

DO KANSAS SCHOOLS ADDRESS MULTICULTURAL NEEDS OF EXCEPTIONAL STUDENTS
IN TRANSITION PRACTICES? A SURVEY OF SPECIAL EDUCATORS IN GRADES 9-12 WITH
DIRECT EXPERIENCE IN TRANSITION PLANNING FOR CULTURALLY AND/OR
LINGUISTICALLY DIVERSE STUDENTS

by

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B.A., University of Kansas, 1980

M.A., University of Kansas, 1984

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

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Abstract

Since 1990, IDEA has required a transition-focused IEP for adolescents with special needs. There have been limited data on whether culturally and/or linguistically diverse (CLD) students in Kansas were receiving transition services to mitigate or remedy their marginalized, disenfranchised, and dis-empowered status. This study examined transition practices for CLD students with special needs in Kansas. The hypothesis tested was that *Kansas schools address the multicultural needs of exceptional students in transition practice*. There were two research questions. First, do considerations of multicultural needs figure into transition practices in Kansas schools? Second, are multicultural needs taken into account to a greater extent in certain areas of transition?

A review of research literature yielded multicultural considerations relevant to the five domains of transition: 1) self-care, domestic living; 2) recreation and leisure; 3) communication and social skills; 4) vocational skills; and 5) community participation skills. An Internet survey with 22 Likert items covering these multicultural needs and concerns was administered via e-mail. A total of 582 valid e-mail addresses were used, comprising contact information developed from a sample frame of a KSDE database of resource-room teachers. The survey e-mail and follow-up were sent to every contact, covering 190 of the 293 unified school districts of Kansas. The completed sample was 178, for a response rate of 30.58%.

Data were analyzed from the 93 participants whose responses indicated experience as caseworkers in the past three years on transition-focused IEP teams for at least one student in any of the three CLD groups of interest in the present study—African Americans, Native American Indians, or Hispanic/Latinos. Means and standard deviations were calculated for the frequencies of choices on the 22 Likert items. Pearson's chi-square testing was used to determine significance.

Survey results indicated that on 17 of 22 items there was 80% or higher agreement among

caseworkers that their school communities were addressing the multicultural needs and concerns of students and families in transition practices. Discussion includes participants' comments.

Recommendations are given to increase the roles of cultural and linguistic heritages in transition in Kansas schools, especially in the skill-areas of community participation and communication-and-social skills.

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Major Professor
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Dedication

*This thesis is dedicated to my wife,
Meribel Osorio-Scott,
whose love has sustained me throughout a
long and arduous process of study.*

*I also dedicate the completion of
this project to my granddaughter,
Amirah Sarahi Luzuriaga Scott,
who visited Kansas for the first time
when she was 16 months old.*

*This important academic achievement
would have been much less likely without
the nutrition, love, education, and encouragement
that I received from my parents,
Dr. John Clark Scott
and **Virginia Lee (Huffman) Scott**.
They opened new worlds to me,
and expanded my horizons.*

Preface

The king is full of grace and fair regard....

The courses of his youth promised it not.

Henry V

Prologue

Chapter 1 - Introduction

The Historical Context of Transition Services in IDEA

When PL 94-142 was enacted in 1975, it opened access to a public school education for young people ages 5 to 21, regardless of disability status. According to Williams and O'Leary (2000), transition services for students with disabilities were first addressed in PL 980199, the Education of the Handicapped Act Amendments of 1983.

With the enactment of this legislation, the federal government introduced its initiative to address the needs of transitioning youth with disabilities and announced a number of competitive grant opportunities to assist states with achieving the following goals: (1) strengthen and coordinate education, training, and related services for handicapped youth to assist in the transitional process to postsecondary education, vocational training, competitive employment, continuing education, or adult services; and (2) stimulate the development of programs for secondary special education.

(Williams & O'Leary, 2000, p. 49)

The Reauthorization of IDEA in 1990 made it law that Individualized Education Plans incorporate transition planning, defined transition services, and provided funding to states for the development of strategies and procedures for implementing the new requirements (Johnson & Emanuel, 2000; Williams & O'Leary, 2000). In 1992, regulations were published to put into effect national policies based on the 1990 law.

The 1992 regulations reiterated the statutory requirement that transition services must be addressed in the IEP of every student 16 years of age and older or younger, if appropriate. This new regulation required IEP teams to become familiar with the purpose of transition services, identify the transition services needed by the student, and develop a statement describing the needed transition services.

(Williams & O'Leary, 2000, p. 50)

In their 2000 study, Williams and O'Leary reviewed the research on effective transition practices, and summarized the key elements as: 1) professional development with a “focus on providing coordinated, transdisciplinary transition services” (p. 60); 2) technical assistance to “implement the concept of research to practice in the area of transition services” (p. 61); and 3) compliance monitoring “as part of the federal government's overarching strategic effort to ensure that transition services provisions are implemented within every school in the country” (p. 62).

According to Furney and Salembier (2000) both the 1990 and 1997 reauthorizations of IDEA emphasized parental involvement.

The 1990 IDEA mandate for transition planning as a part of the IEP process re-emphasized the need for parent participation in the planning process and added a requirement for student participation. The mandate underscored the need for active participation on the part of parents and students by stating that transition plans needed to be based on students' needs, preferences, and interests.

(Furney & Salembier, 2000, p. 121)

The IDEA Reauthorization of 1997 also added a stipulation that the student must be apprised of his or her legal rights regarding self-determination which will take effect at the age of majority. IDEA 1997

mandated that transition planning be incorporated into the IEP process for a student at age 14; implementation of the transition plan was to be started at age 16. In IDEA 2004, the requirement that transition planning begin at age 14 was dropped, but Kansas State Department of Education policy has preserved the age 14 rule.

Bambara, Wilson, and McKenzie (2007) outline current research on best practices in transition:

- Vocational education, especially actual and paid work experiences while in school.
- Individualized programming based on student needs and interests, emphasizing independent living and self-determination skills.
- Active student and family involvement in the transition planning process.
- Inclusive educational opportunities.
- Interagency collaboration among schools, employers, and adult service providers. (Bambara et al., 2007, p. 373)

Bambara et al. make three recommendations to researchers working in the field of transition services:

1) “Focus transition research on identifying and addressing implementation barriers”; 2) “Expand quality-of-life outcome measures of postschool success [and] consider individual variations, preferences, and cultural influences”; 3) “Focus transition research on the support needs of students with moderate and severe developmental disabilities” (pp. 384-385).

The Kansas Context for Multicultural Approaches to Transition

There are federal laws, regulations, and precedents which require that public school systems provide access to the full array of educational services to every child regardless of “race, color or national origin” (Civil Rights Act of 1964), gender (Title IX) or immigration status (Plyler v Doe, 1982). Kansans have a particularly acute sense of awareness regarding the responsibility of schools to

fairly include all students in learning activities, as a result of the landmark case, *Brown v. Topeka Board of Education* (1954), in which the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that “separate educational facilities are inherently unequal.” Today’s increasingly stringent requirements for inclusive classrooms are drawn from the same principle expressed by the Court on that occasion:

Today, education is perhaps the most important function of state and local governments.... Today it is a principal instrument in awakening the child to cultural values, in preparing him for later professional training, and in helping him to adjust normally to his environment. In these days, it is doubtful that any child may reasonably be expected to succeed in life if he is denied the opportunity of an education. Such an opportunity, where the state has undertaken to provide it, is a right which must be made available to all on equal terms.

(347 U.S. 483)

In spite of these longstanding laws and legal precedents, there are recent data on graduation rates in Kansas suggesting a persistent lag in this key transition benchmark for three particular groups of multicultural students: while the overall graduation rate in Kansas for 2006 was 75.4%, the rates for American Indians, Hispanics, and Blacks were 61.3%, 55.1%, and 58.9%, respectively (EPE Research Center, 2009).

These indications of lagging transition outcomes for multicultural students in Kansas mirror problems faced by students of color across America, as described by Klingner, Blanchett, and Harry (2007). Klingner et al. suggest that “issues of race, culture, and class seem to play an important role in determining the risk ratio of African Americans, Hispanics, Native Americans, and Asian Americans for developmental disabilities” (p. 56). Klingner et al. make four recommendations to researchers studying best practices in the area of disabilities:

- 1) Understand the continuing impact of white privilege and discrimination;
- 2) Understand how one's cultural stance affects interactions with families;
- 3) Appreciate and be responsive to the ethnic, racial, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds of students and their families; and
- 4) See “cultural responsiveness” as relevant for students with developmental disabilities, too. (Klingner et al., 2007, p. 56)

“The absence of a dialogue about issues of race, class, culture, and language reinforces the misperception that these issues have no impact on individuals of color with developmental disabilities and their families' pursuit of equitable educational programming and service delivery,” explain Klingner et al. (p. 56). “Although the research on individuals of color with developmental disabilities and their families is sparse, the available research clearly indicates that they experience a number of service delivery barriers that their white-majority peers do not encounter” (Klingner et al., 2007, pp. 56-57).

Definitions of Terms

In this study, the terms “multicultural,” “culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD),” “minority,” and “person of color” will be used interchangeably. Also, “special needs,” “exceptionalities,” and “disabilities” will be used as equivalent terms, corresponding to the variety of current usage in the literature.

The concept of culture itself is described by Artiles, Kozleski, Osher, and Ortiz (2010) as including at least three different uses or purposes: culture as a way of life, or set of shared traditions; as a prescriptive marker, or label; and as an evolving perspective for interpreting personal experience. In

this third sense, “[p]eople navigate social worlds with cultural frames, and negotiate meaning, roles, and rules,” according to Artiles et al. “Consequences of such interpretivist processes are that individuals create new meanings, may learn cultural practices, and acquire novel means to interpret social events” (p. 289). Artiles et al. go on to suggest there is an interplay among the three different purposes of the concept of culture, and that “individuals enter everyday events with cultural tool kits they learned in their communities (*interpretive* aspect), and their actions are shaped by established regulatory processes and assumptions (*regulative* aspects)” (p. 290).

According to Artiles et al., this multifaceted concept of culture is “a more dynamic model that transcends the seemingly deterministic emphasis on single aspects of culture” (p. 290). In this present examination of transition practices in Kansas, the dynamic model of culture as the predispositions of students and school personnel, as well as the ways each individual is changed by his or her interactions with other individuals in a context shaped by institutions and systems, can serve as a reminder that a multicultural adolescent is more than simply a representative of a certain group label. The subjects of this research study are young people in the process of defining themselves in relation to a complex array of perspectives—at home, in school, and beyond school—about what is relevant to their eventual satisfaction and success as adults in their Kansas communities.

Defining Transition

“Transition” is a term utilized at the federal and state level in legislation which mandates, as part of an exceptional learner’s Individual Education Plan (IEP), the development of post-secondary goals and associated planning and “transition services,” as defined by the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (2004).

The term ‘transition services’ means a coordinated set of activities for a child with a disability that—

(A) is designed to be within a results-oriented process, that is focused on improving the academic and functional achievement of the child with a disability to facilitate the child's movement from school to post-school activities, including post-secondary education, vocational education, integrated employment (including supported employment), continuing and adult education, adult services, independent living, or community participation... (§602)

Alwell and Cobb (2006) present an overview of five main life-skills or functional aspects of transition practices and services to adolescents making their move from high school to post-secondary employment or further education, originally described by Cronin (1996) and Halpern (1994): 1) self-care and domestic living; 2) recreation and leisure; 3) communication and social skills; 4) vocational skills; and 5) community-participation skills, including life-long learning.

Indications of Disparities in Transition Outcomes for Multicultural Youth

According to the U.S. Department of Education, 95 percent of Asian Americans and 92 percent of European Americans complete high school, but only 85 percent of African Americans and 69 percent of Latinos do (Trainor, Lindstrom, Simon-Burroughs, Martin, and McCray Sorrells, 2008). Trainor et al. cite research by Wagner et al. (2005), on post-secondary employment of young people with disabilities: 74 percent of European Americans, compared to 62 percent of blacks and 65 percent of Latinos. This research also reports that 90 percent of these employed European Americans with disabilities earned better than minimum wage, but only 77 percent of the employed blacks and 69 percent of Latinos fared as well.

Trainor et al. report further that teachers in low-income and urban districts do not have sufficient training or awareness regarding "how best to involve culturally diverse families and students

with IEPs in transition planning and to facilitate self-determination" (p. 59). Additionally, according to Trainor et al. (2008), No Child Left Behind (NCLB) limits its inclusive requirements to academic skills, providing a disincentive for schools to incorporate input from multicultural families in IEP meetings where transition goals and strategies related to functional skills are determined, except in cases where students are institutionalized.

Trainor et al. (2008) additionally report 2004 U.S. Department of Education statistics indicating that 53 percent of European American students with disabilities, but only 37 percent of African American students with disabilities, are educated primarily in general education classrooms. These researchers put these data into the context of the over-representation of black males in emotional disability and cognitive disability categories, referencing additional data from the same 2004 U.S. Department of Education report, that 15 percent of African American males with an emotional disorder label and 25 percent of African American males with a cognitive disorder label are instructed exclusively in isolated special education classrooms at the secondary school level.

Trainor et al. (2008) further cite Bureau of Labor Statistics (2006) that indicate unemployment inordinately impacts blacks, who are 11 percent of the work force but 22% of the unemployed. Representation of blacks and Latinos in management positions is also disproportionately low compared to European Americans and Asian Americans, according to Trainor et al. (2008), who suggest that "these national trends...influence teachers' perceptions of community members' employability" (p. 61).

"The implementation of transition policy has been an effective force in systemic change," explain Trainor et al., "however, few studies have focused on the implementation of policy as it pertains to the treatment of subgroups of individuals with disabilities....to provide a deep understanding of transition outcomes of diverse youths with disabilities" (pp. 60-61).

Statement of the Problem

There is insufficient evidence on a national scale, but also limited data and scant discussion regarding the implementation of transition policy in Kansas high schools for multicultural and diverse students with special needs. It is not known whether these students are receiving transition services which would mitigate or remedy their marginalized, disenfranchised, and dis-empowered status. This gap in state-wide data collection may be preventing education leaders from making the accurate assessments of needs and outcomes for the development of policies to improve transition practices in the state of Kansas.

Purpose of the Study

This study examined transition practices for multicultural students with special needs in Kansas. The ultimate goal was to provide educational policy makers and practitioners in my home state of Kansas with data on multicultural transition in our schools, and recommendations for changing transition practices where the data indicate a need for such changes.

Two Guiding Research Questions for the Present Study

The hypothesis to be tested in this study was that *Kansas schools address the multicultural needs of exceptional students in transition practices.* Testing this hypothesis entailed answering two research questions. First, do considerations of multicultural needs figure into transition practices in Kansas schools? Second, are multicultural needs taken into account to a greater extent in certain areas of transition, e.g., recreation and leisure skills or community participation skills, than in others? A survey was developed to test the hypothesis and to collect data in order to determine descriptive answers to the two research questions. The survey items were aligned with ideal practices that address the issues, needs, and concerns relevant to successful transition outcomes for multicultural students.

The Five Domains of Transition Practice from a Multicultural Perspective

From an examination of current literature on multicultural transition needs, a picture emerges of what it means to take culture into account in transition planning and practices. These research findings are summarized below, organized within the five main components of transition practices (Alwell and Cobb, 2006; Cronin, 1996; Halpern, 1994).

Components of Transition: 1) Self-Care, Domestic Living

In summarizing the self-care, domestic living component of post-secondary transition planning for multicultural students, one key difference from members of the dominant culture is that traditional concepts such as self-determination, choice, and individual achievement, will not always fit easily into the many ways that cultural experiences and cultural frames of reference affect interpretations of what constitutes successful adulthood (Geenen et al., 2003; Leake et al., 2003-2004). Families can interpret the lack of accommodation to their perceptions of the self-care, domestic living aspect of transition as insensitivity on the part of school and agency representatives (Geenen et al., 2003), and this can lead to a basic lack of trust and a sense of isolation for the family (Bakken & Obiakor, 2009; Geenen et al., 2003; Rueda et al., 2005;), which can have the effect of limiting their awareness of supports for their child within the school system and other networks (Geenen et al., 2003; Rueda et al., 2005). Efforts to increase levels of self-determination and self-advocacy skills take on a greater urgency when schools recognize “that special education is a cultural institution that may or may not reflect the values, beliefs, and cultural perspectives of all parents” (Klingner et al., 2007, p. 69).

Crucial steps a school system can take on behalf of multicultural students in transition planning for self-care and domestic living are: 1) to view the family as a resource and strength (Geenen et al., 2003); 2) to empower families and students with information and self-advocacy skills (Portley, 2009; Rueda et al., 2005; Geenen et al., 2003; Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a); and 3) to build relationships

based on respect with members of the student's cultural community (Portley, 2009; Wilder et al., 2001).

According to Bambara et al. (2007), three key facets of an effort to increase a student's level of self-determination are: 1) increased involvement by the student in his or her IEP planning process; 2) teaching self-advocacy skills to the student; and 3) incorporating self-determination skill-building throughout the entire curriculum. "Perhaps one of the biggest obstacles to enhancing students' self-determination and involvement in their education planning," according to Bambara et al., is that "many teachers (both general and special educators) were unfamiliar with the concept" and others "reported few opportunities for students to practice their self-determination skills" (pp. 379-380).

Components of Transition: 2) Recreation and Leisure

In addressing the recreation and leisure aspects of transition planning for multicultural individuals, school personnel need to become more aware of the potential for bias and discrimination in, for example, the choosing of teams for group activities or the meting out of harsher penalties or punishments to members of certain cultural or racial groups than to others (Cooper et al., 2008). Representatives of schools and other agencies should focus on giving students exposure to and experience with social interactions; school leaders and teachers need to be seen interacting with students of different genders, races, and academic levels, ensuring that students are not excluded from group activities due to race or ethnicity (Moore et al., 2008; Rueda et al., 2005). It is also important for students to be encouraged to become more involved in clubs, ethnic student groups, and student government; school and community leaders can collaborate on ethnic celebrations to expose all students to diverse traditions and values (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a).

On an individual level, multicultural students with special needs often lack exposure in transition planning to sufficient challenges, and need to be given opportunities for personal growth, in settings where school and agency personnel recognize each student's strengths and capacities, rather than framing problems in deficit model terms (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a; Portley, 2009; Rueda et

al., 2005). Transition professionals should utilize interest surveys to identify appropriate goals for individual students, in the context of regular communication with families about home-centered alternatives to traditional models of independent living, and other suggestions from families about qualities and types of transition services (Portley, 2009; Rueda et al., 2005).

Components of Transition: 3) Communication and Social Skills

In the transition area of communication and social skills, there are several aspects of a multicultural student's schooling experience that can influence outcomes. First, because of the typical ethnocentric, mono-cultural curriculum, students' cultural backgrounds are often ignored, or school personnel have misperceptions which lead to negative labeling and lowered expectations for these students and their families (Bakken & Obiakor, 2009; Geenen et al., 2003; Kochlar-Bryant & Greene, 2009; Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a; Portley, 2009). These misunderstandings increase the sense of distrust and isolation that multicultural students and families feel within a school system (Bakken & Obiakor, 2009; Cooper et al., 2008; Geenen et al., 2003; Rueda et al., 2005).

School leaders and teachers can increase opportunities for students to build their communication skills by involving families and advocating for students in order to build trust and rapport (Geenen et al., 2003; Moore et al., 2008). Schools can also innovate to include non-Western values and perspectives in the curriculum (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a), and reach out to empowered, successful individuals from students' cultural communities as role models to bring in as speakers and mentors for school events and activities (Geenen et al., 2003; Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a).

To develop successful communication and social skills, a student needs healthy self-esteem, a positive self-concept, and above all a high level of self-efficacy (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a; Portley, 2009). Schools can influence growth in these areas by encouraging students to become involved in student government, faculty-student-parent advisory committees and other forms of social

activism (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a). It is also key for educators to develop relationships with students which place a high value on dialogue, and to use instructional methods that motivate students to use language actively to construct knowledge (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a; Jackson & Smith, 2001; Portley, 2009; Wilder et al., 2001).

Components of Transition: 4) Vocational Skills

In the vocational skills aspect of transition planning and services, an adolescent from a multicultural background faces a number of serious hurdles. School and agency personnel may not have established a network of partnerships with local leaders from a student's cultural community, so placement options often are limited to business owners who are not sensitive to cultural group differences and who do not provide role models and mentors who share the student's cultural, ethnic, and linguistic traditions (Geenen et al., 2003; Greene, 2009; Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a; Portley, 2009).

School personnel also may not recognize evidence of resilience, such as the determination of a student who has to overcome the barrier of institutional racism in order to survive and excel academically (Greene, 2009; Portley, 2009). "One of the most lasting legacies of Western racism," according to Klingner et al. (2007), "is a deep-seated belief in the inferior intelligence of individuals of color" (p. 65). Even when such a student performs at a par with students from the dominant culture, he or she may receive lower grades due to school-based discrimination (Cooper et al., 2008). These factors can limit the range of career development and employment alternatives available to students from multicultural backgrounds (Jackson & Smith, 2002; Wilder et al., 2001).

Families and students need to be consulted and included as primary decision makers in meetings of the IEP and transition teams from the very beginning of the transition planning process (Geenen et al., 2003; Moore et al., 2008; Rueda et al., 2005). Different families will have different expectations of what the goals are as regards employment and career development. Traditional

assumptions such as competitiveness, individual achievement, and independent productivity may need to be balanced with collectivist concepts such as sheltered adaptation and self-sufficiency within a stay-at-home context (Geenen et al., 2003; Jackson & Smith, 2001; Leake et al., 2003-04; Moore et al., 2008; Rueda et al., 2005).

As the multicultural student explores and develops vocational interest inventories to clarify his or her personal vision of career and employment, school and agency personnel must provide the needed information, formative experiences, work opportunities, and support to accommodate new ideas of what it means to be a successful adult (Cummins, 1995; Leake et al., 2003-04; Portley, 2009; Rueda et al., 2005; Wilder et al., 2001).

Components of Transition: 5) Community Participation Skills (including Life-long Learning)

In order to develop community-participation skills, a young person needs experiences that prompt him or her to build relationships (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a; Portley, 2009; Wilder et al., 2001). For example, the student can participate in leadership roles on student government, school committees, community groups, and social advocacy groups (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a; Portley, 2009). Community organizing is an invaluable skill for life-long civic involvement (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a), and these kinds of activities bring many opportunities to build friendships and expand an individual's social network.

However, it is also crucial to see the multicultural adolescent as embedded in his or her family—and often extended family—context (Rueda et al., 2005). Unfortunately, schools, teachers, and local agency representatives typically are unaware of and insensitive to the realities of multicultural families, leading to a separation between the school system and certain members of the communities it is supposed to serve (Bakken & Obiakor, 2009; Geenen et al., 2003; Portley, 2009; Ledlow, 1992; Rueda et al., 2005). This division prevents schools from marshaling the strength of family and community connections as a resource on behalf of students (Geenen et al., 2003; Jackson & Smith, 2001; Moore et

al., 2008); the young person is deprived of the best possible examples to guide him or her in developing community participation skills when the multicultural family is alienated from and distrustful of the available school and support systems (Bakken & Obiakor, 2009; Geenen et al., 2003; Rueda et al., 2005).

In order to include and engage families in school-related activities that encourage their children to build the necessary community-participation skills for transition success, educators and related professionals need to focus on facilitating the empowerment of multicultural families, going beyond the school setting and becoming more involved in these communities themselves (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a ; Portley, 2009). In an empowerment outreach strategy, school professionals become advocates for minority students (Cummins, 1995); schools support parent groups to discuss issues related to transition planning (Cummins, 1995; Geenen et al., 2003; Moore et al., 2008; Rueda et al., 2005); social justice themes are incorporated into the school curriculum (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a); and school personnel take concrete actions to overcome language and social barriers in order to learn together with families about ways to improve transition outcomes for the young people on whose behalf they are partnering (Bakken & Obiakor, 2009; Dennis & Giangreco, 1996; Geenen et al., 2003; Wilder et al., 2001).

Focus of the Present Study

Just as it can be difficult to draw definitive lines separating the five domains of transition practices outlined above, not all of the multicultural concerns described above can be categorized purely within single domains. There is going to be a certain amount of overlap: one issue may be relevant to more than one of the five domains. For example, considerable discussion was devoted above to the issues of self-determination and self-advocacy, within the domain of self-care and domestic living. However, these are actually issues that influence a student in all five domains.

A reader might ask why so much of the discussion above, in each of the five transition domains, refers to parents and families of the multicultural student whose transition needs and concerns are the focus of this research. As mentioned earlier in this document, the involvement of parents and families was written into the 1990 and 1997 reauthorizations of IDEA. In addition, Klinger et al. (2003) make it clear that “one's cultural stance affects interactions with families” (p. 56).

In light of what Klinger et al. refer to as “the continuing impact of white privilege and discrimination” in school communities across America (p. 56), a multicultural student with disabilities faces unique challenges on the path to a successful transition from high school to post-secondary life as an adult. How schools address the concerns of the parents and families of these students can logically be expected to correspond to the ways in which the needs of their children are included in those transition practices. It is necessary to consider the experiences of these families as part of determining whether their children's transition services address key multicultural issues.

The present research study surveyed special educators who had direct experience as caseworkers on transition teams or IEP teams doing transition planning for culturally and/or linguistically diverse students with exceptionalities in Kansas public schools. Survey participants responded to Likert stems, aligned with the key multicultural issues, needs, and concerns of CLD students in transition. Their responses provided data to help determine whether and to what extent Kansas schools are meeting the transition needs of multicultural students.

Limitations of the Study

The subjectivity of data obtained through self-reporting from caseworkers, the small number of these respondents (N=93), and the fact that the survey sample was not random (the e-mail invitation was sent to all available addresses of resource-room teachers in grades 9-12) limit the relevance of the results for conclusions about transition practices with CLD adolescents in Kansas high schools.

Chapter 2 – Review of the Literature

Transition Requirements in Kansas

In a document titled “The Transition-Focused IEP Process” (2009), the Kansas State Department of Education outlines the legal requirements for schools and transition teams regarding transition planning and services for a student with disabilities.

Legal Requirements in Kansas Before the IEP Meeting

1. Before the IEP that will be in effect when the student reaches 14, conduct an age-appropriate transition assessment related to training, education, employment, and, where appropriate, independent living skills.
2. Formally invite the student to participate in the IEP process and meeting if a purpose of the meeting will be the consideration of the postsecondary goals for the student and the transition services needed to assist the student in reaching those goals.
3. Invite the parents to the IEP meeting by providing a written 10 calendar day notice of the IEP meeting and invite all required team members including the student.
4. With consent of the parent, or adult student, invite a representative of any participating agency that is likely to be responsible for providing or paying for transition services.

5. Prepare an IEP meeting agenda that sets an expectation that the student and family will be encouraged to address each area of discussion. (Kansas State Department of Education, 2009, pp. 4-8)

Legal Requirements in Kansas During the IEP Meeting

1. Beginning with the first IEP to be in effect when the student is age 14, and updated annually, develop appropriate measurable postsecondary goals based on age appropriate transition assessments related to training, education, employment, and, where appropriate, independent living skills.
2. Develop the present levels of academic achievement and functional performance (PLAAFP), which describe where the student is currently performing and includes how the student's disability affects the student's involvement and progress in the general education curriculum.
3. By age 14 (or earlier if determined appropriate by the IEP team), identify the appropriate courses of study needed to assist the student in reaching his/her measurable postsecondary goals.
4. Beginning at age 16, or younger, if determined appropriate by the IEP team, a statement of needed transition services for the student, including, when appropriate, a statement of the interagency responsibilities or any needed linkages.

5. Develop measurable annual goals, including academic and functional goals designed to meet the student's needs to enable the student to be involved in and make progress in the general education curriculum; and meet each of the student's other educational needs that result from the student's disability.

6. A statement of the special education and related services and supplementary aids, based on peer-reviewed research to the extent practicable, and services to be provided to the child, or on behalf of the child, and a statement of the program modifications or supports for school personnel that will be provided for the child: (A) To advance appropriately toward attaining the annual goals; (B) to be involved in and make progress in the general education curriculum and to participate in extracurricular and other nonacademic activities; and (C) to be educated and participate with other exceptional and nonexceptional children in the activities described in this paragraph. The location, frequency, and duration of services to be provided.

7. At least one year before an exceptional child reaches 18 years of age, the student's IEP includes a statement the student has been informed of rights provided in the state law that will

transfer to the student on reaching 18 years of age.

(Kansas State Department of Education, 2009, pp. 8-16)

Legal Requirements in Kansas After the IEP Meeting

1. Those services for which written consent has been granted as specified by law are implemented not later than 10 days after parental consent is granted unless reasonable justification for a delay can be shown.
2. A description of how the child's progress toward meeting the annual goals will be measured and when periodic reports on the progress the child is making toward meeting the annual goals will be provided, such as through the use of quarterly or other periodic reports issued concurrently with general education report cards.
3. Conduct annual review of the student's IEP.
4. For a student whose eligibility under this part terminates due to graduation or exceeding the age of eligibility, a summary of the student's academic achievement and functional performance, which shall include recommendations on how to assist the child in meeting the child's postsecondary goals.

(Kansas State Department of Education, 2009, pp. 17-18)

Under IDEA 2004, all states must collect and report data on the following four performance indicators relevant to transition services for students with individualized education plans (IEPs).

Part B SPP/APR Indicator/Measurement

State performance indicator #1

Percent of youth with IEPs graduating from high school with a regular diploma.

State performance indicator #2

Percent of youth with IEPs dropping out of high school.

State performance indicator #13

Percent of youth aged 16 and above with an IEP that includes appropriate measurable postsecondary goals that are annually updated and based upon an age appropriate transition assessment, transition services, including courses of study, that will reasonably enable the student to meet those secondary goals, and annual IEP goals related to the student's transition service needs. There also must be evidence that the student was invited to the IEP Team meeting where transition services are to be discussed and evidence that, if appropriate, a representative of any participating agency was invited to the IEP Team meeting with the prior consent of the parent or student who has reached the age of majority.

State performance indicator #14

Percent of youth who had IEPs, are no longer in secondary school, had IEPs in effect at the time they left school, and were:

A. Enrolled in higher education within one year of leaving high school.

B. Enrolled in higher education or competitively

employed within one year of leaving high school.

C. Enrolled in higher education or in some other postsecondary education or training program; or competitively employed or in some other employment within one year of leaving high school.

(United States Department of Education, 2010)

Preparing for Post-Secondary Challenges

According to Deanna Lambert, who spoke at CEC 2009 in Seattle, there is a key difference between how disability is approached in K-12, with an IEP team, and in higher education or the world of employment, where, because there is no IEP team, “the student has to take a more active role” (Kohler, P.D., Coyle, J., Johnson, E., & Lambert, D., 2009). Lambert, an Equal Opportunity Specialist at NASA, warned that “students have a big learning curve. They have to know what they need, identify a source of accommodation, and make sure it gets to them.” She recounted how, because she was allowed to participate in her own IEP meetings starting in third grade and had to initiate discussions at the meetings beginning in seventh grade, “I learned how to articulate my needs...I ordered my own books in high school.”

Another speaker at the same CEC panel discussion with Lambert was Edna Johnson, from the U.S. Department of Disability Services and Rehabilitation Services Administration. “One of the gaps as an educator that you need to think about is outside of school,” she said, “to build their confidence and help them to know themselves” (Kohler, P.D. et al., 2009). According to Johnson, young people with disabilities “need to learn about asset accumulation and investment development.” She also suggested that adolescents with exceptionalities have a need for experiences analogous to rites of passage and independence that their non-disabled peers enjoy. “What rite of passage is there?,” asked Johnson, underscoring the importance of an educator ensuring that a young person and his or her parents “know

the potential for work and outside of work that will give them empowering tools.”

Defining Multicultural Transition

Culture is described by Wilder, Jackson, & Smith (2001) as comprising “one's beliefs, values, expectations, customs, and perceptions....a pervasive influence on behavior....related to country of origin, religious beliefs, neighborhood, group affiliations, socioeconomic status, and extended family influences” (p. 120). At the 2009 CEC convention in Seattle, presenter Gary Greene listed the following barriers to transition for culturally and linguistically diverse youth with disabilities: 1) professional insensitivity to cultural group differences; 2) school-imposed barriers to transition; and 3) inherent characteristics of CLD groups (Kochhar-Bryant, C. & Greene, G. 2009).

Cummins (1995) suggests that multicultural students are either "empowered" or “disabled” by virtue of their experiences with schools and other institutions which represent the interests of the dominant culture. The extent to which multicultural students are "empowered," according to Cummins, is determined by whether schools possess four characteristics:

- 1) Minority students' language and culture are incorporated into the school program;
- 2) minority community participation is encouraged as an integral component of children's education;
- 3) the pedagogy promotes intrinsic motivation on the part of the students to use language actively in order to generate their own knowledge; and
- 4) professionals involved in assessment become advocates for minority students rather than legitimizing the location of the "problem" in the students. (Cummins, 1995, p. 105)

The Double Burden of Multicultural Transition

At a CEC 2009 session, Bakken and Obiakor described a “double burden of discrimination” faced by multicultural students who in addition have disabilities, and often do not foresee how challenging the educational system will be at the post-secondary level. Obiakor suggested that sometimes teachers and schools are asking the wrong questions. He proposed that we as educators not go into the teaching of CLD students “to change them,” but rather thinking that “[we] should be changed” in the process.

In their CEC talk, Bakken and Obiakor said further that “higher incarceration rates and other negative trends facing CLD persons indicate some serious problems in transition,” referring to data from the National Center for Juvenile Justice (Puzzanchera, C., Adams, B., & Sickmund, M., 2010). According to Bakken and Obiakor, all of these factors “result in negative perceptions and lower expectations” for multicultural learners with special needs. These negative outcomes include “lower employment rates and lower average wages,” they explained, especially for CLD students with E/BD (Bakken & Obiakor, 2009).

There are also data from the National Longitudinal Transition Study-1 (Blackorby, J. & Wagner, M., 1996) and National Longitudinal Transitional Study-2 (Wagner, M., Newman, L., Cameto, R., Garza, N., & Levine, P., 2005) indicating that multicultural youth with disabilities have a harder time than their Euro-American peers in finding jobs and earn less from their labor—compounding the post-secondary employment disadvantages faced by disabled workers compared to their non-disabled counterparts.

Three contributing factors to transition failures for multicultural students, according to Bakken and Okiafor, are that they may: 1) face language and social barriers; 2) have difficulty processing standard English; and 3) develop a sense of isolation (2009). Similar concerns have been expressed by

Geenen, Powers, Lopez-Vasquez, and Bersani (2003).

In addition to experiencing the discrimination, stereotypes, and negative attitudes associated with this “double bias,” adolescents and their families may encounter barriers in seeking assistance from service and educational systems that espouse values that are often antithetical to their own. These factors likely exacerbate the sense of hopelessness and helplessness that may further hinder the self-determination of minorities with disabilities.

(Geenen et al., 2003, p. 29)

Taking Culture into Account

Wilder, Jackson, & Smith (2001) agree that transition as it is currently practiced in U.S. public schools does not sufficiently address the particular needs of students from multicultural backgrounds. According to Wilder et al., “individualization based on disability classification alone [without considering culture] is insufficient to facilitate successful postsecondary transitions for all students with disabilities” (p. 119). Wilder et al. propose four strategies to address multicultural needs in transition planning and services.

- 1) Attend to significant relationships that affect transitions;
- 2) Provide clear information and exposure to the world of work and occupations of interest;
- 3) Demonstrate awareness of and respect for students’ cultural backgrounds; and
- 4) Provide multicultural, academic, and disability services on campuses and in organizations. (pp. 123-124)

According to Wilder et al. (2001), better transition outcomes for Native American Indian and other youth of color would incorporate involvement of community members, primarily because of the difference made by “role models from the student's own cultural community to serve as mentors” (p. 122). One example supporting this proposal was given by panelist Edna Johnson at a 2009 CEC session, mentioned above in the present study (Kohler, P.D. et al., 2009), who explained that “black youth need a trusting voice that understands where they're coming from....yet counseling for people of color—especially black males—is a stigma.” Johnson suggested finding a black male in the community “who can serve as a model, who that young man can confide in,” so that the student learns “help isn't a negative thing.”

Working With Multicultural Youth and Families

There are important differences between the transition needs and outcomes for minority and non-minority adolescents, according to Geenen, Powers, Lopez-Vasquez, and Bersani (2003). According to these researchers, the cultural values of minority students are likely to be left out of the transition-planning process.

Traditionally, the field of transition has been oriented towards the values of the mainstream culture, which generally emphasize individuality, control over one's environment and a focus on the future. As such, they may directly oppose the values of students from cultural backgrounds that emphasize interconnectedness, harmony with nature, and the importance of past and present time.

(Geenen et al., 2003, p. 29)

Even the basic assumptions of transition services, including values like self-determination and

self-reliance, may not speak adequately to cultural frame differences between individualism and collectivism (Leake, Black, & Roberts, 2003-2004), complicating the process by which an IEP team shifts its focus to transition planning when a CLD student in Kansas turns fourteen. Leake et al. describe five common values that typically frame the transition planning process: 1) competitiveness and individual achievement; 2) self-determination and choice; 3) further growth through higher education; 4) independent living; and 5) following the written transition plan precisely. Leake et al. suggest that the special educator and IEP/transition team member should become aware of this value system and understand how it can affect relationships with a CLD student and his or her family, and determine whether goals need to be modified to take into account the student's context or tradition. The very meaning of "successful adulthood," if not shared or worked out between the transition case worker and a CLD student on an IEP, can hamper the transition process because of its impact on factors such as roles, community life, and important social relationships (Geenen, Powers, & Lopez-Vasquez, 2001, p. 266). Leake et al. (2003-2004) propose a four-step "process of cultural reciprocity" for a transition professional to use in working "with a particular CLD youth and family."

Step 1 : the professional identifies his or her cultural values underlying interpretations of the youth's situation. For example, the professional may realize that values like independence and self-reliance lead to recommending that a young adult with developmental disabilities move from the family home to supported living and, eventually, independent living.

Step 2: The professional finds out the extent to which his or her values and assumptions are recognized and accepted by the youth

and family. If they do not view independent living as a milestone to adulthood, then this may not be an appropriate goal.

Step 3: The professional acknowledges any cultural differences identified and explains to the youth and family how and why mainstream American society promotes different values. How the value of independent living has benefited other youth and families might be described, helping the youth and family to understand the cultural basis for professional recommendations.

Step 4: Through discussion and collaboration, the professional, youth, and family collaboratively determine the most effective way of adapting professional interpretations and recommendations to the family value system.

(Leake et al., 2003-2004, pp. 28-29)

Addressing Self-Determination in Multicultural Transition

New research by Shogren (2011) reiterates much of the above advice on collaboration between special education professionals and CLD families to develop innovative approaches that break with traditional models of self-determination and replace these with perspectives that incorporate cultural data and recognize the cultural and language heritages of students and families.

Understanding the multiple factors that define one's cultural identity as well as the multiple systems that filter the influence

of culture on self-determination interventions is a complex task but necessary to further our understanding and enhance our ability to design and implement culturally responsive self-determination interventions that promote positive adult outcomes for all students.

(Shogren, 2011, p. 116)

Shogren argues that “change will be needed across multiple systems to enable the implementation of self-determination instruction that embraces diverse cultural values and provides opportunities for the operationalization of diverse self-determination behaviors” (p. 119) because traditionally in American special education, “self-determination interventions have been operationalized around mainstream U.S. values” (p. 123). The implications for teacher-education of special educators, according to Shogren, are not only to reorient perspectives on self-determination to address multicultural needs, but also to train teachers better in the development of interventions to build self-determination skills. “Multiple studies have reported that although teachers feel self-determination is important,” explains Shogren, “they also felt poorly trained to promote self-determination” (p. 125).

Multicultural Family Perspectives on Transition

In their 2003 study of multicultural students and families, Geenen, Powers, Lopez-Vasquez, and Bersani sought to provide data to assist in “understanding and meeting the unique transition needs and experiences of underrepresented ethnically and culturally diverse adolescents with disabilities” (p. 28). These researchers hoped to find “the barriers encountered by minority families as adolescents with disabilities move into adulthood and to identify what issues or goals are most important to families during this time of transition” (p. 29).

Their study consisted of two parts: the first, a “qualitative study of family experiences during

transition,” in which 31 “ethnically diverse parents or primary caregivers of a transition-aged adolescent receiving special education services” participated in one-hour to one-and-a-half hour long focus groups or, in the cases of nine caregivers, individual 60-minute interviews requested by the participants. Eight of the related adolescents took part in the focus groups or interviews with their parents or caregivers. These were open-ended conversations in which participants responded to three questions:

- 1) What would you consider to be a successful future for your child?
- 2) What are barriers to that future?
- 3) What has happened so far to help your son/daughter get ready for the future? Who has helped? What have they done? What have you done?

(Geenen et al., 2003, p. 31)

The researchers followed this qualitative data collection with a quantitative “survey study to corroborate qualitative findings, ” which they mailed to 474 black, 106 Latino, and 88 Native American Indian parents “whose children a) fell between the ages of 13 and 21, b) received special education services, and c) were classified by the school district as having a physical, cognitive, and/or a health related disability” (p. 31). Also receiving the survey were “250 Euro-American parents [of] children with similar disabilities in this large urban school district that serves approximately 57,000 students” (p. 31).

The final version of the survey listed statements describing transitioning experiences or goals that could be conceptualized as falling in one of two

categories: barriers to transition and supports/issues important to families during transition. Parents were asked to rate how true each statement was for their child with special needs using a Likert scale of 1 to 5.

(p. 32)

Of the 918 total surveys sent, Spanish and English versions were mailed to participants with Hispanic family names; and a \$15 stipend was offered to anyone who filled out a postcard and sent it along with the anonymous survey in the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope. The response rate of 34 percent “was relatively even across the different ethnic groups” (p. 32). The following is a complete list of the questions that comprised this survey instrument.

1. People respect my child's race, nationality, or cultural background.
2. People are sensitive towards my child's health condition or disability.
3. I worry about my child's relationship with other teenagers.
4. People do things that help my child overcome problems with his or her health condition or disability.
5. People do things that allow my child to express his or her culture.
6. It is hard for my child because of other problems at home or in the community.
7. I can get good services that help me to care for my child.
8. Getting good medical insurance for my child is difficult.
9. It is important to me that my child learn the traditions and

values of his or her culture.

10. It is important to me that my child learn to take care of himself as much as possible.

11. Relatives help me care for my child.

(Geenen et al., 2003, p. 33)

The researchers on that study considered both qualitative interviews and quantitative data from the surveys in generating the following conclusions.

The findings that highlight the continuing problem of perceived insensitivity, discrimination and lack of access to accommodations experienced by minority families suggest that fundamental attitudinal barriers may exist among professionals that erode their capacity to build trust and to establish relationships with families that can support transition.
(pp. 43-44)

Although the findings highlight a number of critical barriers facing minority families, they also point to resources and strengths of these families... Perhaps the most important strength is the connection many minority families have with their extended family and community.
(p. 44)

Minority and Euro-American families shared similar values for their adolescent children becoming as self-sufficient as possible... Apparently,

however, self-sufficiency and independence have different meanings for [Hispanic] families: independence is often associated with separation from the family while self-sufficiency can occur while staying with family.

(p. 44)

Geenen et al. (2003) made three recommendations for transition practices with multicultural adolescents. Their first recommendation was that we as educators ought to “deepen our examination and acknowledgment of the ways that cultural unawareness and separation from minority families foster their sense of distrust, dis-empowerment and hopelessness” (p. 44). Their second recommendation was that transition professionals should “more effectively capitalize on” the “resources and strengths of these families” by establishing “partnerships with significant community leaders and informal support providers,” in addition to raising the awareness of families to “institutionally based or formal support” that they might otherwise not take the initiative to seek out themselves (p. 44). The third recommendation was that educators keep in mind “the language and meaning distinction between *independence* and *self-sufficiency*...as they work with families to promote adolescents' movement into adult roles” (p. 44).

Empowerment of Multicultural Students in Transition

In 2007, Hipolito-Delgado and Lee issued a call for a shift in the attitudes and practices of school counselors towards “children of marginalized communities” as those students work to overcome “social, cultural, and systemic barriers” (2007a, p. 327).

The nature of oppression can be seen in the structure and process of American schools. Inequality of funding represents the largest stratification in the American educational system....Less funding

represents diminished access to the most qualified teachers, fewer teachers overall, fewer professional school counselors, and diminished art, music, and special programs.

(Hipolito-Delgado and Lee, 2007a, p. 327)

Hipolito-Delgado and Lee utilized a particular definition of empowerment from Gutierrez (1995): “the process of increasing personal, interpersonal, or political power so that individuals, families, and communities can take action to improve their situations” (para. 1). According to Hipolito-Delgado and Lee (2007a), empowerment theory originated with Paulo Freire (1970, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*) and his critique of education and teachers as fulfilling primarily the function of maintaining a system of oppression.

...True solidarity with the oppressed means fighting at their side to transform the objective reality which has made them these “beings for another.” The oppressor is [in solidarity with] the oppressed only when he stops regarding the oppressed as an abstract category and sees them as persons who have been unjustly dealt with, deprived of their voice, cheated in the sale of their labor....To affirm that men [and women] are persons and as persons should be free, and yet to do nothing tangible to make this affirmation a reality, is a farce.

(Freire, 1970, p. 35)

According to Hipolito-Delgado and Lee (2007a), the deleterious effects on children of “the stress of living through oppression” include feelings of low self-esteem among “communities of color,”

which “are plagued by violence; drug abuse; lack of political representation; lack of access to resources...high unemployment rates; and denial of legal rights enjoyed by other Americans” (p. 327). Furthermore, students from oppressed communities “are likely to be overrepresented in special education, remedial education, lower ability groups, and vocational tracks” (p. 327).

Students in these tracks are less likely to receive instruction that will promote critical thinking and are less likely to receive college preparation....Additionally, lack of college preparation makes it more difficult for marginalized students to attain the educational capital necessary to reach the upper rungs of socioeconomic status.

(pp. 327-328)

Hipolito-Delgado and Lee report that, for multicultural students, schooling entails “an indoctrination into oppression,” in which the values and accomplishments of their cultures are relegated to a subordinate role or not even included in “an ethnocentric, mono-cultural” curriculum which fails to teach “American students collectively...how centuries of racism and classism have contributed to the existence of privileged classes and oppressed classes” (2007a, p. 328).

The authors describe three levels of empowerment—personal, community/organizational, and socio-political—and justify their focus on the personal level.

At this level, the individual is empowered in order to be most effective in his or her community action; a dis-empowered person may not fully understand societal injustice and may unknowingly cause harm through his or her activities.... The empowered person's activities within the community, in turn, will lead to a collective empowerment, where the community advocates for social and political change.

(p. 328)

The goal of a personal empowerment process, according to Hipolito-Delgado and Lee, is “to rid oneself of internalized racism and achieve a healthy identity” (2007a, p. 328). This process is driven by “praxis,” a term coined by Freire (1970) and defined by Hipolito-Delgado and Lee as “action-guided theory,” with the actions aimed at “the liberation of oppressed communities” (p. 328).

[The oppressed] must acquire a critical awareness of oppression through the praxis of this struggle. One of the gravest obstacles to the achievement of liberation is that oppressive reality absorbs those within it and thereby acts to submerge men's consciousness. Functionally, oppression is domesticating. To no longer be prey to its force, one must emerge from it and turn upon it. This can be done only by means of the praxis: reflection and action upon the world in order to transform it. (Freire, 1970, p. 36)

At the center of personal empowerment, according to Hipolito-Delgado and Lee (2007a), are three constructs: “critical consciousness, positive identity, and taking social action” (p. 328). They describe critical consciousness as an “advanced form of perception” which enables an individual to transcend an oppressive system by realizing “the systemic barriers that entrap them” (p. 329). There is a certain amount of ambiguity in their definition of this term because critical consciousness seems to be described as both the ability to perceive the world clearly and a level of awareness resulting from that ability.

In addition to critical consciousness, there are two more constructs described as components of the concept of personal empowerment, according to Hipolito-Delgado and Lee (2007a): “positive identity” and “social action.” Developing a positive, empowering identity requires that “the oppressed person engages in the process of 'humanization',” another term from Freire (1970), which “gives

validity to their existence and inspires work to improve their socio-political circumstances” (Hipolito-Delgado and Lee, 2007a, p. 329). However, according to these researchers, “the most important component of personal empowerment is social action,” the work of “[liberating] themselves and their community” (p. 329). These researchers insist that it is crucial to this aspect of empowerment for school personnel to enable multicultural youth to become involved in student government, faculty-student parent advisory committees and other forms of social activism.

Empowerment theory can serve as a theoretical guide for the practice of social justice in school counseling. In adhering to empowerment theory, professional school counselors might become active in the process of liberating the students of marginalized communities by promoting personal empowerment of students, promoting community empowerment, and engaging in activism on behalf of their students. By making empowerment theory explicit in their work, professional school counselors can be an active force in promoting academic success for all students.

(Hipolito-Delgado and Lee, 2007a, p. 329)

Hipolito-Delgado and Lee recommend a number of strategies and ideas for school counselors (and by implication other stakeholders such as special educators) who are interested in fostering empowerment values among multicultural students.

- Develop mutual relationships in which dialogue is valued;
- Avoid framing student problems in deficit-model terms;
- Encourage student involvement in clubs, ethnic student groups, and student

government;

- Bring social inequities to the forefront of the curriculum;
- Collaborate on curricular standards that embrace non-Western values and perspectives;
- Develop multidisciplinary lesson plans related to gender, race, and sexual orientation issues;
- Create consciousness raising groups for students from marginalized communities;
- Advocate for creation of ethnic studies and non-Western history courses;
- Collaborate on planning ethnic celebrations to expose all students to diverse traditions and values;
- Invite empowered community members, as role models, to speak at school assemblies;
- Encourage students to participate in community groups, social advocacy groups, and political rallies;
- Help students develop self-efficacy through community organizing;
- Encourage students to participate in student government, faculty/student advisory committees, and parent-teacher associations;
- Facilitate empowerment of parents and community members; and
- Be willing to go beyond school walls to encourage active involvement of parents and community members at school.

(Hipolito-Delgado and Lee, 2007a, pp. 329-331)

Becoming an Advocate for CLD Students

In a follow-up article that was published in the same issue of the same journal, Hipolito-

Delgado and Lee reiterated several key points regarding the potential roles of school counselors in the empowerment processes of students who are members of oppressed communities (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007b). Hipolito-Delgado and Lee's advice is relevant for special education teachers in Kansas schools as well, since the special education caseworker for a student serves as the team-leader, or manager, on the transition-focused IEP. Hipolito-Delgado and Lee (2007b) acknowledge that school personnel themselves "must engage in a self-reflective process that leads to their own development of critical consciousness and sense of empowerment," especially those "whose racial/ethnic background, socioeconomic status, ability, or sexual orientation gives them a position of power and privilege both in the school setting and the general society" (p. 344). Hipolito-Delgado and Lee suggest incorporating empowerment theory, critical consciousness raising, and praxis in counselor preparation programs; these also would be feasible additions to special education teacher preparation programs in Kansas. However, the authors warn against educators perceiving themselves as "saviors" of the students. "Student empowerment must evolve from student efforts," explain Hipolito-Delgado and Lee (2007b, p. 344). "Therefore, counselors must be seen as important, but ancillary to the movement of students for personal and community empowerment" (p. 344).

Hipolito-Delgado and Lee (2007b) concede that in the current "narrowing of the curricula," teachers and counselors face a serious dilemma between preparing students to succeed academically in the more narrow, "more ethnocentric, mono-cultural curriculum" or, on the other hand, engaging students in an empowerment process. Nevertheless, Hipolito-Delgado and Lee see personal empowerment as the more fundamental, more urgent task.

[I]f we promote academic achievement in the current curricular paradigm, we are endorsing the assimilation of students into an ethnocentric, mono-cultural knowledge base—which is not empowering for students of marginalized communities.

Therefore, we reiterate the call for school counselors [and all educators] to advocate for curricular change—for more inclusive, multicultural curricula—at their schools, in their school districts, and in their states.

(Hipolito-Delgado and Lee, 2007b, p. 345)

Transition from an African American Perspective

In a qualitative study in one of a growing number of black communities in America that have created modern “rite-of-passage” programs, Piert (2007) explored the experiences of seven black individuals who graduated between 1996 and 2002 from Marcus Garvey Preparatory Academy (MGPA) in a large city in Michigan.

Piert cites statistics reflecting positive strides made by African Americans in United States society since the Civil Rights era, including a rise of 12 percent in “high school completion rates” from 64.8 percent in 1975 to 76.9 percent in 1995; an increase in “the median family income,” from \$33,225 in 1999 to \$34,369 in 2003; and a number of prominent elected positions (p. 170). Today—in 2011—the list of political officeholders now includes U.S. President Barack Obama.

Nevertheless, there are serious obstacles still facing young blacks in American society, according to Piert, who reports that “Blacks continue to be plagued with ongoing social ills within their communities.” Among the statistics she cites are: disproportionate numbers of expulsions and suspensions and higher rates of placements in special education and “lower level academic courses” (p. 170). In addition, she adds, “Black males are more likely to be murdered, incarcerated or unemployed than their White counterparts.”

These outcomes impact the life chances of Black youth and also impact the Black community....In an effort to increase the life chances of their children, their community, and the nation,

many in the Black community have embraced rite-of-passage programs as a means to improve the future of their children and community. Specifically, for the Black community, rite-of-passage programs have emerged as a means used by schools and the community to act as a conduit for transitioning Black young people into adulthood....many of these rite-of-passage programs are culturally specific and focus on improved self-concept, self-sufficiency, and the development of ethnic identity.

(Piert, J.H., 2007, p. 170)

Piert also points out that “rite-of-passage” rituals are used in different communities around the world, and “in many African cultures, rite-of-passage for adolescence or puberty marked the point at which the child became an adult” (p. 171). She lists four “phases” of such rituals.

- a. Separation from the community
- b. Preparation from the elders
- c. Transition
- d. Introduction back into the community

(Piert, 2007, p. 171)

“In some African societies,” explains Piert, “persons who do not experience this initiation are not considered adults, or full members of that society” (p. 171).

According to Piert, “the particular historical, political, and social relationship of Blacks with American society necessitates a buffer or mediating venue for their successful navigation of the societal barriers” (p. 173), and a rite-of-passage ritual provides that “buffer.” She further states that “the optimal psychological health of black youth can only be achieved through the development of psychological strategies which enable them to resist the oppression of this society and develop a positive self-

concept,” her explanation of an idea she attributes to Brookins and Robinson (1995).

According to Piert, in an analysis of the transcripts from her seven interviews, “the rite-of-passage experience emerged as a significant component of the educational experience of these young people” (p. 176).

As the data were analyzed, several themes emerged from the perceptions shared by the participants... about their rite-of-passage program: they also were explicit about their perceptions of the program. One theme suggests that the participants perceived “readiness” as an essential prerequisite to participating in rite-of-passage experiences. Another theme from the data suggests that the young people understood that participation in the rite was the introduction into adulthood and adult responsibilities. They also understood the rite as a community investment in their lives.

(Piert, 2007, p. 176)

The rite-of-passage program in the Marcus Garvey Preparatory Academy community was divided into two phases. The first was in junior high, at about age 12, and the second happened between the ages of 14 and 17. The exact age depended on each participant's mental development and “readiness,” as determined by adults in the community. The first rite was perceived by the participants as entering into adulthood, with concomitant “greater responsibilities at home and in school” (p. 176). The second rite, referred to as the “Baba or Mama rite,” was interpreted as “acceptance by the community into an adulthood beset with the privileges and benefits of adult status within the community” (p. 176).

The first rite-of-passage was an “initiation” that “usually lasted a week, but as the program continued through the years...refined and broadened to cover several months” (p. 176). Males and

females participated in this first rite together, but were separated for the second phase, several years later, in which “males and females experienced different rituals.” In this second phase, both groups “experienced separation from the community”: the males went on “a field trip for wilderness training” (p. 177).

Male elders, consisting of teachers, parents, and community persons, prepared and accompanied young men between the ages of 14 and 17 years old on a “camping” trip. At this gathering, which lasted for a week, the young men were taken through a rigorous program of values impartation, strength training, relationship building, bonding, and explication of the expectations and objectives of manhood (ie., sexuality, fatherhood, provider, and community leader).

(Piert, 2007, p. 177)

Female participants in the second phase of the rite-of-passage rituals experienced separation from the community in the form of “a symbolic seclusion,” in which they did not always travel but adhered to what the interviewees in Piert's study called a “communication fast.”

The young women were restricted from speaking with their fathers and brothers during this time. Their time was spent in the presence of their mothers and female elders where they received instructions, were counseled, and were assigned tasks. As the program evolved...female participants engaged in hiking trips and formed drill teams to establish discipline.

(Piert, 2007, p. 177)

Piert reports that, in keeping with the role of community in “African traditional culture,” as “the

central organism in which the young person comes to understand his/her personhood,” it was the Marcus Garvey Preparatory Academy school community that organized the rite-of-passage program for the students of the school. She explains that “the director, staff, parents and families as well as Black community leaders were actively involved in creating a rite-of-passage program particular to the needs of the youth and that community” (p. 180).

This community effort speaks a two-fold message. First, it demonstrates the importance of the ideology of African traditional culture to the school community that “children were blessings” and belonged to the community. Second, this community investment of time and interest demonstrates to each young person that he/she is important to the community and that his/her life is integrally linked to the well-being and survival of each community member and the community as a whole. Community involvement in the lives of these participants can ameliorate the impact of social ills that can exist in Black communities and resulting from the racism of an oppressive society.

(Piert, 2007, p. 180)

According to Piert, the male and female participants in the second rite-of-passage are recognized and honored at ceremonies with “same sex family members, teachers, staff, and elders...to celebrate the incorporation of the person into the community” (p. 180). Most of the participants “described their rite-of-passage experience as a positive event in their lives,” and the overwhelming assessment of the rite-of-passage experience by these participants, was that it had helped them to come to “understand themselves as agents in the adult arena,” according to Piert, who suggested the

“elders...were involved in re-shaping the thinking of the young people through the revelation of the community's beliefs and value system...”(p. 182). One young woman who went on to college reported that the rite-of-passage experience had prepared her to stand up for herself in challenging situations. One young man said that he had “learned the responsibilities of being a warrior,” meaning, according to Piert, “the skills and knowledge necessary to maintain the survival of his family and his community.” Several young women who were interviewed had given birth to their own children in the years since graduation, and expressed their beliefs that the rite-of-passage program had given them “skills, values, and knowledge to cope with and accommodate the new role that the pregnancy and birth demanded” (p. 182).

The findings from the study suggest that the rite-of-passage program...provided its youth with positive outcomes that enhanced their life chances and strengthened the school community....The rite program assisted students in establishing their self-concepts in relation to the community and in helping them to understand through the investment in the community that they had a responsibility to the collective group that superseded their interests in their individuality.

(Piert, 2007, p. 182)

The Effects of Racism on African American Youth

Rite-of-passage programs like the one described above strive to provide a counter-weight to the deleterious effects of long-term exposure to direct as well as institutional racism. Cooper, S.M., McLoyd, V.C., Wood, D., & Hardaway, C.R. (2008) explain how a teenager's cognitive development can be subverted by the experience of racism.

"Although cognitive growth during adolescence may endow youth

with more cognitive resources to deal with experiences of racial discrimination, it may also result in increased vulnerability to these experiences and circumstances....with the expansion in cognitive processing skills that occurs during this period, adolescents are not only more cognizant of the prevalence of racial discrimination, but also have the ability to integrate individual- and group-level experiences of discrimination and to incorporate these experiences into their self-perceptions and world-views.

(Cooper et al., p. 280-281)

Cooper et al. cite studies showing that a range from “46 to 90 percent of African American adolescents and young adults...report personal experiences with racism and discrimination” (p. 281). Examples of racism, according to Cooper et al., include “being treated as if one is less capable than whites, being unfairly judged on the basis of negative group stereotypes, being treated with less courtesy than others, receiving poorer services than others at restaurants and stores, being harassed by the police...” (p. 281).

Cooper et al. suggest that the lives of black males are particularly impacted by the effects of their experiences with racism.

Undoubtedly, African American males' lower educational attainment, higher levels of involvement in the criminal justice system, and higher unemployment rates derive partly from the fact that they are, on a daily basis, more subject to the cognitive (negative stereotypes), affective (prejudice), and behavioral (discrimination) components of racism.

(Cooper et al., p. 282)

“In a vicious cycle,” explain Cooper et al., “negative stereotypes and racial prejudice can fuel unfair treatment...at an early age, leading to educational and social disadvantages among African American males, which in turn can promote further unfair treatment” (p. 282).

According to Cooper et al., the “implications” of “direct experiences of racial discrimination” include “psychological distress, engagement in risky behavior, and suicide” (p. 283). Reported among the psychological effects of “perceived racial discrimination” against black teenagers are:

- Lower self-esteem
- Increased depressive symptomatology
- Psychological distress
- Feelings of hopelessness
- Anxiety; and
- Lower life satisfaction.

(Cooper et al., p. 284)

The positive correlation between racial discrimination and “later psychological functioning” is more pronounced than any correlation between “previous psychological functioning” and “perceptions of racial discrimination,” according to Cooper et al., who conclude that “racial discrimination plays a causal role in African American adolescents' mental health functioning” (p. 284).

“Adolescents who believe that their teachers and peers hold racial biases against them,” suggest Cooper et al., “may experience declines in well-being, including elevated stress and anxiety” (p. 285). Furthermore, these psychological effects of racism have long-term “implications for African American youths' economic well-being, family formation, marital and family processes, and psychological adjustment during adulthood” (p. 285). Examples of discrimination in a school setting, according to Cooper et al., include:

- Less academic assistance
- More severe sanctions for violation of school rules
- Receiving a lower grade
- Not being chosen [by peers] for particular teams or activities due to race

(Cooper et al., p. 282-285)

In an article cited by Cooper et al., O'Connor (1999) quotes a high school student who claims that black males are picked on by teachers.

A lot of times when you will talk out in class—and like if a white kid or a black girl says something to the teacher like the teacher is saying something out of pocket or out of hand or something, and you be like, “Well, I don't believe in that.” And the teacher seems to think that because you raise your voice, and you be like, “Well, I don't like [that],” they think, well, he would hurt me or something. So they call security. But then it's different with the white kid or the black girl. The white kid or the black girl, they just talk to them. They be like, “I'm going to call your mother” or something like that. But if you be that way, they be like “I'm going to call security.”

(O'Connor, 1999, p. 152)

This high schooler “not only conveyed that African American boys are stigmatized as being violent and headed for jail,” explains O'Connor, “but that such stigma affects their educational experiences in ways

that are distinct from that of the 'white kid' or 'black girl'" (p. 152).

In sum, the students who recognized the unique status of African American men articulated the prevalence with which African American men are “stereotyped instantly” as “convicts,” “gang bangers,” and “perpetrators” and how this stigma limits their life chances. Some pointed to the resulting constraints on educational opportunity; others, to the limits on their employment prospects; and still others, to their restricted movement in public space ... on the assumption that they are necessarily “up to no good.”

(O'Connor, 1999, p. 153)

These individual cases of bias take place in the context of institutional racism in schools, especially evident in the over-representation of African American males in special education and their under-representation in programs for the gifted and talented, as reported by Moore, Henfield, & Owens (2008).

Nationally, it is estimated that nearly 20,000 African American male students are inappropriately classified as [having an intellectual disability]....Furthermore, African American males are frequently identified as emotionally disturbed....as a group [they] are twice as likely to be diagnosed with this label....the African American community cannot help but be bothered by these alarming patterns....It is necessary that educators, policy makers, and researchers expand their understanding of the factors—school, psychological, social, and cultural—that make African American males susceptible

to being diagnosed, classified, and placed in special education.

(Moore, Henfield, & Owens, D., 2008, pp. 908-910)

Relationships Between Black Youth and School Counselors

Blacks and “other students of color are falling between the cracks,” say Moore et al., adding that black students are “more likely to attend schools with fewer educational resources.... [and] the major difference between African American male students and their Caucasian counterparts is that they must contend with educational environments tainted by biases, stereotypes, and discrimination” (pp. 911-912). Those authors interviewed ten black male high-schoolers in two mid-western “low-performing, urban high schools.” Moore et al. focused on this interview data because, in their view, “the voices of African American males in special education are rarely heard in popular and scientific literature.... [and] regarding their perceptions of school counselors and attitudes toward school counseling services, they are heard even less” (p. 913). Those authors used “Critical Race Theory” (CRT) to frame their conversations with these 10 participants.

Using CRT as a framework allowed the students to voice their concerns, particularly those related to race and race relations, on matters related to school counselors and the services they offer to students.... [so that their stories could be] useful for theorizing and examining the ways in which race and the meanings attached to race influence the educational context for students of color...

(Moore et al., 2008, p. 913)

According to Moore et al., the participants perceive school counselors as people who help them organize their class schedules, but report not having trusting relationships in most cases that would otherwise allow them to confide in counselors about personal issues. “Feelings of mistrust, hesitancy to self-disclose, and resistance,” explain Moore et al., “are common reasons why African American males

do not utilize, or underutilize, counseling services” (p. 919).

...The African American male participants illustrated comfort-level issues with their school counselor. Some of the comfort-level issues were related to past school counselor experiences, family-school boundaries, school counselor time availability, and school counselor bias. (Moore et al., 2008, p. 919)

In addition, “African American male participants did not perceive [help with] career issues as one of the roles of school counselors....despite the fact that the career domain is... [a] recommended focus of the... [American School Counselor Association]” (Moore et al., 2008, p. 917). In the context of Martin (2002), Moore et al. (2008) present their own suggestions for enhancing school counselor practices with African American male students. Their suggestions are also relevant for special education teachers in the role of caseworker or manager in the transition-focused IEP process for black students with special needs in Kansas schools.

TSCI Category: Improving Advocacy and Leadership of Counselors with Black Students

In the area of advocacy, Moore et al. encourage counselors to “advocate on behalf of these students in order to gain their trust and build rapport....[and] inform students in special education of their career counseling skills.” Those authors want counselors to become more “proactive about... [making] their presence felt throughout the school....[and] be seen interacting with students of different gender, races, and academic levels,” as well as becoming “involved in organizations, such as the Council for Exceptional Children,” which “can provide useful information for working with educationally vulnerable populations, such as African American males in special education” (pp. 921-922). By implication, Moore et al. are calling for greater awareness on the part of school counselors to the tools that special education teachers can utilize on behalf of African-American students with special needs.

TSCI Category: Counseling Opportunities for Teaming and Collaboration

In the area of teaming and collaboration, Moore et al. promote developing “ways to collaborate with other educators...to develop culturally sensitive classification practices for special education...[to] help improve school outcomes for students.” In addition, because their interviews generated data suggesting that black students confide more in family members than with school counselors, those researchers suggest that counselors “try involving family members in counseling sessions or programs as a means to build rapport” (p. 922).

TSCI Categories: Counseling and Consultation on Behalf of African American Teens

In the area of counseling itself, Moore et al. endorse greater awareness “of the counseling needs of African American males in special education,” including gifted learners, to assist “in developing and coordinating special school counseling programs for these students,” as well as visiting classes “to familiarize themselves with these [exceptional] students and increase visibility” (p. 922).

In the area of consultation, it is recommended by Moore et al. that school counselors “develop programming aimed at alerting family members to...[the family's] influence...on African American males in special education programs” (p. 922)

School counselors need to be vigilant in their attempts to build rapport with African American males in special education programs. One way to do this is to gain the trust of family members by showing how school counseling services are of use to their children. When school counselors earn the respect of family members, they may then recommend school counseling services to their student.

(Moore et al., 2008, p. 922)

Activism Among Teenage African Americans Today

Antoinette Ellis-Williams (2007) reported on interviews, surveys, and focus groups she

conducted with college (ages 19-26) and elementary-school (second- and fourth-graders, ages 7-10) students in two urban settings in New Jersey—Newark and Jersey City. Ellis-Williams was interested in understanding the experiences of modern black youth in the context of the “resistance movements” and Civil Rights activism of earlier generations of African American youth.

There is a nostalgic, even romantic, remembrance of an era filled with youth led boycotts, sit-ins, walk outs and protests in the 1950s-1970s. The issues of poverty, racism, war, and sexism were taken up by young people. The African American community celebrated youth activism in schools, churches and civic organizations. Youth were on the forefront, fighting for social justice.

(Ellis-Williams, 2007, p. 108)

Ellis-Williams suggests that understanding the role of activism in the lives of young blacks today entails a recognition that the following factors influence efforts at “contextualizing social resistance, democracy and justice in our ever-changing society” (p. 109).

Modern Influences on Resistance and Activism Among Young Blacks

- 1) Role of technology and mass media,
- 2) Impact of integration,
- 3) Reduction of collective action and increased emphasis and reliance on individual rights,
- 4) Reduced emphasis of race consciousness and/or identity,
- 5) Disconnect from the Civil Rights generation,
- 6) Greater impact of globalization on culture, and
- 7) Greater influence of Hip Hop culture on activism.

(Ellis-Williams, p. 109)

The inclusion of elementary-school children in her study allowed Ellis-Williams to compare the perspectives of college-age blacks with those of much younger blacks, but also ended up providing insight into how awareness and experiences from childhood might affect later involvement in activism, which Ellis Williams implies would be a positive outcome. The fourth-graders that she interviewed were much more familiar with the concepts of social justice and resolving injustice through “collective action” than either the second-graders or the college students. “It is important to note that this class had a new, young, and enthusiastic African-American teacher,” explains Ellis-Williams, and the teacher was committed to getting her fourth-graders “engaged...with the material on the events of the Civil Rights Movement” (p. 115).

[The teacher] stated, “The class pushed me to do more. I had to adjust my curriculum. They were so hungry for information, so I had to respond.” It was this passion and engagement that led to a climate ripe for the two day “recess protest.” Students had role models (youth from the 1960s), they had a cause (no freedom at recess), and they had an action plan (change recess). They made demonstration signs, created a recess proposal (which included a new schedule of events and alternative play/game activities). For two days during recess they marched around the nearby park, sang freedom songs from the sixties (e.g., “Ain't Gonna Let Nobody Turn Me Around”) and engaged in a “recess slow down.”

(Ellis-Williams, 2007, p. 115)

In conversations about a prompt regarding “resolving justice,” in which participants were asked to imagine their reactions if they witnessed someone being treated unfairly, Ellis-Williams divided

their responses into “active” and “inactive” resolutions, explaining “active resolutions are defined as those methods of intervention based on direct action or empowered solution” (p. 113). She reported that the fourth-graders were the group with the largest proportion (87 percent) saying they would “personally step in to resolve” the situation.

On the same question, the college-level participants, all experienced with leadership roles in campus organizations such as “Black Freedom Society,” “Caribbean Student Association,” “African Student Organization,” and “Haitian Student Association,” distinguished between unfair situations on campus and unfairness off campus, in the local community. “Students are better able to navigate the bureaucracy on a college campus,” explains Ellis-Williams. “They have many resources and support systems....these students were willing to voice their concerns” (p. 114).

Data collected would suggest that activism is directly correlated to a sense of power, i.e., control. In the community most felt dis-empowered, isolated and helpless when examining conditions of injustice and inequities. However, when they have a sense of control and are supported by other like-minded individuals, their ability to engage in problem solving, [and] activism...tended to increase.

(Ellis-Williams, 2007, p. 113)

Importance of Family Awareness of Social Justice Issues

Another determining factor in a participant's awareness of and involvement in activism on behalf of social justice was, according to Ellis-Williams, whether a parent or other close relative was involved. “It is worth noting,” she writes, “that the second graders were the most engaged in the local political election... [because] two second grade students had family members running for office” (p. 118).

This high level of engagement in the local democratic process clearly underscores the influence and impact of peers and family members. The more students are able to directly associate with the political process the more likely they are to become involved in that process.

(Ellis-Williams, p. 118)

“Every fourth grader in this study... stated that their parents were the most influential in teaching them about justice,” explains Ellis-Williams, and college students were also deeply influenced by their families (p. 120). In one case, a college student described parents “fighting for everything.” Another participant recounted hearing a parent discussing issues “at home and at the dinner table.” A further example came from one of these college-age African American students who was raised by a single mother who “wanted the best for me so when I was very young she made me volunteer in my church, school and community...helping with craft fairs, Earth Day, whatever” (p. 120).

The majority of respondents said that they were involved with social justice action because of their family influence. Youth seem more likely to become socially engaged if they have family or teachers to support this activity....When individuals experienced injustice or had a close family member impacted by social injustice they were also more likely to participate in resistance activities....They want to make sure the injustice does not happen again.

(Ellis-Williams, 2007, pp. 122-123)

“African American youth have a large capacity for activism and ability to resist,” concludes Ellis-Williams. “Early engagement on issues of social justice, equality and freedom by family, teachers,

pastors and community leaders can help to shape political character and willingness to participate as an activist” (p. 123). Although in the process of growing up a person may “tend to become more jaded about their ability to make a change,” it does not have to happen that way (p. 123).

Youth are more likely to become involved if they perceive issues as directly impacting their lives....they are still willing to work on fighting for justice if they find other like-minded individuals....Finally, when schools provide information and role models, students are more likely to take risks and want to improve their surroundings.

(Ellis-Williams, p. 123)

Shifting the Focus to Positive Efforts by African American Males

Phillip D. Harris (2007) describes a positive vision of the potential for black males to achieve academic success. He interviewed 12 college juniors and seniors on the difference it made for them to have African American mentors throughout their undergraduate programs. Instead of focusing on “disincentives,” such as unequal socioeconomic outcomes for blacks and whites with similar academic preparation, and associated indifference, lack of motivation, and apathy among college-age black youth—as well as “other social factors” such as “homicide, incarceration, the high dropout rates, health problems, financial hardships, and the lack of positive role models”—Harris directs his attention to “what students do right” and “a steady increase in the number of African American males earning baccalaureate degrees” (Harris, pp. 1-4).

The majority of studies that pertain to African American males in education dwell on negative aspects of this population....Few studies focus on the African American males' success as they are advancing through higher education....there is limited

research addresses the influence and importance mentoring has on African American males' progress through their academic success. Such research could provide valuable data to further aid in the development and success of future African American males.

(Harris, p. 8)

Harris is not satisfied with the progress made thus far by black males at institutions of higher education. "This current study recognizes that while many African American males are matriculating through and graduating from college," he writes, "there could and should be many more African American males matriculating through college" (p. 12). Harris conducted his research to understand "the influence and importance of having a mentor" in these successes and "specifically... the influence that mentoring has on African American males who are currently in their junior and senior year at a predominantly White institution" (p. 12).

Considering the Impact of Non-Cognitive Factors on Academic Achievement

According to Harris, "current literature about the experiences and characteristics of African American students in higher education continue to concentrate on their perceived inability to persist to degree completion" (p. 18).

There are institutional factors and individual characteristics that significantly influence the African American students' success.... African American males who attend White institutions tend to experience depression, have low levels of academic motivation, and are generally unhappy about their college experience. If the student leaves college before receiving a degree, it is often attributed to negative encounters with someone at the university...

(Harris, 2007, pp. 19-20)

Harris further suggests that a number of researchers have ignored the social and emotional aspects of the college experience, instead assuming the key to success at college to be “predicated largely by pre-college preparedness [academic] factors” (p. 19).

Academic Resilience and Success

“A major factor [in] the African American males' academic performance was their inability to adjust to social norms in a predominantly White college environment,” explains Harris, “[and] ... adjustment to college is enhanced when African American males enroll in a school that matches their interpersonal skills and values to the structured school environment” (p. 19). He advocates the inclusion of students' values in the college curriculum, and insists that even learners from “lower socioeconomic homes...are able to display academic resilience and achieve success....when their needs and abilities are congruent with the institution” (p.20). Harris suggests that “non-cognitive variables are more effective in predicting academic success among African American males than traditional variables used ... for White students” (p.20), citing research by Tracey and Sedlacek (1985). Harris (2007) also stresses the vital role that involvement in social organizations plays in the success of African American males in college (Morales, 2000, as cited by Harris). Central to that success is also the learning that occurs through a relationship with a mentor, according to Harris.

It was vital for older peers to display and model
desired behaviors to newer students. These students become
resilient and learn to adapt to new cultures by manifesting
“protective factors” that sheltered and mitigated risk factors.
The resilient students are continuously able to refine
protective factors that assist them in reaching graduation.

(Harris, 2007, p. 20)

It is the responsibility of an institution of higher learning to design an environment that will

“enable the student to develop effective peer and faculty relationships, which would also contribute to academic integration and social involvement,” writes Harris, because “the more integrated an individual becomes in the academic and social environments of the institution, the more likely he or she will adopt an attitude and goals directed toward graduation” (pp. 20-21). Harris lists the following as factors beyond cognitive ability that have been found to “confound the predictions of the [lack of] persistence of African American males in college.”

Non-Cognitive Factors That Influence Persistence

- *Family background
- *Personality
- *Gender
- *Income
- *Past educational experiences
- *Future educational expectations

(Harris, 2007, p. 21)

The argument that Harris makes in favor of mentoring as a deciding factor in the persistence and successful completion of undergraduate degrees by African American males is supported by research published by Levine and Nidiffer (1996). These authors performed in-depth interviews with 24 people fitting the underprivileged demographic they were studying, and these individuals represented a range of ethnicities, including four black students. “The most important lesson of this book,” explain Levine and Nidiffer, “is that many, many more poor people can go to college than are currently attending. Race, gender, religion, and birthplace need not be barriers. In the simplest terms, the recipe for getting to college is mentorship—one arm around one child” (p. 139).

In the end, each of the mentors had accomplished the same four things—imparting hope, building confidence, communicating the

importance of education, and bringing potential students and colleges together. However, every one of the mentors did this in a different way. Each created a path to college based upon the needs of the person needing assistance and the strengths and weaknesses the mentor brought to the relationship.

(Levine, A. & Nidiffer, J., 1996, p. 144)

Levine and Nidiffer looked at how a child manages to grow up, develop the skills, and find the opportunity to go to college; Harris focused on black males, once they are admitted to a university, persisting and succeeding by graduating with a degree. Mentoring was found by Levine and Nidiffer to be central and vital to the successful preparation of underprivileged youth to attend college; Harris' hypothesis was that mentoring is equally crucial to a student's successful completion of the university degree. Mentoring "helps to empower African American students to overcome discrimination at the institution and inadequate academic preparation," writes Harris. "The role of the mentor is to guide and advise the protégé toward self-identification, accomplishments, and eventual self-realization" (Harris, 2007, pp. 22-23).

Transition and Advancement in Education Leadership Positions

McCray, Wright, and Beachum (2007) suggest that one indirect effect of the 1954 *Brown v Board of Education* was to remove black principals from their leadership posts in previously black schools which became integrated.

When school integration finally took place in southern states, African American principals who were in charge of predominately Black schools were the ones who usually lost their jobs to White administrators....In one southern state during the post-*Brown* decision, the

number of African American principals (elementary and secondary) dropped from 620 to 170 between the years 1963-1970....Between those years, there [also] was a 98 percent decrease in the number of African American principals who headed strictly secondary schools in this same southern state.

(McCray et al., 2007, pp. 247-248)

“Even today's aspiring African American principals find themselves facing almost insurmountable odds in trying to attain a principalship,” write McCray et al., who express particular concern with a persistent trend towards school districts only assigning black principals to schools that are predominately African American, while assigning white principals to any school, regardless of student demographics, and, in the cases of schools with predominately white student populations, only considering white principals. “From [our] recent data collected from a southeastern state,” say the three researchers, “...there is a tendency to place African American principals in mostly urban, segregated, and underfunded schools” (McCray et al., p. 248).

Currently, the placement of African American principals implicitly indicates that African American principals can only lead and be effective in schools that are more diverse. This supposition is possibly embedded in the rudiments of the historical legacy of Jim Crow edicts. Thus, those in the field of educational leadership (i.e., professors and practitioners) need to challenge such notions...

(McCray et al., p. 248)

McCray et al. sent their survey to every public school secondary school principal (n=302) in a southern state that they did not name. The survey as a whole regarded perceptions of multicultural education, but the researchers focused their attention on “a subset of [the] larger quantitative study,” the demographic data for principals and school populations.

Results from the Data Reported by McCray et al.

Of the 126 school principals who responded to the survey, 81 percent (N=102) headed majority White schools, while 19 percent (N=24) led majority Black schools. Of the 102 principals who led majority White schools that responded to the survey, the authors found that only 6 percent (N=6) of these schools were led by African American principals. In contrast, it was found that White principals were in charge of 46 percent of all majority African American schools and of course 94 percent of all majority White schools.

(McCray et al., p. 249)

McCray et al. wonder “whether or not any lingering thought pattern as it relates to race relations pre-*Brown* (i.e., institutional racism and White privilege)...is being manifested in the wide disparities observed in the selection and placement of African American secondary school principals” (p. 250). McCray et al. (2007) explore this concern from within the context of an analytical tool, mentioned also in reference to research by Moore et al. (2008) earlier in the present study, called “Critical Race Theory” (CRT), which, according to McCray et al., “requires the acknowledgement of the role that race has played in our society.... [and] advocates policies to ensure that individuals who have been historically disenfranchised are given equal access to opportunities...in educational leadership, a field that has been overwhelmingly dominated by White men” (p. 250).

The Significance of Critical Race Theory in Understanding a Black Perspective

Critical Race Theory is a form of analysis that began in the study of law and, in recent decades, has been applied to education, providing a way of understanding and expressing the continuing influence of racism—especially institutional racism—on the rights, opportunities, and experiences of Americans today. “Understanding the permanence of racism is critical in examining the placement of African American principals in this designated southeastern state, because of the state's historical legacy of racism,” according to McCray et al. (2007, p. 250).

Ladson-Billings and Tate (1995) explained the importance of anecdotal evidence in using Critical Race Theory as an analytical tool. “For the critical race theorist,” they write, “social reality is constructed by the formulation and the exchange of stories about individual situations. These stories serve as interpretive structures by which we impose order on experience and it on us” (p. 57). Telling ones own story provides a path to escape and subvert rhetorical traditions which have served to oppress certain groups, according to those authors.

A second reason for the naming-one's-own-reality theme of critical race theory is the psychic preservation of marginalized groups. A factor contributing to the demoralization of marginalized groups is self-condemnation. Members of minority groups internalize the stereotypic images that certain elements of society have constructed in order to maintain their power. Historically, storytelling has been a kind of medicine to heal the wounds of pain caused by racial oppression. The story of one's condition leads to realization of how one came to be oppressed and subjugated and allows one to stop inflicting mental violence on oneself.

(Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995, p. 57)

Another aspect of Critical Race Theory is the understanding and analysis of white privilege, and its origins in the traditions of property law. “More pernicious and long lasting than the victimization of people of color is the construction of whiteness as the ultimate property,” write Ladson-Billings and Tate (p. 58). This social and historical phenomenon is explained by Harris (1993).

Slavery as a system of property facilitated the merger of white identity and property. Because the system of slavery was contingent on and conflated with racial identity, it became crucial to be “white,” to be identified as white, to have the property of being white. Whiteness was the characteristic, the attribute, the property of free human beings....

(Harris, 1993, p. 279)

“The concept of Whiteness as property within the American educational system,” explain McCray et al. (2007), “requires that some form of inquiry take place with regard to how we select and place African American administrators” (p. 252).

Unless university leadership preparation programs acknowledge the historical and current role of race in our society and in the field of educational leadership, there will continue to be an underlying supposition within the field of education that minority principals should only be placed and can only lead in schools with a heavy concentration of minority students.

(McCray et al., 2007, p. 253)

Navigating a Social Maze

An implication of these findings regarding preferential treatment of white administrators is that young blacks who aspire to be teachers and educational leaders must navigate a social maze very

different from what their white peers will encounter. A case is made that teacher educators and others in the educational system, from high school counselors to college deans, acknowledge and respond to the historical and present reality in American society of whiteness as property which conveys privileges (Harris, 1993; McCray et al., 2007; Ladson-Billings and Tate, 1995). Harris (1993) cited the following description by Underkuffler (1990) to illustrate the expansive concept of property in early America, which:

included not only external objects and people's relationships to them, but also all of those human rights, liberties, powers, and immunities that are important for human well-being, including freedom of expression, freedom of conscience, freedom from bodily harm, and free and equal opportunities to use personal faculties.

(Underkuffler, L.S., 1990, p. 129)

One real challenge of post-secondary transition for African American students and the responsible adults in their lives is to present opportunities and experiences which empower these young people to fully enjoy all of the freedoms listed above.

Transition from a Native American Perspective

In his CEC 2009 session, Juan Portley shared an anecdote from his first teaching experience at a reservation school, where one male colleague rebuffed every friendly overture from Portley during the entire school year, yet at the start of year two suddenly became more accepting of him. When Portley asked that person about this change in demeanor, the colleague explained that he never wasted any effort getting to know the new teachers because there were so many that left after their first year. Portley suggested that the high turnover rate at reservation schools also has an effect on the experiences of students at those schools.

Portley (2009) presented the results of a qualitative study he did with teachers and staff members at a reservation school to determine answers to two research questions:

- What do educators perceive as significant barriers to academic engagement and postsecondary pursuits for Indian students?
- What expectations do educators place on their students regarding academic learning and postsecondary pursuits and why?

The six individuals he interviewed were a Hopi secondary school teacher with 22 years of experience; a Chickasaw secondary school teacher with 37 years of experience; a Navajo elementary paraeducator with 18 years of experience; a Hispanic elementary-middle school librarian with nine years of experience; a Caucasian/white K-12 teacher with 12 years of experience; and a Caucasian/white elementary school teacher with 16 years of experience. Three of these interviews were conducted by phone; the others were 45-60 minute face-to-face, recorded.

Portley shared quotes from participants to convey the general sense that expectations for American Indian adolescents vary considerably. “A positive outcome would be if they are a contributing member of society...able to take care of themselves financially,” said the Navajo elementary school paraeducator, a feeling echoed by the Hispanic librarian, who expressed satisfaction with any outcome “as long as they end up being productive citizens in a society that accepts them and helps them be independent and allows them the opportunity to progress.” These statements also reflect a characteristic of tribal schools, where “personal growth and cultural awareness” are stressed, as opposed to what Portley described as “mixed-race schools,” where research he cited has shown there is more of an “academic focus” (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2005).

Further quotes by participants in Portley's study serve to underscore the reality of less academic expectations in tribal schools (Portley, 2009). The Navajo paraeducator said, “Oh, gosh, out of a hundred, maybe three or four will continue and maybe one will graduate college,” while the Chickasaw

high school teacher suggested a graduation rate of “maybe two or three percent, I'm just being realistic.” The white K-12 teacher said, “They just allow them to float through the school in a system that will pass them as long as their behavior is socially acceptable.”

Portley (2009) also brought forward a list of problem areas, reported from teachers at Bureau of Indian Education (BIE) schools.

1. Unprepared students
2. Lack of parental involvement
3. Poverty
4. Absenteeism
5. Student apathy

(U.S. Department of Education, 1999-2000)

“Students do well in a homogenous environment,” said Portley, “but then aren't prepared academically or socially.” According to Portley, Native American Indian youth lack self-determination skills; he suggested that the legacy of boarding schools, and accompanying Indian experiences of deculturalization and assimilation, continue to negatively impact BIE students today. The lack of parental involvement cited by BIE school teachers is tied to a corresponding lack of empathy on the part of these schools “for parents' realities,” explained Portley. “Who wants to go to an IEP meeting if nobody is related to you and nobody cares about you,” he added, attributing the low self-efficacy of Indian adolescents to their lack of training in self-determination skills and self-awareness. “They are given no tools to plan their lives,” said Portley. Suggesting that too many schools fail to provide adequate challenges to Indian students, Portley proposed that teacher education programs ought to prepare teachers to “link historic effects and students' learning environment” to better understand their students: “Why is BIE part of the Department of the Interior instead of the Department of Education?,” he asked. Portley encouraged teachers to recognize signs of resilience in the students who are often

considered apathetic. “A student who comes to school every day and hates it is self-determined,” he explained. “Student apathy is the *perception* that students don't care.”

Juan Portley devoted a major portion of his CEC presentation to a discussion of how schools can help Native American Indian students develop positive self-concepts. His first recommendation was that students be given opportunities to “build relationships with others,” through “interpersonal communication development” and in association with “adult role models.” He cited research by Coladarci (1983), in which more than a third of decisions by Indian students to drop out were attributed to relationships with teachers. Portley suggested that self-concept for Indian students was tied to “the development of self-esteem, efficacy, and competence.” He cited further research (Ledlow, 1992) to suggest that Native American Indian dropouts reject and/or distrust school because they feel unwelcome and want a caring teacher. “Caring doesn't equal effective,” said Portley, “but it opens the door.”

Juan Portley also discussed self-identity and “rejection of dominant culture.” He suggested that self-awareness and pride influence efficacy in ways that schools often fail to appropriately address. “Teachers have expectations,” explained Portley, “but they're powerless to implement them.” One of the participants in his study, the Chickasaw high school teacher, was quoted as saying, “There were some that were really intentionally holding back their grades, or not [turning] in their grades so their peers won't make fun of them.” Another participant, the Hispanic librarian, explained, “It's like they're not Indian anymore if they want to succeed.” Portley referred to this phenomenon as the “burden of acting white,” noting that “rejecting dominant culture restricts viable opportunities.” He reiterated that self-determination skills are “the key to success” as an Indian student cycles through stages of “self-awareness,” followed by “planning for the future” and “self-advocacy.” “Generalizing skills is what it's all about,” he said. If a young person says, “I want a Ferrari,” then an empowering teacher will challenge that student to move on to step two, suggested Portley: planning how to attain that goal.

Beyond the school-based obstacles to achievement for American Indian students, another serious impediment discussed by Portley was poverty. American Community Survey data (U.S. Census Bureau, 2006) showed that 39 percent of American Indians under the age of five were living in poverty, compared to 40 percent of African-American, 30 percent of Hispanic/Latino, and 16 percent of white children under the age of five. According to U.S. Census data for 2006 reported by the National Center for Education Statistics (U.S. Department of Education, 2008), 30 percent of Indian family households with children under the age of 18 were living in poverty, compared to 29 percent of black family households, 24 percent of Latino family households, and 11 percent of white family households with children under the age of 18.

Portley proposed that an approach to instruction and transition of American Indians will be effective if it incorporates three features:

- High expectations informed by realistic educator perspectives, through new-teacher mentoring;
- Connectivity between educators and students, through community involvement; and
- Quality transition programs, beginning early in the education process.

(Portley, 2009)

He also outlined the components of a quality transition program:

- Early self-exploration of postsecondary options
- Vocational and Interest inventories
- Self-determination assessments and opportunities
- Leadership opportunities
- Work opportunities
- Incorporation of “soft skills” into the educational process

In a related PowerPoint presentation at a NSTTAC event by Portley (2007), he proposed four changes to improve transition outcomes for American Indian youth:

- Focus more on interdependence
- Focus less on self-awareness
- Consult with family more than with the student
- Be culturally sensitive

(Portley, 2007)

In his NSTTAC presentation, Portley referred to Dennis & Giangreco (1996) for a list of the features of culturally sensitive approaches:

- Appreciate the uniqueness in each family.
- Be aware of the influence of your role as a professional.
- Acknowledge your own cultural biases.
- Seek new understanding of cultures.
- Develop an awareness of cultural norms.
- Learn with families.

(Dennis & Giangreco, 1996, p. 111)

Transition Concerns for Navajo Native Americans

Jackson and Smith (2001) reported and interpreted data from interviews with 22 Navajo recent high school graduates. The interviews were conducted at participants' homes, college campuses, and at work sites, within the two years immediately after graduation. The main concerns expressed in these interviews regarded the relationships between these graduates and their families and teachers, particularly in five thematic areas.

Areas of Concern

- 1) Family connections
- 2) Discrepancy between high school and college learning environments
- 3) Focus on faculty relationships
- 4) Vague educational and vocational constructs
- 5) Connection to homeland and culture

(Jackson & Smith, 2001, p. 1)

The participants in these interviews included 16 individuals who were attending school either part-time or full-time, and six who were not in school, with three of this latter group employed and the other three not. All the interviewees were 1995 or 1996 graduates of “a small high school on the Navajo Nation....who had indicated their intent was to attend a postsecondary institution” (Jackson and Smith, 2001, p. 4). In the area of family connections, Jackson and Smith report four different factors that affected the college experiences of these Navajo youth.

Factors for Family Connections

- 1) Family pressure
- 2) Family financial problems
- 3) Family conflicts
- 4) Family encouragement

(Jackson and Smith, 2001, p. 7)

Some students experienced pressure to “stay close to home,” while others were pressured to “perform academically,” and others “received a mixed message from their families” with “simultaneous pressures” to do well in school but also to stay near to home. According to Jackson and

Smith, Navajo youth who only felt one of these kinds of pressure were “more hopeful” than those who were pressured in both directions. Another type of stress in the area of family connections related to family finances. The authors reported that, despite receiving emotional support from their families, students trying to go to college did not get economic help from home, and often had trouble navigating the financial aid system. “Family financial difficulties frequently led participants to become employed in unskilled labor,” they explained, “to help resolve economic strain” (p. 10, Jackson and Smith).

Jackson and Smith reported that two recurrent themes in discussions of family conflicts were alcoholism and divorce and “these conflicts were often tied to financial problems” (p. 11). There were also students who spoke of other kinds of problems, though, which were not directly related to money. For example, in one interview, it was reported that problems with a step-father prevented a student who was suffering from depression at school from seeking emotional support at home. Other students interrupted their studies frequently to go home and mediate in family disputes.

Participants felt pressure to help if conflicts arose in their families, even if it did not involve them directly. They often felt the need to return to their homes, even if the conflict arose in the middle of a quarter or semester and leaving meant academic failure.

(Jackson and Smith, 2001, p. 12)

On another occasion, parents splitting up and problems related to a death in the family caused a student to miss a lot of school and receive poor grades that semester. Other students reported that family problems, compounded by financial stress, could mean “an unscheduled break between quarters or semesters during the academic year” and extended delays in returning to school.

The middle of last year I started having family problems....
alcoholism, infidelity... and it affected my financial standing....
I've been working and trying to get financial aid, but my

parents are forever in limbo...

(Jackson and Smith, 2001, p. 14)

Encouragement from Family a Key

Family encouragement is a crucial element in the success of high school graduates from the Navajo Nation, according to data from Jackson and Smith, who reported “greater self-confidence, more assurance about career selection, and less ambiguity about schooling” for students with a close relative who was either a college graduate or had a successful career track.

This positive perspective was frequently tied to encouragement from fathers, and it appeared to have an effect throughout the entire family. Alternatively, when participants' relatives had not successfully attended college or experienced longevity in a career, participants were less sure about their own educational or occupational plans.

(Jackson and Smith, 2001, p. 14)

This concept was driven home by the words of one of the students interviewed in Jackson and Smith's study.

Well...my dad pushed me through school. He was always pushing me. But the way I see it, a lot of these parents around here don't really force their children. Only some of them do their schoolwork....you know which people are being more motivated by their parents and who are not. You can tell by appearances and how they act under stress...

(Jackson and Smith, 2001, p. 16)

Significant Gap Between High School and College Settings

Jackson and Smith found in their interviews that most of these 22 graduates from a small high school on the Navajo reservation were initially shocked by academic challenges in a college setting, compared to what they had known in secondary school: “One student described the difference as that between a nurturing mother and a demanding father” (p. 17). Students who had received very positive assessments of their high school performances found college much more demanding. “The most confused students were those who saw themselves as honor students in high school and then had to take remedial courses in college” (p. 17).

Like right now I'm taking Biology 101; the instructor
is saying, “You should have learned that in high school.”
It doesn't really seem like a science class that I've taken.

(Jackson and Smith, 2001, p. 19)

Jackson and Smith also explored the quality of student relationships with their high school and college teachers, which fluctuated depending on “how well faculty knew the participants, how personable the faculty were, and the size of classes” (p. 19). One participant described a particularly effective high school teacher.

I like the teacher because of the way she explained things.
I learned a lot of different things....She was really encouraging.
She was really nice and supportive....she really started coming
over to get to know my family and stuff like that. She was a
really sweet lady. I ended up calling her Mom.

(Jackson and Smith, 2001, p. 20)

Uncharted Territory on Education and Career Paths

According to Jackson and Smith, these young Navajo adults showed a lack of understanding in

four areas regarding connections between their college education goals and lifelong career goals.

- 1) Misunderstanding the relationship of post-secondary training to careers
- 2) Vague post-secondary plans
- 3) Anxiety about taking educational and vocational risks
- 4) Misunderstanding the relationship of careers to each other

(Jackson and Smith, 2001, p. 20)

Beyond the general purpose of getting a degree, students did not seem to be thinking about specific degree programs and how these would prepare them for specific careers. Also, they expressed doubts regarding their ability to respond effectively to challenges, or adjust course, en route to their college degree goals. Jackson and Smith further noted that participants shared career aspirations that often linked unrelated professions and career paths.

Well, going back to become a physician's assistant: first, I'm just going to get a mechanics degree, along with an associates of applied science and work for however long it takes for me to get through school....Then, at the same time, I will be going to school for the physician's assistant, and that should be my long-term occupation.

(Jackson and Smith, 2001, p. 23)

The Ties that Bind

Students were also torn between seemingly conflicting pressures related to their feelings of affinity for their homes on the reservation.

They felt some uneasiness when away from home, even in the

company of their friends or family. They felt confused about the conflicting messages to (a) leave the reservation and be successful, and (b) maintain their traditional connection to the tribe, land, and culture.

(Jackson and Smith, 2001, p. 24)

Jackson and Smith suggested that their data underscored a need for research to “consider the meaning of work and schooling in Navajo culture” (p. 29). They also called for a research agenda on ways to help Navajo students transition between the high school and college settings.

Additionally, it would be well to explore the ties between Navajo culture and the pursuit of post-secondary education and careers....Our research supports interventions that focus on relationships, e.g., mentors, support groups, transition courses. Additional research is needed to systematically evaluate such programs.

(Jackson and Smith, 2001, pp. 28-29)

The relationship of these young people to their Navajo Nation homeland serves as the context for further discussion by Jackson and Smith of the need for greater clarity and precision in these students' concepts about their college and career aspirations. Those authors would like to see more opportunities for students to interact with people in different professions, and new research on “how high school and post-secondary Navajo Indians can be exposed to other Navajos in different careers and in higher educational settings” (p. 30).

As with other rural areas in the United States, it is difficult for an individual on the Navajo reservation to be exposed to persons in different career settings. Further study is needed to determine

how Navajo Indians can be exposed to individuals in a variety of different careers, and how this might affect their perceptions.

(Jackson and Smith, 2001, p. 30)

Jackson and Smith also see the bond between young Navajo adults and their reservation as contextualizing their doubts and fears about academic risk-taking. The relationship to their homeland is especially relevant for these students, according to Jackson and Smith, because of the fact that their reservation physically encompasses nearly the complete Navajo Nation traditional territory.

Participants expressed low self-efficacy regarding career decisions.

This appeared to be strongly related to participants' ties to the reservation. Navajo Indians maintain a strong tie to their reservation, which, unlike many reservations, includes most of their traditional homeland.

(Jackson and Smith, 2001, p. 30)

Those researchers wonder whether there might be something in the social dynamic on the reservation that influences students' feelings of self-confidence and career viability.

Participants in this study appeared to feel restricted in what careers were available to them. If a career was not available on the reservation, participants were less likely to see it as an option. If the career was available on the reservation, perceptions of the range of possibilities within that career seemed restricted. Further studies are needed to explicate the relationship between career self-efficacy and Navajo Indians' experience on the reservation.

(Jackson and Smith, 2001, p. 30)

Employment Outcomes for Apache Native American Indians with Special Needs

Ramasamy (1996) reports on data from interviews with 106 high-school graduates and drop-outs from the White Mountain Apache Indian Reservation, in Arizona. These individuals—52 who received special education services in high school and 54 who studied in general education—had all attended the same high school and either dropped out or graduated from that school between the years 1988 and 1992. Of these participants, 69 percent were unemployed: 73 percent of the exceptional learners and 65 percent of those from general education. Fifty percent of the employed exceptional learners were earning below minimum wage at the time of those interviews; five percent of learners from general education were earning below minimum wage. Fifty-one percent of employed exceptional learners “stated they got their jobs through friends and family members, compared to only 10 percent of the [employed] general education students” (Ramasamy, 1996, p. 177).

Whereas 69 percent of employed learners from general education would have preferred careers in forestry, computers, or auto mechanics, only 28 percent of employed exceptional learners expressed those interests, aspiring instead to hold “low-skill and low-paying jobs” (p. 177). “No job available” was given as the main reason for unemployment by 45 percent of all the unemployed participants, with about equal numbers for those with special needs and from general education.

Only two respondents from the entire sample used rehabilitation services after leaving high school. Thirty-five percent of the total sample stated that their lives would be improved if they had suitable employment, and another 29 percent felt that more education would improve their lives.

(Ramasamy, 1996, p. 177)

According to Ramasamy, “only 33 percent of the Apache youth indicated any unhappiness or dissatisfaction with their employment situations” (p. 178). He attributed this contentedness to a

disconnect in values between Apache and white cultures.

One of the major reasons that transition support from school to work has not been fully enacted among Native American communities is that the concepts of competitive employment and independent living are based on the values of an urban, Anglo culture, and, thus, these goals are not always relevant to native Americans, especially those who live on reservations and adhere to traditional ways.

(Ramasamy, 1996, p. 178)

Ramasamy believes that one key to more successful transition for young Apache Indians, and all Native American youth, is “becoming active in tribal life,” including the following goals.

Participation in:

- a) Family chores
- b) Cultural and spiritual activities
- c) Ceremonies within the tribes

(Ramasamy, 1996, p. 178)

His suggestion is not that these activities replace employment, but that “they can promote mutual interdependence and community living.” Ramasamy asserts that IDEA transition services for Native American students ought to be “judged according to Native American beliefs, values, and locally defined community standards” (p. 178).

During the time that the participants in Ramasamy's study were at their high school on the White Mountain Apache Indian Reservation, he reports, “the school had neither a formal transition training program nor an effective vocational training program... for students with disabilities” (p. 178).

The secondary curriculum... should include vocational

training specific to the Apache culture and the reservation. Such training should open doors for Apache youth so that they eventually can compete for the very few ski resort and lumber mill jobs in the area, which are currently held by non-Native Americans.

(Ramasamy, 1996, p. 178)

Ramasamy further advocates incorporating “culturally valued job training programs (e.g., in family chores, care for siblings, sheep herding, and firewood gathering)” into the general and special education curricula, and warns that school connections to “community service and tribal agencies via the transition-oriented programs” must be upgraded so that “the local agencies...work together to facilitate high school students' smooth transition from school into employment” (p. 178). In addition, he calls for an enhanced role for parents and families.

The school should value and emphasize Apache culture and involve parents and family members in every way possible in planning the transition process, given the significant influence these individuals have regarding seeking employment, particularly for individuals with disabilities.

(p. 178, Ramasamy, 1996)

Risk and Protective Factors in Suicide-Related Phenomena

Shaughnessy, Doshi, and Jones (2004) cite stark data on suicide rates for Native American Indian youth in 1998-1999 from the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

Suicide represents the second-leading cause of death among 15- to 24-year-old American Indians/Alaska Natives (AI/AN).

Unintentional injuries, especially from motor vehicle crashes, represent the leading cause....The suicide rate of 34/100,000 for AI/AN youth in this age group is 2.5 times greater than the rate for the entire population of 15-to 24-year-olds in the United States (all races). AI/AN males in this age group are at an especially high risk with a suicide rate of 54/100,000, some 2.4 times greater than the rate for US males (all races). For AI/AN females in this age group, the suicide rate of 13/100,000 is 3.6 times greater than the rate for US females (all races).

(Shaughnessy, L, Dosh, S., Jones, S.E., p. 177)

This phenomenon appears to be entrenched among American Indian youth, and the rates have increased steadily since 1950 (Borowsky, Resnick, Ireland, & Blum, 1999). “The most important correlate for youth suicide is a previous attempt,” write Borowsky et al. “Furthermore, it is estimated that more than 40 percent of adolescents who complete suicide have made previous attempts, and attempters are 20 to 50 times more likely to complete suicide than peers without a history of attempts” (p. 573).

Borowski et al. (1999) performed bivariate analyses “between a history of attempting suicide and potential risk and protective factors,” using data from 11,666 participants in “the 1990 National American Indian Adolescent Health Survey, administered to 7th- through 12th-grade American Indian and Alaska native youth attending schools of reservation communities serviced by the Indian Health Service throughout the United States” (p. 574).

The sample of students came from reservation-based schools in Alaska, Arizona, California, Minnesota, Montana, New Mexico, South Dakota, and Tennessee....A history of ever attempting suicide

was assessed with the question: “Have you every tried to kill yourself?”

Of the 13,310 survey respondents ages 12 to 18 years, 11,666 (88%)

answered the question about suicide attempts; 661 male students and

1,323 female students reported a history of attempting suicide....

Adolescents reporting ever attempting suicide were compared with

those who indicated that they had never attempted suicide.

(Borowsky et al., 1999, p. 574)

Borowsky et al. looked at risk and protective factors as independent variables across three categories—community, family, and personal.

The independent variables were theoretically derived from a resiliency framework, positing that adolescents' vulnerability to health-jeopardizing outcomes is affected by both the number and nature of stressors as well as the presence of buffering, protective factors. Adverse or successful outcomes are described as emanating from the interplay of individual, familial, and environmental characteristics.

(p. 574)

In the category of “community,” there were nine variables tested:

Community factor variables

- Gun availability
- Gang involvement
- Suicidal behavior of a friend

- Worry about racial discrimination
- Racial make-up of school
- Presence of a school clinic or nurse
- Worry about community violence
- Community connectedness
- Delinquent activity

(Borowsky et al., 1999, p. 575)

In the “family” category, there were ten variables.

Family factor variables

- Discuss problems
- Family connectedness
- Parental expectations
- Family structure
- Physical abuse
- Sexual abuse
- Suicidal behavior of a family member
- Parental problem with substance abuse
- Worry about violence at home
- Worry about family economic conditions

(Borowsky et al., 1999, p. 575)

In the “personal” category, there were 18 variables.

Personal factor variables

- Somatic symptoms
- Health concerns
- School interference due to health conditions
- Physical limitations
- Special education
- Skipping school
- Mental health treatment
- Employment
- Alcohol use
- Marijuana use
- Other drug use
- School feelings
- Academic performance
- Emotional health
- Weight satisfaction/body image
- Same-sex sexual fantasies
- Religiosity/spirituality
- Exercise (Borowsky et al., 1999, p. 575)

Using the multivariate statistical procedure, step-wise, chunk-wise regression, Borowsky et al. determined correlations between various combinations of the most influential factors, or variables, and a history of suicide attempts.

We also used the logistic models to predict the probabilities of attempting suicide for adolescents in the population with increasing numbers of risk factors and protective factors. Thus, we calculated the estimated probabilities of a suicide attempt when there were 0, 1, 2, or 3 protective factors present, in combination with the presence of 0, 1, or 2 environmental risk factors....For ease of interpretation, we simplified the model by including only the most powerful risk and protective factors.

(Borowsky et al., 1999, p. 575)

Borowski et al. found that male and female participants with a friend who had attempted or succeeded in committing suicide were most likely to also answer that they themselves had attempted suicide.

Other risk factors significantly associated with a history of attempted suicide by both boys and girls after controlling for other factors in the models were somatic symptoms, such as headaches and stomach problems, a history of sexual or physical abuse, having a family member attempt or complete suicide, having health concerns, frequent alcohol or marijuana use, or ever using any other drugs.

(Borowsky et al., 1999, p. 575)

In addition, those researchers found that male participants involved with gangs or who reported having been treated for emotional problems were more likely than other males to have attempted suicide.

Female participants who knew “where to get a gun” or had been placed in special education were more

likely than other females to have attempted suicide (p. 575).

On the other hand, Borowsky et al. also found variables strongly associated with a history of not having attempted suicide, which they refer to in their data as “protective factors.”

Mitigating Against Suicide Attempts: Positive Factors

Several factors significantly reduced the odds of attempting suicide.

Both male and female adolescents who reported that they discussed problems with friends or family members, were in good emotional health, or had a sense of connectedness with family were much less likely to report a past suicide attempt. Girls with a nurse or clinic in their school were also less likely to report a past suicide attempt.

(Borowsky et al., 1999, p. 575)

In regression analyses of “various combinations of risk and protective factors,” those authors found a very low probability (1 percent) of suicide attempts for male and female participants who shared the top three protective factors--“discussing problems with friends or family members, emotional health, and family connectedness”--as well as having none of the top three risk factors--“having a friend or family member attempt or complete suicide, experiencing physical or sexual abuse, and at least weekly wine or beer use, monthly hard liquor use, or use of any marijuana or other drugs” (pp. 575-576).

Risk Factors in Absence of Protective Factors

In contrast, 81 percent of girls and 75 percent of boys with the three risk factors and none of the 3 protective factors in the model would be expected to attempt suicide. The likelihood of attempting suicide increased dramatically as the number of risk factors to which an adolescent

was exposed increased, up to a 14-fold increase with all
3 risk factors present.

(Borowsky et al., 1999, p. 576)

An interesting finding of the research by Borowsky et al. is that increasing the number of key protective factors is just as effective (or more so) for reducing suicide attempts as decreasing the number of risk factors was.

We found that increasing the number of the 3 protective factors-- discussing problems with friends or family, emotional health, and family connectedness—was more effective at reducing the probability of a suicide attempt than was decreasing risk factors. Furthermore, even among adolescents without any of the risk factors included in the model, the presence of these protective factors markedly decreased the risk of a suicide attempt.

(Borowsky et al., 1999, p. 577)

Limiting Risk Factors for Suicide Attempts

Borowsky et al. make several recommendations based on their analyses of data from the 1990 National American Indian Adolescent Health Survey. Their first suggestion regards the risk factor that most strongly correlates with an adolescent attempting suicide, “having a friend who attempted or completed suicide.” According to Borowsky et al., data from the study indicate that 3,307 of the 11,826 survey respondents, or 28 percent, reported “that they had a friend who had attempted suicide,” and 1,443 out of 11,817 respondents, or 12 percent, knew a friend who had “completed suicide” (p. 578).

Given the degree of exposure to a friend's suicidal
behavior among American Indian and Alaska Native

youth as well as this variable's strong association with suicide attempts, routine screening of youth in this population for exposure to suicidal behavior and the development of depression should be considered so that appropriate treatment can be given.

(Borowsky et al., 1999, p. 578)

According to Borowsky et al., substance abuse correlates positively with suicide attempts and, because of previous research they cited regarding questions whether these factors are symptoms of a more fundamental cause, such as depression, they ran the data while controlling for an emotional health factor.

In the present study, alcohol, marijuana, and other drug use remained significant even when the effects of other factors, including a measure of emotional health, were taken into account. The cross-sectional nature of the data, however, precludes demonstration of a cause-effect relationship among the variables.

(Borowsky et al., 1999, p. 579)

Borowski et al. made recommendations regarding several other risk factors, including history of sexual abuse, somatic symptoms, and access to guns. While a history of sexual or physical abuse correlates positively with adolescent suicide attempts, the researchers said their data indicated this correlation was stronger for males than females, and warned that “our culture's emphasis on male strength and control may provide strong disincentives for male youths to disclose sexual abuse and obtain needed help. Borowski et al. also believe health professionals should pay attention to somatic symptoms—“including headaches, breathing problems, stomach problems, allergies, and nerves”—as

well as generally “being concerned about one's health,” and recognize these conditions as “risk factors for attempting suicide,” too (p. 579).

Health care providers should routinely screen adolescents with multiple or functionally limiting physical symptoms for depression and ask about suicidal ideation or behavior, regardless of whether the symptoms are associated with organic disease.

(Borowsky et al., 1999, p. 579)

Another key risk factor for suicide among American Indian and Alaska Native youth, according to Borowski et al., is “the availability of guns.” They cite other researchers who have similarly concluded that there is a strong association between access to guns and suicide attempts, which in their study was especially significant for female participants. “Particularly among the 5 percent to 10 percent of adolescent suicide victims without apparent psychiatric illness,” conclude Borowski et al., “restricting the availability and accessibility of firearms has been identified as the best strategy to prevent suicide” (p. 579).

The Power of Positive Protective Factors

In an editor's note at the beginning of the Borowski and Ireland article, Catherine D. DeAngelis writes, “The thing I like best about this large study is that it shows that accentuating the positive (increasing positive factors) is more effective than 'decentuating' the negative (decreasing risk factors). That seems much more hopeful to me” (p. 573). Borowski et al. highlighted three key protective factors: “discussing problems with friends or family members, emotional health, and perceived connectedness to family” (p. 579). Those researchers especially underscored the important protective role of communication among family members, stating that “not talking about suicidal ideation is associated with suicide attempts among adolescents” (p. 579).

Health care professionals have a responsibility to inquire about emotional health and interactions with family and friends, particularly regarding communication about problems, and to educate parents early about the importance of family integration and communication.

(Borowsky et al., 1999, p. 579)

Clearly there is a supportive role to be performed by schools and teachers as well. Many aspects of education can lend themselves to efforts in this important area of protecting young people from decisions and experiences which might lead a person to contemplate suicide. It can be inferred from the research findings above that any communication between the school and a family should strive to give relevant information and convey the respect that will encourage families to consider their input valuable: by engaging the family in the communication network of a school community, schools are ensuring the presence of a supportive context and purpose to stimulate vital conversations between each student and the other members of his or her family. In the case of a Native American Indian teenager, it becomes even more imperative that all elements of the school community be aware of the heightened risks of not doing everything possible to support family connectedness and communication. Giving a teenager some positive news to share at home—or making contact directly with the family with good news about their son, daughter, nephew, cousin, or grandchild—is a small, first step.

The Tradition of Native American Indian Education

Tharp (2006) has asserted that schools wishing to do more for Native American Indian students ought to recognize “that a pedagogy derived from Native American socialization practices is superior to that practiced by schools of our common tradition” (p. 6).

Sequoia, a Cherokee Indian in the 19th century United States, accomplished one of the great individual intellectual feats in recorded history. He invented a complete orthography for an

oral language....One of the world's signal triumphs of a whole people was the Cherokee achievement of a virtually immediate universal literacy.

(Tharp, 2006, p. 7)

According to Tharp, the Cherokee achieved literacy in the new written form of their language through the use of traditional Native American Indian educational methods. “Reliable stories exist for hundreds of children and adults who learned to read and write in several days or weeks,” he explains, “and 90 percent of Cherokees became literate within 10 years of Sequoia's invention” (p. 7). Tharp describes a process by which the Cherokee people learned to read and write their language by carving the letters into trees and painting them on walls, with members of the community helping each other to practice this new form of communication.

Tharp is known for his leadership of the research that generated the CREDE (Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence) “Five Standards for Effective Pedagogy and Learning”—Joint Productive Activity, Developing Language and Literacy Across the Curriculum, Teaching in Context, Teaching Complex Thinking, and the Instructional Conversation (Tharp, 2008). He has proposed adding two more standards—Modeling and Demonstration, and Student-Directed Activity—which he derives from Native American Indian education traditions dating back at least 400 years.

Standards Six and Seven are either explicit or embedded in effective programs for American Indian/Alaskan communities, whether in Alaska, Canada, or in the lower 48 United States. This should not be surprising, since they are closely tied to basic views of children, and basic characteristics of child socialization, that appear to be shared by Native cultures....

these two Standards reflect powerful and distinctive Native cognitive and social characteristics.

(Tharp, 2006, pp. 13-14)

According to Tharp, the “modeling and demonstration” standard recognizes “visual-learning patterns” and a “holistic cognitive style” that have been documented in studies of Native American Indian children (p. 14). He suggests that “observational learning” is at the center of this cognitive style, and that the key is the “unity and mutual interdependence” of a series of thought modalities: “perceptual, problem-solving, semiotic, representational, sociological, and interpersonal” (p. 14). Tharp describes a preference for “a learning system of private, imagined practice that allows learning without public failure.”

A major feature of this pattern appears to be a visual, as opposed to a verbal, proclivity in *perception* as well as in abilities....This visual rather than verbal proclivity maps easily onto the holistic vs. analytic patterns, because visual perception presents itself holistically....the holistic pattern of cognition is associated with the entire “observation-learning complex,” which illuminates the wrenching that Native American children experience in conventional education, in which the entire world of being is violated by another equally powerful but alien complex—the technological, verbal, sequential, segmented, publicly-performing society where all day long children are isolated from all adults except the teacher of the school.

(Tharp, 2006, p. 14)

The Importance of Self-Determination

Tharp also explains the “student-directed activity” standard's effectiveness and relevance in relationship to what he describes as a cultural tendency among Native American students, who, he says, “are comfortable and more inclined to participate in activities if they have a voice or choice in generating, organizing, or directing them” (pp. 14-15).

Native American cultures accord respect to youthful autonomy and decision-making. I have found no group of cultures that exceed the freedom extended even to their young children....after all, if individual integrity, competence, and problem-solving are to be learned, how else should they be taught other than by allowing and supporting them....allowing student initiative and choice into the conduct of instructional activities energizes and engages students who are accustomed to responsibility.

(Tharp, 2006, p. 15)

This concept of self-determination was also mentioned in each of the two sessions attended by the researcher of the present study that were related to Native American Indian education and transition at the 2009 Seattle CEC convention. It suggests itself as a vital component in transition planning for Indian learners, in tandem with the mentor-novice relationship focus of Tharp's entire set of standards (5 + 2), “the processes by which societies create new members, whether the societies are a tribe, a chess club, a church, or a family” (p. 15).

Transition from a Latino and Latina Perspective

The Context of Bilingual Special Education

There are five “conscious assumptions” of bilingual special education, according to Hill (2008), who spoke at the 2008 KASP/CEC conference. Hill attributed the five principles to Leonard Baca,

director of the BUENO Center at the University of Colorado-Boulder.

Five Principles of Bilingual Special Education

1. All children can and do learn.
2. Early intervention in the native language can prevent school-related disabilities.
3. Native language and culture are strengths to be built upon.
4. Students who are not succeeding in school need a gifted rather than a remedial curriculum.
5. Students who are differently-abled and/or culturally and linguistically different should be educated in inclusive environments.

(Hill, 2008)

“We need to distinguish between 'learning' and 'being in a school environment',” said Hill, adding that the second principle—the value of native-language instruction—is “research based but not practiced today.” He suggested that the big issue in bilingual special education 20 years ago regarded “difference” not being synonymous with “disability,” and that this concept is still not widely understood or applied (Hill, 2008).

At the same conference, Morales Cabral and Sprott (2008) led a discussion on “The Need for ESOL Training & Expertise in RTI/MTSS.” MTSS is the Kansas RTI system, a “Multi-Tiered System of Support.” The take-home lesson of this session was that the three tiers of intervention in RTI or MTSS cannot provide valid data if language and culture are not addressed in developing the targeted interventions and instructional strategies. According to Morales Cabral and Sprott (2008), the lack of a native language component in a school's intervention strategies will prevent teachers from discovering a student's true level of comprehension and awareness, or setting an accurate baseline for tracking

improvement and other responses to interventions.

Hoover (2009) lists ten “inappropriate practices” that prevent culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students from receiving appropriate instruction.

Educational Practices Facilitating Mis-diagnosis of Diverse Learners

1. Lack of exposure to multicultural perspectives.... [in] teacher preparation programs.
2. Failure to incorporate cultural values/norms in the curriculum
....resulting in the misinterpretation of student behaviors as problems rather than differences.
3. Language differences are misunderstood as language/reading disabilities.
4. Failure to accommodate for acculturation....[resulting in] behaviors [being] misperceived as potential behavior problems.
5. Mismatch between teaching and student instructional preferences....[creating] the appearance of a disability.
6. Lack of culturally proficient teaching....[which entails] an understanding of one's own culture and class and those of other diverse cultures, as well as engaging in positive behavioral changes to best reflect these new understandings.
7. Lack of consideration of both first and second languages in education....[which means] instruction and assessment for diverse learners must be implemented in the student's most proficient language.
8. Lack of instructional emphasis on development of higher-order

thinking....[based on the assumption] that during the development of a second language, a student is incapable of using higher-order thinking.

9. Insufficient opportunities to learn....[meaning the] use of appropriate materials, evidence-based interventions, and effective instructional assessment procedures as well as appropriate classroom management.
10. Biased assessment.... [which lacks] culturally responsive assessment devices.... [and] attention to accurate interpretation and application of the testing results.

(Hoover, 2009, pp. 5-9)

Similarly, in his session at KASP/CEC 2008, Hill explained that, based on the original Public Law 94-142, since 1975, CLD exceptional students have been entitled to the following 10 basic features of access to schools and services.

Access Guarantees for Exceptional Learners under IDEA

1. Free and appropriate public education (FAPE).
2. Language screening to determine primary home language other than English (PHLOTE).
3. Language assessment (in English and PHLOTE).
4. Individualized Education Program (IEP).
5. Non-discriminatory testing.
6. Appropriate tests by trained personnel.
7. Evaluation assesses specific areas (not just IQ).
8. Test results reflect the student's achievement abilities.
9. Data from a variety of sources.

10. Parents informed, with “body of evidence” in the native language.

(Hill, 2008)

The Perceptions of CLD Parents Regarding Transition Services for Their Children

In a tape-recorded interview (L. Trujillo, personal communication, January 18, 2007) an experienced education professional described to the author of this dissertation proposal her first IEP placement meeting. “I walked in the door at the wrong time,” she explained, “just as they had a staffing...and they realized that the parents of the student didn't speak English.” As a Spanish-speaker, she was pulled in to interpret. “The bad part of that...meeting is that it was confusing to me,” she said. “If I was confused, I know the parents were confused.”

“Family participation is one of the central tenets of the Individuals With Disabilities Education Improvement Act of 2004,” writes Beth Harry (2008). Harry takes note, however, of “the disempowering effects of practitioners' deficit views” of CLD families (p. 380). For example, according to her research, the ideas that many teachers have regarding risk factors for learning failure, such as “poverty, family structure, and mother's age and educational level,” easily can become “thoughtless generalizations...fueled by racial stereotypes embedded in the taken-for-granted belief systems of professionals of all ethnic groups” (p. 379).

Deleterious Effects of Deficit Perspectives

Most distressing is the finding that these beliefs actually influenced the decisions made about children.... The deficit view was exacerbated when school personnel knew family members' personal histories because the parents themselves had been in the school system. This information tended to be introduced early in the problem identification phase of child study conferences and influenced the outcomes of deliberations about placements and services....In contrast...students

from higher SES families were more likely to be viewed positively and from multiple perspectives.

(Harry, 2008, p. 379)

Interviews with Latina Mothers Regarding Transition Services

Similar data regarding a disconnect between CLD families and school personnel were reported by Rueda, Monzo, Shapiro, Gomez, and Blacher (2005). Rueda et al. warn against “assuming the universality of values such as development, life outcomes, family structures and roles, parenting, independence, and individual achievement apart from one's nuclear family” (Rueda et al., 2005, p. 402) when addressing the transition needs of young people from multicultural backgrounds.

An alternative view is that the notion of transition can be seen as a social construction, highly symbolic in ways that go beyond the more mundane issues related to living arrangements and economic support. A culturally relative framework allows for variance in the underlying values that define what is normal and desirable as well as in the timing and degree of expected developmental changes.

(Rueda et al., p. 402)

Rueda et al. focused on “Latina mothers' views of transition and transition-related issues and compared these views with the explicit and implicit assumptions in the current regulations and practices involved around the concept of transition and transition planning” (p. 404). Just as there are risks in assuming the universality of values from the dominant culture, Rueda et al. are careful as well to warn practitioners against seeing Latinos or any other race or ethnicity “as a homogeneous group.” In the case of Latinos, those authors explain, “there is often significant variability in country of origin, length of time in the United States, language proficiency and use, education, employment, marital

status, and so forth” (p. 404).

One problem with discussions of culturally based beliefs and values is that often these are treated as stable, context-free, and pervasive among all members of a group. This presumed homogeneity fails to capture the dynamic nature of cultural beliefs and also fails to account for the variability often seen among members of the same cultural, ethnic, or racial group.

(Rueda et al., 2005, p. 403)

In justifying their study's focus on the transition concerns of Latina mothers, those authors explain that, among students with special needs, the proportion that are Latinos is growing faster than any other group. In 1987, they report, these students represented nine percent of all children with exceptionalities; by 2001, they constituted 14 percent of all students with disabilities (Rueda et al., 2005). The language aspect of learning takes new precedence when Latinos and Latinas receive special education services.

Rueda et al. (2005) originally intended to interview mothers and fathers, but only mothers volunteered for and attended the focus-group sessions. The following themes were introduced at these three-hour-long group discussions, facilitated by “a bilingual Latina doctoral student with experience conducting qualitative interviews and focus groups with other Latinas/os from similar communities,” according to Rueda et al..

Themes Introduced at the Latina Focus Groups

*Participants' definitions of transition

*Involvement with social service agencies

*Their rights to support services

*The impact of transition on the young adolescent with severe

disabilities and his or her family

*Differences and similarities of transition between children with disabilities and their non-disabled siblings

*Out-of-home placement

(Rueda et al., 2005)

“Data analysis took place simultaneously with data collection [and] debriefing sessions were held after each focus group session,” explain those researchers. “The goal of analysis was to identify patterns, make comparisons, and contrast one set of data with another in order to explore the cultural models and issues surrounding transition for these Latina mothers” (pp. 405-406). The following five themes were identified.

Five Primary Themes for Latina Mothers About Transition

- a) Basic life skills and social adaptation
- b) The importance of the family and home rather than individualism and independence
- c) The importance of the mother's role and expertise in decision making
- d) Access to information
- e) Dangers of the outside world

(Rueda et al., 2005, p. 406)

According to Rueda et al., “the overarching theme that emerged from the data was mothers' view of transition as *home-centered, sheltered adaptation* as opposed to a model emphasizing independent productivity” (p. 406).

These Latina mothers saw the development of basic life skills as crucial, but not for the traditional transition reasons.

These mothers placed a high priority on the development of life skills such as bathing, fixing light meals, and so forth. However, the development of these skills was not discussed in terms of a final goal of independent living, but rather in terms of increased independence with respect to hygiene and personal self-help in the context of existing living and care arrangements.

(Rueda et al., 2005, p. 406)

“The care of their young adults with disabilities was viewed as the mother's own responsibility while she was alive,” according to Rueda et al. “Independent living as an option for the young adult with disabilities was discussed and considered a ludicrous and inappropriate concept by most of these mothers” (p. 407).

These mothers perceived themselves as more knowledgeable about their children and better able to make decisions about work placement and living arrangements for their children than the professionals involved. The mothers' decision-making role also superseded any decision making on the part of the young adult with disabilities. Although mothers felt it was important to ask their young adults their opinion and to take their desires and preferences into consideration, mothers also felt that they—as parents—should make all final decisions about transition planning.

(Rueda et al., 2005, p. 407)

At the same time, Rueda et al. found that Latina mothers consistently expressed very positive

beliefs regarding the ability of sons or daughters with disabilities, beliefs “often at odds with how professionals perceived these young adults” (p. 407). Whereas the transition professional might focus more on the disability, mothers used words such as “normal” or “very intelligent” and suggested their children had outgrown the disability in the intervening period of years since it was diagnosed.

The important point to understand is that mothers wanted professionals to see the strengths and capacities of their children not so they could be autonomous decision makers, but so they would be treated with respect and caring. Mothers saw themselves as the appropriate decision makers and regularly complained that their expertise and experience were considered less valuable than the academic knowledge of professionals such as teachers and agency workers.

(Rueda et al., p. 407)

Latina Mothers Seek Better Information and More Responsive Communication

“We did not learn of any mothers who had been able to find services that adequately dealt with their many concerns,” write Rueda et al.. “Some of the mothers suggested that parent groups would be especially beneficial, where they could learn from each other, discuss their particular situations, and get advice from other mothers” (p. 408). A related finding was that these Latina mothers did not have relationships of trust with the transition professionals with whom they came into contact.

Some mothers believed that parent involvement in the transition decision-making process was only perfunctory and that many professionals preferred mothers to be *less* informed and less involved....Some mothers indicated that the professionals they dealt with objected to being questioned regarding the details of

the services they were providing, and that they resented mothers making suggestions about the quality and type of transition services desired.

(Rueda et al., 2005, p. 408)

“The sense was that increased information would lead to empowerment,” explain Rueda et al., “...even though it might also have negative consequences for interactions with those same providers” (p. 408). These researchers presented the following quoted comment from one of the Latina mothers, who was speaking in English for the interview.

Comment from a Latina Mother About Empowerment

When a parent starts getting too smart and really learning the system then you little by little become a persona non grata wherever you go because you do know the system, you do know your rights and they like resent it.

(Rueda et al., 2005, p. 408)

Another concern expressed by the Latina mothers who participated in the focus group interviews as part of the research by Rueda et al. related to “a generalized fear of the dangers of the world outside of the family setting” (p. 408). The mothers reported that already they had noticed “significantly less supervision” in transition-oriented work experiences off the school campus, compared to the relative safety of the school environment. In addition, they worried about increased exposure to discrimination “because work placements often involved having the person with disabilities become integrated into the community with non-disabled persons, where the same levels of protection and sensitivity offered at school were not always observed” (p. 408).

According to Rueda et al., the “implied model in the laws and policies regarding transition” does not match the experiences, impressions, and concerns of the Latina mothers interviewed in their

research (p. 409).

[The model] assumes that the problem-solving process is collaborative, that the partners in the collaboration are well-informed and knowledgeable, and that the values and goals of all parties correspond. In addition, there is an assumption that all partners in transition value normative timelines and goals focused on independent functioning and productivity....

This study provides further evidence that there may be multiple perspectives on transition, some of which may conflict with the views of transition implied in various official policies and definitions.

(Rueda et al., 2005, p. 409)

“In the present study...the view of transition reflected was based on a model of *home-centered, sheltered adaptation*,” report Rueda et al., “as opposed to a model emphasizing independent productivity” (p. 409). The Latina mothers considered “basic skills and social adaptation” as more crucial than discussions of “productive work.” In fact, in the focus group discussions, no mother even brought up the topic of “future employment.”

These mothers did not view employment, now or in the future, as a major aspiration for their young adults with disabilities.... Rather, when employment settings were discussed, it was with reference to an extension of school and an opportunity to continue basic skills training, or else as a source of apprehension because of the perception of various dangers.

(Rueda et al., p. 409)

Planning for post-secondary transition also traditionally includes “the assumption of shared

decision-making and...the view that high school students should be involved in decision-making about their own transition,” according to Rueda et al., who explained how this assumption contrasts with the views of the Latina mothers whom they interviewed (p. 409).

These mothers did not speak often of issues reflecting independence or individualism, nor did they view these concepts as synonymous with young adulthood. Mothers' expectations, even for their non-disabled offspring, did not favor independent living arrangements without clearly sanctioned transition points such as marriage. Given these mothers' sentiments regarding their children without disabilities, independent or group living arrangements for their children with disabilities (an option often introduced and recommended by professionals in the course of transition planning) was inconsistent with their beliefs and values.

(Rueda et al., pp. 409-410)

Yet another area of concern for Latina mothers was their “strong sense of dissatisfaction...with respect to the service delivery system and with service providers,” according to Rueda et al., who attributed some of this feeling to “variations in the values and understandings of transition decision making” (p. 410).

Mothers clearly felt that they had greater expertise than did professional service providers about their individual children. Moreover, the emphasis on collaborative decision making and the importance of the views of the young adult with disabilities were not as much a priority as they may have been for service

providers or as implied in the law. At the same time, lack of confidence in service providers also led mothers to believe that professionals underestimated the competence of their offspring, which resulted in disrespectful and uncaring attitudes and behavior toward the children.

(Rueda et al., 2005, p. 410)

In the same vein, the Latina mothers who were interviewed in the focus groups expressed a need to be informed regarding available services, not only for planning purposes, but especially “as a form of protection from motives of service providers that might not be in the family's best interests,” according to Rueda et al., who explained that “adversarial interactions between families and service providers are based on mothers' perceptions of unfriendliness, aloofness, and lack of sympathy on the part of professionals” (p. 410).

Alienated Advocacy

This is consistent with the notion of “alienated advocacy” (Shapiro et al., 2004)...While on the surface it might appear that lack of access to information might be addressed by more creative outreach efforts on the part of service providers, the underlying dynamics of the concern suggest that a more fundamental issue is at stake. This is consistent with earlier work that discussed professional service providers' attitudes that devalue or dismiss parental insights and observations (Kalyanpur, 1998).

(Rueda et al., 2005, p. 410)

Rueda et al. suggest that there are at least three dimensions of transition: “social/personal

development”; “roles within the family”; and “role within the service delivery system” (p. 410).

According to these researchers, “a fundamental issue underlying these dimensions of transition is the target of intervention and how it changes over time” (p. 410). Whereas transition traditionally has assumed that this target of intervention gradually changes over time, from a “family focus for young children with a disability” to a “focus on the young adult....[and] increased independence, productive and supportive employment, and integration into the larger community,” Rueda et al. found that the home and family focus persisted with respect to the views of Latina mothers (p. 410).

A strong view expressed was that the well-being of the family member with the disability is not separable from that of the family....Although transition may have represented a structural shift for the young adult with a disability (e.g., from school to work), for these mothers and families, it did not necessarily represent a role shift for the mother or young adult.

(Rueda et al., 2005, p. 410)

Cultural Models vs. Cultural Practices

These researchers took special care in discussing their results to draw a distinction between “cultural models,” which they suggest can be extracted from the data they collected, and “cultural practices,” which tend to vary much more than cultural models, and which were not addressed in their study (p. 411).

We argue that inferences about cultural practices should not be made based solely on information about general cultural models....Although we are confident that we were able to elicit key aspects of these mothers' cultural models, we did not investigate cultural practices. Thus, even though there

was a great deal of consensus about features of the cultural models, because specific cultural practices were not investigated directly, there may be significant variance in individual practices in different social contexts.

(Rueda et al., 2005, p. 411)

“What was striking to us,” conclude Rueda et al., “was the lack of a shared perspective between these mothers and the system designed to help them and their children” (p. 411).

We did form the impression that regardless of variability in personal beliefs, in their professional roles as caseworkers and teachers they tended to represent the assumptions and priorities of the system that employed them.

(Rueda et al., 2005, pp. 411-412)

“In every instance concerning the major themes we identified,” the authors explain, “the orientation of the mothers and of the service delivery system appeared to be at odds” (p. 412).

Delivery System Values vs. Values of Latina Mothers and Families

1. Where the system stressed productivity...to mothers, productivity was a pleasant, but rather irrelevant afterthought; their real worries focused on the need to encourage socially appropriate interactions....
2. Where the system repeatedly tried to view the young adult child as an autonomous individual, mothers found this approach a disturbing violation of their view of the child as embedded in the family.
3. Whereas to the system, privileging of professional expertise seems correct, mothers felt their personal knowledge of their

children was devalued and ignored.

4. The system tends to regard information as value-neutral, but to the mothers it was not simply a technical tool, but a protection and at times even a weapon...to ward off those who did not appear to have the best interests of their child at heart.
5. Although many recognize the sometimes considerable risks encountered in the larger society, most generally assume that all people must take their proper place in society. The mothers of this study reacted quite negatively to this assumption, and challenged its relevance and veracity.

(Rueda et al., 2005, p. 412)

According to Rueda et al., these points of difference provide evidence that there is not a “shared model” between the transition service delivery system and Latina mothers and families.

We believe that families coming out of the dominant cultural model that helped to shape the present service delivery system for persons with disabilities will be more likely to place emphasis on similar values....these families will tend to recognize, be comfortable, and agree with values of productivity, independence, expert knowledge, information as a tool, and assimilation into the larger society....For the mothers in our study, the lack of a shared model appeared to lead to confusion, misunderstanding, and isolation.

(Rueda et al., 2005, p. 412)

Increasing Numbers of Spanish Speakers in Southwest Kansas

One distinguishing feature of Latino transition concerns is the influence of bilingualism in the learning experiences of Spanish- and English-speaking adolescents and young adults. Beginning with the 2002 general elections, six counties in southwest Kansas—Finney, Ford, Grant, Haskell, Kearny, and Seward—have been required by the U.S. Department of Justice “to provide ballots, voting materials and language assistance” in Spanish in order to make voting accessible to significant Spanish-speaking populations in these locations (Thornburgh, 2002).

Some Kansas counties are facing a new challenge in providing access to polling places for Kansas citizens who speak English as a second language. I recently met with the county clerks and representatives from the Department of Justice in Liberal to discuss plans for meeting the bilingual requirements. For the first time, six counties in Kansas...will be required by the Department of Justice to provide ballots, voting materials and language assistance in a language other than English. These counties are being required to provide these materials because they have more than five percent of voting age citizens who cannot speak or adequately understand English....This is not an issue of race, but of providing full access to democracy to all American citizens....This effort doesn't have to be limited to the six counties mentioned....I encourage the other 99 counties to do what you can for those in your communities...

(Thornburgh, 2002, p. 3)

It is ironic that strict English-only efforts in the early educations of Spanish-speaking children typically limit their development both in English-language learning and in academic progress in the appropriate age-level curriculum (Thomas & Collier, 2002). One important factor in the dynamic interrelationship between language and overall intelligence or cognitive ability is the extent to which a second language is added to the primary home language or, conversely, is used to supplant and replace the first language.

Educators who see their role as adding a second language and cultural affiliation to students' repertoires are likely to empower students more than those who see their role as replacing or subtracting students' primary language and culture in the process of assimilating them to the dominant culture. In addition to the personal and future employment advantages of proficiency in two or more languages, there is considerable evidence that subtle educational advantages result from continued development of both languages among bilingual students.

(Cummins, 1989, p. 113)

Long-Term Effects of Ignoring the First Language

Oller and Damico (1991) suggest that long-term cognitive deficits can result from educational experiences which leave out a child's first language during the same period of time when he or she is beginning the complex process of acquiring the second language.

Since linguistic representations are the most abstract and general ones ... it follows that the primary language is the most likely basis for the development of general semiotic capacity....If children are deprived of a full and rich primary-language system, they will suffer consequences throughout the cognitive hierarchy, especially in areas

that depend on communication such as social development.

(Oller & Damico, 1991, p. 97)

Tracking a Cohort from 1996 to 2007 in USD 480

The following data from Liberal USD 480 were compiled using Kansas K-12 reports (KSDE, 2011). The researcher on the present study was interested in confirming a verbal report he had received in anecdotal form, in 2004, from a long-time teacher in the USD 480 district, to the effect that a large percentage of Hispanic/Latino students enrolled at Liberal Senior High School as ninth graders typically would no longer be there two or three years later, having dropped out of school. USD 480 is located in Seward County, one of the six southwest Kansas counties referred to above where voting ballots must be provided in Spanish, following a 2002 U.S. Department of Justice determination.

As of the 2007-2008 school year, there were 4,585 students in Liberal, Kansas, and 68 percent of the student population was Hispanic. Only 62 percent of the high school student population was Hispanic, and just 54 percent of the senior class at the high school was Hispanic. While the overall graduation rate (those who entered high school as 9th graders and did not complete 12th grade) was 65 percent (61 percent for males and 70 percent for females), the graduation rate for Hispanic males was 53 percent and for Hispanic females, 62 percent.

The above-mentioned anecdote, and these additional indicators, prompted the present researcher to retrieve data on this cohort (anticipated 2007 graduates) going back to their 1st grade information (1995-1996 school year), in order to learn more about what happened to the entire cohort and, in particular, the Hispanic portion of the cohort, as displayed in figure 1.

Figure 1. Hispanic and Non-Hispanic Numbers in Cohort 1996-2007

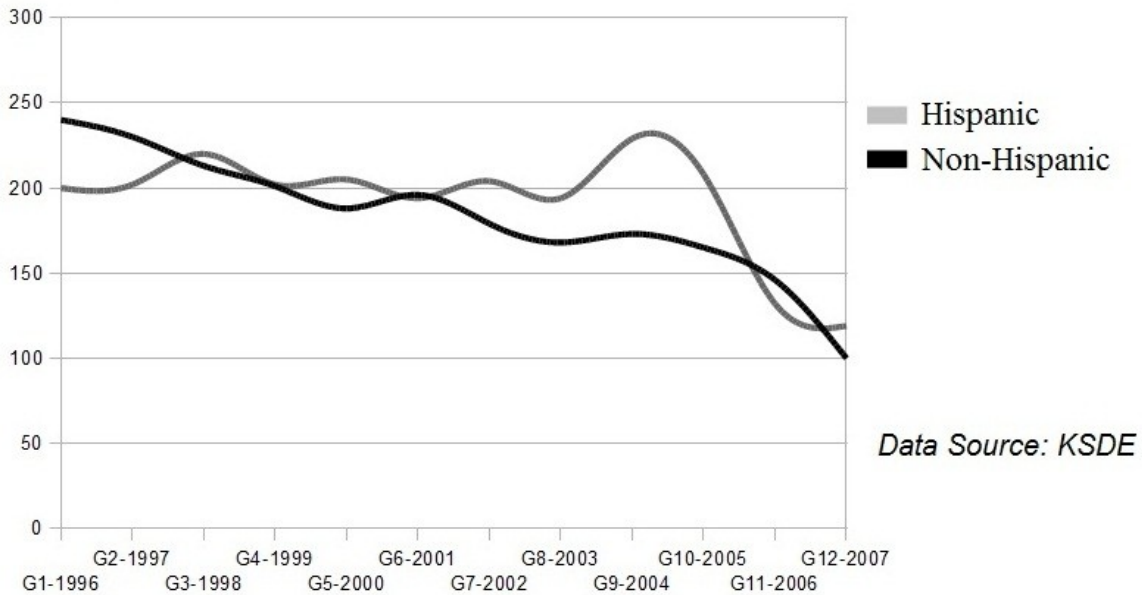


Figure 1. There was a large drop in numbers of Hispanic students from 9th to 11th grade.

As indicated in figure 1, the number of Hispanic students increased over the period of time from first grade until ninth grade, relative to the numbers of non-Hispanic (mostly white) students. However, beginning with the transition from 9th grade to 10th grade there was a marked drop in Hispanic numbers, far more pronounced than the downward trend for non-Hispanic students at Liberal Senior High School. Table 1 shows the actual numbers for each group from first-grade in 1996 to 12th grade in 2007.

Table 1

Actual Numbers for USD 480 Cohort 1996-2007

	Hispanic	Non-Hispanic
G1-1996	200	240
G2-1997	202	230
G3-1998	220	213
G4-1999	202	201
G5-2000	205	188
G6-2001	194	196
G7-2002	204	179
G8-2003	194	168
G9-2004	229	173
G10-2005	208	165
G11-2006	132	146
G12-2007	119	100

The decrease in student population from 9th grade to 10th grade was 8.8% for Hispanic students and 4.6% for non-Hispanic students at Liberal Senior High School. The decrease from 10th grade to 11th grade was 36.5% for Hispanic students and 11.6% for non-Hispanic students. The combined decrease from 9th grade to 11th grade was 42.4% for Hispanic students and 15.6% for non-Hispanic students. In the transition from 11th grade to 12th grade, Hispanic student numbers held steadier, only decreasing by 10%, while non-Hispanic numbers dropped sharply by 31.5% going into the senior year. Overall, in the three years from 9th grade to 12th grade, Hispanic numbers decreased by 48%, while

non-Hispanic numbers decreased by 42.2%.

Neither result is on a par with the overall high-school completion rates state-wide and nation-wide. According to a 2009 report, "Graduation in the United States: Recent Gains at Risk of Eroding," from the EPE Research Center, based on data from the U.S. Department of Education, overall graduation rates for a ten-year period, 1997 to 2006, trended upwards nation-wide (66.4% to 69.2%) as well as in Kansas (72.8% to 75.4%). The nation-wide graduation rate for Hispanic students in 2006 was 55%, and 55.1% in Kansas. In the state of Kansas, Hispanic students had the lowest graduation rate of any ethnic or racial group for whom data were collected. The graduation rate for the cohort in Liberal, Kansas, based on the KSDE data displayed above, was 52% or lower, depending on how things went for the remaining 119 Latino students at Liberal Senior High School in 12th grade during the 2007 academic year.

It is clear that at least 50% of the first-grade cohort in Liberal, Kansas, who started together in 1996, were no longer enrolled by the time their cohort reached 12th grade in 2007. Most of the decrease for Latino students took place in the 9th, 10th, and 11th grades, with the most sudden drop-off occurring in the transition from 10th to 11th grade. According to the 2000 U.S. Census, the nationwide Latino drop-out rate was 21%; at this Kansas high school, the drop-out rate for Latino students in the three years after 9th grade, from 2004 to 2007, was 48%, nearly two and a half times the national average.

Recent KSDE building report numbers for districts in two other counties, Ford and Finney, where, as in Seward, Spanish-speaking numbers are large enough that voting ballots are required by federal law to be provided in Spanish, indicate similar trends in Latino dropout rates over the three-years between 9th grade and 12th grade, from the 2005-2006 school year to 2008-2009, as shown in figure 2.

Figure 2. Hispanic Cohorts 9th-12th Grades:
2005-2009 in Southwest Kansas

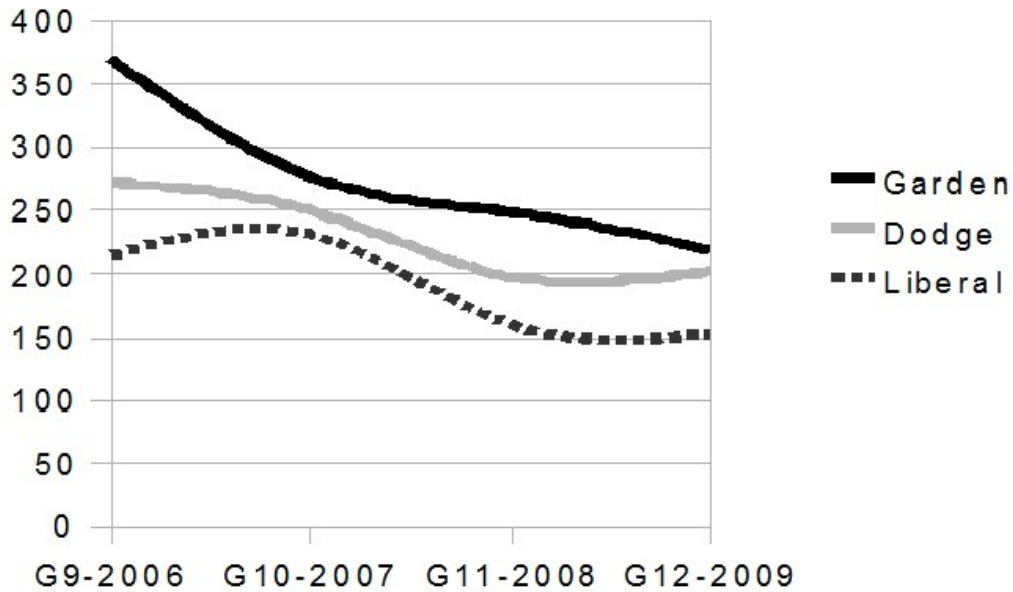


Figure 2. All three districts saw declines in numbers of Hispanic students from 9th to 12th grades.

What separates Dodge City and Liberal from Garden City, based on the data in figure 2, is that in Garden City the huge drop-off in Hispanic student numbers occurred in the transition from 9th grade (371) to 10th grade (277), a decrease of 25.4%, whereas the big decreases in Dodge City and Liberal occurred in the transition from 10th grade to 11th grade, similarly to the downward trend seen for Liberal in the 2004-2007 KSDE data presented in figure 1. In the interval from 2006 to 2007, as shown in figure 2, Hispanic numbers in Liberal actually increased temporarily in the transition from 9th grade to 10th grade, in contrast to the Garden City data.

Table 2

Actual Numbers for Cohorts in USD 457, 443, and 480, 2005-2009

	Garden	Dodge	Liberal
G9-2006	371	272	214
G10-2007	277	250	231
G11-2008	249	198	160
G12-2009	219	202	152

In Liberal Senior High School, from 9th grade to 12th grade, from 2005-2006 to 2008-2009, the number of Hispanic students dropped 29%, not nearly as severe as the 48% drop observed in data earlier presented from the cohort two years ahead of them. At Garden City, there was a 41% drop-off in Latino numbers from 9th grade to 12th grade, though only a 21.1% drop from 10th grade to 12th grade, after the initial loss of 94 Hispanic students in the transition from 9th to 10th grade. In Dodge City, the reduction in Latino numbers from 9th grade to 12th grade was 25.7%. In the 2008-2009 school year, Hispanic students comprised 60.6% of Liberal's 12th grade class; 53.2% of the 12th grade class in Dodge City; and 54.8% of the 12th grade class in Garden City.

Why Do Students Drop Out of School?

McCarthy (2002) used binary logical regression analysis to evaluate correlations between 12 different variables and the criterion of high school dropout or completion status.

12 Dropout Variables Tested by McCarthy

Gender

Primary home language

Eligibility for special education

Achievement test scores (reading, math, language [arts])

English as a Second Language services

Grade point average

Absentee rate

Suspensions

Number of schools [attended]

Overage for grade or retention in grade

(McCarthy, 2002, p. 84)

McCarthy's first research question was: "To what extent do risk and demographic variables singularly or collectively predict whether Hispanic students have dropped out or completed high school?" (p. 85).

Significant individual variables in the model for Hispanic students included grade point average and absentee rate. Hispanic students who dropped out of high school had a lower grade point average and a higher absentee rate than Hispanic students who completed high school.

(McCarthy, 2002, pp. 86-87)

McCarthy's second research question was "To what extent do risk and demographic variables singularly or collectively predict whether Non-Hispanic-White students have dropped out or completed high school?" (p. 88).

The following individual variables entered in the model were significant: absentee rate, number of schools, and grade point average. Non-Hispanic-White students who dropped out of high school had a higher rate of absenteeism and a lower grade

point average than Non-Hispanic-White students who completed high school.

(McCarthy, 2002, p. 88)

McCarthy also conducted a secondary binary logical regression analysis, to determine which of the same 12 variables were most differentiated in whether they correlated to Hispanic or Non-White-Hispanic dropout.

Significant variables included primary home language, academic achievement-language, number of schools, and overage for grade. Hispanic students who dropped out of high school more often listed Spanish as their primary home language, had a lower national percentile rank on the language subtest of the Stanford-9, changed schools more frequently, and were more often overage for grade or had been retained in grade, than the Non-Hispanic-White dropouts.

(McCarthy, 2002, p. 95)

Qualitative Study of Latino Dropouts in Dodge City, Kansas

In interviews with seven Mexican-American males who had dropped out of secondary school in Dodge City, Kansas, Ortiz and Guss (1995) found that all the participants had “strongly felt that administrators did not want them in school any longer” (p. 17) and most of the participants had encountered at least one teacher who also gave them the impression they were not wanted in the classroom (Ortiz & Guss, 1995).

By interviewing the subjects of their study in Spanish, Ortiz and Guss (1995) were able to acquire a great deal of information about the feelings and concerns of these former students. In some

cases, these researchers reported, students were not even fully aware of themselves as “drop-outs.”

The irony of alienation and the lack of school identity is unmistakable and unavoidable. A reasonable alternative is to initiate an exit interview with youth who drop out and their families....[to provide] the youth with voice and the professional educator with feedback.... the dropout status does not appear permanent. Youth become adults and can potentially re-engage the educational system. The information provided at exit can facilitate their re-entry.

(Ortiz & Guss, 1995, p. 26)

Ortiz and Guss (1995) suggest that school personnel need to get outside their comfort zones in order to be more inclusive in their interactions with a greater diversity of students. “Positive relationships between educators and students is [a] promising strategy,” they write, and “educators can learn a great deal about developing relationships with a variety of students” (pp. 24-25).

In fact, it seems an important life skill involves the ability to relate to an ever-increasing number of people. Yet these youth felt no human contact within the schools, except from their peer group. As we consider personal experiences with school, it is doubtful any teacher, administrator or counselor became successful without the active support of a non-exploitive, adult friend.

(Ortiz & Guss, 1995, p. 25)

Ortiz and Guss do not believe it will be easy to shift the sociocultural dynamic of a school

community to make it more accessible to culturally and linguistically diverse students and families.

Time after time in these interviews, it is striking how systematically the youth are not only discouraged from being active participants in the student culture, but also prevented from engaging in activities. A systemic, comprehensive, multidimensional approach which can address the individual needs of a diverse population requires substantial commitment from the community, educators, parents, students, and counselors.

(Ortiz & Guss, 1995, p. 22)

The Role of Teacher Activism in Preventing Latino Dropouts

In a keynote at the KATESOL 2006 conference, Escamilla said teachers must fight against misperceptions of Latinos that are reinforced in the media and U.S culture at large. “The gap between perception of Latino cultures and the reality of Latinos is wider than the perceived gap in academic achievement,” said Escamilla (2006), attributing the quote to Juan Yzaguirre, past president of the National Council of La Raza. Escamilla referenced 2003 University of Chicago data suggesting that most Americans consider Mexican-Americans, Cuban-Americans, and Puerto Ricans as the most dangerous ethnic group. As some of the reasons given by respondents in that survey, she listed the notions that Latinos are “unpatriotic, lazy, not family oriented, and not religious.”

Three Media Messages Based on Misperceptions About Latinos

Feeling devalued.

Feeling you don't belong.

Feeling ashamed of your language and heritage.

(Escamilla, 2006)

“Forcing children to learn English at the expense of their [first language] places them at an emotional cross-roads between their friends and family and school, even if this is done unintentionally,” she said. The psychological effects of these three messages “are long lasting, cannot be fixed with new methods, and cause children to tolerate language learning but not embrace it” (Escamilla, 2006).

Children will likely not remember the methods used to teach them English, even if they were effective, but they will remember the children who made fun of them, the principal who told them not to speak Spanish on the playground, and the teacher who told them not to hang around other kids who speak Spanish. Which voice do we want them to hear: the one that puts them down, or the one that stimulates them and lifts them up? (Escamilla, 2006)

Escamilla's comments about media-driven, anti-Latino cultural attitudes in American society provide some context for more recent remarks made by a State of Kansas legislator which prompted outrage among Kansas Hispanics and non-Hispanics alike, and ridicule around the world.

Kansas state Rep. Virgil Peck has a way with words — a very, very ugly way. The Republican lawmaker recently suggested in a committee meeting that illegal immigrants should be treated the same way Kansas controls feral pigs — shot by hunters in helicopters. Amazingly, he defended his lunacy as a joke and insisted he was speaking like a typical person from Southeast Kansas. The comments were crude, the excuse was lame, and his curt apology delivered under political pressure [was] arrogant.(Dallas Morning News, 2011)

Chapter 3 - Methodology

Table 3

Summary of Multicultural Considerations for the Five Domains of Transition

Self-Care, Domestic Living
Cultural frames of reference for successful adulthood
School accommodation to family's perspectives
Relationships of respect between school personnel and home
School provides information relevant to plans of student and family
Recreation and Leisure
Awareness of potential for bias and discrimination
School personnel model inclusive social interactions
Student involvement in clubs, groups
Emphasis on student strengths, not deficit model
Survey students, families on interests and goals
Communication and Social Skills
Avoid negative labeling, lowered expectations
Involve families to increase students' communication opportunities
Include non-Western values and perspectives in curriculum
Bring multicultural role models as speakers and mentors
Increase students' self-efficacy through student government and activism
Incorporate use of dialogue and active language
Vocational Skills
Partnerships with leaders from student's cultural community
School awareness and reinforcement of student resilience
Equity in grading and evaluation
Student and family involvement early in IEP and transition planning
Balance between individualistic and collectivist emphases
School supports student's career vision with information and opportunities
Community Participation Skills (including Lifelong Learning)
Student builds relationship skills through student government, advocacy groups
Opportunities for student to expand his or her social network
Schools reach out to parents and families to build models of community participation
Involvement of school personnel in communities beyond school settings
School personnel take steps to communicate across language and social barriers
Incorporation of social justice themes in curriculum

From the above discussion of research findings related to multicultural issues, needs, and concerns, a set of general considerations, outlined in table 3, were summarized for the development of a survey tool to determine answers to the two research questions on which this current study is focused. First, do considerations of multicultural needs figure into transition practices in Kansas schools? Second, are multicultural needs taken into account to a greater extent in certain areas of transition, e.g., recreation and leisure skills or community participation skills, than in others? A quantitative survey was prepared for special educators in districts across Kansas, to collect data in order to determine descriptive answers to these two research questions, and to empirically test the hypothesis of the present study, that *Kansas schools address the multicultural needs of exceptional students in transition practices.*

Certain items from table 3 seem relevant to more than one skill category among the five domains of transition. Seven of these transition issues were bundled together to develop the first seven Likert stems in the survey, with general application across the five domains.

Seven Multicultural Transition Issues for Generalized Set of Likert Stems

1. Cultural frames of reference for successful adulthood
2. Relationships of respect between school personnel and home
3. School provides data relevant to plans and perspectives of student and family
4. Awareness of potential for bias and discrimination
5. Emphasis on student strengths, not deficit model
6. Equity in grading, evaluation, and opportunities
7. Increase student's self-efficacy through involvement in self-advocacy roles

These seven issues were developed into positive statements which served as the Likert stems for the first seven survey items, shown in a screen-shot, figure 3, from the online survey hosted on the *Axio*

platform, as it appeared to survey participants.

Figure 3. Survey Screen Shot: Seven Key Issues in Transition , 3.1-3.7

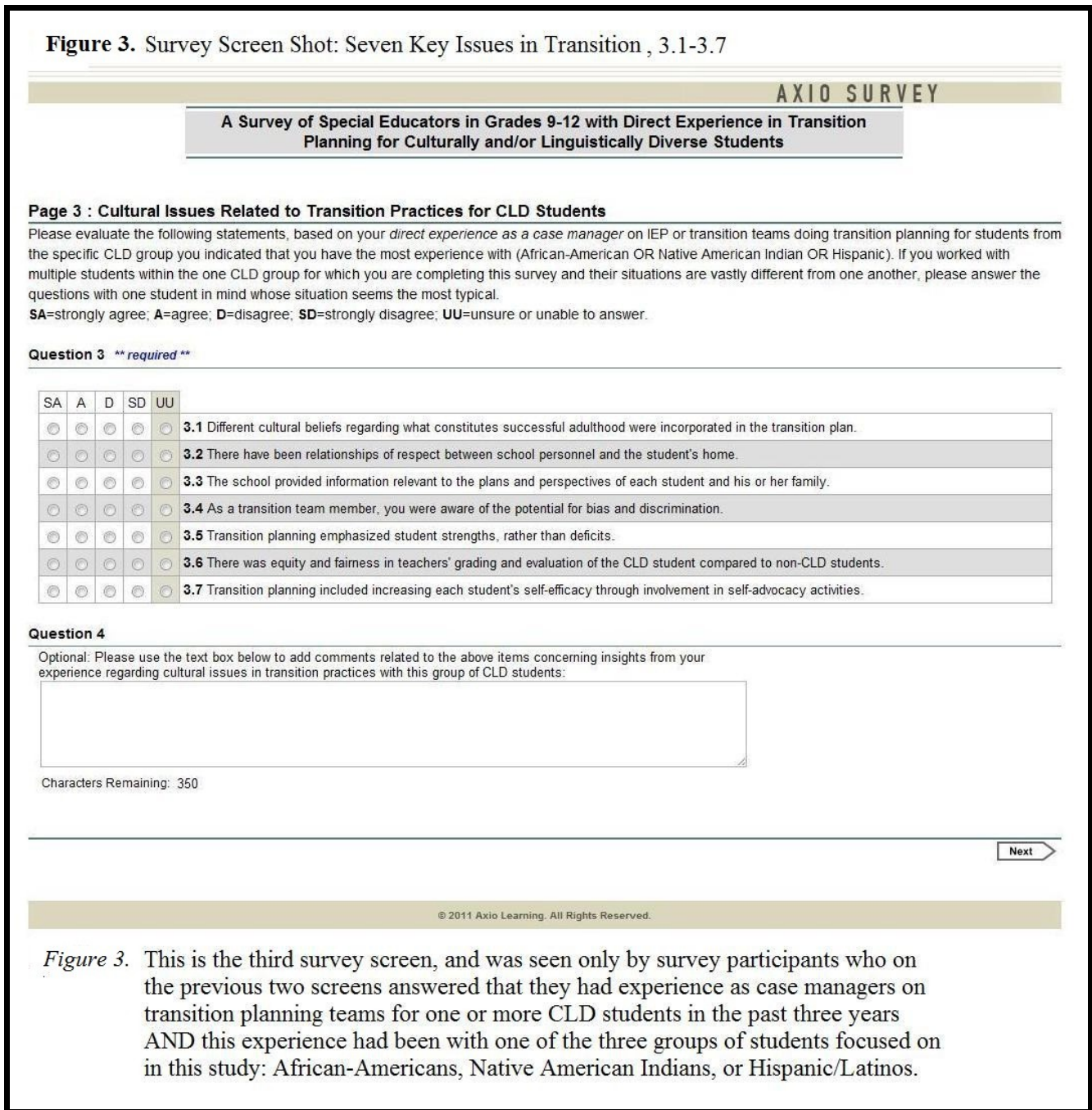


Figure 3. This is the third survey screen, and was seen only by survey participants who on the previous two screens answered that they had experience as case managers on transition planning teams for one or more CLD students in the past three years AND this experience had been with one of the three groups of students focused on in this study: African-Americans, Native American Indians, or Hispanic/Latinos.

Fifteen Needs, Concerns, for Likert Stems Related to Specific Transition Skill Areas

1. School accommodation to family's perspectives – SELF-CARE, DOMESTIC LIVING
2. Relationships of respect between school personnel and home – SELF-CARE, DOMESTIC LIVING
3. School provides information relevant to plans of student and family – SELF-CARE, DOMESTIC LIVING

In developing Likert stems related to items aligned to transition skill areas, statements were composed that converted general principles to specific examples conceptually linked to those principles, to give survey participants something concrete to respond to. For example, the principle of accommodating to the family's perspectives in the area of self-care, domestic living, was illustrated by suggestions in the review of literature above, that culturally and linguistically diverse families often have their own viewpoints and expectations regarding self-sufficiency and independent living, two factors typically valued highly in traditional, dominant-culture approaches to transition planning (Geenen et al., 2003; Jackson & Smith, 2001; Leake et al., 2003-04; Moore et al., 2008; Rueda et al., 2005). Similarly, a relationship of respect between school personnel and a student's home logically entails seeing the CLD student's family as a resource and strength (Geenen et al., 2003). Also, giving the family information about supports in the community for their plans regarding self-care, domestic living skills for their child as an adult is a specific case of schools providing information relevant to the plans of the student and family (Geenen et al., 2003; Rueda et al., 2005). Figure 4 displays the three Likert items in the survey related directly to the transition domain of self-care, domestic living skills.

Figure 4. Survey Screen Shot: Self-Care, Domestic Skills, 5.1-5.3

AXIO SURVEY

A Survey of Special Educators in Grades 9-12 with Direct Experience in Transition Planning for Culturally and/or Linguistically Diverse Students

Page 4 : Needs and Concerns Within the 5 Domains of Transition Planning and Services

Question 5 ** required **

Self-Care, Domestic Living Skills

From your direct experience as a case manager on IEP or transition teams, please evaluate each statement. You are also invited to make additional comments of your own regarding needs and concerns in transition planning within the scope of self-care and domestic living skills. Again, in all of your answers please keep your focus on the one CLD group (African Americans or Native American Indians or Hispanics) that you indicated at the starting page of the survey. If you worked with multiple students within the CLD group for which you are completing this survey and their situations are vastly different from one another, please answer the questions with one student in mind whose situation seems the most typical.
 SA=strongly agree; A=agree; D=disagree; SD=strongly disagree; UU=unable or unable to answer.

SA	A	D	SD	UU	
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	5.1 The school took into consideration the perspectives of the student and his or her family regarding self-sufficiency and independent living.
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	5.2 The student's family was viewed by school personnel as a resource and strength.
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	5.3 The family was made aware of supports for the student in the school community.

Question 6

Optional: Your Comments on Self-Care, Domestic Living Skills

In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in self-care and domestic living skills? (Note: The survey ends after Question #14.)

Characters Remaining: 350

Next

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Figure 4. The fourth page of the survey contained three Likert items, all related to the transition domain of self-care, domestic skills.

Needs, Concerns, for Likert Stems Related to Specific Transition Skill Areas, Continued

4. School personnel model inclusive social interactions – RECREATION AND LEISURE
5. Student involvement in clubs and groups – RECREATION AND LEISURE
6. Survey students, families on interests and goals – RECREATION AND LEISURE

In developing the Likert stems in the skill area of recreation and leisure, specific examples were used to make each concept more concrete for survey participants. When school personnel do not favor one group of students over another, but interact socially with students from a wide variety of backgrounds and abilities, they are modeling inclusive social interactions (Moore et al., 2008 ; Rueda et al., 2005). Asking survey participants to consider the number of activities that CLD students with special needs are involved in, as well as the degree of their involvement, provided a way for respondents to identify more directly with the concept of student involvement in clubs (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a). The specific concern in the third Likert stem of this section was straightforward enough that further examples were not required to clarify the concept of families and students being surveyed to determine interests and goals (Portley, 2009; Rueda et al., 2005). Figure 5 displays the three Likert items in the survey related directly to the transition domain of recreation and leisure skills.

Figure 5. Survey Screen Shot: Recreation and Leisure Skills, 7.1-7.3

AXIO SURVEY

A Survey of Special Educators in Grades 9-12 with Direct Experience in Transition Planning for Culturally and/or Linguistically Diverse Students

Page 5 : Needs and Concerns Within the 5 Domains of Transition Planning and Services

Question 7 * required *****

Recreation and Leisure Skills

From your direct experience as a case manager on IEP or transition teams, please evaluate each statement. You are also invited to make additional comments of your own regarding needs and concerns in transition planning within the scope of recreation and leisure skills. Again, in all of your answers please keep your focus on the one CLD group (African Americans or Native American Indians or Hispanics) that you indicated at the starting page of the survey. If you worked with multiple students within the CLD group for which you are completing this survey and their situations are vastly different from one another, please answer the questions with one student in mind whose situation seems the most typical.
 SA=strongly agree; A=agree; D=disagree; SD=strongly disagree; UU=unsure or unable to answer.

SA	A	D	SD	UU	
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	7.1 School personnel provided a model of inclusive social interaction by interacting with students from different genders, races, ethnic groups, abilities, and achievement levels.
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	7.2 The student was involved in clubs, groups, and activities. Please consider number of activities and degree of involvement. For example, SA means the student was very involved in several different activities.
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	7.3 Student and family were surveyed by the transition team to determine their interests and goals.

Question 8

Optional: Your Comments on Recreation and Leisure Skills

In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in recreation and leisure skills?

Characters Remaining: 350

Next

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Figure 5. The fifth page of the survey contained three Likert items, all related to the transition domain of recreation and leisure skills.

Needs, Concerns, for Likert Stems Related to Specific Transition Skill Areas, Continued

7. Avoid negative labeling, lowered expectations – COMMUNICATION AND SOCIAL SKILLS

8. Bring multicultural role models as speakers and mentors – COMMUNICATION AND SOCIAL SKILLS

9. Incorporate use of dialogue and active language – COMMUNICATION AND SOCIAL SKILLS

In the domain of communication and social skills, the first Likert stem was elaborated from the concept of avoiding negative labeling and lowered expectations, as survey participants were asked to agree or disagree that the student's language and/or culture were not used by the school to justify the lowering of expectations for the CLD student (Bakken & Obiakor, 2009; Geenen et al., 2003; Greene, 2009; Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a; Portley, 2009). On the concept of bringing multicultural role models into the school as speakers and mentors, the Likert stem asks whether role models from the student's cultural community were brought in to provide examples for learning communication and social skills (Geenen et al., 2003; Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a). The third Likert stem in this section, 9.3, addressing the principle of using dialogue and active language, included examples of “active language” (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a; Jackson & Smith, 2001; Portley, 2009; Wilder et al., 2001). Figure 6 displays the three Likert items in the survey related directly to the transition domain of communication and social skills.

Figure 6. Survey Screen Shot: Communication and Social Skills, 9.1-9.3

AXIO SURVEY

A Survey of Special Educators in Grades 9-12 with Direct Experience in Transition Planning for Culturally and/or Linguistically Diverse Students

Page 6 : Needs and Concerns Within the 5 Domains of Transition Planning and Services

Question 9 * required *****

Communication and Social Skills

From your direct experience as a case manager on IEP or transition teams, please evaluate each statement. You are also invited to make additional comments of your own regarding needs and concerns in transition planning within the scope of communication and social skills. Again, in all of your answers please keep your focus on the one CLD group (African Americans or Native American Indians or Hispanics) that you indicated at the starting page of the survey. If you worked with multiple students within the CLD group for which you are completing this survey and their situations are vastly different from one another, please answer the questions with one student in mind whose situation seems the most typical.
 SA=strongly agree; A=agree; D=disagree; SD=strongly disagree; UU=unsure or unable to answer.

SA	A	D	SD	UU	
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	9.1 School personnel did not lower their expectations for this student based on his or her culture or language.
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	9.2 Role models from the student's cultural community were brought into the school as speakers and mentors.
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	9.3 The transition curriculum for this student incorporated dialogue and active language use in learning (student participating in productive ways, e.g., speaking, writing).

Question 10

Optional: Your Comments on Communication and Social Skills

In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in communication and social skills?

Characters Remaining: 350

Next

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Figure 6. The sixth page of the survey contained three Likert items, all related to the transition domain of communication and social skills.

Needs, Concerns, for Likert Stems Related to Specific Transition Skill Areas, Continued

10. Partnerships with leaders from student's cultural community – VOCATIONAL SKILLS
11. School awareness and reinforcement of student resilience – VOCATIONAL SKILLS
12. School supports student's career vision with information and opportunities – VOCATIONAL SKILLS

In order to give survey respondents—caseworkers with direct experience on transition teams for CLD students—more familiar references in Likert stem 11.1, partnerships in the student's cultural community were clarified to mean relationships for the purpose of work placements (Geenen et al., 2003; Greene, 2009; Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a; Portley, 2009). On the principle of reinforcing student resilience (Greene, 2009; Portley, 2009), the term “resilience” was redefined for survey participants, using more common vocabulary for easier recognition and understanding. The third Likert stem expanded on the concept of information and opportunities to clarify that these must be directly applicable to the student's preparations for his or her chosen career path (Cummins, 1995; Leake et al., 2003-04; Portley, 2009; Rueda et al., 2005; Wilder et al., 2001). Figure 7 displays the three Likert items in the survey related directly to the transition domain of vocational skills.

Figure 7. Survey Screen Shot: Vocational Skills, 11.1-11.3

AXIO SURVEY

A Survey of Special Educators in Grades 9-12 with Direct Experience in Transition Planning for Culturally and/or Linguistically Diverse Students

Page 7 : Needs and Concerns Within the 5 Domains of Transition Planning and Services

Question 11 * required *****

Vocational Skills

From your direct experience as a case manager on IEP or transition teams, please evaluate each statement. You are also invited to make additional comments of your own regarding needs and concerns in transition planning within the scope of vocational skills. Again, in all of your answers please keep your focus on the one CLD group (African Americans or Native American Indians or Hispanics) that you indicated at the starting page of the survey. If you worked with multiple students within the CLD group for which you are completing this survey and their situations are vastly different from one another, please answer the questions with one student in mind whose situation seems the most typical.
SA=strongly agree; A=agree; D=disagree; SD=strongly disagree; UU=unable or unable to answer.

SA	A	D	SD	UU	
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	11.1 Partnerships with leaders, business owners, and employers from the student's cultural community were utilized for work placements.
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	11.2 School personnel took every opportunity to reinforce evidence of student resilience, i.e., determination and perseverance.
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	11.3 The school supported the student's career vision with information and relevant opportunities to prepare for the career path that the student chose for himself or herself.

Question 12

Optional: Your Comments on Vocational Skills

In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in vocational skills?

Characters Remaining: 350

Next

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Figure 7. The seventh page of the survey contained three Likert items, all related to the transition domain of vocational skills.

Fifteen Needs, Concerns, for Likert Stems Related to Specific Transition Skill Areas, Continued

13. Student builds relationship skills through student government, advocacy groups AND Opportunities for student to expand his or her social network – COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION SKILLS

14. Schools reach out to parents and families to build models of community participation – COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION SKILLS

15. School personnel take steps to communicate across language and social barriers – COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION SKILLS

The first Likert stem in the community participation skill section of the survey combined two principles from the review of literature above: building relationship skills through involvement in advocacy groups (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a; Portley, 2009) and expanding the student's social network through those same activities (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a). The second Likert stem, 13.2, brought the concept of schools and families building models down to earth by using the phrase “set an example and demonstrate community participation skills for students” (Bakken & Obiakor, 2009; Geenen et al., 2003; Rueda et al., 2005). The third Likert stem was aligned with the principle from the review of literature regarding efforts by schools to bridge language and social barriers in their communications with CLD parents and families (Bakken & Obiakor, 2009; Dennis & Giangreco, 1996; Geenen et al., 2003; Wilder et al., 2001). However, instead of asking survey participants to consider two different matters—language and culture—the statement referred only to “cultural barriers,” with the rationale that culture subsumes language, and also that the concept of cultural barriers can be applied across all three of the CLD groups included in this present study, whereas the concept of language barriers is not uniformly relevant across all three. Figure 8 displays the three Likert items in the survey related directly to the transition domain of community participation skills.

Figure 8. Survey Screen Shot: Community Participation Skills, 13.1-13.3

AXIO SURVEY

A Survey of Special Educators in Grades 9-12 with Direct Experience in Transition Planning for Culturally and/or Linguistically Diverse Students

Page 8 : Needs and Concerns Within the 5 Domains of Transition Planning and Services

Question 13 * required *****

Community Participation Skills (including Lifelong Learning)

From your direct experience as a case manager on IEP or transition teams, please evaluate each statement. You are also invited to make additional comments of your own regarding needs and concerns in transition planning within the scope of community participation skills. Again, in all of your answers please keep your focus on the one CLD group (African Americans or Native American Indians or Hispanics) that you indicated at the starting page of the survey. If you worked with multiple students within the CLD group for which you are completing this survey and their situations are vastly different from one another, please answer the questions with one student in mind whose situation seems the most typical.
SA=strongly agree; A=agree; D=disagree; SD=strongly disagree; UU=unsure or unable to answer.

SA	A	D	SD	UU	
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	13.1 The student built relationship skills and expanded his or her social network through involvement in student government and/or advocacy groups.
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	13.2 The school reached out to parents and families to set an example and demonstrate community participation skills for students.
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	13.3 School personnel took steps to communicate across cultural barriers.

Question 14

Optional: Your Comments on Community Participation Skills (including Lifelong Learning)

In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in community participation skills? (Please note that when you click the "DONE" button below, your survey will be submitted.)

Characters Remaining: 350

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Figure 8. The eighth page of the survey contained three Likert items, all related to the transition domain of community participation skills.

Validation of the Research Instrument

In addition to instructions from the members of the author's doctoral dissertation committee which resulted in straightforward and transparent user-friendly formatting, the survey instrument was evaluated by an expert panel comprised of three individuals: Dr. Sheryl Hodge, an evaluator with the Office of Educational Innovation and Evaluation at Kansas State University; Dr. Jim Teagarden, Assistant Professor in the Department of Special Education, Counseling and Student Affairs at Kansas State University; and Dr. Audrey A. Trainor, Associate Professor in the Department of Rehabilitation

Psychology & Special Education at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. Many of the observations made by the members of the expert panel were incorporated in the final draft of the survey instrument, but the author of the present study took full responsibility for the survey format and content, and any shortcomings were the result of editing decisions made by him.

The presentation and administration of the survey also adhered strictly to guidelines and instructions received from the Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects, which serves as the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Kansas State University. The final content of the survey instrument was influenced by detailed feedback from Dr. Juan Portley, of Portley Education Consulting, on a very early conceptual version of the survey. Annette Gaitan, a middle school Special Education teacher and past president of the Kansas Council for Exceptional Children, provided field-test feedback on the final version of the survey, which helped to inform the wording of the e-mails sent to prospective survey participants, regarding the actual time commitment required to complete the online survey.

Details of the Administration of the Survey

Dillman et al. (2009) provides guidelines for administering Web surveys, and these informed the methodology for the present survey, which was conducted entirely via the Internet. There were two e-mail messages, each containing a link to the online survey, sent to the same group of special education teachers in grades 9-12 at Kansas public schools.

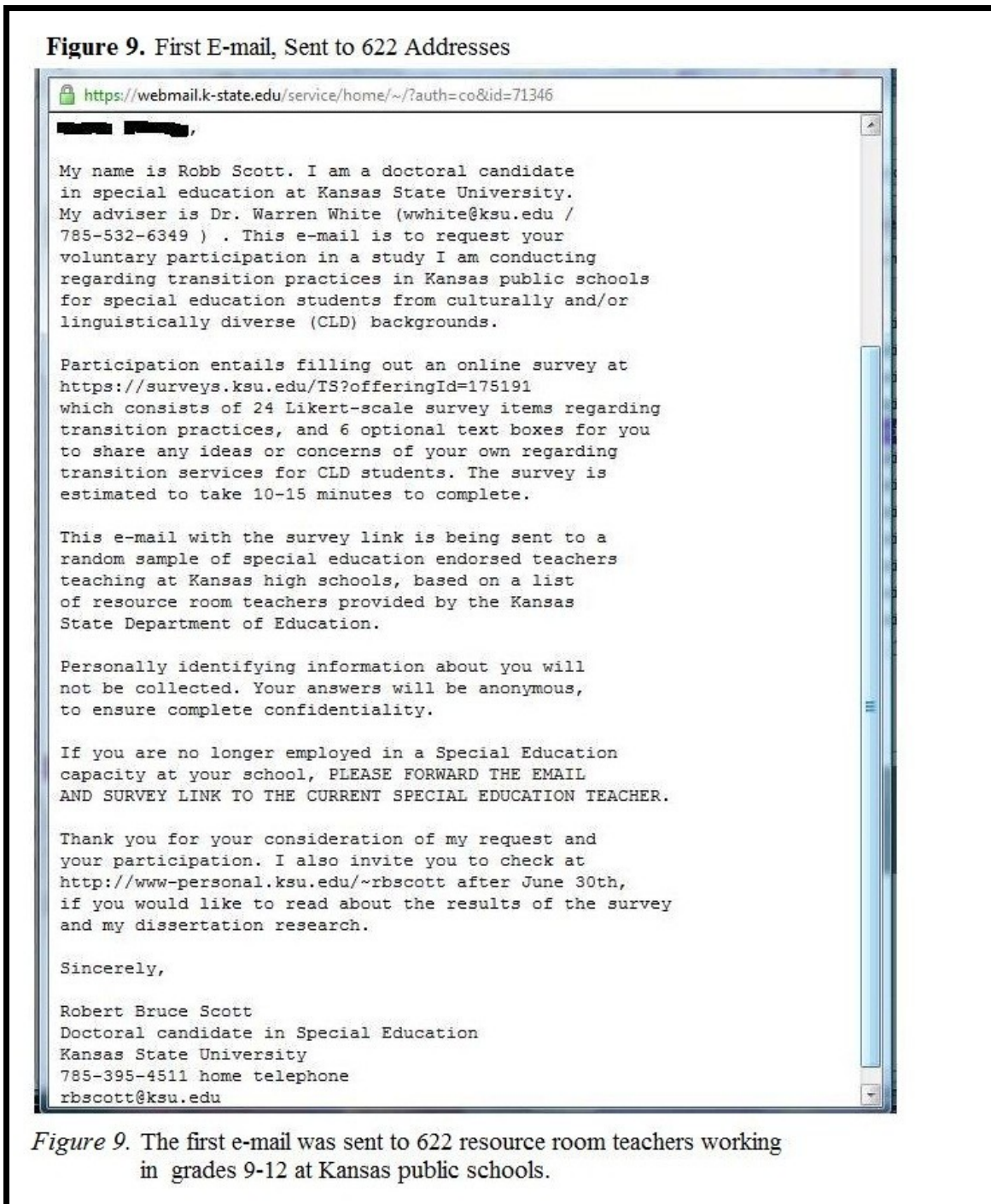
According to 2009-2010 data provided by Evelyn Alden, of the Office of Special Education Services at the Kansas State Department of Education, there were 2,750 teachers of grades 9-12 in Kansas public schools “being claimed for categorical aid,” and this number included nine administrators/supervisors and 73 teachers of gifted students. KSDE was unable to provide a list of these special educators, so instead a list of special educators likely to have transition planning

experience was derived from a list of resource room teachers, generated by the Custom Label Creator application in the Data, Media, and Reports section of the KSDE Web site.

The list generated by this application at the KSDE site gave names, schools, and districts for 2,112 resource room teachers from locations across the state. Resource room teachers at elementary schools and middle schools were removed from the original list, leaving a new total of 611 resource room teachers associated with grades 9-12, based on the data from KSDE. In the process of searching for the e-mail addresses of these individuals by contacting the Web sites of schools, districts, and special education cooperatives, substitutions were made in cases in which KSDE data were outdated; certain names were dropped from the list when associated e-mails could not be found; and further names and e-mails were added to the list in cases when schools or cooperatives listed resource teachers not included on the original label generated at the KSDE site. There were 622 names of resource room teachers who were working or had recently worked in grades 9-12 at Kansas public schools, and their e-mail contacts, on the final list used for the survey in the present study.

The first e-mails were sent, one-by-one, addressed individually, over a period starting at 10:38 p.m., April 13, 2011, and completing at 11:51 p.m., April 14, 2011. The subject header was: *note from Robb Scott - transition survey invitation* . The screen shot in figure 9 attests to two errors in the text of the first e-mail message. In explaining who was receiving the e-mails, the message text incorrectly stated that the survey invitations were being “sent to a random sample of special education endorsed teachers teaching at Kansas high schools,” when in fact the sample was not random. The intention was to pull a random sample from the list of resource-room teachers, but the list turned out so short that it was deemed necessary to send e-mails to all members of the list. The final draft of the e-mail was not modified to reflect this change in survey methodology. A second error was stating that the survey included a total of 24 Likert items, whereas the actual number was 22 (the first two filtering questions were not in the same Likert format as the $7 + 15 = 22$ items which comprised the main survey). The

judgment of the researcher is that these two errors did not influence data collected in this survey or the results and conclusions of the study. Figure 9 is a screen shot of the first e-mail, sent to 622 addresses.



A second round of e-mails were sent, April 19-20, but not to the 34 addresses bounced, mis-directed, or refused the first time. E-mail header: *follow-up - thank-you & reminder - transition survey.*

Figure 10. Second E-mail, Successfully Sent to 582 Addresses

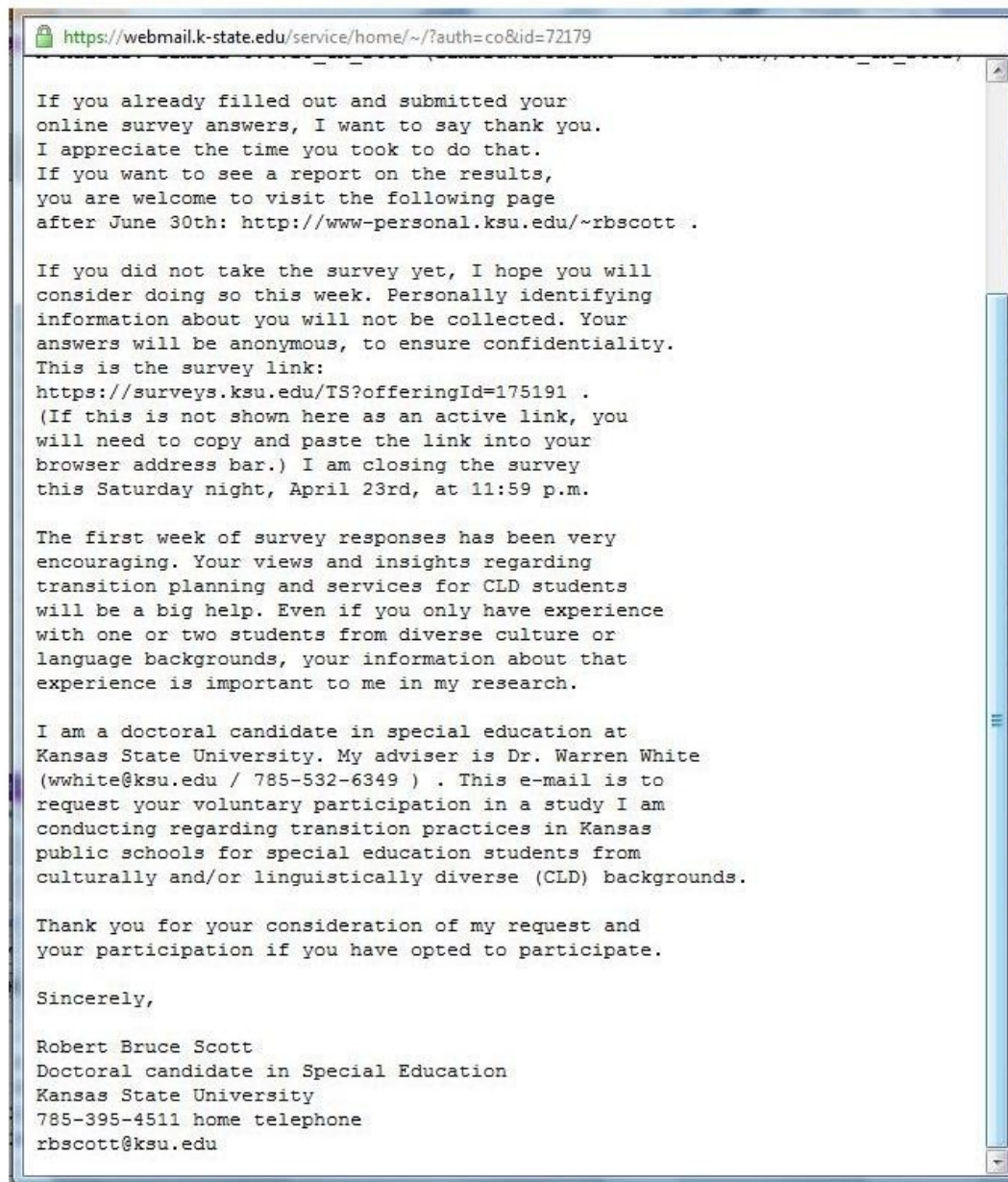


Figure 10. The second e-mail was sent to 586 good addresses from the first batch of e-mails, but of these 586, four bounced.

If a recipient of one of the two e-mails clicked on the survey link, he or she saw the following welcome page, shown in figure 11.

Figure 11. Screen Shot of the First Page of the Survey Instrument

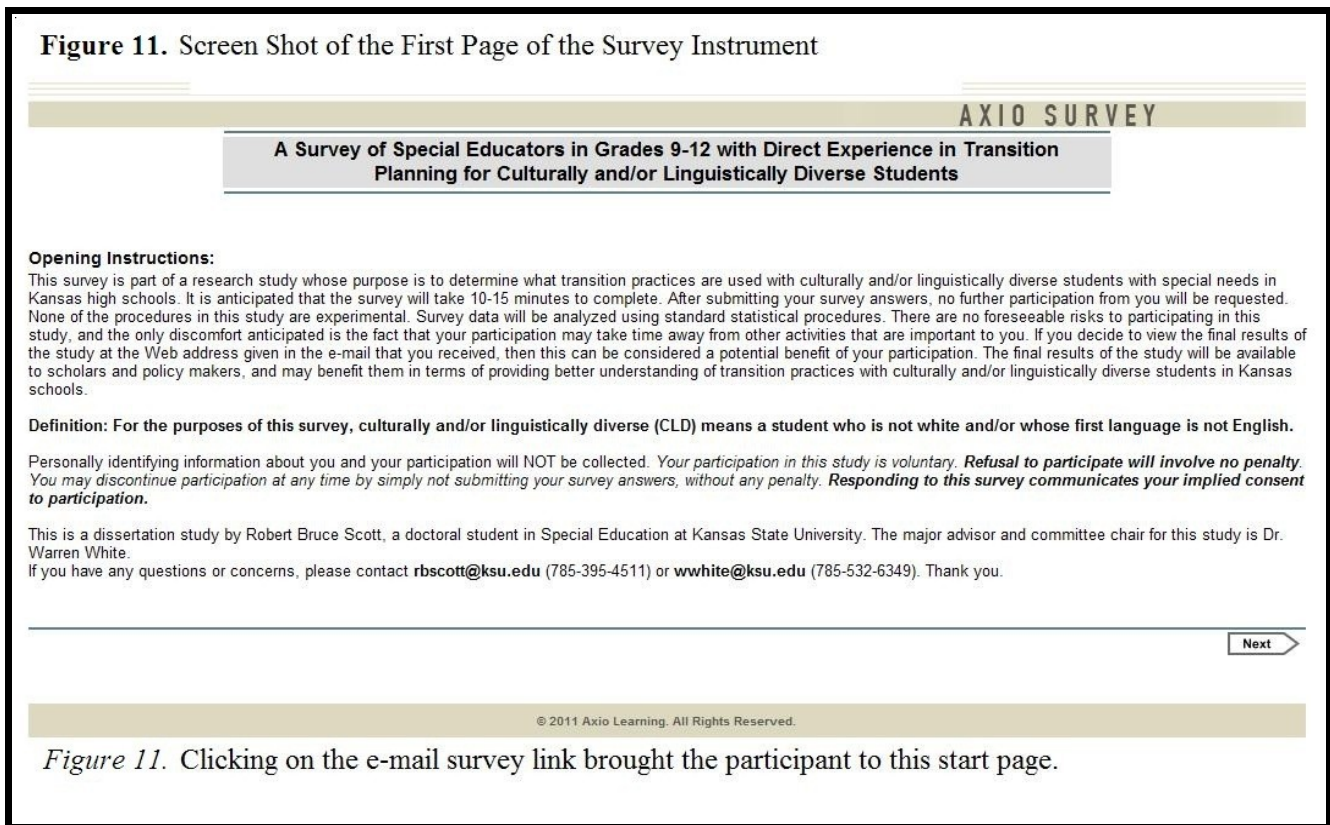


Figure 11. Clicking on the e-mail survey link brought the participant to this start page.

Preliminary Survey Questions to Filter Survey Participants

Some schools were represented by a number of resource room teachers on the final list that was used for e-mailing the survey link; at other schools, there was just one name; in a few cases, one person performed resource room duties at several schools, sometimes even crossing district lines to travel from one location to another. In order to be certain that every survey participant had direct and recent experience with multicultural transition planning, it was determined that only respondents who had served as caseworkers on transition teams or IEP teams doing transition planning for CLD students in the past three years would be in a position to contribute relevant data to help answer the research questions of the present study. Figure 12 shows the first preliminary question of the survey, which functioned to filter out any respondent lacking this necessary experience.

Figure 12. Screen Shot of the First Page of Survey Questions

AXIO SURVEY

A Survey of Special Educators in Grades 9-12 with Direct Experience in Transition Planning for Culturally and/or Linguistically Diverse Students

Page 1 : Respondent Demographics

Question 1 ** required **

Definition: For the purposes of this survey, culturally and/or linguistically diverse (CLD) means a student who is not white and/or whose first language is not English.

Have you served as case manager on a transition planning team at your present school for one or more culturally and/or linguistically diverse (CLD) students in the past 3 years?

YES NO

Next

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Figure 12. The first survey question filtered out anyone without recent caseworker experience on transition teams for CLD students.

The second preliminary survey question, shown in figure 13, was included in order to make certain that only respondents whose multicultural transition-planning experience had been with one of the three groups focused on in the present study would complete the survey.

Figure 13. Screen Shot of the Second Page of Survey Questions

AXIO SURVEY

A Survey of Special Educators in Grades 9-12 with Direct Experience in Transition Planning for Culturally and/or Linguistically Diverse Students

Page 2

Question 2 ** required **

This survey only addresses transition practices with three groups of culturally and/or linguistically diverse students: African-Americans, Native American Indians, and Latinos/Hispanics.

Mark the box for the specific group of CLD students with which you have had the most experience as a case manager in transition planning. Select only one group.

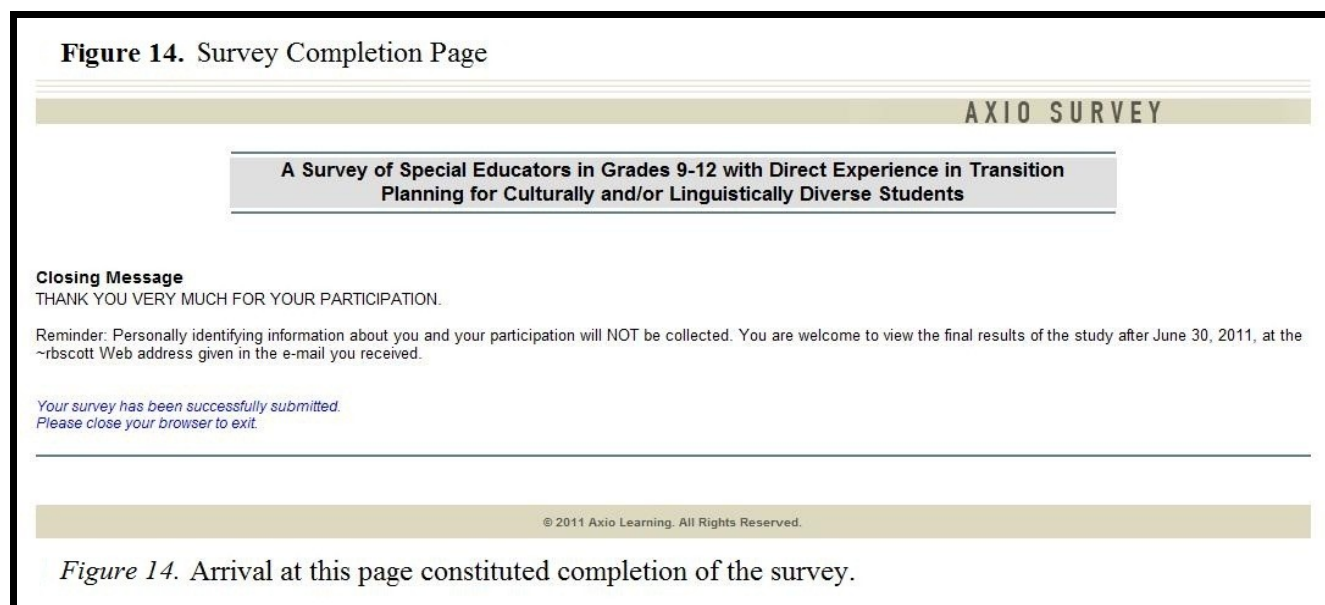
African-Americans Native American Indians Hispanics I have not had any experience in transition planning for any of these three groups.

Next

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Figure 13. This question filters for experience with the three groups focused on in this study.

Upon answering “NO” to question 1 on page one of the survey or the fourth option (no experience in transition planning for the three groups of interest in this study) on question 2 on page two, the survey participant arrived at the survey completion page; participants who answered “YES” to question 1, selected one of the three groups in question 2, and responded to all 22 of the Likert items on the remaining pages of the survey, arrived at the same completion page, shown in figure 14.



Other Considerations Regarding Survey Administration

Each of the two rounds of e-mails was addressed individually, in accord with a warning from Dillman et al. that a single e-mail sent to a list of addresses conveys an impression of the message as impersonal.

Another strong indication that one is getting personal attention with e-mails is receiving individual, not bulk, messages. Stated another way, receiving a bulk e-mail ... is an immediate sign to individual recipients that they are unimportant that their own response is not all that important.

(Dillman et al., 2009, p. 273)

Also, the second, repeated e-mail was sent to every member of the sample group, in accordance with the Dillman et al. guideline that “sending multiple contacts to potential web survey respondents is the most effective way to increase response rates.” The *Axio* platform offers two options for sending out e-mails containing links to an online survey. In one option, an identical e-mail message is sent to every address, containing a unique survey link for each prospective respondent, which allows the survey administrator to track whether a specific individual has taken the survey and to only contact those individuals known not to have responded yet when sending the reminder e-mail. However, the present study utilized the second *Axio* option, in which every prospect is sent the same link and there is no tracking to determine which persons have opened the survey link yet. This second option, with no tracking, was used in order to offer prospective participants complete anonymity, so that there was no possibility of connecting any survey response to a particular individual.

Because it could not be known who had and who had not responded yet to the survey link, the second, follow-up e-mail had to be sent to every address on the list again, except, as discussed above, in cases of bounced, misdirected, or refused e-mails from the first message sent. This also meant that the second e-mail message had to be phrased in such a way that it would be relevant both to teachers who had not yet responded and to those who had already taken the survey. In addition, according to Dillman et al., response rates are better when the text of the second e-mail differs from that of the first message.

Sample Population and Sample Size Calculations

According to 2009-2010 data from the Office of Special Education Services at KSDE, as stated above, there were 2,750 teachers of grades 9-12 in Kansas public schools “being claimed for categorical aid,” and this number included 9 administrators/supervisors and 73 teachers of gifted students. Working from an estimate of 2,668 as the total population of special education endorsed teachers currently teaching in grades 9-12 in Kansas schools, variation $p = .25$ (because of the Likert

format with four options), a margin of error $B = .03$, and a Z score = 1.96, the ideal sample size would have been 1,069 completed surveys. Taking into consideration an average response rate with e-mail surveys of 36.83%, according to Sheehan (2001), even sending the e-mail with the survey link to all 2,668 members of the survey population would not have resulted in enough completed surveys to be able to apply the results to all teachers in the survey population with 95% level of confidence and a 3 percent margin of error. For a margin of error $B = .05$, the desired sample size would have been 384 completed surveys, which would have required sending the e-mail surveys to 1,043 special education teachers in the target demographic.

Only 582 valid e-mail addresses were available, comprising contact information developed starting with a sample frame consisting of a KSDE database of resource-room teachers, generated using an public application on the KSDE Web site, as described above. The survey e-mails were sent to every one of these 582 contacts, with the expectation of receiving completed surveys from 36.83% of this sample, i.e., 214 respondents.

The completed sample was, in fact, just 178, for a response rate of 30.58%. Calculating from this completed sample size, the margin of error, B , is $\pm 7\%$. The results reported in chapter four, below, with a confidence level of 95%, and within a margin of error of $\pm 7\%$, are representative of the total population of special education endorsed teachers who teach grades 9-12 in Kansas public schools.

Survey Coverage

As described above, both the first and second e-mail messages arrived to 582 special education endorsed resource-room teachers for grades 9-12. These teachers worked at schools in 190 of the 293 unified school districts in Kansas. The coverage area is indicated by push-pin icons marking districts on the map in figure 15, as well as in a comprehensive list of the districts in appendix 1.

Figure 15. Map to Indicate Kansas School Districts Where E-mails Were Sent

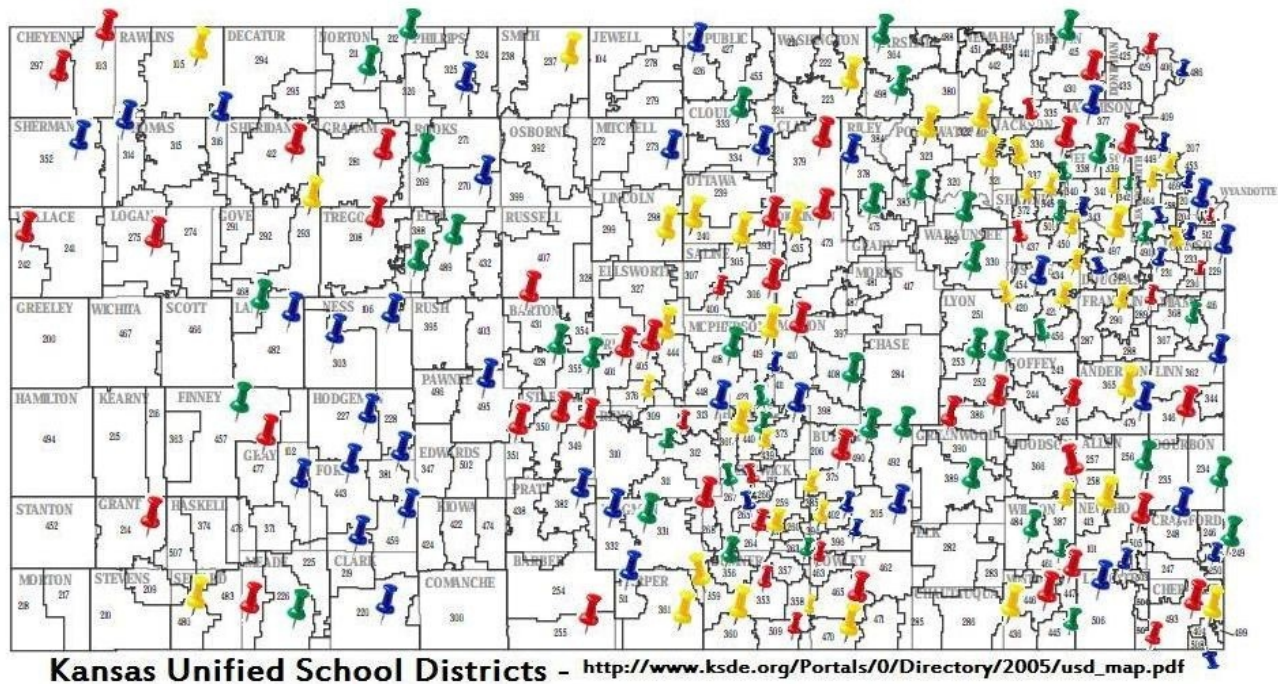


Figure 15. E-mails were sent to teachers in 190 Kansas unified school districts. In several cases, two districts in very close proximity to each other are represented on this map with a single push-pin icon.

Treatment of Data

Relevance of data was of primary importance in the analysis of results from the survey. Although the completed sample was 178, the relevant completed surveys, or N, were the ones on which responses to the first two questions indicated the respondent had experience as a caseworker in the past three years on transition teams or IEP teams developing transition plans for at least one student in one of the three CLD groups of interest in the present study. Those who did not meet this criteria were automatically forwarded to the completion page of the survey, skipping the 22 Likert items related to multicultural transition practices. N was 93 for the data analysis of survey results. However, survey participants were able to opt out of any of the Likert items by selecting “UU,” meaning “unsure or unable to answer,” resulting in lower N values for certain items.

Means and standard deviations were determined for the frequencies of the four choices on each

of the 22 Likert items. Pearson's chi-square test was used to determine the significance of variation from random probability patterns.

At six different points in the survey instrument, respondents were given the option of adding their own comments regarding a particular aspect of transition practices for CLD students with special needs. Every comment received is reported, unedited, in appendix 2. The comments are not addressed in the presentation of survey results, in chapter four below, where the entire emphasis is on quantitative data analysis. However, comments from the respondents are incorporated in the discussion of results, in chapter five below.

Chapter 4 - Results

The data compiled from the April 2011 survey of caseworkers at high schools across the state regarding transition practices with African-American, Native American Indian, and Hispanic/Latino students were collected for the purpose of responding to the two research questions of the present study: 1) Do considerations of multicultural needs figure into transition practices in Kansas schools?, and 2) Are multicultural needs taken into account to a greater extent in certain areas of transition, e.g., recreation and leisure skills or community participation skills, than in others? Answers to these two research questions were expected to inform an examination of the hypothesis of the present study: *Kansas schools address the multicultural needs of exceptional students in transition practices.*

The survey was completed by 102 special education teachers who had served as case managers on transition planning teams for one or more culturally and/or linguistically diverse (CLD) students in the past three years. These are relevant survey participants for any calculation regarding sample size or completed sample size in the present study. Completing the survey represented an investment on average of 22.6 minutes per respondent for the 102 teachers, whereas the estimated required time for the survey in the first e-mail message to them was 10-15 minutes.

Of 102 teachers with relevant CLD experience, 93 indicated in their responses to the second survey question that their experience as a caseworker included transition planning for African American, Native American Indian, or Hispanic students.

Of these 93 participants, 38 indicated that most of their relevant experience had been with African-American students; 3 others indicated experience with Native American Indian students; 52 other teachers answered that experience as caseworkers was with Hispanic students. Using the 2010 U.S. Census numbers for each of these groups in the general Kansas population for comparison, it was determined that the distribution of caseworker experience across these three student groups was very

close to what would be predicted on a random sampling based on the proportions of these groups in the general population. This suggests that the data from these 93 participants have explanatory relevance for the greater survey population of 582 high school resource-room teachers as well as relevance for the total population of special education endorsed teachers in Kansas schools teaching grades 9-12, and the transition experiences of CLD students with special needs across the state.

The 22 Likert items, aligned with key issues, needs, and concerns from the literature on multicultural transition, were developed to allow the researcher of the present study to determine whether special education professionals who served as caseworkers on transition teams for CLD students believed these multicultural considerations were addressed in transition as practiced in their schools with African-American, Native American Indian, and Hispanic/Latino students. Of particular interest in the data is the extent to which these caseworkers agreed or disagreed with statements attributing to their schools the best transition practices for culturally and/or linguistically diverse students, aligned with concepts from the literature on multicultural transition.

Descriptive Overview of the Survey Data

In order to interpret the descriptive statistical picture of means and standard deviations for the 22 Likert items on the survey, it is necessary to remember that respondents expressed their agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting one of four options: SA (strongly agree); A (agree); D (disagree); or SD (strongly disagree). If the respondent selected UU (unknown or unsure of how to answer), this answer was not included in the N for that Likert item. In table 4, the mean was calculated from data in which the number 1 represented SA; 2 represented A; 3, D; and 4, SD (strongly disagree). The mean values provide a general idea of the trend towards agreement or disagreement on each item; the standard deviation indicates how much of a spread there is on either side of the mean, or the variation from one respondent to another.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics: Q3.1 – Q13.3

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Q3.1	82	1	4	2.29	.694
Q3.2	93	1	3	1.51	.564
Q3.3	91	1	3	1.65	.565
Q3.4	91	1	4	1.67	.633
Q3.5	93	1	3	1.48	.544
Q3.6	88	1	4	1.65	.626
Q3.7	88	1	4	1.84	.709
Q5.1	91	1	3	1.67	.559
Q5.2	89	1	4	1.84	.721
Q5.3	91	1	2	1.48	.502
Q7.1	91	1	3	1.62	.573
Q7.2	91	1	4	2.34	.846
Q7.3	92	1	4	1.88	.768
Q9.1	92	1	4	1.63	.691
Q9.2	84	1	4	2.69	.836
Q9.3	87	1	4	1.89	.655
Q11.1	81	1	4	2.28	.810
Q11.2	86	1	4	1.87	.629
Q11.3	91	1	4	1.77	.616
Q13.1	86	1	4	2.84	.838
Q13.2	85	1	4	2.04	.763
Q13.3	90	1	4	1.80	.640

Chi-square Testing of the Results to Determine Significance

In order to obtain a more definitive result from chi-square testing, i.e., comparisons of the frequencies observed in the four categories associated with each Likert item to the frequencies that would be expected by chance (Field, 2005), the two gradations of agreement were combined into one

category and a single disagreement category was formed in the same way, combining two categories into one. These comparisons are displayed in table 5.

Table 5

Chi-Square Frequencies for Survey Items 3.1 – 3.7

Q3.1				Chi-Square Test Frequencies
	Observed N	Expected N	Residual	
Agree	57	41.0	16.0	
Disagree	25	41.0	-16.0	
Total	82			

Q3.2				Q3.5			
	Observed N	Expected N	Residual		Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Agree	90	46.5	43.5	Agree	91	46.5	44.5
Disagree	3	46.5	-43.5	Disagree	2	46.5	-44.5
Total	93			Total	93		

Q3.3				Q3.6			
	Observed N	Expected N	Residual		Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Agree	87	45.5	41.5	Agree	83	44.0	39.0
Disagree	4	45.5	-41.5	Disagree	5	44.0	-39.0
Total	91			Total	88		

Q3.4				Q3.7			
	Observed N	Expected N	Residual		Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Agree	85	45.5	39.5	Agree	78	44.0	34.0
Disagree	6	45.5	-39.5	Disagree	10	44.0	-34.0
Total	91			Total	88		

In interpreting chi-square tests, it is necessary to compare the chi-square statistic to critical values from a chart that aligns degrees of freedom with critical values of chi-square distribution for the desired p value, in this case $p = .05$. If the observed chi-square statistic is greater than the critical value, then it can be said there is a 95% probability that the observed set of frequencies is significant, i.e., not due to chance. The larger the chi-square statistic, the greater the significance of the results. Table 6 conveys information from a chart titled “Critical Values of the Chi-Square Distribution” (Field, 2002,

p. 760). The degree of freedom (df) for chi-square calculations regarding the simplified data from the survey, with just two categories of agreement-disagreement instead of four, is now equal to 2-1=1, because there are just two options rather than four associated with each Likert stem.

Table 6

Critical Values on Pearson's Chi-Square Distribution

df	p=.05
1	3.84

Table 7 indicates the chi-square statistic for each of the items in the first set of Likert questions, 3.1 to 3.7. By comparing the chi-square statistic for each question to the critical value, 3.84, it is determined that the data from all seven items are significantly different from what would be expected by chance alone.

Table 7

Chi-Square Test Statistics: 3.1 – 3.7

Test Statistics							
	Q3.1	Q3.2	Q3.3	Q3.4	Q3.5	Q3.6	Q3.7
Chi-Square	12.488 ^a	81.387 ^b	75.703 ^c	68.582 ^c	85.172 ^b	69.136 ^u	52.545 ^u
df	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

The reader will note that the numbering convention on the Axis survey software program automatically labeled the optional comment questions. For example, the comment item associated with Likert questions 3.1-3.7 was labeled 4, and the comment item associated with questions 5.1-5.3 was

labeled 6. The full text of every comment is included in Appendix II, and comments are utilized to illustrate the discussion section in chapter five.

Table 8

Chi-Square Frequencies and Test Statistics for Items 5.1 – 5.3

Chi-Square Test Frequencies

Q5.1

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Agree	87	45.5	41.5
Disagree	4	45.5	-41.5
Total	91		

Q5.2

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Agree	76	44.5	31.5
Disagree	13	44.5	-31.5
Total	89		

Q5.3

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Agree	91	91.0	.0
Total	91 ^a		

a. This variable is constant. Chi-Square Test cannot be performed.

Test Statistics

	Q5.1	Q5.2
Chi-Square	75.703 ^a	44.596 ^b
df	1	1
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000

In analyzing the chi-square frequencies and test statistics for the set of Likert items 5.1-5.3, in table 8, related to the transition skill area of self-care and domestic living, the general trend in the data is that caseworkers reported their schools and districts addressed the needs and concerns of culturally and/or linguistically diverse students with special needs. On Likert items 5.1 and 5.2, the chi-square statistics are much greater than the critical value, i.e., the results are significant. The significance of the results for item 5.3 cannot be determined using chi-square testing because 100% of the respondents

agreed with the Likert-stem, “The family was made aware of supports for the student in the school community,” so there are zero degrees of freedom in the data on this question.

Table 9

Chi-Square Frequencies and Test Statistics for Items 7.1 – 7.3

Chi-Square Test Frequencies

Q7.1

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Agree	87	45.5	41.5
Disagree	4	45.5	-41.5
Total	91		

Q7.2

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Agree	52	45.5	6.5
Disagree	39	45.5	-6.5
Total	91		

Q7.3

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Agree	76	46.0	30.0
Disagree	16	46.0	-30.0
Total	92		

Test Statistics

	Q7.1	Q7.2	Q7.3
Chi-Square	75.703 ^a	1.857 ^a	39.130 ^b
df	1	1	1
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.173	.000

The set of Likert items aligned with needs and concerns in transition planning for multicultural students, items 7.1-7.3, as displayed in table 9, include one item of the survey, 7.2, i.e., the Likert-stem regarding the CLD student's involvement in clubs, groups and activities. On this question, the chi-square statistic, 1.857, is less than the critical value, 3.84, and the asymptotic significance, .173, is greater than .05: both of these factors indicate that the results for Likert item 7.2 are not significantly different from what would be expected by chance. The results on 7.2 are, therefore, not significant and are inconclusive.

The results for the other two items related to recreation and leisure skills, 7.1 and 7.3, are significant, as indicated by their chi-square statistics, 75.703 and 39.130, respectively.

Table 10

Chi-Square Frequencies and Test Statistics for Items 9.1 – 9.3

Chi-Square Test Frequencies

Q9.1

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Agree	83	46.0	37.0
Disagree	9	46.0	-37.0
Total	92		

Q9.2

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Agree	28	42.0	-14.0
Disagree	56	42.0	14.0
Total	84		

Q9.3

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Agree	77	43.5	33.5
Disagree	10	43.5	-33.5
Total	87		

Test Statistics

	Q9.1	Q9.2	Q9.3
Chi-Square	59.522 ^a	9.333 ^b	51.598 ^c
df	1	1	1
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.002	.000

The chi-square statistic for each of the three Likert items related to communication and social skills, 9.1-9.3, as illustrated in table 10, is greater than the critical value, thereby indicating that the results are significant.

Table 11

Chi-Square Frequencies and Test Statistics for Items 11.1 – 11.3

Chi-Square Test Frequencies

Q11.1

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Agree	46	40.5	5.5
Disagree	35	40.5	-5.5
Total	81		

Q11.2

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Agree	76	43.0	33.0
Disagree	10	43.0	-33.0
Total	86		

Q11.3

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Agree	86	45.5	40.5
Disagree	5	45.5	-40.5
Total	91		

Test Statistics

	Q11.1	Q11.2	Q11.3
Chi-Square	1.494 ^a	50.651 ^b	72.099 ^c
df	1	1	1
Asymp. Sig.	.222	.000	.000

Data in table 11 indicate that for item 11.1, related to the utilization of school-community partnerships for work placements, the chi-square test statistic was 1.494, less than the critical value, and the asymptotic significance was 0.222, both factors indicating that these results are not statistically significant.

The results for the other two items related to vocational skills, 11.2 and 11.3, however, are significant, as indicated by their chi-square statistics, 50.651 and 72.099, respectively.

Table 12

Chi-Square Frequencies and Test Statistics for Items 13.1 – 13.3

Chi-Square Test Frequencies

Q13.1

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Agree	26	43.0	-17.0
Disagree	60	43.0	17.0
Total	86		

Q13.2

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Agree	69	42.5	26.5
Disagree	16	42.5	-26.5
Total	85		

Q13.3

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Agree	81	45.0	36.0
Disagree	9	45.0	-36.0
Total	90		

Test Statistics

	Q13.1	Q13.2	Q13.3
Chi-Square	13.442 ^a	33.047 ^b	57.600 ^c
df	1	1	1
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000	.000

In the domain of community participation skills (including lifelong learning), chi-square test statistics for all three items, 13.1-13.3, as indicated in table 12, are greater than the critical value, 3.84, indicating that the results for these three items are significantly different from what would be expected by chance, and therefore this data can be utilized to draw conclusions regarding the research questions in this survey.

Detailed Frequency Data on the Likert Items

Ninety-three respondents with direct experience as caseworkers on transition planning teams for African-American, Native American Indian, or Hispanic/Latino students, responded to the 22 Likert stems on items 3.1-13.3 of the survey. The frequency values for their selections of SA (strongly agree),

A (agree), D (disagree), SD (strongly disagree), and UU (unsure or unknown answer) are shown in table 13. Frequency values for UU responses were not included in determining N for each item.

Table 13

Detailed Frequency Data on the Likert Items

3.1 – Different cultural beliefs regarding what constitutes successful adulthood were incorporated in the transition plan. N=82

SA	A	D	SD	UU
6	51	20	5	11 (not included in N)

3.2 There have been relationships of respect between school personnel and the student's home. N=93

SA	A	D	SD	UU
49	41	3	0	0

3.3 The school provided information relevant to the plans and perspectives of each student and his or her family. N=91

SA	A	D	SD	UU
36	51	4	0	2 (not included in N)

3.4 As a transition team member, you were aware of the potential for bias and discrimination. N=91

SA	A	D	SD	UU
37	48	5	1	2 (not included in N)

3.5 Transition planning emphasized student strengths, rather than deficits. N=93

SA	A	D	SD	UU
50	41	2	0	0

(continued)

Table 13 (continued)

3.6 There was equity and fairness in teachers' grading and evaluation of the CLD student compared to non-CLD students. N=88

SA	A	D	SD	UU
37	46	4	1	5 (not included in N)

3.7 Transition planning included increasing each student's self-efficacy through involvement in self-advocacy activities. N=88

SA	A	D	SD	UU
27	51	7	3	5 (not included in N)

5.1 The school took into consideration the perspectives of the student and his or her family regarding self-sufficiency and independent living. N=91

SA	A	D	SD	UU
34	53	4	0	2 (not included in N)

5.2 The student's family was viewed by school personnel as a resource and strength. N=89

SA	A	D	SD	UU
29	47	11	2	4 (not included in N)

5.3* The family was made aware of supports for the student in the school community. N=91

SA	A	D	SD	UU
47	44	0	0	2 (not included in N)

*Chi-square Testing Not Possible

7.1 School personnel provided a model of inclusive social interaction by interacting with students from different genders, races, ethnic groups, abilities, and achievement levels. N=91

SA	A	D	SD	UU
39	48	4	0	2 (not included in N)

(continued)

Table 13 (continued)

7.2* The student was involved in clubs, groups, and activities. Please consider number of activities and degree of involvement. For example, SA means the student was very involved in several different activities. N=91

SA	A	D	SD	UU
15	37	32	7	2 (not included in N)

**Results Determined Insignificant By Chi-square Testing*

7.3 Student and family were surveyed by the transition team to determine their interests and goals. N=92

SA	A	D	SD	UU
30	46	13	3	1 (not included in N)

9.1 School personnel did not lower their expectations for this student based on his or her culture or language. N=92

SA	A	D	SD	UU
44	39	8	1	1 (not included in N)

9.2 Role models from the student's cultural community were brought into the school as speakers and mentors. N=84

SA	A	D	SD	UU
9	19	45	11	9 (not included in N)

9.3 The transition curriculum for this student incorporated dialogue and active language use in learning (student participating in productive ways, e.g., speaking, writing). N=87

SA	A	D	SD	UU
22	55	8	2	6 (not included in N)

(continued)

Table 13 (continued)

11.1* Partnerships with leaders, business owners, and employers from the student's cultural community were utilized for work placements. N=81

SA	A	D	SD	UU
15	31	32	3	12 (not included in N)

**Results Determined Insignificant By Chi-square Testing*

11.2 School personnel took every opportunity to reinforce evidence of student resilience, i.e., determination and perseverance. N=86

SA	A	D	SD	UU
22	54	9	1	7 (not included in N)

11.3 The school supported the student's career vision with information and relevant opportunities to prepare for the career path that the student chose for himself or herself. N=91

SA	A	D	SD	UU
28	58	3	2	2 (not included in N)

13.1 The student built relationship skills and expanded his or her social network through involvement in student government and/or advocacy groups. N=86

SA	A	D	SD	UU
6	20	42	18	7 (not included in N)

13.2 The school reached out to parents and families to set an example and demonstrate community participation skills for students. N=85

SA	A	D	SD	UU
18	51	11	5	8 (not included in N)

13.3 School personnel took steps to communicate across cultural barriers. N=90

SA	A	D	SD	UU
28	53	8	1	3 (not included in N)

What Do The UU (Unsure or Unable to Answer) Numbers Mean?

Although 93 caseworkers completed all 22 Likert questions on the survey, N was less than 93 in all but two cases (3.2 and 3.5), because of the numbers of respondents who selected UU, indicating they were unsure or unable to answer. On Likert item 11.1, regarding active language use in the transition curriculum, 12 caseworkers answered UU; on item 3.1, related to different cultural beliefs on what constitutes successful adulthood, 11 respondents chose UU; on 9.2, about bringing role models from a student's cultural community into the school, nine participants selected UU.

Due to the way in which the UU choice was explained in the survey instructions, a caseworker might have chosen UU either because he or she did not understand the Likert stem or because he or she did not have data or experience to be able to respond by selecting agreement or disagreement answers. There are no available data in the survey results to resolve the ambiguity presented by these higher UU frequencies on several of the survey questions. By the same token, the utility of the UU category as a fifth choice on every Likert item was that respondents who either did not understand or had no experience relevant to a particular stem were not forced to agree or disagree with it.

Determining Any Significant Comparisons Among Data By Skill Area

Chi-square testing was utilized to compare data on frequencies of agreement-disagreement across the five transition skill areas, associated with Likert items 5.1-5.3 (self-care, domestic living), 7.1-7.3 (recreation and leisure), 9.1-9.3 (communication and social skills), 11.1-11.3 (vocational), 13.1-13.3 (community participation, including life skills). The 93 cases in the data for each of the three Likert items in each of the five different skill areas were listed in a single column, including blank cells to represent each UU (unknown or unable to answer) selection, so that there were 279 cases in each of these five columns. This way of displaying the data permitted Chi-square testing comparisons from one skill-area to another, with each skill-set of Likert results used as observed and, in turn, as expected values for calculating the Chi-square distribution results. As in the earlier Chi-square testing, above, the

four categories from the original Likerts were combined into just two categories, agree and disagree, in order to obtain the clearest indication possible of any significant comparisons from one skill area to another.

Each skill-set of 279 cases was tested against each of the other four skill sets, and three comparisons with significance were found, as shown in table 14. Again, the critical value was 3.84, and Pearson chi-square values greater than 3.84 indicated significant differences between a pair of transition skill sets (indicated by grey backgrounds in table 14). Pearson chi-square testing of frequencies is only valid if the expected value in each cell is a frequency of at least five. An asterisk is used to indicate any case in which the chi-square statistic was not valid due to an expected value less than five.

Table 14

Significant Comparisons Across Skill Areas

Table 14 (pp. 163-165)	Chi-square Statistic	df	Asymp. Sig.
Self-Care, Domestic Living / Recreation & Leisure	10.711* (*One cell had expected value less than 5, and chi-square is only valid when all cells have expected values of 5 or greater)	1	.001
Self-Care, Domestic Living / Communication and Social Skills	20.914* (*One cell had expected value less than 5, and chi-square is only valid when all cells have expected values of 5 or greater)	1	.000

(continued)

Table 14 (pp. 163-165)	Chi-square Statistic	df	Asymp. Sig.
Self-Care, Domestic Living / Vocational Skills	.115* (*One cell had expected value less than 5, and chi-square is only valid when all cells have expected values of 5 or greater)	1	.000
Self-Care, Domestic Living / Community Participation	16.150	1	.000
Recreation & Leisure / Self-Care, Domestic Living	10.711* (*One cell had expected value less than 5, and chi-square is only valid when all cells have expected values of 5 or greater)	1	.001
Recreation & Leisure / Communication and Social Skills	21.578	1	.000
Recreation & Leisure / Vocational Skills	1.969	1	.161
Recreation & Leisure / Community Participation	2.244	1	.134
Communication and Social Skills / Self-Care, Domestic Living	20.914* (*One cell had expected value less than 5, and chi-square is only valid when all cells have expected values of 5 or greater)	1	.000
Communication and Social Skills / Recreation & Leisure	21.578	1	.000
Communication and Social Skills / Vocational Skills	.053	1	.818
Communication and Social Skills / Community Participation	.168	1	.682

(continued)

Table 14 (pp. 163-165)	Chi-square Statistic	df	Asymp. Sig.
Vocational Skills / Self-Care, Domestic Living	.115* (*One cell had expected value less than 5, and chi-square is only valid when all cells have expected values of 5 or greater)	1	.734
Vocational Skills / Recreation & Leisure	1.969	1	.161
Vocational Skills / Communication and Social Skills	.053	1	.818
Vocational Skills / Community Participation	59.477	1	.000
Community Participation / Self-Care, Domestic Living	16.150	1	.000
Community Participation / Recreation & Leisure	2.244	1	.134
Community Participation / Communication and Social Skills	.168	1	.682
Community Participation / Vocational Skills	59.477	1	.000

In these five different skill areas, an overall mean for each skill-set of frequency values was determined based on the cumulative frequencies of SA (strongly agree), A (agree), D (disagree), and SD (strongly disagree) responses to the three Likert stems in each skill set. These means are shown in table 15, in the three significant comparisons between transition skill sets.

Table 15

*Overall Means for the Three Significant Skill-Set Comparisons****Self-Care, Domestic Living / Community Participation (includes Life-long Learning)***

	SA	A	D	SD	Mean
<i>Self-Care...</i>	110	144	15	2	1.66
<i>Community...</i>	52	124	61	24	2.22

Recreation and Leisure / Communication and Social Skills

	SA	A	D	SD	Mean
<i>Recreation...</i>	84	131	49	10	1.95
<i>Communication</i>	75	113	61	14	2.05

Vocational Skills / Community Participation (including Life-long Learning)

	SA	A	D	SD	Mean
<i>Vocational</i>	65	143	44	6	1.97
<i>Community...</i>	52	124	61	24	2.22

Data from Likert Items, Disaggregated by CLD Group

The frequency data from items 3.1-13.3 were disaggregated in order to present the values obtained for each of the three groups of particular interest in this survey: caseworkers with transition planning experience for African-American students; caseworkers with experience for Native American Indian students; and those with experience on transition for Hispanic/Latino students. The data on transition practices with Native American Indian students (N=3) were not sufficiently large to generate any significant findings of unique relevance to that group.

No comparisons were run using chi-square testing because that comparative data would not have been relevant to either of the two research questions in the present study. The raw data from Likert responses on items 3.1-13.3, disaggregated by the three CLD groups of interest in this study, are

presented in table 16. Again, SA=strongly agree; A=agree; D=disagree; SD=strongly disagree; and UU=unknown or unable to answer.

Table 16

Data from Likert Items, Disaggregated by CLD Group

3.1 Different cultural beliefs regarding what constitutes successful adulthood were incorporated in the transition plan.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	2	18	8	4	6
Indian	N=3	0	2	1	0	0
Latino	N=52	4	31	11	1	5

3.2 There have been relationships of respect between school personnel and the student's home.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	23	13	2	0	0
Indian	N=3	0	3	0	0	0
Latino	N=52	26	25	1	0	0

3.3 The school provided information relevant to the plans and perspectives of each student and his or her family.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	16	19	2	0	1
Indian	N=3	0	2	1	0	0
Latino	N=52	20	30	1	0	1

(continued)

Table 16 (continued)

3.4 As a transition team member, you were aware of the potential for bias and discrimination.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	15	20	2	0	1
Indian	N=3	2	1	0	0	0
Latino	N=52	20	27	3	1	1

3.5 Transition planning emphasized student strengths, rather than deficits.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	18	19	1	0	0
Indian	N=3	1	2	0	0	0
Latino	N=52	31	20	1	0	0

3.6 There was equity and fairness in teachers' grading and evaluation of the CLD student compared to non-CLD students.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	15	19	2	0	2
Indian	N=3	0	2	0	1	0
Latino	N=52	22	25	2	0	3

3.7 Transition planning included increasing each student's self-efficacy through involvement in self-advocacy activities.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	10	22	4	0	1
Indian	N=3	0	2	0	1	0
Latino	N=52	17	27	3	1	4

5.1 The school took into consideration the perspectives of the student and his or her family regarding self-sufficiency and independent living.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	10	25	2	0	1
Indian	N=3	0	2	1	0	0
Latino	N=52	24	26	1	0	1

(continued)

Table 16 (continued)

5.2 The student's family was viewed by school personnel as a resource and strength.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	9	21	4	2	2
Indian	N=3	0	0	2	0	1
Latino	N=52	20	26	5	0	1

5.3 The family was made aware of supports for the student in the school community.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	15	23	0	0	0
Indian	N=3	1	2	0	0	0
Latino	N=52	31	19	0	0	2

7.1 School personnel provided a model of inclusive social interaction by interacting with students from different genders, races, ethnic groups, abilities, and achievement levels.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	13	23	1	0	1
Indian	N=3	1	1	0	0	1
Latino	N=52	25	24	3	0	0

7.2 The student was involved in clubs, groups, and activities. Please consider number of activities and degree of involvement. For example, SA means the student was very involved in several different activities.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	6	18	9	4	1
Indian	N=3	0	1	2	0	0
Latino	N=52	9	18	21	3	1

7.3 Student and family were surveyed by the transition team to determine their interests and goals.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	11	17	8	2	0
Indian	N=3	0	2	0	0	1
Latino	N=52	19	27	5	1	0

(continued)

Table 16 (continued)

9.1 School personnel did not lower their expectations for this student based on his or her culture or language.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	14	16	7	0	1
Indian	N=3	1	2	0	0	0
Latino	N=52	29	21	1	1	0

9.2 Role models from the student's cultural community were brought into the school as speakers and mentors.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	3	8	18	6	3
Indian	N=3	0	1	1	1	0
Latino	N=52	6	10	26	4	6

9.3 The transition curriculum for this student incorporated dialogue and active language use in learning (student participating in productive ways, e.g., speaking, writing).

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	7	23	4	2	2
Indian	N=3	0	2	0	0	1
Latino	N=52	15	30	4	0	3

11.1 Partnerships with leaders, business owners, and employers from the student's cultural community were utilized for work placements.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	5	11	16	1	5
Indian	N=3	0	0	1	1	1
Latino	N=52	10	20	15	1	6

11.2 School personnel took every opportunity to reinforce evidence of student resilience, i.e., determination and perseverance.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	7	21	6	1	3
Indian	N=3	0	1	0	0	2
Latino	N=52	15	32	3	0	2

(continued)

Table 16 (continued)

11.3 The school supported the student's career vision with information and relevant opportunities to prepare for the career path that the student chose for himself or herself.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	9	24	2	2	1
Indian	N=3	0	3	0	0	0
Latino	N=52	19	31	1	0	1

13.1 The student built relationship skills and expanded his or her social network through involvement in student government and/or advocacy groups.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	3	6	20	7	2
Indian	N=3	0	0	2	1	0
Latino	N=52	3	14	20	10	5

13.2 The school reached out to parents and families to set an example and demonstrate community participation skills for students.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	4	23	4	5	2
Indian	N=3	0	1	2	0	0
Latino	N=52	14	27	5	0	6

13.3 School personnel took steps to communicate across cultural barriers.

	N=	SA	A	D	SD	UU
Black	N=38	7	24	3	1	3
Indian	N=3	0	2	1	0	0
Latino	N=52	21	27	4	0	0

Summary of Quantitative Results from the Survey

In this chapter, chapter four, the quantitative results from “A Survey of Special Educators in Grades 9-12 with Direct Experience in Transition Planning for Culturally and/or Linguistically Diverse

Students,” administered online from April 13, 2011, to April 23, 2011, were presented in their entirety, to provide data relevant to the two research questions of the current study: 1) Do considerations of multicultural needs figure into transition practices in Kansas schools?, and 2) Are multicultural needs taken into account to a greater extent in certain areas of transition than in others?

Table 17

Overview of Basic Facts About Data from the Survey

	N	Mean	%Agree	%Disagree	Significance per chi-square
Q3.1	N=82	2.29	69.5%	30.5%	<i>Significant</i>
Q3.2	N=93	1.51	96.8%	3.2%	<i>Significant</i>
Q3.3	N=91	1.65	95.6%	4.4%	<i>Significant</i>
Q3.4	N=91	1.67	93.4%	6.6%	<i>Significant</i>
Q3.5	N=93	1.48	97.8%	2.2%	<i>Significant</i>
Q3.6	N=88	1.65	94.3%	5.7%	<i>Significant</i>
Q3.7	N=88	1.84	88.6%	11.4%	<i>Significant</i>
Q5.1	N=91	1.67	95.6%	4.4%	<i>Significant</i>
Q5.2	N=89	1.84	85.4%	14.6%	<i>Significant</i>
Q5.3	N=91	1.48	100%	0%	<i>Untestable</i>
Q7.1	N=91	1.62	95.6%	4.4%	<i>Significant</i>
Q7.2	N=91	2.34	57.1%	42.9%	<i>Not significant</i>
Q7.3	N=92	1.88	82.6%	17.4%	<i>Significant</i>
Q9.1	N=92	1.63	90.2%	9.8%	<i>Significant</i>
Q9.2	N=84	2.69	33.3%	66.7%	<i>Significant</i>
Q9.3	N=87	1.89	88.5%	11.5%	<i>Significant</i>
Q11.1	N=81	2.28	56.8%	43.2%	<i>Not significant</i>
Q11.2	N=86	1.87	88.4%	11.6%	<i>Significant</i>
Q11.3	N=91	1.77	94.5%	5.5%	<i>Significant</i>
Q13.1	N=86	2.84	30.2%	69.8%	<i>Significant</i>
Q13.2	N=85	2.04	81.2%	18.8%	<i>Significant</i>
Q13.3	N=90	1.80	90.0%	10.0%	<i>Significant</i>

In the following discussion, in chapter five, significant findings from the survey will be used to draw conclusions regarding these two research questions, in a concerted effort to test the hypothesis on which this study is founded: *Kansas schools address the multicultural needs of exceptional students in transition practices.*

That discussion will also incorporate illustrative remarks from the caseworkers who added optional comments to their survey responses. The complete collection of their comments is included in Appendix II.

Chapter 5 - Discussion

The following discussion regards the 93 completed surveys containing data relevant to the hypothesis and main research questions of the present study: N in every case is less than or equal to 93.

Research Question #1: Do considerations of multicultural needs figure into transition practices in Kansas schools?

The resounding answer is that, according to caseworkers with direct experience in transition planning for African-American, Native-American Indian, and Hispanic/Latino students with special needs in Kansas high schools, the multicultural needs of these students do figure into transition practices. On 17 out of 22 Likert items, the majority of these respondents answered affirmatively that transition teams, schools, and districts did address the relevant issues, needs, and concerns for these students, and those survey results were significant according to chi-square testing of the data. On the following 10 items, displayed in table 18, the level of agreement among respondents was 90% or better.

Table 18

Items with 90% or Better Agreement

	Relevant Issue, Need, or Concern	N	Agree
Q3.2	<i>Relationships of respect between school personnel, student's home</i>	N=93	96.8%
Q3.3	<i>School provided info relevant to student's, family's plans, perspectives</i>	N=91	95.6%
Q3.4	<i>Transition caseworker aware of potential for bias, discrimination</i>	N=91	93.4%
Q3.5	<i>Transition planning emphasized student strengths, not deficits</i>	N=93	97.8%
Q3.6	<i>Equity, fairness in grading and evaluation of CLD v. non-CLD students</i>	N=88	94.3%
Q5.1	<i>School considered perspectives of student, family re self-care, independence</i>	N=91	95.6%
Q7.1	<i>School personnel modeled inclusive social interaction with all students</i>	N=91	95.6%
Q9.1	<i>School personnel did not lower expectations based on culture or language</i>	N=92	90.2%
Q11.3	<i>School supported student's career vision with info and opportunities</i>	N=91	94.5%
Q13.3	<i>School personnel took steps to communicate across cultural barriers</i>	N=90	90.0%

100% Agreement Among Caseworkers on Family Awareness of Supports in School Community

The results on Likert item 5.3, “The family was made aware of supports for the student in the school community,” were not testable by chi-square procedures, because not even one caseworker responded with disagreement on this item, i.e., every school community represented by the N=91 caseworkers who evaluated this statement did indeed make the families of their CLD students aware of supports in the community, according to their 100% level of agreement on this survey question. Although the significance of this particular result was not ascertainable with chi-square testing, the more traditional eye-ball test indicates that 100% agreement among caseworkers in their responses on this item is full of meaning relevant to the first research question, on whether multicultural needs are taken into account in transition practices for CLD students with exceptionalities.

Focusing on Extreme Highs and Lows in General Survey Results on Research Question #1

In addition to the 100% agreement on item 5.3, the two highest levels of agreement were on survey items 3.2 (relationships of respect between school and home) and 3.5 (emphasizing student strengths rather than deficits). On the other hand, the strongest levels of significant disagreement were observed on items 3.1 (incorporating different cultural beliefs regarding successful adulthood), 9.2 (bringing in role models from the student's cultural community as speakers and mentors), and 13.1 (the student building relationship skills and expanding his or her social network through involvement in student government and/or advocacy groups).

Posner (1965) attributes to Gumbel (1954) a concept called "extreme-value theory," which has been applied to civil engineering problems, ranging from the construction of bridges to the testing of spacecraft command receivers, in which "threshold detection" is a key feature (Posner, 1965, p. 518). In discussing survey data in the present study, regarding research question number 1, the present researcher has focused on the high-agreement and low-agreement extremes. These top three and bottom three survey items represent questions on which there was maximal consensus among special

education caseworkers as to whether transition as practiced in their school community addressed multicultural needs and concerns of CLD students.

The practice of transition planning in special education practice can be seen here as analogous to the bridges or communication devices studied by researchers in other fields using "extreme-value theory." In the case of the present study, strong agreement among survey respondents suggests an area in which transition-focused IEP teams are addressing multicultural needs. Analysis of the details of these aspects of transition practice, including the optional comments added by a number of respondents, offers an opportunity to develop policy recommendations which reinforce what is being done very well in multicultural transition at Kansas schools.

By the same token, an analysis of the three survey items on which the lowest numbers of caseworkers reported compliance in their school community offers an opportunity to develop policy recommendations to help transition teams improve planning and services to better meet the needs and concerns of culturally and linguistically diverse exceptional adolescents at this crucial stage of their young lives.

5.3: The family was made aware of supports in the school community (Self-Care, Daily Living)

In preparation for post-secondary living arrangements, an exceptional student and his or her family are faced with a complex array of challenges related to the fact that services and accommodations which prior to graduation were funded through federal mandates tied to the IEP document, must be pieced together as an assortment of relationships among various local, state, and federal agencies, and managed by the graduated student as an adult with the assistance of a new team of stakeholders, including the individual's family and any support network he or she has been able to establish.

Schools in Kansas have certain obligations under Kansas Statutes Annotated (K.S.A.), as well as Kansas Administrative Regulations (K.A.R.) enacted by the Kansas State Board of Education to

ensure compliance with Kansas statutes and federal law. There are specific statutes and regulations regarding the school's responsibility to share information with, obtain consent from, and recognize parents as equal partners with school personnel in the IEP and transition planning process for an exceptional student. These obligations are explained in a public document, the “Kansas Special Education Process Handbook” (2008), developed by the Kansas State Department of Education, Special Education Services, Topeka, Kansas.

Parental consent is explained in detail in the Kansas Special Education Process Handbook, including the requirement that “parents must be fully informed about what they are being asked to provide consent [for]” regarding invitations to local agencies to transition-planning meetings.

When the IEP team is considering a child's post-secondary goals and transition services needed to assist the child in reaching those goals, the school is required to invite a representative of any agency that is likely to provide or pay for transition services. The school must obtain parental consent to invite the representative from that agency because confidential information about the child would be shared at the meeting (K.A.R. 91-40-17(g)).

(p. 1-11)

Data on item 5.3 from the present survey indicated that this crucial regulation was adhered to by transition-team members working on behalf of CLD students with special needs in Kansas high schools. Optional survey item 6, which gave respondents an opportunity to expand on their answers to 5.1-5.3, by responding to the question, “In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in self-care and domestic living skills?,” generated the following statements to further confirm the 100% agreement of caseworkers on item 5.3.

6.5: We provide two full pages of community resources with opportunity to

ask about the ones that they want more information on...

6.7: We honor the parents' wishes and make sure they understand the options for their child. Our parents work closely with the Transition Specialist to complete forms to prepare for adult services.

6.9: Our Special Education Coop has a Transition Coordinator that assists staff, students and parents with information in the community, county, and surrounding area that may benefit the student and family.

6.22: Assisted student in completing citizenship so he could access adult services. Social Security card, summer employment, Vocational Rehabilitation Services, SSDI [Social Security Disability Insurance], tech school enrollment.

However, some concerns were raised by caseworkers who saw gaps between the awareness they wanted students and families to achieve regarding supports in the community and shortcomings in the communication with parents, as demonstrated in the following comments:

6.15: Although families/students are made aware of all the things that are available to them, our transition counselor does a poor job of follow-up and follow-through. The expectation is for the family/student to take care of things on their own, which actually negates the need/benefit of a transition counselor.

6.23: We present information about various programs, living options, work/study supports, scholarship options but I often feel parents are not realistic or are overwhelmed and do not truly understand their choices.

We do our best to explain but I am not sure they “get it.”

6.29: The biggest problem was the language barrier with the parents. Even with a translator (Spanish teacher) and student helping to translate,

at times it was still difficult.

6.31: When the student's family does not speak the same language as school personnel, often the family is unintentionally less included in a role of support. Also, if the student is illegal it is very difficult to make outside agency connections...

Recommendation 1.1 – Policy Consideration for CLD Transition in the State of Kansas

In the guidance offered to Kansas schools regarding the parental consent requirement prior to inviting representatives of agencies potentially able to provide or pay for needed transition services, it should be reiterated that the consent must be “informed consent,” and the information should be provided to parents in their native language, as indicated on pages 1-9 of the Kansas Special Education Process Handbook (2008).

Recommendation 1.2 – Policy Consideration for CLD Transition in the State of Kansas

In the guidance offered to Kansas schools regarding the procedures for setting up IEP team meetings related to post-secondary transition-planning, in particular, the invitation of representatives of agencies potentially able to provide or pay for needed transition services, school personnel should be strongly encouraged to continually advocate for the civil rights of undocumented immigrant students by raising awareness of those agencies regarding federal statutes and legal precedents protective of those rights. Supportive documentation can be obtained from the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP) as well as from the U.S. Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights.

3.2: There have been relationships of respect between school personnel and the student's home (96.8% Agreement)

Another of the top three survey questions receiving the strongest agreement from caseworkers reporting on transition-planning practices with CLD students at their schools was item 3.2, with agreement from 96.8% of survey respondents. This is an important finding because of the ways that respect is associated with other factors which work to the benefit of transition-planning for CLD students. As referenced earlier in this paper, the families of African-American students are more likely to see school counseling services as useful in a context of a relationship of respect and trust with school personnel (Moore et al., 2008). Similarly, Native-American families will attribute greater value to

messages from the school when there is a history of relevant and respectful communication (Borowsky and Ireland, 1999). By the same token, Latina mothers lacked confidence in transition service providers when they perceived “disrespectful and uncaring attitudes and behavior” from school personnel towards their children (Rueda et al., 2005, p. 410).

In light of these insights from the literature of multicultural transition practices, the fact that so many of the caseworkers with direct experience on transition teams for CLD students reported respectful relationships between Kansas schools and these students' homes gives cause to expect that vital information is flowing in both directions to support effective transition-planning and positive outcomes.

The positive report from caseworkers on survey item 3.2 also indicates that these schools are complying with Kansas State Board of Education regulations regarding the collaborative dynamic expected on IEP teams.

The parents must be members of the IEP team. The parents are equal partners and play an active role in providing critical information about their child's abilities, interests, performance, and history. They are involved in the decision-making process throughout the development of the IEP (K.A.R. 91-40-17 (a)).

(p. 4-2, Kansas Special Education Process Handbook, 2008)

Optional survey item 4, which gave respondents an opportunity to expand on their answers to 3.1-3.7, “concerning insights from your experience regarding cultural issues in transition practices with this group of CLD students,” generated the following statements to further confirm the 96.8% agreement of caseworkers on item 3.2, regarding mutual respect between school and home.

4.17: My student's Dad has her working as a volunteer at the YMCA.

There is no difference in what we feel is success for her.

4.18: In many cases, the student actually speaks better English than the parents. We have to make sure that we have a translator in the meeting so the parents can understand and add input. This helps to make them more comfortable with the process.

4.20: In our coop, we make every effort to respect our students' cultures and seek understanding of their family life. We seek dialog from parents and work closely with the family.

Yet there were also comments suggesting a lack of respect and a disconnect between some CLD families and the school regarding transition-planning for their teenager, and potentially the development of what Rueda et al. referred to, above, as “adversarial interactions between families and service providers” (p. 410).

4.13: There is not as much home support. It has always been left up to the school, unless they are not getting what they feel is beneficial to their child in their eyes.

4.16: Cultural stereotypes and expectations are stronger in the home than in the public school.

Recommendation 1.3 – Policy Consideration for CLD Transition in the State of Kansas

In the guidance offered to Kansas schools regarding IEP team deliberations for post-secondary transition planning purposes, the roles of CLD parents, as equal partners with school personnel and other participants, should be presented as a state-wide priority, with multiple trainings and resources provided by Families Together, the Kansas Parent and Training Information (PTI) center, to educate Kansas teachers and other school personnel who participate in the transition-planning process, on effective cross-cultural collaboration.

3.5: Transition planning emphasized student strengths, rather than deficits. (97.8% Agreement)

There was very high agreement among caseworkers regarding the emphasis in transition planning for CLD students emphasizing strengths rather than deficits. Not only is there considerable

literature attesting to the importance of incorporating and utilizing cultural diversity as an asset in transition planning (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a, 2007b; Portley, 2009; Rueda et al., 2005), but special education statutes and regulations in Kansas also dictate a focus on a student's strengths.

For each postsecondary goal there must be evidence that at least one age-appropriate transition assessment was used to provide information on the student's needs, strengths, preferences and interests regarding postsecondary goals....Those responsible gather the information needed to understand student needs, taking into account strengths, preferences and interests through career awareness and exploration activities and a variety of formal and informal transition assessments.

(p. 4-23, Kansas Special Education Process Handbook, 2008)

However, comments from caseworkers in response to optional survey question 4 suggested that transition teams at Kansas schools may not have viewed cultural or linguistic diversity as positive factors in the transition-planning process. There were no comments indicating that any caseworker perceived aspects of diversity as strengths to be taken into account in assessing the student or establishing postsecondary goals.

A common thread in the comments determined by the researcher to be associated with survey item 3.5 was the declaration that cultural factors were not allowed by the transition team to negatively impact the postsecondary planning process.

4.8: When dealing with students of different cultural backgrounds, they are not treated differently than any other student....they are not discriminated against because of their CLD.

4.19: ...Cultural biases were in no way part of reducing a student's potential, academics, or job potential...

Other comments suggested that cultural aspects of a student's heritage were not taken into account either positively or negatively.

4.7: When writing a transition plan, we do not base it on the race of the student or what language [they use]. The same goals are expected of all of our students.

4.25: All students are treated fairly and not looked at based on their ethnic or race background at this school....

There were also comments from caseworkers who saw a more complicated sociocultural environment influencing the transition-planning process for CLD students in their school community.

4.26: I have observed a tendency towards less inclusive practices for students who have a language barrier in addition to a disability.

It seems the general expectations are set to a lower standard by many involved team members when planning for these dual category students.

4.29: In the cases I have worked with, it has been more advantageous to the student to show success[ful] adulthood goals for the community in which that student lives. Family and cultural goals are important, but do not cover the whole spectrum of possibilities.

Recommendation 1.4 – Policy Consideration for CLD Transition in the State of Kansas

In the guidance offered to Kansas schools regarding not only post-secondary transition planning in the context of the IEP team, but also every phase of the development of yearly goals, objectives, and curricula over the entire trajectory of any CLD child's experience as a student with exceptionalities while enrolled in the Kansas educational system, on every IEP there should be direct reference to, consideration of, and incorporation of data on cultural and/or linguistic diversity as it impacts options and decisions on behalf of the student.

Recommendation 1.5 – Policy Consideration for CLD Transition in the State of Kansas

In the guidance offered to Kansas schools regarding not only post-secondary transition planning in the context of the IEP team, but also on every IEP over the entire trajectory of any CLD child's experience as a student with exceptionalities while enrolled in the Kansas educational system, the cultural and linguistic heritage of the student and his or her family should be counted as a strength to be cultivated and utilized for the development of yearly goals, objectives, curricula, and transition-related skill building.

3.1: Different cultural beliefs regarding what constitutes successful adulthood were incorporated in the transition plan. (69.5% Agreement)

Although Kansas statutes and regulations, as described in the Kansas Special Education Process Handbook (2008), address the central roles accorded to parents in the development of an IEP and a transition plan, this requirement only indirectly supports the concept that CLD families are likely to have beliefs different from those of the dominant culture regarding definitions of successful transition outcomes, in particular as concerns values such as self-sufficiency and independent living (Geenen et al., 2001; Geenen et al., 2003). Other aspects of successful adulthood which may not be shared by CLD families pertain to common values of typical mono-cultural approaches to transition, such as competitiveness, individual achievement, and self-determination (Leake et al., 2003-2004).

The fact that only 70% of caseworkers on the survey agreed that alternative definitions of successful adulthood were addressed in the transition plans for CLD students with special needs suggests that such considerations were not standard in Kansas schools. Comments associated with this same concept of culturally-based views of desirable transition outcomes indicate some of the ways in which special educators struggled in their efforts to adapt transition practices to cross-cultural belief systems.

4.15: The younger generation often felt differently than the parents

about traditions and culture. Sometimes it was necessary to remember which party I was an advocate for.

4.21: Sometimes it is difficult to determine what is considered successful for different cultural groups. Depending on the student's background and parental input, we try to encourage the student to pursue an acceptable outcome post high-school, but this can be very hard to determine.

4.27: I have a strong understanding of this group, therefore, I have made sure to help my other team members understand perspectives that are different from their own.

Recommendation 1.6 – Policy Consideration for CLD Transition in the State of Kansas

In the guidance offered to Kansas schools regarding post-secondary transition planning, it should be emphasized that personal vision and career goals for a CLD student need to emanate from the student's own interests and his or her family's preferences in the context of transition-team deliberations which acknowledge and respect the cultural heritage of the student and family.

9.2: Role models from the student's cultural community were brought into the school as speakers and mentors. (33.3% Agreement)

Bringing adults from a student's cultural community into the school to guide, motivate, and mentor has been recommended by a number of researchers (Harris, 2007; Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a; Johnson, 2009; Wilder et al., 2001). Such involvement of adults who share the student's heritage, dialect, and ethnicity can function to offset a trend, observed by some researchers, towards paternalism and condescension on the part of school personnel regarding CLD parents and families (Harry, 2008; Hipolito-Delgado and Lee, 2007a, 2007b; Klingner et al., 2007; Rueda et al., 2005). Cummins (1989) described a continuum of relationships between special educators and CLD families, from “collaborative” at one extreme to “exclusionary” at the other. “Teachers with an exclusionary

orientation...are likely to view collaboration with minority parents as either irrelevant or actually detrimental to children's progress” (p. 114).

Since only one-third of the caseworkers with direct experience on transition teams for CLD students agreed that item 9.2 accurately described the transition curriculum at their schools, it can be inferred that role models from CLD communities were not incorporated into school events and activities in ways which could provide positive examples of communication and social skills for the students to identify with. There were just two comments relevant to 9.2 added by caseworkers on the optional question, 10, “In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in communication and social skills?”

10.12: These students are active in a social skills curriculum and group just like our other students. Nothing was done specifically for their cultural community.

10.24: Our community has a very small Hispanic influence, so role models were not able to be found.

Recommendation 1.7 – Policy Consideration for CLD Transition in the State of Kansas

In the guidance offered to Kansas schools regarding post-secondary transition planning, building administrators at middle schools, junior highs, and high schools should be encouraged to develop action plans aimed at establishing connections and networks in the local and regional community with non-white, culturally and linguistically diverse leaders to be included as speakers, mentors, and role models at school assemblies and career-awareness events.

13.1: The student built relationship skills and expanded his or her social network through involvement in student government and/or advocacy groups. (30.2% Agreement)

Bambara et al. (2007) indicated that “many teachers...were unfamiliar with the concept [of self-determination]...[and] reported few opportunities for students to practice their self-determination skills” (pp. 379-380). Self-determination and self-advocacy are crucial aspects of community participation—

and, especially, lifelong learning—skills in transition planning for a CLD student (Bambara et al., 2007; Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007a; Portley, 2009). Hipolito-Delgado & Lee (2007a, 2007b) stress the distinction between a teacher's advocacy on behalf of students and a student's direct involvement in student government and other self-advocacy efforts. Hipolito-Delgado & Lee argue that empowerment must be experienced by the individual himself or herself; it cannot be given to one person by another (2007b). Their call to activism and student participation in social-justice campaigns is echoed by Ellis-Williams (2007), as quoted above: “Youth seem more likely to become socially engaged if they have family or teachers who support this activity” (p. 122).

There were six comments directly pertinent to 13.1 added by caseworkers on the optional question, 14, “In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in community participation skills?” Four of these comments suggested that CLD students were not interested in joining student-government activities.

14.3: Few of our students want to get involved with student government and many parents and families have little involvement in the community...

14.8: The students presently do not have an interest in being involved in student government. They are involved in various clubs and athletic activities.

14.18: The team perceived a need for the student to get involved with extra-curricular activities; however, the student was often reluctant to meet other people.

14.19: The subset of students whom I serve resist any encouragement to participate in student government and other culturally-neutral groups. I have not been successful in

effecting significant change in this tendency.

A caseworker who had direct experience on transition-planning for Native-American Indian students at a school with an Indian reservation nearby indicated that students considered few options beyond activities they were already connected with through their tribe.

14.12: I have had little to no success in motivating some of the Native students to become involved in any club or organization here at school with the exception of the Native American Club. Either the student is already connected and involved or simply not.

One caseworker suggested there was bias in his or her school community regarding the inclusion of CLD students in leadership and advocacy opportunities.

14.20: This is an area I would like to see improved for my students. I think our white students get more assistance from leadership organizations in my area than my ESL students. There is definite bias in regard to community linkages and participation for my students who have learned English as a second language.

Recommendation 1.8 – Policy Consideration for CLD Transition in the State of Kansas

In the guidance offered to Kansas schools regarding post-secondary transition planning, transition-team members, and, particularly, caseworkers serving CLD students in a resource-room context, should be encouraged to incorporate social-interaction skills and involvement in self-advocacy as central features of each student's transition curriculum on the IEP.

Research Question #2: Are multicultural needs taken into account to a greater extent in certain areas of transition than in others?

Three significant comparisons were found by chi-square testing of the agreement-disagreement frequency data between different transition skill areas: self-care, domestic living (Mean = 1.66) / community participation (Mean=2.22); recreation and leisure (Mean=1.95) / communication and social skills (Mean=2.05); vocational skills (Mean=1.97) / community participation (Mean=2.22). In representing Likert choices as point values for the purpose of generating mean scores to reflect degrees of agreement-disagreement along a continuum, strongly agree (SA) was assigned a value of 1, agree (A) a value of 2, disagree (D) a value of 3, and strongly disagree (SD) a value of 4.

The mean score on 5.1-5.3, the three Likert questions related to self-care, domestic living, was 1.66, indicating significantly stronger agreement among the survey participants on these items than on items 13.1-13.3, related to community participation, where the mean score was 2.22. The mean score on items 7.1-7.3, related to recreation and leisure, was 1.95, stronger agreement than shown by respondents to items 9.1-9.3, communication and social skills, where the mean was 2.05. On Likert items 11.1-11.3, related to vocational skills, the mean was 1.97, compared to a mean of 2.22 for items 13.1-13.3, community participation.

Recommendation 1.9 – Policy Consideration for CLD Transition in the State of Kansas

In the guidance offered to Kansas schools regarding post-secondary transition planning, caseworkers and other team-members serving CLD students should be reminded to address cultural and linguistic heritage in developing assessments, goals, objectives, and transition curricula related to the areas of community participation and communication-and-social skills.

Recommendation 1.10 – Policy Consideration for CLD Transition in the State of Kansas

In order to encourage Kansas schools and school communities to strive for improved post-secondary transition outcomes for culturally and linguistically diverse students with exceptionalities, one or more state-wide offices, organizations, or agencies should publicly acknowledge and honor schools and districts for excellence and innovation in meeting the multicultural needs of CLD students in each of the five skill areas of transition.

Prioritizing the Policy Recommendations for Multicultural Transition in Kansas

The Likert items in this study were developed from a comprehensive review of current literature in the research area of multicultural transition. The data from the survey instrument in the present study provided the bases from which the ten policy recommendations, above, were developed. In this very important sense, every one of the recommendations is founded on new research in Kansas schools regarding concepts and best practices for multicultural transition according to an established body of research literature relevant to these considerations. However, this is not the first time that a researcher or practitioner in Kansas has suggested that the state's public schools could do better with regard to access and equity for CLD students, and, by extension, for CLD adolescents with special needs. Indeed, Kansas researchers who have already spoken to this matter are well represented in the literature cited in the present study (Morales Cabral and Sprott, 2008; Ortiz and Guss, 1995; Skrtic, 1986). In table 19, the ten policy recommendations of the present study are compared on the basis of whether they reiterate what other researchers have proposed and whether the recommended policies are already in effect in Kansas, according to available research, including the present study.

Table 19

Prioritizing the Recommendations of the Current Study

<u>Recommended Policy</u>	<u>Basis in Literature</u>	<u>Practiced in Kansas</u>
1.1. Informed consent in first language	YES	YES
1.2. Advocacy for undocumented students	YES	NOT YET
1.3. Effective partnering with CLD families	YES	YES
1.4. Inclusion of CLD data in IEPs	YES	YES
1.5. Cultural, linguistic heritage seen as strength	YES	NOT YET
1.6. Vision, career goals emanate from student	YES	NOT YET

(continued)

Table 19 (continued)

<u>Recommended Policy</u>	<u>Basis in Literature</u>	<u>Practiced in Kansas</u>
1.7 Connecting to cultural peers as mentors	YES	NOT YET
1.8 Emphasis on social interaction, advocacy skills	YES	NOT YET
1.9 Emphasis on communication, participation skills	YES	NOT YET
1.10 Awards to schools for innovative CLD practices	NO	NOT YET

The comparisons in table 19 indicate that the seven policy recommendations 1.2 and 1.5-1.10 are the most urgent today in Kansas, and that recommendation 1.10 has no precedent in either the literature which was reviewed for this study or in current practices in Kansas schools.

The Future of Transition Services for CLD Students in Kansas Schools

Based on survey data from special education teachers in Kansas high schools who have direct experience in the past three years as caseworkers on IEP teams administering transition assessments, developing transition plans, and managing transition services for culturally and linguistically diverse students with exceptionalities, it can be said that, on the whole, Kansas schools do address the multicultural needs of these students in transition practices. Nevertheless, the same data provided evidence that, especially in two crucial transition domains, community participation skills and communication-and-social skills, significant numbers of these same caseworkers reported less satisfactory practices regarding the degree to which the families and cultural heritage of CLD students with special needs are considered, included, and incorporated in transition procedures in our state.

There remains an untapped potential for enhanced roles of CLD families on transition teams working together with other team members to bring a transition focus to all aspects of a student's IEP beginning at age 14, as called for in the most recent guidelines, “The Transition-Focused IEP Process,”

from the Kansas State Department of Education (2009). The ten recommendations of the present study constitute a complement to current statutes and regulations on transition practices in the state of Kansas, in order to make these practices more inclusive of the families and the multicultural heritages of CLD students with special needs, in the context of state-wide demographic changes and the increasing diversity of our communities and our schools.

Census and KSDE Data on Diversity Trends in Kansas

From the year 2000 to the year 2010, the non-white population of Kansas increased by 37.0%, accounting for all of the 6.1% increase in total state population (Humes, Jones, and Ramirez, 2011). The three groups of interest in the present study—African-Americans, Native-American Indians, and Hispanic/Latinos—constituted 17.4% of the total state population in 2010, compared to 14.5% in the year 2000 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). Of persons five years of age and older who lived in Kansas in the years 2005-2009, 9.9% lived in homes where a language other than English was spoken (American Community Survey, U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

In Kansas schools, the demographic shift has been even more pronounced. State headcount enrollment data from Kansas K-12 reports (KSDE, 2011) indicate that the three groups of interest in the present study constituted 17.8% of the total number of students enrolled in the state's K-12 schools in the 1999-2000 school year, compared to 24.1% of the total number of students enrolled in these schools in the 2009-2010 school year. The enrollment numbers for these three CLD groups increased by 37.2% over that ten-year period, led by an increase of 91.6% in the enrollment numbers for Hispanic/Latino students. The actual numbers illustrate the unmistakable trend towards diversity in Kansas schools: during that same ten-year period, from the 1999-2000 school year to the 2009-2010 school year, the number of white students studying K-12 in any setting in Kansas decreased by 48,148 children (from 401,740 to 353,592); the number of Hispanic/Latino students increased by 37,717 (from 41,196 to 78,913).

CLD enrollment trends in Kansas school for the years to come can be predicted to continue increasing, based on the KSDE demographic data on first graders enrolled in the 2009-2010 school year: 67% white, 7.2% black, 17.7% Hispanic, and 1.1% American Indian or Alaska Native. Ten years ago, in the 1999-2000 school year, those first-grade enrollment percentages were: 77.1% white, 9.3% black, 10.1% Hispanic, and 1.4% American Indian or Alaska Native.

In the fall of 2009, a total of 55,865 students with disabilities were served by Kansas schools (Data Accountability Center, Table 1-3, 2011). Assuming no over-referral effects, just based on the percentages of students in the total enrollment numbers from the three CLD groups of interest in the present study—African American, Native-American Indian, and Hispanic/Latino—it can be estimated that there were 13,463 CLD students with special needs enrolled in the schools of Kansas in the 2009-2010 academic year.

Also in the fall of 2009, there were 19,725 students ages 14-21, i.e., with transition mandated as an integral piece in their IEPs, being served in Kansas schools (Data Accountability Center, Table 1-1, 2011). Assuming no over-referral effects, just based on the percentages of the same three groups of CLD students in the total enrollment, it can be estimated that there were 4,754 CLD students for whom transition-planning and transition services were being developed and delivered through consultation with transition teams on transition-focused IEPs in Kansas schools.

Funding Challenges Facing Multicultural Transition Efforts in Kansas

Those are the students whose needs, hopes, dreams, and aspirations prompted the development of the present study of multicultural transition practices in the State of Kansas. They are the students who would be indirectly discriminated against by any reduction in public funding of general education or special education, by token of the fact that CLD students constitute greater proportions today than in the past of the numbers of children whose education depends on this funding in Kansas. As they prepare for post-secondary work, life, and community involvement, the transition outcomes of these

students would also be impacted by any cuts in the budget of the Kansas Department of Social and Rehabilitation Services (Britt, 2011). At the other end of the continuum, where successful transitions truly begin, a 98.1% funding cut for Early Head Start in the state budget signed into law on May 28, 2011 (KASB, p. 3), promised to leave a lasting legacy, further complicating the efforts of transition-teams working on behalf of culturally and linguistically diverse adolescents with special needs in Kansas schools for decades to come.

Moving Beyond an “Anglo-Conformity Orientation” in Special Education

In 1989, Cummins asserted that many special education programs were “located squarely within the Anglo-conformity orientation,” with “little emphasis either on [first language] promotion or on developing students' sense of cultural pride” (p. 117). The idea that CLD students in some Kansas school communities may be facing this subtle form of unconscious discrimination comes through in several of the comments from caseworkers responding to questions on the present survey regarding cultural considerations in transition practices.

4.3: When it comes to special education students, I don't see a lot of differences between students of different races. At this school, color or race does not matter.

4.5: The black students that we work with did not have any significant cultural differences from the white. We are all Christian. We are all Americans and these kids were not into any particular roots different than my own.

6.16: CLD students were given the same opportunities and information as all of our other students. The only difference I have seen is that many of them do not have as much self-confidence as some of my non-CLD students.

14.10: This group of parents and students is not centered out as a community. They participate or don't participate in things just like non-CLD students and parents do. The cultural barriers are not apparent enough for school personnel to feel the need to reach across these lines.

Cummins proposed an empowerment curriculum for CLD students with special needs: allowing students' cultural heritages and language to be “shared rather than suppressed in the classroom”; partnering with representatives from students' cultural communities “who can provide insight to students and educators about different cultural, religious, and linguistic traditions”; promoting active development of language and literacy skills through communicative exchanges among students, their peers, and the adults; and an approach to assessment that emphasizes the search for ways to improve “the interactions that students have experienced within the school system” (Cummins, 1989, p. 117).

Cause for Optimism Regarding Transition Futures for CLD Students in Kansas

The changing demographics of the general population of Kansas—and in Kansas schools—have also led to increased emphases on diversity in the teacher education programs at institutions of higher education across the state. As one example, the vision and mission of the College of Education at Kansas State University—“to prepare educators to be knowledgeable, ethical, caring decision makers”—is supported through “promoting, understanding, and celebrating diversity” (Kansas State University, 2009).

In 2004, in a move that has stood the test of time and a number of court challenges, a state law was passed, giving in-state tuition status at Kansas institutions of higher education to immigrant Kansans who complied with a set of requirements (Carpenter, 2011). In an assessment by the Kansas Association of School Boards of a recent failed effort by some Kansas legislators to repeal this law,

three arguments were presented in support of the continuation of in-state tuition status for qualifying Kansas immigrants:

- 1) School districts are held accountable under No Child Left Left Behind and state accreditation regulations for test scores and graduation rates for all students, regardless of citizenship.
- 2) Effectively removing the ability of these students to afford to attend Kansas colleges makes it more difficult to keep these students in school and complete graduation requirements.
- 3) These students are in Kansas because of their parent's or guardian's actions, not their own. Many such students may not even be aware of their status until adulthood.

(KASB, 2011, p. 11)

Educational activism on behalf of culturally and linguistically diverse children, adolescents, and young adults—whether new immigrants or long-time residents and citizens—has brought benefits to the state of Kansas. The Fort Hays State University Head Start Hispanic/Latino Project was a five-year federal grant (2004-2009) which trained Head Start teachers and para-educators in 16 Western Kansas counties to improve services to Spanish-speaking children, including the development of bilingual reading materials. This grant activity supported the development of a new early-childhood teacher education program at FHSU as well as a related Fort Hays State University Head Start Higher Education Hispanic/Latino Service Partnership Project to deliver professional development materials and courses to Head Start educators online, face-to-face, and via interactive television, in partnership with the Hays Head Start and Garden City Head Start offices.

The Midwest Equity Assistance Center at Kansas State University “provides technical assistance, professional development, and information dissemination in race equity, gender equity and

national origin equity to state and local educational agencies in Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, and Nebraska” (Midwest Equity Assistance Center, 2011). The Center for Intercultural and Multilingual Advocacy (CIMA) at K-State supports undergraduates and graduate students in the College of Education who are preparing to incorporate ESL and differentiated instruction in K-12 teaching jobs at schools serving culturally and linguistically diverse students and families across the state. Over the past two decades, CIMA and the Midwest Equity Center have both had profoundly positive effects on the teaching that CLD students receive in Kansas schools.

The College of Education at Kansas State University also has an Assistant Dean for Diversity, and many other colleges and departments at K-State have similar offices, at program director and dean levels, whose purpose is to increase equity and access across the university. In addition, Kansas State University has an Associate Provost who administers the Office of Diversity and Dual Career Development. These administrative offices at K-State and their counterparts at colleges and universities across the state demonstrate the high level of priority that is given to creating opportunities, ensuring access, and establishing an environment of educational equity in Kansas.

Further evidence that our state's educational leaders were interested in moving beyond “Anglo-conformity” and determined in their efforts to celebrate diversity was the creation at the University of Kansas of a new office, Vice Provost for Diversity (Hyland, 2011). The goals of that office are to continue trends at the institution of increasing diversity, both in student enrollments and in recruitment of faculty.

Changing the “Culture” of Special Education and Transition in Kansas

Very often in discussions with special educators, there seems to be a “diversity switch” that turns on when the topics are interventions, response to interventions, or identification of children with special needs, but off when the conversation begins to address cultural and linguistic diversity. One special education teacher educator commented to the present researcher, in a conversation about

textbooks and syllabuses, that it was typically necessary to skip the chapter on multicultural aspects of the subject material in order to give adequate attention to the most essential aspects of the subject (personal communication, 2004). In a phone conversation with another special education teacher educator, at another institution of higher education in the state of Kansas, the present researcher was informed that multicultural transition was “not even on the radar screen” at that person's program (personal communication, 2005). In another conversation, a transition coordinator at a major school system in Kansas said that culture and a language other than English typically were not addressed in the transition-planning process for CLD students with special needs in that school community (personal communication, 2007).

Several of the comments by caseworkers responding to the optional follow-up questions on the present survey also suggested that IEP teams did not have clear guidelines for addressing cultural and linguistic heritage in the transition-planning process.

10.14: The transition team was not asked to address communication and social skills needs because it was not identified as a need by the IEP team.

12.28: As case manager I find myself advocating for ESL students with disabilities to my own colleagues too frequently. The department chair of the special education department of my school has little or no faith in these students and often it is a battle to get program planning in place due to leadership opposition from that source.

14.11: I feel some staff do attend to the needs of these students, but it is a minority at this time. More education and staff development is needed.

Skrtic (1986) called for self-reflective examination of special education practices and an

analysis of the assumptions underlying practice in this profession.

Professionals in all fields are prepared for practice...
through a process that shapes their thought and behavior
to conform to the established knowledge of the profession.
The process requires total submission to the authority of
the profession, an acceptance on faith of the profession's
knowledge. Professional induction *is* the efficient inculcation
of the inductee with a commitment to a particular way of
seeing the world and operating in it.

(Skrtic, 1986, p. 6)

Skrtic defines *paradigm* as “a set of explicit or implicit presuppositions or basic beliefs that scientists use to provide coherence to their picture of the world and how it works” (p. 7).

A metaphysical or metatheoretical paradigm...can be thought
of as a special lens....that, while it may enhance the clarity with
which some things can be viewed, ...does not allow one to view
other things....A paradigm shift occurs when we abandon one lens...
for a different one. The new lens or paradigm provides a different
way of seeing the world and making sense of it.

(Skrtic, 1986, pp. 8)

The paradigm is shifting nationally and internationally within the field of special education as a whole, and, especially in the United States, as evidenced by a growing body of literature including the research reviewed in the present study, in the specific field of multicultural transition. The two most salient influences on the overlap area between special needs and general education have been inclusion and response to intervention, neither of which makes much sense if cultural and linguistic heritage are

left out of process (Hill, 2008; Morales Cabral and Sprott, 2008).

Skrtic indirectly forecast the RTI movement when he made the case for a new multidisciplinary paradigm of special education knowledge:

Once one accepts the position that special education can be viewed in alternative disciplinary ways, and that each perspective has different implications for the lives of children labeled disabled and their parents and families, there is no morally or ethically defensible argument for special education to continue to rely on an exclusively biological/psychological interpretation of “disability.”

(Skrtic, 1986, pp. 14)

According to Skrtic, our profession “should expand its disciplinary base beyond psychology and biology to include various social, political, and cultural sciences” (p. 14). His call for change at the very foundations of the special education field, though written a quarter of a century ago, speaks directly to the status of special education knowledge and practices in Kansas today.

The results of the present study and survey suggest that, while there is much to commend in the data from special education caseworkers on current transition practices with CLD students in Kansas schools, there are significant gaps in the domains of community participation and communication-and-social skills, as well as evidence in the comments of respondents that school personnel involved on transition teams and transition-focused IEP deliberations may be operating from within the limitations of a view of the assessment, planning, intervention, and outcomes that does not adequately include the families and cultural heritages of these students. There is also evidence in the survey results that transition in some Kansas schools is still being practiced within an Anglo-oriented paradigm.

Implementing the Recommendations of the Present Study

Tharp (1975) described a model of consultation to demonstrate the dynamics of influence among the three participants in any effort to improve the effects of educational interventions. Tharp's "Triadic Model of Consultation" was one of the earliest attempts to re-conceptualize the roles of special educators in the new context which developed as a result of PL 94-142. As special education became more integrated with general education in American schools, special education teachers needed to take on new roles as leaders of collaborative teams in mainstream and, eventually, much more inclusive settings (Moore and Davis, 1975).

According to Tharp, there are at least five main ways in which social influence is used by one person to affect the behavior of another: reinforcement; modeling; instruction; feedback; and cognitive restructuring (Tharp, 1975, p. 136). His model of consultation explains that these influences are exerted by a "consultant," affecting the actions of a "mediator," who, in turn, influences the behavior of the "target" (p. 137). Tharp suggests that any number of different people might perform the role of any of these three functions. In the focus of the present study, on transition practices, in many cases the consultant role would be fulfilled by the special education caseworker; the mediator role, by a job-placement supervisor; and the target, in the typical case, would be the exceptional CLD student aged 16-21. By the same token, however, the target may be the caseworker; the mediator, a fellow teacher on the IEP team; and the consultant, a CLD parent interested in influencing the caseworker's behavior.

The ten recommendations of the present study regarding ways to influence transition-planning and other transition-related practices and outcomes for CLD students in Kansas schools are presented again, in abbreviated format, in tables 20-29, along with examples in each case of who would perform the three key functions in the Tharp model. It is the intention of the present researcher to make these ten recommendations more concrete in this manner, so that transition teams, schools, districts, agencies, and state-wide education leaders can more easily improvise their own ways of implementing

the recommendations to fit the multicultural needs and concerns of CLD students and families in different settings across the state.

Table 20

Triadic Roles for Policy Recommendation 1.1

Policy Recommendation 1.1	<i>Informed Consent from CLD Parents for Invitations to Agencies</i>	
<i>Consultant</i>	<i>Mediator</i>	<i>Target</i>
Bilingual professional or community member to interpret or translate	Parent of culturally and linguistically diverse exceptional student	Local agency for potential support in transition to post-secondary services
Special education caseworker	Bilingual professional or community member to interpret or translate	Parent of culturally and linguistically diverse exceptional student
Transition coordinator	Special education caseworker	Transition team members

Table 21

Triadic Roles for Policy Recommendation 1.2

Policy Recommendation 1.2	<i>Advocacy for Undocumented Immigrant Students to Agencies</i>	
<i>Consultant</i>	<i>Mediator</i>	<i>Target</i>
Special education caseworker	OSEP Civil Rights Office	Local agency for potential support in transition to post-secondary services
Parent of culturally and linguistically diverse exceptional student	Special education caseworker	Local agency for potential support in transition to post-secondary services
Special education caseworker	School building administrator	Transition coordinator

Table 22

Triadic Roles for Policy Recommendation 1.3

Policy Recommendation 1.3	<i>Effective Partnering with CLD Parents on Transition Teams</i>	
<i>Consultant</i>	<i>Mediator</i>	<i>Target</i>
Families Together, Inc.	Transition team members	Parent of CLD exceptional student
Special education caseworker	Parent of culturally and linguistically diverse exceptional student	Culturally and linguistically diverse student aged 14-21 with special needs
School psychologist	Special education caseworker	Parent of CLD exceptional student
Parent of CLD exceptional student	Transition coordinator	Transition team members

Table 23

Triadic Roles for Policy Recommendation 1.4

Policy Recommendation 1.4	<i>Inclusion of CLD data in yearly goals, objectives, curricula</i>	
<i>Consultant</i>	<i>Mediator</i>	<i>Target</i>
Special education caseworker	Transition team members	Culturally and linguistically diverse student aged 14-21 with special needs
General education teacher	Special education caseworker	Transition team members
Transition coordinator	Special education caseworker	Transition team members
School psychologist	Transition team members	Culturally and linguistically diverse student aged 14-21 with special needs
CLD student aged 14-21 with special needs	School counselor	Special education caseworker
Transition team members	Bilingual professional or community member to interpret or translate	Culturally and linguistically diverse student aged 14-21 with special needs

Table 24

Triadic Roles for Policy Recommendation 1.5

Policy Recommendation 1.5	<i>Cultural and Linguistic Heritage Counted as a Strength on IEP</i>	
<i>Consultant</i>	<i>Mediator</i>	<i>Target</i>
Special education caseworker	Bilingual professional or community member to interpret or translate	Culturally and linguistically diverse student aged 14-21 with special needs
Parent of linguistically and culturally diverse exceptional student	School building administrator	Special education caseworker
Families Together, Inc.	Special education caseworker	School psychologist

Table 25

Triadic Roles for Policy Recommendation 1.6

Policy Recommendation 1.6	<i>Vision and Career Goals Emanate from CLD Student, Family</i>	
<i>Consultant</i>	<i>Mediator</i>	<i>Target</i>
Parent of linguistically and culturally diverse exceptional student	Transition team members	Culturally and linguistically diverse student aged 14-21 with special needs
Bilingual professional or community member to interpret or translate	Parent of linguistically and culturally diverse exceptional student	Transition team members
Special education caseworker	Culturally and linguistically diverse student aged 14-21 with special needs	Transition team members

Table 26

Triadic Roles for Policy Recommendation 1.7

Policy Recommendation 1.7	<i>Schools Build Connections to Include CLD Community Mentors</i>	
<i>Consultant</i>	<i>Mediator</i>	<i>Target</i>
School building administrator	Special education caseworker	CLD community leaders
CLD community leaders	Guidance counselor	School building administrator
Transition team members	School building administrator	CLD community leaders
School building administrator	CLD community leaders	Culturally and linguistically diverse student aged 14-21 with special needs

Table 27

Triadic Roles for Policy Recommendation 1.8

Policy Recommendation 1.8	<i>Social Interaction and Self-Advocacy Skills on Transition IEP</i>	
<i>Consultant</i>	<i>Mediator</i>	<i>Target</i>
General education teacher	Special education caseworker	Transition team members
Special education caseworker	Transition team members	Culturally and linguistically diverse student aged 14-21 with special needs
Special education caseworker	Student council adviser	CLD student aged 14-21 with special needs
Speech/debate teacher	Special education caseworker	Transition team members

Table 28

Triadic Roles for Policy Recommendation 1.9

Policy Recommendation 1.9	<i>Focus on Communication and Community-Participation Skills</i>	
<i>Consultant</i>	<i>Mediator</i>	<i>Target</i>
Special education caseworker	School psychologist	Transition team members
CLD community leaders	Transition team members	Culturally and linguistically diverse student aged 14-21 with special needs
Transition coordinator	Special education caseworker	Transition team members

Table 29

Triadic Roles for Policy Recommendation 1.10

Policy Recommendation 1.10	<i>Awards to Schools for Innovative CLD Transition Practices</i>	
<i>Consultant</i>	<i>Mediator</i>	<i>Target</i>
Special education caseworker	Transition coordinator	State-wide agencies, groups
State-wide agencies, groups	Special education directors	Transition coordinator

Tables 20-29 were not intended to limit the potential participants in the process of implementing these recommendations related to multicultural transition practices in Kansas schools; leaders on the ground in each school community will recognize individuals who can best function in each of the three roles. The person in the role of consultant will seek to influence the behavior of the person in the role of mediator: the mediator, in turn, will seek to influence the behavior or outcomes for the targeted individual or group. Following Tharp's model, there are at least five different ways of influencing these behaviors: reinforcement; modeling; instruction; feedback; and cognitive restructuring. These are tools used by the participants in a process of social change.

Most Kansas schools today address many of the multicultural needs of exceptional students in

transition practices. In truth, special educators working in these schools are doing very well despite a persistent Anglo-oriented professional paradigm in the field of special education in Kansas. However, given demographic trends in the state—the leading edge of these being the increasing cultural diversity of school enrollments—as well as significant gaps in transition practices and outcomes for the state's multicultural students with special needs, Kansas special educators—in leadership roles on IEP and transition teams—are primed to meet the challenges of changing the ways transition is done, by incorporating cultural and linguistic heritage from CLD students and families in order to develop more robust transition plans and empower these new generations of Kansans to achieve success in making their own individual contributions to the economic and social mosaic of this state.

Suggestions for Future Research

Based on data from the present survey, there is a need for more information about transition practices, services, and outcomes for Native American Indian adolescents. Additionally, a larger survey population of caseworkers with CLD experience would likely generate a larger data-set from which to draw more definitive conclusions about multicultural transition practices in Kansas schools.

There is also a potential for expanding the scope of this study to acquire similar data about transition practices in Kansas for students from other cultural groups, including those with Asian cultural heritage and those with Arab cultural heritage. Comments from some participants in the present study suggest further that there may be Christian and/or Anglo centric community dynamics in certain Kansas school districts where intolerance based on religion or ethnicity, on an unconscious level, could negatively impact the transition process for students whose families practice different traditions. This is yet another area which holds promise for future research, with special education policy implications.

Also, there is a large data-set of optional comments from the caseworkers who participated in the present study; many of these comments were used in the discussion section of this study, but a comprehensive qualitative analysis of these data would likely provide a more contoured description of

exactly what is happening in transition practices for culturally and linguistically diverse adolescents in Kansas schools.

Finally, research by Geenen, Powers, Hogansen, & Pittman (2007) suggests that the transition process is further complicated for CLD students living in foster care. Kansas policymakers would benefit from data on how transition services are coordinated when the foster-care system is involved.

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Appendix A – List of Districts to Which the E-mail Survey Was Sent

USD 102	Cimarron-Ensign	USD 262	Valley Center
USD 103	Cheylin	USD 263	Mulvane
USD 105	Rawlins County	USD 264	Clearwater
USD 106	Western Plains	USD 265	Goddard
USD 108	Washington County	USD 266	Maize
USD 111	Doniphan West	USD 267	Renwick
USD 202	Turner	USD 268	Cheney
USD 204	Bonner Springs	USD 269	Palco
USD 205	Bluestem	USD 270	Plainview
USD 208	WaKeeney	USD 273	Beloit
USD 211	Norton	USD 275	Triplains
USD 212	Northern Valley	USD 281	Hill City
USD 214	Ulysses	USD 289	Wellsville
USD 219	Minneola	USD 290	Ottawa
USD 220	Ashland	USD 293	Quinter
USD 223	Barnes	USD 297	Saint Francis Schools
USD 226	Meade	USD 298	Lincoln
USD 227	Jetmore	USD 303	Ness City
USD 229	Blue Valley	USD 305	Salina
USD 230	Spring Hill	USD 306	Southeast of Saline
USD 231	Gardner-Edgerton	USD 308	Hutchinson
USD 232	DeSoto	USD 312	Haven
USD 233	Olathe	USD 313	Buhler
USD 234	Fort Scott	USD 314	Brewster
USD 237	Smith Center	USD 316	Golden Plains
USD 240	Twin Valley	USD 321	Kaw Valley
USD 242	Weskan	USD 322	Onaga
USD 245	Leroy-Gridley	USD 323	Rock Creek (Westmoreland)
USD 248	Girard	USD 325	Phillipsburg
USD 249	Frontenac	USD 329	Alma
USD 250	Pittsburg	USD 330	Mission Valley
USD 252	Southern Lyon County	USD 331	Kingman
USD 253	Emporia	USD 332	Cunningham
USD 255	South Barber County	USD 333	Concordia
USD 256	Marmaton Valley	USD 334	Southern Cloud County
USD 258	Humboldt	USD 335	North Jackson
USD 261	Haysville	USD 336	Holton

USD 337	Royal Valley	USD 389	Eureka
USD 338	Valley Falls	USD 390	Hamilton
USD 339	Jefferson County North	USD 393	Solomon
USD 340	Jefferson West	USD 394	Rose Hill
USD 341	Oskaloosa	USD 396	Douglass
USD 342	McLouth	USD 400	Smoky Valley
USD 343	Perry	USD 401	Chase
USD 345	Seaman	USD 402	Augusta
USD 346	Jayhawk	USD 405	Lyons
USD 348	Baldwin City	USD 408	Marion
USD 349	Stafford	USD 409	Atchison
USD 350	Saint John-Hudson	USD 410	Hillsboro
USD 351	Macksville	USD 411	Goessel
USD 352	Goodland	USD 412	Hoxie
USD 353	Wellington	USD 413	Chanute Public Schools
USD 355	Ellinwood	USD 415	Hiawatha
USD 356	Conway Springs	USD 418	McPherson
USD 358	Oxford	USD 419	Canton-Galva
USD 359	Argonia	USD 420	Osage City
USD 360	Caldwell	USD 421	Lyndon
USD 361	Anthony-Harper	USD 426	Pike Valley
USD 362	Prairie View	USD 428	Great Bend
USD 364	Marysville	USD 429	Troy
USD 365	Garnett	USD 430	Brown County
USD 368	Paola	USD 431	Hoisington
USD 369	Burrton	USD 434	Santa Fe Trail
USD 372	Silver Lake	USD 435	Abilene
USD 373	Newton	USD 436	Caney Valley
USD 375	Circle	USD 437	Auburn-Washburn
USD 376	Sterling	USD 439	Sedgwick Public Schools
USD 377	Atchison County Community	USD 440	Halstead
USD 378	Riley-County	USD 442	Nemaha Valley
USD 379	Clay County	USD 443	Dodge City
USD 381	Spearville	USD 444	Little River
USD 382	Pratt	USD 445	Coffeyville
USD 383	Manhattan-Ogden	USD 446	Independence
USD 385	Andover	USD 447	Cherryvale-Thayer
USD 386	Madison-Virgil	USD 449	Easton
USD 387	Altoona-Midway	USD 450	Shawnee Heights
USD 388	Ellis	USD 453	Leavenworth

USD 454	Burlingame	USD 482	Dighton
USD 456	Marais des Cygnes Valley	USD 483	Kismet-Plains
USD 457	Garden City	USD 484	Fredonia
USD 458	Basehor-Linwood	USD 489	Hays
USD 459	Bucklin	USD 490	El Dorado
USD 460	Hesston	USD 491	Eudora
USD 461	Neodesha	USD 492	Flinthills
USD 463	Udall	USD 493	Columbus
USD 464	Tonganoxie	USD 495	Larned
USD 465	Winfield	USD 497	Lawrence
USD 468	Healy	USD 498	Valley Heights
USD 469	Lansing	USD 501	Topeka
USD 470	Arkansas City	USD 503	Parsons
USD 473	Chapman	USD 505	Chetopa-Saint Paul
USD 475	Junction City	USD 506	Labette County
USD 477	Ingalls	USD 508	Baxter Springs
USD 479	Crest	USD 509	South Haven
USD 480	Liberal	USD 511	Attica

Appendix B – Full Tally of Unedited Comments from the Survey

Black	Question 4: <i>Please use the text box below to add comments related to the above items concerning insights from your experience regarding cultural issues in transition practices with this group of CLD students.</i>
4.1	Both students in mind were African American students adopted by white parents. One student the parents had professional jobs and a member of the school board. Another student both parents had professional jobs and was a faculty member of our high school.
4.2	I have had limited experience working with CLD students. We are a rural high school with few minorities. My one CLD student this year is an African-American male who has been raised by an adoptive white family. My student is a senior and transferred in from another local high school that the family was not happy with.
4.3	When it comes to special education students, I don't see a lot of differences between students of different races. At this school, color or race does not matter.
4.4	In regards to statement 3.6- Obviously there has been some (for lack of a better term) prejudicial evaluations usually dependent upon which part of the country I've been in and the overall attitudes of the teachers or staff at a particular school district setting regarding the CLD students.
4.5	The black students that we work with did not have any significant cultural differences from the white. We are all Christian. We are all Americans and these kids were not into any particular roots different from my own.
4.6	Being at a small school I feel students are treated fairly equal, but there is still a need to explain the cultural and disability implications.
4.7	When writing a transition plan, we do not base it on the race of the student or what language. The same goals are expected of all of our students.
4.8	When dealing with students of different cultural backgrounds, they are not treated differently than any other student, their SES and other circumstances are considered but they are not discriminated against because of their CLD
4.9	Honestly, I have had most of my work with Asian and Indian cultural groups. I find the language barrier is difficult to navigate. Another cultural barrier is that based on their religion the mother may be unable to participate in her child's transition meetings. Asian cultures seem very protective of their chi
4.10	The transition process in the state of Kansas does a very poor job of bridging the gap for student that graduate at 18, are not college bound or tech school bound, but by mid 20's want a career path, everything is geared for immediate support not long term support regardless of cultural backgrounds.
4.11	3.7- for me, this was minimally achieved. I wish there was a way to qualify this answer.
4.12	3.7--these types of activities were only touched on.
4.13	There is not as much home support. It has always been left up to the school, unless they are not getting what they feel is beneficial to their child in their eyes.
	<i>Note from the researcher: The text field for optional comments allowed a maximum of 350 characters, so some words, phrases, and sentences were cut off.</i>

Indian	Question 4: <i>Please use the text box below to add comments related to the above items concerning insights from your experience regarding cultural issues in transition practices with this group of CLD students.</i>
4.14	One area of weakness in my current program is motivating students to become self-advocates. If the student does not have a vision or goal for his or her life and are not individually driven self-advocacy does not seem to happen.
	<i>Note from the researcher: The text field for optional comments allowed a maximum of 350 characters, so some words, phrases, and sentences were cut off.</i>

Hispanic	Question 4: <i>Please use the text box below to add comments related to the above items concerning insights from your experience regarding cultural issues in transition practices with this group of CLD students.</i>
4.15	The younger generation often felt differently than parents about traditions and culture. Sometimes it was necessary to remember which party I was an advocate for.
4.16	me thinks that CULTURAL stereotypes and expectations are stronger in the home than in the public school
4.17	My student's Dad has her working as a volunteer at the YMCA. There is no difference in what we feel is success for her.
4.18	In many cases the student actually speaks better English than the parents. We have to make sure that we have a translator in the meeting so the parents can understand and add input. This helps to make them more comfortable with the process.
4.19	Each student's 'future' was based on actual capabilities. Cultural biases were in no way part of reducing a student's potential, academics, or job potential. Every student was encouraged to persue any and all arenas for future success. What was discussed, was the 'best' way a student could meet and succeed to overcome barriers anyone would face.
4.20	In our coop, we make every effort to respect our students cultures and seek understanding of their family life. We seek dialog from parents and work closely with the family.
4.21	Sometimes it is difficult to determine what is considered successful for different cultural groups. Depending on the student's background and parental input we try to encourage the student to pursue an acceptable outcome post high school but this can be very hard to determine.
4.22	Mom had experience in social work and knew the direction she wanted for her son. His disability is such that he would need adult daytime services while she was at work.
4.23	Our School Spanish teacher translated at the IEP since the mother only spoke Spanish. He also shared what the Mexican culture was like. This was helpful to us in working with her. This student spoke fluent English.
4.24	We planned for the student to have a job after high school but due to circumstances she decided that it was more important to start a family after high school. From my understanding this was mostly a cultural decision for her.
4.25	All students are treated fairly and not looked at based on their ethic or race background at this school. They are all students and deserve a first rate education.

Hispanic	Question 4: <i>Please use the text box below to add comments related to the above items concerning insights from your experience regarding cultural issues in transition practices with this group of CLD students.</i>
4.26	I have observed a tendency towards less inclusive practices for students who have a language barrier in addition to a disability. It seems the general expectations are set to a lower standard by many involved team members when planning for these dual category students.
4.27	I have a strong understanding of this group, therefore, I have made sure to help my other team members understand perspectives that are different from their own.
4.28	The only thing we consider is the individual student and their desires.
4.29	In the cases I have worked with, it has been more advantageous to the student to show success adulthood goals for the community in which that student lives. Family and cultural goals are important, but do not cover the whole spectrum of possibilities.
4.30	Student involved in Cadets police training program for youth.
	<i>Note from the researcher: The text field for optional comments allowed a maximum of 350 characters, so some words, phrases, and sentences were cut off.</i>

Black	Question 6: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in self-care and domestic living skills?</i>
6.1	Both students had a plan for their education after high school. One student plans to attend a community college then transfer to a 4 year college in Physical Therapy or Athletic Training. The second student attended a local hair design school and is now working at a grocery store.
6.2	My CLD student wanted welding and vocational arts classes. He was eventually able to enroll in 2 x welding classes and 1 small engines class. Have also helped with a post-high school job search by assisting with completing job applications, writing a resume, etc. Parents want their son to have a job after high school.
6.3	In many cases the family is not supportive of further education and undermines the student's efforts to save money, hold a job, live on their own, etc.
6.4	Again- it varies from one part of the country to another. In the southern states (Louisiana, Mississippi, etc.) where African-American students are a larger portion of the population, self-care and domestic living skills were greatly supported by the family and extended members of such. The African-American student population here is 1% no faculty.
6.5	We provide 2 full pages of community resources with opportunity to ask about the ones that they want more information on. The students I worked with all had adequate self-care and we put them into my Careers Classes to assist with learning to cook, clean, and do laundry. These things are addressed through internships in various work locations
6.6	Until the last year when budget cuts ended the FACS program, students were given the opportunity to take classes for these skills. It is now handled as much as possible in the SPED room.
6.7	We honor the parents wishes and make sure they understand the options they have for their

Black	Question 6: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in self-care and domestic living skills?</i>
	child. Our parents work closely with the Transition specialist to complete forms to prepare for adult services.
6.8	As expected, there is wide disparity in situations...
6.9	Our Special Education Coop has a Transition Coordinator that assists staff, students and parents with information in the community, county and surrounding area that may benefit the student and family.
6.10	Most transition programs address these needs by if there is a deficiency making sure that the student gets in contact with post secondary agencies that can help with those needs, usually Voc Rehab or Workforce partnership in Kansas.
6.11	No real differences needed to be taken into consideration.
6.12	more or less the the self care and living skills had to be taught in the classroom setting because of the lack of family involvement.
6.13	5.2- this is very true for me in a rural setting, but was less true for me in an urban setting working with emotionally disturbed youth.
6.14	Some short discussions were held with each student to address these issues. Next year a program is being put into place to address these issues on a daily basis.
6.15	Although families/students are made aware of all the things that are available to them our transition counselor does a poor job of followup and follow through - the expectation is for the family/student to take care of things on their own, which actually negates the need/benefit of a transition counselor.
6.16	CLD students were given the same opportunities and information as all of our other students. The only difference I have seen is that many of them do not have as much self-confidence as some of my other non-CLD students.
	<i>Note from the researcher: The text field for optional comments allowed a maximum of 350 characters, so some words, phrases, and sentences were cut off.</i>

Indian	Question 6: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in self-care and domestic living skills?</i>
6.17	We often mention community resources but the tribe typically has better services or another option - this is an advantage for our students here.
	<i>Note from the researcher: The text field for optional comments allowed a maximum of 350 characters, so some words, phrases, and sentences were cut off.</i>

Hispanic	Question 6: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in self-care and domestic living skills?</i>
6.18	IEP team discussion including what parents were willing to provide vs what student felt she wanted. Transition Specialist facilitated students application to 'Biz Fest,' a local business fair to encourage latino entrepreneurs.

Hispanic	Question 6: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in self-care and domestic living skills?</i>
6.19	My student became pregnant and was supported through the TAPS program for young mothers at the school.
6.20	She is capable of caring for a home. Her Mom died when she was 5. Her father always attends parent conferences and calls when he has questions regarding her education. He makes sure she comes to private music practice to qualify for band contests. She is also active in Art and sports.
6.21	On going discussions throughout the high school years focused on in-put from the parents and the student to understand future expectations and goals. The students I had were capable of living independently post-high school with minimal support from family, friends, or agencies.
6.22	Assisted student in completing citizenship so he could access adult services. Social Security card, summer employment, Vocational Rehabilitation servies, SSDI, tach school enrollment.
6.23	We present information about various programs, living options, work/study supports, scholarship options but I often feel parents are not realistic or are overwhelmed and do not truly understand their choices. We do our best to explain but I am not sure they 'get it.'
6.24	This student received daily living skills within the vocational setting as well as the academic setting.
6.25	Buy looking at the wants and needs of each student, where do want to be in the next couple of years
6.26	The IEP team addressed the individual student's needs through their class schedule, other agency involvement, parent involvement, and direct and continued communication with the student involved.
6.27	The team felt there was a need to educate the CLD student regarding self-care and domestic living skills since communication between student and parent is not always optimal.
6.28	This student was higher functioning. She is capable of living on her own.
6.29	The biggest problem was the language barrier with the parents. Even with a translator (Spanish teacher) and student helping to translate at times it was still difficult
6.30	All parents receives this support.
6.31	When the students family does not speak the same language as school personnel often the family is unintentionally less included in a role of support. Also, if the student is illegal it is very difficult to make outside agency connections due to them not being held to the same standard of
6.32	These skills were deemed not applicable to the student.
6.33	The background of the students was taken into consideration when planning appropriate services. We have been lucky in that the students we have had have been very good at self-care and had above average domestic living skills.

Hispanic	Question 6: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in self-care and domestic living skills?</i>
6.34	We discuss what the student is able to do at home as far as house hold duties and cooking. We discuss basic home care skills such as mowing the lawn and painting, both inside and outside. We talk about shopping for food and clothes and handling money. We talk about leisure skills as well.
6.35	Take life skills classes in this school. Required piece of curriculum.
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Black	Question 8: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in recreation and leisure skills?</i>
8.1	My student was involved in soccer, and this year, he joined the bowling team. He was also in a club and took some AP classes.
8.2	Both students were very active in school athletics.
8.3	My CLD student was encouraged to join FFA and participate in other extra curricular activities, but he chose not to become involved in school activities. However, he was widely accepted by the other students on a social basis.
8.4	Some students graduate without ever being involved in clubs or social activities. Often they say they don't want to and refuse to participate even when efforts are made to break down their individual barriers.
8.5	We learned to sew. We sang in the van on our dailly field trips or trips to internships. We practice skills in values and play act them out to increase values while having fun. This should help them to get a keep jobs. We go to Job Olympics in Great Bend every year to compete in job skills.
8.6	Involvement in school and community activities was encouraged. Information about activities was given.
8.7	The student completed an informal Student Transition Assessment form at the beginning of each year to determine their interests and goals after they graduate. We can do more to seek the input from parents, as well. Normally, in the IEP meeting we create an environment where parental concerns and questions are welcome.
8.8	All of our students have the opportunity to interact with peer tutors. We have no control of which gen ed kids enroll in the class but we are able to pair culturally at times.
8.9	Each IEP meeting involves discussions of School and Community activities that each student can and/or are involved in. Encouraging students to be involved has proven beneficially both academically and socially.
8.10	I dont see alot of transition surveys going to the family, i do see the student being surveyed and their needs being considered. In transition we use the rec and leisure data to steer a student towards an ideal career path.
8.11	No real differences from other identified students.

Black	Question 8: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in recreation and leisure skills?</i>
8.12	with surveys
8.13	Not really addressed.
8.14	Student always gave their input. Parents were not involved through their choice.
8.15	The option to get involved in activities has been given to all students. Many of the CLD students choose not to participate in any activities.
	<i>Note from the researcher: The text field for optional comments allowed a maximum of 350 characters, so some words, phrases, and sentences were cut off.</i>

Indian	Question 8: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in recreation and leisure skills?</i>
8.16	This set of questions is difficult to answer. We are typically 30-40% Native American and about 2% other ethnicity. We are not that diverse to begin with.
	<i>Note from the researcher: The text field for optional comments allowed a maximum of 350 characters, so some words, phrases, and sentences were cut off.</i>

Hispanic	Question 8: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in recreation and leisure skills?</i>
8.17	Special Olympics
8.18	Parents and students were asked to fill out a transition survey including areas in recreation and leisure.
8.19	The students were active outside of school.
8.20	She is an active participant. At times she may stay after to get help with academics or to visit with female staff members.
8.21	We try to get the students involved in as many organizations as possible that they would enjoy.
8.22	There is an on going dialogue of day to day interests, weekend plans, and future avocations, hobbies, and athletics and where, when, and how to incorporate it into every day lives.
8.23	Depending on the level of functioning for the student we encourage and provide information regarding various activities available such as clubs, dances and volunteer opportunities.
8.24	This student would not pursue any involvement unless his sister's boyfriend was the instigator. I included this student in a club with his mother's approval.
8.25	try to look at things the student likes to do. A lot of these activities center around church activities
8.26	I had one student that was very involved in school activities but the majority of the students were not.

Hispanic	Question 8: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in recreation and leisure skills?</i>
8.27	It was perceived by the team that exposing the student to a variety of activities would further enhance the student's ability to engage in recreation and leisure daily or regularly.
8.28	Comment re 7.2: Generally, my CLD students express minimal interest in school-sponsored activities other than soccer. There exists in the school organizations which provide opportunities for them to develop a wider range of interests and these organizations actively try to engage these students.
8.29	She was not an active member in clubs as she had younger siblings to help care for. She was also shy.
8.30	She was originally involved in clubs but as high school went on she became less involved. For post secondary goals there is no way to put stay at home mother for this. She wanted to have a job in the field we put but that was also an interest of hers.
8.31	Transition team interviewed students not the parent/family. However, family members attend IEP's and had opportunity for input at that time.
8.32	There is a gap in the 'activities' participation for students with disabilities in the hispanic community in my high school. Students are encouraged, but many of my students come from homes that are living below poverty and depend on high school students for child care, jobs and other chores, leaving them unable to participate in many activities.
8.33	By enrolling the student in electives of his choice that relate to community involvement.
8.34	Social skills were addressed and the team looked for clubs where the students natural abilities could be emphasized.
8.35	Extra curricular activities were suggested along with possible leisure activities that fit with the student's interests. If classes were available that fit student interests and needs, those were also recommended
8.36	Look for ways to get involved in community.
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Black	Question 10: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in communication and social skills?</i>
10.1	My student is an LD student who is going to college, he filled out his college application and applied for scholarships. He has great social skills.
10.2	Students are required to take a regular education speech course to receive their high school diploma.
10.3	The CLD student's English class was taught in the Resource Room and focused on career ready activities: how to interview, how to dress on the job, grooming, how to complete a job application, how to write a resume, how to write a business letter.
10.4	To anticipate what their further communication and social skills might be and prepare them through practice and role playing.

Black	Question 10: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in communication and social skills?</i>
10.5	Mostly communications with extended family members.
10.6	We have direct instruction followed by acting out various scenarios. We have worksheets and tests. Each student goes on 3 different worksites during Junior and Senior year. There they apply the new skills they learn with the public. Two places they go are Exceptional Caterers and Bargain Basket. There are kids at the Bicentennial Center
10.7	Mainly during coursework.
10.8	Our school provides Family and Consumer Science classes, Life Skills classes, FFA and Career (Vocational) classes for all students.
10.9	Most students by the time they reach high school have a root in the English language. I don't know if I have an answer for this because I have often wondered for kids with Autism how being bilingual effects their Language development.
10.10	You see more of success being modeled based on what adult think success looks like not necessary what the kids see as success.
10.11	There is never enough done here
10.12	These students are active in a social skills curriculum and group just like our other students. Nothing was done specifically for their cultural community.
	<i>Note from the researcher: The text field for optional comments allowed a maximum of 350 characters, so some words, phrases, and sentences were cut off.</i>

Indian	Question 10: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in communication and social skills?</i>
NONE	
	<i>Note from the researcher: The text field for optional comments allowed a maximum of 350 characters, so some words, phrases, and sentences were cut off.</i>

Hispanic	Question 10: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in communication and social skills?</i>
10.13	Given opportunities to be with the general education peers as much as possible
10.14	The transition team was not asked to address communication and social skills needs becausee it was not identified as a need by the IEP team.
10.15	The student is non-verbal, autistic making dialogue non-existent.
10.16	ESL classes and social groups with the Social Worker.
10.17	She had the choice to have her research paper modified because of her learning disability but chose to do the whole project. She has para support in classes.
10.18	We do many Community based activities througout the school year.
10.19	Encourage appropriate behavior for any typical teenager.

Hispanic	Question 10: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in communication and social skills?</i>
10.20	He was not a spanish speaker nor his mother.
10.21	That these students meet the same expectations as all other students.
10.22	Because the student uses sign language to communicate, the team felt it important to provide a native signer as a model for developing good communication and social skills.
10.23	I always have high expectations for all student.
10.24	Our community has a very small hispanic influence so role models were not able to be found.
10.25	There is a lowered expectation for my ESL students with disabilities. The added vocablulary challenges keep reading scores low and inclusion into regular classes is significantly lower then for students with disabilities that have not learned english as a second language.
10.26	Vocational rehabilitation was contacted to work with this student. The speech pathologist is also working with this student.
10.27	Communication skills were a big part of what our team addresses. We want to ensure that the student is adequately ready for conversational speaking.
10.28	Students are encouraged to participate in extra curricular activities that allow them to participate conversationally with peers.
10.29	Maximum amount of general education inclusion. Little formal training in social skills.
	<i>Note from the researcher: The text field for optional comments allowed a maximum of 350 characters, so some words, phrases, and sentences were cut off.</i>

Black	Question 12: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in vocational skills?</i>
12.1	One student has participated in the Entrepreneur Program and School to Career Mentorship Program. The other student worked with Kansas Vocational Rehabilitative Services.
12.2	College and vocational reps were invited in to speak to all students. Work Study and Job Shadowing oportunties were offered. Vocational careers curriculum was offered.
12.3	There is a difference between what the student wants and what the reality is based on their disability.
12.4	We have a strong and effective vocational program, however efforts are made to necessarily match students within their own cultural community. Instead the matches are made according to interests and skills.
12.5	Mainly by allowing them a chance to do such activities as job-shadowing, visiting various sites, speakers from the community, etc.
12.6	We try to make the 3rd placement one that the student believes he or she would like to do in life.

Black	Question 12: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in vocational skills?</i>
12.7	Job shadows, work study, and a great vocational department.
12.8	Students are responsible for securing their own employment in order to do work-study.
12.9	The majority of my students are either work shop or adult day care students. The leisure activities I have them participate in do include the likes of their culture. For example, I have a student who listens to her Koren music.
12.10	Being from a small, rural school district, our opportunities in the work place are limited. Students often have to drive 15 - 20 miles for work opportunities. Our transition coordinator assists with job shadowing opportunities and our business department assists with On The Job Training.
12.11	work program
12.12	By making sure classes were taken that would better prepare a student for his or her chosen career.
12.13	Half-hearted attempt at finding jobs for the students.
12.14	It was told that there is not enough money in the budget to support the students desires.
12.15	There are no vocational opportunities for the majority of students, regardless of thier language or race.
12.16	This group of CLD students was given the same opportunities as other non-CLD students. There are many classes and clubs that focus on a variety of career paths. These are suggested to ALL students based on their post-secondary goals.
	<i>Note from the researcher: The text field for optional comments allowed a maximum of 350 characters, so some words, phrases, and sentences were cut off.</i>

Indian	Question 12: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in vocational skills?</i>
12.17	Most of the families and students we work with have close connection or someone in the tribe that they can go to for support. The tribe is very close here and they do a good job of looking out for each other.
	<i>Note from the researcher: The text field for optional comments allowed a maximum of 350 characters, so some words, phrases, and sentences were cut off.</i>

Hispanic	Question 12: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in vocational skills?</i>
12.18	Given the opportunity to participate with vocational classes.
12.19	One student was bussed to a vocational setting where he excelled in auto mechanics. Another was given an opportunity to work at a dept. store. Another was offered a position at the culinary arts vocational setting.
12.20	She attended the Early Chilhood program. Would like to be an Early Childhood teacher.

Hispanic	Question 12: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in vocational skills?</i>
12.21	There is no cultural community where we live. She is accepted into the community with no concerns or prejudice that I have seen.
12.22	Trying to fit them with the right placement and support. (Job Coach)
12.23	Opportunities during the school day via classes. Opportunities via field trips. After school events and extra curricular activities.
12.24	This student would not speak other than 'No thank you'
12.25	Either by expanding their needs of employment through work study programs or working academically for the next level
12.26	The team was instrumental in setting up vocational opportunities. Transportation to and from work place was set up as well. Student was paired with an adult who had skills in this vocational area and skills to communicate with her.
12.27	She did participate in Community Based Instruction which gave her work skill.
12.28	As case manager I find myself advocating for ESL students with disabilities to my own colleagues too frequently. The department chair of the special education department of my school has little or no faith in these students and often it is a battle to get program planning in place due to leadership opposition from that source.
12.29	Enrolled student in career pathways and vocational courses in the tech academy.
12.30	We looked at the student's best skills, what careers lie in those areas and tried to help the students find a career that they liked and that they could excel at. We want our students to be successful. In order for them to be successful, their goals need to be realistic and attainable.
12.31	Student was able to participate in job skill programs and community service events that would further vocational skills.
12.32	Vocational Rehabilitation.
	<i>Note from the researcher: The text field for optional comments allowed a maximum of 350 characters, so some words, phrases, and sentences were cut off.</i>

Black	Question 14: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in community participation skills?</i>
14.1	Both sets of parents are involved with the community, they were a big influence in providing opportunities for their children.
14.2	CLD students are offered the same community opportunities that all other students have access to.
14.3	Few of our students want to get involved with student government and many parents and families have little involvement in the community. We try to involve students in volunteerism because they often have a very one-sided (receiving) view of volunteerism.

Black	Question 14: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in community participation skills?</i>
14.4	Again- in my experiences this varies. It varies from region to region of the country. In the southern states there appears to be more emphasis on community involvement and while it is adequate here, there are less opportunities due to the agricultural focus and minimal service sector jobs. GOOD LUCK WITH YOUR STUDY!!!
14.5	We have not had students with language differences, mostly cultural differences. That is with the exception of foreign exchange students. Staff members worked with students to team them with peers to assist them.
14.6	This student made great improvements in his attitude toward school and academics. His adoptive parents and the school worked together well to facilitate his progress.
14.7	All studnets have the opportunity to become involded in various community activities. Culturally diverse ones are not always available or advertised well. If they are out there we are not getting the information.
14.8	The students, presently do not have an interest in being involved in student government. They are involved in various clubs and athletic activities.
14.9	In one district, each teacher was required to add some sort of cultural awareness to instruction and document it.
14.10	This group of parents and students is not centered out as a community. They participate or don't participate in things just like non-CLD students and parents do. The cultural barriers are not apparent enough for school personnel to feel the need to reach across these lines.
	<i>Note from the researcher: The text field for optional comments allowed a maximum of 350 characters, so some words, phrases, and sentences were cut off.</i>

Indian	Question 14: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in community participation skills?</i>
14.11	i FEEL SOME STAFF DO ATTEND TO THE NEEDS OF THESE STUDENTS, BUT IT IS A MINORITY AT THIS TIME. MORE EDUCATION AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT IS NEEDED.
14.12	I have had little to no success in motivating some of the Native American students to become involved in any club or organization here at school with the exception of the Native American Club. Either the student is already connected and involved or simply not.
	<i>Note from the researcher: The text field for optional comments allowed a maximum of 350 characters, so some words, phrases, and sentences were cut off.</i>

Hispanic	Question 14: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in community participation skills?</i>
14.13	Our staff is always working on ways to help these students be involved in the community in a productive way. The student doesn't always take advantage of the opportunities.
14.14	Discussion within transitions unit in the Study Skills class covered what it means to live in the community and participate within it. Examples were given.

Hispanic	Question 14: <i>In what ways did the transition team address the needs and concerns of this group of CLD students in community participation skills?</i>
14.15	Help for her baby.
14.16	Extra Curricular activities and sporting events. Community service
14.17	Encourage students and parents to become a part of the community in which they live.
14.18	The team perceived a need for the student to get involved with extra-curricular activities; however student was often reluctant to meet other people.
14.19	Comment re 13.1: The subset of students whom I serve resist any encouragement to participate in student government and other culturally-neutral groups. I have not been successful in effecting significant change in this tendency.
14.20	This is an area I would like to see improved for my students. I think our white students get more assistance from leadership organizations in this area than my ESL students. There is definite bias in regard to community linkages and participation for my students who have learned English as a second language.
14.21	Teach social skills within classes. Encourage participation in school activities.
14.22	The team addressed these needs through working with these students on community volunteer opportunities and in helping the students find ways to get experiences different from their norm.
14.23	Students are encouraged to participate in community service and leisure activities.
14.24	Little of this skill addressed.
	<i>Note from the researcher: The text field for optional comments allowed a maximum of 350 characters, so some words, phrases, and sentences were cut off.</i>