

school and entering into adult life. High school graduation traditionally signifies a time filled with many challenges and changes. It is a time anxiously awaited by students and parents, filled with hopes and dreams of successfully leaving high school and moving into the adult world of employment and/or postsecondary education. Halpern (1992) defined this transition as "a period of *floundering* that occurs for at least the first several years after leaving school as adolescents attempt to assume a *variety* of adult roles in their communities" (p. 203). Unfortunately for students with disabilities, the "floundering period" often lasts for years, and in some cases a lifetime. The purpose of this text is to provide the reader with methods for providing students with skills that will enable them to make a successful transition to adulthood.

BACKGROUND

The following sections describe some of the problems faced by students with disabilities as they make the transition from school to adulthood.

Postschool Outcomes for Students with Disabilities Continue to Be Disturbing

In 2001–2002 there were approximately 2 million students with disabilities ages 14 to 21 receiving special education services. In 1998–1999, 57.4% of students ages 14 and older graduated with a standard diploma, and 28.9% dropped out of school (U.S. Department of Education, 2001). While these numbers show slight improvement over the past 5 years, they are still disturbing when considered along with data from the National Longitudinal Transition Study (NLTS; Blackorby & Wagner, 1996). Table 1.1 summarizes the NLTS data, which indicate low levels of employment, wages, involvement in postsecondary education, and independent living for students with disabilities in general, and a clear difference between students who graduated and students who dropped out.

As seen in Table 1.1, for students with disabilities, graduating from high school does not necessarily mean a successful entry into adulthood. For example, consider the quality of life of individuals who, within 5 years of leaving high school, have just better than a 50-50 chance of being employed, a less than 40% chance of earning over \$6.00 per hour or living independently, and a less than 30% chance of entering postsecondary education.

Students with Disabilities Continue to Have Low Rates of School Completion

The low rate of school completion among youths in special education programs remains a persistent problem. On a national level, the Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP) suggests that, in general, youths with disabilities fail to

Table 1.1
Summary of National Longitudinal Transition Study Data

Category	≤ 2 Years Out (%)	3–5 Years Out (%)
Total Employed	45.7	56.8
High school graduates	53.3	64.8
Drop-outs	42.2	47.1
Total Earning ≥ \$6.00/hr	9.0	39.8
High school graduates	6.8	41.7
Drop-outs	11.2	37.9
Total Entering Postsecondary Education	14.0	26.7
High school graduates	18.9	40.8
Drop-outs	6.3	11.1
Total Living Independently	11.2	37.4
High school graduates	9.9	40.8
Drop-outs	15.2	35.0

Note. Based on figures from Blackorby & Wagner (1996).

complete school at a rate twice that of their general education peers ("Special Education Dropout Rate," 1997). Specifically, (a) OSEP's *Twenty-Third Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act* (U.S. Department of Education, 2001) provided data indicating that 173,523 students exited with a diploma and 33,427 with a certificate, while (b) the National Council on Disability (2000) indicated that 150,000 students dropped out or were not known to continue school. Together, these two sets of data suggest a graduation rate for students with disabilities somewhere between 46% and 67%, falling well short of the 85% national average among all youths in 1995 (McMillan, Kaufman, & Klein, 1997). While this number includes the 7% of former students who earn the general education development (GED) diploma (Murnane, Willett, & Boudett, 1997), indications are that youths who drop out of a special education program seldom earn a GED (Westberry, 1994). Sadly, these school completion rates for students with disabilities have remained largely unchanged in recent years.

The low rate of school completion causes some significant problems. For example, research indicates that students who fail to graduate from general education programs endure higher rates of unemployment or underemployment, a trend that continues to worsen (Bound & Johnson, 1995). School dropouts also experience higher rates of unexpected parenthood (Coley, 1995) and drug use (Swain, Beauvis, Chavez, & Oetting, 1997), and they account for more than half of heads of households on welfare and prisoners (Coley, 1995). While research on what happens to youths with disabilities who fail to complete school is limited (Sitlington & Frank, 1993), it is unlikely that they enjoy adulthood outcomes as good as those reported for general education peers (Collett-Klingenberg, 1998; Kortering & Braziel, 1999).

Completion of High School Does Not Guarantee Being Prepared for Adulthood

Educational reform in the last decade has focused on both graduation rates and whether students who graduate are meeting specific standards set by states and districts. High school graduation is a key indicator of academic success for both individuals and education agencies. Unfortunately, completion of high school does not always guarantee preparation for the demands of adult living. For example, many young adults with learning disabilities leave the workforce because they are ill prepared to complete job-related activities and they face limited options for future job success (Adelman & Vogel, 1993). Similar findings are evident for individuals in other disability categories. Youths with emotional or behavioral disorders also struggle with finding and holding a job because they have difficulty following directions, staying on task in relation to specific job-related responsibilities (Schelly, Sample, & Kothe, 1995), and applying academic skills to job-related situations (Love & Malian, 1997). Graduates also report having difficulty with (a) completing job applications, because of the reading and writing required; (b) reading materials required for their jobs; and (c) using math skills in developing and maintaining a budget (Gottesman, 1994).

Thus, while high school completion is important to future success, it is even more critical that students obtain not just a diploma, but the skills critical to adult living. For example, Hasazi, Furney, and DeStefano (1999) noted that many students with disabilities are achieving academic success at the expense of careful transition planning. On the other hand, focusing on life skills often limits student access to interacting with their general education peers (Kohler, 1998). Finding the proper balance between academic and functional/vocational courses of study for students can be very difficult.

Taken together, the dismal postschool outcomes, drop-out rates, and apparent lack of academic and work-related skills could be disheartening for special educators. But we are an optimistic group. So instead, we have viewed these outcomes as a challenge and set about to make things better. As you will discover, the journey has been uneven and filled with failed attempts, but we are always moving forward.

Transition: Old Wine in a New Bottle

In what could be considered one of the most important articles published in the field of transition, Halpern (1992) described three transition movements: (a) the cooperative work/study movement of the 1960s; (b) the career education movement of the 1970s; and (c) the transition movement of the 1980s and 1990s.

Cooperative Work/Study Programs (1960s). Work/study programs emerged as a cooperative venture between public schools and local offices of state rehabilitation agencies to create an integrated program that included academic, social, and vocational curricula (Halpern, 1973). Work/study programs were primarily

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developed to help prepare students with mild disabilities to live in their home communities. The centerpiece of these programs was a formal cooperative agreement between a local school system and the vocational rehabilitation agency. The formal agreement typically involved assigning a classroom teacher as a work coordinator to spend a portion of the day helping students get work placements as a part of their high school program. In addition, the teacher/work coordinator helped refer students for vocational rehabilitation services.

Unfortunately, work/study programs were discontinued during the 1970s as a result of two problems. First, because of the way teachers/work coordinators' salaries were funded, a portion of the time had to be supervised by a representative of the rehabilitation agency. This extra supervision did not sit well with many high school principals. Second, the 1973 Rehabilitation Act Amendments (described in detail later in this chapter), stipulated that a rehabilitation agency could not pay for services that were the legitimate responsibility of another agency (for example, an educational agency such as a school system). This was not a problem until 1975, when Public Law (P.L.) 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, resulted in work-experience programs being considered an "appropriate" educational service. As a result, rehabilitation agencies could no longer pay for part of the salary for a teacher/work coordinator and work/study programs fell out of favor. However, the needs of the students they served did not go away.

Career Education (1970s). The career education movement started in 1970 when Sidney Marland, Commissioner of Education, declared career education to be the top priority of the United States Office of Education (Halpern, 1992). The federal focus on career education was expanded in 1974 with the addition of the Office of Career Education to the U.S. Office of Education, and again in 1977 with the passage of P.L. 95-207, The Career Education Implementation Incentive Act. Until P.L. 95-207, the career education movement was viewed as primarily a general education movement. However, P.L. 95-207 specifically mentioned students with disabilities as a potential audience for receiving career education services.

At about the same time, in 1976, the Council for Exceptional Children approved the formation of Division of Career Development. This formal endorsement of the concept of career development (Brolin, 1983; Cegelka, 1979; Hoyt, 1982) helped preserve the career education philosophy for students with disabilities when, in 1982, Congress repealed the funding for P.L. 95-207. The career education movement had expanded the limited focus of preparing only high school

DID YOU KNOW?

Career education started out as a general education movement.

students with mild disabilities for the workplace to one of preparing all students across elementary, middle, and high school years.

Transition (1980s–1990s). Given the foundations of work/study and career education programs, it is not surprising that the field of transition would rapidly expand during the 1980s and 1990s. This period started with Will's (1984) position paper on transition, Halpern's (1985) description of the three foundations of transition, and the special education outcome data from 1985 to 1990 and culminated in 1990 with P.L. 101-476, often called the "transition law."

In 1984, Madeline Will, the director of the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (OSERS), published a position paper on transition for her office that became known as the "bridges" model (see Figure 1.1). The OSERS transition model showed three bridges from high school to employment. The first bridge, called "No Special Services," referred to generic services that are available to anyone living in a community. For example, a trade school or a community college is one service people can use to facilitate their transition into employment. The second bridge, called "Time-Limited Services," referred to time-limited, special services for which a person with a disability must qualify. Vocational rehabilitation services are an example of time-limited services. The third bridge, called "Ongoing Services," referred to services available across an individual's life span. While Will recognized that this service was not widely available, since "supported employment" was still in its infancy, this model changed the focus to community employment and away from sheltered employment.

Shortly after the OSERS bridges model was introduced, the field responded by expanding the model to include additional pillars, including residential environments and social and interpersonal networks (Halpern, 1985). Figure 1.2

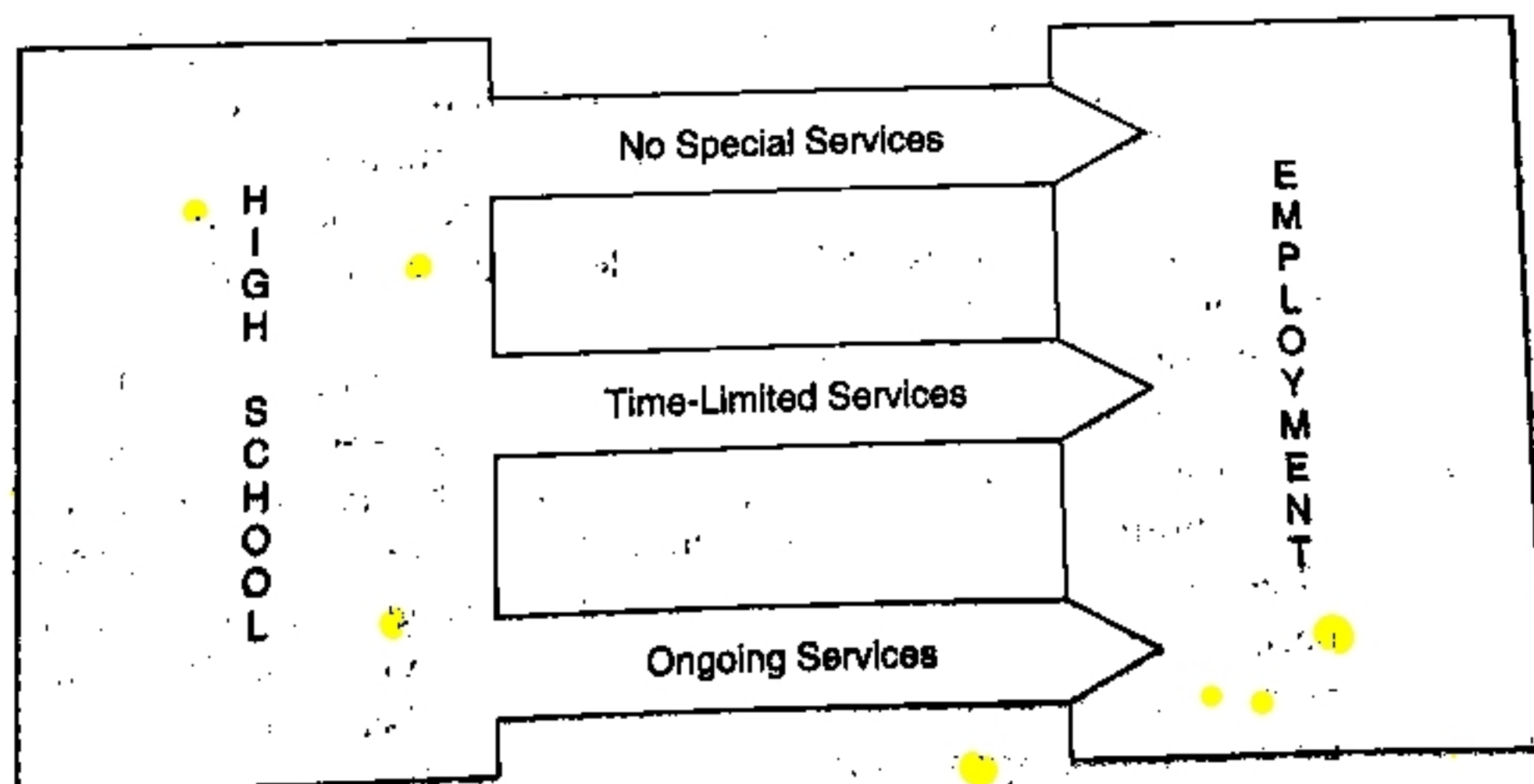


Figure 1.1
Major Components of the Transition Process

Note. From *OSERS Programming for the Transition of Youth with Disabilities: Bridges from School to Working Life* by M. Will, 1984, Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.

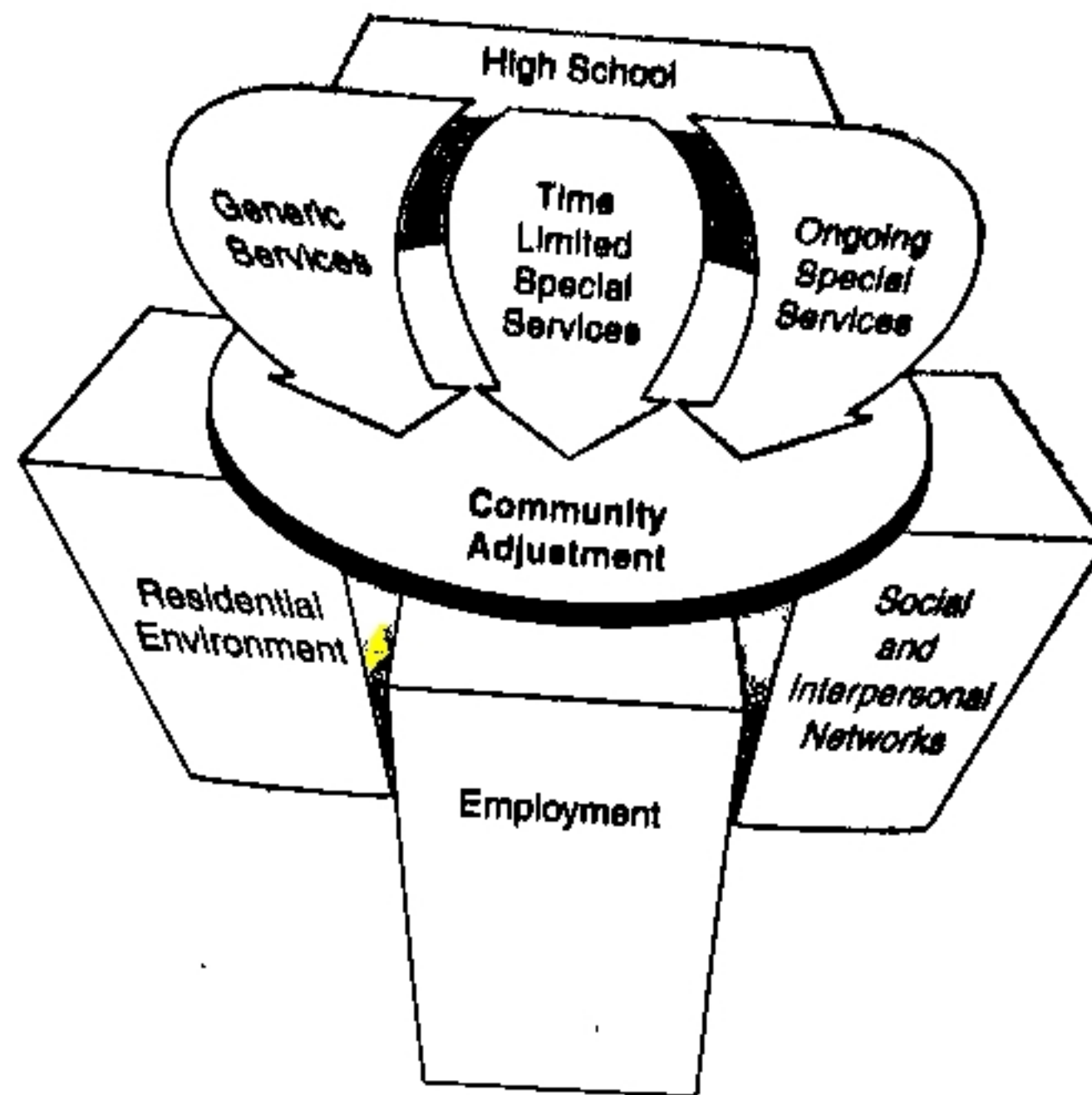


Figure 1.2
Revised Transition Model

Note. From *Transition: A look at the foundations* by Andrew S. Halpern, *Exceptional Children*, Vol. 51, 1985, pp. 479-486. Copyright 1985 by The Council for Exceptional Children. Reprinted with permission.

represents this expanded model. While the three bridges from the OSERS model (Will, 1984) were retained, the destination was expanded from employment only to community adjustment. Community adjustment rests on the three pillars of employment, residential environment, and social and interpersonal networks. These three pillars reflected the field's recognition of the fact that, to enjoy life, a person needs more than work.

Starting in the mid-1980s and continuing into the early 1990s, a series of studies were published that investigated the postsecondary outcomes of students with disabilities (Affleck, Edgar, Levine, & Kortering, 1990; Blackorby & Wagner, 1996; Frank, Sitlington, Cooper, & Cool, 1990; Hasazi, Gordon, & Roe, 1985). These studies, conducted in different states, geographic areas (i.e., urban, suburban, rural) with almost all types of students with disabilities, found that (a) while an average of 50% to 60% of students with disabilities were employed, only 20% to 30% were employed full time; (b) about 50% earned a salary at or above minimum wage; and (c) few held jobs that provided fringe benefits. These findings clarified the fact that although students with disabilities had been receiving a free, appropriate public education since 1975, their postschool outcomes were dismal. It was clear that something had to change.

Fortunately, help was on the way when P.L. 101-476, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), was signed into law on October 30, 1990. These landmark amendments to P.L. 94-142 defined transition services and added a transition component to the individualized education program (IEP; Storms, DeStefano, & O'Leary, 1996). While IDEA was the culmination of the three historical transition movements from 1960 to 1990 just described, it was also part of a legislative context for transition.

LEGAL MANDATES FOR TRANSITION

While the educational movements described in the previous section are one piece of the historical background leading to the legislative mandate for transition services, an equally important piece is the legislative context. Understanding both the historical background and current laws related to transition will ultimately help improve services to students, since educators will be more knowledgeable about the rights of their students and the responsibilities of others. To help you understand the transition-related legislation, we have divided the following section into three parts: rehabilitation-related legislation; educational legislation; and employment-related legislation, which includes vocational, general, and special education legislation. Figure 1.3 provides a chronological list of this legislation.

Rehabilitation-Related Legislation

The Vocational Rehabilitation Act, P.L. 93-112 (1973). This important law extended civil rights to people with disabilities by mandating equal opportunity (Section 503) and nondiscrimination (Section 504) in public workplaces and educational settings. Not surprisingly, much of this act was modeled after the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which prohibited discrimination based on race, color, or national origin (Heward, 2003). The Vocational Rehabilitation Act laid the foundation for later transition-related legislation in a number of ways. First, Section 504 included the statement that

no otherwise qualified handicapped individual in the United States, as defined by Section 7(6) shall, solely by reason of his handicap, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance.

As a result, this act affirmed the civil rights of people with disabilities.

Second, this act required the development of an individualized written rehabilitation plan (IWRP). The IWRP had to include a statement of long-range rehabilitation goals, types of rehabilitation, dates of services to be provided, and evaluation procedures. As such, the IWRP appeared to be a forerunner of the IEP mandated in P.L. 94-142 in 1975 (Sitlington, Clark, & Kolstoe, 2000).

1963	Vocational Education Act (P.L. 88-210)
1968	Vocational Education Act Amendments (P.L. 90-576)
1973	Vocational Rehabilitation Act (P.L. 93-112)
1975	Education for All Handicapped Children Act (P.L. 94-142)
1976	Vocational Education Act Amendments (P.L. 94-482)
1982	Job Training Partnership Act (P.L. 97-300)
1984	Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act (P.L. 98-524)
1986	Rehabilitation Act Amendment (P.L. 99-506)
1990	Americans with Disabilities Act (P.L. 101-336)
	Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Act (P.L. 101-392)
1992	Rehabilitation Act Amendments (P.L. 102-569)
1994	Goals 2000: Educate America Act (P.L. 103-227)
	School-to-Work Opportunities Act (P.L. 103-239)
1997	Individuals with Disabilities Education Act Amendments (P.L. 105-17)
1998	Rehabilitation Act Amendments (Title IV of P.L. 105-220)
	Workforce Investment Act (P.L. 105-220)
	Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Technical Education Act (P.L. 105-332)
2001	No Child Left Behind Act (P.L. 107-110)
2004	Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (P.L. 108-446)

Figure 1.3
Chronology of Transition-Related Legislation

Third, state rehabilitation programs were required to give priority to persons with the most severe disabilities. This recognition of the rights of people with severe disabilities by Congress paved the way for future legislation to strengthen the employment rights for this population.

Finally, the act recognized that living in the community and getting help with daily living activities is just as important as working, and that people with disabilities should have primary control over what services they receive and how they are provided. This legislative recognition of the fact that there is more to a person's life than his or her job foreshadowed the emphasis in Halpern's (1985) transition model on the three areas of community adjustment, not just work.

Rehabilitation Act Amendments, P.L. 99-506 (1986). While not directly related to transition, this act defined supported employment for state vocational rehabilitation programs. This continued congressional recognition of the right of persons with the most severe disabilities to be employed, as well as their need for ongoing employment support. First, the act redefined the concept of *employability* to include both part-time and full-time employment with supported employment services. Second, it provided funds (called Title VI, Part C, money) specifically designed to provide supported employment. Finally, it encouraged interagency cooperation between vocational rehabilitation agencies, which were mandated to

time-limited services, and other state agencies that were expected to provide long-term support services. The emergence of supported employment services for adults with disabilities was a major impetus for establishing community-based employment training programs in school systems across the nation.

Americans with Disabilities Act, P.L. 101-336 (1990). Signed on July 26, 1990, the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) extended civil rights protection from public sector employment (provided in the 1973 Vocational Rehabilitation Act, P.L. 93-112) to private sector employment and all public services, including transportation, public accommodations, and telecommunications.

In the area of *employment*, the ADA required that by July 26, 1994, no employers with 15 or more employees could refuse to hire or promote a person with a disability when the person was qualified to perform the job. In addition, employers were required to make "reasonable accommodations" for a person with a disability if it would allow the person to perform the essential functions of the job. "Reasonable accommodation" meant that if, by modifying a job's requirements or structure a person with a disability could perform a job, and the modification did not cause the employer undue hardship, the accommodation must be made. Although many businesses felt that making accommodations would cause them financial hardship, it quickly became evident that most reasonable accommodations cost relatively little.

In *transportation*, the ADA required that new vehicles purchased by public transit authorities, new buses by private transportation providers (such as Trailways and Greyhound), and new and existing rail stations be accessible to people with disabilities. Paratransit service for people with disabilities who cannot use the mainline transportation system was required unless provision would result in an undue financial burden.

In terms of *public accommodations*, ADA made it illegal to exclude or refuse services to people with disabilities. This meant that businesses and services that are used every day by all people, such as restaurants, grocery stores, schools, parks, and motels, must be accessible to people with disabilities. In addition, this required the provision of auxiliary services such as large-print materials, captioning, and tape-recorded materials to enable people with disabilities to use and enjoy the goods and service provided by public accommodations.

Finally, *telecommunication* companies were required to provide telephone relay services for the deaf (TDDs) 24 hours a day, 7 days a week, at regular rates.

DID YOU KNOW?

The Office of Disability Employment Policy of the U.S. Department of Labor offers a free website called the Job Accommodation Network (<http://www.jan.wvu.edu/>) to help people with disabilities and employers find suitable job accommodations.

Clearly the ADA was more than a piece of rehabilitation legislation. We included it here, however, because it expanded the employment possibilities of students and adults with disabilities by making communities and public services more accessible to everyone.

Rehabilitation Act Amendments, P.L. 102-569 (1992). The 1992 Amendments continued legislative recognition that

individuals with disabilities, including individuals with the most severe disabilities, are generally presumed to be capable of engaging in gainful employment and the provision of individualized vocational rehabilitation services can improve their ability to become gainfully employed. (Section 100. (a) (3) (A))

This introduced the concept of "presumption of benefit," which is the assumption that all individuals can benefit from vocational rehabilitation services unless the agency can demonstrate by "clear and convincing" evidence that an individual cannot benefit from employment because of a disability.

While this act continued to energize the national supported employment movement, it also reinforced the growing transition movement by removing barriers to interagency cooperation between school systems and vocational rehabilitation programs. First, the definition of transition services in this act was the same definition as that used in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1990 (P.L. 101-476). The fact that the definition and key provisions were the same for both acts is evidence of the influence of the same consumer and professional advocacy organizations that were involved in amending both laws.

Second, the act made it easier for high school students with disabilities to gain access to vocational rehabilitation services by: (a) allowing vocational rehabilitation counselors, in their intake procedures, to use existing assessment data provided by an individual with a disability, the family, an advocate, or an education agency if the report had been completed in the past year and (b) requiring that the IWRP be coordinated with a student's IEP.

Rehabilitation Act Amendments, Title IV of P.L. 105-220 (Workforce Investment Act of 1998). In 1998, the Rehabilitation Act Amendments were included in workforce development legislation to signal the integration of employment and training programs at the local, state, and federal levels. Title IV reinforced the notion of "presumption of benefit." Title IV also empowered individuals with disabilities by emphasizing the need for people with disabilities to have "informed choice" throughout the rehabilitation process. This effort to increase informed choice also led to increases in promoting self-determination for students with disabilities. Next, the IWRP was renamed the *individualized plan for employment (IPE)*. Finally, the act expanded employment outcomes to include self-employment and telecommunications.

Employment-Related Legislation

Job Training Partnership Act, P.L. 97-300 (1982). The Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) of 1982 was designed to replace the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) of 1973. CETA was originally designed to provide job training for economically disadvantaged youths and adults in urban settings. The JTPA of 1982 permanently authorized job training programs for economically disadvantaged individuals as well as other individuals who face serious barriers to employment. The act required that each state identify designated service delivery areas (SDAs) where JTPA programs would be established and administered by local private industry councils. These councils were to be comprised of representatives from both business and education.

Workforce Investment Act, P.L. 105-220 (1998). In 1998 Congress passed the Workforce Investment Act (WIA) to replace JTPA. WIA was based on the belief that all youths deserve access to career skills and training. One of the key principles of WIA was universal access through one-stop career centers. One-stop career centers are designed to provide seamless access to a variety of workforce development programs. While a number of federally funded programs are mandated as one-stop partners, the only mandated disability partner is the public vocational rehabilitation system. Services available at the one-stop centers are divided into three categories: core, intensive, and training (Hoff, 2002).

Core services focus on providing basic assistance in finding employment. *Intensive* services are typically provided on a one-to-one basis to individuals who need more than core services. *Training* services are designed for individuals for whom core and intensive services were not successful. Training services are provided through individual training accounts and can include occupational skills training, skills upgrading, and customized training for employers (Hoff, 2002).

While WIA mandated one-stop centers for all, it also called for combining traditional youth employment and training services. To be eligible for WIA youth services, an individual must be between the ages of 14 and 21, be low income, and meet at least one of the following six employment barriers:

1. Have a basic skills deficiency.
2. Be a school dropout.
3. Be homeless, a runaway, or a foster child.
4. Be a pregnant teen or teen parent.
5. Be an offender.
6. Require additional assistance to complete an educational program or to find and keep employment (University of Minnesota, 1999).

WIA also replaced private industry councils (from JTPA) with workforce investment boards. These boards are required to establish youth councils, which must include representatives of youth service agencies (including juvenile

justice), public housing authorities, Job Corps, parents, youths who were formerly program participants, and other persons who have experience related to youth activities. The workforce investment boards and youth councils must provide, at least, the following activities:

1. Tutoring, study skills training, and dropout prevention strategies.
2. Alternative secondary school services.
3. Summer employment opportunities that are linked to academic and occupational learning.
4. Paid and unpaid work experiences, including internships and job shadowing.
5. Occupational skill training.
6. Leadership development activities, including community service and peer-centered activities.
7. Adult mentoring for the period of participation and a subsequent period, for a total of not less than 12 months.
8. Follow-up services for not less than 12 months after the completion of participation.
9. Comprehensive guidance and counseling, which may include drug and alcohol abuse counseling and referral as appropriate. (University of Minnesota, 1999, p. 2)

School-Related Legislation

In this section we discuss legislation that was designed to impact directly on school-based programs. These include vocational education, general education, and special education programs.

Vocational Education Legislation Vocational Education Act and Amendments, P.L. 88-210 (1963), P.L. 90-576 (1968), and 94-482 (1976). The original Vocational Education Act (P.L. 88-210) was passed in 1963 with the intent of moving away from programs in specific occupations such as agriculture and home economics to meet a more diverse and rapidly changing labor market. The act contained funds for retraining adults, as well as vocational training for special populations. These special populations included persons with academic, social, or other challenges that prevented them from being successful in general vocational education programs. Thus, the act opened the door for students with disabilities to receive vocational education. However, no funds were directly set aside for students with disabilities.

This was remedied in 1968 with the amendments enacted in P.L. 90-576. These amendments directed states to spend a minimum of 10% of their federal vocational education funds for students with disabilities and 15% for students who were socially, economically, or academically disadvantaged. However, in spite of increased funding, few students with disabilities actually received vocational education services. Congress attempted to remedy this situation further by passing the Vocational Education Amendments of 1976 (P.L. 94-482). These amendments required states to match the 10% of federal monies required to be set aside for

students with disabilities with state and local dollars, thereby increasing the amount of money directly targeted to providing vocational education to students with disabilities. Together, these acts provided the impetus for making vocational education programs accessible to students with disabilities.

The Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act, P.L. 98-524 (1984), P.L. 101-392 (1990), and 105-332 (1998). With the passage of the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 (P.L. 98-524), Congress again affirmed the fact that high-quality vocational education programs were essential to our nation's future as a free and democratic society. The act had two basic goals. The first goal was to improve the work skills of the labor force, and the second goal was to provide equal opportunities for adults in vocational education. The Carl D. Perkins Act also affirmed that individuals with disabilities were entitled to participate in any program funded through the act. As stated in Section 2 (2) of P.L. 98-524, one of the purposes of the act is:

to assure that individuals who are inadequately served under vocational education programs are assured equal access to quality vocational educational programs, especially individuals who are disadvantaged, who are handicapped.

In addition, Section 204 stated that vocational education program activities would be provided in the least restrictive environment and, whenever appropriate, vocational education services should be included in a student's IEP.

The Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Act of 1990 (P.L. 101-392) amended and extended the 1984 act and authorized the largest amount of funds ever for vocational education. The act was again designed to make the United States more competitive in the world's economy, and a major goal was to provide greater vocational opportunities for disadvantaged persons. Basic state grants were exclusively targeted to so-called special populations. Special populations were divided into three categories. The first category was Disadvantaged Students; it included students who were academically disadvantaged, those who were economically disadvantaged, students from migrant populations, limited English proficiency, drop-outs, and potential drop-outs. The second category was Disabled/Handicapped Students and included students covered by IDEA and Section 504. The third category was Other Categories and included sex equity programs, foster children, and individuals in correctional institutions (North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2002). Chapter 7 provides more detail on the assurances guaranteed to students who participate in vocational education services provided under the Carl D. Perkins Act (see Figure 7.2 for a list of these assurances).

Finally, the Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Technical Education Act of 1998 (P.L. 105-332) removed set-asides for special populations, giving local school systems greater control over how funds were spent. However, at the same time the act called for more precise accountability by states. It required states to integrate academic and vocational competence and include them in accountability measures.

General Education Legislation School-to-Work Opportunities Act, P.L. 103-239 (1994). On April 20, 1994, Congress passed the School-to-Work Opportunities Act (STWOA). Similar to the goals of the transition provisions in IDEA (1990) (described in the next section), this law mandated that the secretaries of education and labor work collaboratively to improve postschool outcomes of secondary and postsecondary education. Many of the provisions outlined in legislation were parallel to those delineated in the transition provisions of IDEA. Key elements of STWOA included the following:

- ◆ Collaborative partnerships.
- ◆ Integrated curriculum.
- ◆ Technological advances.
- ◆ Adaptable workers.
- ◆ Comprehensive career guidance.
- ◆ Work-based learning.
- ◆ A step-by-step approach.

The goal was to encourage schools to integrate academic and vocational coursework. To do this, the basic elements of STWOA were divided into three major components: school-based learning, work-based learning, and connecting activities.

School-based learning involved providing students with instruction and experiences based on academic and occupational skill standards. Activities in this component included career awareness activities, career counseling, selection of a career major, applied academics, and regular evaluations to track student progress.

Work-based learning involved developing student learning activities to prepare students for the world of work. Activities in this component included workplace experiences, structured training, mentoring, and apprenticeships at job sites.

Finally, *connecting activities* were designed to build and maintain bridges between school, work, and other adult environments. The activities in this component included matching students with employers, establishing liaisons between education and work, job placement, further training assistance, linkages with youth development activities and industry, participation of business in a large variety of school-based and work-based activities, and postprogram outcome analysis.

The School-to-Work initiative was designed to be implemented by local partnerships consisting of representatives from local businesses and employer organizations, secondary and postsecondary institutions, community-based organizations, rehabilitation agencies, labor organizations, parent organizations, teacher organizations, rehabilitation agencies, student organizations, private industry councils, and other relevant parties. Local partnerships were responsible for determining activities under the work-based learning, school-based learning, and connecting activities components, determining measurable program goals and outcomes, establishing a plan for including all students in the area, providing paid work experiences, determining types of employer involvement, and providing opportunities for students to be involved in industries and occupations that offer high-skill,

high-wage employment opportunities. Although this law was not reauthorized by Congress, 6 months after STWOA expired 48 states continued to implement programs and services begun as a result of the act ("States Continue STW," 2002).

Goals 2000: Educate America Act, P.L. 103-227 (1994). Signed into law on March 3, 1994, this act provided resources to states and communities to ensure that all students reached their full potential. Goals 2000 established a framework to identify world-class academic standards, measure student progress, and provide support to help students meet the standards. To do this, Section 102 put forth the following eight national education goals:

By the Year 2000-

1. All children in America will start school ready to learn.
2. The high school graduation rate will increase to at least 90 percent.
3. All students will leave grades 4, 8, and 12 having demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter including English, mathematics, science, foreign languages, civics and government, economics, the arts, history, and geography, and every school in America will ensure that all students learn to use their minds well, so they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment in our nation's modern economy.
4. United States students will be first in the world in mathematics and science achievement.
5. Every adult American will be literate and will possess the knowledge and skills necessary to compete in a global economy and exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship.
6. Every school in the United States will be free of drugs, violence, and the unauthorized presence of firearms and alcohol and will offer a disciplined environment conducive to learning.
7. The nation's teaching force will have access to programs for the continued improvement of their professional skills and the opportunity to acquire the knowledge and skills needed to instruct and prepare all American students for the next century.
8. Every school will promote partnerships that will increase parental involvement and participation in promoting the social, emotional, and academic growth of children. <http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/issues/envrnmnt/stw/sw0goals.htm>

No Child Left Behind Act, P.L. 107-110 (2001). The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act made a bold commitment that every child, regardless of race, family background, or disability status would learn. Some of the major provisions include the following:

- © Establishing accountability for results.
- © Creating flexibility at the state and local levels and reducing red tape.
- © Expanding options for parents of children from disadvantaged backgrounds.
- © Ensuring that every child can read with the Reading First initiative.
- © Strengthening teacher quality.