AN ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION OF

Barbara A. Moody for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education presented on March 5, 2002.

Title: <u>Educators in Juvenile Corrections</u>: <u>Their Understanding of the Special Education Process and How it Influences Their Practice</u>.

Abstract approved:

George H. Copa

In juvenile corrections education approximately 50% of the students are eligible for special education services. This dissertation examines Oregon's juvenile corrections educators' understanding of their role in the special education process. This process involves student referrals, evaluations, and eligibility determination for special education services, and the development of individualized education programs (IEP). The study describes how the educators' understanding of the special education process influenced their instruction for students with disabilities.

The research involved interviews with respondents representing the Youth Corrections Education Programs in Oregon. The data revealed five leading issues for regular education teachers in the juvenile corrections education programs. The issues that emerged from the participants' interviews were accommodations for students with disabilities, responsibilities for the delivery of special education, special education

eligibility, student medications, and transition services. The educators gave the impression they believed they knew all they needed to know about the special education process. These juvenile corrections teachers believed their special education personnel and administrators were primarily responsible for the students with disabilities. The educators were not generally aware of their responsibility for the implementation of a student's IEP or to provide the specific accommodations, modifications, and supports that must be provided for the student. However, even though the corrections educators stated they knew the necessary information concerning their students with disabilities, the teachers did ask for additional information on providing accommodations for these students.

Implications are drawn for educational practice and further research. Discussion in the area of educational practice centers on professional development for regular education teachers in special education law and student eligibility. An alternative role for the special education teacher is proposed, incorporating classroom modeling and consulting. Finally, the topic of adapting curriculum to accommodate the needs of special education students is considered. In the area of further research, the need for a follow-up study is evident. This would include the addition of observational data, a study of the role administrators play in advancing the practice of special education in juvenile corrections, and an examination of

the prevalence of mental health issues affecting juvenile corrections students.

©Copyright by Barbara A. Moody March 5, 2002 All Rights Reserved

Educators in Juvenile Corrections: Their Understanding of the Special Education Process And How it Influences Their Practice

by Barbara A. Moody

A DISSERTATION

submitted to

Oregon State University

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Presented, March 5, 2002 Commencement June 2002 Doctor of Philosophy dissertation of Barbara A. Moody presented on March 5, 2002.

APPROVED:
Major Professor, representing Education
wajor Froiessor, representing Education
San Car
Director of School of Education
Gally Krancii
Dean of Graduate School

I understand that my dissertation will become part of the permanent collection of Oregon State University libraries. My signature below authorizes release of my dissertation to any reader upon request.

Barbara A. Moody.

Barbara A. Moody, Author

ACKNOWLEGEMENTS

My sincere appreciation to my major professor Dr. George Copa for his patient teaching.

Love and appreciate to my husband Alan and children Samantha and Levi, and my parents for all their patience, support, and understanding throughout this process.

My appreciation to the staff of Robert Farrell School for it takes a village to produce a doctoral student.

My gratitude to the Correctional Education Association for their scholarship which aided this project.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY	1
PURPOSE OF THE STUDY	1
BACKGROUND	2
ASSUMPTIONS	10
RESEARCH QUESTIONS	11
IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY	12
LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	16
DEFINITION OF TERMS	16
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE	23
EDUCATION IN JUVENILE CORRECTIONS	24
Overview Curriculum models Transition planning Summary	24 25 29 32
SPECIAL EDUCATION IN JUVENILE CORRECTIONS	33
Overview Prevalence of students with disabilities Adequacy of services for students with disabilities Summary	33 33 37 41
EDUCATORS IN JUVENILE CORRECTIONS EDUCATION	42
Overview Effective teaching practices Knowledge and qualities of juvenile corrections educators Special education teachers in juvenile corrections	42 44 45

TABLE OF CONTENTS (continued)

	<u>Page</u>
Summary	52
TRAINING OF JUVENILE CORRECIONS EDUCATORS	53
Overview Lack of teacher preparation Teacher preparation programs Summary	53 56 60 62
SUMMARY OF THE LITERATURE	63
CHAPTER 3: DESIGN OF STUDY	69
METHODOLOGY	69
RESEARCHER'S EDPISTEMOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE	72
Constructivism: a major aspect of my epistemological perspective Constructivism: theoretical background Constructivism: essential features Constructivism and corrections education Personal experience with juvenile corrections special education Personal experience with constructivism Relating constructivism to my research interest	75 80 81 83 84 85
PHASE 1	86
Operational design Data analysis	86 91
PHASE II	92
Operational design Data analysis	92 95
SUMMARY	96

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

	<u>Page</u>
CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS	97
DESCRIPTION OF JUVENILE CORRECTIONS EDUCATION PROGRAMS	97
PHASE I	98
Participant profile Data collection procedures Data analysis	99 99 101
PHASE II	102
Participant profile Data collection procedures Data analysis Summary	105 106 107 173
RESEARCH QUESTIONS	175
SUMMARY	181
CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS	184
SUMMARY OF PURPOSE	184
SUMMARY OF PROCEDURES	185
RESEARCHER'S POINT OF VIEW	186
IMPLICATIONS	189
REFERENCES	200
APPENDICES	208

LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX	<u>Page</u>
A - COVER LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS	209
B - INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT	211
C - INTERVIEW INSTRUCTMENT - PHASE I	214
D - PARTICIPANT DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY	216
E - INTERVIEW INSTRUMENT RATING	219
F _ INTERVIEW INSTRUMENT _ PHASE II	220

Educators in Juvenile Corrections: Their Understanding of the Special Education Process and How it Influences Their Practice.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

This chapter introduces the purpose of the study and provides a brief overview and background of teaching in the Oregon juvenile corrections education programs. In this chapter I state the research questions for this study and discuss my assumptions of the understanding that juvenile corrections teachers have in regard to the special education process. The importance of the study in terms of contributions to knowledge in the literature and to the design of professional development for juvenile corrections teachers is presented. The limitations of the study and definition of terms are also stated.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to assess the understanding juvenile corrections educators in Oregon have of the special education process and how this knowledge influences their instruction of students with disabilities.

The study will examine their understanding of the Individuals with

Disabilities Education Act Amendments of 1997 - Public Law 105-17 (IDEA 97) requirements regarding the role of regular education teachers in the special education process and in the development of student individualized

education programs (IEPs). In addition, the study will describe how the educators' understanding of this process influenced their instructional practice for students with disabilities.

BACKGROUND

The realities of education in juvenile corrections are very different than those of public schools in several critical ways that have significant influence on how education takes place (Garfunkel, 1986). Educators in juvenile corrections must deal with a variety of issues that disrupt the classroom environment: meetings with treatment staff and parole officers, lock-downs, clinic calls, and special disciplinary programs (Kerka, 1995). The line between education and security is often unclear for educators and corrections staff. The student population in juvenile corrections is different from other educational settings (whether they are in private, public, or alternative education). This is a select group of students with important defining characteristics. They are youth under the age of 25 who encounter the juvenile justice system because they have committed illegal actions. These illegal actions include offenses such as curfew violations, truancy, sexual misconduct, and other miscellaneous criminal offenses (e.g., drug and alcohol abuse, robbery, theft, and violent person-to-person crimes like

assault, rape, and murder). Often, these youth are defiant, resentful, and hostile.

Safety and security are important to the corrections educator. A teacher in this arena must always keep the safety and security of themselves, their colleagues, and their students in mind. The simplest educational tools for learning can be considered a threat to safety and security. A teacher in a corrections school must be constantly aware when working with and developing curriculum for this student population. Pencils and pens must be counted when distributed and collected, sharp objects must be handled with great care, awareness of personal space must be maintained, secretive communications between students must be prevented, and threatening student behavior must be monitored. These are just a few of the risks faced everyday by the corrections educator.

Nationally, the population of juvenile offenders being served in public or private residential facilities in the United States rose 47% from 1983 to 1995. According to the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency (1999a), there were 108,700 juveniles in detention, correctional, or shelter facilities in the United States in February 1995. Similarly, the state of Oregon has experienced a population growth in juvenile corrections of 61% from 1994 to 1998 (Juvenile Corrections Data, 1998). Oregon Youth Authority (OYA) reported a close custody population of 1,104 youth on January 1, 2000.

This growth is forecasted to increase by 12% to 1,236 by July 2003 (Oregon Youth Authority, 2000). A significant proportion of these youth have education-related disabilities and are eligible for special education and related services under IDEA 97 (Burrell & Warboys, 2000).

The educational needs of incarcerated youth both handicapped and non-handicapped has been largely neglected over the years. This began to change in 1975, when the emphasis on special education in correctional facilities changed. In 1975, Congress passed Public Law 94-142 the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (P.L. 94-142). For the first time, a critical look at appropriate education for incarcerated handicapped youth was undertaken. Corrections education was specifically included in the mandate for a free and appropriate public education for all handicapped persons 21 years of age and under. Since that time, many changes have occurred in both correctional education and in special education. There have been abundant studies conducted looking closely at the incarcerated youth population.

National studies disclose the fact that high percentages of youth in juvenile correction facilities qualify for special education services. Typically, students in correctional schools fall three years behind their grade placement in academic skills, because they lack commitment to learning and respect for authority (Rider-Hankins, 1992). Several studies on the

prevalence of disabling conditions among juvenile offenders have been conducted. Morgan (1979) conducted a national survey of state juvenile correctional administrators and found that 42% of the students were identified as disabled according to P.L. 94-142 criteria. A later national survey of state directors of special and correctional education found an estimated 28% of juvenile offenders were disabled and 23% were receiving special education services (Rutherford, Nelson, & Wolford, 1985), In a meta-analysis of prevalence studies, Casey and Keilitz (1990) estimated that 40 to 50 percent of youth in a correctional facility have a disability with approximately 12.6% being developmental disabilities and 35.6% being learning disabilities. They were unable to report on the population of youth with emotional disturbance in juvenile corrections because the quality and number of the studies were not sufficient to conduct a meta-analysis of studies for this population. Even higher percentages have been identified in recent efforts to determine the number of disabled students in juvenile corrections (Bullock, 1994; Leone, 1991b). The literature on the prevalence of handicapped youth in correctional education fluctuates in the estimated percentage of disabled youth from 19% to 60% of total youth in corrections.

Estimates of the prevalence of disabilities vary in range due to several factors. One factor is the different definitions of disabilities.

Definitions vary from state to state and agency to agency, which

complicates the comparison of studies. A second factor, which accounts for the difference in prevalence of disabilities, is inadequate special education screening in schools and correctional facilities. A third factor is insufficient funding for special education programs in correctional settings (Leone, 1991; Leone, Rutherford, & Nelson, 1994; Rutherford, et al. 1985).

Methodological problems and variability in policies across jurisdictions have made it difficult to report consistent data. Despite the wide range in estimates for the prevalence of disabling conditions in juvenile corrections, Leone and Meisel (1999) affirm it is a fact that the percentage of young people in juvenile correctional facilities who were previously identified and served in special education before their incarceration is at least three to five times that of the public school population identified as disabled.

Leone et al. (1994) report that few juvenile justice system education programs identified or assessed students suspected of having disabilities prior to P.L. 94-142. Consequently, a system for the development of screening, identification, assessment, and instruction of disabled youths is relatively recent to this educational system. In the early 1970's, litigation was critical in establishing the right to educational services for children and youths with disabilities. Litigation of these cases led to the passage of P.L. 94-142. This law was updated in 1990 with the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) and again in 1997 with reauthorization of IDEA 97. All

students in correctional facilities are entitled to the same due process rights of P.L. 94-142 and its updates as children in public school. However, the juvenile corrections system has been slow to implement these federal mandates and to provide appropriate services to youths with disabilities (Leone & Others, 1991; Leone, Rutherford, & Nelson, 1991; Leone et al., 1994).

It is difficult to implement many of the provisions of IDEA 97 in a juvenile corrections system as the regulations were designed for implementation in the public schools. Several issues complicate the delivery of appropriate special education and related services for disabled youth in juvenile corrections facilities. The mobility of youth throughout the corrections system makes educational programming a very challenging task. Youth in juvenile correctional facilities tend to move through the system very quickly. In 1994, the State of Oregon had the capacity to serve approximately 600 adjudicated youth; however, approximately 1,500 were served (Department of Corrections, 1994). The mobility issue makes it difficult to insure due process protections and continuity of educational services for youth suspected of having a disability. Previous school records can be difficult to obtain due to student mobility and inadequate communication with public school systems (Leone, 1991a). Student mobility and lack of school records are two of the issues that hinder the

delivery of special education and related services to youth in juvenile correction facilities.

Another issue is that educators working with youth in correctional institutions who have a high prevalence for special education and related services seldom have any background or training in special education.

Educators are usually unfamiliar with special education law, their required role in student IEP or how these should influence their classroom practice. Knowledge of characteristics of disabled youth is needed to allow educators to design and modify the general education curriculum to meet the needs of the disabled in juvenile correctional facilities (Platt, Wienke, & Tunick, 1982).

The federal special education regulations were recently amended in IDEA 97. These regulations incorporate several requirements regarding regular education teachers and their role in the IEP process. IDEA 97 requires children with disabilities to be included in the general state and district wide assessment programs with appropriate accommodations and modifications; individualized programs must include "aggregated data that include the performance of children with disabilities together with all other children..." and "a statement of measurable annual goals, including benchmark, related to meeting the child's needs to enable the child to be involved in the progress in the general curriculum..." (Oregon Department

of Education [ODE], 1999). These amendments obligate the regular education instructor to greater participation in the special education process. The instructor is expected to collect informal assessment data on the performance of children with disabilities together with other children in their classroom to assist in the development of the student's IEP. The regular education teachers will now be held accountable for their responsibility in the development and implementation of a child's IEP. The regulations now require that the IEP team for each child with a disability must include at least one regular education teacher of the child §300.344 (a)(2)(Office of Special Education Oregon Department of Education [OSEODE], 1999a, p. 12440). The teacher must, to the extent appropriate, participate in the development, review, and revision of the child's IEP including:

- a. The determination of appropriate positive behavioral interventions and strategies for the child, and
- b. The determination of supplementary aids and services, program modifications, and supports for school personnel that will be provided for the child consistent with the IEP content requirements §300.347 (a)(3) (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12442).

The teacher must participate in discussions about the child's involvement and progress in the general curriculum and participation in the regular education environment. A child's teacher must have access to the IEP and be informed of their specific responsibilities related to implementing the IEP, and the specific accommodations, modifications, and supports that must be provided to the child in accordance with the IEP § 300.342(b)(2) (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12440). As a member of the IEP team, the regular education teacher is also responsible for participating in the determination of a child's eligibility for special education, related service, and transition services.

ASSUMPTIONS

From my experience and review of related research, it appears that regular education teachers in juvenile corrections possess little understanding of the special education process or of the regulations regarding their role and responsibilities in that process. One purpose of this study is to verify if this appearance is reality in Oregon's youth correctional institutions. In discussion with regular education teachers in the field of juvenile corrections, I have noted a lack of understanding by the teachers concerning learning disabled students, student IEPs, and teacher responsibility to the special education process. These teachers have

expressed a desire to better understand the special education process as it relates to their students, classrooms, and instruction. It is my belief that if the teachers had an improved understanding of the special education process and their lawful responsibilities to their students, then their instructional practices would demonstrate positive benefits and outcomes.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- 1. What is the juvenile corrections teachers' understanding of special education terminology?
- 2. What is the juvenile corrections teachers' understanding of their role and responsibilities in the IEP team?
- 3. What is the juvenile corrections teachers' perception of their accountability to special education regulations as they apply to their students with disabilities?
- 4. What is the juvenile corrections teachers' awareness of their responsibility to the implementation of a student's IEP?
- 5. What is the juvenile corrections teachers' awareness of their responsibility for the specific accommodations, modifications, and supports they must provide to the student with disabilities?
- 6. What do juvenile corrections teachers express they would like to know more about in regard to student IEPs?

IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

Research indicates a high prevalence of youth who enter correctional facilities qualify for special education and related services. The most common of these disabilities are emotional disturbance, learning disabilities, and mental retardation (Casey, 1990; Morgan, 1979; Murphy, 1986). However, Rutherford et al. (1985) reports an average of 28% of juvenile correctional education teachers are certified in special education. A later survey (Rutherford, Nelson, & Wolford, 1986) reports the ratio of handicapped juvenile offenders to certified special education teachers was 17 to 1. While this ratio may seem adequate for public school settings, it should be remembered special education teachers in juvenile corrections are not dispersed evenly which means services to students are not consistent.

Few correctional educators have been trained for the field of corrections education. In 1985, there were few teacher preparation programs for the corrections environment for either the regular or special education educator (Sutherland, 1985). Little has changed in the last 15 years to address this fact. Corrections education teachers are usually trained as secondary education teacher, yet others are trained as elementary, professional technical, and special education teachers (Eggleston, 1991). The specific qualifications of certified special education

teachers working in correctional settings have not been altered on a national level. Currently there are only eleven graduate programs in the United States offering degrees with an emphasis in correctional education and most of these involve special education. There are five universities offering correctional education courses. Presently, there is only one program offering a masters' degree in correctional education offered on the west coast.

Regular education teachers typically receive little instruction in the area of special needs students; even though, they are required by federal and state law to participate in the development and implementation of student IEPs. Currently in Oregon, teachers in the youth corrections education programs are only required to hold an Basic or Initial Teaching License at the middle or high school level, or a vocational licensure. There is no special training for either the correctional aspect of the teaching environment or for the high rate of special needs students in the classroom. The Teacher Standards and Practices Commission (TSPC) in Oregon offer licensure in five authorization levels, which include early intervention, early childhood, elementary, middle level, and high school. A teaching license may be endorsed for specialization in an academic subject or cluster, or teaching special needs students. The endorsements for at-risk students include English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL)/Bilingual and

Special Education. There is no specialized endorsement for teaching students in the youth corrections education programs (Teacher Standards and Practices Commission, 2000).

The only course work required for an Initial Teaching License by the TSPC is the completion of an approved teacher education program. A review of the university teacher preparation programs in Oregon indicates there are six undergraduate teacher licensure programs in the state. Five of the teacher preparation programs in Oregon offer licensure at the middle and high school levels. The requirement in the undergraduate teacher preparation programs concerning the teaching of special needs students is to meet the competencies set forth in the Oregon Administrative Rules 584-060-0040 that state the following:

- § (1) Plan instruction that supports student progress in learning and is appropriate for the developmental level:
- (a) Select or write learning goals for units of instruction that are consistent with the school's long-term curriculum goals, State content standards and district standards, research findings on how students learn, and the physical and mental maturity of one's students.
- (f) Adapt unit and lesson plans for students with diverse needs, and for students with varying cultural, social, and linguistic backgrounds.

- (2) Establish a classroom climate conducive to learning:
- (c) When establishing classroom rules and procedures, apply to all students principles of gender equity and racial justice, and apply principles of least restrictive environment for student with disabilities.

 (d) Use a variety of research-based educational practices that reflect how students learn, are sensitive to individual differences and diverse cultures, and encourage parent participation (TSPC, 2000).

The master's level teacher preparation programs require only one three-credit course for special needs students to meet the competencies for graduation.

The proposed research study will provide an understanding of juvenile corrections educators' knowledge of the federal requirements concerning their responsibilities to student IEPs. Further, it will offer insight regarding how the educators' understanding of student IEPs influences their instruction and practice for disabled youth.

Data collected for this study will illustrate implications for staff development and training. This study will provide information to administrators and training development personnel for planning staff training and inservice activities for non-special education teachers in juvenile corrections facilities. Further, this study will develop recommendations for teacher education preparation programs. Teacher

education programs may need to include special education courses for those interested in a career in juvenile corrections education. Oregon's Teacher Standards and Practices Commission may also consider requiring special education courses be taken prior to or soon after teachers take a position in correctional education.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study will be conducted with the following limitations:

- 1. The study is limited to permanent teachers working in the twelve Oregon Youth Authority juvenile corrections regional facilities.
- 2. The special education populations included in this study will include: Autism spectrum disorder, communication disorder, deafness, emotional disturbance, hearing impairment, mental retardation, other heath impairments, specific learning disabilities, traumatic brain injury, and/or visual impairment.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

<u>Adjudicated</u>: Judicial determination (judgment) that a youth is a delinquent-status offender or an adult offender (1999b).

<u>Delinquency</u>: Acts or conduct in violation of criminal law. When the act is committed by a juvenile, the individual may be adjudicated to the juvenile court or maybe treated as an adult in the adult court.

Child/Student with Disabilities: A child/ student evaluated as having a mental retardation, a hearing impairment including deafness, a speech or language impairment, a visual impairment including blindness, serious emotional disturbance, an orthopedic impairment, autism, traumatic brain injury, other health impairment, specific learning disability, deaf blindness, or multiple disabilities, and who by reason thereof, needs special education and related services (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12421).

<u>Definitions of Disability Terms</u>: The disability terms used in this study are defined as follows:

Autism Spectrum Disorder: A developmental disability significantly affecting verbal and nonverbal communication and social interaction that adversely affects a child's educational performance (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12421).

<u>Deafness</u>: A hearing impairment which is so severe that the child's hearing, with amplified sound, is nonfunctional for the purposes of educational performance (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12422).

Emotional Disturbance: A condition exhibiting one or more of the following characteristics over a long period of time and to a marked degree that adversely affects a child's educational performance:

- (A) An inability to learn that cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory, or health factors.
- (B) An inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers.
- (C) Inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under normal circumstances.
- (D) A general pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression.
- (E) A tendency to develop physical symptoms or fears associated with personal or school problems.
- (F) The term includes schizophrenia but does not apply to children who are socially maladjusted, unless it is determined that they have a serious emotional disturbance (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12422).

Hearing Impairment: An impairment in hearing, whether permanent or fluctuating, that adversely affects a child's educational performance but that is not included under the definition of deafness in this section (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12422).

Mental Retardation: Significantly sub-average general intellectual functioning, including a student whose intelligence test score is two

or more standard deviations below the norm on a standardized individual intelligence test, existing concurrently with deficits in adaptive behavior and manifested during the developmental period, that adversely affects a child's educational performance (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12422).

Other Health Impairment: Limited strength, vitality, or alertness, due to chronic or acute health problems such as a heart condition, tuberculosis, rheumatic fever, nephritis, asthma, sickle cell anemia, hemophilia, epilepsy, lead poisoning, leukemia, or diabetes, which adversely affect a child's educational performance (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12422).

Specific Learning Disability: A disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, which may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell or do mathematical calculations, including conditions such as perceptual disabilities, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12422).

Speech and Language Impairment: A communication disorder, such as stuttering, impaired articulation, a language impairment, or a

voice impairment, that adversely affects a child's educational performance (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12422).

Traumatic Brain Injury: An acquired injury to the brain caused by an external physical force resulting in total or partial functional disability or psychosocial impairment, or both, that adversely affects a child's educational performance (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12422).

<u>Visual Impairment</u>: A visual impairment that, even with correction, adversely affects a child's educational performance (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12422).

<u>Determination of Eligibility</u>: Upon completing the administration of tests and other evaluation materials - (1) a group of qualified professionals and the parent of the child must determine whether the child is a child with a disability (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12456).

Individualized Education Program: A written statement for a child with a disability that is developed, reviewed, and revised in a meeting of the IEP team (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12440).

Individualized Education Program Team: Includes: the parents of the child; at least one regular education teacher of the child; at least one special education teacher of the child; a representative of the public agency who is qualified to provide specially designed instruction is knowledgeable about the general curriculum and is knowledgeable about the availability of

resources; an individual who can interpret the instructional implications of evaluation results; other individuals at the discretion of the parent; if appropriate, the child; and, if appropriate, transition services participants (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12440).

Related Services: Transportation and such developmental, corrective, and other supportive services as are required to assist a child with a disability to benefit from special education (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12423).

Regular Classroom Teachers: Teachers who teach content, electives and vocational courses. These teachers are certified in non-special education areas.

Special Education: Specially designed instruction, at no cost to the parents, to meet the unique needs of a child with a disability (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12425).

<u>Transition Services</u>: A coordinated set of activities for a student with a disability that - (1) is designed within an outcome-oriented process, that promotes movement from school to post-school activities, including postsecondary education, vocational training, integrated employment, continuing and adult education, adult services, independent living, or community participant;

(2) Is based on the individual student's needs; (3) Includes - instruction; related services; community experiences; and if appropriate, acquisition of

daily living skills and functional vocational evaluation (OSEODE, 1999, p. 12425).

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter reviews the current literature concerning juvenile corrections education. In this chapter I present literature on the education programs in general, the special education for students with disabilities, the educators in juvenile corrections, and the training of those educators. A summary of each section will explain the significance of the studies to the literature and to my research.

The review of the literature for this study was conducted by searching the library resources and bibliographies from journals and dissertations for topics relating to juvenile corrections, juvenile corrections education, prison education, at-risk youth, special education, special education in juvenile corrections, and teacher preparation for corrections education. Five major categories in the literature emerged as significant to my topic of research. The categories that emerged from the research were corrections education, corrections educators, corrections special education, the training of corrections educators, and general special education. For the purpose of my research study, I chose to narrow the discussion of related literature to the topics of juvenile corrections education, special education in juvenile corrections, teacher training for juvenile corrections, and educators in juvenile corrections education. I selected these topics because they most

closely relate to my topic of teachers in the juvenile corrections education system, their knowledge of special education, and my concern for their possible training needs in the area of special education.

EDUCATION IN JUVENILE CORRECTIONS

In this section, I will present an overview of juvenile corrections education programs. I will present research studies on curriculum models and transition planning which are used as components of educational planning in juvenile corrections education.

Overview

Juvenile correctional programs throughout history have valued general education as an essential element of reform and rehabilitation. Correctional administrators continue to regard academic and vocational programming as an important component of the rehabilitation of offenders due to improved student self-esteem and marketable employment skills (Abramson, 1991; Gemignani, 1994; Gehring, 1993; Hobler, 1999; Janici, 1998; Michigan Council on Vocational Education [MCOVE], 1995). The Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention [OJJDP] considers education critical to rehabilitation of troubled youth, and the "foundation for programming in most juvenile institutions" (OJJDP, 1994, p.129).

According to national studies, an immense number of adjudicated youth have dropped out of public schools prior to incarceration and lag two or more years behind their age peers in basic academic skills (Abramson, 1991; Hellriegel & Yates, 1997; Leone, 1997; Murphy, 1986; National Center on Education, Disability, and Juvenile Justice [NCEDJJ], 2000; National Institute for Literacy [NIFL], 2000). The majority of juveniles lack the social skills necessary to function adequately in social and vocational settings. Unsuccessful in school as well as in society, they have become accustomed to failure (Abramson, 1991; Coffey, 1983; Leone & Meise, 1997; Rutherford, Nelson, & Wolford, 1986)

Curriculum models

Historically, instruction in correctional classrooms has reflected a curriculum model with heavy emphasis on remediation, drill and practice in the basics, and individual student workbook exercises. Classroom management seems to focus on discipline and control (Gemignani, 1994; Hobler, 1999). Individually Prescribed Instruction (IPI), according to the NIFL (2000), was systematically applied and perfected at correctional schools.

In 1991, Abramson conducted a comprehensive analysis of the theoretical orientation of current juvenile corrections curriculum. Abramson performed a content analysis on 54 articles relevant to juvenile correctional education published in The Journal of Correctional Education. These articles were examined for points of correspondence with descriptors of empirical-analytic, hermeneutic, and critical curriculum theory. Abramson believed that because recidivism rates for juvenile offenders remain high, a thorough reexamination of the curriculum employed in juvenile corrections was necessary. However, before an extensive revision of juvenile corrections curriculum could be conducted, Abramson believed a theoretical analysis of the current curriculum methods and programs used with youth in juvenile corrections was vital.

Abramson (1991) found that 'the field of juvenile correctional education is grounded in the empirical-analytic conception of curriculum. Even though the orientations of hermeneutics and critical curriculum theory are present in the descriptions of juvenile correctional education, the fundamental orientation to knowledge, activity, and values are those of an empirical-analytic approach.

Abramson described the empirical-analytic approach to curriculum as being absolute, impersonal, observable, and measurable where the activity is defined, directed, and assessed by the teacher as expert. She

described this conception of curriculum as being "rooted in the dominant interest in control: control of both the content and language of curriculum, control of the activities specifically designed to meet predestinated goals, and control of student outcomes and behaviors" (p. 86). Abramson noted that students' IEPs determine much of the curriculum for many juvenile corrections students and the prominence of behavioral objectives in IEPs are essential elements of the empirical-analytic approach to curriculum.

The results of Abramson's (1991) study indicate that historical curriculum models in juvenile corrections education programs, with the emphasis on behaviorally based education such as drill and practice, has not been completely replaced with more current models. She states that behavioral objectives do not give the active student a relevant curriculum that will provide the student with the necessary knowledge and experience to successfully transition into society. Many correctional educators, according to Abramson, were interested in developing curriculum that provided opportunities for student centered and goal directed behavior.

Several studies suggest that education based on rehabilitative models of behavioral objectives and teacher directed learning do not address the students' total needs or prepare them for transition back to public school (Abramson, 1991; Coffey & Gemignani, 1994; Gemignani, 1994; Hellriegel & Yates, 1997; Hobler, 1999; Janic, 1998). After a study of

the literature and research, Coffey and Gemignani (1994) proposed new student centered approaches to juvenile corrections education curriculum. They believed these changes would involve substantial changes in philosophy as well as in curriculum and instruction. Their suggestions include:

- Embedded basic skills instruction in more global and meaningful tasks that allow students to transfer skills to real-world situations.
- Sharing of knowledge that emphasizes cooperative learning, peer tutoring, and team problem solving classroom activities.
- Use of a variety of assessment and evaluation measures, including portfolio assessments and observations.
- The knowledge of one's strengths "metacognition" is meaningfully integrated throughout classroom instruction.
- Teaching is project-centered and encourages students to work in structured task groups with leadership.

The "back to basics" reform movement may actually have placed students at an even further disadvantage from their peers, according to Gemignani (1994) who believes these old methods of remediation have proved ineffective because they tend to be broad, repetitive, and unmotivating for students. He proposed that instructional strategies must change to help the juvenile corrections students handle more advanced

tasks. A study conducted by the National Office for Social Responsibility (NOSR) concurs that a change in the traditional correctional education is necessary and looked to Job Corps and Job Training partnership Act educational programs for effective and innovative teaching methods. The labor market of today demands a more comprehensive and advanced academic and vocational training curriculum. Incarcerated youth must move beyond drill and practice to be prepared for increasingly complicated responsibilities (Gemignani, 1994).

These studies suggest a shift in the juvenile corrections education paradigm (Abramson, 1991; Coffey & Gemignani, 1994; Gemignani, 1994). The traditional model has reflected teacher directed learning with an emphasis on student behavior and control. A new model of student centered, project directed education is emerging. Corrections educators are developing curriculum that engages the student as a whole person who is able to think critically, to solve problems, and not merely answer questions by rote.

Transition planning

Transition planning is an important component of educational planning for juvenile corrections students. Students are expected to return to their home communities and schools from correctional facilities where

they have experienced school failure and negative community relationships (Gilham & Mc Arthur, 1999). According to Gemignani (1994, p.3), "effective transitional programs will increase the students' rate of re-enrollment in their school, their high school graduation rate, and their success in independent living and employment." A successful transition to the community requires the efforts of corrections staff, families, educators, and aftercare professionals (Leone et al., 1991). Effective communication between corrections schools and public schools is essential; however, this communication is usually lacking (Gilham & Mc Arthur, 1999; Hellriegel & Yates, 1997; Pollard, Pollard & Meers, 1994).

In 1997, Hellriegel and Yates conducted a case study investigating the educational processes, procedures, and experiences of the educational and correctional facilities and their professional personnel involved in the education process designed for juvenile offenders who transition from a county-run correctional facility to the local public school. In their study, Hellriegel and Yates were committed to the theoretical attitude that the relationship between correctional and public school personnel was paramount to the educational success of students as they transitioned from the correctional facility to the local public school system.

Hellriegel and Yates (1997) suggested that little is being done to effectively prepare students to transition from juvenile correctional facilities

back into the communities and public schools. The participants in their study reported that there were no specific transition goals or criteria for students before returning to the public school system. The school staff was often given no information regarding the departure of students from the correctional facility. The school personnel felt that the current practice did not allow them time to contact the receiving school with relevant information regarding the individual needs of the student. The school staff expressed their frustration with the lack of transition preparation for the students and believed this practice set the students up for failure.

According to Hellriegel and Yates (1997), specific activities are needed to increase the levels of formal and informal communications between juvenile corrections and public school systems. Developing a collaborative relationship would require public school and correctional education staff to determine common goals concerning the educational requirements of youth they served. The study by Hellriegel and Yates enriches the literature by illustrating the need for public school and juvenile corrections education systems to work together in effectively meeting the needs of juvenile corrections students.

Summary

The studies of Abramson (1991), Hellriegel and Yates (1997), Coffey and Gemignani (1994), and Gemignani (1994) show the importance of clearly declaring the researcher's theoretical perspective. I believe it is important for the reader to know why the researcher is involved in the study and what it is the researcher wishes to learn from the investigation.

Articulating the known limitations of a study also aids the reader in maintaining an appropriate perspective while analyzing the research.

The Hellriegel and Yates (1997) study shows the importance of using the actual voices of the participants in reporting the data results.

Giving details of the participants' experiences adds richness to the text and validation to the meaning. The reader can then construct her/his own interpretation and not rely upon the perspective of the researcher alone.

There are numerous articles, reports, and meta-analysis of the literature conducted in the area of juvenile corrections education; however, very few studies of the educational process and its effectiveness have been completed. The subject of special education and students with disabilities in the juvenile corrections system has been more widely studied.

SPECIAL EDUCATION IN JUVENILE CORRECTIONS

In this section I will present an overview of special education for students with disabilities in juvenile corrections education. I will present research studies on the prevalence of students with disabilities, and the adequacy of educational services to students in juvenile corrections.

Overview

Considerable proportions of youth in the juvenile corrections education system has education related disabilities and are eligible for special education and related services under IDEA (Burrell & Warboys, 2000). The twenty-first annual report to congress on the implementation of the IDEA (1999c) states that more than one in three youths who enter correctional facilities have previously received special education services. This prevalence is a considerably higher percentage of youth with disabilities than is found in the public schools. Research studies regarding the subject of special education programming in juvenile corrections and the prevalence of students with disabilities began in the 1970's.

Prevalence of students with disabilities

Morgan (1979) was one of the first researchers to report on the overall prevalence rates of students with disabilities incarcerated in juvenile

corrections facilities. He conducted a national survey of all handicapped juvenile offenders in state correctional institutions throughout the United States and its territories. The researcher was interested in the impact that P.L. 94-142 was having on incarcerated handicapped youth. Morgan's (1979) participant population was state juvenile correctional administrators in 50 states and 5 U.S. territories. A total of 204 institutions replied to the survey.

In his discussion of results, Morgan (1979) affirmed the statistical results of the study that approximately 42% of the populations of juvenile correctional institutions were, at that time, comprised of handicapped youth as defined by P.L. 94-142. However, he felt the limitations of the study might have inflated the results. Morgan discussed eight different reasons that he believed the results might not have been completely accurate. The researcher stated with reasonable certainty that the major handicapping conditions found among youth in correctional institutions were more prevalent than those found in public school and could be associated, in varying degrees, with delinquent behavior.

Morgan's study (1979) has significance to the field of juvenile corrections special education as it is the foundation for the literature and research that has taken place since it was written. Morgan was the first researcher to undertake a national study of special education in juvenile

corrections and recommend further study of the prevalence of handicapping conditions, the qualifications of the diagnosticians and classification personnel working with disabled juvenile offenders, and the differences among juvenile correctional institutions in the same state.

Morgan is one of the earliest and most cited researchers in the literature on special education in juvenile corrections.

In 1985, Rutherford, Nelson, and Wolford (1986) conducted a second study to determine if special education services available to handicapped juvenile offenders had changed from an initial study conducted in 1984. They repeated the original study by collecting data on the number of disabled students served in each state, the number and types of teachers and psychologists serving these students, the types of correctional education programs offered, and the types of special education services available in juvenile correctional facilities.

The study reported prevalence estimates of handicapping conditions among juvenile offenders in correctional facilities ranging from 4% to nearly 100%, with a mean of 28% (Rutherford et al., 1986). The authors concluded that special education programming for handicapped juvenile offenders had increased somewhat in both quality and quantity from the initial study in 1984 and the second study conducted in 1985. There was significant variation across states as to the number of handicapped

students served and the types and extent of programming available. This suggests that the goal of providing a free and appropriate education for all handicapped juvenile offenders had not yet been realized. This study was significant in that it was one of the first studies to look at special education programming for disabled youth in juvenile corrections.

Casey and Keilitz (1990) believed that the ability to estimate the prevalence of handicapping conditions among juvenile offenders had improved since the early studies. Rather than conducting a new study, due to the extraordinary resources necessary to collect national data, Casey and Keilitz conducted a meta-analysis of all of the prevalence studies of developmentally and learning disabled juvenile offenders. The literature was systematically summarized and synthesized in order to reconcile conflicting information regarding prevalence estimates.

The study reported that approximately 12.6% of juvenile offenders had developmental disabilities and 35.6% of juvenile offenders had learning disabilities. They also reported that the quality and number of studies of youth with emotional disturbance in juvenile corrections was not sufficient to conduct a meta-analysis of studies for this population (Casey & Keilitz, 1990). The significance of this study was two fold. First, this study gave updated prevalence estimates for youth in juvenile corrections that are vital to making policy decisions and for guiding further research efforts. Second,

Casey and Keilitz (1990) provide a framework for replication and adjustments of prevalence estimates that easily accommodates the results of additional prevalence studies as they become available.

Adequacy of services for students with disabilities

Under the requirements of IDEA, incarcerated youth are eligible for special education services and entitled to the same procedural rights given to youth in public schools. However, correctional facilities have been slow to respond to fulfilling the requirements of the law (Leone et al., 1986; Leone, 1994; NCEDJJ, 2000; Rutherford et al., 1985). In juvenile corrections facilities where youth are locked up for long periods of time, special education services appear to be provided with greater consistency (Leone et al., 1986). However, according to Coffey (cited in Leone, 1994), special education services for student in short-term juvenile or adult facilities are often not available or are noticeably inferior to those found in public schools.

In a case study of a state-operated juvenile correctional system,

Leone (1994) focused on the adequacy of special education services for

students with disabilities in one state's secure confinement facilities. The

"infrastructure" supporting appropriate education services in juvenile

corrections was also examined, in addition to describing specific practices.

This case study was conducted as the result of a lawsuit concerning the lack of special education services in the juvenile corrections education programs of one state.

Leone (1994) found that juvenile correctional facilities frequently only provided special education services to youths who had been previously identified as eligible for special education by public schools. The study revealed an extensive delay in processing educational files for students previously identified as having disabilities. There was no referral system for students whose needs were not previously identified and there was no effective method for retrieving previous school records for students. Related special education services were very sparse. Several students received speech and language therapy, but no students received counseling as a regularly scheduled service. Transition services for students with or without disabilities were also lacking. Leone concluded that systemic problems included lack of administrative support and understanding of special education services, and lack of adequate guidance and support from the State Department of Public Instruction.

Later, Chesley (1995) conducted another case study exploring the adequacy of services for incarcerated juveniles with educational disabilities. The study focused on programs in the states of New Hampshire and Vermont, which had very different approaches to juvenile corrections.

Three specific criteria were developed by Chesley to assess the adequacy of special education services in juvenile corrections education programs. The first criterion was compliance to federal procedural compliance. The second criterion focused on substantive compliance by assessing student outcome data. The third criterion for evaluating the adequacy of special education services focused on the unique nature of juvenile corrections students.

Chelsey (1995) concluded that each of the two states went beyond the minimum federal requirement to assure that all students who might need special education were identified and commended the states for modeling good practice in this area of special education. In Vermont the development and implementation of the student IEPs appeared overall to be thorough and comprehensive in relation to basic IEP requirements. However, in New Hampshire the IEP documentation and implementation of the IEPs varied greatly in its thoroughness and fell short of basic procedural requirements. The facility in Vermont also exhibited good practice with student transition plans by including the students from their first day in long-range goal planning, and involving the community to which they return in a system of "wraparound" services. The New Hampshire facility however, had no student transition plans and there was no way to determine if

services were available to students through a process other than special education.

The literature Chesley (1995) brought to this paper is a significant addition to the literature review of my study. Chesley contributes to practice and the literature by articulating criteria by which to assess the adequacy of special education services delivered in secure juvenile facilities. Chesley's study enhances the literature with the recognition of the valuable role that student outcome-based data can be effective in program reform efforts. Recommendations for improving practices in good juvenile education programs were also stated. The implications for practice and research given by Chesley were significant to the development of my practice and research. I believe that if teachers have a working knowledge of the special education process, their understanding can result in positive outcomes for students.

In the study conducted by Hellriegel and Yates (1997) the lack of special education services was also a concern. Although they did not evaluate whether or not the correctional facility in their study was in compliance with IDEA, they found it apparent that correctional facility staff were unaware of special education law, programming, or services. They found no IEPs in the record reviewed for their study. Hellriegel and Yates reported that there did not appear to be any formal or informal procedures

followed by the school personnel when working with students with disabilities.

Summary

The Morgan (1979), Rutherford et al. (1986), and Casey and Keilitz (1990) studies represent a continuum throughout three decades of research regarding special education for disabled youth in juvenile corrections education programs. The studies by Morgan, Rutherford et al., and Casey and Keilitz discuss the prevalence of disabled youth in the juvenile corrections education programs, and the laws governing a free and appropriate education for incarcerated special needs students. The prevalence rates, over the decades, have varied from less than 28% to 50% and more. The high frequency of students with disabilities in the juvenile corrections system demonstrates the necessity for the educators of these students to understand how the special education process functions, to understand what responsibilities educators have to the special education process, and how the understanding of their responsibilities affects their teaching practice.

The studies by Leone (1994), Chesley (1995), and Hellriegel and Yates (1997) represent current studies assessing the adequacy of special education services for juvenile corrections students. These studies are

significant for they identify deficits common to numerous juvenile corrections education programs. The current research looks chiefly at the services provided by the special education educators and staff and speaks very little to the issue of services provided by the regular classroom teacher to meet the needs of the student with disabilities. An assessment of current awareness on the part of regular educators is vital to set the groundwork for adequate professional development. I anticipate that as juvenile corrections education administrators and teachers increase their awareness and understanding of the special education process, their ability to meet the needs of students with disabilities will be enhanced.

EDUCATORS IN JUVENILE CORRECTIONS EDUCATION

In this section I will present an overview of those who teach in juvenile corrections education. I will present research studies on effective teaching practices, the knowledge and qualities of successful correctional educators, and a stress management program for special education teachers in juvenile corrections.

Overview

Teachers in juvenile corrections routinely teach on a year-round basis, others have ten-month contracts and substitute teachers are hired to

accommodate rotating teacher schedules (Leone, 1987; Rider-Hankins, 1992). Frequently there is a lack of funds for substitute teachers, teacher aides, and quality materials and equipment.

Educators working in juvenile corrections must function in three separate roles: teacher, counselor, and security agent (Bloom, 1994; Jurich, Casper & Hull, 2001). The teaching environment is very different from that of public schools. In juvenile corrections facilities, the student turnover is high since students often enter and leave within a three to six month period (Leone, 1991; Leone, 1991a; ODE, 1997; Sedlak & Karcz, 1990). The student population in juvenile corrections has a much higher prevalence of students with learning disabilities than the public schools (Casey & Keilitz, 1990). Teachers in juvenile corrections education programs work within a highly structured and prescribed environment and must be vigilant at all times regarding security. Correctional educators are challenged to bring learning to facilities designed mainly for custody and control. Teachers in corrections work in an environment where discipline and maintenance of order are high priorities and where education is low on the list of priorities (Bloom, 1994; Jurich et al., 2001; Leone, 1987).

Leone (1987) states that teachers working in the criminal justice system need to possess streetwise skills, professional competencies, and political skills. A corrections teacher with streetwise skills will understand

the subculture of the adjudicated youths and be able to communicate more effectively with the students. Skills involving assessment, instruction, curriculum development, and behavior management are considered professional competencies. Understanding the justice system and using that knowledge to advocate for improved educational services for adjudicated youth is what Leone considers the political skills needed by educators in juvenile corrections education programs.

Effective teaching practices

In 1990, Sedlak and Karcz conducted a research study to examine the teaching practices in correctional facilities. Correctional educators in adult and juvenile institutions, with a 1988 Correctional Education association membership, were surveyed on how they teach, what they believed about teaching, and what factors besides teaching affected learning. The corrections educators, thirteen percent of which were from juvenile corrections teachers, returned thirty-nine percent of the original 320 surveys.

Sedlak and Karcz (1990) concluded from their research that institutional educational programs are the primary result of institutional needs rather than the outcomes of a clearly defined educational philosophy. The emphasis appeared to be on pre-employment training and

the GED. Security issues tend to become more important than educational issues and priorities. The research revealed that educators knew what the curriculum should contain and how it should be delivered; however, the environmental structure of the correctional facilities worked against them (Sedlak & Karcz, 1990). Sedlak and Karcz summarized their findings by stating that correctional educators have skills and knowledge, but security issues and other priorities constrained the educational potential of their work with students.

Knowledge and qualities of juvenile corrections educators

Bloom (1994) conducted a four part study that included the following:

a) determining what skills, experiences, backgrounds, practices, beliefs, or
attributes are held by correctional educators; b) determining how these
attributes relate to what research has stated as necessary for correctional
educators; c) identifying how these attributes relate to effective correctional
teacher education programs; and d) identifying how effective correctional
teacher education relates to adult education and learning. The first two
elements of determining the attributes held by correctional educators and
how those attributes relate to the research will be discussed in this section.
The attributes relating to correctional teacher education will be discussed in
the section concerning correctional teacher preparation. Eight correctional

education teachers from adult and juvenile corrections were interviewed for this study; four were from the adult system and four from the juvenile corrections system.

The participants in Bloom's (1994) study described personal characteristics of effective correctional educators as follows: having positive personality characteristics, being physically and mentally fit, and possessing the ability to work with adult professionals. Interpersonal characteristics were described as facilitation or counseling. The research literature is comparable to those of the study's participants. Positive personality traits and knowledge of varied instructional strategies and learning styles are the predominate descriptors by both researchers and participants. Bloom concluded that there are definite personal qualities and characteristics, as well as specific instructional skills and abilities that are necessary for effective correctional educators. The stresses of the correctional setting require teachers who are mentally and physically strong and healthy, and able to endure the personal challenges of institutional life. Correctional educators need interpersonal skills to deal with the complexities of correctional education. Instruction must often be set aside until the personal issues of correctional students have been resolved. Bloom determines that effective correctional educators are " a rare breed" (p.108) for they regard the challenges of corrections education as

"motivators to improve and enhance themselves personally and professionally" (p.108)

In 1994, McArthur conducted a quantitative research study comparing the knowledge and skills of teachers of students with emotional behavioral disorders and special education teachers who work in juvenile corrections education. The study also compared teachers in juvenile correctional special education settings to determine whether their knowledge varied within differing categories such as gender, age, years of teaching experience, and level of teacher education.

After a literature review, McArthur (1994) concluded that both special education and juvenile corrections educators who work with disabled youth require many of the same skills and talents. To test this hypothesis, juvenile corrections special education teachers were asked to rank a set of knowledge and skills statements that had been previously validated with a group of special education teachers who specialized in emotional and behavioral disorders.

The juvenile corrections educators in McArthur's (1994) study ranked behavior management, programming, assessment and screening, and field experience as being the most significant skills used in their teaching practice. The ranking of the knowledge and skills statements by the juvenile corrections educators differed considerably from the teachers of students

with emotional and behavioral disorders. The juvenile corrections educators ranked behavior management as most important to job performance, with educational programming, assessment and screening, and field experience in descending order of importance. The knowledge and skills involving parents, consultation and collaboration, theory, evaluation, and resources were considered the least important. The corrections educators gave their highest ranking in proficiency to the areas of behavior management. programming, and general knowledge, and assessment. The teachers in juvenile corrections ranked their overall knowledge and proficiency of general knowledge, behavior management, field experience, parents, and resources as being noticeably less than the teachers of students with emotional and behavioral disorders. McArthur believes this discrepancy may be due to the emphasis on security in the corrections setting rather than a focus on education and the "lack of knowledge regarding the characteristics of special education students" (p.54). There were no significant differences found when juvenile corrections special educators' responses were compared by number of years of teaching experience, age, level of education, or type of certification held. McArthur concluded that special education teachers in juvenile corrections and teachers of students with emotional and behavioral disorders are similar in nature regarding their knowledge and skills in teaching exceptional students and could benefit from similar training.

This research served as a springboard for my interest in teacher preparation for juvenile correctional settings. I wish to expand on the author's knowledge to look at specific training, workshops, and/or courses that would be beneficial in the preparation of juvenile corrections teachers.

Special education teachers in juvenile corrections

Francis (1999) illustrates the high stress environment in which juvenile corrections educators work. The dissertation described a study designed to increase the stress management skills of five special educators working in a juvenile detention center. The teachers at the juvenile detention center were showing many symptoms of stress including an excessive amount of illness resulting in sick leave. Francis held the theoretical perspective that teaching stress management skills through workshops and in-service trainings would improve employee attendance and attitude and thus lessening staff burnout symptoms.

A strong case was given and supported with prior research regarding tremendous stress educators in this setting were experiencing. Francis (1999) looked at two bodies of literature related to stress. First, she looked at stress in the general workplace, then at stress for the correctional

educator. Francis also gave the participants a pretest inventory addressing the symptoms of stress that they experienced. The literature review related that early warning signs of stress are manifested emotionally, behaviorally, and physically. Emotional signs of stress include apathy, anxiety, mental fatigue, and over compensation. Teachers displayed behavior stress by feeling emotionally drained, exhausted, completely frustrated, and irritable. Frequently, stressed teachers arrived late for work or displayed an increased absence from work. Physical signs of stress varied. Tapping feet or fingers, grinding teeth, and severe headaches were among the symptoms found in Francis's) research. The research reported that the environment in a correctional institution is unequivocally opposed to learning (Gehring, 1993). The rules of safety and security that a corrections educator must abide by are in direct contradiction to the methods of teachers in less restrictive environments. These contradictory factors in the working environment lead to high burn-out and frustration by juvenile corrections educators (Jurich et al., 2001; Rider-Hankins, 1992). Finally, the participants of the Francis study ranked being tired, physically exhausted, feeling run down, depressed, anxious, and "wiped-out" as the most prominent symptoms of stress.

The participants were ten special educators working in a juvenile detention center. The teachers were taking an excessive amount of sick

leave and engaging in behaviors that were counter productive to their work with special needs youth in the juvenile facilities. Evidence of inadequate stress management skills was gathered using a Self-Diagnosis Instrument Survey. The survey revealed the cause of the teachers' stress included such factors as feelings of lack of accomplishment, effectiveness, and closure with students when they left the facility. The stress management program consisted of weekly 30 to 35 minute in-service sessions over a 32-week period. Activities ranged from instructions for simple releasing exercises, to brainstorming possible stress reducing changes in their environment, to presentations by a certified fitness instructor, a dietitian, and a massage therapist.

Francis (1995) believed the data confirmed her hypothesis that inservice on stress management improved the educators stress management skills. The participants demonstrated more effective stress management skills with improved teacher grooming, attire, demeanor, and interactions with the students. Improved stress management skills did not however, improve staff attendance. She recommended the staff be engaged in planning of any stress management program. She also recommended that all juvenile corrections education programs provide a mandatory stress management program as part of their in-service curriculum.

Summary

The Sedlak and Karcz (1990) study is significant in that it presents a current view of complexities and difficulties correctional educators face when developing and implementing curriculum for students in corrections education programs. These barriers to teaching in corrections education affect the understanding educators have in working with students with disabilities.

The studies by Bloom (1994) and McArthur (1994) are important because they detail the attributes and characteristics of the effective correctional educator and serve to give a voice to the experience, knowledge, and skills teachers consider essential to accomplish the required duties of their profession. This data should guide potential educators interested in a career in correctional education and provide implications to future administration and policy in the area of teacher preparation programs teachers working in juvenile corrections. The attributes and characteristics of an effective correctional educator can affect the understanding they may have of their students with disabilities.

Francis's (1995) study is significant in that it illustrates the importance of implementing a stress management program for special educators in juvenile corrections. Teachers benefited from increased knowledge of healthy stress management skills by exhibiting enhanced

mental attitude through improved appearance and positive conduct. This study also offers a model for stress management training for juvenile corrections education teachers. As a special education teacher in a juvenile corrections setting, I can relate to staff burn-out due to stress. I have experienced some of these symptoms myself and have witnessed the symptoms in my colleagues. The study is relevant and timely.

TRAINING OF JUVENILE CORRECTIONS EDUCATORS

In this section I will present an overview of teacher training in juvenile corrections education over the past two decades. I will present research studies that assess the need for teacher training and the development of teacher preparation models for educators in juvenile corrections.

Overview

The issue of professional development and teacher preparation for correctional educators has been talked about for decades. The literature during the 1980's focused on the need for training correctional educators in security measures, operating procedures of a juvenile corrections facility, and working with students with disabilities. Different security levels require alternative educational planning and correctional educators frequently

serve the dual role of being both regular and special education teachers, without the training to identify learning disabilities or knowledge of instructional strategies specifically developed for students with disabilities (Garfunkel, 1986; Pasternack, 1988). Platt and Wienke (1984) believed that unless correctional educators acquired special education competencies they would not possess the necessary skills to direct effective student learning.

In the 1980's, development of teacher training for correctional educators was in its infancy. The lack of a formal correctional education professional degree program, as well as effective pre-service and/or inservice training is well documented (Platt, Wienke, and Tunick, 1982; Rutherford et al., 1985; Leone, 1986; Platt and Wienke, 1984; Mesinger, 1987). Many teachers in correctional education programs were trained in elementary or secondary education. Learning to adapt behavioral and instructional skills to working with incarcerated youth was acquired on-the-job or by first-hand experience (Bloom, 1994; Leone, 1987; Platt & Wienke, 1994; Sutherland, 1985). Platt et al. (1982) recommended a collaborative approach to pre-service training between correctional education programs and special education to appropriately train educators working with incarcerated handicapped students. Rutherford et al. (1985) stated that until correctional training became a prerequisite to working as a correctional

special educator, incarcerated students with disabilities would continue to be inadequately served. At that time there were approximately six teacher training institutions that offered pre-service correctional teacher education programs. The Correctional Special Education Training (C/SET) Project developed eight teacher training modules for use by state departments and institutions of higher education. One goal of the project was to develop collaboration between correctional and special educators (Rutherford, 1988).

The training issues of correctional educators changed little in the 1990's. The need for specialized training for correctional educators continued as a recommendation throughout the current literature.

Eggleston (1991) reported that correctional educators must receive a multidisciplinary training that prepared them for the challenges of their jobs. It was her belief that training for correctional educators "has been implemented in a sporadic and poorly defined manner" (p.16). Rider-Hankins (1992) stated, "Traditionally-prepared teachers are not equipped to teach in a correctional school" (p.6). Gemignani (1994) recommended administrators in correctional education facilities recruit high-quality teachers and provide them with adequate training opportunities. In October 1998, a policy forum of the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Special Education Programs and the U.S. Department of Justices' Office of

Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention concluded there is a need for increased awareness and training for workers in the juvenile justice education system (Osher et al., 2001). According to Jurich et al. (2001), these educators should be trained in procedures and principles of providing educational services in a correctional school program. Conventional teacher preparation programs emphasize content knowledge, but do little to educate teachers on the realities of working in corrections education programs. Teachers have little information on strategies to deal with special education students. Brooks and White (2000) stated educators in juvenile corrections facilities "often feel isolated, alienated, and ill-prepared to teach incarcerated juvenile offenders" (p.1).

In 1990, Sedlak and Karcz reported there were still only a few training programs in the country that prepared educators to teach in correctional facilities. Bullock and McArthur (1994) determined there exists a shortage of data that could be reliably used to develop programs for qualified correctional teachers.

Lack of teacher preparation

In 1983, Henderson was interested in how well court school staff believed they were prepared to provide educational support to adjudicated youth. The study conducted by Henderson contained two kinds of issues that related to the preparation of court school staff. The first was whether teacher training and/or technical training institutions were preparing personnel to work specifically with adjudicated students. The second question dealt with whether training that prepared court school staff for the kinds of problems they encountered in court schools could help faculty and staff to maintain positive job morale and attitude toward the youth they encountered. Two hundred and thirty-five court school staff in Los Angeles County were surveyed for this study.

The data in Henderson's (1983) study revealed the lack of teacher training in corrections or special education for educators working with juveniles in the corrections system. He affirmed, "better trained staff revealed more consistently positive attitudes toward their jobs and the youth served" (p.108). The data from his research found inservice workshops in teaching as a human engineer, behavior management, teacher effectiveness, cognitive and affective domain, learning disability, and multicultural dynamics were considered valuable by the respondents.

Henderson (1983) used the data to make recommendations for the court school staff selection process. Criteria were developed to make a decision on who would or would not make an ideal court school employee.

He made recommendations for a court school teacher training program and

an in-service education program, including course work and new teaching skills.

In his proposed teacher training program for juvenile corrections educators, Henderson (1983) identified the following classes for prospective teachers: child psychology, adolescent psychology, personality development, juvenile delinquency, personal-social adjustment, logic/reasoning, remediation and rehabilitation, and learning disabilities. An internship where teacher trainees would have the opportunity for practical experience in the corrections education setting was also recommended for a period of six or more weeks. Henderson believed that teachers new to the juvenile corrections education system should leave the teacher preparation institutions equipped to take on the challenge of incarcerated students.

A new teacher orientation inservice program was also proposed by Henderson (1983) for new staff with follow-up training to be offered on an ongoing basis to new and veteran staff. It was recommended that the inservice program be directly responsive to the teaching staff's needs. Henderson believed teachers needed to have a substantial role in planning, implementing, and evaluating the program.

The research by Henderson (1983) is significant because it specifically studied the issue of teacher preparation for educators in the juvenile corrections system at a time when the population of adjudicated

youth was increasing throughout our nation. Henderson was one of the first researchers to confirm the lack of effective teacher preparation for corrections teachers. He was one of the first researchers to make recommendations for developing a course of study for new educators interested in juvenile corrections and developing teacher inservice for both new and established educators in juvenile corrections. I found this study very valuable to me as I look forward to using my research data to develop special education inservice training for regular juvenile corrections educators. The recommendations for involving teachers in the development of inservice training fit well with my view of constructivism.

In Bloom's (1994) study, one component on the qualities of successful correctional educators acknowledged the need for trained correctional educators and the lack of teacher training offered. He concluded that few individuals teaching in corrections education have received adequate training to do their job. Effective and successful educators in corrections, according to Bloom have definite examples of what content and methods of instruction should be used with correctional students. The corrections educators in Bloom's study had specific thoughts on where and how correctional educators should be taught.

Bloom (1994) concluded that there were two significant aspects of teacher training for corrections educators. First, it is imperative that correctional educators receive some structured observation or fieldwork before formal employment in the correctional education system. Second, inservice and workshops for practicing correctional educators should be provided to assist teachers in staying current in their knowledge and practice. He recommends that those who provide correctional education services utilize these principles and practices and develop a structured teacher training program for all correctional educators.

Hellriegel & Yates (1997) authored one of the most recent studies to be conducted regarding juvenile corrections educators. Their research results indicated a need for staff training in the area of special education law programming and services in both the correctional and local public education programs. No informal or formal assessment procedures to determine the appropriate educational program for each student appeared to be followed by either of the institutions in their study. Hellriegel & Yates proposed that the training of educational staff in the juvenile facility needed to include effective techniques of intervention for juvenile offenders, including special education and transitional planning for students.

Teacher preparation programs

Bullock and McArthur (1994) reported on a nation wide research study of correctional special education conducted to estimate the

prevalence of students with disabilities. Their report also included a discussion on teacher preparation programs designed for the special educator who works in juvenile corrections. Bullock and McArthur examined the major components of three existing teacher preparation programs for correctional special education. Bullock and McArthur developed a categorical classification of the essential training components defined for each of the three programs. Each program encompassed seven to eight major areas of academic focus: theoretical knowledge, assessment, instructional interventions, team skills, evaluation, professional skills, vocational education, and behavior management. All of these programs were at the Master's level.

An analysis of the three teacher preparation programs revealed some additional knowledge was needed when teaching in juvenile corrections programs. All three programs had a strong assessment/evaluation component and knowledge of the juvenile justice system. Bullock and McArthur (1994) concluded that it was critical for specialized teacher preparations programs to be developed.

Jurich, Casper, and Hull (2001) assisted the Commonwealth of Virginia, Department of Correctional Education (DCE) with a five-month project to define the training needs of DCE teachers and develop a three-day conference that addressed those needs. The study included

respondents from adult and juvenile corrections educators and offenders.

Thirty-four percent of the respondents were juvenile corrections educators.

The participants in the study by Jurich et al. (2001) revealed the following areas needed to be addressed by teacher trainings: intellectual isolation, diversity of challenges, absence of grade related structure, and safety over education. The findings from the needs assessment were successfully used to plan and develop training for the Virginia correctional educators. By following this process of developing teacher training based upon an assessment of teacher needs, the teachers felt enthusiasm and ownership for the training they received.

Summary

The studies by Henderson (1983), Bloom (1994), and Hellriegel & Yates (1997) give evidence that appropriate and effective teacher training for corrections educators continues to be desperately lacking after two decades of research and recommendations. As a beginning researcher I wonder why this vital issue has not been rectified. Why has nothing more been done by the federal and state governments or the universities to develop effectual teacher preparation programs for educators in the numerous correctional education systems.

The analysis by Bullock and McArthur (1994) is significant for it's examination of teacher preparation programs. This is first study I found that actually examined current teacher education programs designed specifically for juvenile corrections educators. This study goes beyond the recommendation stage of prior studies by revealing the effectiveness of actual teacher preparation programs. The components defined by the Bullock and McArthur study will influence the design of any inservice I design for juvenile corrections educators.

The study by Jurich et al. (2001) was significant in that it established a paradigm for assessing the needs of correctional educators and involving them in the development of effective professional development and training. After assessing teacher understanding of the special education process, this model will guide my practice while constructing professional development regarding special education for Oregon's juvenile corrections educators.

SUMMARY OF THE LITERATURE

This literature review has examined the research pertaining to juvenile corrections education and special education, juvenile corrections educators, and issues concerning the training needs of the juvenile corrections educators. The literature overwhelmingly asserts that

educational needs of incarcerated youth, both disabled and non-disabled, have been largely neglected over the years. This began to change in 1975, when the emphasis on special education in correctional facilities changed. In 1975, Congress passed Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act. For the first time, a critical look at appropriate education for incarcerated handicapped youth was undertaken. National studies disclose the fact that high percentages of youth in juvenile correction facilities qualify for special education services. In 1979, Morgan found 42% of juvenile offenders were disabled in a national survey of state juvenile correctional administrators. Bullock and McArthur (1994) claimed that prevalence rates of incarcerated youth with disabilities in the correctional system is four to five times greater than in the general population. Casey (1990) estimated that 40 to 50 percent of youth in a correctional facility have a disability.

The students in juvenile corrections have experienced little success in their prior educational environments (Coffey, 1983; Hellriegel & Yates, 1997; Henderson, 1983; Leone, 1991). The task of educators is to discover methods and strategies enabling them to meet the individual needs of students while assisting them in becoming successful members of their communities.

The research reviewed from the past three decades revealed a consistent need for additional preparation for educators of juvenile offenders. The literature examined in the Henderson's (1983) paper indicated teacher training does not include corrections education methods that address the unique problems faced in a juvenile corrections education program. Furthermore, Hellriegel (1997) states corrections educators are unaware of special education law, programming, and services.

Current research indicates there is a need for further investigation to identify the knowledge correctional educators have of the special education processes for handicapped juvenile offenders. Specific in-service training opportunities need to be developed to assist corrections educators in gaining the methods and techniques required to fulfill their responsibility to comply with special education law and in meeting the individual needs of incarcerated handicapped youth in their classrooms. This confirmed that my study was appropriate and would enhance professional knowledge and practice in providing required educational services for adjudicated youth.

It is evident after reviewing the literature on juvenile corrections education that there is a large population of handicapped youth in juvenile corrections facilities, and the educators in this field have little knowledge regarding how to effectively meet the individual needs of these students in the classroom. The federal and state special education laws, however,

require all classroom teachers to participate in the special education process and to implement the Individual Education Programs for students with disabilities in their classrooms. It is, therefore, imperative that a knowledge base of the understanding teachers possess of the special education process and their role and responsibilities in that process be determined so that a training program can be developed for regular juvenile corrections education teachers.

After reviewing the literature, there are several components that I believe are important to the design of my study: the researcher's theoretical perspective, direct interviews, and conducting the study in two separate phases.

The researchers' theoretical perspectives and motivations for accomplishing their studies were clearly stated in the studies conducted by Abramson (1991), Bloom (1994), Chesley (1995), Coffey and Gemignani (1994), Francis (1995), Gemignani (1994), Hellriegel and Yates (1997), Henderson (1983), Leone (1994), and McArthur (1994). I believe information on the researcher's knowledge and viewpoint of the study aids the reader in understanding the predisposition of the researcher as he/she investigates the subject matter. This study will include my theoretical perspective on the understanding juvenile corrections educators have of

the special education and how it influences their practice. My knowledge of the subject matter and desire to investigate this topic will also be discussed.

Interviews were used as a primary data collection procedure in the studies performed by Chesley (1995), Francis (1999), Hellriegel and Yates (1997), Henderson (1983), McArthur (1994), and Rutherford, Nelson, and Woldford (1986). The interviews concluded by these researchers were for the purpose of understanding the lived experience of the study participants. It is suggested by van Manen (1990) that in a phenomenological study one way to collect "accounts of personal experiences is to have taped conversations with people who might tell us personal life stories" (p. 67). It is also suggested by van Manen to "offer ready-made questions" (p.67) to maintain the focus of the research question. Using these components, I decided to conduct personal interviews to explore the participants' experience and understanding of the special education process.

Several studies included data from a preceding source to design the final data collection instrument. McArthur (1994) and Rutherford, Nelson and Woldford (1986) use data from a previous study to develop the data collection instrument in their respective studies. Bloom (1994), Chesley (1995), and Henderson (1983) conducted pilot studies to aid in the design of the final data collection instrument. Adjustments in the data gathering procedure were noted during the pilot study, which allowed for more

efficient collection of the data from the selected sample. I used this model to design a two-phased study. The participants' responses to the interview questions in the first phase were analyzed for the understanding juvenile corrections educators have of the special education process. To achieve the desired depth of the participants' responses, the interview questions were modified as necessary to improve the final interview protocol.

CHAPTER 3: DESIGN OF STUDY

In this chapter, I will present a description of my epistemology giving the reader perspective on of my beliefs about the nature of knowledge and how I develop models of learning. The primary methods that were used to collect and analyze my research data will be identified. This chapter will explain the two phases of the study. The operational design of each phase includes the population and sample, development of the data collection instruments, the data collection process, and data analysis procedures. These areas are further divided to clarify the development, administration, and analysis of the research instruments in each of the two phases

METHODOLOGY

The qualitative methodology of phenomenology guides this study.

Qualitative designs are naturalistic in that the research setting is not manipulated, changed, or controlled by the researcher. According to Patton (1990), "The research setting is a naturally occurring event, program, community, relationship, or interaction that has not a predictive course established by and for the researcher" (p.39-41). The intent of my study is to use phenomenological research perspectives to develop an understanding of individual experiences and perceptions of teachers in

juvenile corrections. Van Manen (1990) describes phenomenology as "how one orients to lived experience" (p.4). It is the effort to explain the meanings of life experiences as we live them in our daily lives. According to Bogdan and Biklen (1998), phenomenological research is an "attempt to understand the meaning of events and interactions to ordinary people in particular situations" (p.23). The purpose of this research study was to endeavor to understand the meaning of the special education process to the juvenile corrections educators in their particular teaching situations. It was my goal to understand the point of view of these educators and make interpretations of their knowledge. Researchers believe that although phenomenological approaches have the potential to distort the participants' experience, phenomenology intrudes the least on the participants' lived experiences (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998).

The data collection for this study was conducted in two phases.

Phase I data were collected from initial face-to-face interviews,

demographic surveys, and interview rating scales completed by ten

participants at one OYA facility. The data in Phase II of this study were

gathered from demographic surveys and personal interviews. The

interviews in phase II were conducted face-to-face or via telephone with

twelve juvenile corrections educators in OYA facilities throughout Oregon.

Phase I of the study served as a process to test the research questions.

According to Gall, Borg and Gall (1996), a pilot test can help ensure that the final data collection will yield productive information. A pilot study can help refine interview questions, questionnaire formats, administration procedures, and analysis techniques (Gay, 1987).

In phenomenology, researchers usually conduct extensive interviews with the study participants to gather comprehensive descriptions of experiences of the phenomena being studied (Gall et al, 1996). Interviews have the advantage of adaptability which allow the researcher to follow up respondents' replies, to gather more information and clarity on vague statements made by the respondent. Interviews can also disclose more complete and extensive answers. Interviews are more difficult to standardize because of their unstructured characteristics; however, they can focus on obtaining all aspects of the experience. It is also difficult to provide anonymity for interview respondents because of their personal, face-to-face approach to data collection; therefore, it is essential for the researcher to address the issue of anonymity in her/his data analysis.

Researchers use the interview process to increase soundness of qualitative research findings (Gall et al, 1996).

Triangulation is a process of using multiple data-collection methods, data sources, and analysts for verifying findings in a qualitative study. The use of many sources of data is better in a study because multiple sources

can lead to a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomena under study (Gall et al., 1996). Triangulation can occur when several respondents give the same pattern of response to the questions or when a single respondent provides multiple sources of data.

RESEARCHER'S EPISTEMOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

My educational experiences in the past two decades have deepened my knowledge of students and teaching. They have also guided the formation of my educational philosophy. Teaching involves the development of academic knowledge and basic social skills. It also involves treating students as individuals, each with unique experiences and learning needs. I believe it is a teacher's responsibility to provide an education empowering each individual student in becoming a successful independent member of her or his community. In developing this autonomy, an educator quides students through learning experiences that develop skills for critical thinking, conceptual analysis, problem solving, social interaction, and selfesteem building. The strategies of multiple intelligences, contextual and outcome based learning, and open-ended assessments address how students learn, not just what they learn. Students develop understanding about themselves, their relationships, and their places in the world. This understanding gives them the opportunity to build self-discipline and

knowledge, empowering them to have ownership and effective participation in their future transition into the world of school, work, and community living. (Brooks, 1999)

When I began working in juvenile corrections in February 1995 at the Hillcrest Youth Correctional facility, I had approximately six years of experience as a special education teacher and nine years as a regular education teacher in public schools. I was familiar with P.L.94-142 and IDEA, 1991. I had written IEPs for six years; therefore, I knew how to individualize and modify curriculum in order to accommodate the general education curriculum to meet student IEP goals, implement behavior management plans, and how to organize multilevel curriculum. I knew nothing about juvenile corrections or the students in juvenile corrections institutions.

I became aware that the students' learning and my teaching were not so different from my public school experience. Individual student abilities, skills, learning styles, and learning rates were all distinct. When given a learning style assessment, a majority of the students reported they learned best when their schoolwork was visually presented and when given the opportunity to learn through hands-on projects. They preferred self-directed learning, cooperative learning groups, and authentic learning. The youth said they were bored completing workbooks and individual packets.

They wanted to "do" things and learn about ideas they considered important.

As corrections educators consider the common needs and individual diversity of incarcerated youth and the need for safety and security in the classroom, they must continually ask themselves how to best assist these students. I used project-based learning as a teacher in public schools and felt it would be more beneficial to these students than the constant packet work that had been the practice. My experience to this point was teaching preschool and kindergarten children. I had never taught a classroom of high school students for any length of time. To increase my skills in this area, I read educational journals on the subject, consulted with peers, and became a participant in many workshops and training for contextual learning, project based curriculum development, and learning the principles of multiple intelligences as related to student learning. Once I entered the doctoral program for education at Oregon State University, theories of learning were presented and discussed throughout my first year of doctoral studies. I now had a formal base of comparison to reflect upon and form my epistemology. My experiences in the classroom with incarcerated students and combined with formal research have led me to constructivism as a learning theory and epistemology from which I can operate.

Constructivism: a major aspect of my epistemological perspective

Constructivism is included with post-positivist research by Gall, Borg & Gall (1996) and "is based on the assumption that social reality is constructed by the individuals who participate in it" (p.18). An individual gradually builds her or his own understanding of the world through personal experience and maturity. Knowledge is developed by the study of multiple social realities and cannot be studied by the analytic methods of positivist research.

Constructivism: theoretical background

Constructivism is not a single theory of instruction; rather it is a blending of ideas from educational psychology, philosophy, and instructional technology according to Driscoll (1994). It is a collection of approaches applied to learning conditions and instructional methods. The label constructivism most probably comes from Piaget's reference to "constructivist" and Bruner's theory of discovery learning as "constructionist" (Driscoll, 1994). Learners are active organisms seeking meaning, not simply empty vessels waiting to be filled with drops of wisdom from an instructors lecture. They favor active involvement in hands-on learning activities that are personally interesting and just above their current level of competence. Constructivism equates learning with creating

meaning from experience (Bednar et al., cited in Ertmer, 1993). According to Jaramillo (1996), students must experience concepts to learn them and to socially negotiate their meaning in the authentic context of the learning environment. Kroll and Black (1993) define constructivism as the acquisition of information through active involvement, not imitation or memorization of content. Understanding is gained by repetition of important concepts in differing contexts. Learning is recursive in nature.

The assumption that teachers transmit learning to students has been challenged by research from cognitive psychologists. The psychologists argue that children discover and construct meaning from their experiences in the environment. Student learn through interacting with their peers, teacher, manipulatives, and their contextual setting (Jaramillo, 1996). Students integrate new knowledge with previous understandings by analyzing data to detect patterns and forming and testing hypotheses (Condon, 1993).

As a collection of theories, constructivism supports several epistemological assumptions. Learners construct knowledge as they attempt to make sense of their experiences. "Humans create meaning as oppose to acquiring it" (Ertmer, 1993 p. 62). A learner cannot achieve a predetermined "correct" meaning since there are infinite possibilities of individual meaning. Learners are active participants in their learning; they

seek meaning by forming, elaborating, and testing mental structures until a satisfactory answer emerges. They use preexisting knowledge rather than the recall of prepackaged schemas to find their individual "truth" (Ertmer, 1993).

Construction of knowledge is self-paced; personal theories about reality are confronted by external events that guide changes in these assumptions. One can only know a thing through one's own logical framework. However, constructivists argue constructions do not necessarily correspond to external reality as others see reality. The constructions do not have to reflect the world, as it really is in order to be useful and viable to the learner. Constructivist theorists would say there must be limits to what sense learners make of their environments and their experience. The idea of social negotiation of meaning where learners test their own understandings against those of others comes from Vygotsky (Driscoll, 1994). In the classroom, a student's social and cultural experiences will generally be guided by that of the teachers and older more advanced peers. The role of the teacher is to foster learning among students that combines both internal and external interactions. "A constructivist teacher is more interested in uncovering meanings than in covering prescribed material" (Jaramillo, 1996; Kerka, 1997).

Learning goals, conditions of learning, and instructional methods are basic to any theory of instruction and need be considered in the constructivist approach to instruction. Constructivism emphasizes learning in context of an authentic reality; it needs to have a relevance to the learner's reality. Knowledge must develop and change continuously with the learner's activity. The term "life long learner" emerges from the literature and refers to the relevant learning individuals gain throughout their lives as they encounter changes and challenges (Grace, 1999).

Driscoll (1994) continues on to say that thinking has been described as a primary goal of concern to constructivists, specifically in the skill areas of persuasive essays, informal reasoning, and formulating and solving problems requiring mathematical reasoning. Perkins (cited in Driscoll, 1994) declares, "The basic goals of education are deceptively simple. To mention three, education strives for the retention, understanding, and active use of knowledge and skills." (p.18).

Learning must include three crucial factors if it is to be meaningful and successful according to Brown (1989). It must include activity (practice), concept (knowledge), and culture (context), not mere acquisition or memorization of material. Constructivist theorists propose a collection of learning conditions, which are likely to bring about the learning goals previously discussed. These learning conditions include authentic activity,

social negotiation, multiple modes of presentation, the nurture of reflexivity, and the emphasis on student-centered instruction.

In authentic activity, constructivism can be utilized effectively for workplace learning and vocational education. Teachers facilitate learning by encouraging active inquiry, guiding learners to question, and coaching them in the construction process (Kerka, 1997). The educator's role is not to set tasks, but to organize experiences that enable learners to develop their own knowledge and understanding. The activities are goal-directed, acquiring knowledge in the participation of everyday work.

Using a constructivist perception, attention is given to the fact that learning takes place within social context. Collaboration enables insights and solutions through the group process that are not possible in a singular learning situation. It also provides a means for individuals to become acquainted with other perspectives besides their own.

The constructivist theory of learning states practice, knowledge, and context are three significant factors to achieve successful, meaningful, and lasting learning. According to Bednar et al. (cited Ertmer and Newby, 1993, p.62) learning occurs by creating meaning from past experience. The assumptions from the constructivist position that have direct relevance for the implications of instructional design can be summarized in the following points:

- Anchor learning in meaningful contexts.
- Use what is learned. The need for information to be presented in a variety of ways.
- Develop pattern-recognition skills, presenting alternative ways of representing problems.
- Assess activities focused on transfer of knowledge and skills.
 (Ertmer, 1993).

Constructivism: essential features

After a review of the research and personal reflection, my concept of constructivism is defined as the construction of knowledge through active learning. Constructivism uses a multitude of educational approaches to bring about certain learning goals. The following points summarize the goals of constructivist learning:

- Critical thinking
- Reasoning
- Problem solving
- Learning in context
- Meaningful activity
- Continuous life-long learning

- Self-evaluating
- Learning conditions that will likely bring about the learning goals noted above are:
 - ✓ Authentic, goal-directed activity
 - ✓ Student centered instruction
 - ✓ Collaborative learning
 - ✓ Reflection

Constructivism and corrections education

The constructivist approach to learning is not easily implemented in the corrections environment. Issues of safety and security cause many educational materials to be considered contraband and highly risky.

Science implements such as test tubes, Bunsen burners, chemicals, or scalpels are seldom used in corrections classrooms due the possible misuse of these materials. Plastic substitutes must be found; everything must be counted and accounted for before students can leave the classroom.

Research indicates the innovative techniques that have been practiced in the public schools are finding their way into corrections education curriculum through informed teachers. Teachers use a variety of strategies including "externalizing thought processes, encouraging multiple

approaches to problem solving, and focusing on dialogue and reciprocal learning" (Gemignani, 1994). These pupils possess a vast knowledge base from their life experiences and it is the role of the instructor to determine the most effective method of structuring new information in order to use prior learning experiences to make learning meaningful (Ertmer and Newby, 1993).

The California Youth Authority stated, "It is critical to the education of the students that instruction be relevant to their lives in the institution and their future in the community" (California Youth Authority, 1995, p.63). Youth want to know why the learning is important; what will be the benefit of the learning; and they want their learning to be relevant to their lives. Curriculum that integrates basic skills into problem solving situations, challenges them, and imitates real-life employment skills helps them build the necessary connections that make learning relevant and authentic. Small group discussions, modeling, and cooperative learning are a few of the teaching strategies being used to guide student practice as they learn by discovery in a contextual situation.

The constructivist practice of curriculum development for incarcerated and handicapped students is, in my opinion, the best approach to their learning. If the educational system for these students is to consider the wide range of student ages, emotional maturity, academic

proficiency, a need for social integration skills, employability aptitude, and safety and security issues, then it must consider a broad scope of methodologies in its delivery. A context-based system of curriculum delivery used by juvenile corrections educators will guide teaching as it includes the IEP needs of learning disabled students in the general education curriculum.

Personal experience with juvenile corrections special education

As a special education case manager and educational team leader, I am responsible for gathering formal and informal data from teachers and assisting in the preparation of IEPs for special needs students. The classroom teachers are expected to use accommodations and modifications to their regular curriculum in order to meet the specific educational needs of these students. In the juvenile corrections setting approximately 40 to 50% of the students qualify for special education and have a specially designed IEP. Specific Learning Disability and Emotional Disturbance are the two most common handicapping conditions among juvenile offenders (Leone, Rutherford & Nelson, 1991).

Personal experience with constructivism

As a constructivist, I view teachers as organizing learning experiences allowing students to uncover meaning relevant to their lives. Student learning is gained by practice, retention, and understanding through the use of active knowledge. The teacher poses a problem for the student to solve and guides them through active constructions that result in meaning for the student. Students have the opportunity to create meaning from authentic activity by using their own knowledge and social interactions to solve the problem. An example of constructive learning would be to allow a student to demonstrate their knowledge of a piece of literature with an original drawing, song, or critical analysis. When developing a post secondary plan with a student, it is the teacher's responsibility to guide the process and ask questions that cause them to think creatively, to think about what it is they want to do and how they will go about accomplishing the task.

Special needs students also respond to this learning-by-doing style of teaching. Constructivist teaching in a collective learning environment includes all students in the classroom regardless of abilities, when guided by the teacher through authentic goal-directed activity and experiences. I believe students can learn self-evaluating, think critically, and use

reasoning skills when taught problem-solving strategies during meaningful activity.

Relating constructivism to my research interest

My research methodology was respectful of the participants' experience and how they construct personal meaning from their own experience. I asked juvenile corrections educators questions through surveys and interviews to address the issues of special education as they relate to teacher involvement with the special education process; the developing and implementing of student IEPs; and the accommodations and modifications teachers make to the general education curriculum for special needs students. My interview questions focused on: How do corrections teachers view their role in the special education process? Do they feel their role is relevant and meaningful? Do they understand the legal requirements concerning their involvement in the special education process? I was concerned with the teachers' attitude, negative and positive, toward curriculum for special needs students. What have been their experiences incorporating special needs students into the general curriculum? Is the curriculum for special needs youth viewed as separate and therefore a burden, or as part of the general education program with modifications for individual learning? My research examines the reflections

and self-evaluations of the juvenile corrections educators as they reported the meaning of their classroom activity.

The findings from this research study were designed to inform administration and training personnel in Oregon's juvenile corrections facilities of the knowledge juvenile corrections educators have regarding the special education process. The research findings should assist in the development of meaningful staff training. It is my belief that students with disabilities in the Oregon juvenile corrections system are more appropriately served when their teachers understand the special education process and their responsibilities to the development and implementation of student individualized education programs.

PHASE I

Phase I of the study was conducted as a trial study to test my hypothesis and research questions regarding the understanding of juvenile corrections educators have of the special education process and how it influences their instructional practice for students with disabilities.

Operational design

This section is comprised of a description of the participants for phase I of the research study and the development of the initial data

collection instrument. The characteristics of participants and their locations will be clarified, as will the development process of the interview protocols. Participants

The participants for phase I of the research study were selected from Robert Farrell School educators, on the OYA Hillcrest campus in the North Valley region. These educators were chosen for the phase I study because they are my colleagues and were willing to participate in my research study.

March 15, 2001, I gave a presentation to the Robert Farrell School staff explaining the focus of this research project and the pilot study. Teachers were given a cover letter (see Appendix A) explaining the study and a request was made for volunteers to read and complete an Informed Consent document (see Appendix B), returning the document to me prior to March 23, 2001. Thirteen of the twenty-six teachers and one instructional assistant volunteered to participate in phase I of my study. Two teachers later decided not to be interviewed; therefore, I interviewed the instructional assistant and eleven of the teachers. The twelve participants comprised a range of perspectives (i.e., age, teaching experience, gender, and subject matter area).

Development of data collection instruments

This section will address the development of the initial interview protocol for phase I of the study. The purpose of this study was to discover what juvenile corrections educators understand about the special education process and how their understanding influences their practice. The interview questions were designed to disclose the knowledge juvenile corrections educators have concerning their role and responsibilities to special education law and their students with disabilities.

The initial interview protocol consisted of exploratory, open-ended questions aimed at encouraging the participants to give their personal knowledge, opinions, and beliefs regarding the special education process for students with disabilities, their involvement in the IEP process, and to ascertain how their knowledge of the special education process affects their practice (see Appendix C). A structured set of questions was asked concerning the teachers' role and responsibilities in the IEP team. The teachers' awareness of their responsibility to the implementation of the student IEP and their awareness of their responsibility to the specific accommodations, modifications, and supports they must provide to a student with disabilities were also addressed in the preliminary interviews.

The participants were asked to complete a short demographic survey (see Appendix D) to obtain personal information about the teachers'

age, educational level, gender, years of teaching experience, and experience in juvenile corrections education. This information was used to comparisons in the teacher profiles. The participants were also asked to use a Likert- type rating scale (see Appendix E) to assess the interview for:

(a) clarity of the questions, (b) appropriateness of questions, (c) comfort with the questioning format, (d) the length of the interview, (f) ability to answer honestly, (g) unfairness in the questions, and (h) comments and/or suggestions.

Phase I of the study revealed two areas in the interview instrument that required modification before being used for phase II of the study. First, it was apparent in question one of the participant demographic survey that Elementary Certification was a needed addition to the list of teaching certifications, as three of the participants added this to the list of available options. Next, after analyzing the data it was evident that the participant responses did not reach the depth of knowledge I was anticipating in a few of the research topics, therefore, the final interview questions required a few revisions in this regard.

Data collection procedures

This section described the procedure for administering and collecting the interview data in phase I of the study. The issue of informed consent for

the study participants will be addressed under the heading of human subjects.

The initial interviews were conducted in person during lunchtime, after school hours, or during the participants' class prep-time. The interviews were taped using a micro-cassette player/recorder. Immediately after the interviews, the participants were asked to complete a written demographic survey and an interview rating scale.

Human subjects

The participants in both phases I and II of the study received a letter of informed consent. The letter consisted of an introduction to myself, the purpose of the research project, and the procedures for the interviews. The letter gave details of the approximate time to complete the interview, a description of benefits to the participants, a description of any anticipated discomforts to the participants, and a statement as to the voluntary nature of their involvement. Finally, an explanation of the confidentiality of records and a statement of whom to contact for answers to pertinent questions about the research and participants' rights were also included in the introduction letter.

Data analysis

In phase I of the study, the transcriptions of the initial interviews were analyzed using the WinMAX qualitative software program for key topics of interest, descriptions, patterns, and relationships between categories. The themes and sub-themes that emerge from the data were assigned topic codes; the texts of the interviews were then reviewed and segments marked with the appropriate codes. The coded segments were then sorted by the themes to reveal which participants correlated with the particular topics. The coded segments were then used to document the participants' direct quotes as they pertained to the analysis of the themes that emerged from the data.

The six major themes that emerged from the data were analyzed to illustrate the knowledge and understanding the educators had for the topic. The participants' responses were also evaluated for their relationship to the six research questions. This analysis was completed for the purpose of directing phase II of the study.

After reflecting upon the data gathered in phase I, a few of the interview questions were rewritten to further deepen the participants' responses. Analyzing the data by themes that emerged from the participants' responses appeared to be redundant of the original questions;

therefore, in phase II the data was analyzed as to the responses to the research questions.

PHASE II

Phase II of the study was conducted as the final data collection procedure in my research study. After data from the initial interview questions in phase I was analyzed, the questions were modified for phase II of the study.

Operational design

This section is comprised of a description of the participants for phase II of the research study and the development of the final data collection instrument. The characteristics of participants and their locations will be clarified, as will the development process of the interview protocols.

Participants

In Oregon there are twelve Youth Corrections Education Programs (YCEP) that include boot camps, regional facilities, statewide institutions, and transition facilities. Their geographical locations encompass the following five regional areas: Northwest, North Valley, South Valley, Southern, and East/Central. These educational programs range in student

population from approximately 400 to less than 30 students. The Oregon Department of Education contracts the management of these educational programs and their staffs to various educational service districts and public school districts. There are approximately 140 educators who are certified and/or vocationally licensed and work in these juvenile corrections education programs.

The selection of participants began with asking the principals of the twelve Youth Correctional Education Program (YCEP) schools for the name of a contact person in their building. Nine of the principals responded to this request. I was also given the name of a second teacher at two of the schools. I called all of the educators recommended by the principals. After talking with the educators, a total of eleven educators from nine different YCEP schools volunteered to be interviewed as participants for the research study. The face-to-face interviews were held with teachers from Lord School, Lochner High, Riverside High School, and Robert Farrell at their facilities due to the close proximity to my school for ease of accessibility. These schools are located at the MacLaren, Oak Creek, Corvallis House, and Hillcrest facilities, respectively. The interviews conducted with the participants at Houston Lake, Monroe, Newbridge, Ocean Dunes, and Trask River High Schools were held by telephone calls instead of in person because of their distance from my location. These

schools are located at the Ochoco, Eastern Rogue Valley Youth Corrections Facilities, Camp Florence, and Camp Tillamook.

<u>Development of data collection instruments</u>

The phase I interview protocol required a change of wording to various questions and the development of further questions for the final interview protocol in order to develop a richer set of data and probe for deeper levels of understanding in participant responses. The style of the interview was changed from a structured to an unstructured conversational format in which I adjusted the questioning according to how the interviewees were responding. At times in the final interviews, I asked additional clarifying questions and occasionally interjected my own opinion. I believe this extended approach resulted in more complete participant responses.

Data collection procedures

Each interview participant was contacted to set up an interview appointment and sent a packet of information containing an Informed Consent Form, Demographic Survey, a Special Education checklist, and a postage paid return addressed envelope before the scheduled interview date.

Five of the final interviews were conducted as face-to-face interviews with the individual participants at their respective schools. Six of the interviews were conducted via telephone during the participants' work hours. All of the final interviews were taped using a micro-cassette player/recorder; a patch cord was used for the telephone interviews to allow the telephone conversation to be directly recorded into the tape player.

The tape-recorded interviews were then transcribed into a computer word processing program. Confidentiality was provided all participants by use of a coding system. Each interviewee was assigned their own number; the numbers were then used throughout the transcribing and data analysis to designate the origin of statements. The tape recordings and transcriptions of the participants' interviews will be kept until the dissertation has been successfully defended; at that time they will be destroyed.

Data analysis

The final interviews were recorded and transcribed the same as the exploratory interviews. The WinMAX software program was used once again to code the text for analysis. However, the final interview data was analyzed within each of the eleven interview questions for emergent themes and the participants' understanding of the special education process. The research data was also analyzed for themes that emerged

throughout all of the interviews. Related literature from past studies discussing the teacher's role in special education was interspersed to assist with the interpretation of the participants' responses.

SUMMARY

The research design for this study included two phases. Phase I was conducted to check the research questions for ease of understanding by the participants and the depth of understanding they elicited from the participants. Phase II was conducted as the final data collection process to examine the understanding juvenile corrections educators in Oregon have of the special education process and how their understanding affects their teaching practice.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

In the following chapter, I will first present a description of the juvenile corrections education programs and the nine schools involved in the study. The findings from phase I and phase II of the study will be presented. The findings section will include the data collection method including the selection and profile of the participants and an analysis of the data with a discussion of the interview results as they relate to each of the eleven interview questions. Each interview question will be explored in light of the participants' comments and contributions and literature supporting the participants' responses will be presented. Next, an appraisal of the themes that emerged throughout the participants' interview responses will be presented. Finally, a discussion of findings in relation to each of the six research questions will be presented.

DESCRIPTION OF JUVENILE CORRECTIONS EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Twelve schools comprise the Youth Corrections Education Programs (YCEP) in Oregon and serves juvenile offenders ages 12-25 that have been adjudicated by the courts and are housed in the Oregon Youth Authority youth correctional facilities. There are approximately 1000 students currently in the system. However, due to the mobility of the

students, approximately 1,500 students are served each year. The YCEP program is required to operate a minimum of 220 day per year, providing a year-round education program for students in the system (ODE, 1997).

The Oregon juvenile corrections education programs focus on strengthening basic skills, critical thinking skills, academic skills, vocational skills, and living skills that are used to address the school-to-work transition needs of these students. Upon entry, all students are assessed for achievement levels and those needing further assessment or have previously been identified as eligible for special education are referred for special education services. The programs emphasize career and vocational development of students. Students may earn their high school diploma, a GED certificate, or a certificate of completion. Limited college courses, continued vocational instruction, and work experiences are provided for students and graduates. Vocational programs include building trades, office/computer systems, horticulture, hospitality and tourism, health occupations, cosmetology, and marketing (ODE, 1997).

PHASE I

Phase I was designed as an initial procedure in the development process of the research instrument and procedures to assess the juvenile corrections educators in Oregon for their understanding of the special

education process. Phase I used a small population of juvenile corrections educators from a single OYA facility to determine the dependability of the interview instrument (i.e., Would the questions being asked of the participants reveal the data I anticipated?) Nine interview questions designed to include attitudes and knowledge of the participants were prepared and asked of each of the interviewees.

Participant profile

The participants in phase I were five females and five males. All ten of the participants were in the white ethnic group, with one person also including American Indian. The group appeared to be older with 70% being 40+ years of age. They were well educated with 70% having master's degrees or higher. The participants' years in teaching indicated a split between the 0 to10 and the 16 to 20+ years experience with almost an equal representation in both areas. The years in juvenile corrections revealed a population relatively new to the corrections environment with 90% having less than ten years experience in this field.

Data collection procedures

The exploratory interviews began March 19, 2001 and were completed by April 12, 2001. As a fellow colleague, introductions were not

necessary in this setting and beginning the interviews was effortless. Most participants began the first two to three questions with short concise answers; however, by the end of the interview they were willing to speak at length about their concerns. The interviews averaged twenty minutes in length. I experienced equipment failure during the first interview and, unfortunately, only the last three questions were recorded. I felt this made the interview invalid and did not include the partial transcript in the analysis process. The instructional assistant that was interviewed did not have a classroom or teaching duty and was not able to answer the majority of the interview questions in the context of the study and, therefore, that transcript was also excluded from the analysis process. The ten remaining interviews were transcribed and analyzed for the phase I study data. Each participant was asked to complete an interview rating survey after the interview was completed. They were asked to use a Likert-type scale to rate the following questions as strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree and strongly agree:

- 1. The interview questions were clear.
- 2. The questions were appropriate and relevant to my teaching situation.
- 3. I was comfortable with the questions.
- 4. The length of the interview was appropriate.

- 5. I was able to give my opinion honestly.
- 6. The questions were unbiased.

One half of the participants rated the interview with all positive comments and strongly agreed with the questions. The other fifty percent of the participants rated the interview questions as either agree or strongly agree. I believe this data informed me that there were no serious problems with the interview instrument from the perspective of the participants.

Data analysis

Each of the phase I interviews were transcribed using a computer word processing program. The transcripts were then downloaded into a qualitative data analysis software program for coding and organizing. The coding and organizing process assisted me in learning how to recognize emerging themes in the collective data. I studied the data using two separate approaches. The first approach I used in phase I to study the data was to evaluate the entire set of data for common themes that emerged from the participants' responses. The second approach was to evaluate the data using the six research questions. However, during my analysis of phase I, I discovered by evaluating the data as a whole unit the themes that emerged were basically restating the interview questions. I used this

revelation to redesign the approach I used for analyzing the data in phase II.

In phase II, I analyzed the participants' responses to each of the eleven interview questions instead of using the data as a whole unit. I then evaluated their responses to the questions for common themes. Evaluating the data in regard to the research questions in phase I was a constructive learning experience for me, as a developing researcher, and the knowledge I gained served as valuable insight for continuing the analysis of the phase II data.

PHASE II

Phase II was the final step in the research study. This phase was designed to assess juvenile corrections educators in OYA facilities throughout Oregon. Representatives from nine of the YCEP schools participated in this research study as interviewees. The nine schools were Huston Lake High School, Lochner High School, Lord High, Newbridge High, Monroe School, Ocean Dunes High School, Riverside High School, Robert Farrell School, and Trask River High School. The educational programs in the YCEP are located throughout the state. The programs vary in size of the staff, the student body, and their curriculum delivery models. Riverside High School in Corvallis is the smallest educational facility and

the only all female school with 16 to 20 students, two regular education teachers and one half-time special education teacher. The educators at Riverside each teach a separate set of subjects and there are numerous people from the community who also come into the school for certain topics. Ocean Dunes and Trask High Schools each have approximately 25 male students. Ocean Dunes School in Florence has two regular education teachers and one half-time special education teacher. The teachers at Ocean Dunes follow an elementary model one-room classroom with approximately 9 to 10 students. The school also incorporates many community volunteers. Trask River in Tillamook has one regular education teacher and one special education teacher. There is one classroom with about 12 students and the teacher is responsible for all subjects. Houston Lake and Monroe School each include approximately 48 male students. Houston Lake located in Prineville employs two regular education teachers, one special education teacher, and one vocational education teacher. The teachers teach by subject area and rotate through two classrooms that are within the student living units. Monroe School located in Burns employs two regular education teachers, one special education teacher, and one vocational education teacher. The educational program follows an elementary model one-room classroom in the two living units. Lochner High School in Albany has an enrollment of eighty male students. There are

three regular education teachers, two full-time and one half-time special education teachers, and one vocational education teacher. The teachers at Lochner rotate through three classrooms in the student living units using the elementary model where each teacher is responsible for all subjects. Newbridge High School in Grants Pass includes approximately 100 male students, six regular education teachers, one special education teacher, and one vocational education teacher. The teachers at Newbridge basically teach one subject and rotate through four classrooms in the student living units. Three of the classrooms contain about 12 students and the fourth classroom has about 28. Robert Farrell School is the only YCEP school that includes both female and male students. There are approximately 180 students, eighteen regular education teachers, several of which are also professional technical teachers, and five special education teachers. At Robert Farrell the students rotate through three classes of about 12 students each per day where the teachers each teach basically two subjects. There are also two classrooms in the living units where subject matter teachers rotate. Lord High is the largest facility with approximately 335 male students, thirty-five regular education teachers, and five special education teachers. The educational program is comprised of both elementary model classes in the living units and classes in the school

building where the students rotate through their classes and the teachers each teach one to two subjects.

Participant profile

The participants for the final research interviews were five females and six males with varied demographic profiles and experience. Nine of the participants were in the white ethnic group, one was in the black ethnic group, and one participant declined to answer this question. The participants tend to be older with six members in the 50 to 59-age range, four in the 40 to 49-age range, and only one participant in the 21 to 29-age range. Six of the participants hold a Bachelor of Science degree, four hold a Master's degree, and one participant has earned a Doctorate degree. The participants' years of teaching experience covered the entire range of 0 to 20+ years. There were three teachers in the 0 to 5 years range, two teachers in the 6 to 10 years range, one teacher with 11 to 15 years experience, two teachers in the 16 to 20 years range, and three teachers with 20+ years of teaching experience. The teaching certifications held by the teachers were diverse. A secondary teaching certification was the primary credential held by seven participants. In addition to the secondary teaching certification three of the seven teachers also held a second teaching credential--these included an elementary, middle school, and

educational media certifications. One of the teachers held a single middle school certification; another had an elementary K-12 physical education certification. Two of the participants held a special education certification with one of these holding a dual special education and elementary certification. The majority of the participants were relatively new to the area of juvenile corrections education with 0 to 5 years teaching experience in corrections. One teacher has been in juvenile corrections for 6 to 10 years, and three teachers had 11 to 15 years experience. The current teaching assignments at the time of the interviews included special education and reading, fine arts, social science and library, mathematics and science, mathematics and life skills, mathematics only, language arts and social science, and three educators who taught all subjects in a single classroom.

Data collection procedures

Changing the wording of a few interview questions to encourage more depth and sophistication in the participants' responses modified the final interview protocol. The final interviews were approximately thirty to forty minutes in length.

I conducted interviews of eleven participants to collect the data for my research study. Five interviews were conducted in person with the participants on site at their schools and seven interviews were conducted using the telephone. All of the interviews were recorded with the participants' permission and later transcribed for analysis.

Data analysis

In this section, I will provide a discussion and analysis of the participants' responses to the eleven interview questions. Literature supporting the participants' beliefs and comments is presented where possible as well as a critical analysis of their knowledge and understanding of the subject matter using Bloom's Taxonomy.

I used Bloom's Taxonomy (Fowler, 96; Kent, 1995; WestEd, 2000) of intellectual behavior as a framework to analyze the participants' responses of their awareness and understanding of special education issues. Bloom developed his classification system for critical thinking. He identified six elements progressing from knowledge recall and recognition of facts to analysis, application, synthesis, and evaluation (Lane, 2000). I applied this framework to interpret the educator responses to the interview questions as an approach to organizing their knowledge and understanding of the special education process. I used Bloom's framework to identify the participants' knowledge and understanding of:

- Special education process.
- Analyzing student IEPs and learning needs.

 Developing, evaluating, and implementing student IEP accommodations and goals in the classroom setting.

A simple coding system was devised to maintain the anonymity of the participants. Each school was assigned a number one through twelve. In the schools where two teachers participated, the second teacher was assigned a double-digit code beginning with their schools single-digit number. Numbers one, six, and twelve were not used in the data analysis because those schools chose not to participate.

Section one

The first question asked of the interviewees was, "What do you find to be the most challenging about special education students?"

All eleven participants were able to communicate a description of at least one challenge accompanying special education students. However, only three interviewees were able to name two challenges to teaching special education students in juvenile corrections, and no one named more than two challenges. The challenges described by the participants included eight diverse issues, which can be further separated into the following: individual student differences, motivation, behavior, emotional problems and treatment issues, lack of continuity, and lack of services for students.

Four participants cited individual student differences as a major challenge to educating special education students. The discussion around this issue highlighted the apparent condition that the participants teach to a group of students whose academic abilities range from non-readers to high school graduates. As one interviewee stated, "I'm supposed to be meeting their individual needs because we run such a wide gamut [of abilities]." A second participant had this to say: "[The difficulty is] That each one is different, that you have to deal with all the individual differences in a general thing [way]" (3). Another participant said, "The most challenging [aspect] is getting around to their individual needs. Sometimes it's just kind of more time consuming they require more time a lot of times" (8). The fourth participant commented " ... but if I have someone who is much lower and has a lot of difficulties with one of those aspects then I find that challenging" (4). These four participants spoke of individual difference as two separate ideas. Two of the participants perceived the entire class as a group composed of individuals of different ages, backgrounds, and educational abilities. With this perception, the participants viewed each student as an individual with special needs; they did not single out the specific needs of the special education students as written into the student IEPS. Another participant commented, "Truly this is the easiest job I've ever had with special ed. students because we kind of do an individual program

on all the students" (72). The other participants spoke directly of the individualized needs of the special education students by making accommodations to the general curriculum to meet the student's needs. For instance:

I'm thinking of a specific student (BD). I don't think she can write a research paper so I think that's something I'll have to adjust for her. Probably she'll have to do it orally or something, so it's just making little adjustments. (4)

Motivating special education students was considered to be the primary challenge by three participants. One participant related to the specific special education eligibility of Attention Deficit Disorder and said:

I don't know if you want to call it ADD or whatever you want to say. They're wandering, they're fidgeting, [and] they're picking at themselves. So trying to keep them motivated, trying to keep them on task is the most challenging thing. (9)

When asked this question, another participants gave his thoughts on student motivation and replied: "It's kind of a meld between on-task and motivation, they kind of go hand-and-hand. Everybody has a different challenge but I'd say that's the most common one." (10) The third interviewee simply stated the challenge of special education students as, "Their ability to keep up with the flow with the other students. Keeping them focused and challenged." (5)

The remaining five issues that the participants felt were challenging in regard to their special education students were each express by single

individuals. One interviewee believed the lack of continuity in attendance by the students was the greatest challenge. He stated:

Lack of continuity [is a problem] in that we have a real fluctuating population here. We get kids here from anywhere from two weeks to 5 years due to Measure 11. Ok. Lack of continuity [because] you can get something going and just about when you have a program set they [the students] can be gone tomorrow...It's that you're not sure how long your population is going to be around. (7)

Another participant considered the lack of services the greatest challenge:

[the more challenging things about special ed students] is the fact that sometimes there may not be enough services provided for them such as in speech pathology ... So I think there should be some more services included for these kids as far as services [specialists] and support and counseling. (2)

Two other interviewees considered behavior to be the most challenging issue concerning special education students. One interviewee's answer was simply given as, "behavior, negative behavior" (11). The other participant said, "meeting the needs of them [the students] and seeing what we can do to change the behaviors..." (21). Another participant said, "...what is challenging is that a lot of them are so sick emotionally, they have a hard time adjusting to certain school environments, classroom environments" (2). Finally, one of the interviewees stated her belief that the students' treatment issues were the most challenging because "they are not really allowed to hide them (issues)..." (21).

The challenges of individual student differences, motivation. behavior, emotional problems, lack of continuity, lack of services, and treatment issues, mentioned by the study participants are also related in the literature as important obstacles to the education of juvenile corrections special education students. Casey and Keilitz (1990) presented evidence that supported the teachers' belief that individual differences are a major challenge to teaching special education students in juvenile corrections. Their research revealed that 30 to 50 percent of incarcerated youth have disabilities and many of the disabilities often occur together. The lack of commitment to learning and respect for authority is cited by Rider-Hankins as challenge to motivating these students (Rider-Hankins, 1992). Student mobility, referred to as a "lack of continuity" by one participant, is named by Leone (Leone, 1991; Leone, 1991a) as a major challenge and hindrance to the education of juvenile corrections students. Leone (1999c) found that few students with disabilities in correctional facilities received services for speech therapy, and none received counseling or psychological services. According to the Twenty-first Annual Report to Congress on the implementation of the Individual with Disabilities Education Act, youths with emotional disturbance and behavior difficulties made up 42% of incarcerated juveniles (1999c). The literature did not address or fully

support the issue of student treatment as a challenge to the educational process.

Comparing the participant responses resulting from question number one to Bloom's classification of cognitive learning reveals the level of participant knowing on this topic. All eleven participants demonstrate knowledge, the lowest level of the cognitive domain, by recognizing and naming a few of the challenges of teaching juvenile corrections special education students. The participants demonstrated comprehension, the second level of the cognitive domain, by discussing their students' actions and abilities, describing student behavior, and in a few instances, being able to describe how the student challenges affected all students and the classroom environment. One interviewee demonstrated a level of analysis, the fourth level, to this question contrasting student abilities, identifying some students as intellectual and some as nonacademic. Another illustrated the skill to synthesize, the fifth level, when discussing the need to develop alternative curriculum and assessment methods for a special education student, by creating alternative methods for the student to express her/his knowledge.

In response to question one, six participants made statements that expressly revealed their desire to meet the needs of their students as they work with them in spite of the many challenges they face as educators of

juvenile corrections students. The participants made comments such as "meeting all the needs [of the students], all the variety," "...meeting [their] needs and seeing what we can do to change the behaviors, to change the thinking patterns and help overcome the learning disabilities that they have as well." and "I would like to have more information provided to me to know how to work with these kids."

Section two

The second question asked of the participants was, "What questions come to mind when you know you have a special education student in your class, and how do you get additional information about the student?"

Eight of the participants were able to express a minimum of one direct question about their special needs students. Two of the participants indirectly mentioned information they seek about their students. One very interested participant said, "I have a lot of questions when I have special ed. kids" (21) and proceeded to articulate five separate issues about which she had questions concerning her special education students. These issues included the following: the students' behavior, learning disabilities, academic success, past school experiences, and how the students' assess themselves in regard to their special education needs. Two other respondents spoke of concerns about student medications, and adaptation

to the general curriculum, which they related to their special education students. Six broad topics resulted from the participants' answers to this question. They include: student abilities, adaptations to the general curriculum, behavior, IEP content, medications, and how students assess themselves.

The greatest area of questions concerned the topic of student abilities. Five participants were interested in knowing about student academic abilities. Discussing the academic abilities of students, one participant declared:

I want to know if their problem is just math or is just general. Is it reading? If they [the students] say reading and writing, I say do you think that if you could read and write well then you could, say, do better at math. (21)

A second interviewee stated, "...you want to know their reading comprehension, their I.Q. level..." (2). Another participant referred to test scores for discovering student abilities when he said, "I look at the scores--where are they low, where are they high, what are those levels, how does that jive with what I'm seeing in the classroom?" (10). Two other participants offered no direct questions about their special education students, however, they indirectly made these statements: "...he [the special education person] gives us a pretty decent level for the basics of math, reading, and for writing" (72) and "I [the special education teacher] do

a Woodcock Minibattery reading, writing, and math. That's just sort of a quick tip off..." (7).

Adaptations and accommodations were questions in the minds of three participants. They wished to know "What exactly is it that they [the students] might need extra help or accommodations with?" (4), and "[What] Adaptations [will] we have to [do]. Does he need a spellchecker or little things like that?" (9).

Two participants had questions regarding the behavior of special education students. One interviewee referred to behavior when he said, "I often wonder if it is a development problem or if it's just a resistance to instruction" (5). The second person made references to behavior in several comments: "the question first of all is what is on their IEP and if the IEP is for behavior...because for me that makes a big difference in what I'm going to have to do for the student" (21).

The content of the student IEP goals was of interest to a few interviewees. Three participants had questions about the IEP content. They were interested in reasons for the IEP and what it says for students: "The first thing that comes to mind is what specifically the IEP calls for and the way we deal with that..." (11), "I like to know what is on their IEP and what it's for" (8), and "the IEP needs to be either read by me or told to me by our

case manager [including] what the issues are on the special ed IEP " (21) were the comments made by these three participants.

Medications for students were a question of concern for three interviewees. One participant discussed the inconsistency of student behavior and wanted to know if medications were helping specific students "because sometimes they will be perfect one day and the next day they will be in such a mood swing." (9) Another participant inferred his question about medications when he stated:

Most of what I want to know I can find out just by working with them, because we can't ask about medical but usually that's really clear. The kids sleeping in class then I talk to them about it and they [the students] say, "Oh, well he's on medication. (10)

The third respondent was interested in this question because she believed the students' medications affect student behavior in the classroom and her approach to the students:

I also want to know what meds they are on because what medications they are on will always affect their behavior...I try to adjust to that, sometimes I will have to talk to cottage to about their meds; that way when they come into me and say "OK guess what, I went off my meds today" then I know right away we might have something to deal with here. (21)

The last question that emerged from this participant's interview dealt with the participant's interest in how the students viewed themselves with regard to individual needs. She had this comment: "I want to know how

they assess themselves as far as their IEP and their special ed. needs too.

That's important to me to know how they assess themselves" (21).

When asked how they received additional information about the special needs students, all of the study participants indicated at least one source of information to which they could turn. The major source of additional information articulated by the participants was the special education person in their school. The other information sources included student IEPs, meetings, observations, records, the students themselves, and test scores.

All of the interviewees except the special education teacher identified the special education person at their school as the major source of additional information, and everyone implied the special education person would have the answers to their questions. One participant had this comment: "You get additional information [by] contact[ing] the special ed. teacher because she's supposed to know everything about it, and if she doesn't she can certainly find out" (2). Another stated: "I share an office with the special education teacher so I just ask her" (10). One other interviewee shared this idea: "It's a small unit and my teaching partner is a special ed. teacher, so that works out pretty well. I can just ask her almost immediately" (5). Two of the respondents looked to the special education person to keep them updated and informed on student issues. They had

this to say: "OK, for example, this boy has Tourettes. [The special education person] made up a packet on that so we would know what it's about" (10), and "Well, first of all, we always know when we have a special ed student come in because we [the teachers] do an intake the first day and [the special education person] is real good on catching us up on that" (72). Other participants simply declared: "...I'll check with the special ed. team leader" (4), or "I have a pretty good special ed. teacher who works with us" (3), and "If I have questions I always go to the special education teacher..." (9).

Three participants included the IEP document as one method of receiving additional information on the students. Their comments included: "I'll either check with their IEP..." (4), "We have access to their IEPs right from the get go..." (72), and "We get our own copy of sort of a summarized file that we can look at and it includes IEP information for kids that are on them" (11).

Meetings were mentioned by four participants as a means of acquiring student information. The meetings ranged in types from a formal IEP meeting to daily and weekly staff meetings. Speaking of the weekly meetings, one participant said:

we have our weekly meeting where we, our counselor, and the program manager is here, and ... our principal is here, and ... our special ed. teacher. They are all there... Then on top of that, we are in weekly contact [by

phone with] Hillcrest, and if there's any special concern, we hear about them then. (8)

Another respondent also spoke of weekly meetings:

Every Tuesday afternoon we have special education meetings, and we have IEP meetings. We bring in the youth and all the teachers are there and the special ed. teacher, so we kind of go over their IEP so we know everything we need to know about the youth. (9)

The same participant also mentioned daily meetings: "Plus we have staffings every single day. We go over each unit, and we talk about each kid" (9).

The third participant spoke of the annual IEP meeting when he said, "...we have an IEP meeting with everyone, every student once a year" (10). The fourth participant spoke of the meetings in general as being helpful: "...it's very helpful to go to meetings and discuss with other teachers and find what works with particular students" (4).

Two participants found they were able to gather information on their special needs students by observing the students in the classroom. One of the two stated:

A lot of times we will have IEPs that are out-of-date or very close to being out-of-date, so we usually have an opportunity. If you want to put it that way, to make some real observation and make some real determination of what needs to be done. (3)

The other participant expressed the following:" A lot of times I will just try first and see what they are capable of and go from that..." (4).

Three interviewees mentioned reviewing student records as a means to obtaining information on their special education students. One participant had this to say about gathering information:" Again, most of the kids come here with fairly fat files. I don't have to do too much digging. For the most part, it's just going through the files" (7). Another interviewee stated:" Well, we get a roster every couple weeks and there's a notation indicating they are special ed if they are, or if it's pending..." (10). The third participant said, "We've gotten kids files within a week, the comprehensive file. It works out pretty well" (11).

Three participants also expressed their dismay with the lengthy time it often takes to receive student records from other agencies. While discussing the practice of initial screening to identify student academic abilities, one participant stated: "That's just sort of a quick tip-off because we don't get their folders for maybe a week, two weeks. If we're not lucky, it could be longer than that. But it doesn't always work out that way" (7). When asked if the school experienced difficulty acquiring records, another participant said, "I have to say yes. I don't know really what to expect, I just know that often we get a new student and it takes weeks before we ever see their records sent to us" (10). The third interviewee also mentioned that often when the student special education records do arrive they are outdated: "We'll take the record once we get it [the educational records].

that's usually a big problem...A lot of times we will have IEPs that are outof-date or very close to being out of date [when they arrive]..." (3).

Two respondents spoke with the students themselves to gain information about the students' needs in the classroom. One participant said, "Most of what I want to know I can find out just by working with them..." (10). The other interviewee believed discovering how the student behaved in the early grades would provide helpful information for working with the student in the classroom:

I ask the students questions. I ask them, themselves, about their experiences in school, I always ask them what they were like when they were in the second or third grade and what they were like in sixth. As they talk to me and I try to follow what they are saying so I can relate it to their behavior now at this age if they're 15 or 16. (21)

Test scores were mentioned by two participants as a means of gathering information on a student's current academic abilities. One comment made was, "...the intake test that he does gives us a pretty decent level for the basics of math, reading, and for writing" (72). While discussing the fact that many students are school dropouts, the other participant said, "...most of them haven't been going to school for the past few years, so are their scores low because they haven't gone to school or do they actually have a disability?" (10).

The questions juvenile corrections educators have regarding test scores to determine students' academic abilities are supported in the

literature as a valid concern. According to a national study by Project READ (as cited in The National Center on Education, Disability and Juvenile Justice [EDJJ], 2001), most incarcerated youth lag two or more years behind the grade level in basic academic skills. It was found that more than one-third of incarcerated youth at the median age of 15.5 years were below the fourth grade level in academics. In addition, Wagner (as cited in U. S. Department of Education, 1999) found that nineteen percent of incarcerated juveniles with disabilities had been out of school for two or more years at the time of their arrest. There are other studies that disclose the trend of incarcerated youth to be two or more years behind their age peers in academic skills due to their lack of school attendance (Leone et al., 1991).

The concern of the corrections educators regarding the length of time required to obtain student records is also established in the literature. Leone (1991) found that records from a student's previous school are often difficult to obtain due to inadequate or nonexistent links between correctional and public school systems. Failure to obtain school records was listed as one of several factors that account for the range in estimates of the prevalence of disabilities in the juvenile corrections education system (Leone, 1994;Leone et al., 1991;Rutherford et al., 1985).

In evaluating the respondents' answers to the first portion of the second interview question according to Bloom's levels of critical thinking, all of the participants demonstrated their knowledge to obtain information regarding their special education students; however, not all of the respondents were able to develop a question concerning these students and the majority of the participants asked only single questions. As a researcher, I believe the participants' level of thinking on this issue remains in the knowledge level because these educators do not have enough information with regard to special education students to know what questions to formulate. They have not been given adequate training for teaching in a student population where the prevalence of special education students is very high.

In response to the second portion of question two concerning how the participants gained additional information on their special needs students, the participants exhibited higher levels of cognitive learning. All eleven interviewees presented evidence of their knowledge as to where to obtain information regarding the students. Every one of the participants were then able to summarize several methods of gaining student information. The methods mentioned by the participants for gathering information were using files, the special education person in their school, the students' IEPs, the corrections staff, and the students themselves. The

majority of the respondents relied heavily on the special education person to acquire necessary student information for them. Eight participants gave evidence of thinking at the application level of Bloom's Taxonomy in regard to this part of the question. These participants were able to apply their knowledge to obtain information on their own by discussing questions they had with other colleagues, looking in the student record, or asking students themselves for information. Three participants were able to take this process to the next level of analysis by reviewing the IEP documents and school records themselves or by personally interviewing students and using the knowledge to compare and contrast opinions about working with the students. I attributed synthesis and evaluation, the final two levels of Bloom's progression of critical thinking, to two respondents. The special education person in the study and one other participant were able to use the information gathered to create comprehensive reports on student needs for other teachers or themselves. By reviewing records and observing students in the classroom these two participants were able to evaluate information and make judgments as to appropriate academic and behavioral programs.

The primary question the interviewees had regarding their special education students was to know the students' academic abilities. The participants expected the special education person to know this information

and be able to relay it to them, the classroom educators: "...he [the special education person] does gives us a pretty decent level for the basics of math, reading and for writing" (72). It is very apparent from the participants' responses to this question that educators in juvenile corrections hold their special education people in high regard. These educators look to special education teachers as the experts, who have the ability to answer all questions regarding these students and gather and provide pertinent information on the special education students "...you contact the special ed teacher because she's supposed to know everything..." (2).

Section three

The third question asked of the participants was, "Think of one of your learning disabled students and tell me about her/him. What do you know about her/him? What questions come to your mind?"

This question fostered a broad range of responses from the participants. Three of the participants spoke of the special education students as an entire group and not as individuals, three participants had no questions they could think of regarding their students, and three of the educators spoke to their own approach to the special education students rather than relating information about the students themselves. The predominant topics that emerged with regards to their knowledge of an

individual special education student were concerns related to academics, student disabilities, emotional issues, and teaching strategies. Singular topics that emerged from the respondents about their special education students included sexual abuse, student graduation alternatives, the lack of service from specialists, and issues with parents. One participant inferred it made no difference if they were special education student by stating:

But you know, honestly it doesn't differ for me knowing they are special ed. or not special ed. because some of the boys who aren't special ed. may have the same leanings, or troubles, or tendencies; they're just at a higher level. (10)

Six participants related specific information about their students' math or reading abilities. Speaking of an individual student, one interviewee had this to say about the student's math skills:

He's mathematically extremely impaired, just to the point where when he tries to solve a math problem, he does just pick numbers not quite at random but almost at random... You can tell that he doesn't have a grasp of all of what's going on in almost all of the math problems that he does. (11)

Another participant discussed a student's reading abilities when she said, "The particular student I have in mind has lot of difficulty with reading and writing. She does better with oral activities but there are some things the student gets stuck on or are hard [for her]" (4). Reading was the interest of another interviewee as he spoke about his student: "He has a real difficulty reading, I don't know if anybody's put their finger on that or not or

exactly why he can't do that particular activity" (3). One respondent began his answer to the question speaking of a specific student: "The student that I have can't read" (9). However, the conversation was then directed by the respondent to include the entire class and the strategies used which I will address in that section. One participant discussed her particular student at great length. The specific academic skills mentioned were in reference to reading and math, "He's dyslexic...since he's been in math it's so revealed [obvious] that everybody in the class knows he can't do it well" (21). The last participant to specifically name an academic disability for a student said, "I'm thinking of one boy who...[a] true learning disability...in reading" (7).

Three participants discussed their knowledge of their students' inclusive special education disabilities. These respondents talked in general about emotional and learning disabilities; the only specific disabilities mentioned by name were Attention Deficit Hyperactive Disorder (ADHD) and dyslexia. Referring to an individual student one participant stated, "We did an IEP recently on him and he has a lot of behavior, emotional problems, as well as some learning disability" (21). This participant continued to explain her perception of this student's disabilities: "He is very slow and when you give him information he doesn't process it well at all...he's constantly going off the main idea...and I think that's one of his

problems" (21). It appeared this interviewee also knew the term dyslexic, but was unfamiliar with the meaning when she asked, "He is dyslexic; do you consider that a disability?" (21). Another participant appeared familiar with the categories of special education eligibility when she expressed this thought: "I have one that is multiply handicapped..." This educator also had concerns about the student's language: "I wonder if there is a language disability going on there too...Language processing is different [from speech] and this seems to be a bright boy, but he has a very hard time stringing his thoughts together (72).

The third respondent shared a general understanding of the term ADHD and its affect on student behavior with the statement:

I'll give you an example. ADHD, you know, I cannot put that in a basket with a certain approach... It all seems to sort of pan out a different way, different things will capture their attention. (10)

In a dialogue discussing what they knew regarding one of their special education students, two participants mentioned emotional issues the students were having. One educator said,

I'm thinking about a girl in particular...I know that she has some issues and some things that bother her...sometimes she needs to give me a signal to take a short time out...She has other things that bother her, she doesn't like anybody standing right behind her... (8)

The other educator said of one student, "He has a lot of emotional problems, a lot of social interaction problems with his peers. He's just overall very needy..." (21).

Four participants talked about their knowledge of teaching strategies for their special education students; however, two of these educators spoke only of their classroom strategies for the entire class and did not address any single student in their answer. Speaking of a student with a specific learning disability in reading, one participant talked about how corrections teachers have the time to undertake many different approaches with a student. The interviewee believed time is a luxury not often available in public schools "Time is something we have that I don't think they have as much of in the regular school. We were able to try a lot of different approaches with this boy" (7). Another participant discussed a student's behavior in the classroom and the student's reaction to changes in the seating arrangement. The teacher's strategy was to work with the student and not confront the behavior if it was not disruptive to the class. The comment was, "She's very picky about things like that so I'm aware of it and go with it" (8).

Speaking of classroom strategies, one participant gave these approaches that he uses:

When we have a lot of special ed. kids in our class, we are assigned an educational assistant. A lot of times I let them

work one-on-one. They sit at this one table that's all special ed kids and work with them and try and help them anyway they can, I guess. I get special books or special material a lot of times-I buy them since I'm the librarian-audiocassette books. So they can learn that way. (9)

The second portion of question three asked the participants what question came to mind about the student they were discussing. The participants responded to this part of the question in three diverse ways. They had questions regarding one specific student. The interviewees discussed in general terms concerns about all of their special education students. A third group of interviewees conversed about their students and/or teaching strategies with no specific questions regarding their special education students.

Five participants expressed questions that were explicit to one student in reference to this question. Three of these educators wondered how they might be the most effective in helping the student learn. In reference to a student whom the interviewee considered as learning disabled, these thoughts were voiced:

What do I think about the LD student? I think about what challenges he must face in the classroom: how well he reads and comprehends, what is going on and how well he picks up on people and cues. Those are the kinds of things; how well I can work with him? (2)

Another educator expressed questions as to the student's ability and accommodations necessary to help the student:

What is the level of performance that I can expect this student to work at because he gives up easily, so what particular level have we found that he can work at. What exactly is the trouble, for instance, if he could learn better by reading a book or reading part of a book then watching the film that corresponds with it? Will that help with his reading comprehension? What ways of accommodations would help this student perform at the level he should be performing at? (4)

A separate participant modestly questioned, "Questions? Just how can we be the most effective and whether or not we can be really effective."

(11) The last interviewee for this section wanted to know if her style of inquiry would be appropriate for the student. She was concerned that her teaching style might be too harsh for the particular student.

One respondent had questions only in a general sense concerning all of the special education students. This respondent pondered the question of transition services for the special education students:

...will he be able to get help when he gets out of here... I get concerned about what is going to become of them careerwise and if they do go on to a community college or something like that, will they get the assistance and have that support that we provide for them here? I get concerned that as we hand them off to the next place, are their needs going to be met or will they just fall through the cracks and end up having whatever difficulties, whether financial and behavioral? (5)

Another participant's query was not about a particular special needs student but with all students. This participant said:

Well, I guess they all come back to the questions I always ask. They are not particular to special ed[ucation]. How well

can he read? Does he understand what he's reading? How well can he grasp [math] concepts verses what's the level of his arithmetic skill? (10)

In considering Bloom's stages of critical thinking, everyone of the participants were able to express knowledge in regards to special education students and their emotional and learning disabilities, even though a few of the interviewees did not offer their knowledge of a specific student as the question asked. Two participants offered additional knowledge of students' cultural and environmental backgrounds. Five respondents were able to interpret, summarize or understand the students' disabilities and the affects those disabilities had on both the students and the classroom environment. Two of the respondents summarized the teaching strategies they used with the students to affect behavior and learning. Two participants spoke of their techniques to apply their knowledge of their students' disabilities, observations made of the students. and file information to problem-solve strategies for individual student needs. One participant expressed the ability to analyze and synthesize the information to understand the cause and effects of particular approaches, examine those approaches for effectiveness and then create new strategies to meet the student's individual need.

The topics of student reading and math abilities were the most discussed by the participants when they were asked to tell about a

particular special education student in their classes. Seven of the participants expressed their knowledge of the students' academic skills and/or had questions about the academic skills. Five interviewees were clearly interested in the students' reading abilities: "How well can he read, does he understand what he's reading?" (10), and "He has real difficulty reading" (3). Two of the seven participants mentioned only the students' math abilities.

When asked what questions came to mind about a special education student, four corrections educators wished to know how they could be effective teachers and what [accommodating] they could provide their students. One respondent asked, "What ways of accommodations would help this student perform at the level he should be performing?" (4).

Another queried, "Just how can we be the most effective [in helping the students]..." (11). Three of the participants did not answer directly about one specific student, and three others asked no direct questions. Several interviewees conversed at length, imparting many details about their students, and a small number of them said only a few words conveying minimal details about their student.

This appeared to be a difficult question for the participants to answer. As the researcher, I believe the participants' knowledge does not continue to a higher level of critical thinking and thus begins to support my

original supposition that they have a lack of understanding concerning their special education students. I believe this understanding by the teachers is essential to meeting the needs of the special education students.

Section four

The fourth question asked of the eleven participants was, "How are you involved in IEP and eligibility discussions and meetings for your students?"

All eleven participants declared that they attend IEP meetings. Six participants mentioned they were specifically invited to all student IEP meetings and that they attended every meeting. One interviewee stated, "...we are always invited and I always go myself" (8). Another answered, "When our special ed. person comes out once a week, we are invited to drop into the meetings..." (11). A third participant stated, "...I'm in on all the IEP meetings" (5). One participant, however, mentioned she doesn't always know when the IEP meetings are held and therefore does not attend all IEP meetings: "I try to attend the IEP meetings when I know about them" (4).

Only three of the eleven respondents discussed the issue of special education eligibility in reference to the IEP meetings. One participant had this to say about the process at his school: "...we determine as a staff yes or no if the person is eligible or not" (9). One interviewee made reference to

her involvement with the special education paper work when she mentioned, "Then there's also determining the eligibility or whatever...I'm always filling out those forms" (2).

Three of the interviewees did mention their involvement with IEP goals when this question was first asked. One interviewee was interested in transition and stated:

I give my opinion and whatever input I have as far as what is going on. I like to try to look ahead a little bit to see what the kid will need here...how we can modify the program so they can succeed here, but also looking at transition. (5)

Another educator said at their school the special education person writes a rough draft of the IEP goals for the teachers to discuss "...[the special ed. person] goes over goals before the IEP comes together. Then he will do a rough IEP and we'll look at the IEP and see if these are appropriate IEP goals" (72).

When the remaining eight participants did not make any reference to IEP goals in their discourse, I then asked each of them, "Do you feel like you have a say in determining their IEP goals?" After asking this specific question, each interviewee answered in some manner that, yes, they did assist in the development of IEP goals. The interviewees made such declarations as, "Yeah, definitely" (11), "Yeah, all the time" (21), "We have input; we're sitting right there and (the special ed. person) definitely asks us" (8), and "I certainly have my part, my contribution counts and is very

important, and I feel that I am supported by my contribution" (2). However, the participants referred to the IEP goals in a general sense, only one of the eleven participants made any statement as to the particular nature of the IEP goals. His statement was, "I...give my input on the math end of it" (10).

The juvenile corrections teachers are fulfilling their requirement to participate in the IEP team meetings. Under the 1997 IDEA amendments, the IEP team includes "At least one regular education teacher of the child (if the youth is or may be participating in a regular education environment)" (OSEODE, 1999a, p. 12440). Therefore, not every teacher must attend; only one regular teacher is required to attend the IEP meeting. However, as the researcher, I do not believe these teachers understand their full responsibility as a member of the IEP team. According to IDEA the teacher who becomes a member of the IEP team must:

To the extent appropriate, participate in the development, review, and revision of the child's IEP, including assisting in the determination of -

- (1) Appropriate positive behavioral interventions and strategies for the child; and
- (2) Supplementary aids and services, program modifications or supports for school personnel that will be provided for the child, consistent with §300.347(a)(3). (OSEODE, 1999a, p. 12441)

No one mentioned their participation to this extent even when probed further about their involvement in the IEP meetings.

Knowledge of the special education IEP team members was articulated by three interviewees. One interviewee expressed his understanding of the team decision-making process when he stated, "...it's not one person, it's a team...the special ed. teacher is in charge, but we make the decision" (9). The other two participants were able to name the essential team members for an IEP meeting: "They're standard IEP meetings where you've got to find the special ed. teacher. I'll be there, the parent or the surrogate, and the student" (3). Two additional participants acknowledged that their IEP meetings included the student as a team member

All eleven participants demonstrated knowledge of their involvement in the IEP process and everyone gave evidence of their attendance to IEP meetings. However, only a few educators expressed their understanding of special education eligibility or of the necessary team members required for a team meeting. Another consideration I believe is the size of the facilities in which the participants teach. In the smaller facilities often all of the teachers, including the special education teacher, share an office providing them the opportunity to become better informed as they continually discuss students and their individual needs. One participant summed it up saying,

"We are all there is; we attend all the meetings. We are everything" (7). Another interviewee declared," Our office is kind of small...you really do have a lot of give back and forth with each other..."(72).

Although the participants established their knowledge of the IEP meetings, few explained their involvement further than their attendance at those meetings. Two participants expressed their knowledge of the IEP team members by recounting all of the team members present at the IEP and eligibility meetings. On the topic of their involvement in IEP and eligibility discussions, the participants gave the impression their understanding was limited to the knowledge level of Bloom's progression.

No one carried the conversation to the level of comprehension.

As the researcher, I was surprised to learn that all of the participants declared they attend all IEP meetings to which they are invited and only one participant stated she was not always aware of IEP meetings scheduled. Research suggests that few IEP meetings are held in juvenile corrections because usually the special education person prepares the IEP based on school records and circulates the IEP to several teachers to review and sign (Leone, 1994).

Section five

The fifth question the interviewees were asked was: Do you keep your IEP copies in a particular place? This is a short but important question because federal law requires that:

Each regular education teacher...of an eligible child under this part (1) has access to the child's IEP, and (2) is informed of his or her specific responsibilities related to implementing the IEP, and of the specific accommodations, modifications and supports that must be provided to the child in accordance with the IEP (OSEODE, 1999a, p. 12478).

There were three basic answers from the participants to this question. The participants indicated they either had personal copies of student IEPs, had easy access to the IEPs, or they did not have copies of any IEPs nor did they have easy access. Three interviewees stated they had copies of all their students' IEPs in the classroom. One participant said, "Yes, I do. Right here in this handy dandy notebook on my desk...it's always on my desk and it's available when I have a sub" (4). Another participant sitting at the desk said, "Yes, in this file drawer here...We have their folder with their IEPs on the right hand side" (8). The third participant also indicated the IEPs were kept in the classroom, "Yes, ...if they have an IEP that's on the unit with us..." (3).

Five of the interviewees indicated that due to their small facilities the IEPs were usually kept in the school office where they all had easy access to the student IEPs. One interviewee stated, "...we keep them over in the school office, but we're there two or three times a day so that's for me a real comfortable access" (72). Another commented, "In the school office. Again because of size and we are all so close...we have everything here from my office...the special ed. office, the school office, the principal's office, and teacher's lunchroom, everybody's here" (7). Three of these five participants also remarked that the IEP records were kept in a locked file "But we have a little locked file cabinet where all the IEP stuff is kept" and "We have a locked fireproof cabinet here at camp...we keep them in there" (5).

Three respondents stated either they possessed no student IEPs or only a few copies. One respondent related that having copies of student IEPs was only the task of the special education person when he declared, "I don't [keep copies of IEPs] the special education teacher--that's what she does" (10). An additional participant gave a similar response when she stated twice, "I don't have any IEP copies...if I wanted to have a copy I could get one, but I don't have any copies" (2). Another expressed the desire to have the IEPs routinely provided because she did not believe it was her responsibility to obtain the IEPs herself: "I didn't think it was my job

to go through all of that stuff to have information. I would always ask the case manager to provide me with a copy...but they don't automatically give you an IEP here" (21).

In an e-mail correspondence, I questioned the special education coordinator for our district on what the official interpretation of the accessibility regulation is for our schools. I was told that in our school district the interpretation of teacher accessibility to student IEPs means, "Give them a copy!!...Our interpretation in this agency is that regular ed[ucation] teachers should be given an copy of the IEP" (S. Stoops, personal communication, July 30, 2001).

I believe the awareness of the participants concerning the access of the student IEPs remains at the knowledge level of Bloom's progression. The entire group of participants were able to state the location of student IEPs and the majority had an awareness of that access to the student IEPs is an important issue. However, from their responses I suspect there is little comprehension of why the issue of IEP access is important to them as regular education teachers.

Section six

The sixth question asked of the participants was, "How do you use your student IEPs, and what accommodations and modifications do you use in your classroom?"

After asking this question of the first seven interviewees, the responses revealed minimal knowledge or comprehension by the interviewees as to the use of student IEPs, and the application of accommodations or modifications to the general education curriculum for special needs students. The first interviewee restated her earlier position, "I don't have IEPs provided to me...so if I have accommodations, modifications, I would definitely use them..." (2). The other six interviewees demonstrated their knowledge of the IEPs by stating that they use student IEPs.

Of the first seven respondents, two teachers responded with comprehension as to the purpose of an IEP and how they are to be used. One of these two respondents declared, "The idea is their goals are exactly what we want to accomplish, so it's really important to understand and know each student and what their goals are or how we decided to make a run at accomplishing those goals" (3). This respondent went on to discuss the student's IEP behavior goals, but using a time-out was the only specific accommodation mentioned. The other respondent discussed how she used

pace as a modification and looked to the IEP for an indication of a student's rate of learning. This teacher believes it is possible to give a student less than a quarter credit per term only if the IEP states that modification "...I always see if I can modify their pace in accordance with their IEP.

Otherwise ...I can't give a quarter credit at all unless I have something in an IEP that show me they need modification" (21).

The other four participants claimed they used the IEPs; however, no one discussed further how they actually used the student IEPs, and only a minimal number of accommodations or modifications were named. One of these four participants believed the IEPs were difficult to read and understand; she relied on the special education person to tell her what to do: "...sometimes those IEPs are difficult to read and understand what's going on...we'll talk to (the special education person and ask) what are we suppose to do about that?" (8). This participant made no particular mention of accommodations or modifications for the special education students.

When asked this question, another participant answered:

Under the specific guidance of the special ed. teacher...We try to modify with appropriate text and activities...If it's strategy, different ways of looking at it, simplifying, breaking down, and things like that... Anything to prevent frustration that can come up when a kid isn't moving as quickly as other kids in the classroom. (5)

This participant made no direct reference to the student IEPs, and the accommodations or modifications specified were general strategies

used for the entire class not just the special education students. One other participant made references to use of IEPs being general for all students not solely for the special education students when he said, "...we use the IEPs; well, a lot of what we do is real general high interest stuff kind of ...so it sort of applies to everybody..." (11). The one specific accommodation this participant named was time-outs for behavior students. The fourth teacher in this group continued the suggestion that all of these students are taught as if they are special education students: "In effect everybody's on an IEP in that sense" (7). This interviewee named computer programs to be the only accommodation for their students " one of our biggest is probably computers...we invested in the Plato program" (7).

At this point in the interviews, as the researcher, I was beginning to question if these educators truly did not understand how to use student IEPs or how to make accommodations to the curriculum for their learning. Could it be that the question was worded in such a way that made it difficult for the participants to understand what the question was asking? I decided to substantiate my speculation by adding the word "specific" to the question, which now read, "How do you use your student IEPs, and what specific accommodations and modifications do you use in your classroom." I also offered additional explanation and/ or prompting if the participants did not provide a more thorough response. I asked this revised question of the

remaining four interviewees. I also revisited two of the original seven interviewees and asked them the revised question explaining that I was seeking additional information.

The revised question did elicit additional knowledge from the two revisited participants. The first participant that I called back offered a much fuller description of the accommodations used in her classroom. The first time the question was asked this participant responded with a single accommodation; however, when this question was revised the answer was quite lengthy and included six additional strategies used to assist the students. This educator stated, "About fifty percent of them that I have are special ed...." (21), and therefore she used this strategies with the entire class. This participant remarked, "We don't think of them as being extra things. They're just incorporated into our methods" (21) as she discussed the use of accommodations in her classroom. I believe this statement is true of juvenile corrections educators as a whole. The second participant whom I revisited named three particular accommodations used in his classroom the first time we had the discussion. During the recall this participant renamed the first three strategies and then named an additional two strategies. After asking these two interviewees the revised question, they were able to provide more knowledge and comprehension.

The final four interviewees were then asked the revised question with prompting where I believed it would be beneficial to extracting the interviewee's responses. Two of these participants specifically mentioned using the IEP by making such statements as "I read through them to see what is on there and what the specific goals are..." (4) and "Specifically I get the IEP and try to follow everything on there" (9). The third participant discussed IEP goals after being prompted by saying:

Oh yeah, but they are very specific and they're the same goals they have in class: be able to add fractions with the same denominator with 95% accuracy, that sort of thing. (11)

The fourth educator did not mentioned using the IEP or it's goals.

These final four respondents answered the accommodations portion of this question in similar fashion as to the IEP portion of the question. Two of the respondents offered detailed examples of accommodations used in their classrooms. They mentioned such accommodations as longer time limits for assignments and tests, preferential seating, adjusting curriculum to meet student needs, peer tutoring, and the use of technology to assist in the writing process. Another respondent named a computer software program as the major accommodation for all students: "It does a nice job. It always does a pre-evaluation...it requires 80% to master something" (72). The final respondent declared that accommodations are built in and for everybody: "We're kind of a built-in automatic, built-in special education

program...so I just accommodate each student" (11). However, no particular accommodations were named.

Comparing the responses from the first seven interviews with the original question, to the second group of interviews with the revised question revealed similar data on the use of student IEPs. Six of the first seven interviewees expressed their use of student IEPs in the classroom with only one educator discussing the application of IEP goals in the general education curriculum. In the second group of participants, after being asked the revised question and given prompts, three of the four participants gave more specific information as to how they specifically used student IEPs. Comprehension by means of identifying specific IEP goals was discussed by one participant only. When asked the original question, two of the first seven respondents were able to name three different accommodations used to assist special needs students and two could simply name one accommodation. After asking the revised question and using prompts where needed, three of the six respondents named at least three different accommodations they used in their teaching, two respondents named two additional accommodations, and the sixth respondent used the term accommodations in a broad sense of the word and gave no specific examples.

After revising the question and providing prompts, the participants gave the same depth of responses to the portion that asked how they used their IEPs, as they had before the question was revised. The responses continued at the knowledge level in Bloom's progression, with only one participant expressing comprehension through their response. The responses to the accommodations portion of the question, however, revealed greater levels of comprehension and application. With the additional questioning, the participants were able to describe, express, and identify several more individual and group strategies they used for their special education students. The participants were able to choose and apply strategies to meet the students' needs and to meet their IEP goals. One of the seven participants communicated the ability to use analysis in regards to examining their own curriculum and the student needs to make adjustments where necessary to assist the student.

I believe the additional data revealed the original question required supplementary information to assist the participants in responding to the best of their knowledge and comprehension. However, the additional responses illustrate the participants' lack of depth in regards to their use of student IEPs and accommodations.

Section seven

The seventh question asked of the study participants was, "What concerns do you have about the legal aspects of special education?"

In reply to this question, just two participants expressed concerns about the legal aspects of special education. The two primary concerns held by the participants dealt with being informed of the laws and their changes and concern as to the possible liability of signing your name to legal documents. One interviewee articulated this concern:

I think just being aware of changes especially is important...I guess that's a concern. I worry about getting information and having the information available and having everyone take the information seriously...I think that's a big concern that people be informed. (4)

The other interviewee also stated his apprehension regarding this issue: Yes, every time I sign a paper-the IEP-I'm always a little leery about that because sometimes they just say, 'Here sign this'...What am I signing? I want to know I'm not just signing a blank check, so that kind of scares me sometimes. (9)

The remaining nine participants articulated they had no concern or apprehension regarding the legalities of special education. Their responses ranged from a simple "No," to a short explanation of why they had no concerns. Four interviewees verbalized, "I just don't worry," "I am aware that there are certain things that are mandated that we are to provide for

students, but I don't think about it a great deal" (8), and "I guess I' don't lose too much sleep over it. Nobody even knows we exist over here" (7). Four participants stated they did not have concerns about the legal aspects because they were comfortable with the special education teachers' knowledge and comprehension of the law. One participant commented, "I actually have few concerns because the woman here who takes care of all that kind of stuff is so knowledgeable and so effective that I don't personally have any concerns" (21). Another said, "...I feel like that we are going to get the information that we need from our special ed. person" (11). One respondent appeared to be unaware of any legal responsibilities when she declared, "I don't have any concerns. I don't know what the legal aspects are. Can you give me a clue?" (2).

It is my belief that only seven of these eleven juvenile corrections educators have any knowledge of the legal responsibilities regarding special education, and of those seven, only two educators expressed any comprehension of the consequences associated with legal issues in special education.

Section eight

For the eighth question the participants were requested to look at a checklist of the special education process that I had given to them, either in

person or by mail, depending on the mode of the interview. The participants were then asked what areas of the special education process they would like to know about.

In response to this inquiry, the majority of the eleven respondents stated that there were no areas in the special education process for which they desired additional information. Six participants gave the impression that they did not want any further information about the special education process because they were already very familiar with the process. One participant stated, "I know all about that stuff, I think I've been real educated on all that...I'm totally in the loop" (21). Another participant answered with, "I've probably been through, I don't know, thirty-five of these, so I don't think so" (10). Another commented, "I helped do a lot of the paperwork when I was a teaching assistant...and I've been to enough IEP meetings and read through the stuff...I think I'm pretty familiar" (4). Two interviewees stated they had no questions because they had been or were presently special education teachers. Four participants did have a desire to know about certain aspects of the special education process. Three interviewees stated they would like to know more about the following topics: they wished to learn about a student's transfer of rights, consent for placement, eligibility, support for personnel, evaluations, and transition. One participant wanted to know what happens to the IEP once it is signed and does the student

really get to use it. Two participants discussed the topics of eligibility and transition. The first of these two asked, "Eligibility determination is always kind of interesting to me, whether it's SED [Serious Emotional Disturbance], your LD [Learning Disabled] what is that stuff?"(11). This participant was also very interested in the topic of student transition and commented, "We are always big on transition services because where do our kids go, what can we do to help them get ready, what services can we provide for them when they leave here" (5). The second participant said, "Eligibility determination-I could see to get some more information on that could be helpful" (5). This respondent also voiced concern with the issue of student transitions back to the community and to further schooling when he said, "I think more than anything the biggest concern ...what happens to them when they leave here. What are the obligations, of say, the community college, the four-year college...?" (5). The importance of the special education teacher emerged once again in this area of special education process as three of the eleven interviewees clearly infer it is the responsibility of the special education person to handle such matters. The interviewees statements included "I guess I don't have any questions about it because it's pretty much handled by [principal] and [special education teacher]" (8), "[special education teacher] is very good...she knows the child very, very well...You have to learn just to keep up with her" (3), and

"...yeah, we ask her, 'Here, what's required?' and so on...she gives us printouts during the meeting" (10).

The entire group of participants claimed to have knowledge of the special education process by either stating they had all the knowledge they believed they needed, or by asking to know more about certain topics and issues. Two participants described in detail the issues of students' transition and explained their apprehensions toward the students' futures, thus revealing the participants' comprehension of at least a portion of this vast issue. The eleven study participants engaged in no further conversation that would lead me to believe that their knowledge and understanding went beyond the comprehension level with this line of inquiry.

As a special education teacher myself, I am never satisfied that I know everything there is to know about the special education process for my students. The federal and state laws regarding special education services have changed several times in the past few years (ODE, 1994; ODSE, 1999; OSEP, 1999) making this a difficult subject in which to stay informed and updated. I found it distressing to realize that, according to this data that over half of the eleven study participants did not desire to know or understanding more about the special education process for students, because it was believed they possessed all of the information they needed.

Section nine

The ninth question the participants were asked was, "What would be helpful for you in working with the special education students?"

In answering this question, nine of the participants could only articulate one item that they considered helpful to their practice in teaching the special education students in their classes. The other two participants were interested in three or four items to assist them with their special education students. The list of topics was rather short and included the following responses: smaller classes in larger facilities, staff and student support, student IEPs, computers and software, legal issues, student medications, Talented and Gifted (TAG) students, and teaching strategies. The major topic discussed covered the area of support.

Seven participants discussed the subject of support from different viewpoints. Nearly all seven respondents believed it would be helpful to have supports for the classroom teacher to assist them in working with the special education students. A few of the respondents were looking for the support from the special education teachers. "I'd like to have input from the special ed. teacher on...which ones are special ed. and which ones are not; sometimes you don't know" (2) was the reply from one participant. Another participant said, "I think being able to get more information from the special education team leaders...I think that's very useful..." (4). Other respondents

looked to other regular education teachers for support and assistance with their special education students. One participant replied, "I think that's very useful just at the regular meetings talking with the regular teachers. Being able to talk about what the student is accomplishing in their class..." (4), and "Being able to once in a while meet with teachers who are involved with a kid like this" (72) were the answers two other respondents gave to this question. Support for the students from family and the community was of interest for two interviewees. One interviewee was concerned about their being unsuccessful upon their return to the community due to a lack of services and supports when he commented, "...the lack of family input means we...perform wonders here and then the kids walk out the door and fall flat on their faces because there's nobody there to pickup the pieces, there's no support. That's the biggest problem" (7).

Smaller class size was an issue for two of the interviewees. The first of these two interviewees thought smaller classes for special education students would be closer to a one-on-one teaching situation to aid in behavior control and help students to be less fearful of being wrong in front of their peers. This participant said, "Smaller classes would be the best. They get lost, they are afraid to talk..." (9). The second participant thought a larger facility that was thoughtfully designed with education as the goal would provide available teaching of special education students. These

participant comments included the following: "Smaller classes, larger facility...Design, space available, a good place that was specifically designed where they [the students] did feel that their needs are being attended too" (3).

Two participants believed it would helpful for them to have copies of their student IEPs given to them for every special education student. One interviewee mentioned this desire throughout the interview in response to question nine. "Having the IEPs" was stated within the answer as well as holding "...a meeting on every kid instead of just the eligibility meeting" (2). Another interviewee stated the wish that "The minute I get a student to have that IEP is in my mailbox. That would be real helpful" (21). This participant also thought it would be helpful to "...have a workshop dedicated to the legalities, the actual laws that you can refer to and even have a manual of the law that apply overall to special ed." (21). TAG [Talented and Gifted] students was another topic this participant thought would be helpful to know about "...how the TAG students are supposed to be treated and is it included in the special ed. area, or is that a separate area with separate laws?" (21).

Information on student medications was a subject one interviewee believed would be helpful in working with the special education students. "I would like to know about the medications they are on and how it affects

them...you don't know when they are changing their medication or modifying it. It would probably be really enlightening to read about those drugs" (10) was the stated comment. Another participant appeared to conceptualize the idea of specially designed instruction for special education students within the general education classroom with the following statement concerning what would be helpful in working with the special needs students:

Probably methods in how I can still give the quality of teaching competencies and giving information and knowledge to be able to do that in a timely manner and still mainstream. [How] I can keep doing what I'm doing for most kids and still be able to address the special education need there. (5)

In reply to this question, the category of computers and software was seen as being helpful to special needs students by one participant: "We just got a new classroom. We just got a new Plato computer, and another Plato would be nice" (11). Howell and Woldford (2001) did not consider the use of computers to be an appropriate use of instructional time in special education classes in juvenile corrections because "the content of the lessons and their sequence is determined completely by the instructional materials used, not the IEP."

Many of the themes found in response to this question have reoccurred throughout the discussions of the previous eight research questions. Support from the special education person has been referred to

in five of the previous question responses. The topics of possessing copies of student IEPs, teaching strategies, and understanding student medications have emerged several times themselves in prior answers.

These and other topics of discussion will be studied throughout the data analysis for emergent themes.

Section ten

The tenth question the participants were asked to respond to was,
"What suggestions do you have for professional development for teachers
who work with incarcerated special education students?"

In response to this question, every one of the eleven participants voiced at least one topic they believed would be beneficial to them and their fellow juvenile corrections educators. Two participants spoke of three topics for possible professional development, another two spoke of two topics, and seven of the respondents had just one topic of interest for professional development. The topics for professional development these juvenile corrections educators found to be of interest were: cultural awareness, depression, empathy, medications, sharing ideas and information with other corrections educators, a teaching specialty for juvenile corrections teachers, and strategies for working with juvenile corrections students and their disabilities.

Working with juvenile corrections students and their special needs was the most popular topic of interest to the study participants. Eight of the eleven participants voiced this topic as a suggestion for professional development for teachers working with incarcerated special education students. Three of these eight interviewees were particularly concerned with behavior issues. One interviewee stated:

I think probably the biggest adaptation...is learning how to work with them and their outbursts, and how not to take things personally. It would be the interpersonal stuff, the classroom management stuff. Those are the things I think are the most difficult and most pertinent. (11)

Another interviewee spoke of the effect corrections has on a student's behavior as she reflected:

[Here] in a lock down facility is when you get one who really needs activity or needs ...an active learning style. This is not a place that accommodates them very well. The other thing that we get...are kids that are real low functioning, and we don't get much help with them...and they might have some real criminal tendencies...I think it's hard to deal with kids like that. (72)

One participant wanted other juvenile corrections educators to understand manipulation as a student behavior and to become aware of the techniques a student uses to manipulate staff and teachers. He commented:

Regardless of how nice the child is...you're probably a candidate for manipulation...Expect that more than likely people will tend to manipulate you, that you have a sense of

your own agenda...stick to that. The more consistent you are the better off you are. (3)

Learning teaching strategies for on-task behavior was an interest of another interviewee who said, "Maybe something on the order of how to, in keeping their attention, keeping them on task, ways that we can handle individuals and their needs in this setting. Those are the main things (8).

Three other participants were concerned with staff development on student learning disabilities. One participant stated, "More staff development for these types of kids, for the full range of things that you have to deal with these kids, including Autism" (2). Another participant believed it would be helpful to have professional development on recognizing disabilities "I have a hard time drawing the line between behavior and learning disability. I imagine others might too and would benefit from some workshop or information on how to recognize them" (21). "How to adjust curriculum for your increased number of special ed. students that are in juvenile corrections," (4) was the question asked by another participant.

Medications and their effects on students has been a topic of discussion throughout the interview questions, and it emerged once again under the suggestions for professional development. One participant responded, "The kids are routinely medicated...Training with the drug effects that so many of these kids deal with" (72). A second participant

interested in learning about student medications said, "...the drugs are what I'm interested in personally...Drugs is what I want to know about " (10).

Sharing ideas, information, and teaching strategies with other juvenile corrections educators within Oregon was discussed by two interviewees. One interviewee queried, "...why couldn't the juvenile corrections facilities and teachers put on a statewide seminar to talk about working with this type of student?" (4). Another interviewee stated, "I'd like to see special ed. teachers...say how they do it and get everyone's ideas and pick their brain and... see how they run their program, their successes and their down falls" (9).

Two respondents discussed the possibility of a special training for juvenile corrections educators. One respondent commented, "...I think to have some kind of introductory coursework or something for juvenile corrections teachers because it's different than public school and how is it different than public school" (4). The other educator said he had been asked by someone "Is there a particular specialty for regular school teachers who taught in this particular circumstance?" This educator explained it was his opinion that it would be difficult for young, new teachers "fresh out of college" to deal with the students in a corrections environment without special training because they are inexperienced:

If you go in you are naïve, and just not smart enough with the way things are. If you are very close to their age, and when I

say close that's within five to ten years of the kids...you're not going to do too well, I don't think...you are susceptible to a lot of other things that they have to deal with. (3)

The topics of cultural awareness, empathy, and student depression were each suggested by a single participant. One participant is concerned with educators taking into consideration a student's home culture before making value judgments about the student's capabilities and skills. This participant believes students are unfairly labeled with learning disabilities or thought to be lazy, when in fact, the student, due to their culture, may not have been previously exposed to school:

Cultural awareness-trying to determine when a kid walks in, doesn't read or write beyond the second grade, not wanting to immediately throw up your hands because you don't know. The culture, so many kids have come here...that just have not been to school before. Some of their progress (has) been phenomenal...because for the first time in their lives they've been exposed. If you're not aware of all that, you might put them in the special ed. box right away...I think the cultural awareness might be the biggest thing. (7)

One participant indicated he would like other juvenile corrections educators to develop empathy for their students. He believes corrections educators need to mindful of the students' situation, being incarcerated teenagers with special needs. The participant stated, "...it's one thing to be special ed. it's another thing to be incarcerated and be away from everything you know...a double whammy for a kid. I think developing empathy would be the thing I would put more emphasis on" (5).

Professional development on student depression was a topic of great interest to another participant. This participant believes teachers and staff use the word depression with differing connotations with no one having a clear understanding of its true meaning. She stated, "...[what] we critically need is a psychiatrist or psychologist to come in and talk to teachers about how to determine when they [the students] are depressed and how to determine the signs" (21). The participant talked about the discussion in IEP meetings where one teacher declared a student depressed and another would say that student laughed a lot in their class and, therefore, wasn't depressed. The participant stated that no one could assume a student is not depressed because they are laughing and joking. She reflected, "When I'm in a meeting I have to say, 'that has nothing to do with the fact that they are or are not depressed' " (21).

The participants' suggestions for professional development for teachers who work with incarcerated special education students were as varied as the participants themselves. Three respondents suggested that conferences, courses, or workshops should be developed to present topics to juvenile corrections educators that would meet their specific circumstances and needs. The most general subject discussed was that of working with the students themselves. The interviewees desired to learn strategies and techniques for managing behavior problems and for meeting

the special needs of the diverse learners in the classroom. These educators would like an opportunity to visit with other educators and specialists to discover various approaches and methods, which are successful with other students so they might be used with their own students. In response to this question regarding professional development, all of the participants verbalized an eagerness for knowledge and comprehension of the many nuances of teaching incarcerated special education students in order to better understand and assist them.

Section eleven

The eleventh question merely asked the participants if they had anything else they would like to add. Four of the eleven respondents simply answered, "No." Another other two stated they had nothing else to add to the conversation by saying, "I'm done" and "No, I think I've covered everything that I can think of right now." The remaining five respondents had various issues they wished to discuss.

The subjects of smaller classes, teamwork, and student transition issues reemerged again in this unstructured forum. Smaller class size was the theme of one participant in his statement, "...whether it's here or whether it's on the outs, size seems to make all the difference. Smaller schools, smaller classes-you're going to get better results, I think" (7). One

participant reiterated her thoughts about the support of her special education team by saying," I just think we are very fortunate that we have such a good team" (8). Another answered:

Transitioning. We do, I think, an excellent job in here, but again and again they go out and they are back again...the kids worry about it too and... they go back, and there is no adult out there to help them along the way. I wish the school had more to say about when they move these kids. (72)

The participants also discussed experience and the General Education Diploma (GED) as topics of concern. One conversation included these observations:

I think a lot of it is just experience. We have a new teacher here this year working with the youth, and she was just totally lost. The levels are such high and lows in the abilities: it's amazing where you have to try and find the medium area to get to every single kid. (9)

Another participant had concerns regarding special needs students taking the GED:

we found it real difficult for kids that have modifications to be able to carry those modifications over to the GED format...if there was some way we could extradite using the modifications in the GED that would be good. I don't expect the US GED office to approve of them all, but I think it could somehow work with these kids that have bona fide learning disorders. (11)

Themes

The knowledge, opinions, questions, and understanding held by the juvenile corrections education teachers regarding the subject of special education as it relates to their students are both varied and widespread. The interview transcripts were coded for reoccurring phrases, terms, and themes. After an analysis of the participants' responses, the foremost topics mentioned by the interviewees were accommodations for students with disabilities, the responsibilities of the special education teacher, the eligibility categories for student disabilities, the medications taken by students, and student transition services.

Accommodations

A major theme discussed by the participants was that of accommodations. Accommodations are the adjustments and changes a teacher makes to the general education curriculum to assist the student with disabilities to become successful in an area of study. The participants under the theme of accommodations mentioned fifteen separate issues. The specific accommodations most mentioned were direct instruction by the teacher or teaching assistant, pace, peer tutoring, and the Plato computer program. The remaining topics that were mentioned on less than three occasions each were manipulatives, time-outs, guided note taking,

high-interest low-vocabulary work books, group reading, practice and reteaching, spell checkers, audio books and seating arrangement. One approach to accommodations mentioned by the respondents suggested that children with learning disabilities could benefit from developing and learning problem-solving strategies, increasing self-advocacy skills through the use of Direct Instruction. Osher, Firman, Quinn, Kendziora, and Woodruff (2000) defined Direct Instruction as "a rehearsed, highly structured instructional model that focuses on repeated and intense drill, practice, and immediate feedback" (Osher et al., 2000).

Special education teacher

Another theme discussed by the participants was the special education person for their school. Eight interviewees spoke highly of their school's special education person. These interviewees believed the special education persons are highly competent in their knowledge of the special education laws and procedures and expect the special education personnel to tell the teachers what they need to know and what to do with the special needs students. These participants appear willing to follow the direction of the special education personnel in the belief that it is the responsibility of the special education personnel to handle such matters and they themselves have no responsibility for special education. However, as I

have previously stated, the regular education teacher is responsible for "implementing the IEP and the specific accommodations, modifications, and supports that must be provided to the child in accordance with the IEP" (OSEODE, 1999a, p. 12478).

Student disabilities

Student disabilities were the third subject most discussed by the research participants. Seven different disability categories were mentioned by ten of the participants and included: Emotional Disturbance, Specific Learning Disability, Attention Deficit Hyperactive Disorder, Autism, Traumatic Brain Injury, Language Impairment and Tourettes.

Emotional disturbance and specific learning disability were the two disabilities that made up the majority of the discussions, which is in line with the national statistics on student disabilities in correctional facilities. The Twenty-first Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of IDEA (U.S. Department of Education, 1999) states: "Youths with emotional disturbance and learning disabilities made up the majority of those incarcerated" (p. II-2). Reports from Casey and Keilitz (1990), Nelson and Rutherford (1989), and Murphy (1986) agree that individuals with emotional disturbance and learning disabilities are disproportionately represented in juvenile correction facilities. Osher et al. (2001) found that in addition to

academic problems, students with learning disabilities also exhibit social and emotional problems that may be due to their misunderstanding of social cues.

Attention deficit hyperactive disorder (ADHD) was a concern for several of the interviewees. Student can be found eligible for special education services under the category of Other Health Impairment because ADHD can limit "strength, vitality or alertness, including a heightened alertness to environmental stimuli, results in limited alertness with respect to the educational environment" and "adversely affects a child's educational performance" (OSEODE, 1999a, p. 12422). ADHD is a common diagnosis for youth with behavior problems according to Rutherford, Bullis, Anderson, and Griller (2000), and few studies to date have focused on students with ADHD in the correctional system. However, the prevalence among juvenile offenders appears to be significantly higher than in the general population. Rutherford et al. (2000) cited Davis, Bean, Schumacher, and Stringer (1991) for finding that 18.5 percent of randomly selected incarcerated youth in Ohio as having ADHD. It was also found that 19 to 46 percent of youth in the juvenile justice system had ADHD, and that youth with ADHD were twice as likely to experience substance abuse and higher rates of arrest and incarceration than students without ADHD. In addition, it was suggested that the coexistence of Specific Learning Disability and ADHD is comparatively common among youth with delinquent and other externalizing behavior problems (Rutherford et al., 2000).

The interviewees with regard to particular students mentioned the categories of Autism, Traumatic Brain Injury, and Tourettes currently in the juvenile corrections educational system. These three categories of special education disabilities are included in the literature on other disabilities.

According to the Twenty-first Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of IDEA, the category of other disabilities represents three percent of all disabilities (U.S. Department of Education, 1999).

Student medications

The subject of student medications was mentioned seven times during the interview process. The participants were concerned with the number of medication the students take and the affect the medications have on student behavior. A review of the literature uncovered a few studies on the mental health needs of youth in juvenile corrections; however, I found no articles that referred to medications taken by incarcerated youth. According to Cocozza (as cited in Leone et al., 1994) the mental health issues of youth in the juvenile justice system are routinely ignored. Osher et al. (2000) described at length a variety of mental health illnesses and their affects on the behavior of youth in the juvenile justice

system; however, there was no discussion regarding possible medications given to the youth for treatment.

Transition services

Issues of student transition services were the fifth largest category of discussion by the research participants. The teachers were concerned by their students' transitions back to their communities and schools. The participants wanted to know if, after leaving the juvenile corrections system, there would be appropriate support for the students in the communities and schools to facilitate them becoming successful citizens. Knowing that many of the students do not return to school after leaving the correctional facilities, these teachers were fearful that without an appropriate transition plan the students would go back to their previous delinquent behavior and reenter the juvenile corrections system.

Transition of students from the correctional facility back into community and/or the school is extremely difficult (Leone, 1994). IDEA requires a statement of the transition service needs for each student with a disability beginning at age 14 focusing on the student's courses of study. Beginning at age 16, a statement of needed transition services for the student is required including a statement of the interagency responsibilities, if appropriate (OSEODE, 1999a, p. 12442). A successful transition from the

correctional system to the community requires the coordinated efforts of institutional staff, families, educators, and community professionals. Many students do not adjust well to changes in their environments or to the expectations to relinquish their previous delinquent behavior (Leone et al., 1991a).

Transition services provided to assist students in moving from school to postschool activities, which include post-secondary education, vocational training, employment, independent living, continuing and adult education, and community participation, become especially significant for students in the juvenile corrections system (Burrell and Warboys, 2000). Also significant as transition services are for the successful reentry of the juvenile corrections students is the availability of integrated support services needed to effectively link a student's transition to community life. Leone et al. (1991b) found cooperation between the public schools, community agencies, and correctional education programs has been rare.

Summary

The participants in phase II have a wide-ranging understanding of the special education process and their responsibility to their special needs students. All of the participants were aware they teach a unique population of students and that the majority of the students are eligible for special education services. However, many of the interviewees believed it was primarily the responsibility of the special education teacher to provide special education services to the students. The participants had a basic understanding of the terms accommodations, adaptations, and modifications. The participants were able to name several accommodations used to help the students experience success in the classroom. The interviewees held a fundamental understanding of the most prominent special education disabilities of autism, emotional disturbance, and specific learning disability. A few teachers recognized traumatic brain injury and Tourettes syndrome. Teachers who worked with the older incarcerated students were concerned about transition issues for their students; however, there appeared to be minimal understanding of transition as a special education process.

Finally, I acknowledge there are numerous learning paradigms that could be used to provide a framework for educator responses to the interviews I conducted. Bloom's framework, even though it is over forty years old, is still widely used in curriculum development as a useful structure for evaluating student understanding. It is still being utilized by colleges and public schools grades K through 12 as a model of assessing curriculum designs. There are other systems or hierarchies that have been devised in the educational and training world. However, Bloom's taxonomy

is easily understood and is probably the most widely applied one in use today. I encourage readers to explore a wider range of alternative theories for analysis of level of understanding.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In this section I will use the six research questions to assess the participants' knowledge of the special education process and how it influences their instruction of students with disabilities by reviewing their responses to the interview questions.

1. What is the juvenile corrections teachers' understanding of special education terminology?

All of the teachers I interviewed understood the term IEP to be a legal document written for an individual student. The teachers recognized that the IEP is an individual education program with specific goals to improve a student's academic and behavior skills. The entire interview group knew that the IEP meeting is for writing the student IEP and that they should attend whenever possible to provide their opinions about the student and the student's abilities. Two participants named the members of the IEP team; the other nine only mentioned their own attendance and that of the special education person at the meetings; one participant did include the principal.

Eight of the research participants acknowledged the term accommodations to indicate strategies used in the classroom to assist students in improving academic and social behavior skills. However, the participants' responses revealed minimal understanding of the term accommodations as it relates to their responsibility to provide specific accommodations for a student in accordance with the student's IEP.

Transition services was a term referred to by three of the eleven respondents. One respondent, in particular completely understood the definition of transition services for special needs students in regard to assisting students gain the necessary skills to successfully return to their community and schools.

Due to the participants' responses, I believe their knowledge of the term eligibility determination is limited to the idea that eligibility is what gives a student the designation of special education. A few participants desired more information on what eligibility is and what it means. The interviewees were able to name a few of the special education eligibility categories; however, they did not truly comprehend the definition of the different disabilities. The disabilities mentioned by the interviewees were Autism, Emotional Disturbance, Language Disorders, Specific Learning Disability, Traumatic Brain Injury, and Tourettes. Attention Deficit Hyperactive Disorder as an eligibility was also prevalent in the participants'

discussions although ADHD is considered to be included in the category of Other Health Impaired and not a separate eligibility of its own.

2. What is the juvenile corrections teachers' understanding of their role and responsibilities in the IEP team?

The participants' understanding of their role and responsibilities in the IEP team was wide-ranging, encompassing various levels of knowledge. All of the participants recognized that they were expected to attend IEP meetings and declared they attended the majority of IEP meetings for their student. However, when asked whether or not they contributed to the eligibility determination or the development of IEP goals, the interviewees did not disclose their participation in the development. review, or revision of a student's IEP. The participants did not reveal in what manner they assisted in the determination of appropriate positive behavioral interventions and strategies or supplementary aids and services or modifications provided for the student in the IEP content. There was minimal discussion about how the interviewees, as IEP team members, contributed to the discussions and decisions about how to modify the general curriculum in the regular classroom to ensure the students' involvement and progress in the general curriculum and participation in the regular education environment.

3. What is the juvenile corrections teachers' perception of their accountability to special education regulations as they apply to their students with disabilities?

The majority of the study's participants stated their belief that the basic accountability and responsibility to special education regulations belonged to the administration and special education personnel.

Throughout the interviews the participants stated clearly their dependence on the special education personnel to supply any and all information related to special education students. The participants expected the special education personnel to interpret the records and inform them as to which students were special needs, what accommodations the students required, and what the student IEP goals included because that is what the participants perceive to be the job of the special education person.

Just two of the eleven respondents articulated concern for the legal aspects of special education. The legal concerns disclosed by the two respondents related to the implications of signing your name to a legal document and being held accountable for legal information. The remaining respondents declared they had no apprehension or concern with respect to the legal aspects of special education and gave the impression they were unaware of any personal accountability.

4. What is the juvenile corrections teachers' awareness of their responsibility to the implementation of a student's Individualized Education Program?

All participants recognized that everyone of their students have individual learning needs and as teachers they are responsible for providing accommodations and adaptations to the general curriculum to help their students be successful in the academic and vocational arenas. The majority of the interviewees articulated their direct responsibility for implementing the specific goals and objectives written in student IEPs.

Eight of the eleven participants had an awareness that they were responsible for knowing the location of student IEPs and either had personal copies of student IEPs or easy access to the IEPs and consulted them as needed. Three of the eleven participants declared they either possessed no IEPs or only a very few, for they believed it was not their responsibility to acquire them but the responsibility of the special education person to provide the IEPs to the teachers.

Nine of the participants affirmed their use of student IEPs; however, only three of the eleven participants expanded their discussion to include exactly how the specific IEP goals were implemented in the classroom.

5. What is the juvenile corrections teachers' awareness of their responsibility for the specific accommodations, modifications, and supports they must provide to the student with disabilities?

I believe the juvenile corrections teachers interviewed were aware of their responsibility as a classroom teacher to provide accommodations, modifications, and supports to their students with disabilities. Every one of the participants had a basic knowledge of accommodating, adapting, and modifying the general education curriculum to assist students in their learning. Their knowledge of accommodations could however be greatly expanded to better serve the needs of their students with disabilities.

The majority of the participants could identify at least two accommodations used in their classrooms, and a few of the participants were able to identify several accommodations. Two participants were unable to identify any specific accommodations used for their special education students, and four participants indicated the accommodations used were for the entire class not as specifically designed instruction for the special education students. Only two of the eleven participants articulated how they actually modified the general education curriculum used in their classrooms to accommodate specific student needs. The participants as a group were able to identify fourteen separate accommodations.

6. What do juvenile corrections teachers express they would like to know more about in regard to student IEPs?

The study's participants expressed three primary areas in which they would appreciate additional information concerning student IEPs. The three areas included students' eligibilities for special education services; skills addressed by the students' IEPs, and transition services for the special education students. The interviewees were most interested in knowing if a student's IEP goals and objectives were for academic skill, behavioral skills or included both. It was important to these teachers to know a student's present level of behavioral/social, language, math and reading skills. The participants expressed a concern in gaining knowledge and understanding of the student eligibility process for special education services especially in Autism, ADHD, Emotional Disturbance, and Language Disorders. Three interviewees wished to understand more about transition services for students in regard to educational and community services. These participants wanted to know who established the decisions for transition services for the students with disabilities and how the decisions were made.

SUMMARY

This chapter has provided a detailed description of the eleven study participants and the juvenile corrections education facilities where they

teach. This was followed by a discussion of the dialogues with the participants as related to the eleven interview questions asked of them and analysis of their responses related to the six research questions regarding juvenile corrections educators' understanding of the special education process and how it influences their practice.

The themes that emerged from the interview discussions centered on accommodations, the responsibilities of the special education person. student disabilities, medications, and transition services issues. Within the theme of accommodations, participants identified several separate strategies they used with their special education students to modify the general education curriculum to meet the students' needs; a few of the participants made no mention of accommodations implemented for the students' success. Under the theme of responsibilities of the special education person, participants spoke highly of these professionals and the teachers' dependency on them to know everything about the special education process and relay that knowledge to the regular education teachers. Within the theme of student disabilities, participants wished to gain additional information about specific student disabilities, the meaning of the disabilities, what disabilities a student might have, and how to work with students of particular disabilities. The participants wished to understand more about the medications that students take and how the

medications affect student behavior. Under the theme of transition services, participants discussed students leaving the juvenile corrections facility and returning to their communities and the students' ability to make the transition successfully.

The literature was examined for research that supported the participants' comments. The research substantiates the participants' understanding of the special education process and shows it to be similar to that of many juvenile corrections educators across the nation.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

In the following chapter, I will present a summary of the purpose of the research study, the research procedures, and the conclusions made from the research data. Additionally, the recommendations for further research will be presented.

SUMMARY OF PURPOSE

The student population of juvenile corrections education programs is a unique assembly. Many of these students were public school dropouts at an early age; therefore, they tend to be two to three years behind their peers in academic skills, and they all have entered the juvenile corrections system. One major difference between the juvenile corrections residents and the public school population is that a significant portion of the students in juvenile corrections education qualifies for special education services. However, very few of the juvenile corrections educators that I have talked to or worked with have had training for working with a large population of special education students.

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the understanding juvenile corrections educators in Oregon have of the special education process and how that knowledge influences their instruction of students with disabilities.

This study also assessed the teacher's knowledge of their responsibilities as educators to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act Amendments of 1997 - PL 105-17 (IDEA, 97).

The goal of the study was to communicate the results with the Oregon Department of Education and the Youth Corrections Education Programs for use in improving staff development regarding instructing special education students in the juvenile corrections classrooms.

SUMMARY OF PROCEDURES

An extensive review of the literature was conducted in the areas of juvenile corrections education, corrections special education, teacher training in the corrections setting, and educators in juvenile corrections education. The literature review revealed valuable information on the education of incarcerated special education youth and the characteristics and preparation of teachers in juvenile corrections.

Phase I of the study was conducted to test and improve the interview instrument. Ten volunteers from one of the juvenile corrections schools were interviewed. The final interview instrument was adapted from the interview instrument used in phase I of the study to promote more depth in the participants' responses during the final interview process.

For phase II of the study, a presentation was given to the principals of the twelve Oregon Youth Correctional Education Programs to explain the purpose of the study and to elicit their support for the project. Participants recommended by the principals were contacted by telephone and given a brief overview of the study. Eleven correctional educators representing nine of the twelve education programs volunteered to be interviewed for data collection.

All interviewees signed letters of consent and completed demographic surveys. All interviews conducted by phone and in person were tape recorded and transcribed for analysis. The interviews were read several times to analyze the participants' responses to the eleven interview questions and for responses relative to the six research questions.

RESEARCHER'S POINT OF VIEW

The following is analysis of the information obtained from the interview responses of this study based on my interpretations and point of view as a juvenile corrections special education teacher. This section will include a discussion of the themes that were revealed throughout the interview conversations and a discussion of each of the six research questions.

Analysis of the participants' interviews revealed the following five key themes that emerged throughout the discussions: accommodations for students with disabilities, responsibilities for the delivery of special education, special education eligibility, student medications, and transition services.

Accommodations are basically understood, by the juvenile corrections teachers, as something students are given to help them keep up with the class. Accommodations are seen as concepts similar to time and practice, or as concrete items such as manipulatives and electronic spell checking devices. There is little perception that an accommodation might be the individualizing of the general education to meet the students' particular abilities or learning styles.

The special education case manager is considered the expert in all matters of special education; he/she handles all special education responsibilities. The study revealed a lack of knowledge by the general education teachers about how to read student IEPs and about what their responsibilities are for implementing the student IEP or the specific accommodations, modifications, and supports for the students with disabilities

Overall, the respondents could name and describe their students with emotional disturbance and specific learning disabilities. The overall

assumption by the participants was that students with behavior problems are emotionally disturbed and students with academic deficiencies have specific learning disabilities. Unfortunately, students with Attention Deficit Hyperactive Disorder were considered to be emotional disturbed due to their behavior, when in fact ADHD is legally considered under the eligibility of Other Health Impairment.

Juvenile corrections educators are concerned with the numerous medications taken by the students. The atmosphere of the classroom is greatly affected by the consequences medications have on individual students, because the students' behavior may range from sleeping through classes to becoming extremely agitated and explosive. Several students in the classroom may be experiencing any number of behaviors throughout this range at the same time, creating a very difficult learning environment.

Transition services for students leaving the juvenile corrections facility to return to the community was a recurrent issue that was discussed by the participants throughout the interview process. The students who leave frequently have little experience, instruction, or practice in adult daily living skills; however, they are regularly expected to leave and live independent and successful lives in the community.

IMPLICATIONS

This section will include implications for educational practice and further research.

Educational practice

In this section, I will list implications for educational practice that include professional development of juvenile corrections educators in the areas of special education law as it applies to the classroom teacher, adapting the general education curriculum to accommodate the needs of special education students, understanding student eligibility for special education services, and the changing role of the special education personal.

1. Professional development for juvenile corrections educators in the area of special education law as it applies to the classroom teacher.

Professional development for the classroom teacher in the area of special education is crucial in light of IDEA '97. Under this revised law all classroom teachers have legal responsibilities to their students with disabilities. The accountability for implementing special education services no longer belongs solely to the special education teacher. Since approximately 40 to 50% of the students in juvenile corrections are eligible for special education service, all classroom teachers in juvenile corrections

education should be aware of these responsibilities. All teachers are liable for following the goals and objectives in a student's IEP and for making accommodations, adaptations, and modifications to the general education curriculum to assist the student in meeting those goals and objectives. As a member of the IEP team, teachers are accountable for establishing student eligibility for special education services, developing the IEP goals and objectives, and developing accommodations and modifications to the general education curriculum.

Information on the current special education laws as they pertain to juvenile corrections educators could be included during pre-service course work as an introduction. As experienced teachers continue to work with disabled students and seek information concerning strategies in the classroom, further information may be disseminated via short staff inservices and workshops that provide credit toward required district and state professional development units. Professional development in the area of special education law will provide the classroom teacher with critical knowledge and skills essential in providing a free and appropriate education to students with disabilities.

Professional development for juvenile corrections educators in adapting the general education curriculum to accommodate the needs of special education students. Juvenile corrections educators are familiar with a few accommodations, adaptations, and modifications that prove effective for all students. The use of accommodations for all students, I believe is an example of good teaching practice. Developing accommodations, adaptations, and modifications to the general education curriculum to meet the individual needs of students with specific disabilities, in my opinion, is a more difficult feat to accomplish. The participants of this study expressed a desire for further knowledge in developing accommodations, adaptations, and modifications to the general education curriculum to better serve their students with disabilities.

I propose professional development training be designed to assist juvenile corrections educators in acquiring additional information for the development of accommodations, adaptations, and modifications to the general education curriculum. Such knowledge will give these educators the skills to support their students with disabilities in the completion of their IEP goals and objectives. The training would incorporate readings in the current literature on accommodations, adaptations, and modifications; group discussions of current classroom practice; guest speakers to articulate on accommodations necessary for specific disabilities; in class demonstrations in using a variety of accommodations, adaptations, and modifications; and participant reflections on their personal applications and

implementations of classroom accommodations, adaptations, and modifications.

3. Professional development for juvenile corrections educators in understanding student eligibility for special education services.

The study participants discussed the subject of student eligibility for special education services at length. The juvenile corrections educators were most familiar with the categories of emotional disturbance and specific learning disability. The educators were able to express the idea that emotional disturbance means the students have behavioral difficulties and specific learning disability indicates the students have academic difficulties. These definitions however, touch only the surface of these disabilities and their far reaching effects for students. There are thirteen separate eligibility categories for special education services. The students in juvenile corrections education programs may qualify for any one of these eligibilities and often they are found eligible for two or three categories at once. The participants of the study were interested in knowing the different special education eligibilities, how students are found eligible for the distinct categories, and how the various eligibilities affect the students.

The topic of special education eligibility could also be addressed in professional development workshops, teacher in-services meetings, or included in college course work designed for juvenile corrections educators.

Professional development for juvenile corrections educators could be designed to clarify each of the thirteen special education eligibility categories, explain how the disabilities are manifested in the students, and provide the teachers with accommodations and modifications for use in the classroom.

4. The changing role of the special education personnel.

Traditionally, the role of the special education personnel has been to serve as the expert and responsible party for all matters concerning special education services. The participants in this study continue to embrace this view of the special education personnel. The regular classroom teachers are not responsible for knowing the special education process in the same detail as the special education teachers. These two groups of educators have divergent roles in respect to the special education process. It is the responsibility of the special education personnel to understand and comply with the federal and state special education laws. It is their responsibility to implement each step of the special education process from the initial referral to the completion of the eligibility and IEP. It is the responsibility of the regular education teacher to attend IEP meetings, provide present levels of performance for students, determine eligibility for special education services, and develop educational goals, accommodations, and modifications for student IEPs. It is not the purpose of the law to require all

classroom teachers to become experts in special education with the same responsibilities of the special education personnel. However, the regular education teachers are often unaware of their responsibilities in the special education process.

I propose that special education personnel move away from the role of authoritarian for special education services to that of consultant, to assist the regular education teachers in learning their new responsibilities in determining student eligibility for special education services, and developing IEP goals, accommodations, and modifications. The special education personnel, as a consultant, would be in a position to advise teachers when there are questions about students with disabilities. As a consultant, the special education teacher would be in a position to model accommodations, adaptations, and strategies as the regular education teachers have difficulties with students. This cooperative model would facilitate the regular education teachers taking responsibility for their role in the education of the students with disabilities.

Further research

In this section, I will list implications for further research that include a follow-up study after the juvenile corrections educators receive support and training in special education; a study to examine the prevalence of

mental health issues concerning the students in juvenile corrections; research to determine how well juvenile corrections programs are preparing students for transitioning into employment, independent living, post-secondary education, and community living; and a study of the role of administrators in advancing the practice of special education in juvenile corrections.

1. A follow-up study should be conducted to replicate this study after the juvenile corrections educators receive support and training in special education.

I propose a follow-up study with the juvenile corrections educators in Oregon, after they receive professional development support and training in the special education process. A replicated study would determine if professional development in the special education process for classroom teachers in juvenile corrections should increase their understanding of the special education process and improve their practice for students with disabilities. The identical interview questions would be asked to a sample of educators from the YCEP schools and the responses analyzed for data pertaining to the initial research questions in this study. The follow-up study would also include classroom observations of the participants. The addition of the observations would reveal whether or not the corrections education

teachers were implementing constructivist methods in their instructional practice.

The participant responses to the follow-up study could be an evaluation of the professional development given to the juvenile corrections educators on special education. A replicated study should also ask if professional development awareness of special education deepened the understanding of juvenile corrections educators and whether that awareness affected the educators' practices in regard to their students with disabilities.

2. A study to examine the prevalence of mental health issues concerning the students in juvenile corrections.

The subject of medications taken by the students was of great concern to the educators who participated in this study. The participants were concerned with the number of medications taken by the students and the affect these medications have on student behavior and learning. The current literature states that the mental health issues of juvenile corrections students are often ignored. From my experience, I believe that overwhelming portions of these students suffer with mental illness and according to Cocozza (as cited in Leone et al., 1994) most often mental illness goes undiagnosed.

Research into the mental illnesses of juvenile offenders, I believe, would reveal many students who are often misdiagnosed as behavior problems. With new understanding of the reasons for student behavioral difficulties teachers and specialists could create more effective behavior plans for students with disabilities, thus offering the students greater opportunity for academic and social success.

3. Further research needs be conducted to determine how well juvenile corrections education programs are preparing students for transitioning into employment, independent living, post-secondary education, and community living.

Transitioning from a juvenile corrections institution into communities and schools can be extremely difficult for incarcerated students, especially for students who have lived within the fence for months and years. Leone et al. (1991a) tells us that many of these students do not adjust well to changes in their environment.

Several study participants were concerned with the future of their students after leaving the juvenile corrections facility. The participants wondered if they had given the students sufficient skills for independent living, job readiness, continued education, and community living. The teachers were fearful that without appropriate transition skills these

students would not become successful in the community and would return to the correctional institution.

I propose a study that would follow a population of students leaving the juvenile corrections facilities for a period of two or more years. The students would be observed during this time for the support they receive by community organizations, family, schools, counseling, court, and medical personnel. The students would be interviewed for their understanding of what skills helped them and what additional skills are needed to be successful in their transition from the institution back to the community.

4. A study to observe the role of administrators in advancing the practice of special education in juvenile corrections education programs.

The current study assessed the knowledge of the regular education teachers regarding their role in the special education process and their responsibilities to adapting the general education curriculum to meet the needs of students with disabilities. The juvenile corrections educators stated their belief that the administrators are ultimately responsible for up holding the special education laws. As the teachers' supervisors, I also believe the administrators have the responsibility to ensure teachers are following proper procedures regarding special education law and process.

I propose a study that would assess the knowledge school administrators have regarding their role and responsibilities to the special

education laws. The administrators would be interviewed for their knowledge and understanding of the special education process.

REFERENCES

- Abramson, A. H. (1991). <u>Theoretical conceptions of curriculum:</u> <u>Implications for juvenile correctional education.</u> Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Drake University, Des Moines.
- Bloom, B. A. (1994). <u>Personal, academic, and cultural backgrounds and qualities of successful correctional educators.</u> Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of San Francisco, San Francisco, CA.
- Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (1998). <u>Qualitative research in education: An introduction to theory and methods</u> (3rd ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Brooks, C. C., & White, C. (2000). Curriculum for training educators of youth in confinement. <u>Office of Justice Programs Fact Sheet</u> (Vol. 5, pp. 2): U.S. Department of Justice.
- Brooks, M.G. & Brooks, J.G. (1999). The courage to be constructivist. <u>Educational Leadership</u>. 57 (3) 18-24.
- Brown, M. M. (1989). What are the qualities of good research? In F. H. Hultgren & D. L. Commer (Eds.), <u>Alternative modes of inquiry in home economics research</u>, 9, (pp. 247-297). Peoria, IL: Glencoe Publishing Company.
- Bullock, L. M., & McArthur, P. (1994). Correctional special education: Disability prevalence estimates and teacher preparation programs. <u>Education and Treatment of Children</u>, 17(3), 347-355.
- Burrell, S., & Warboys, L. (2000). Special education and the juvenile justice system. <u>Juvenile Justice Bulletin</u>, <u>July 2000</u>, 1-15.
- Casey, P., & Keilitz, I. (1990). Estimating the prevalence of learning disabled and mentally retarded juvenile offenders: A meta-analysis. In Leone, P. E. (Ed.), <u>Understanding troubled and troubling youth</u> (pp. 80-101). Newbury Park, GA: Sage.

- Chesley, C. P. (1995). <u>Adequacy of services for incarcerated students with disabilities: A study of two states.</u> Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Harvard University, Cambridge.
- Coffey, O. D. (1983). Meeting the needs of youth from a corrections viewpoint. In R. B. R. S. Braaten, & C. A. Kardash (Eds.), (Ed.), Programming for adolescents with behavioral disorders (pp. 79-84). Reston, VA: Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders.
- Coffey, O. D., Gemignani, M. G. (1994). <u>Effective practices in juvenile correctional education</u>: A study of the literature and research 1980-1992 (Report No. 92-JS-CX-K098). Washington DC: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 391995).
- Condon, M. W. F. & Others. (1993). A constructivist basis for teaching and teacher education: A framework for program development and research on graduates. <u>Journal of Teacher Education</u>, 44 (4), 273-78.
- Davis, D. L., Bean, G. J., Schumacher, J. E., & Stringer, T. L. (1991). Prevalence of emotional disorders in a juvenile justice institutional population. <u>American Journal of Forensic Psychology</u>, 9 (1).
- Department of the California Youth Authority. (1995). <u>Program</u> description and evaluation report elementary and secondary education Act (ESEA) Chapter 1 compensatory education program. pp. 3-11;44;62-66;71-73.
- Driscoll, M. P. (1994). <u>Psychology of Learning for Instruction</u>. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Eggleston, C. R. (1989). <u>Zebulon Brockway and Elmira reformatory:</u> <u>A study of correctional/special education.</u> Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond.
- Ertmer, P. A., & Newby, T. J. (1993). Behaviorism, cognitivism, constructivism: Comparing critical features from an instructional design perspective. <u>Performance Improvement Quarterly</u>, 6 (4), 50-72.
- Fowler, B. (1996,1997). <u>Critical thinking across the curriculum project</u> [Online]. Available: http://www.kcmetro.cc.mo.us/longview/ctac/blooms.htm4/21/00

- Francis, J. R. (1995). Developing and implementing a stress management_program for special educators in a juvenile detention center. Doctoral dissertation, Nova Southeastern University, 1990). (ERIC Document Reproduction Services No. ED 400 653)
- Gall, M. D., Borg, W. R., & Gall, J. P. (1996). <u>Educational research:</u> <u>An introduction</u> (6th ed.). New York: Longman.
- Garfunkel, F. (1986). The conditions of correctional education. Journal of Correctional Education 37 (4),157-160.
- Gay, L. R. (1987). <u>Educational research: Competencies for analysis and application</u> (Third ed.) Columbus, Ohio.
- Gehring, T. (1993). Five more principles of correctional education. Journal of Correctional Education, 44(1), 4 - 8.
- Gemignani, R. J. (1994). <u>Juvenile correctional education: A time for change</u> (OJJDP Update on Research EC 069 016): Office of juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention).
- Gilham, C. A., & McArthur, P. (1999). Returning home: The Oregon transition support initiative. <u>Reaching Today's Youth, Spring</u>, 69-71.
- Grace, M. (1999). When students create curriculum. <u>Educational</u> <u>Leadership</u>, 57 (3), 49-52.
- Hellriegel, K. L., & Yates, J. R. (1997). <u>Collaboration between correctional and public school systems for juvenile offenders: A case study.</u> Chicago, IL: American Educational Research Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 408 396)
- Henderson, S. (1983). <u>Court school staff's perception of their educational preparation, training and experience for working with adjudicated students in a court school setting.</u> Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of San Francisco, San Francisco.
- Hobler, B. (1999). Correctional education: Now and in the future. <u>Journal of Correctional Education</u>, 50(3), 102-105.

- Howell, K., & Wolford, B. (2001). <u>Corrections and juvenile justice:</u> <u>Current education practice for youth with behavioral and cognitive disabilities "draft copy" [On line].</u> Available: www.edjj.org/Publications/
- Jancic, M. (1988). Does correctional education have an effect on recidivism? <u>Journal of Correctional Education</u>, 49 (4), 152 161.
- Jaramillo, J. A. (1996). Vygotsky's sociocultural theory and contributions to the development of constructivist curricula. <u>Education</u>, 117 (1), 133 140.
- Jurich, S., Casper, M., & Hull, K. A. (2001). Training correctional educators: A needs assessment study. <u>Journal of Correctional Education</u>, <u>52</u>(1), 23-27.
- Kent School District. (1995, 2001). <u>Bloom's taxonomy</u> [Online]. Available: http://www.kent.wednet.edu.KSD/MA/resources/blooms/teachers_blooms.html
- Kerka, S. (1995). <u>Prison literacy programs.</u> (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED383859)
- Kroll, L. R., & LaBoskey, v. K. (1996). Practicing what we preach: Constructivism in a teacher education program. <u>Action in Teacher Education 18</u> (2), 63-72.
- Lane, C. E. D. (2000). <u>Distance learning resource network's technology resource guide</u> [On-line]. Available: http://www.dlrn.org/library/dl/guide1html
- Leone, P. E. (1986). Teacher training in corrections and special education. Remedial and Special Education, 7(3), 41-47.
- Leone, P. E. (1987). Teaching handicapped learners in correctional education programs. In C. M. Nelson, R. B. Rutherford, Jr., & B. I. Wolford (Eds.), <u>Special education in the criminal justice system</u> (pp. 275-291). Columbus: Merrill Publishing Company.
- Leone, P. (1997). Should special education be provided to youth in correctional facilities? Council for Exceptional Children Today (August), 14.

- Leone, P. E., & Others. (1991). <u>Juvenile corrections and the</u> <u>exceptional student</u> (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 340 153)
- Leone, P. E., & Meisel, S. (1999). <u>Improving education services for students in detention and confinement facilities</u> [Online]. Available: http://www.edjj.org/Publications/pub12_20_99.html
- Leone, P. E., Rutherford, R. B., & Nelson, C. M. (1991). <u>Special education in juvenile corrections</u>. Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children.
- Leone, P. E., Rutherford, R. B., & Nelson, C. M. (1994). Education services for youth with disabilities in a state-operated juvenile correctional system: Case study and analysis. <u>The Journal of Special Education</u>, 28 (1), 43-58.
- McArthur, P. L. (1994). <u>A comparison of knowledge and skills statements needed by teachers of students with emotional and behavioral disorders and teachers in juvenile correctional special education Settings.</u> Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of North Texas, Denton, Texas.
- Mesinger, J. (1987). Educateur training as a resource model for special/correctional educators. <u>Journal of Correctional Education</u>, 38(4), 154-159.
- Michigan Council on Vocational Education. (1995). <u>Juvenile offender corrections study.</u> Michigan State Board of Education.
- Morgan, D. J. (1979). Prevalence and types of handicapping conditions found in juvenile correctional institutions: A national survey. <u>Journal of Special Education</u>, 13, 283-295.
- Murphy, D. M. (1986). The prevalence of handicapping conditions among juvenile delinquents. <u>Remedial and Special Education</u>, 7(3), 7-17.
- National Center on Education, Disability, and Juvenile Justice. (2001). <u>Juvenile correctional education programs</u> [On-line]. Available: http://www.edjj.org/education.html

National Institute for Literacy. (2000). <u>History of correctional education</u> [On-line]. Available: http://www.coe.utk.edu/literacy/corr/corrhist.html

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. (1999a). OJJDP Statistical Briefing Book [Online]. Available: http://www.ojjdp.ncjrs.org/ojstatbb/qa155.html

Office of Special Education Oregon Department of Education. (1999). <u>Individuals with disabilities education act amendments of 1997 - PL 105-17: Final regulations CFR Parts 300 and 303</u> 64 (48), pp. 12406-12537.

Oregon Department of Corrections. (1994). <u>Crime and corrections in Oregon,-Touch issues - hard facts</u> (OSU DOCS/ OR COR/2.2086). Salem, Oregon.

Oregon Department of Education. (1994). <u>Special education and special student services.</u> Salem, OR.

Oregon Department of Education. (1997). <u>Adult and juvenile corrections and Oregon youth authority</u> [Online]. Available: http://www.ode.state.or.us/sped/spedareas/juvenile.htm

Oregon Department of Special Education. (1999). <u>Information on specific learning disabilities [On-line]</u>. Available: http://www.ode.state.or.us/sped/spedareas/learning-disability/slddef.htm

Oregon State Archives. (2000b). <u>Teachers standards and practices</u> [On line]. Available: http://arcweb.sos.state.or.us/rules/ORAS_500/OAR_584/584_060.html

Oregon Youth Authority. (1998). <u>1998 Juvenile corrections data</u> [Online] Available: http://www.oya.state.or.us/data1998.html

Oregon Youth Authority. (2000). <u>Oregon youth authority close custody population forecast</u> [Online]. Available: http://www.oea.das.state.or.us/oya/oya0400.pdfApril 2000

- Osher, D., Firman, J., Quinn, M. M., Kendziora, K. T., & Woodruff, D. W. (2000). <u>Addressing invisible barriers: Improving outcomes for youth with disabilities in the juvenile justice system "draft copy" [Online]</u>. Available: www.edjj.org/Publications
- Parent, D. G., Leiter, V., Kennedy, S. Livens, Wentworth, D. & Wilcox, S. (1994). <u>Conditions of confinement: Juvenile detention and corrections facilities</u>, research summary (Report No. NC J141873). Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. Washing, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Pasternack, R., Portillos, R., & Hoff, H. (1988). Providing an appropriate education to adjudicated and incarcerated juvenile delinquents: The challenge to correctional education administrators. <u>Journal of Correctional Education</u>, 39(4), 154-159.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). <u>Qualitative evaluation and research methods</u> (2nd ed.). Newbury Park: Sage.
- Platt, J. S., & Wienke, W. D. (1984). The development of an effective institutional level and individualized inservice program for correctional educators A personalized selection and evaluation system. <u>Journal of Correctional Education</u>, 35(1), 23 30.
- Platt, J. S., Wienke, W. D., & Tunick, R. H. (1982). The need for training in special education for correctional educators. <u>Journal of Correctional Education</u>, 32(4), 8-12.
- Pollard, R. R., Pollard, C. J., & Meers, G. (1994). Determining effective transition strategies for adjudicated youth with disabilities: A national delphi study. <u>Journal of Correctional Education</u>, 45 (4), 190-195.
- Rider-Hankins, P. (1992). <u>Review of the research: The educational process in juvenile correctional schools.</u> Chicago: American Bar Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Services No. ED 349436)
- Rutherford, R. B., Jr. (1988). Correctional special education. <u>Teaching Exceptional Children</u>, 20(4), 52-54.

- Rutherford, R. B., Bullis, M., Anderson, C. W., & Griller, H. M. (2000). <u>Youth with disabilities in the correctional system: Prevalence rates and identification issues "draft copy"</u> [Online]. Available: www.edjj.org/Publications
- Rutherford, J., Ph.D., Nelson, C. M., Ed.D. & Wolford, B. I., Ph.D. (1985). Special education in the most restrictive environment: corrections/special education. <u>Journal of Special Education</u>, 19 (1), 59-71.
- Rutherford, R. B., Nelson, C. M., & Wolford, B. I. (1986). Special education programming in juvenile corrections. <u>Remedial and Special Education</u>, 7 (3), 27-33.
- Sedlak, R. A., & Karcz, S. A. (1990). Descriptive study of teaching practices and the efficacy of correctional education. <u>The Yearbook of Correctional Education</u>, 325-341.
- Sutherland, D. (1985). Training programs for correctional/special educators. <u>Journal of Correctional Education</u>, 36(2), 64-53.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

COVER LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS

Robert Farrell School 2450 Strong Road SE Salem, Oregon 97302

February 1, 2001

Dear Educator:

My name is Barbara Moody. I am a doctoral student at Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oregon. I am requesting your assistance in completing a survey questionnaire. The purpose of this survey is to determine the understanding juvenile corrections educator have of the special education process. The information obtained from the study will be used for dissertation research, presentation, and publication. Hopefully this study will provide some meaningful information to the Oregon Department of Education, the local school districts, and teacher preparation programs.

Your assistance is needed in completing the attached questionnaire. This questionnaire should take no longer than 20 minutes. It should be completed by you and not by anyone else. Please note that this study focuses on the understanding of juvenile corrections educators in the Oregon youth corrections education programs.

Your individual responses to the questionnaire are strictly confidential. The questionnaire will be coded and no one other than myself will have access to the coding system. The purpose of the coding is to track the return of the questionnaires. This would prevent a questionnaire from being mailed twice. Upon tabulation of results, I will destroy all surveys and codes.

This is a voluntary effort on your part. There are no anticipated risks involved. If you choose to participate, it affords you the opportunity to provide input into the teaching of special education students in the juvenile correction education system. Your candid as well as your honest response to all questions is very important. If you choose not to participate, please return the questionnaire and indicate that you do not wish to participate. No further reference of this subject will be made to you.

If you have any questions about the survey, please contact me at (541) 258-2612. If I am not available when you call. Please leave a message and I will call back. If you have questions about rights as a research subject, please contact the IRB Coordinator, OSU Research Office, (541) 737-3437.

Thank you for your assistance in this endeavor.

Sincerely,

Barbara Moody Doctoral Student

APPENDIX B

INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT

Research Project

Educators in Juvenile Corrections: Their Understanding of the Special Education Process And how it Influences Their Practice

Investigator

Dr. George Copa, Committee Chair Barbara Moody, Doctoral Candidate Oregon State University Corvallis, Oregon

Purpose of the Research Project

My name is Barbara Moody. I am a doctoral student at Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oregon. I am requesting your assistance in completing a personal face-to-face interview. The purpose of this interview is to determine the understanding juvenile corrections educators have of the special education process, how it influences their practice, and their attitudes toward the special education process.

Procedures

As a participant in this study you participate in an interview, which will take approximately thirty minutes. You will be asked questions concerning your understanding of the special education process, my attitudes and values toward special education students, and how these things influence your practice. You will be asked questions concerning demographical information, and teacher preparation program. The interviews will be taped with your permission for later transcribing. The tapes will be erased when the transcription is completed, and the transcriptions will be destroyed after the completion of the study. The tapes and transcriptions will remain confidential with the investigator having the only access to the data.

Risks and Benefits

This is a voluntary effort on your part. There are no anticipated risks involved. If you choose to participate, it affords you the opportunity to provide input into the teaching of special education students in the juvenile correction education system. Your candid as well as your honest response to all questions is very important. If you choose not to participate, no further reference of this subject will be made to you.

The information obtained from the study will be used for dissertation research, presentation, and publication. Hopefully this study will provide some meaningful information to the Oregon Department of Education, the local school districts, and teacher preparation programs.

Confidentiality

Any information obtained in connection with this study will be kept confidential to the extent permitted by law. A code number will be used to identify any results or other information provided. Neither your name nor any information from you can be identified will be used in any data summaries or publication.

Voluntary Participation Statement

I affirm that my participation in this study is completely voluntary. I understand that I may either refuse to participate or withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

I understand that any questions I have about the research study or specific procedures should be directed to Barbara Moody, 885 W. Isabella, Lebanon, OR 97355 (541) 258-2612.

If you have questions about rights as a research subject, please contact the IRB Coordinator, OSU Research Office, (541) 737-3437.

My signature below indicates that I have read and that I understand the procedures described above and give my informed and voluntary consent to participate in this study. I understand that I will receive a signed copy of this consent form.

Signature of Participant	Name of Participant
Date signed	
Participant's Present Address	Participant's Telephone Number
Signature of Principal Investigator	Date Signed

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW INSTRUMENT - PHASE I

The interview instrument for this research study was conducted as a conversation between the participants and myself. I asked a few openended questions concerning the participants' attitudes, knowledge, and values of the special education students in their classrooms and their participation in the special education process. I asked more specific questions on details as points of clarity during the conversation.

The initial interview questions were conducted to determine if the information I was looking for would emerge from the original research questions. I asked the participants to reflect on the interview questions afterwards to appraise their comfort level with the questions, to offer suggestions as to the content of the questions, and to critique my interviewing style.

The following are the questions I used in phase I of the research study:

"I'm here to ask about your special education students and about your needs in helping them."

1. What do you find to be the most challenging about the special education students?

- 2. Are you given any information when you have a special education student? How are you given that information?
- 3. What questions come to mind when you know you have a special education student in your class? How do you get additional information about the student?
- 4. Tell me about one of your special education students. What do you know about her/him? What questions come to your mind?
- 5. How are you involved in the special education process for your students?
- 6. What concerns do you have about the legal aspects of special education?
- 7. Looking at this checklist of the special education process, what areas you would like to know about?
- 8. What would be helpful for you in working with the special education students?
- 9. What suggestions do you have for professional development for teachers who work with incarcerated special education students?

APPENDIX D

PARTICIPANT DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

Please check all of the boxes that apply to you.

	and the boxes that apply to you.						
1.	What type of teaching certification do you hold?						
		Elementary Certification Substitute Certification Middle School Certification Secondary Certification Special Education Certification Professional Technical Certification Administrative Certification Other:					
		Subject matter Certification: What subjects?					
2.	What is	the highest level of education you have attained? GED High School Diploma Associate's Degree Bachelor's Degree					
		Master's Degree Doctorate Degree					
3.	How mar	ny total years of teaching experience do you have?					
		0 to 5 years 6 to 10 years 11 to 15 years 16 to 20 years 20+ years					

4. How mar have?	ny years of teaching experience in juvenile corrections do you
	0 to 5 years 6 to 10 years 11 to 15 years 16 to 20 years 20+ years
5. What is y	our current teaching assignment?
	Computer Science Fine Arts Health Language Arts Math Science Social Science Special Education Professional Technical (i.e. Business, Hospitality, Tourism, Recreation, Manufacturing Technology) Other
6. What is	South Valley (Lochner High, Ocean Dune HS, Riverside HS) Southern (Newbridge HS) East/Central (Camp Hilgard, Houston Lake HS, Monroe
7. What is y	your age range? 21 to 29 30 to 39 40 to 49 50 to 59

Ο.	o. vvnat is your racial/ethnic group?						
		White, European American, Non-Hispanic					
		Asian or Asian American					
		Black, African American, Non-Hispanic					
		Middle Eastern or Middle-Eastern American					
		North African or North African-American					
		Pacific islander					
		Hispanic or Latino American					
		American Indian or Alaskan Native					
		American Indian or Alaskan Native					
		American Indian or Alaskan Native If none of the above choices apply to you, please use your					
		American Indian or Alaskan Native If none of the above choices apply to you, please use your					
		American Indian or Alaskan Native If none of the above choices apply to you, please use your					
		American Indian or Alaskan Native If none of the above choices apply to you, please use your own description: Decline to respond					
9.	☐ ☐ What is y	American Indian or Alaskan Native If none of the above choices apply to you, please use your own description: Decline to respond rour gender?					
9.	☐ What is y	American Indian or Alaskan Native If none of the above choices apply to you, please use your own description: Decline to respond					

APPENDIX E

INTERVIEW INSTRUMENT RATING

Please complete this rating after the initial interview session. The purpose of this rating scale is to assess the interview questions and shape the final interview instrument. Your response will be scored using a Likert scale of response choices in degrees of progressive feelings (e.g. 1 - Strongly Disagree (SD), 2 - Disagree (D), 3 - Undecided (U), 4 - Agree (A) and 5 - Strongly Agree (SA).

Circle only one choice per item.	SD	D	U	Α	SA			
1. The interview questions were	clear.	1	2	3	4	5		
2. The questions were appropriate and relevant to my teaching situate.		1	2	3	4	5		
3. I was comfortable with the que4. The length of the interview was1 2 3 4			2	3	4	5		
5. I was able to give my opinion h	•	/.	1	2	3	4		
6. The questions were unbiased. What suggestions do you have the instrument?		1 Id impr	2 ove the	3 e interv	4 iew	5		
What suggestions do you have that could improve the interviewer's approach?								

APPENDIX F

INTERVIEW INSTRUMENT - PHASE II

- 1. What do you find to be the most challenging about the special education students?
- 2. What questions come to mind when you know you have a special education student in your class? How do you get additional information about the student?
- 3. Think of one of your learning disabled students and tell me about her/him. What do you know about her/him? What questions come to your mind?
- 4. How are you involved in IEP and eligibility discussions and meetings for your students? Goal development?
- 5. Do you keep your IEP copies in a particular place?
- 6. How do you use your student IEPs? What accommodations / modifications do you use in your classroom?

- 7. What concerns do you have about the legal aspects of special education?
- 8. Looking at this checklist of the special education process, what areas you would like to know about?
- 9. What would be helpful for you in working with the special education students?
- 10. What suggestions do you have for professional development for teachers who work with incarcerated special education students?
- 11. Do you have anything else you would like to add?