TEACHING YOUNG ADULTS WITH INTELLECTUAL AND DEVELOPMENTAL DISABILITIES TO RESPOND APPROPRIATELY TO LURES FROM STRANGERS

By

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INTRODUCTION

When most people think about the dangers posed by a stranger, they think about a young child being kidnapped, and possibly sexually abused or killed. People seldom consider the dangers posed by strangers toward children or adults with intellectual and developmental disabilities (IDD). But individuals with IDD are at great risk of abuse and exploitation at the hands of strangers. Compared to adults without IDD, adults with disabilities are at least twice as likely to experience crimes against the person, including physical and sexual assault, robbery, and theft (Wilson & Brewer, 1992).

While there is little empirical evidence documenting incidences of victimization of individuals with IDD by strangers (often due to lack of reporting; Haseltine & Miltenberger, 1990), parents express concern for the individual's safety. In fact, parents are so worried about safety that a desire to protect their child becomes a major barrier to allowing them to attend post-secondary education, obtain a job, or live independently (Griffin, McMillan, & Hodapp, in press). Parents of individuals with IDD have also expressed a desire for their child to learn self-protection skills related to advances from strangers (Kolb & Hanley-Maxwell, 2003; Mechling, 2008). Unfortunately, despite the present need for safety training, research on prevention programs for individuals with IDD are largely limited to sexual abuse prevention training. While sexual abuse is one form of exploitation that must be addressed, individuals with IDD need to be taught more

basic safety skills, such as learning to respond appropriately to a stranger who presents a lure.

Perpetrators often use lures to entice an individual to go with them voluntarily (Beck & Miltenberger, 2009). For example, a stranger will often approach an individual and then present a lure, such as an offer to buy the individual a soda or a request for assistance, in order to move him or her away from a safe place (Beck & Miltenberger; Holcombe, Wolery, & Katzenmeyer, 1995; Marchand-Martella, Huber, Martella, & Wood, 1996; Poche, Brouwer, & Swearingen, 1981; Poche, Yoder, & Miltenberger, 1988). Once lured away from a safe environment, the individual is at risk of being kidnapped, sexually abused, robbed, or otherwise taken advantage of by the stranger. Individuals with IDD are particularly susceptible to this technique, as they are often raised in a culture of obedience in which they are rewarded for compliance and passivity (Westcott & Jones, 1999). They may also be at risk due to increased sociability and decreased ability to discern poor intentions in other individuals (Davies, Udwin, & Howlin, 1998; Greenspan, Loughlin, & Black, 2001; Petersilia, 2001). Furthermore, individuals with IDD are often sought after by perpetrators, as they are considered easy targets.

Teaching Appropriate Responding to Strangers

Because individuals with and without disabilities are often enticed to leave with a stranger after the presentation of a lure, interventions have been developed to teach a three-step safety response. First, participants are taught to say “no” to the stranger. Second, participants are to walk or run away from the stranger in the direction of a safe

adult. Finally, participants are taught to report the event to a trusted adult to raise awareness of a predator in the area.

In an effort to develop the most effective training program, early research examined various methods to teach safety skills to children. Certain commercially-available materials and products, such as coloring books or video programs, were initially found to be ineffective in teaching abduction-prevention skills (Carroll-Rowan & Miltenberger, 1994; Miltenberger & Thiesse-Duffy, 1988; Miltenberger, Thiesse-Duffy, Suda, Kozak, & Bruellman, 1990; Poche et al., 1988). Rather, children were more likely to learn the skills through behavior skills training (BST), consisting of instruction, modeling, rehearsal in either simulated or naturalistic settings, or both, and praise and corrective feedback (Beck & Miltenberger, 2009; Carroll-Rowan & Miltenberger; Marchand-Martella et al., 1996; Olsen-Woods, Miltenberger, & Foreman, 1998, Poche et al.; Poche et al., 1981).

While children were able to display the safety skills during role-plays associated with BST, these skills did not generalize to more natural settings outside of the classroom. Results of *in situ* assessments indicated that, while children could report and perform the appropriate behavior in role-play scenarios, at least half of the participants did not display the safety skills during *in situ* assessments conducted posttraining (Carroll-Rowan & Miltenberger, 1994; Miltenberger et al., 1990; Olson-Woods et al., 1998). During an *in situ* assessment, an adult led the participant to a specified location and then invented an excuse to leave the individual there alone. Once alone, a confederate stranger approached and presented a lure. Data were collected on how the participant responded to the confederate stranger following the presentation of the lure.

In response to participants' failure to display the safety skills during *in situ* assessments after learning the skills through BST, researchers added *in situ* training to increase generalization to real-world settings. *In situ* training was conducted immediately following the participant's failure to demonstrate the safety skills during an *in situ* assessment. If the appropriate response was not displayed, the trainer appeared in the environment and rehearsed the safety skills until the participant exhibited the correct response three to five consecutive times (Johnson, Miltenberger, Egemo-Helm, Jostad, Flessner, et al., 2005; Johnson, Miltenberger, Knudson, Egemo-Helm, Kelso, et al., 2006; Marchand-Martella et al., 1996; Poche et al., 1981).

After examining the use of *in situ* training alone and combined with BST, skill acquisition was most effective when training initially occurred in a controlled environment (e.g., classroom) and was then moved to natural environments in which lures were more likely to occur (Johnson et al., 2006; Marchand-Martella et al., 1996; Poche et al., 1981). Unfortunately, about half of participants still did not maintain use of the three safety steps posttraining. Due to the strict criteria of performing the three steps, the interventions were deemed ineffective. If researchers looked at performance of the behaviors individually (e.g., just saying "no", or just walking away), however, interventions could be considered more successful at decreasing risk.

Results are even poorer for individuals with IDD. First, few studies have expanded interventions using BST and *in situ* training to teach individuals with IDD how to respond to strangers. Second, the studies that were conducted have reported mixed results. Watson, Bain, and Houghton (1992) combined a social skills curriculum and BST to teach self-protection skills to children with moderate to severe intellectual disability

(ID). After no child displayed the appropriate safety response during the *in situ* assessment following completion of classroom training, *in situ* training sessions were conducted. Posttraining and follow-up assessments revealed that, while most participants demonstrated acquisition of the verbal component ("no"), motor and reporting behaviors remained inconsistent. The authors concluded, then, that participants did not learn the skills.

Similarly, Gast, Collins, Wolery, and Jones (1993) found that, for 4 preschool children with IDD, BST resulted in the rapid acquisition of the self-protection skills during role-play, but skills did not generalize during *in situ* assessments. Implementation of *in situ* training led to criterion responding for 3 of the 4 children and correct responding was maintained by 2 of 3 participants for 2 months after training was completed. These two studies indicated that, for children with IDD, classroom training leads to acquisition of the skills in role-play situations, but use of the skills does not generalize to simulated situations of stranger lures. Following implementation of intense *in situ* training, however, generalization and maintenance increase.

Similar results have also been found for adults with IDD. Collins, Schuster, and Nelson (1992) implemented daily *in situ* training to teach self-protection skills to 3 adults with severe ID. Again, while the target responses were rapidly displayed during role-play, the participants did not generalize all of the safety skills to *in situ* assessments. During the first maintenance assessment, all participants performed the motor response of walking away, but only one maintained this behavior during the second maintenance assessment. Finally, Haseltine and Miltenberger (1990) used a BST curriculum to teach self-protection skills to 8 adults with mild ID. Five of eight participants successfully

performed the self-protection skills following BST and skills maintained for most participants. *In situ* training was conducted with those who did not respond appropriately, and led to skill acquisition for two more participants.

Across studies, then, BST followed by *in situ* training leads to the most effective generalization and maintenance of the safety skills for children and adults with and without IDD (Collins et al., 1992; Gast et al., 1993; Johnson et al., 2005; Johnson et al., 2006; Marchand-Martella et al., 1996; Poche et al., 1981; Watson et al., 1992). Unfortunately, numerous limitations are associated with *in situ* training. First, while *in situ* training is necessary to enhance skill acquisition, the large numbers of *in situ* assessments participants experience are often not realistic. For example, most individuals with or without IDD will never have to respond to a lure by a perpetrator (Beck & Miltenberger, 2009; Marchand-Martella et al., 1996; Miltenberger & Olsen, 1996). To suddenly experience multiple lures over weeks to months may be unrealistic for individuals participating in the interventions.

Second, experiencing numerous *in situ* assessments can lead to adverse side effects, such as increased fear of strangers and fear of being left alone in public settings (Johnson et al., 2005; Johnson et al., 2006). Finally, too many *in situ* training sessions could lead to decreased performance due to desensitization, as participants begin to expect the stranger to walk away without any adverse events occurring (Collins et al., 1992; Miltenberger & Olsen, 1996). Thus, research is still needed to determine ways to teach skills *in situ* so as to ensure generalization, but to decrease the number of *in situ* assessments.

The Current Study

The purpose of this study, then, was to evaluate the effectiveness of a safety training combining BST and *in situ* training to enhance generalization, while reducing the number of *in situ* assessments experienced by participants. Similar to Gast and colleagues (1993), a multiple probe design was used to decrease the number of *in situ* assessments conducted prior to the start of training. The methods of previous research were then adapted to separate *in situ* assessments from *in situ* training. Rather than conducting *in situ* training only if a participant failed an *in situ* assessment, *in situ* training sessions were conducted with all participants, following completion of the BST phase. This procedure allowed participants to rehearse the skills *in situ*, but decreased the number of stranger approaches that occurred. Generalization assessments were then conducted at random, during each phase of the study.

A second purpose of this study was to expand the research literature to determine the effectiveness of this intervention for young adults with IDD. Currently, only four studies have been conducted with individuals with IDD, and only one included adults with mild ID. Young adults with mild ID are the most likely group to be in community settings without constant adult supervision. This population, therefore, is most at risk of experiencing a stranger lure, and they need to learn the appropriate safety response. Self-protection from strangers still needs to be taught to individuals with disabilities; especially to individuals who are more social, less wary of strangers, and more likely to wander away from trusted individuals in public settings.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Participants

Once the university institutional review board approved the research, the study was advertised through the University's web-based recruitment tool, StudyFinder. Using StudyFinder, parents search for research studies by category and then contact the researcher for more information or to participate. In 2009, StudyFinder had 21,954 visits, with an average of 447 hits per week. Once parents expressed interest in training, participants were screened for the inclusion criteria.

Individuals with IDD

The initial pool of participants included 6 young adults with IDD (4 males and 2 females) living in a southern metropolitan area. To screen participants for inclusion, parents were interviewed using the *Vineland Adaptive Behavior Scales- Second Edition* (VABS; Sparrow, Cicchetti, & Balla, 2005) and they completed a short demographic questionnaire. The *Kaufman Brief Intelligence Test, Second Edition* (K-BIT; Kaufman & Kaufman, 2004) was administered to establish an intelligence quotient (IQ). Finally, participants received an *in situ* assessment to measure use of the safety skill of walking away.

Inclusion criteria included: (a) mild to moderate intellectual disability (IQ 45-70); (b) living at home with parent/guardian; (c) verbal communication; (d) able to follow

three-part instructions; (e) no recent training on how to appropriately respond to strangers (within the past 5 years); (f) willing to interact with strangers; (g) accompanied parents on community outings; and (h) did not walk away from a stranger during the *in situ* assessment. Five individuals met these inclusion criteria and were asked to remain in the study (Table 1). The sixth potential participant did not meet the minimum IQ requirement.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Participant	Gender	Age	Diagnosis	FSIQ
Emma	F	22	CP, ADD, Mild ID, seizure disorder	53
Wyatt	M	21	Down syndrome	67
Ben	M	23	Autism	68
Tim	M	20	Mild ID, ADD	54
Elliott	M	22	Down syndrome	46

Emma (pseudonym) graduated from high school with a special education degree and currently worked part-time as support staff in an inclusive preschool. Midway through training, Emma began attending a post-secondary education program at the University. Her mother expressed a desire for Emma to participate in the training because she was unable to "fully assess what could be a dangerous situation." Emma achieved an IQ of 53 and an Adaptive Behavior Composite (VABS) score of 80. She had a standard score of 113 on the communication domain of the VABS; she was able to follow three-part instructions (score = 2) and to follow instructions heard at least 5 minutes before (2).

Emma had a standard score of 73 on the socialization domain of the VABS; she received a score of 0 on two of three questions related to displaying appropriate social caution (e.g., she does not stop or stay away from relationships or situations that are hurtful or dangerous and she is not aware of potential danger and does not use caution when encountering risky social situations). Emma's mother reported she was not prone to high anxiety and she was not afraid of strangers.

Wyatt graduated with a special education degree from a private high school and currently worked part-time at a hospital. His mother indicated she was concerned that he could be taken advantage of because he is "very trusting and always thinks the best of other people." Wyatt achieved an IQ of 67 and an Adaptive Behavior Composite score of 66. He had a standard score of 72 on the communication domain of the VABS; he was able to follow three-part instructions (2) and to follow instructions heard at least 5 minutes before (2). Wyatt had a standard score of 68 on the socialization domain of the VABS; he was rated as unable to display appropriate social caution. Wyatt's mother reported he did not have high anxiety and he was not afraid of strangers.

Ben graduated with a special education degree and did not have a job. He occasionally went on community outings with the local parks and recreation disability group, but spent most days home alone. His mother indicated she was concerned that he could be taken advantage of. Ben achieved an IQ of 68 and an Adaptive Behavior Composite score of 47. He had a standard score of 25 on the communication domain of the VABS; he was able to sometimes follow three-part instructions (1) and to follow instructions heard at least 5 minutes before (2). Ben had a standard score of 22 on the socialization domain of the VABS; he was sometimes able to display appropriate social

caution. Ben's mother reported he was not prone to high anxiety and he was not afraid of strangers.

Tim graduated high school with a special education degree and worked part-time as a bagger at his local grocery store. His mother indicated she was concerned that he could be taken advantage of because he "is very friendly, will strike up a conversation with anyone". Tim achieved an IQ of 54 and an Adaptive Behavior Composite score of 65. He had a standard score of 69 on the communication domain of the VABS; he was able to follow three-part instructions (2) and to follow instructions heard at least 5 minutes before (2). Tim had a standard score of 67 on the socialization domain of the VABS; he was unable to display appropriate social caution. Tim's mother reported he was somewhat anxious around strangers, but she was not concerned that this anxiety would worsen with the training.

Finally, Elliott graduated from high school with a special education degree and worked as a stocker at his local grocery store. His mother indicated she was concerned that he could be taken advantage of because "he is encouraged to be friendly with strangers in his job…he lacks good judgment in some situations." Elliott achieved an IQ of 46 and an Adaptive Behavior Composite score of 32. He scored a 21 on the communication domain of the VABS; he was able to follow three-part instructions (2) and to sometimes follow instructions heard at least 5 minutes before (1). Elliott scored a 40 on the socialization domain of the VABS; he was unable to display appropriate social caution. Elliott's mother reported he was not prone to high anxiety and he was friendly toward strangers.

Confederate Strangers

Confederate strangers ($N = 29$) conducted *in situ* assessments throughout the study. Confederates were unknown to the participants and were recruited from an undergraduate and graduate Special Education program, as well as through family and friends. Strangers varied in age, gender, and physical characteristics (hair style/color, facial hair, style of dress; Table 2). Confederates conducted no more than two assessments per participant. If a confederate stranger conducted a second assessment with a participant, it was a minimum of 2 months later, and the location and lure were changed.

Confederate strangers attended a one-hour training session to learn the procedures for conducting a lure and collecting data. Training consisted of an explanation of the study and procedures, behavior modeling, and rehearsal. While confederates rehearsed the procedures with a partner, the researcher observed each pair, provided corrective feedback or descriptive praise, and collected procedural fidelity data. Prior to conducting *in situ* assessments, all confederates completed 3 consecutive role-play scenarios with 100% accuracy.

Setting

Settings varied by phase of the study. Behavior skills training sessions were conducted either in a research room at the university (Emma, Wyatt, and Ben) or at the public library (Tim and Elliott). The first day of training was conducted entirely in the "classroom". On all subsequent training days, role-plays were conducted in the "classroom" and in surrounding areas (e.g., hallways, sidewalks).

Table 2

Demographic Information of Confederate Strangers

Confederate ID	Age	Gender	Race	Eye Color	Hair Color
A	19	Female	White	Green	Brown
B	19	Female	Hispanic	Brown	Brown
C	22	Female	White	Brown	Brown
D	22	Female	White	Brown	Brown
E	22	Female	White	Brown	Brown
F	23	Female	White	Gray	Brown
G	23	Female	White	Brown	Brown
H	23	Female	White	Brown	Blond
I	23	Female	White	Brown	Brown
J	24	Female	White	Brown	Brown
K	24	Female	White	Blue	Blond
L	25	Female	White	Gray	Brown
M	25	Female	White	Brown	Brown
N	25	Female	White	Brown	Brown
O	26	Female	White	Brown	Brown
P	26	Male	White	Brown	Brown
Q	27	Male	White	Brown	Brown
R	27	Female	White	Brown	Red-blond
S	28	Male	White	Green	Brown
T	28	Female	White	Blue	Blond
U	29	Male	White	Brown	Brown
V	29	Female	White	Blond	Blue
W	31	Female	White	Brown	Red
X	34	Female	White	Blue	Brown
Y	35	Male	White	Blue	Brown
Z	36	Male	White	Blue	Brown
AA	37	Female	White	Brown	Brown
BB	54	Male	White	Blue	Blond
CC	58	Female	White	Brown	Green

In situ training was conducted in three different community settings for each participant. Emma completed *in situ* training at a coffee shop, a recreation center, and around her college campus. Wyatt completed *in situ* training at the campus bookstore, a

fast food restaurant, and in areas around the hospital grounds where he worked. Ben completed *in situ* training at a grocery store, a clothing store, and a hardware store. Tim completed *in situ* training at a coffee shop, a grocery store, and a recreation center. Finally, Elliott completed *in situ* training at a drug store, a discount superstore, and a recreation center.

Baseline, generalization, and maintenance *in situ* assessments were conducted in multiple community settings. As many new locations as possible were used in order to enhance generalization and ensure an adequate assessment of the generalized use of the safety skills. Community locations included grocery stores, malls, department stores, fast food restaurants, retail stores, recreation centers, bowling alleys, gas stations, drug stores, sporting events, and the area outside the place of employment (Table 3). Every effort was made to use novel locations for each assessment and no location was used more than once with the same participant in the same week. If the same location was used, the lure took place in a different area of the location each time (e.g., outside the basketball arena vs. waiting in line at the concession stand). A researcher was present and watching from a hidden location during all assessments, to collect data and to intervene if a real stranger approached the participant.

Independent Variable

The independent variable was an individualized intervention designed to teach self-protection skills to young adults with IDD. This intervention consisted of two

Table 3. Strangers, Lures, and Location Used for Each In Situ Assessment.

	Phase	Stranger*	Location	Type of Lure	Response**	Reliability/ PF
Emma						
	Baseline					
		L	Grocery Store	Assistance	0%	100%
		AA	Discount Clothes Store	Assistance	0%	100%
		R	Coffee Shop	Incentive	0%	100%
	Phase 1					
		O	Drug Store	Authority	0%	100%
		U	Bookstore	Incentive	100%	100%
	Phase 2					
		W	Clothing Store	General	0%	100%
		T	Campus Bookstore	Incentive	100%	
	Maintenance					
		P	Laundromat	Incentive	100%	100%
		C	Street near YMCA	General	100%	
		H	Campus Dining	Authority	100%	100%
		E	Department Store	Authority	100%	
		K	Outside work	Assistance	100%	100%
	Monthly Maintenance					
	1	S	Drug Store	Assistance	100%	100%
	2	CC	Campus Student Center	General	100%	100%
	3	V	Grocery Store	Incentive	100%	100%
Wyatt						
	Baseline					
		J	Fast Food Restaurant	Incentive	0%	100%
		U	Grocery Store	Assistance	0%	100%
		Z	Campus Student Center	Authority	0%	100%

Table 3, Continued

	Phase 1					
		W	Outside Work	Assistance	100%	100%
		P	Recreation Center	General	0%	100%
	Phase 2					
		B	Outside work	Authority	100%	
		G	Basketball Stadium	Incentive	100%	100%
	Maintenance					
		N	Outside sporting event	General	0%	
		C	Concessions Stand	Assistance	100%	100%
		X	Fast Food Restaurant	Authority	0%	
		F	Discount Superstore	Assistance	100%	
	Monthly Maintenance					
	1	I	Outside work	General	100%	100%
	2	S	Grocery Store	General	100%	
	3	CC	Campus Student Center	Assistance	100%	100%
Ben						
	Baseline					
		S	Hardware Store I	Assistance	0%	100%
		G	Craft Store	Incentive	0%	100%
		P	Outdoors Store	Authority	0%	100%
		R	Discount Superstore	Assistance	0%	100%
	Phase 1					
		C	Video Store	Incentive	100%	
		AA	Electronics Store I	General	0%	
	Phase 2					
		T	Hardware Store I	Assistance	100%	
	Maintenance					
		A	Pet Store I	Incentive	100%	
		W	Electronics Store II	General	100%	

Table 3, Continued

		X	Pet Store II		***	
		K	Grocery Store	Assistance	100%	100%
	Monthly Maintenance					
	1	BB	Office Store	Assistance	0%	100%
	2	CC	Hardware Store II	Incentive	100%	100%
	3	E	Grocery Store	General	100%	100%
Tim						
	Baseline					
		S	Bowling Alley	Incentive	0%	100%
		Y	Outside work	Authority	0%	100%
		L	Recreation center	General	0%	100%
		C	Children's Hospital	Incentive	0%	100%
	Phase 1					
		G	Clothing Store	Incentive	100%	100%
	Phase 2					
		Q	Food Court	General	100%	100%
	Maintenance					
		U	Gas Station	General	100%	
		D	Campus Dining	Authority	100%	100%
		W	Mall Store	General	0%	
	Monthly Maintenance					
	1	M	Drug Store	Assistance	100%	100%
	2	CC	Recreation Center	Assistance	100%	100%
	3	E	Department Store	Incentive	100%	100%
Elliott						
	Baseline					
		R	Drug Store I	Assistance	0%	100%
		AA	Discount Superstore I	General	0%	100%
		L	Recreation Center	Authority	0%	100%

Table 3, Continued

	G	Grocery Store	Assistance	0%	100%
	BB	Outdoors Store	Assistance	0%	100%
	S	Discount Superstore II	General	100%	100%
Phase 1					
	O	Discount Superstore I	Incentive	100%	
	T	Fast Food Restaurant	Assistance	0%	100%
	J	Clothing Store	General	0%	
Phase 2					
	U	Gas Station	General	100%	100%
Maintenance					
	E	Drug Store II	Authority	0%	
Monthly Maintenance					
1	M	Drug Store I	General	100%	100%
2	CC	Recreation Center	Assistance	100%	100%
3	S	Discount Superstore II	Incentive	100%	100%

* See Table 2 for stranger demographics
** Response: 0% = did not walk away, 100% = did walk away
*** Did not occur, Ben would not let him mom walk away because he saw a stranger near them

phases: Phase 1: Classroom BST and Phase 2: *in situ* training. All participants completed training in the same order, first attending classroom BST sessions and then rehearsing skills during *in situ* training sessions.

Target Behavior

Participants were taught a three-step safety response to use when presented with a lure from a stranger:

(1) *Refuse the request*. Within 3 s of the delivery of a lure, the participants were instructed to say, "no, I have to find/ask my ____(mother, father, friend, etc)".

(2) *Move away from the stranger*. Within 3 s of the initial refusal, the participants were to move at least 5 steps away from the stranger in the direction of a safe adult (e.g., the individual who accompanied them to the location, a store employee).

(3) *Report the incident*. Participants were to locate a trusted adult within 5 min and report the lure.

The dependent variable was moving at least 5 steps away from the confederate stranger within 3 s of a lure presentation. Because movement away from a stranger is the most important safety response, this component was the only response used to measure accurate performance of the safety skills (Collins et al., 1992). The three-step safety response, however, was still described, modeled, rehearsed, and measured. The verbal refusal was taught to serve as a self-prompt for the participant to walk away from the stranger toward the trusted adult (Collins et al.); the participant was instructed to report

the incident so as to raise awareness of a potential predator in the area (Holcombe et al., 1995). Once training began, the parent provided reinforcement following assessments for displaying any of the three steps.

Observers and Interobserver Agreement

During all *in situ* assessments, the confederate stranger served as the primary observer of the participant's verbal response (provide refusal within 3 s) and motor response (moved at least 5 steps away within 3 s). The parent served as the primary observer for whether the participant reported the incident after the assessment. The researcher acted as the reliability observer of the participant's verbal and motor responses during *in situ* assessments. The researcher was the primary observer of the participant's behavior during classroom and *in situ* training.

Interobserver agreement (IOA) was calculated by dividing the number of agreements by the number of agreements plus disagreements for each of the target responses (did not go with the stranger, said "no", moved away) and multiplying by 100 (Kennedy, 2005). Two observers recorded the participant's behavior during 100% of baseline assessments, 59% of generalization assessments (10/17), and 63% of maintenance assessments (20/32). IOA was 100% for all *in situ* assessments. Two research assistants recorded that participant's behavior during 44% of the classroom BST role-play sessions (7/16) and 33% of *in situ* training role-play sessions (5/15). IOA was 100% for all training sessions.

Experimental Design

To evaluate the efficacy of the intervention, this study used a multiprobe multiple baseline design across participants (Horner & Baer, 1978; Kennedy, 2005). This design was used because participants were not expected to learn the behavior prior to intervention. Further, weekly assessments prior to baseline helped to prevent desensitization to lures from strangers, but allowed sufficient data to be collected prior to instruction to identify any threats to internal validity, such as maturation and history (Gast et al., 1993). Thus, behavior was probed on a weekly basis during baseline, until the week immediately preceding intervention, during which baseline was assessed more frequently.

Procedure

Research Assistants

Four female special education graduate students (ages 22-30, 3 white, 1 Asian) served as research assistants. Prior to the start of the study, all assistants attended a 1-hour training for intervention implementation and data collection. Behavior skills training procedures were explained and the research assistants were asked to rehearse the procedures. The research assistants were also trained to collect procedural fidelity data of the BST procedures, as well as data for *in situ* assessments. Research assistants were considered trained when IOA reached 100% on 3 consecutive role-plays.

Baseline

Participants received three to six *in situ* assessments during baseline. Baseline was conducted one time every 1-2 weeks until the week before intervention. During the week prior to intervention, baseline assessments were conducted more frequently (3 times). No feedback was provided for performance during baseline. The criterion response, moving 5 steps away from the confederate stranger within 3 s, was used as the indicator of skill performance. If participants walked at least 5 steps away from the stranger within 3 s, they received a score of 100%. If participants either agreed to go with the stranger or said "no" but did not move away, they received a score of 0%.

Phase 1: Classroom BST

Each participant completed daily, individualized classroom BST sessions, consisting of instruction, modeling, rehearsal, praise, and corrective feedback. One to two researchers, the parent, and the participant were present for all classroom BST sessions.

The researcher first presented a PowerPoint presentation about what a stranger is, the four types of lures used by a stranger, and the appropriate safety response when presented with a lure. Multiple examples of the four types of lures were presented, including: general ("Would you like to come look at the shirts in a different store with me?"); authority ("You mom is running late and asked me to pick you up."); incentive ("I will buy you a soda if you come with me?"); and assistance ("Can you help me carry this to my car?").

Following the PowerPoint presentation, the participant was asked to repeat the appropriate safety steps. Once the participant was able to recite the three steps with 100%

accuracy without prompting, the researcher and parent modeled 4 examples and 2 counter-examples of appropriate responding in the context of each of the four types of lures.

During the modeled examples, the researcher described that she was playing the part of the participant and the parent was playing the part of the stranger. A brief background story was presented, and then the parent approached the researcher and presented the lure. The researcher said "no", walked away, and pretended to report the lure. At the end of the demonstration, the participant was asked if the researcher displayed the appropriate safety skills and to repeat the three safety steps. Two additional counter-examples were randomly interspersed within the modeled examples. During these counter-examples, the researcher did not display the appropriate safety skill (either agreed to go with the stranger, or said "no" but did not move away). The participant was asked if the researcher displayed the appropriate safety skills, to describe what the researcher did wrong, and to state what the researcher should have done.

After the modeled responding was complete, the participant practiced appropriate responding in the context of five different role-play scenarios, involving at least one example of each type of lure. Similar to the modeled situation, a short description of a scenario was provided and then the participant acted out how he or she would respond. Specifically, after describing the scene, the researcher approached the participant and delivered the lure. If the participant responded appropriately, behavior-specific praise was provided and the next role-play began. If the participant did not respond appropriately, further instruction was provided (through verbal or physical prompting) and the role-play was repeated.

The outcome measure was the percentage of role-play scenarios in which the participant acted out moving at least 5 steps away within 3 s, without prompting. This percentage was derived by dividing the number of role-play scenarios in which the participant independently moved at least 5 steps away within 3 s by the five role-play scenarios. Criterion performance was a score of 80% (4 of 5 role-plays without prompting) or above. The researcher conducting the training session collected the data.

At least two generalization *in situ* assessments were conducted during Phase 1. These assessments were completed independent of training and participants were unaware they were being tested. At least one assessment was conducted prior to completion of BST and one was conducted after criterion was met for Phase 1, but before the start of Phase 2. Generalization assessments were conducted in the exact same manner as baseline. Participants did, however, receive behavior specific praise from the parent if they reported the event.

Phase 2: *in situ* training

Within 1 week of the final classroom BST session, *in situ* training was conducted every 1-3 days in community locations. During each session, the researcher first asked the participant to recite the safety response. Then the researcher and participant completed 5 role-play scenarios around the location. Role-play procedures were identical to those during classroom BST. *In situ* training continued until the participant responded appropriately to at least 80% of role-play scenarios for three consecutive *in situ* training sessions.

At least two generalization *in situ* assessments were conducted during Phase 2. Again, these assessments were completed independent of training and participants were unaware they were being tested. At least one assessment was conducted prior to completion of *in situ* training and one was conducted after criterion was met for Phase 2.

Maintenance

Maintenance and follow-up sessions were conducted in exactly the same manner as generalization. Maintenance sessions were completed once every one to two weeks while the other participants were in the intervention phases. Once all participants completed intervention, follow-up assessments were conducted once per month for 3 months (Table 4).

Table 4

Procedures for Each Phase of Study.

	Baseline	Phase 1	Phase 2	Maintenance
Procedure	*In situ* assessment	Instruction Model Role-play	Instruction Role-play	In situ assessment
Location	Community	Classroom	Community	Community
Criterion responding	Do not walk away (0%)	Independent performance for 4 of 5 role plays, 3 consecutive days (At least 80%)	Independent performance for 4 of 5 role plays, 3 consecutive sessions (At least 80%)	Walk away (100%)
How often conducted	Weekly, then every 1-2 days	Daily	Every 1-2 days	Weekly, then monthly

Booster sessions

If the participant failed to move away from the confederate stranger during a follow-up maintenance assessment, a booster session was conducted one week after the assessment. Booster sessions were identical to a classroom BST session. The subsequent follow-up assessments occurred as scheduled.

Debriefing

Consistent across all phases, participants were never made aware that the *in situ* assessments were simulations by confederate strangers. This was done so that the participants would not mistakenly assume that any future real abduction lures were similar tests (Johnson et al., 2006). Parents were asked to notify the researcher if any participant became increasingly anxious or afraid of strangers after *in situ* assessments began and they were given the option to withdraw from the study at any time. No parent reported significant adverse effects during the training due to the *in situ* assessments.

Procedural Fidelity

Procedural fidelity data were collected during 44% of the classroom BST sessions (7/16) and during 33% of *in situ* training sessions (5/15). Procedural fidelity data were also collected during 72% of *in situ* assessments (50/69; 100% of baseline assessments, 59% generalization, 63% maintenance). All measures of procedural fidelity were 100%.

Social Validity and Side Effects

Following the study, parents were asked to complete a questionnaire to assess social validity and side effects of the training. The *Side Effects Questionnaire* (Johnson et al., 2005) is a six-item measure designed to determine if any changes occurred in the participant's behavior after participating in the training and to assess the parent's opinion of the training. Parents and participants were also interviewed to assess their opinions of the training and experiences with strangers since completion of the training.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

The data for the five participants are shown in Figure 1. Assessments during baseline, generalization, and maintenance were scored as either 0% or 100%, indicating whether or not the participant walked away. Data points during Phase 1 and Phase 2 indicate the percentage of correct role-plays completed during each training session.

Baseline

As shown in Figure 1, Emma, Wyatt, Ben, and Tim never walked away from the confederate stranger during the *in situ* assessments prior to intervention. Elliott said "no" and walked away from the confederate stranger on the final assessment before intervention.

While the participants never walked away from the stranger during baseline, they did not always agree to leave with the stranger. Emma and Wyatt both said "no" twice and each agreed to leave with the stranger once. Ben and Tim said "no" to the stranger once and agreed to leave with the stranger three times each. Finally, Elliott agreed to leave with the stranger five times before saying "no" and walking away from the stranger on the final assessment.

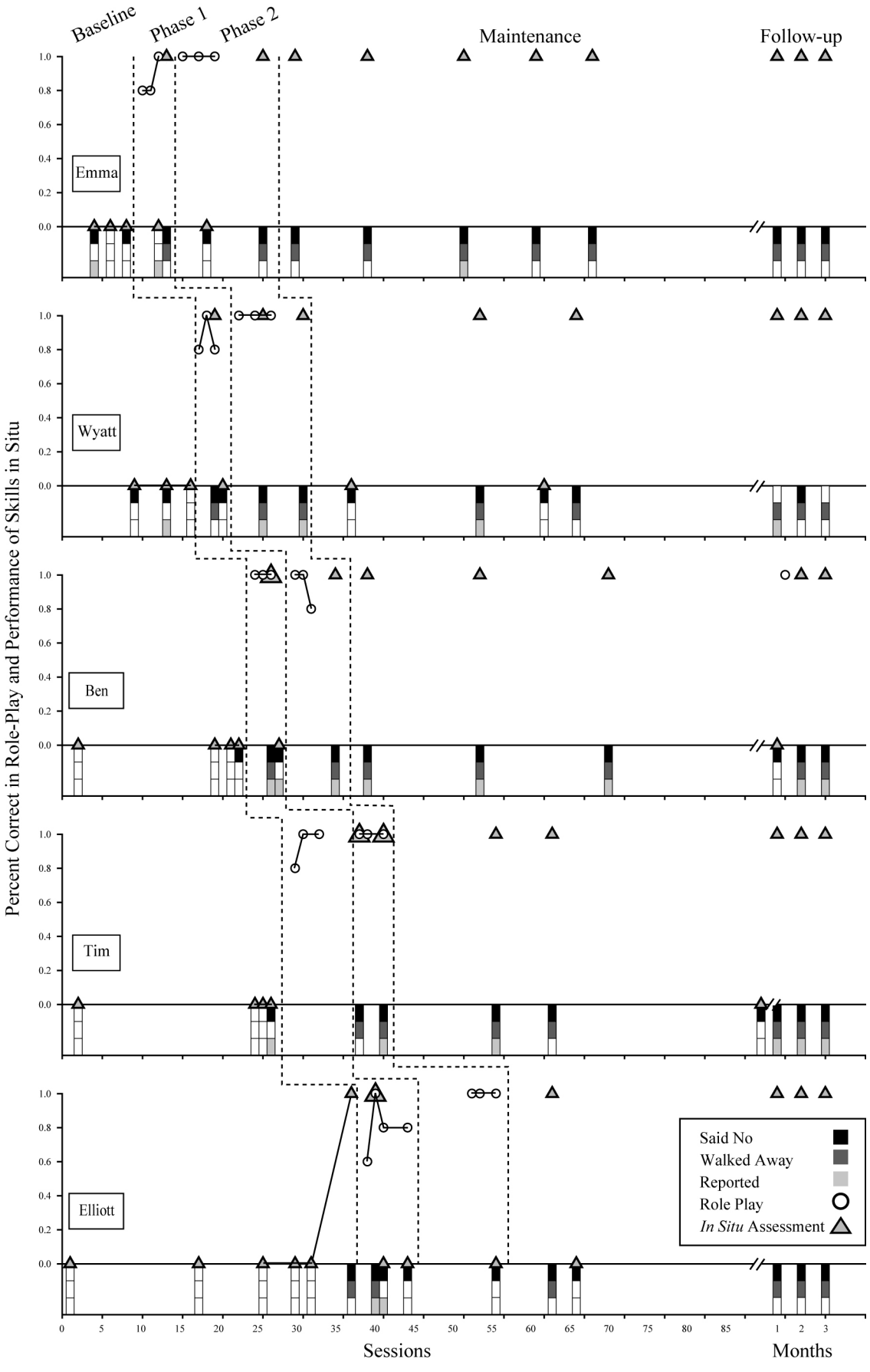
Baseline
Phase 1
Phase 2
Maintenance
Follow-up
Emma
Wyatt
Ben
Tim
Elliott
Percent Correct in Role-Play and Performance of Skills in Situ
Said No
Walked Away
Reported
Role Play
In Situ Assessment
Sessions
Months

Figure Caption

Figure 1. Performance of the behavior of walking away for the five participants during role-play and *in situ* assessments. The points plotted on the ordinate show the percentage of correct responses in training and *in situ* assessments. The circles indicate the percentage of role-plays in which the participant independently walked away during each session of phase 1 and phase 2 training. The triangles represent whether the participant walked away (100%) or not (0%) during baseline, generalization, and maintenance *in situ* assessments. The solid sections of the bars below *in situ* assessments for each participant show the specific response components performed correctly during the assessment. Solid bars represent an assessment in which all three responses were performed correctly. Unfilled sections indicate the skill was not performed during the assessment.

Phase 1: Classroom BST

All participants rapidly acquired the safety-skills during classroom BST. Four of five participants reached criterion within the first three BST sessions. Elliott reached criterion after four BST sessions. Generalization assessments conducted during and following Phase 1 indicated that while participants were able to rapidly acquire and demonstrate the skills during role-play, participants did not always apply the skills *in situ*. Specifically, Emma, Wyatt, and Ben only walked away from the confederate stranger once out of two opportunities and Elliott walked away once out of three opportunities.

Furthermore, participants varied in their use of all three safety skills. During the first generalization assessment, Emma did not say “no” or walk away from the confederate stranger, but she did report the event to her mother. Wyatt, Ben, and Elliott said “no” and walked away from the confederate stranger. Ben and Elliott also reported the lure within 5 min. During his second generalization assessment, Elliott did not walk away from the confederate stranger but he did say “no” and report the event.

During the generalization assessment conducted after completion of Phase 1 and prior to the start of Phase 2, Emma said “no” and walked away from the confederate

stranger, but did not report the event. Wyatt, Ben, and Elliott said "no" but did not walk away from the stranger. Ben and Elliott did, however, report the event. Due to scheduling difficulties, Tim did not receive generalization assessments during Phase 1.

Phase 2: *In Situ* Training

During Phase 2, all five participants reached criterion during role-play within three *in situ* training sessions. At least one generalization assessment was conducted during Phase 2 and one was conducted following completion of training, before maintenance. Emma and Tim walked away from the confederate stranger once out of two opportunities. Wyatt walked away during both of his opportunities, and Ben walked away during his one opportunity. Elliott did not walk away during his one *in situ* assessment.

Again, participants varied in their use of all three safety skills. In response to the generalization assessment completed during Phase 2, Emma said "no," but did not walk away from the confederate stranger or report the event. Wyatt and Tim both said "no," walked away, and reported the event. Ben and Elliott did not receive a generalization assessment during Phase 2 training.

After Phase 2 training, four of five participants walked away from the confederate stranger during the generalization assessment. Emma, Wyatt, Ben, and Tim said "no" and walked away and all except Emma reported the lure within 5 min. Elliott said "no" but did not walk away or report the event.

Maintenance

Skill maintenance was assessed every one to two weeks until all participants completed training, and then once a month for three months. Emma walked away from the confederate stranger on all eight maintenance assessments. She said "no" and walked away from the stranger every time, but only reported the event one time. Wyatt walked away from the confederate stranger on five of seven maintenance assessments. While he said "no" to the confederate stranger every time, Wyatt did not walk away on two occasions and did not report the event on three occasions.

Ben walked away on six of seven maintenance assessments. Because he did not walk away from the stranger during his first monthly follow-up assessment, Ben attended a booster session one week later. He correctly performed all five role-plays during the booster session and then successfully walked away from the stranger on his last two monthly follow-up assessments. Tim walked away from the stranger on five of six maintenance assessments. During all but one assessment, Tim said "no," walked away, and reported the event. Finally, Elliott walked away on four of five maintenance assessments. With the exception of one assessment, Elliott said "no" and walked away from the conference stranger following an assessment. Unfortunately, Elliott never reported the event.

Social Validity and Side Effects

The parents of all five participants completed the *Side Effects Questionnaire.* The results of this questionnaire are displayed in Table 5. Parents reported either no change or mild improvements in the participant's behavior as a result of this study. Four parents

reported their child was more aware of strangers. Emma's mother reported that she was more confident being on her own and Elliott's mother reported he was empowered. All parents were very pleased with their child's participation. No parent indicated increased anxiety as a result of this training.

The parents and participants also completed interviews with the researcher. All of the participants reported that they liked the training and they would recommend it to friends. When asked which part they liked, most enjoyed acting out the steps during *in situ* training role-play. When asked if strangers ever approached them, each participant was able to recall at least one of the *in situ* assessments. They all reported that they said "no," walked away, and told their parent, which did not always correspond to what actually happened. When asked how they felt after the stranger approached them, they reported that they felt nervous at first, but good, because they were able to use the skills and they knew what to do. All of the participants spoke positively about the training and reported that they now feel more comfortable when their parents walk away, or when they are alone in a community setting.

Table 5

Social Validity and Side Effects

Participant	Participant's Behavior Change				Participation	
	Scared	Cautious	Upset	Other changes	Pleased with child's participation	Satisfaction with researcher's communication
Emma	Less scared	No change	No change	"she is more confident being on her own, e.g., walking in neighborhood, on campus"	Very pleased	Very satisfied
Wyatt	Less scared	A little more cautious	No change	"much more aware"	Very pleased	Very satisfied
Ben	No change	A little more cautious	No change	"more aware of strangers"	Very pleased	Very satisfied
Tim	Less scared	No change	Less upset	"he is now more aware of what a stranger is"	Very pleased	Very pleased
Elliott	No change	A little more cautious	Less upset	"Greater awareness, empowerment"	Very pleased	Very satisfied

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

In response to parental concern about the safety of young adults with IDD and the need for these adults to learn self-protection skills, the current study evaluated an intervention teaching young adults with IDD how to respond appropriately to lures from strangers. This research expanded the literature of safety training for young adults with IDD and was one of the first to successfully teach this population to respond appropriately to lures from strangers. Results from this intervention have important methodological and clinical implications.

This study combined classroom BST and *in situ* training to enhance skill generalization and maintenance. During baseline, participants did not walk away from the confederate stranger following the presentation of a lure and each participant was willing to leave with a stranger at least once. This behavior indicated that these individuals with IDD required self-protection training to increase safety in community settings.

In Phase 1, participants quickly met criterion in responding to multiple examples of lures with few errors during classroom role-play. Similar to previous research, however, responding did not consistently generalize to the community assessments conducted throughout Phase 1 (Carroll-Rowan & Miltenberger, 1994; Miltenberger et al., 1990; Olson-Woods et al., 1998). During *in situ* assessments, each participant walked away one time but also did not walk away at least one time. These findings show that performance during role-play does not necessarily correspond to behavior in simulated

situations (Olsen-Woods et al.). Furthermore, these results highlight the need to assess skill acquisition *in situ*.

To enhance skill acquisition and generalization, Phase 2 was conducted in community settings where parents reported that participants were likely to be left alone and encounter strangers. Similar to performance in Phase 1, participants quickly met criterion in responding to multiple examples of lures with few errors during *in situ* training role-plays. Skill generalization also increased throughout *in situ* training and maintained up to 3 months after training. Thus, participants were more likely to display the skills in simulated situations after responding was taught and rehearsed in familiar community settings. This finding points to the importance of rehearsing skills *in situ.*

Methodological Implications

In response to limitations of earlier research, this study's methods diverged from previous safety skills interventions. Addressing the large numbers of *in situ* assessments conducted in previous research, *in situ* assessments were not conducted prior to implementation of each *in situ* training session (Collins et al., 1992; Gast et al., 1993; Johnson et al., 2005; Johnson et al., 2006; Marchand-Martella et al., 1996). Rather, 1-2 *in situ* generalization assessments were conducted throughout Phase 2, scheduled at times unrelated to *in situ* training. *In situ* training, in turn, was conducted with all participants, in community settings, until participants reached criterion responding during role-play. This change decreased the number of *in situ* assessments experienced by each participant, but still allowed participants to rehearse the skills *in situ* and measured skill generalization in simulated situations.

This important methodological advance addressed limitations of previous research in three ways. First, earlier findings reported that multiple *in situ* assessments were unrealistic (Beck & Miltenberger, 2009; Marchand-Martella et al., 1996; Miltenberger & Olsen, 1996). Because many individuals with IDD will never have to respond to a lure by a perpetrator, suddenly experiencing daily lures in conjunction with the start of this training would be unrealistic and participants would likely infer that the situations were "tests." Instead, lures were conducted as infrequently as feasible to maintain a strong research design, while still assessing generalization. Although *in situ* assessments were decreased, generalization and skill maintenance were still able to be determined, indicating it is possible to collect the data through fewer assessments.

Second, in several prior studies, exposure to multiple lures from strangers has led to increased fear of strangers (Johnson et al., 2005; Johnson et al., 2006). After conducting fewer *in situ* assessments, this study's participants did not report increased fear of strangers or increased anxiety being left alone in community settings. Finally, multiple encounters with strangers have sometimes led to desensitization to stranger lures (Collins et al., 1992). Specifically, because participants never actually left with a stranger or experienced an adverse event in response to an *in situ* assessment, exposure to multiple lures could have desensitized them to the dangers of not responding with the safety skills (Miltenberger & Olsen, 1996). In this study, however, participants still displayed the skills three months after training, indicating they were not desensitized to lures from strangers.

Another change from previous research was related to the criterion safety response during *in situ* assessments. Previous research required participants to complete

the three safety skills (say "no", walk away, and report) to pass an *in situ* assessment. Researchers then concluded that the training was ineffective because participants rarely displayed all three safety skills during *in situ* assessments (Bevill & Gast, 1998; Collins et al., 1992; Gast et al., 1993; Haseltine & Miltenberger, 1990; Marchand-Martella et al., 1996; Watson et al., 1992). A closer examination of the data indicated, however, that participants did learn to either say "no" or walk away from strangers. An argument can be made, then, that participants did learn to appropriately respond to strangers, by no longer willingly leaving a safe area with a stranger. If this was the case, then the interventions could be considered successful. Unfortunately, because participants often only displayed one or two of the responses, they were considered to have not met criterion performance.

To respond to this discrepancy in criterion and determining if the participant learned to appropriately respond to strangers, this study's criterion performance was changed. Researchers have argued that the most important safety response is movement away from the stranger, so this behavior was selected as the only response required to pass an *in situ* assessment (Collins et al, 1992; Holcombe et al., 1995). Prior to training, no participant (except Elliott one time) walked away from a stranger after the delivery of a lure. Following training, all participants increased the occurrences of walking away and all participants walked away at the 3-month follow-up assessment.

Unfortunately, participants still did not always walk away from the stranger during generalization assessments. The inconsistent behavior may be explained, however, by the circumstances surrounding the *in situ* assessment; the location, type of lure, and reinforcement history could affect responding. For example, during one general lure maintenance assessment Wyatt was meeting friends outside a basketball arena. The

stranger approached Wyatt and suggested they go in to the game together because it was about to start. Wyatt responded appropriately, saying, “no thanks, I’m waiting for my friends.” Because he was meeting his friends at that specific location, however, he might not have wanted to walk away. In another example, Ben did not walk away from the stranger during his first monthly follow-up assessment following an assistance lure; he responded by forcefully saying, “no, my mom told me to stay right here and I know better.” This response indicates that Ben did not want to leave the location in which he was told to wait, but he knew not to go with the stranger. These two examples indicate that the location and type of lure may play important roles in whether individuals with IDD will display the appropriate safety behavior of walking away.

Finally, Tim did not walk away during one general lure generalization assessment conducted in a small computer store at the mall. Tim’s mother was just across the store from him, and could be heard talking to a store employee. Further, Tim was playing on a computer that his mother indicated “he was very excited to check out.” The close proximity of his mother might have made Tim feel safe even though a stranger approached. Further, the desire to play with the computer may have been greater than the verbal positive reinforcement he would have received if he had walked away and reported the stranger to his mother or if he had left with the stranger. Future research should systematically examine how location, lure type, and reinforcement affect appropriate responding, so that interventions can better teach participants to use the skills in all situations.

Furthermore, the choice of using walking away as the criterion behavior might not have been the best measure of whether participants learned to respond appropriately to

strangers. While participants did not always walk away following training, no participant agreed to leave with a stranger once training was complete. Once an individual learns to say "no" to a stranger's lure, the risk of being taken advantage of is decreased because the individual will no longer willingly leave a safe location with a stranger. So perhaps the criterion should simply be that participants at least say "no."

Clinical Implications and Implications for Future Research

Results from this study have important implications for practice and future research. First, the early assessments within this study alerted parents to the importance of teaching the safety skills to their children and served as a screener for determining who is most at risk. Prior to baseline, parents had reported that they were not sure how their child would respond, but they hoped they would not leave with the strangers. After participants either agreed to leave with a stranger or did not walk a safe distance away, the parents realized that their children needed to learn about strangers and the importance of responding appropriately.

The early baseline assessments can also serve as a screener for determining whether individuals with IDD already know the safety skills or whether they require further training. The five participants in this study varied considerably in how they responded during baseline. Emma and Wyatt were only willing to leave with the stranger once. Ben, Tim, and Elliott, on the other hand, willingly agreed to leave with the stranger during the majority of baseline assessments. Thus, Ben, Tim, and Elliott could have been considered at greater risk and in need of training, as compared to Emma and Wyatt. Future research should compare demographic characteristics of participants who are at

greater risk and examine how baseline responding relates to rate of acquisition. For example, could the participant's diagnosis or IQ affect responding and skills acquisition? Or, if participants are already likely to say "no" to a stranger, prior to training, are they also more likely to acquire the skills of walking away and reporting the event? are they less likely to learn the additional skills because they already feel they are safe?

Second, because fewer *in situ* assessments were needed to assess skill acquisition, it could be easier to implement this training in a classroom setting. As *in situ* assessments were not conducted prior to each *in situ* training session, training time was much shorter and easier to accomplish. Students could complete BST with classroom teachers and then rehearse skills *in situ* during field trips or other community outings.

Finally, more research is needed to determine the most important safety response. While the criterion in this study was that participants walk away from the stranger, it might be more important to teach participants to just say "no." Even after completing Phase 2, participants did not always walk away. On the other hand, no participant agreed to leave with the stranger after completing just Phase 1. As long as participants are no longer willingly leaving with the stranger, they are decreasing the risk of being taken advantage of. A decision should be made, then, as to the most important skills to teach. Although all participants were reportedly able to follow three-step instructions prior to training, all participants still had difficulty completing all three safety-steps during *in situ* assessments. Perhaps the training should be made simpler, then, in teaching the participants only one step, such as to say "no."

Limitations

Certain limitations still must be addressed in future research. First, it was difficult to recruit strangers of different ages and ethnicity, and it was especially difficult to recruit males. Thus, the majority of the strangers were white females in their early 20s. This limitation is similar to difficulties expressed in earlier research (Gast et al., 1993). Due to this limitation, the participants might not have felt the confederates would take advantage of them, and might have responded more appropriately in response to older, male strangers. As an example, while Emma was successful is saying "no" and walking away from the strangers, she rarely reported the event to her mother. Most of the strangers who approached her, however, were females close to her age. While she knew not to walk away with them, she might not have felt threatened enough to report them. In a different circumstance, however, a male asked Emma to help him take something to his car. Emma said "no," walked away and immediately told her mom about the event. Perhaps Emma felt a young male was more of a threat than the young females.

A second limitation was related to the location of the *in situ* assessments. It was attempted to use a variety of community locations to enhance generalization, so that skills could be rehearsed in as many novel locations as possible. Unfortunately, it was often difficult for parents to come up with novel locations for assessments. They did not go on many different community outings, so they often requested to do the assessments in the same location. A third limitation was related to the difficulty in scheduling *in situ* assessments for Wyatt and Tim. Tim's mother was the most apprehensive about the *in situ* assessments, especially prior to training. She often asked if the *in situ* assessments

were still necessary during baseline, and would subsequently cancel or reschedule the assessments.

Finally, parents found it difficult not to talk about strangers or how to respond during baseline assessments. Tim's mother reported that she would sometimes ask "did anyone talk to you" or "I saw you talking to someone, what did he want?" While this response did not lead to a change in responding (as indicated by the data), it does indicate that *in situ* assessments are stressful for parents, as they became aware of their child's vulnerability. In the final interview, Elliott's mom indicated that before she signed up for this training she assumed her son would agree to go with a stranger, but she did not know for sure. Once she saw him willingly walk off with the stranger during the first *in situ* assessment, she found it very difficult not to immediately begin teaching him not to go with strangers. She said it was scary for her to realize that he really was vulnerable to a stranger's lures. Because Elliott repeatedly did not walk away during *in situ* assessments, and because his mother increasingly desired to teach him the safety skills, intervention was started even though he walked away from the stranger on the final baseline assessment.

Even with these limitations, this study showed that five young adults with IDD increased their use of safety-skills and learned to respond appropriately to lures from strangers. Parents and participants all reported feeling safer in community settings. Parents reported greater awareness and comfort in allowing their child to be alone in community settings. Participants reported feeling more secure on their own. This training could be one way, then, to increase independence of adults with IDD and to allow for more opportunities to be in community settings without constant adult supervision.

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