Special School stating that you have been a learner at the school (refer to forms to complete: Z970A)
- If you have a bank account, your bank statements for 3 consecutive months
- If you have investments, information on the interest and dividends you earn
- Obtain a receipt after submitting the application and keep it as proof of application

Service standard
- It takes approximately 35 days for your application to be processed
- You will be informed in writing of whether or not your application was successful
- If your grant is approved, you will be paid from the day you applied
- If your grant is not approved, the Social Security Office will inform you in writing stating the reasons why your application was unsuccessful
- A grant is payable by the following methods:
  - cash at a specific pay point on a particular day
  - electronic deposit into your bank account (the bank may charge you for the service)
  - Post Office
  - Institution – e.g. home for disabled people

The disability grant will be cancelled if
- You die
- Your income or assets improve so much that you no longer qualify

You must inform the Department of any changes in your circumstances.

Forms to complete
The following forms will have to be completed:
- Form Z970 – Disability Grant Application
- Form Z970A – Referral Letter (obtainable from the school)
- Form Z970D – Recommendation by assessment committee
Details of Social Security Offices
You must complete the above mentioned forms at the Social Security Offices in the municipal area that you are staying.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Security Offices (District Welfare Office)</th>
<th>Contact number</th>
<th>Street Address</th>
<th>Post Box</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Roodepoort Social Security Offices</td>
<td>011 271-8608</td>
<td>Van Wyk Street Roodepoort</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Krugersdorp Social Security Offices</td>
<td>011 953-2020</td>
<td>Cnr Human &amp; Kobie Krige Street</td>
<td>Private Bag X 2068 Krugersdorp 1740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Randfontein Social Security Offices</td>
<td>011 692-3813</td>
<td>101 Fidler Street Randfontein</td>
<td>Private Bag X 32 Randfontein 1767</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This information was obtained from:

- [Krugersdorp Social Security Offices cnr Human and Kobie Krige Street](http://www.services.gov.za/depositssocialgrant.aspx)
## APPENDIX J: OBSERVATIONAL PROTOCOL

**PARTICIPANTS NAME:**

**SCHOOL TASK / JOB:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DATE</th>
<th>FIELD OBSERVATIONS – DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>VALUES</th>
<th>SKILLS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>WEEK 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>VALUES</strong></td>
<td><strong>SKILLS</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>achieved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>poor</td>
<td>almost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>competent</td>
<td>Not yet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>insufficient</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Respect</td>
<td></td>
<td>Work motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td><strong>WEEK 2</strong></td>
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<td>responsibility</td>
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</table>
APPENDIX K: INTERVIEW GUIDE AFTER IMPLEMENTATION OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND TRANSITION PLANNING PROGRAMME – ROUND 4

What did your child’s vocational training and transition planning programme mean to you? (Approximately 10 minutes).
Probes: school vocational training and transition planning programme
Vocational training and transition planning home independence programme
Self evaluation by your child on completion of the vocational training tasks

What did the vocational training and transition planning programme mean to your child? (Approximately 10 minutes).
Probes: Knowledge improvements of different vocations
Skills and value improvements

What type of feedback did you get from your child in connection with the vocational training and transition planning programme at school? (Approximately 5 minutes).

What suggestions can you make to improve the vocational training and transition planning programme? (Approximately 10 minutes).
Probes: school vocational training and transition planning programme
Home independence programme
Knowledge input in the programme

The teacher responsible for the draft curriculum input played an important part in the data collection for the research project.
APPENDIX L: INTERVIEW GUIDE WITH TEACHER RESPONSIBLE FOR THEORETICAL INPUT OF THE VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND TRANSITION PLANNING CURRICULUM

Describe the interest the sample learners showed in the theoretical information (draft curriculum) that you presented? (approximately 10 minutes)

What was the correlation between the theory and the practical experiences they had with the programme? (approximately 10 minutes)

How would you improve the programme? (approximately 20 minutes)

Probes: the theoretical programme
  The job placement of the learners in the school
  The home independence self evaluation record keeping
  The communication with the parents
  Earlier integration of the programme with younger learners (15 years and older)
Dear Ms. M. Sandlana,

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO DO A RESEARCH STUDY

I am a teacher at The Special School and currently doing my Doctoral Thesis in Education Management at UNISA. I want to involve three learners with their parents and four staff members in my research study and hereby request your permission to do the above.

- REGISTERED TITLE OF RESEARCH DISSERTATION
  The development and management of school vocational training and transition planning programme for intellectually disabled learners.

- DETAILS OF STUDY LEADER
  Professor Gertruida Maria Steyn. Contact number at work: 012-429-4598
e-mail: steyngml@unisa.ac.za

- MOTIVATION FOR AND A SHORT DESCRIPTION OF RESEARCH:
  At The Special School part of my responsibilities the past two years have been vocational training and transition planning. My complete lack of knowledge on the subject, my inability to gain knowledge from other LSEN schools because they also have no procedures in place, my belief in the potential of the intellectually disabled and after
reading White Paper 6, motivated me to do my research on vocational training and transition planning for the intellectually disabled.

The first aim of the study is to develop a vocational training and transition planning programme for the intellectually disabled along the guidelines of a successful American framework and adapting the National Curriculum Statement according to the needs of the learners. The programme is then implemented and managed at The Special School. The outcomes of the programme on the knowledge, attitudes and values, needs and skills of the learners will be evaluated after six months and suggestions for improvements will be made.

- **DURATION OF THE RESEARCH AND RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS**

  I have already completed the first three chapters of the research dissertation and would like to start interviewing the parents as soon as possible. Three parents with one child each will be interviewed after school hours. The interview will take approximately 40 minutes and 10 minutes respectively at a time and place convenient to them. The second interview will take place shortly after the first interview, between 13:30 and 16:30. The third and last round of interviews will take place six months later at a time (after school hours) and place convenient to the parents and their children.

- **SCHOOL STAFF MEMBERS THAT WILL TAKE PART IN THE RESEARCH**

  Four staff members will only be part of the second round of interviews. They are the occupational therapist, Ms. Y Rass, the speech therapist (governing body post), Ms. V. Munsamy and two post level one educators, Ms. M. Botha and Ms I. Kruger. I will be part of all three interviews that will be scheduled for after school. The deputy principal, Ms. A. Ruscheinski, will be invited to attend. The Principal will be informed of the dates and times of the interviews.

  Permission has already been granted by the principal subject to my request being favourably considered by you. Thereafter permission will be requested from the School Governing Body.
SCHOOL CONTACT TIME THAT WILL BE ALLOCATED TO THE RESEARCH

We have started implementing a vocational training and transition planning programme at school towards the end of 2005 for school leavers only. This programme forms part of our school time table on which 30 minutes on a Tuesday and Thursday is put aside for practical vocational training and transition planning with the four senior classes. The occupational therapist and I, as well as four senior class teachers are involved in this training. On a Thursday morning a post level one educator will discuss the learning material adapted from the National Curriculum Statement with the senior learners in four groups of 45 minutes each. No school contact time will be spent individually on the research participants, as they will be part of the senior groups.

Please find an attached copy of the permission granted by the Department of Education as well as the research proposal. I will gladly provide any other information that may be required.

Regards,

________________________
Ms. C.J. Vlachos

UNISA student no: 31846424

cc. Ms. Sophia de Beer
# APPENDIX O  SKILLS ASSESSMENT CRITERIA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Performance components</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work motivation</strong></td>
<td>Responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Level of interest and effort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intrinsic (personal) motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work endurance</strong></td>
<td>Attendance and punctuality</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Self discipline</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Stress coping skills</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Psychological stamina / endurance</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Basic work habits in</strong></td>
<td><strong>Human environment</strong></td>
</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>relation to:</td>
<td>Communication skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>Work tasks</td>
<td>Attitude towards teacher</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Attitude towards other learners</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Productivity</strong></td>
<td>Task-related concentration</td>
</tr>
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<td>Working memory</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instruction interpretation</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Decision making skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use of materials and tools</td>
</tr>
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<td>Work speed</td>
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<td>Quality of output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consistency of performance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# LIST OF FIGURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>FRAMEWORK FOR PROGRAMME DEVELOPMENT</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>PROGRAMME PRACTICES FOR SUCCESSFUL POST SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>KNOWLEDGE AND SKILL DOMAINS</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>TRANSITION ASSESSMENT</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>COMMUNITY REFERENCED CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>FRAMEWORK FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND TRANSITION PLANNING PROGRAMME</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSIS OF RESULTS</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>RESULTS OF JACQUES’ TALKING MATS ADAPTED APTITUDE TEST</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>JACQUES’ DRAWING OF THE PROTECTIVE WORKSHOP</td>
<td>169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>LUCY’S DRAWING OF THE PROTECTIVE WORKSHOP</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 Adaptations of assessment standards 96
Table 3.2 Content for draft life orientation curriculum 98
Table 3.3 Sample job duty schedule for a learner 115
Table 3.4 Task analysis for cleaning the toilet 117
Table 4.1 Time frame of the study in terms of the instrument used
and the purpose in respect to the study 136
Table 5.1 Attendance percentages for completing internal school tasks 159
Table 5.2 Punctuality percentages for completing internal school tasks 160
Table 5.3 Participants’ work endurance 163
Table 5.4 Participants’ work motivation 167
Table 5.5 Work habits in relation to human environment 172
Table 5.6 Work habits in relation to work tasks 176
Table 5.7 Participants’ productivity 180
Table 5.8 Home programme tasks 181
Table 5.9 Percentage times completing home tasks 182
Table 5.10 Participants’ independence scores 183
Table 5.11 Jacques’ values 186
Table 5.12 Lucy’s values 187
Table 5.13 Mary’s values 187
# LIST OF APPENDICES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appendix</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Letter of informed consent to parents and assent to learners</td>
<td>227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Parent interview guide – round 1</td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Learner interview guide – round 1</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Pictures for Talking Mats interviews</td>
<td>233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>IVP interview appointment letter</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
<td>237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Job / task placement forms</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>Home independence programme</td>
<td>242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Description of available grants</td>
<td>243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>Observational protocol, value and skills scale</td>
<td>245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>Interview guide after implementation of programme – round 4</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>Interview guide with teacher responsible for theoretical input of the vocational training and transition planning programme</td>
<td>247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>Motivation letter to District Senior Manager</td>
<td>249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Approval letter granted by District Senior Manager</td>
<td>252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>Skills assessment</td>
<td>253</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders</td>
<td>DSM – IV</td>
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<td>NLTS 2</td>
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<td>Work Personality Profile</td>
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