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ABSTRACT

This "final review draft" report provides an overview of the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) elementary and secondary school system, and focuses on broad policy questions affecting the entire system. Part I outlines the history of Indian education and describes the state of BIA education today, including enrollment trends, descriptions of facilities, teachers, curriculum, and extracurricular activities at 28 selected schools, statistical breakdowns of student performance in 1986 on nationally standardized tests, funding and budget figures, and family background and high school performance of Indian students. Part II addresses the long-range future of BIA education, and raises some basic policy options concerning the management of BIA school facilities and the exercise of BIA educational leadership. The merits of these options depend in part on developing consensus as to the desired future of the BIA school program. Part III reviews recent research into the characteristics of effective schools, and suggests policy options that would apply the results of this research to BIA schools to improve the quality of teaching, curricula, and special programs. The final chapter proposes 15 short-term goals for revitalizing Indian education. goals which can serve as topics for tribal, public, and bureau discussions. The report includes 90 data tables and 46 references. A statement from the National Advisory Council on Indian Education, which cautions that reported Indian student test scores included special education students whereas reported non-Indian student test

REPORT ON BIA EDUCATION

Excellence in Indian Education

Through the

Effective Schools Process

FINAL REVIEW DRAFT

Office of Indian Education Programs

Bureau of Indian Affairs

U.S. Department of the Interior

March 1988

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Preface

Congress has long sought a plan for the educational system of the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA). The BIA has also sought the development of an education plan, but shortages of staff resources and the complexities of preparing a plan have previously prevented much progress from being made. In 1986, BIA's Office of Indian Education Programs initiated a short-lived effort to draft a Comprehensive Education Plan (CEP) and Congress called for a CEP in the conference report for the 1987 Interior appropriations act. A Federal Register notice published in 1986 stated that the ranking of applications for new school construction would be deferred until a CEP had been developed. This policy reflected a belief that new schools should not be started as long as BIA education lacked a plan setting forth a framework for determining the actual need for new schools.

The completion of this Final Review Draft of a *Report on BIA Education* represents a new effort to prepare a CEP. However, this report is not given the title of a comprehensive education plan, or "CEP," because it does not attempt to plan comprehensively or answer all the future questions that may be important to the future of Indian students attending BIA schools. This report does not, for example, attempt to identify proposed new schools that should be built. It also does not specify existing schools that should be consolidated. Rather, the report focuses on broader policy questions affecting all of BIA education. It seeks to provide information and to present options for review that will facilitate the resolution of these broader issues. Such a resolution requires informed participation and the combined efforts of BIA leadership, tribal leadership, educators, school boards, teachers, parents of school children, and other involved parties.

A BIA sponsored plan that sought comprehensively to answer all questions about the future of BIA schools and education programs would be both technically infeasible and politically unrealistic. Among its major problems, such a plan would be inconsistent with a policy of tribal self-determination. Further, most students of planning agree that planning at the national level should have a broad policy orientation, in order to facilitate subsequent decisions to refine the plan and to allow ample latitude for implementation of the plan at the local level.

This Final Review Draft contains options for future policy redirections in many areas of broad importance throughout the BIA elementary and secondary school system. (Postsecondary education is not included in this report.) A few of the options ad-

dress basic structural changes in the role of BIA education but most are concerned with less drastic steps that might be taken to revitalize and improve BIA education.

The report is divided into three main parts. The first part gives information on the state of BIA education today. This information is intended to serve as background and to provide a framework for considering later policy options. The second part of the report addresses the long range future of BIA education. It also raises some basic policy options with respect to the management of BIA school facilities and the exercise of BIA educational leadership--options whose merits depend in part on developing consensus as to the desired future of the BIA school program. The third part of the report describes the results of recent research into the characteristics of effective schools. The report then raises a number of options concerning the application of current research results to BIA schools. The options include possible ways to improve the quality of teaching, the curriculum and the special programs offered by BIA schools. The final chapter proposes a set of goals to guide the near-term process of building effective BIA schools.

This Final Review Draft is being circulated to a wide range of potential commenters including Indian tribes, Congress, school boards, educators, parents of BIA school children, local BIA administrators and teachers, and other potentially interested parties. All these parties are requested to submit any comments they may have on the analytical and statistical information contained in this Final Review Draft, additional options that might be raised, and the relative merits of the options under consideration. After allowing sufficient time for the submission of reviewer comments, the BIA will assess which, if any, options it believes merit immediate adoption, as well as identifying other options that may bear further study and scrutiny. Attractive new options suggested by commenters on this draft will be incorporated in the Final Report. The analytical and background information will also be revised, as may be needed, to reflect new facts and concepts brought to light by reviewers.

Accompanying the Final Report will be a statement of policy decisions and program actions to be taken. The BIA is committed to take those measures that this planning process shows are needed to make significant improvements in the system of BIA education. Some of these measures may involve incremental steps that can be implemented quickly, while other steps may involve more basic changes in BIA policy and organization.

Many of the study's findings suggest change and the majority of these changes will occur as part of the normal administration of BIA's Office of Indian Education Programs. Any additional budgetary resources that might be needed will be included in the normal budget formulation and appropriation process.

This Final Review Draft was produced by and under the direction of the BIA's Office of Indian Education Programs within the Department of the Interior. The preparation of the draft report was undertaken at the direction of Ronal Eden, former Acting Director of the Office of Indian Education Programs. The project director

for the preparation of the Final Review Draft was Robert Nelson of the Department's Office of Policy Analysis. Mary Ann Widenhouse coordinated the preparation of the draft for the Office of Indian Education Programs (OIEP). Robert Stearns of OIEP was assigned full time to assist in the research and writing of the report. Other representatives from the Bureau of Indian Affairs; Office of the Assistant Secretary for Policy, Budget, and Administration; and the Office of Indian Education of the U.S. Department of Education provided information for and comment on this Final Review Draft. Department of the Interior and Department of Education staff who made contributions to this Final Review Draft included Oliver Abrams (Department of Education), Glenn Allison (Office of Construction Management), Walter Cruickshank (Office of Policy Analysis), Joe Herrin (Office of Indian Education Programs), Elizabeth Holmgren (Office of Indian Education Programs), Jana Luken (Office of Policy Analysis), William Mehojah (Office of Indian Education Programs), Kenneth Reinfeld (Office of Policy Analysis), and William Sinclair (Office of Budget).

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viable reservation economies capable of relieving Indians from their past dependence on Federal assistance. Both these objectives depend heavily on the quality of future Indian education. Better informed and more knowledgeable Indian voters hold the key to a tribal government that serves the best social and economic interests of the full community of tribal members. Successful economic development of Indian reservations depends no less on higher levels of education of reservation workers, managers and entrepreneurs. The future of contract and BIA-operated schools will in significant part determine whether the current Indian policies of the Federal government are successful in introducing a new, more lasting and more satisfactory era in the relations between the Federal government and the Indian tribes.

BIA-Funded Education Today

For the purposes of this report, tribally-operated schools are called "contract schools." Schools that continue to be administered by the BIA are called "BIA-operated." Some of the BIA-operated schools have established cooperative agreements with nearby public schools and are called "cooperative schools." All these schools taken together make up the system of "BIA-funded" schools.

In the early 1980s, more than 3,000 students in BIA-operated schools in Alaska became part of the public school system of Alaska. Excluding Alaska schools, total recorded enrollment in BIA-funded schools has risen by about 2,600 students since 1965. As shown in Table 1, total enrollment outside Alaska reached a peak of 40,280 in 1978. Since then, there has been a small decline in enrollment to 37,917 students in 1987-1988.

The comparative stability of enrollments has been maintained despite an increasing number of contract schools and contract school enrollments. Total contract school enrollment rose from 2,299 students in 1973 to 11,202 students in 1988. At the same time, enrollment in BIA-operated schools declined from 33,532 students to 26,715 students.

Boarding schools include significant numbers of day attendees, as well as actual boarders. Counting only the latter, total boarding enrollment has declined sharply, from 24,051 boarding students in 1965 to 11,264 boarding students in 1988, as boarding schools were closed outright or transformed into day schools. A moderate increase in contract school boarding attendance (from 500 boarding students in 1973 to 2,138 boarding students in 1988) has been overwhelmed by the decline in boarding students attending BIA-operated schools. However, enrollment in day schools operated by the BIA has risen from 11,235 students in 1965 to 17,589 students in 1988--an indication of the strength of tribal support for converting boarding schools to day schools.

Over time, BIA-funded schools have educated a smaller percentage of the total number of Indian students attending elementary and secondary schools in the United States. Within BIA areas of service responsibility the percentage of students attend-

TABLE 1

NUMBERS OF INDIAN CHILDREN ATTENDING BIA-FUNDED ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS, EXCLUDING PERIPHERAL DORMITORIES AND ALASKA SCHOOLS

Year	BIA-Operated Schools [1]			Enrollment in Contract Schools [2]			BIA-Funded Schools			Percent Contract		
	Day	Boarding	Total	Day	Boarding	Total	Day	Boarding	Total	Day	Boarding	All Students
1930[3]	3,649	21,416	25,065	0	2,727	2,727	3,649	24,143	27,792	0	11.30	9.81
1940[3]	15,917	11,419	27,336	N/A	N/A	N/A	15,917	11,419	27,336	N/A	N/A	N/A
1952	12,541	15,806	28,347	N/A	N/A	N/A	12,541	15,806	28,347	N/A	N/A	N/A
1960	10,729	18,684	29,413	N/A	N/A	N/A	10,729	18,684	29,413	N/A	N/A	N/A
1965	11,235	24,051	35,286	N/A	N/A	N/A	11,235	24,051	35,286	N/A	N/A	N/A
1970[4]	12,961	23,248	36,209	N/A	N/A	N/A	12,961	23,248	36,209	N/A	N/A	N/A
1973	14,363	19,169	33,532	1,799	500	2,299	16,162	19,669	35,831	11.13	2.54	6.42
1974	14,229	18,804	33,033	1,896	573	2,469	16,125	19,377	35,502	11.76	2.96	6.95
1975	12,605	16,712	29,317	1,918	881	2,799	14,523	17,593	32,116	13.21	5.01	8.72
1976	15,449	19,223	34,672	2,890	924	3,814	18,339	20,147	38,486	15.76	4.59	9.91
1977	16,168	17,463	33,631	5,371	1,176	6,547	21,539	18,639	40,178	24.94	6.31	16.29
1978	16,528	17,054	33,582	5,380	1,318	6,698	21,908	18,372	40,280	24.56	7.17	16.63
1979	17,055	15,844	32,899	5,066	1,346	6,412	22,121	17,190	39,311	22.90	7.83	16.31
1980	N/A	N/A	29,928	5,002	1,784	6,786	N/A	N/A	36,714	N/A	N/A	18.48
1981	N/A	N/A	29,074	5,687	1,819	7,506	N/A	N/A	36,580	N/A	N/A	20.52
1982	15,692	14,297	29,989	7,319	1,268	8,587	23,011	15,565	38,576	31.80	8.15	22.25
1983	16,484	14,004	30,488	7,519	1,324	8,843	24,003	15,328	39,331	31.32	8.64	22.48
1984	17,637	13,596	31,233	7,447	1,273	8,720	25,084	14,869	39,953	29.68	8.56	21.82
1985	16,136	12,394	29,530	7,789	2,185	9,974	24,925	14,579	39,504	31.24	14.98	25.24
1986	17,412	11,216	28,628	7,865	1,982	9,847	25,277	13,198	38,475	31.11	15.01	25.59
1987	17,758	9,870	27,628	8,564	2,080	10,644	26,322	11,950	38,272	32.53	17.40	27.80
1988	17,589	9,126	26,715	9,064	2,138	11,202	26,653	11,264	37,917	34.00	19.00	29.54

[1] All Alaska, postsecondary students and BIA peripheral dormitory residents attending public schools are excluded. Based on student attendance as counted during offical count weeks. Prior to 1976, based on average daily attendance (ADA). Boarding attendance includes actual boarders only. Day students at boarding schools are counted as day students.

[2] Contract enrollment for 1930 consists of contracted mission and private schools. BIA sources do not show contract enrollment in 1940 and following years until 1973. Contract enrollment in 1973 and subsequent years involves contracts with Indian groups. The first such contract was signed in 1966.

[3] The 1930 and 1940 references (see sources) do not show separate enrollment counts for dormitories. As a result, the 1930 and 1940 Boarding BIA count may include some children living in BIA dormitories and attending public school.

[4] BIA enrollment for 1970 includes a small but unknown number of students in contract schools.

Sources: Data obtained from BIA unpublished sources (FY 1980-88); BIA Statistics Concerning Indian Education (FY 1952-1979); Annual Reports of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs (FY 1930, 1940).

ing BIA-funded schools fell from 39 percent in 1930 to 23 percent in 1977 (the last year BIA reported this statistic), due partly to the movement of some Indian families off reservation to seek employment. By 1977, more than two-thirds of Indian students within BIA areas of service responsibility were attending public schools.

Many Indian students live in urban areas where they have no connection with BIA or its services. Nationwide there were 391,937 Indian students enrolled in schools of all kinds in 1986. However, students enrolled in BIA-funded schools were slightly less than 10 percent of all Indian students in the United States.

As part of the preparation of this report, the principals of selected BIA-funded schools were requested to develop a statement of the current status and problems of their school. Excerpts from the 28 replies received from principals are presented in Chapter III. These excerpts offer a view of BIA-funded education from the field perspective. They also serve to illustrate the great diversity of school programs and environments found within BIA education.

For example, some tribes are in extremely remote and isolated environments. The principal of Havasupai Elementary School in Arizona wrote of the school's setting:

> Our Havasupai Tribe consists of 545 people living on our 196,000 acre reservation abutting Grand Canyon National Park. We live in Supai Village, at the bottom of Havasu Canyon. We are the most geographically and culturally isolated Tribe in the continental United States. The nearest road, accessible only by foot or horse, is eight miles away and over a half mile up. The nearest town of 1,000 is 80 miles away. The nearest cities are Kingman (2 hours west) and Flagstaff (3 hours east).
>
> Communications with the "outside world" are sporadic at best. About a dozen families, the school and tribal government offices have phones. But the phones don't work a lot of the time. No broadcast T.V. is available, radio bounces in (and out) only at night. Mail service is now 5 days per week, through which we obtain food and other supplies.

Other schools, however, are located within major metropolitan areas. The principal of the Salt River Day School commented:

> The Salt River Day School was built in 1935, with a number of Indian high school boys helping with the construction. The architecture is Spanish with white-washed adobe brick, red-tiled roofs, and a lovely grassed patio which is very fitting to life on the Southwest's Sonoran Desert.
>
> The Salt River Indian Community is located in Maricopa County, Arizona, at the eastern edge of the Phoenix Metropolitan Area. It is bounded by the cities of Scottsdale, Tempe, and Mesa on the west and

> south; by open land for the most part in the public domain to the east, and by the Fountain Hills Development and the McCormick Ranch on the north.

The facilities of BIA-funded schools are as diverse as the surrounding environments. For instance, one small school on the Cheyenne River Sioux Reservation in South Dakota was described as follows:

> Promise Day School is housed in a building which could be classified as a one-teacher-one-room school with a small apartment for the teacher in the same building. Recently the apartment for the teacher in the building has been converted to a small classroom which is being used for the Chapter 1 program. It also has another small room used as the office and one other room which is used for Special Education. A single width trailer is also located close to the main building and it is used as a classroom for upper grades (5th to 8th). The room in the main building serves as a classroom for grades K-4th. The basement of the building serves as kitchen and lunchroom. The school also has a house for a teacher's residence on the premises and a bus garage which is also used for storing anything spare in the school. Some playground equipment has been there for several years and a few new pieces have also been installed recently. There is no provision for games, sports, and athletics because of no facilities, equipment or personnel for it.

An entirely different physical facility is found at Standing Rock High School, located not very far away in North Dakota on the Standing Rock Sioux Reservation:

> The school facility was occupied for the first time in the fall of 1979. The school is a poured concrete building and was designed on the open space concept. The building is a sprawling, basically one story structure and one of the finest facilities in the area. It includes: modern shop areas for woodworking, drafting, auto mechanics, and home economics. A large gymnasium supports the physical education programs and community supported athletic activities. The academic classrooms, though basically open, have been partitioned by portable walls to create a semblance of self-containment and classroom organization.

Chapter III contains further descriptions of BIA-funded schools with respect to their curricula, teachers, parents, and students, and extra-curricular activities and special programs. One main impression is, as noted, the diversity and uniqueness of BIA-funded education. The system of 168 BIA-funded schools (excluding dormitories) ranges from one side of the United States to the other, covering all kinds of terrain, climate, and other geographic features. Many students entering BIA schools speak primarily their Indian language, covering a wide range of surviving Indian languages in the United States. Some school facilities are rapidly aging and deteriorating, while

others consist of new modern buildings with the most up-to-date in educational designs.

The principals writing of their BIA-funded schools did agree on one element that is found throughout BIA education. The students of BIA-funded schools face major obstacles in reaching a high level of educational achievement. Besides the primary speaking of languages other than English, many students come from social environments where poverty and joblessness are pervasive. The parents of many Indian children are not well educated themselves and often find it difficult to help their children in school. Some of the poorer families find it difficult to provide their children attending day schools with proper nutrition at home (which contributes to the parents' decision to send their children to BIA boarding schools where students are served three meals a day). Unfortunately, social breakdown reflected in alcoholism, divorce, violence and other problems are found in many Indian families. Indian children are asked in school to make the large jump from a home environment that is distinctly Indian to the values and attitudes of mainstream American society, as they are taught in school. All these and other factors contribute to the poor performance of the students of BIA-funded schools, at least as this performance is measured by scores on nationally standardized tests.

As shown in Table 2, the test scores of students in BIA-funded schools were well below the nationwide median scores for their grade level. The average score for the battery of tests for second-grade students in all BIA-funded schools reporting test scores ranked in the 22nd percentile. All other grade levels achieved rankings in the 21st percentile or lower. The lowest scores were achieved by ninth and tenth graders, in each case representing a ranking in the 16th percentile. The overall test scores of contract schools were similar to BIA-operated schools, but tended to be a few percentage points lower.

TABLE 2

PERCENTILE RANKINGS FOR 1986 TEST SCORES, BY GRADE AND TYPE OF SCHOOL BATTERY OF TESTS (Number of Test Takers in Parentheses)

Type of School	Grade 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
BIA-Oper. Schools	N/A	22% (2,256)	22% (2,441)	22% (2,412)	20% (2,068)	22% (2,045)	22% (1,796)	20% (1,693)	16% (1,037)	16% (947)	20% (819)	21% (803)
Contract Schools	N/A	18 (433)	16 (468)	19 (441)	18 (393)	17 (412)	19 (537)	18 (491)	16 (573)	16 (491)	17 (353)	20 (309)
All BIA-Funded Schools	N/A	22 (2,689)	21 (2,909)	21 (2,853)	19 (2,461)	21 (2,457)	21 (2,333)	19 (2,184)	16 (1,610)	16 (1,438)	18 (1,172)	21 (1,112)

Table 3 shows for each Agency the percentile rankings for the battery of tests achieved by students in BIA-operated schools. There are substantial variations in percentile rankings among Agencies. One grade in one Agency achieved above national norms--the second graders in the Northern Pueblo Agency who achieved a percentile ranking of 52. At the other end of the continuum, several grades in a few agencies achieved percentile rankings below 10.

Some important qualifications should be noted with respect to these test results (and the further results given in Chapter IV). Unlike typical public schools, many BIA-funded schools include special education students in their overall reporting of test scores, creating a relative downward bias. Not all BIA-funded schools reported test scores, so that the overall results represent a partial sample containing around three-quarters of all potential test takers in BIA schools. The test results represent one point in time--the spring of 1986--and thus upward or downward trends cannot be identified. Finally, standardized tests reveal only some elements of student learning. Indeed, some critics contend that test scores measure less important elements of learning and that the content of written test questions too often reflects a cultural bias favoring mainstream students at the expense of minority groups such as Indians.

BIA education includes not only the operation of elementary and secondary schools, but also support for higher education, adult education, assistance to Indian students in public schools, and other program elements. Total annual appropriations for the various programs of BIA education rose from $226.5 million in 1975 to $259.3 million in 1986. In constant dollars, however, this represented a significant decrease in funding. In 1987, the largest element of educational expenditure was school operations, receiving $196.0 million. Other major education areas were the Johnson-O'Malley program of assistance to Indian students in public schools ($22.8 million), funding of BIA higher education ($31.2 million), and assistance to tribal community colleges ($12.9 million).

In 1987, $159.7 million was allocated directly to schools through the ISEP funding formula. This formula allocates funds to schools in direct proportion to weighted student totals in each school. The second largest area of expenditure for school operations was transportation, which received $11.8 million in 1987.

BIA-funded schools are supported by a number of other funding sources, in addition to the basic operating funds supplied through the BIA education appropriation. The operation and maintenance of school facilities is funded through the general BIA budget for operation and maintenance of BIA facilities of all kinds. New school construction and major school facilities renovations and repairs are also funded from BIA sources outside the education budget. Another major source of BIA education funding is obtained through the Department of Education, including the Chapter 1 and special education of the handicapped programs.

TABLE 3

PERCENTILE RANKINGS FOR BIA-OPERATED SCHOOLS FOR 1986 TEST SCORES, BY AGENCY OR AREA

Agency or Area	BATTERY OF TESTS (Number of Test Takers in Parentheses) Grade											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Cheyenne River Agency	N/A	15% (20)	15% (15)	8% (28)	14% (20)	12% (16)	16% (12)	14% (7)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Chinle Agency	N/A	26 (57)	11 (148)	7 (202)	7 (154)	8 (143)	16 (159)	14 (134)	11 (91)	10 (103)	15 (105)	22 (117)
Choctaw Agency	N/A	12 (111)	13 (100)	21 (103)	13 (89)	17 (108)	18 (79)	14 (86)	15 (73)	21 (48)	17 (38)	20 (27)
Eastern Area[1]	N/A	36 (73)	33 (73)	32 (76)	46 (53)	49 (73)	29 (86)	24 (72)	32 (83)	30 (66)	30 (55)	39 (35)
Eastern Navajo Agency	N/A	21 (385)	26 (372)	31 (357)	29 (300)	29 (261)	21 (233)	24 (226)	11 (189)	11 (186)	17 (163)	18 (164)
Fort Apache Agency	N/A	7 (13)	9 (13)	10 (19)	10 (10)	10 (14)	19 (12)	15 (24)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Fort Defiance Agency	N/A	22 (281)	27 (262)	24 (267)	19 (260)	21 (205)	24 (215)	19 (139)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Hopi Agency	N/A	19 (69)	22 (77)	30 (70)	45 (48)	33 (61)	35 (33)	42 (29)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Laguna Agency	N/A	46 (63)	25 (61)	32 (57)	27 (60)	33 (55)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
North Pueblo Agency	N/A	52 (27)	30 (27)	39 (23)	37 (33)	38 (28)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Papago Agency	N/A	9 (85)	11 (66)	16 (62)	10 (76)	13 (75)	13 (84)	13 (76)	12 (26)	N/A	N/A	N/A
Phoenix Area[1]	N/A	43 (19)	28 (28)	15 (21)	19 (14)	33 (17)	N/A	N/A	16 (161)	16 (185)	21 (169)	21 (195)
Pima Agency	N/A	32 (15)	13 (44)	21 (31)	11 (19)	9 (19)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Pine Ridge Agency	N/A	27 (61)	21 (52)	22 (47)	18 (42)	21 (43)	27 (45)	11 (64)	15 (93)	11 (49)	16 (31)	21 (28)
Shiprock Agency	N/A	22 (224)	25 (227)	20 (212)	23 (211)	21 (177)	24 (137)	22 (116)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Southern Pueblo Agency	N/A	21 (67)	18 (66)	26 (81)	24 (62)	25 (73)	33 (16)	40 (15)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Standing Rock Agency	N/A	27 (54)	15 (60)	18 (48)	15 (42)	20 (54)	21 (49)	20 (61)	39 (33)	26 (41)	31 (30)	28 (32)
Turtle Mountain Agency	N/A	31 (17)	12 (19)	17 (23)	21 (15)	23 (11)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Western Navajo Agency	N/A	30 (221)	25 (368)	23 (346)	18 (234)	18 (268)	21 (248)	22 (239)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

[1] Includes schools outside any Agency and supervised by Area Offices.

Table 4 shows the total funds spent on BIA-funded elementary and secondary schools for 1985 through 1987 from direct and indirect sources. In 1986, BIA-funded schools received a grand total of $318.9 million, equal to $7,917 per student attending BIA-funded schools. By comparison, total spending in U.S. public schools equalled $4,051 per student in 1986. Within these averages, there were wide differences in the amounts received per student by individual schools. Funding sources for contract schools also differ in some respects from BIA-operated schools.

TABLE 4

TOTAL FUNDING IN SUPPORT OF BIA AND CONTRACT ELEM. AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS, DIRECT AND INDIRECT SOURCES (Millions of Dollars)

TYPE OF FUNDING	1985	1986	1987
ISEP Funding	$154.0	$150.2	$159.7
Technical Support	9.1	8.2	8.7
Other School Operations	14.2	22.9	27.4
Administration	2.2	2.0	2.1
New School Construction	14.0	4.8	5.1
School Facilities Routine Operation & Maintenance	40.7	44.7	42.7
School Facilities Major Improvement & Repair	17.7	17.7	18.3
School Facilities Management Support	10.0	8.6	7.9
Department of Education Set-Asides[1]	34.9	33.9	42.4
Other Dept. of Educ. Funding[2]	18.0	17.6	7.7
School Lunches[3]	7.5	8.3	8.2
Grand Total:	322.3	318.9	330.2

Total 1986 funding per pupil, BIA and contract schools = $7,917 per pupil.

1986 average funding per pupil, all U.S. public schools = $4,051 per pupil (including an estimate of capital costs).[4]

[1]Includes Chapter 1, special education and science/math funds.

[2]Includes bilingual education, Title IV (contract schools only) and impact aid funding (estimated).

[3]Department of Agriculture funds.

[4]Funding level shown in U.S. Department of Education's Center for Education Statistics, The Condition of Education: A Statistical Report (1987 Edition), p. 34.

Sources: See tables 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 in Chapter V.

The higher cost per student in BIA-funded schools reflects a number of special high-cost factors in BIA education. Transportation costs per student are higher because students must often be bused long distances to school over difficult roads. Small BIA day schools--many containing fewer than 100 students--involve high costs of operation. The single most important high-cost factor is the need to provide dormitory services and facilities for boarding students. Disproportionate numbers of students in BIA-funded schools also have learning problems and handicaps that require special attention.

The high cost of BIA schools also reflects the personnel structure of BIA schools. Excluding dormitory personnel, the ratio of pupils to total personnel in BIA-operated schools was 4.4 to 1 in 1987. By comparison, the ratio of pupils to total personnel in public schools was 9.6 to 1 in 1985. The chief explanation for the high number of personnel in BIA-funded schools is found in the nonprofessional categories of personnel such as education aides, clerical help, cooks, bus drivers, and others. Professional personnel represented 41 percent of all BIA instructional (nondormitory) personnel in 1987. In public schools, however, professional personnel represented more than 60 percent of total personnel in 1985.

Table 5 shows the percentages of personnel in different personnel classifications for BIA-operated and public schools. Education aides represented 26 percent of all BIA school personnel, compared with 7 percent of public school personnel. In contrast,

TABLE 5

DISTRIBUTION OF INSTRUCTIONAL PERSONNEL IN BIA-OPERATED SCHOOLS AND U.S. PUBLIC SCHOOLS, BY PERCENT

PERSONNEL TYPE	BIA Personnel[1]	Public School Personnel[2]
Teachers[3]	18.4%	53.4%
Administrators	2.0	4.6
Counselors	1.8	1.6
Education Aides[4]	26.0	7.4
Support and Other Staff	51.6	33.0
TOTAL:	100	100

[1]Excludes dormitory personnel. Figures shown are for 1987.

[2]Percentages of personnel in 1985.

[3]Includes all personnel classified as teachers in BIA personnel records. Other BIA personnel not classified as teachers may perform teaching duties as part of their employment.

[4]Includes "education" aides in BIA schools and "classroom" aides in public schools.

Note: BIA central personnel files do not contain equivalent data for contract schools.

personnel classified by BIA as teachers represented 18 percent of total instructional personnel of BIA-funded schools, while teachers represented 53 percent of total personnel in public schools. However, the system of BIA personnel classifications includes other professional positions that may include some teaching as part of employee duties, making precise comparisons difficult.

Figure 1 shows estimates of the impact of each high-cost factor on the total costs of BIA-funded schools. For example, the added cost due to very small schools (less than 100 students) contributes an additional $90 per student--averaged over all students in BIA-funded schools--to the total costs of BIA education. Boarding schools contribute an added cost in the range of $900 to $1,500 per student, averaged over all students in BIA-funded schools. The five high-cost factors--transportation, small rural schools, the boarding program, special student learning needs and personnel intensiveness--in major part explain the higher costs of BIA-funded schools, as compared with public schools.

Spending for BIA education is only a limited part of total Federal spending for Indian education in the United States. In particular, the Department of Education (ED) provides special funding for Indian students in public schools through a variety of funding mechanisms. Total ED funding levels for the various programs providing assistance to Indian students have risen from $33 million in 1970 to $335 million in 1986. The largest source of such ED funds is Impact Aid, which in 1986 provided $226 million for the education of Indian students in public schools. The Impact Aid program involved greater total Federal funding than the total direct appropriations to BIA education for the operation of BIA-funded elementary and secondary schools.

Towards Effective BIA Schools

In light of the findings of this report with respect to BIA education, the Office of Indian Education Programs proposes to introduce into BIA-operated schools the educational lessons of the effective school movement. Recent educational research has demonstrated that effective schools have many characteristics in common, including:

- High expectations for student success.
- A clear sense of educational mission and purpose.
- Principals who provide strong leadership.
- A safe and orderly school environment.
- An emphasis on the learning of basic skills and the developing of a quality curriculum responsive to the academic and career development needs of the student.
- Students who are held academically accountable and whose progress is regularly monitored.

FIGURE 1

CUMULATIVE IMPACT OF HIGH-COST FACTORS IN BIA EDUCATION IN FY 1986

Full BIA Cost		=	$7,917 per student
Less adjustment for high transportation costs ($150 per student)		=	$7,767 per student
Less adjustment for very small schools of fewer than 100 students ($90 per student)		=	$7,677 per student
Less adjustment for boarding program costs ($900 to $1,500 per student)		=	$6,177 to $6,777 per student
Less adjustment for high Chapter 1 and Special Education costs ($735 per student)		=	$5,442 to $6,042 per student
Less adjustment for high personnel costs of instruction program ($1,200 per student)		=	$4,242 to $4,842 per student
Average 1985-86 U.S. public school cost per student, including capital costs		=	$4,051
Average 1985-86 U.S. public school cost per student, not including full capital costs		=	$3,752
Average 1985-86 public school cost per student, not including full capital costs	Montana	=	$4,091
	California	=	$3,543
	North Dakota	=	$3,481
	New Mexico	=	$3,195
	Oklahoma	=	$3,146
	Arizona	=	$3,093
	South Dakota	=	$3,051

- Close involvement of parents and the local community in the educational process. Incorporation of the community milieu into content of curriculum.

The proposed overall goal of BIA education is to introduce and develop these characteristics of effective schools within all BIA-operated schools. In addition, a number of more specific goals are proposed in this Final Review Draft with respect to the operation of BIA schools. The Final Report will include a final set of goals, perhaps modified from the goals proposed here, depending on public review and comment. The proposed goals are as follows:

Proposed Goal 1: Incorporate the Elements of Effective Schools into All BIA-Operated Schools

Fundamental elements of effective schools, as established by recent effective schools research, can be incorporated into the BIA's educational program to improve the quality of principal leadership, teacher instruction and student academic achievement at all BIA schools. Incorporating such elements into individual school programs will help local school administrators and students feel a sense of common accomplishment toward the goal of maximizing each student's learning. The effective schools approach emphasizes that the tribal community must have extensive opportunity to take an active role in the school.

Proposed Goal 2: Develop Stronger BIA Educational Leadership at All Levels

Effective schools require a school environment conducive to learning. In creating such an environment, the role of the school principal is critical. Building effective BIA schools requires special emphasis on the selection and retention of principals who possess strong leadership qualities. Indeed, an introduction of stronger leadership throughout BIA education is needed, ranging from school principal to Agency Superintendent for Education to Director of OIEP. To achieve effective leadership at all levels within OIEP, it will be necessary to assess training needs of all current supervisors and provide for appropriate developmental training. Concurrently, OIEP must identify potential supervisors within the organization and provide them with management training, as required. To strengthen the managerial ranks, particularly at the national level, it may be necessary for OIEP to encourage applications from well qualified non-BIA, university and public school professionals whose expertise is in Indian education. Systems of evaluation of leaders are needed to ensure that those unable to provide effective leadership are placed in positions more suited to their skills.

Proposed Goal 3: Improving Teacher Compensation

Teachers are the heart of the educational process. The educational task BIA teachers face is one of unusual complexity and challenge. Many BIA teachers live in hardship conditions, while they are paid salaries that are typically 25 percent less than the salaries of their public school counterparts in the same areas. The very high turnover

rate and difficulties in recruiting BIA teachers should come as no surprise. Along with improving overall teacher compensation, BIA should take steps to ensure that it recruits and retains teachers of the highest educational skills and competence.

Proposed Goal 4: Establish Greater Internal Communication and Training

At present the BIA schools function as largely autonomous units. Below the Agency level, in particular, there is little sense among BIA schools of participation in a joint educational undertaking. Agency and school personnel would benefit from BIA education newsletters, conferences and assemblies of BIA teachers and administrators, and visits by school staff to other schools, promoting a sense of all BIA schools engaged in a common enterprise of Indian education. Teacher in-service training programs could be significantly expanded and improved. The BIA could establish a policy research unit to collect data, conduct program analyses and undertake or co-sponsor needed research.

Proposed Goal 5: Examine the Numbers and Levels of Compensation of Nonprofessional Personnel in BIA Schools

BIA-funded schools are receiving funding levels per student that are well above public school levels. Even when allowance is made for boarding programs, long transportation distances, small schools, and other special high-cost factors found in BIA education, BIA funding levels still exceed the U.S. public school averages per student. Given current pressures on the entire Federal budget, BIA schools are unlikely to receive much higher funding in the future. If BIA schools need additional funds to support higher teacher compensation, in-service training, and other educational goals, these funds may have to be found by reallocations within the existing BIA education budget.

One prospect for making new funds available that bears examination is to reduce gradually the employment numbers and levels of compensation for nonprofessional personnel. BIA-operated schools have more than twice the total of nonprofessional instructional (nondormitory) personnel per student, as compared with public schools. One of the main reasons is that education aides represent 26 percent of all BIA school employees, whereas classroom aides constitute 7 percent of total public school staff. If adopted, any such goal should be implemented only by attrition and no existing job holders should lose their jobs. Similarly, no current employee should suffer a wage reduction, but newly hired cooks, bus drivers, and other nonprofessional employees might receive lower job classifications and compensation.

Proposed Goal 6: Take Steps to Establish a Working Group to Revise the ISEP Formula in Light of Changing Educational Priorities, Philosophies, and Other New Circumstances

The ISEP formula for distributing funds will be 10 years old in 1989. Adopted in a hurried fashion, it may be time to revise this formula to take account of changing educational circumstances. Many questions have been raised about the student weights used in the ISEP formula. The relative costs appropriate for students in different programs may have changed. New weights for prekindergarten students and for gifted and talented students have been proposed. Procedures for setting official attendance levels may need to be revised. Also, it might be possible to incorporate the distribution of funds for facilities operation and maintenance within the broader ISEP distribution. Another factor that may bear consideration is incorporating into the formula some relationship to public school costs in the nearby vicinity.

Proposed Goal 7: Continue to Encourage Students to Attend Local Day Schools

Boarding students cost $3,000 or more per student to educate and house than day students. Boarding schools also remove students from the student's familiar family environment. For many students the alternative to a boarding school is a small day school in a remote area. Such a small school may fit into and receive strong support from the local parents and community. Even if small day schools have above-average costs per student, compared with other day schools, the costs per student of small day schools typically will be much below the costs per student of boarding schools.

Proposed Goal 8: Encourage a Continuation of the Growth in Enrollment in Contract Schools

Contract school enrollment has grown from 2,299 students in 1973 to 11,202 students in 1988. Successful implementation of the government's policy of tribal self-determination (as found in P.L. 93-638 and P.L. 95-561) will be reflected in the continuation of this trend. Contracting has thus far proceeded largely school by school, but tribes may want to examine the prospect of contracting for the tribal management of all BIA-funded schools on a reservation. The Federal government may want to adopt a formal policy announcing support in principle for this step. While promoting tribal self-determination, it is also important that tribal schools remain accountable for the performance of their students. Where tribal schools are experiencing difficulties, assistance in diagnosing and remedying any problems should be made available.

Proposed Goal 9: Encourage Tribes to Explore the Financial Benefits and Feasibility of Tribally Managed Public School Districts on Reservations

For some tribes the largest total funding for reservation schools may be obtained by setting up reservation public schools--serving predominantly Indian students--and operating these tribal schools as a new public school district. Such a district would combine substantial Federal funds already now available for Indian students in public

schools with substantial state funds also now available to any school district within the state. By combining Federal and state funds, the total funds received by a tribally-managed school may significantly exceed the level of funds that would be available to a tribal contract school funded directly by BIA.

Proposed Goal 10: Establish a Process for Making School Facilities Decisions that Develops Estimates of the Full Educational and Financial Impacts of Alternative Facilities Arrangements

Facilities decisions are in many cases the instrument for implementing broader educational priorities. Yet, current facilities decisions are made largely in an ad hoc fashion. Facilities decisions should be made with a more accurate understanding of the academic (instructional) and financial impacts of alternative facilities arrangements. Major facility decisions should be made with BIA education representatives providing education input.

It may be useful to develop a computer model for estimating the educational and financial impacts of alternative facilities arrangements. Such a model was partially developed for the Chinle Agency as part of a demonstration project. This model, or a revised version, may be appropriate for extension to other BIA Agencies or local BIA school systems. New formal procedures are needed in order to ensure that a full range of facility alternatives receives consideration and that estimates are developed of the educational and cost impacts of these alternatives.

Proposed Goal 11: Take Steps to Extend BIA Educational Efforts to Include Preschool Children, Outreach Programs for Child Health and Nutrition, and Outreach Programs to Instruct Parents in Helping their Children in School

Education research of the past decade has emphasized that schools are only one part of a broader set of significant influences on the learning of children. At the time they enter kindergarten, many children already are lacking in attitudes and skills needed to do well in school. In later school years, the maintenance of good health and nutrition, as well as the strong support and encouragement of parents, may be critical factors in student performance in school. Given the critical importance of these influences, especially for many minority children, educators are now beginning to involve themselves beyond the classroom into the community where the student lives. Any such programs should be coordinated closely with Head Start and other available Federal programs in order to avoid duplication.

Proposed Goal 12: Encourage BIA Schools to Emphasize the Teaching of Basic Knowledge and Skills Necessary for Future Employability and Reservation Economic Development, as Well as the Opportunity for Full Participation in Modern Life

Indian reservations typically suffer from severe unemployment, due to the lack of economic development. The future economic growth of reservations will depend on

the education of the next generation in the basic knowledge and skills necessary to create and manage successful businesses, as well as providing a capable and stable work force. Such basic knowledge and skills--including reading, writing, language arts, mathematics, history, geography, and other social studies--are also necessary for obtaining access to books and magazines, the ability to communicate effectively with others over long distances, and generally the opportunity for full individual participation in modern society.

Proposed Goal 13: Encourage BIA Schools to Give Greater Emphasis in their Curricula to Tribal History; Relationships of Tribal Governments to Other Established Governments; Tribal, State and Federal Law; Cultural Anthropology; Heritage of Indigenous Americans; and Impact of World Trends on Reservation Economies

Successful economic development of reservations will depend on the achievement of stable tribal political and legal institutions. The self-esteem of BIA students may be enhanced by formal recognition in school curricula of the importance of tribal history, cultural anthropology and heritage. These subjects will be of particular intrinsic interest to many Indian students, possibly motivating them to greater learning efforts in all areas and providing them with a greater appreciation of the world around them. In addition to new curriculum offerings, BIA education could support study of tribal culture and socioeconomic institutions in a variety of other ways. The BIA could support the development of textbook materials for Indian children, or could sponsor efforts in particular schools to develop such materials for broader distribution throughout the system of BIA education. Lecturers in Indian history and culture could be encouraged to visit BIA schools. Indian elders can share insights in traditions and living successfully as an Indian in a modern, changing world. Innovative satellite instruction and interactive laser videodisk technology might be used to increase student interest and overall involvement in these subject areas.

Proposed Goal 14: Establish a Program for Identifying Particularly Successful BIA-Funded Schools, Administrators, Teachers, and Instructional Programs, in Order that the Basis for this Success May Be Communicated Throughout the BIA-Funded School System

Formal identification of especially successful efforts in BIA-funded education would serve two main purposes. Most important, it would help to provide role models and inspirational examples for others to adopt the same successful methods and approaches. It is also appropriate that successful schools, teachers, administrators, and programs should be given public recognition and credit for their accomplishments as one part of the reward for their efforts.

Proposed Goal 15: Improve the Data Gathering, Reporting Procedures, and Knowledge Base for the Various Schools and Programs within BIA Education

Effective management of a school system is impossible without knowing what is occurring within that system. BIA schools need greater freedom from bureaucratic con-

trols, paperwork burdens, and central rules and regulations. Yet, the price for greater freedom is greater accountability for results, which depends on the generation of data bases providing accurate information to all levels of OIEP on test scores, dropouts, personnel turnover, and a number of other matters. At present BIA information capabilities are limited. One part of the solution may be the creation of an office or center of education policy, research, and program analysis within the Office of Indian Education Programs and under the supervision of the Director of OIEP. Such a unit, to be effective in providing a wide range of needed services, might be field-based and perhaps associated, collaboratively, with a major university.

Introduction

In 1983, the National Commission on Excellence in Education released its report, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform*. The Commission found that the quality of American education is critical for American prosperity, security and civility.[1] Yet, the Nation faced a great challenge because "the educational foundations of our society are presently being eroded by a rising tide of mediocrity that threatens our very future as a Nation and a people."[2] As the Commission stated, the many failings of American education posed a challenge to core values of America itself:

> Part of what is at risk is the promise first made on this continent: All, regardless of race or class or economic status, are entitled to a fair chance and to the tools for developing their individual powers of mind and spirit to the utmost. This promise means that all children by virtue of their own efforts, competently guided, can hope to attain the mature and informed judgment needed to secure gainful employment and to manage their own lives, thereby serving not only their own interests but also the progress of society itself.[3]

These hopes and goals for American children include Indian children in Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) schools. Perhaps even more than most, Indian children need effective schools in order to acquire the knowledge and skills for successful functioning in American life while retaining their interest in their cultural heritage. Children coming from economically and educationally advantaged home environments may depend less on formal schooling. But large numbers of Indian children do not have these home advantages; they must look to the school system as the main source of their formal education to help raise their tribe's and their own economic status.

From one perspective Western-oriented education for Indians, as provided in part by the BIA, has been a great success. One hundred years ago, few Indian children had the opportunity or need to attend school. Today, almost all have at least this opportunity and the majority take advantage of it. In 1980, 60 percent of Indians in the age group from 18 to 24 were high school graduates. In the past 100 years Indian education has paved the way for thousands of Indian college graduates who have become well educated in the Western sense, while, for many of them, retaining their tribal identity.

Despite these gains, however, Indian education from another perspective is a major failure. Indian children drop out of school at rates much higher than the dropout rates of other population groups. On average, Indian children receive lower grades and have lower scores on nationally normed, standardized tests measuring achievement (although these tests are considered by some educators to be culturally biased). Far too many Indian children still leave school without having mastered the basic knowledge and skills that formal education is supposed to provide.

There are many reasons to be greatly concerned about this state of affairs. Pervasive poverty, unemployment, alcoholism and other social disabilit - would be a grave concern in any minority or other population group. In the case of Indians, the concern is heightened by the long history of conflict between white society and American Indians/Alaska Natives. Unlike all other Americans who trace their origins at some point to immigration, Indians and Alaska Natives, as indigenous Americans, were not, and some today are not, voluntary participants in the American way of life. The Nation has a special obligation to its Native peoples.

Yet, it is not necessary to put the argument for improving Indian education in such moral terms. Indeed, there are strong pragmatic educational and economic arguments that would be sufficient in themselves. For tribes to realize their goal of self-determination and for individual tribal members to become self-reliant, existing educational programs must assist Indian students throughout their schooling to acquire substantive academic and vocational skills--skills from which to build strong, viable tribal economies.

Because of declining birth rates among middle class and other advantaged populations, the American work force of the future increasingly will be drawn from current minority and other disadvantaged groups. A report done for the U.S. Department of Labor recently found that "over the next 13 years, blacks, Hispanics and other minorities will make up a large share of the expansion of the work force. Non-whites, for example, will comprise 29 percent of the net addition to the work force between 1985 and 2000 [compared with 14 percent of the population in 1985]."[4] The Labor Department-sponsored report further found that:

> The prospect that minorities will comprise a very large fraction of the new additions to the labor force over the next 13 years appears, on the surface, to present an unprecedented opportunity. As employers reach further down the labor queue, they might be expected to provide better job prospects for historically disadvantaged groups and to invest more heavily in their education and training.
>
> But the pattern of job growth in higher-technology occupations requiring more education, and the likelihood of greater employment gains in metropolitan regions with fewer minority residents, suggest that this sanguine outlook is far from assured.[5]

As U.S. businesses contemplate the prospects for their future work force, they have begun to show a deep and growing concern for the quality of minority education in the United States. The Committee for Economic Development (CED) is a prominent policy study group that includes representatives from many of America's largest corporations. In 1987, it released a new policy statement, *Children in Need: Investment Strategies for the Educationally Disadvantaged,* issuing a call for "the Nation to embark upon a third wave of [educational] reform that gives the highest priority to early and sustained intervention in the lives of disadvantaged children."[6]

These leaders of the American corporate world took note of the fact that "demographic trends dramatize the need to address seriously the plight of the disadvantaged. The sheer numbers and the growing proportion of the U.S. population that they represent are staggering."[7] The implications for American business were seen by the businessmen as grave:

> If present trends continue without corrective actions, American business will confront a severe employment crisis. This scarcity of well educated and well qualified people in the work force will seriously damage this country's competitive position in an increasingly challenging global marketplace. Current projections point to a serious labor shortage in only a few years. By 1990, the impact of new technologies is expected to drive total private-sector demand for employment to 156.6 million jobs, nearly twice that in 1978. If these estimates are only close to the mark, there will be a shortage of over 23 million Americans willing and able to work.
>
> Our industries will be unable to grow and compete because an expanding educational underclass will be unable to meet the demands of such jobs. Moreover, these young people will not enjoy the levels of literacy needed to make informed choices about their lives or to carry out the responsibilities and reap the rewards of citizenship in a democratic society.
>
> The technological revolution and intensified global competition have brought dramatic and irreversible changes to the job market. The nation's manufacturing sector has become more productive, but, at the same time, its jobs rely less and less on unskilled, manual labor. As production processes depend increasingly on computers and other sophisticated machinery, manufacturing jobs demand greater intellectual ability. Likewise, jobs in the growing service and knowledge industries, by their very nature, require more literate workers with good problem-solving skills--workers who have learned how to learn.[8]

At a time when greater demands are being placed on the American education system, especially with respect to the education of minority and disadvantaged youth, this system has been failing many of these youth. It has been estimated that almost one million from this group will leave school in 1987, departing with inadequate read-

ing, writing, mathematical and other skills. Most of these dropouts will be unable to meet the requirements of new jobs in the expanding knowledge-based and technological sectors of the American economy. The collective cost to the Nation in lost lifetime earnings and foregone taxes from a single year's dropouts from school have been estimated to exceed $200 billion.

Taking action to improve the education of minority youth is not only a social responsibility but also an economically wise policy. Future improvements in minority education can be regarded as a form of investment that offer future benefits substantially exceeding the costs. These benefits include higher earnings by workers, higher profits by companies, higher taxes collected by governments, and reduced medical, unemployment, welfare and other payments by the government. As shown in Table 1, some estimates have shown that the benefits of programs such as preschool education and compensatory education can be as much as five or six times the costs.

TABLE 1

RETURNS TO EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Type of Program	Impact	Estimated Returns to Program
Preschool Education	Greater school success, employability and self-esteem; less dependence assistance.	**4.75 to 1** due to lower costs of special education, public assistance and crime.
Chapter 1	Higher achievement and maintenance of gains in reading and mathematics.	Can be **6 to 1** by saving cost of repeating grade.
Special Education	Larger numbers of students receiving services and more services available.	Early action can later **save** school districts **$1,560** per disabled pupil.
Youth Employment and Training	Greater employability, wages, and income while in school and afterwards.	**1.5 to 1** in some research studies.

SOURCE: Committee for Economic Development, Children in Need: Investment Strategies for the Educationally Disadvantaged (New York, 1987).

The publication of *A Nation at Risk* and other reports with similar conclusions helped to stimulate a nationwide drive in the 1980s to improve public school education. Public school teacher salaries have been raised, standards of student performance tightened, procedures for teacher accountability instituted, and other measures taken. Yet, the reform movement in public school education has thus far had only a minor impact in BIA-operated schools and Indian education more broadly. The greatest attention with respect to minority education has thus far been directed to black and Hispanic students.

Indians collectively are less than one percent of the U.S. population. Moreover, most Indian children--around 90 percent--attend public schools. The BIA education system is thus a small part of American education and even of minority education. Today, BIA-operated and contract schools together have only about 38,000 students. Among all U.S. school systems, the BIA-funded school system ranked 83rd in total numbers of students in 1984, a little larger than the public school system of Corpus Christi, Texas, and a little smaller than the public school system of Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

Given the importance of BIA-funded schools in establishing the quality of life for individual tribal members and their tribes, the relatively small size of the BIA school system is no reason not to attempt to improve it. BIA education suffers from most of the problems and the poor results of minority education throughout America. If these problems are to be resolved, there must be gradual progress on many fronts, progress that will often be achieved classroom by classroom and school by school. The BIA education system is a small battleground in the movement to improve U.S. education, but it is by winning many such small battles that overall progress is made, for the benefit of the individual and the tribe. If the United States is to have a future work force adequate to the requirements of a technological age, it will have to make the necessary efforts and give the concentrated attention to those many schools--including the BIA schools--that are in dire need of help.

FOOTNOTES TO INTRODUCTION

1. National Commission on Excellence in Education, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform* (Washington, D.C., 1983).

2. Ibid., p. 1.

3. Ibid., p. 2.

4. Hudson Institute, prepared for the U.S. Department of Labor, *Workforce 2000: Work and Workers in the 21st Century* (Indianapolis, June 1987), p. 89.

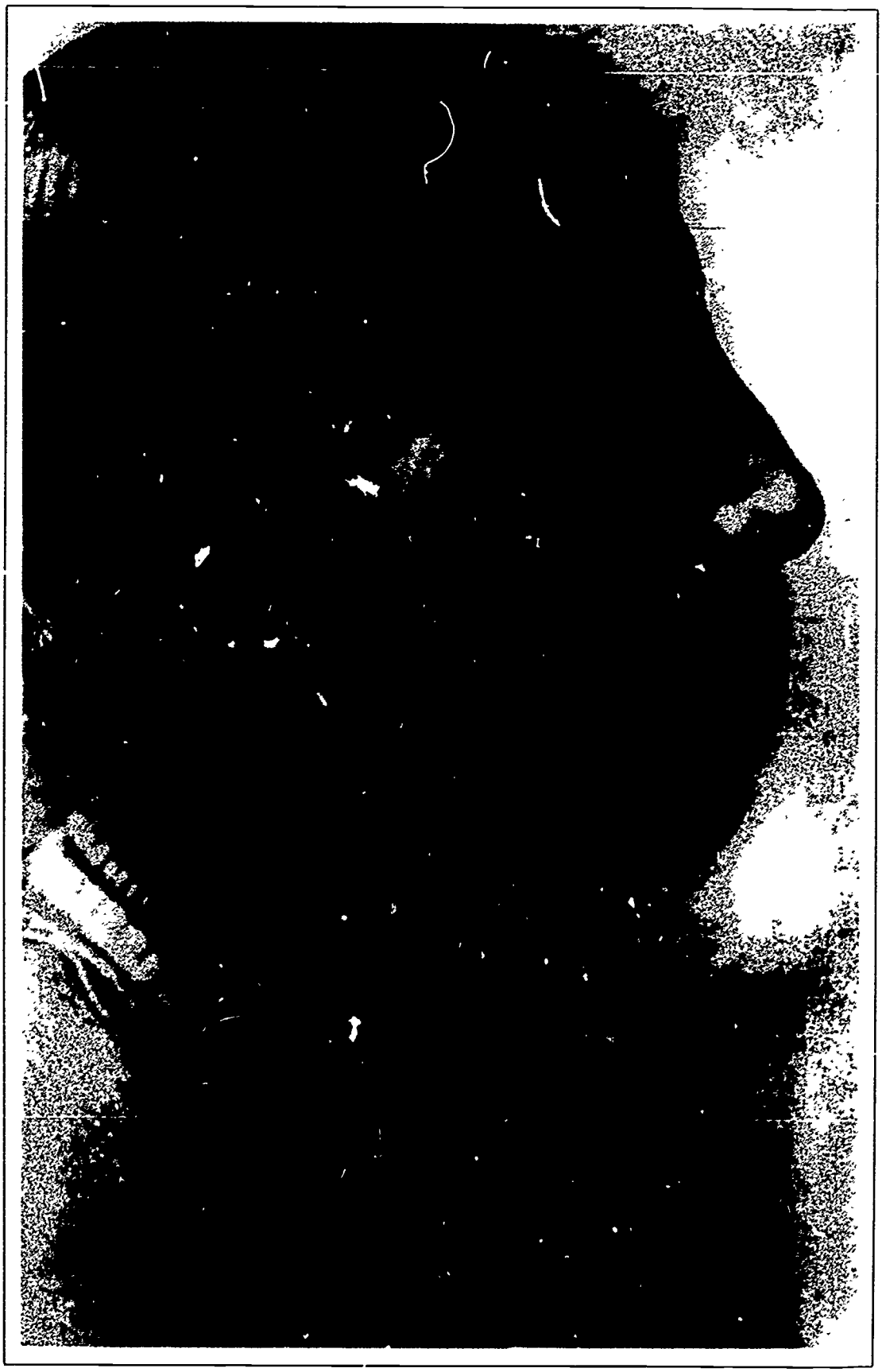
5. Ibid., p. 91.

6. Committee for Economic Development, *Children in Need: Investment Strategies for the Educationally Disadvantaged* (New York, 1987), p. 3.

7. Ibid., p. 9.

8. Ibid., pp. 4-5.

PART I THE CONDITION OF BIA EDUCATION



CHAPTER I

A Brief History of Indian Education

Long before the arrival of the first European to the shores of the Americas, Indian education was a reality--a time when Indian education effectively met the needs of Indians and was conducted entirely by Indians, an epoch of Indian self-determination. The foundation of Indian education evolved from the nuclear family where parents taught their children the necessary skills to survive in a subsistence lifestyle, to communicate with family members and to use social skills appropriately. With the aggregation of nuclear family units, the act of transmitting knowledge--education--became more complex. Families formed clans, bands, tribes and other kin and political groups where the responsibility for educating the culturally uninitiated young was often established along matrilineal or patrilineal descent lines. The focus of pre-European Indian education was to facilitate the child's acquisition of cultural knowledge necessary to meaningfully contribute to the overall socioeconomic welfare of the group, while also sharing their values, appropriate behaviors and language.

With the founding of the Jesuit Mission school, established in Cuba in 1568 to "civilize and Christianize" the Florida Indians, American Indian education entered a new phase.[1] In the seventeenth century the colleges of Harvard and William and Mary were created with a purpose in part to educate Indian children. King James I called upon the Anglican clergy to educate the "children of these barbarians in Virginia." By and large, however, the policy of the English was to keep Indians and European settlers separated from one another. Thus, the goal was not to assimilate Indians, but to keep them outside the bounds of existing Western civilization, pushed westward beyond the current frontier.

As the newly independent United States took control of its own affairs, it signed the first treaty providing for Indian education in 1794. In exchange for land of the Oneida, Tuscarora and Stockbridge Indian tribes, these tribes were granted a tax exemption and given assurances that they would receive education, medical care and other basic needs in perpetuity. In 1802, the Trade and Intercourse Act included the first formal statutory provision accepting a Federal responsibility for Indian education. With legislation passed on March 3, 1819, the Congress appropriated $10,000 annually for the purpose of "the civilization of the Indian tribes adjoining the frontier settlements" and for the further purpose "to instruct them in the mode of agriculture suited to their situation; and for teaching their children in reading, writing, and arithmetic." This

1819 Act established a formal legal basis for the future education efforts of the Indian Service (forerunner of the Bureau of Indian Affairs).

The funds provided under the Act of 1819 were not spent directly by the government, but were largely given to mission schools. Unlike the 1700s, the intent of the Act was eventual assimilation, which it was taken for granted involved two key elements, the inclusion of the Indian within the work force and the education of the Indian to white and Christian ways. A leading historian of U.S. Indian policy, Francis Prucha, writes that "to civilize meant to bring to a state of civility out of a state of rudeness and barbarism, to enlighten and refine. It meant at a minimum to lead persons who lived a natural life in the wilderness, relying upon hunting and gathering, to a state of society dependent upon agriculture and domestic arts (spinning and weaving); to this was added instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic, and the truths of the Christian religion."[2] Illustrating these attitudes, one missionary society stated its hopes for Indian education in 1823·

> Let then, missionary institutions, established to convey to them the benefits of civilization and the blessings of Christianity, be efficiently supported; and, with cheering hope, you may look forward to the period when the savage shall be converted into the citizen; when the hunter shall be transformed into the mechanic; when the farm, the work shop, the School-House, and the Church shall adorn every Indian village; when the fruits of Industry, good order and sound morals, shall bless every Indian dwelling; and when throughout the vast range of country from the Mississippi to the Pacific, the red man and the white man shall everywhere be found, mingling in the same benevolent and friendly feelings, fellow citizens of the same civil and religious community, and fellow-heirs to a glorious inheritance in the kingdom of Immanuel.[3]

Unlike the English earlier, the United States government viewed Indian education with a vision to assimilate the Indian fully into the white man's civilization. The desirability of this goal and the superiority of a white existence were not questioned.

Education on Reservations

Indian education entered yet another stage with the creation of the reservation system in the second half of the nineteenth century. The goal remained the same--assimilation of the Indian--but it was now pursued more systematically, requiring a growing bureaucracy to administer Indian education. The number of education employees of the Indian Service grew from 238 in 1881 to 1,936 in 1897. Expenditures of the Indian Service for education rose from $38,000 in 1874 to $2.0 million in 1895. The numbers of Indian students rose correspondingly from about 3,500 students in 137 government schools in 1878 to more than 10,000 students in 231 government schools in 1887. To be sure, the facilities available were still sufficient only to accommodate a small minority of all Indian children of school age.

Indian education remained closely linked to the goal of converting Indians to Christianity. Indeed, substantial numbers of Indians were educated with Federal financial assistance in missionary "contract schools." In 1883, the contract schools included 22 boarding (schools having dormitory facilities) and 16 day schools, receiving more than $250,000 in Federal assistance. Direct Federal funding of mission schools continued until quarreling among different religious bodies resulted in the ending of contract support in 1897.

At the turn of the century, government educators adapted a philosophy to remove as much influence and evidence of traditional Indian culture from the schools as possible. The use of Indian language was resisted and barred from the instructional programs--in some cases even outside the classroom. Boarding schools were advocated as a means of removing Indian children from the harmful influence of traditional Indian culture. The Federal government sought to pressure reluctant Indian parents into sending their children to boarding school, threatening them in some cases with denial of food rations or of annuity payments. The most famous boarding school was the Carlisle Indian Industrial School, founded by Richard Pratt in 1879. According to Prucha, Pratt believed in the "complete integration of the Indians into white society, and his whole program was geared to that good. Anything that tended to isolate or segregate the Indians [among themselves] was to him anathema."[4] Other famous Indian boarding schools were the Haskell Indian School (which still exists as Haskell Indian Junior College), founded in Kansas in 1878, and the Chemawa Indian School (also still in existence), founded in Oregon in 1880.

Indian education was strongly promoted by members of the "social gospel" reform movement, many of whom met annually to plot strategy at Lake Mohonk in New York State. An ordained Baptist minister, Thomas Morgan, was Commissioner of Indian Affairs from 1889 to 1893 and one of the more prominent leaders and advocates of Indian education. He believed in a Nation considered to be "one of the richest on the face of the earth, with an overflowing Treasury" that it was incumbent on the government to provide Indians with the means to enter the mainstream of American life. Education, along with economic development, were to be the main vehicles. Morgan in 1889 stated his views on the proper philosophy to guide Indian education--views that he was seeking at the time to implement as Commissioner:

> When we speak of the education of the Indians, we mean that comprehensive system of training and instruction which will convert them into American citizens, put within their reach the blessings which the rest of us enjoy, and enable them to compete successfully with the white man on his own ground and with his own methods. Education is to be the medium through which the rising generation of Indians are to be brought into fraternal and harmonious relationship with their white fellow-citizens, and with them enjoy the sweets of refined homes, the delight of social intercourse, the emoluments of commerce and trade, the advantages of travel, together with the pleasures that come from literature,

science, and philosophy, and the solace and stimulus afforded by a true religion.[5]

The two main vehicles for achieving assimilation, Indian education and Indian economic development, were linked in the Allotment Act of 1887 (Dawes Act). Reservation land not needed for allotment to individual Indians was to be disposed and the revenues used for the financing of the system of Indian education. Greater Indian education would provide the knowledge, skills and habits of behavior needed for economic success; in turn, the prospect of a good job would provide a key incentive for education.

Indian educators hoped that their efforts would be temporary. The Indian school system, if it were successful, should be self-liquidating, as Indians were brought into the mainstream of American life. However, events were to prove otherwise. The New Deal would bring formal government acceptance of a permanent status for Indian reservations and, correspondingly, a continuing Federal role in Indian education.

Education and Indian Cultural Pluralism

By the 1920s many critics were finding that allotment and other government strategies aimed at Indian assimilation were not having their intended effects. Allotment had resulted in the loss of about two-thirds of Indian land, yet had not produced the class of independent and self-sustaining Indian farmers that had been expected. Many Indians proved unwilling or unable to give up the Indian heritage and to adopt the beliefs and ways of non-Indian society. Many Indians remained on reservations where they suffered from cultural disorientation as reflected in high rates of poverty, poor health, chronic alcoholism, inadequate education and low self-esteem. The Bureau of Indian Affairs seemed unable to break the cycle of economic deprivation, low educational attainment, poor health and other such disabilities. In 1928 the Meriam Report, prepared by the Brookings Institution, provided a comprehensive analysis and extensive documentation of the failures of existing Indian policies.[6]

The self-confidence of Western society in its religious, scientific, economic and other beliefs had also been significantly eroded. The vast destruction that occurred in World War I seemed for many intellectuals to challenge past assumptions of automatic human progress under Western leadership. The new mood of self-doubt would play a major role in Indian affairs, undermining the previous certainty of the benefits of complete Indian assimilation and yielding a much greater acceptance and tolerance for Indian cultural diversity.

John Collier was the longest serving and most famous commissioner in the history of the BIA, occupying this position from 1933 to 1945. He was the architect of a basic reorientation of Federal policy towards Indians, affirmed by the Congress with the passage of the Indian Reorganization Act of 1934. Collier's views were formed in the 1920s and represented a drastic departure from the Indian reformers of the late 19th century. As one student of Collier writes:

> Important for the future of Indian policy among this group of intellectuals and reformers was John Collier, who discovered among the Pueblos of the Southwest the sense of community and harmony of life he thought White American industrial society lacked. After losing hope of re-establishing neighborhood communities and grassroots democracy among the immigrants and poor of New York City, ... Collier joined a group of intellectuals who, alienated from the business civilization of the 1920s, had fled to Taos, New Mexico, instead of Paris. There, ... Collier found hope for the survival of civilization in his rediscovery of the integrated primary social group and community lived by the "magical" Indians. He saw the Indians as repudiating the materialism, the secularism, and the fragmentation of modern White life under industrialism for a simpler, more beautiful way of life that emphasized the relationship of humans with one another, with the supernatural, and with land and nature. The integrated life of the Pueblos stood as a reproach to atomized modern civilization; and their harmonious, democratic ways a vital lesson to all White Americans. To Collier, the survival of this "Red Atlantis" into the modern era offered a hope for the future of the world in spite of industrialism. He romanticized the heritage of these folk societies as part of his alienation from his own "sick" times, and the Pueblos became his own personal countercultural utopia.[7]

In the past Indian education had sought to minimize the exposure of Indian children to Indian culture. That was a primary purpose of the boarding school, which removed the child from the direct influence of parents and the Indian community. One of Collier's first acts as BIA commissioner was to reverse this policy, redirecting Indian education to the use of community day schools. In his first year Collier either closed or converted to day use 10 schools that had been boarding schools. Between 1933 and 1941 the total number of day schools rose from 132 to 226, enrollment in day schools more than tripled, and the number of students in day schools in 1941 exceeded the number in boarding schools.

Collier and his Education Director, Willard Beatty, further sought to reform the teaching practices and curriculum of Indian education. They relaxed the rigid discipline and other practices of boarding schools that had been borrowed from the military. Vocational education was reoriented from the needs of urban job markets to provide skills that could be employed on reservations themselves, recognizing that many Indians eventually returned to the reservation. Courses were introduced in Indian history and culture. The Santa Fe Boarding School became the leader in providing training in art for Indian students. Although the practice and study of Indian religion had traditionally been strongly discouraged in Indian schools, official policy in this regard was reversed in the 1930s. To be sure, in all these areas changes came slowly, as many BIA educators clung to the assumptions and attitudes of the earlier era.

Another important development was the more favorable attitude towards Indian language introduced by Collier and his fellow New Dealers. They reversed previous policies against use of Indian languages in schools, sought teachers able to speak Indian languages, developed reading materials in tribal languages, and sought to introduce programs of bilingual education. Bilingual education exemplifies the pluralistic philosophy of the New Dealers. Indian education was not to provide a knowledge of Indian culture alone or of non-Indian culture alone, but to emphasize both. If successful, Indians should be prepared to function equally well in their own tribal societies and in non-Indian society, despite the great differences that often existed. As Margaret Szasz writes:

> Despite the pervasiveness of monocultural instruction, Beatty still believed that it was possible for the Indian Service to pursue a bicultural approach to education. It should be the "task" of Indian Service teachers, he asserted, to conserve the "original background of native culture when it exists," and "to introduce ... an economic and cultural understanding of ... white neighbors and associates." This dream was also shared by Commissioner Collier. Although Collier walked the thin line between proponents of assimilation and proponents of preservation of heritage, he too believed that the Indian could achieve a balance between these two seemingly contradictory ways of life.
>
> Beginning in his days as a reformer, Collier dedicated himself to defense of this principle. Three years after he took office, he wrote "Assimilation and preservation and intensification of heritage are not hostile choices, excluding one another, but are interdependent through and through." In concurrence with this statement one of the staff members at Haskell Institute described Collier's program as one that looked "both forward and backward." In other words, he said, "It looks backward and utilizes customs, tribal lore and history and looks to the future for an integration of these into the world of science and industry." Both Beatty and Collier recognized that their aims conflicted with almost all of the earlier goals of the Indian Service. However, at least in the 1930s, they did not seem to regard their goal--that the Indian child choose the best of both worlds --unattainable.[8]

Although the administrators of the BIA education system no longer sought Indian assimilation as an exclusive goal, other factors were moving towards greater emphasis on assimilation. By 1930, only 39 percent of the total enrollment of Indian children attended BIA schools. The majority, 53 percent, instead attended local public schools. The Federal government at first paid individual local schools and governments directly for part of the cost of Indian enrollments in public schools. Yet, dealing with many individual school districts was administratively cumbersome and complex. In 1934 the Johnson-O'Malley Act was enacted, providing for direct Federal contracts with State governments for the public school education of those Indian children living on non-taxable lands.

In 1950, Congress enacted broader legislation to provide Federal assistance to public schools that faced financial burdens as a result of the presence of non-taxable Federal lands and facilities. This Act was amended in 1953 to allow payment of "impact aid" to schools serving Indian students. By the 1960s, funding through impact aid had become the leading source of Federal support for public school education of Indians. For states receiving such funding, the Johnson-O'Malley program was limited to providing assistance in special curriculum and other program areas aimed specifically to meet Indian needs.

The plans of the New Deal reformers faced the great obstacle of having to overcome a long history of BIA education with contrary aims. Inevitably, there was great bureaucratic inertia and much resistance. While the New Dealers were able to implement some elements of their plans, their efforts were further short-circuited by World War II. When the war ended, a new mood was emerging in American politics. By the 1950s, there would be a return of government policy to the old aim of Indian assimilation and termination of the special trust relationship of tribes with the Federal government. The BIA, for example, in 1952 closed all its schools in the states of Idaho, Michigan, Washington, and Wisconsin. The long-term BIA goal in the 1950s was to transfer students, wherever possible, to public schools.

However, important efforts were also made in some areas to expand BIA schooling. In 1953, there were still 14,000 Navajo children not in school at all. In the 1950s the BIA, supported by increased Congressional funding, carried out an emergency program to redress this problem, in a few years succeeding in creating space for more than 10,000 additional Navajo children. The BIA also laid the groundwork for a major program of new school construction that was carried out in the early 1960s.

Education and Indian Self-Determination

Although the New Dealers had a much more favorable view of Indian culture, they were still like their predecessors in that the actual practices of Indian education were determined by the beliefs and policy decisions of non-Indians. The missionaries and other reformers of the 19th century had sought to do what they thought was best for the Indians; now Collier and his associates similarly sought to do what they thought was best. The difference was that the 19th century Christian reformers were certain that all men should live as they did; by contrast, Collier believed that a plurality of ways of living were equally valid and desirable for non-Indian and Indian alike. Neither Collier nor the 19th century reformers, however, made great efforts to find out what Indians themselves preferred. In fact, there would no doubt have been a considerable diversity of opinion among the many Indian tribes.

The distinguishing feature of the period since 1960 has been the drive to Indian self-determination. Indians have sought for the first time to take control of their own affairs, including the education of their children. The philosophy of self-determination prescribes that questions of assimilation, bicultural lifestyles, the values and beliefs taught in the schools, and many others should be resolved primarily within each tribal

community, rather than largely by outside forces. To be sure, movement towards self-determination has often been slow and gradual. In some cases the BIA has resisted the loss to tribes of its past role and authority in the oversight and operations of education programs. In other cases tribes themselves have been uncertain of their own administrative and other capabilities, causing them to be cautious in assuming command of their affairs. Tribes have also feared that with self-determination may come a demand that tribes pay their own way, that self-determination could lead to declining Federal financial support or could even be a disguised form of termination.

In the field of education a key step toward self-determination was the founding of the first federally-funded school whose management was contracted out to tribal managers. The Rough Rock Demonstration school was established in 1966 on the Navajo Reservation as a contract school, supported by the BIA and the Office of Economic Opportunity. The first college controlled by Indians was also established on the Navajo reservation, the Navajo Community College, founded in 1968. At the direction of President Johnson, the BIA sought to form school boards of Indian parents. While having only advisory responsibilities, such boards by 1969 were functioning in many BIA schools.

Along with the movement towards Indian self-determination, another major influence on Indian education in the 1960s was the Federal war on poverty. Certainly, the two were mutually reinforcing. The administrators of poverty programs proved more willing than the BIA had usually been to grant Indian control and management. The experience of participating in and controlling poverty programs encouraged Indian leadership to extend this approach to BIA programs and other areas of Indian affairs. The poverty programs also provided major infusions of funds to Indian reservations. For example, the enactment of Chapter 1 of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 provided significant new funds for the education of disadvantaged children, including many Indian children. In 1970, Chapter 1 provided $11.7 million in direct support of Indian education, a level of support which reached $24 million in 1987.

Senator Robert Kennedy and then, after his death, Senator Edward Kennedy, chaired the Senate Special Subcommittee on Indian Education. Its report, issued in 1969, constituted the most complete review of Indian education sponsored by the government since the Meriam Report. The Senate Report concluded that "our national policies for educating Indian children are a failure of major proportions. They have not offered Indian children--either in years past or today--an educational opportunity anywhere near to that offered the great bulk of American children." The Senate Report found that the curriculum, facilities, personnel and other aspects of Indian education fell far short of what was needed. It recommended much increased participation and control by Indians of the education of their children.

The poverty concerns, research studies and other groundwork laid in the 1960s spurred the enactment in the 1970s of three major pieces of legislation directed to improve the quality of Indian education. The first was the Indian Education Act of

1972 (P.L. 92-318). It established an Office of Indian Education in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (now located in the Department of Education), which created an important Federal role in overseeing Indian education for the first time outside BIA. Part A of the Indian Education Act established a set of per capita payments to be made to schools--public and BIA tribally contracted--for each Indian child. Parts B and C established a set of grant programs for the purpose of furthering bilingual education, culturally relevant curriculum and other special needs of Indian education. In 1975, $40.0 million was provided under the Indian Education Act in support of Indian education; spending under the Act reached $62.0 million in 1986. The Act also included new provisions for Indian participation and direction of government actions in several areas. Szasz writes that "Indian control ... was the major feature that distinguished [the Act] ... from earlier legislation."[9]

In 1975, Congress enacted another major piece of legislation affecting Indian education, the Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act (P.L. 93-638). Education was included within the broader scope of the Act providing for and encouraging the contracting out of BIA functions to Indian tribes themselves. The long run goal set by the Act was the assumption by the tribes of managerial and policymaking responsibilities for their own affairs. By 1987, Indian children in contract schools represented 27.8 percent of the total enrollment in BIA-funded schools.

The third major piece of education legislation in the 1970s was Title XI of the Education Amendments Act of 1978 (P.L. 95-561). This Act went further in promoting Indian self-determination, stating that "it shall be the policy of the Bureau, in carrying out the functions of the Bureau, to facilitate Indian control of Indian affairs in all matters relating to education." The Act also directed that BIA should fund schools according to an Indian school equalization formula designed to achieve an equitable distribution (now known as the ISEP formula, essentially a weighted per capita distribution). The 1978 Act mandated the development of a set of uniform education standards to be established for all BIA and contract schools. The hiring of teachers and other personnel was revised to put them on a direct contract basis with each school, effectively removing BIA education from many of the procedural and other requirements of the nationwide Federal civil service system. Local school boards of Indian parents were assigned to play a much expanded role in personnel decisions.

The 1978 Act also required the reorganization of the BIA with respect to the administration of its schools. The 12 BIA area offices, each located in an administrative region, were largely removed from a direct administrative role in the BIA education system. Instead, Congress instructed that the lines of authority should run from the school to the BIA Agency (education) and then to the Office of Indian Education Programs, located at BIA headquarters in Washington, D.C. The purpose of this change was to loosen the reins of tight control over education previously exercised by BIA Area offices, which critics believed had inhibited tribal efforts to achieve greater self-determination. Now, some tribes have accused several education Agency offices of being as unresponsive as Area offices.

mined at the tribal and individual school level with little operational oversight and control being provided at the national level. It must be emphasized that the BIA has at times been slow to recognize and adjust to these changing realities.

Yet, even in an era of self-determination, the Congress has shown that it is not willing to defer entirely to tribal prerogatives. It has required uniform Federal standards for all BIA-operated schools, which now include, for example, mandatory State certification for teachers in BIA-operated schools. The BIA itself has recently begun a nationwide program of testing of all students in the schools it funds. As long as the Federal government pays the bills, it is perhaps inevitable that some oversight--some demands for accountability to Federal administrators--will continue.

The future of the BIA education system may also be closely linked to the future of Indian education in public schools. The public schools could increase their already large role in Indian education. Alternatively, Indian education could move away from public schools and towards tribal education. Perhaps the movement for self-determination will eventually result in the development of tribal school systems. These systems might even come to be seen as Indian versions of the Departments of Education found in the states. Between these two possibilities, will there still remain a role in the long run for a system of education run by the BIA? Or will BIA perhaps become largely a grant-making and funding organization, one that is concerned primarily with the ways in which others spend its money?

The administrative and organizational requirements of the BIA education system will vary greatly, depending on the answers that are eventually reached to these issues. The final answers will be learned, however, more in the long run than the short run.

This report on BIA education is not intended to develop detailed prescriptions. It seeks to present materials and options that will serve the purposes of an informed discussion and continuing exchange of views among the many parties involved. The future of BIA education will not and cannot be resolved in any one set of decisions or even in the space of a few years. The current state of the BIA education system will be described and analyzed in this report and various options for the future presented and explored.

FOOTNOTES TO CHAPTER I

1. Information on the history of Indian education for Chapter I was obtained from a variety of sources:

> Robert F. Berkhofer, Jr., *The White Man's Indian: Images of the American Indian from Columbus to the Present* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1978);

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2. Cited in Prucha, *The Great Father,* p. 136.

CHAPTER II

Enrollment Trends in BIA Education

From 1880 to 1930

The creation of the reservation system in the late nineteenth century and the adoption of a policy of Indian assimilation led to a major expansion of the Indian education system. The new commitment to the education of indigenous Americans resulted in an increase of Federal expenditures for Indian education from $75,000 in 1880 to $1.37 million in 1890 and then to $2.94 million in 1900--an increase of 40 times in two decades. By 1930, Federal expenditures for Indian education reached $9.17 million, or $284 per Indian student (adjusted for inflation, the equivalent in 1986 dollars of $2,227 per student).

With increasing expenditures came increasing numbers of schools. As shown in Table 1, the number of Indian schools rose from 109 day schools and 60 boarding schools

TABLE 1

NUMBERS OF INDIAN SCHOOLS AND ENROLLMENTS OF INDIAN STUDENTS BY TYPE OF SCHOOL AND YEAR

Year	Number of Schools[1]			Federal Sch. Enrollment[2]			Mission & Private[3]	Public School[4]	All Schools
	Day	Boarding	Total	Day	Boarding	Total			
1880	109	60	169	N/A	N/A	7,000+	N/A	N/A	7,000+
1890	106	140	206	3,967	12,410	16,377	N/A	N/A	16,377
1900	154	153	307	5,120	19,810	24,930	1,275	246	26,451
1911[5]	227	156	383	6,121	19,912	26,033	2,739	10,625	39,397
1920	204	143	347	5,765	21,659	27,424	3,518	30,858	61,800
1930	150	136	286	3,983	28,333	32,316	3,358	34,775	70,449

[1]Federally-administered schools plus mission and private Indian schools, with and without Federal contracts.
[2]Federally-administered plus mission and private schools with Federal contracts.
[3]Mission and private Indian schools without Federal contracts.
[4]Indian students attending public schools and living within the administrative jurisdictions of the Bureau of Indian Affairs.
[5]Data for 1911 used because comparable 1910 data were unavailable.

Source: Annual Reports of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, U.S. Department of the Interior.

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in 1880 to 227 day schools and 156 boarding schools in 1911. Subsequently, the total number of schools declined to 286 in 1930, largely because of consolidations that increased the average number of students per school. The enrollment of Indians in Federally-funded schools (both those directly operated by the Federal government and those supported by Federal contracts) rose most sharply from 1880 to 1900--as seen in Table 1, from 7,000+ students to 24,930 students in those two decades. Thereafter, Indian enrollment in Federal schools rose much more gradually, reaching a level of 32,316 students in 1930.

However, because public schools began to absorb large numbers of Indian students, total Indian enrollments continued to rise sharply. From a very few students at the turn of the century, Indian enrollment in public schools (among Indians living in areas of BIA service responsibility) climbed to 34,775 students by 1930. There was also a small growth in enrollment of Indians in mission and private schools. Thus, by 1930 the total Indian enrollment had reached 70,449 students, about 10 times what it had been a half century earlier. Indian enrollment was divided about equally between Federal and public schools--with a further contribution of about 5 percent from mission and private schools (those without Federal contracts).

As a result of this expansion of Indian education, the number of Indian children classified by the government as eligible for school, but nevertheless not in school, declined from 27,814 children in 1911 to 12,802 children in 1930. Relative to the total population of eligible Indian children, the percentage not in school declined from 41 percent in 1911 to 15 percent in 1930.

From 1930 to 1988

A new era in Indian policy and Indian education commenced with the New Deal. Indian education shifted to try to meet new policy goals, putting a greater emphasis on serving the needs of reservation life. The new era also brought changes in statistical procedures for reporting of school enrollments and other educational matters. After 1930 annual BIA reports ceased to show numbers of schools (until 1952) and also ceased to show contract schools (until 1973).

As seen in Table 2, the total number of schools in the BIA system (outside Alaska) was almost the same in 1952 as it had been in 1930. There was a shift between 1930 and 1952 towards a greater proportion of day schools relative to boarding schools. After 1952, the total number of schools fell to 141 in 1970, including 68 day schools and 73 boarding schools. In subsequent years the total number of BIA and contract schools rose somewhat, in the years from 1975 to 1988 remaining at levels between 150 and 175 schools (excluding dormitories as well as Alaska schools).

Table 2 (and most of following tables in this chapter) excludes Alaska schools in order to maintain comparability with the current BIA school system. The State of Alaska assumed responsibility in the early 1980s for Alaska Native education in the State, leaving no BIA or federally-contracted schools there. As recently as 1979, there had

TABLE 2

NUMBERS OF BIA-FUNDED ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS
BY TYPE AND YEAR, EXCLUDING PERIPHERAL DORMITORIES AND ALASKA SCHOOLS

Year	BIA-Operated Schools[1]			Contract Schools[2]			BIA-Funded Schools			Percent Contract		
	Day	Boarding	Total	Day	Boarding	Total	Day	Boarding	Total	Day	Boarding	All Schools
1930	131	80	211[3]	0	22	22	131	102	233	0	21.57	9.44
1952	140	72	212[3]	N/A	N/A	N/A	140	72	212	N/A	N/A	N/A
1960	105	74	179	N/A	N/A	N/A	105	74	179	N/A	N/A	N/A
1965	83	75	158	N/A	N/A	N/A	83	75	158	N/A	N/A	N/A
1970	68	73	141	N/A	N/A	N/A	68	73	141	N/A	N/A	N/A
1973	63	71	134	8	4	12	71	75	146	11.27	5.33	8.22
1974	63	72	135	9	4	13	72	76	148	12.50	5.26	8.78
1975	63	72	135	10	5	15	73	77	150	13.70	6.49	10.00
1976	64	70	134	11	9	20	75	79	154	14.67	11.39	12.99
1977	63	65	128	17	10	27	80	75	155	21.25	13.33	17.42
1978	61	64	125	22	12	34	83	76	159	26.51	15.79	21.38
1979	62	64	126	21	13	34	83	77	160	25.30	16.88	21.25
1980	67	53	120	31	7	38	98	60	158	31.63	11.67	24.05
1981	63	54	117	41	7	48	104	61	165	39.42	11.48	29.09
1982	62	55	117	48	9	57	110	64	174	43.64	14.06	32.76
1983	61	55	116	49	9	58	110	64	174	44.55	14.06	33.33
1984	59	54	113	50	9	59	109	63	172	45.87	14.29	34.30
1985	57	50	107	50	11	61	107	61	168	46.73	18.03	36.31
1986	56	49	105	51	10	61	107	59	166	47.66	16.95	36.75
1987	56	46	102	54	11	65	110	57	167	49.09	19.30	38.92
1988	57	46	103	54	11	65	111	57	168	48.65	19.30	38.69

[1]The years 1940 and 1950 could not be shown because BIA annual reports did not give numbers of schools in these years. All Alaska, postsecondary schools and peripheral dormitories are excluded. Schools with mixes of boarding and day students shown as boarding schools.

[2]Following 1930, BIA did not report numbers of contract schools until 1973. In 1930, contracts were signed for Indian education with mission and private schools. The first contract with an Indian group was signed in 1966. Contract schools reported in 1973 and subsequent years involve contracts with Indian groups.

[3]The 1930 and 1952 BIA counts of schools may be higher than the correct totals, as the source does not contain a separate count for dormitories.

Sources: Data obtained from BIA unpublished sources (FY 1980-88); Basic Statistics Concerning Indian Education (FY 1952-1979); Annual Reports of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs (FY 1930,1940). All Alaska schools, postsecondary schools and dormitories are excluded.

TABLE 3

NUMBERS OF INDIAN CHILDREN ATTENDING BIA-FUNDED ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS, EXCLUDING PERIPHERAL DORMITORIES AND ALASKA SCHOOLS

Year	BIA-Operated Schools [1]			Enrollment in Contract Schools [2]			BIA-Funded Schools			Percent Contract		
	Day	Boarding	Total	Day	Boarding	Total	Day	Boarding	Total	Day	Boarding	All Students
1930[3]	3,649	21,416	25,065	0	2,727	2,727	3,649	24,143	27,792	0	11.30	9.81
1940[3]	15,917	11,419	27,336	N/A	N/A	N/A	15,917	11,419	27,336	N/A	N/A	N/A
1952	12,541	15,806	28,347	N/A	N/A	N/A	12,541	15,806	28,347	N/A	N/A	N/A
1960	10,729	18,684	29,413	N/A	N/A	N/A	10,729	18,684	29,413	N/A	N/A	N/A
1965	11,235	24,051	35,286	N/A	N/A	N/A	11,235	24,051	35,286	N/A	N/A	N/A
1970[4]	12,961	23,248	36,209	N/A	N/A	N/A	12,961	23,248	36,209	N/A	N/A	N/A
1973	14,363	19,169	33,532	1,799	500	2,299	16,162	19,669	35,831	11.13	2.54	6.42
1974	14,229	18,804	33,033	1,896	573	2,469	16,125	19,377	35,502	11.76	2.96	6.95
1975	12,605	16,712	29,317	1,918	881	2,799	14,523	17,593	32,116	13.21	5.01	8.72
1976	15,449	19,223	34,672	2,890	924	3,814	18,339	20,147	38,486	15.76	4.59	9.91
1977	16,168	17,463	33,631	5,371	1,176	6,547	21,539	18,639	40,178	24.94	6.31	16.29
1978	16,528	17,054	33,582	5,380	1,318	6,698	21,908	18,372	40,280	24.56	7.17	16.63
1979	17,055	15,844	32,899	5,066	1,346	6,412	22,121	17,190	39,311	22.90	7.83	16.31
1980	N/A	N/A	29,928	5,002	1,784	6,786	N/A	N/A	36,714	N/A	N/A	18.48
1981	N/A	N/A	29,074	5,687	1,819	7,506	N/A	N/A	36,580	N/A	N/A	20.52
1982	15,692	14,297	29,989	7,319	1,268	8,587	23,011	15,565	38,576	31.80	8.15	22.25
1983	16,484	14,004	30,488	7,519	1,324	8,843	24,003	15,328	39,331	31.32	8.64	22.48
1984	17,637	13,596	31,233	7,447	1,273	8,720	25,084	14,869	39,953	29.68	8.56	21.82
1985	16,136	12,394	29,530	7,789	2,185	9,974	24,925	14,579	39,504	31.24	14.98	25.24
1986	17,412	11,216	28,628	7,865	1,982	9,847	25,277	13,198	38,475	31.11	15.01	25.59
1987	17,758	9,870	27,628	8,564	2,080	10,644	26,322	11,950	38,272	32.53	17.40	27.80
1988	17,589	9,126	26,715	9,064	2,138	11,202	26,653	11,264	37,917	34.00	19.00	29.54

[1] All Alaska, postsecondary students and BIA peripheral dormitory residents attending public schools are excluded. Based on student attendance as counted during offical count weeks. Prior to 1976, based on average daily attendance (ADA). Boarding attendance includes actual boarders only. Day students at boarding schools are counted as day students.

[2] Contract enrollment for 1930 consists of contracted mission and private schools. BIA sources do not show contract enrollment in 1940 and following years until 1973. Contract enrollment in 1973 and subsequent years involves contracts with Indian groups. The first such contract was signed in 1966.

[3] The 1930 and 1940 references (see sources) do not show separate enrollment counts for dormitories. As a result, the 1930 and 1940 Boarding BIA count may include some children living in BIA dormitories and attending public school.

[4] BIA enrollment for 1970 includes a small but unknown number of students in contract schools.

Sources: Data obtained from BIA unpublished sources (FY 1980-88); BIA Statistics Concerning Indian Education (FY 1952-1979); Annual Reports of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs (FY 1930, 1940).

percent of all boarding students. Overall, 30 percent of the students in the BIA-funded system were enrolled in contract schools.

Boarding schools include both day students and those who actually reside at the boarding school, living in dormitory facilities. In 1979, for example, there were 22,302 students enrolled in BIA-operated boarding schools outside Alaska. However, only 15,844 were actually boarding students who lived at the school. The remaining 6,458 students attended the boarding school during the day, but lived at home.

The numbers of boarding students shown in Table 3 represent actual boarders who lived in residence facilities at the school. Reflecting a BIA policy to promote day schools, the number of boarding students has declined steadily. In 1965, there were 24,051 boarding students in BIA-funded schools, a figure which fell to 18,372 in 1978, to 15,328 in 1983, and most recently to 11,264 in 1988. Boarding students have declined from 68 percent of students in 1965 to 30 percent of students in BIA-funded schools in 1988.

At the same time, the numbers of day students have risen from 11,235 in 1965 to 26,653 day students in 1988. Day students in 1988 represented 70 percent of total enrollment, compared with less than 50 percent as recently as 1976.

The great majority of boarding schools are located on reservations and serve reservation students. However, there were seven off-reservation boarding schools operating in 1987, survivors from an era when off-reservation boarding schools were a main component of BIA education. The total 1987 enrollment in off-reservation boarding schools was 2,647 students. In off-reservation boarding schools such as Chemawa High School in Oregon and Sherman High School in California, almost all the students come from other states and there is a great mix of tribal origins and backgrounds.

The Distribution of Schools and Students in 1987

The evolution of the BIA system of education has resulted in a system concentrated in four states: Arizona, New Mexico, North Dakota and South Dakota. In 1987, 31,794 students were enrolled in these four states in the system of BIA-funded schools--83 percent of the total enrollment of this system. As shown in Table 4, Arizona alone contained 13,390 students in BIA-funded schools, equal to 35 percent of all students in such schools. New Mexico contained 9,448 students or 25 percent of the students in the BIA-funded system. South Dakota contained 5,611 students, or 15 percent of the BIA-funded system, and North Dakota contained 3,345 students or 9 percent of the BIA-funded system. Only 10 percent of enrollment in the BIA-funded system was found east of the Mississippi River.

The Navajo Tribe had more students enrolled in 1987 in BIA-funded schools than any other tribe. Indeed, fully 43 percent of all students in the BIA system were from the Navajo Tribe 9,756 students in Arizona and 6,651 students in New Mexico. Ex-

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TABLE 4

FY 1987 TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN BIA-FUNDED SCHOOLS, BY GRADE AND REGION[1]

Region	BIA-Operated			Contract			Cooperative			Total BIA-Funded		
	K-8	9-12	All Grades	K-8	9-12	All Grades	K-8	9-12	All Grades	K-8	9-12	All Grades
Navajo AZ	7,544	469	8,013	1,076	667	1,743	0	0	0	8,620	1,136	9,756
Other AZ	2,272	792	3,064	425	0	425	145	0	145	2,842	792	3,634
Total AZ	**9,816**	**1,261**	**11,077**	**1,501**	**667**	**2,168**	**145**	**0**	**145**	**11,462**	**1,928**	**13,390**
Pueblo NM	1,947	0	1,947	142	341	483	0	0	0	2,089	341	2,430
Navajo NM	4,879	816	5,695	535	421	956	0	0	0	5,414	1,237	6,651
Other NM	0	0	0	257	110	367	0	0	0	257	110	367
Total NM	**6,826**	**816**	**7,642**	**934**	**872**	**1,806**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**7,760**	**1,688**	**9,448**
South Dakota	849	838	1,687	1,873	728	2,601	1,034	289	1,323	3,756	1,855	5,611
North Dakota	748	164	912	603	419	1,022	1,377	34	1,411	2,728	617	3,345
Other West	345	1,080	1,425	748	475	1,223	0	0	0	1,093	1,555	2,648
East (of MS River)	1,574	533	2,107	1,188	545	1,733	0	0	0	2,762	1,078	3,840
All Regions	**20,158**	**4,692**	**24,850**	**6,847**	**3,706**	**10,553**	**2,556**	**323**	**2,879**	**29,561**	**8,721**	**38,282**

[1]Numbers of students shown include only Instructional enrollment (Peripheral dormitory residents are excluded). No Alaska schools included in count as all Alaska Federal schools were closed down by 1985. The total Federal enrollment of 38,282 above differs from BIA's total Federal enrollment of 38,285 (used for BIA funding purposes). The discrepancy is due to the non-indication by a few students of their sex in the BIA count, affecting the data base used in this table which counts individual students by sex and grade.

Source: Comprehensive BIA Schools Report (FY 1987).

cluding contract and cooperative schools, the Navajo Tribe by itself contained the majority--55 percent--of the total students in schools directly operated by the BIA in 1987. Even though the first modern contract school was located on the Navajo Reservation, the Navajo Tribe had only 26 percent of the total 1987 enrollment in contract schools.

Among the four major states, the highest rate of contracting in 1987 was found in South Dakota, where 46 percent of students in the BIA-funded system attended a contract school. Contract schools in 1987 contained 16 percent of the BIA system enrollment in Arizona, 19 percent in New Mexico, and 27 percent in North Dakota. Enrollment in a contract school was also much more likely in grades nine through twelve ("9-12" schools) than in kindergarten through grade eight ("K-8"). Contract schools represented 42 percent of the former, as compared with 23 percent of the latter.

However, the BIA system as a whole serves relatively greater numbers of students in grades K-8. Many students go on to a public school after graduating from a BIA or contract elementary school. Thus, in 1987, grades K-8 contained 77 percent of all the students in the BIA-funded system. Within schools administered directly by the BIA, grades K-8 contained 81 percent of all students. Although elementary and secondary Pueblo students constitute 8 percent of the total students in BIA-operated schools, there were no BIA-operated schools for grades 9-12 designed specifically to serve Pueblo students and only one such contract school.

Cooperative schools, BIA school programs sharing resources with nearby public schools, in 1987 were found mainly in North Dakota and South Dakota. In North Dakota students attending cooperative schools represented 42 percent of total Indian enrollment in the BIA-funded system. Given the substantial use of contract schools in these states, the schools operated directly by the BIA contained only 30 percent of South Dakota students in the BIA system and 27 percent of North Dakota students.

As shown in Table 5, there were 7,678 Navajo students attending boarding schools in 1987, representing 47 percent of all Navajo students--as compared with 31 percent of all students in the BIA-funded system. Navajo boarding students constituted fully 64 percent of all boarding students. By contrast, only 19 percent of Pueblo students attended boarding schools in 1987. Fewer boarding students also are found in the Dakotas--22 percent in South Dakota and 9 percent in North Dakota.

At younger ages, Indian children are more likely to attend a BIA-operated school rather than a contract school, and this school is more likely to be a day school. Thus, as shown in Table 6, a total of 8,234 students were attending a BIA-operated day school in 1987 in grades K-3--representing 22 percent of all students in BIA-funded schools. Day students constituted 85 percent of the total enrollment of students in grades K-3 in BIA-funded schools. By contrast, for grades 9-12, day students constituted 44 percent of the total BIA enrollment, while boarding students represented

TABLE 5

1987 TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN BIA-FUNDED SCHOOLS, BY TYPE OF SCHOOL AND REGION[1]

Region	BIA-Operated			Contract			Cooperative			Total BIA-Funded		
	Day	Boarding	Total	Day	Boarding	Total	Day	Boarding	Total	Day	Boarding	Total
Navajo AZ	4,135	3,878	8,013	998	745	1,743	0	0	0	5,133	4,623	9,756
Other AZ	2,450	614	3,064	425	0	425	76	69	145	2,951	683	3,634
Total AZ	6,585	4,492	11,077	1,423	745	2,168	76	69	145	8,084	5,306	13,390
Pueblo NM	1,947	0	1,947	26	457	483	0	0	0	1,973	457	2,430
Navajo NM	2,834	2,861	5,695	762	194	[illegible]	0	0	0	3,596	3,055	6,651
Other NM	0	0	0	300	67	367	0	0	0	300	67	367
Total NM	4,781	2,861	7,642	1,088	718	1,806	0	0	0	5,869	3,579	9,448
South Dakota	978	[illegible]	1,687	2,191	410	2,601	1,186	137	[illegible] 323	4,355	1,256	5,611
North Dakota	615	297	912	1,022	0	1,022	1,411	0	1,411	3,048	297	3,345
Other West	171	1,254	1,425	1,010	213	1,223	0	0	0	1,181	1,467	2,648
East (of MS River)	2,041	66	2,107	1,733	0	1,733	0	0	0	3,774	66	3,840
All Regions	15,171	9,679	24,850	8,467	2,000	10,553	2,673	206	2,879	26,311	11,971	38,282

[1]Numbers of students shown include only instructional enrollment (Peripheral dormitory residents are excluded). No Alaska schools included in count as all Alaska Federal schools were closed down by June 1985. The total Federal enrollment of 38,282 above differs from BIA's total Federal enrollment of 38,285 (used for BIA funding purposes). The discrepancy is due to the non-indication by a few students of their sex in the BIA count, affecting the data base used in [illegible]able which counts individual students by sex and grade.

Source: Comprehensive BIA Schools [illegible]port (FY 1987)

TABLE 6

NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN 1987 IN BIA-FUNDED SCHOOLS, BY GRADE AND TYPE OF SCHOOL[1]

Number of Students

Type of School	K-3	4-8	9-12	All Grades
Day BIA-Operated	8,234	5,673	1,264	15,171
Boarding BIA-Operated	2,140	4,111	3,428	9,679
All BIA-Operated	**10,374**	**9,784**	**4,692**	**24,850**
Day Contract	3,253	2,874	2,340	8,467
Boarding Contract	128	592	1,366	2,086
All Contract	**3,381**	**3,466**	**3,706**	**10,553**
Day Cooperative	1,299	1,103	271	2,673
Boarding Cooperative	54	100	52	206
All Cooperative	**1,353**	**1,203**	323	2,879
Total Day	12,786	9,650	3,875	26,311
Total Boarding	2,322	4,803	4,846	11,971
All Students	**15,108**	**14,453**	**8,721**	38,282

[1]Numbers of students shown include only instructional enrollment (excludes peripheral dormitory residents). No Alaska schools included in count as all Alaska Federal schools were closed down by June 1985. The total Federal enrollment of 38,282 above differs from BIA's total Federal enrollment of 38,285 (used for BIA funding purposes). The discrepancy is due to the non-indication by a few students of their sex in the BIA count, affecting the data base used in this table which counts individual students by sex and grade.

Source: Comprehensive BIA Schools Report (FY 1987)

56 percent of the enrollment. For grades 9-12, only 54 percent of the students in the BIA-funded system attended a BIA-operated school.

Table 7 shows the number of students in 1987 for each grade within BIA-funded schools. In BIA-operated schools the largest number of students attend the first grade, equal to 12 percent of all enrollment in BIA-operated schools. By contrast, the enrollment in the 12th grade is only 4 percent of the total enrollment in BIA-operated schools. The sharp decline in BIA enrollment from the 1st grade to the 12th grade reflects two main influences. First, many Indian students drop out of school altogether before the 12th grade. Second, many other students who begin their education in a BIA school eventually transfer elsewhere, in most cases to a public school.

The largest number of Indian students in contract schools attend kindergarten, equal to 10 percent of all enrollment in contract schools. The falloff in enrollment in later grades is much less dramatic in contract schools, as compared with BIA-operated schools.

For almost every grade and type of school, there are slightly more male students than female students in BIA-funded schools. The reasons for this difference are presently unknown.

Indian Students in Public Schools

The system of BIA-funded schools represents only a limited part of the overall system of Indian education in the United States. The public schools play a major role in Indian education. Indeed, as shown in Table 8, the role of the public schools has increased steadily over time. Public school enrollment in areas of BIA service responsibility was 34,775 in 1930, rose to 77,262 by 1960, and reached 127,952 in 1977 (the last year for which BIA reported such figures). While enrollment in BIA-funded schools rose by 10,207 students from 1930 to 1977, the public schools in nearby areas were gaining 93,177 students.

As Table 9 shows, the percentage of enrollment by Indian students in BIA-funded schools fell from 38.8 percent in 1930 to 22.5 percent in 1977. Over the same period, Indian students attending public schools within BIA areas of service responsibility rose from 41.8 percent of all students to 67.7 percent. The share of mission and other private schools never rose above 10 percent in the years from 1930 to 1977. By 1977, the entire system of BIA-funded, public school and private education was covering almost all Indian children. Only 4.1 percent were eligible for schooling but lacked access to schools.

The enrollment data contained in Tables 8 and 9 encompass only areas of BIA service responsibility. However, a growing number of Indian families live in urban areas and in states where BIA has no responsibilities. The great majority of Indian students from these families attend public schools. When Indian enrollment in public schools

TABLE 7

NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN 1987 IN BIA-FUNDED SCHOOLS,
BY SEX, GRADE AND TYPE OF SCHOOL[1]

Number of Students

Sex of Student and School	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	All Grades
Male, BIA-Operated	1,325	1,470	1,244	1,256	1,117	1,129	989	884	874	870	641	461	447	12,707
Female, BIA-Operated	1,303	1,427	1,208	1,141	1,136	1,010	990	827	828	738	598	507	430	12,143
All BIA-Operated	**2,628**	**2,879**	**2,452**	**2,397**	**2,253**	**2,139**	**1,979**	**1,711**	**1,702**	**1,608**	**1,239**	**968**	**877**	**24,850**
Male, Contract	561	434	376	332	359	326	290	417	394	573	484	450	399	5,395
Female, Contract	526	401	385	366	303	330	318	355	374	522	508	394	376	5,158
All Contract	**1,087**	**835**	**761**	**698**	**662**	**656**	**608**	**772**	**768**	**1,095**	**992**	**844**	**775**	**10,553**
Male, Cooperative	186	217	166	160	148	146	126	108	88	69	48	24	28	1,514
Female, Cooperative	169	172	147	136	150	128	125	78	106	63	33	32	26	1,365
All Cooperative	**355**	**389**	**313**	**296**	**298**	**274**	**251**	**186**	**194**	**132**	**81**	**56**	**54**	**2,879**
Total Male	2,072	2,121	1,786	1,748	1,624	1,601	1,405	1,409	1,356	1,512	1,173	935	874	19,616
Total Female	1,998	2,000	1,740	1,643	1,589	1,468	1,433	1,260	1,308	1,323	1,139	933	832	18,666
All Students	**4,070**	**4,121**	**3,526**	**3,391**	**3,213**	**3,069**	**2,838**	**2,669**	**2,664**	**2,835**	**2,312**	**1,868**	**1,706**	**38,282**

[1]Numbers of students shown include only instructional enrollment (excludes dormitory residents). No Alaska schools included in count as all Alaska Federal schools closed down by June 1985. The total Federal enrollment of 38,282 above differs from BIA's total Federal enrollment of 38,285 (used for BIA funding purposes). The discrepancy is due to the non-indication by a few students of their sex in the BIA count, affecting the data base used in this table which counts individual students by sex and grade.

Source: Comprehensive BIA Schools Report (FY 1987)

TABLE 8

ENROLLMENT OF INDIAN CHILDREN WITHIN BIA AREAS OF SERVICE RESPONSIBILITY, AGES 6 TO 18, EXCLUDING ALASKA SCHOOLS

Year	Federal Schools[1]	Public Schools[2]	Other Schools[3]	Not in School[4]	Total Number of Children
1930	32,316	34,775	3,358	12,802	83,251
1940	26,831	35,507	6,943	9,022	78,303
1952	31,133	48,203	8,867	N/A	N/A
1955	35,101	59,631	9,917	9,003	113,652
1960	32,179	77,262	10,388	7,989	127,818
1965	36,266	73,876	7,850	7,991	125,983
1970	40,633	113,647	10,439	11,084	175,803
1975	41,844	116,008	9,941	10,877	178,670
1977	42,523	127,952	10,724	7,678	188,877

[1]BIA-operated and contract schools. Differences between Table 3 and Table 8 reflect use of actual attendance data in Table 3, while Table 8 shows recorded enrollments.
[2]Indian children attending public school and living within areas of BIA service responsibility.
[3]Mission and other private schools.
[4]Indian children eligible for schooling who lacked access to school. Does not include children who dropped out of school.

Sources: Annual Reports of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs (FY 1930, 1940); BIA Statistics Concerning Indian Education (FY 1952-1977). Note: the BIA ceased reporting the data shown in this table after 1977.

TABLE 9

PERCENTAGES OF INDIAN CHILDREN ATTENDING FEDERAL, PUBLIC AND OTHER SCHOOLS WITHIN BIA AREAS OF RESPONSIBILITY

AGES 6 TO 18, EXCLUDING ALASKA SCHOOLS

Year	Federal Schools[1]	Public Schools[2]	Other Schools[3]	Not in School[4]
1930	38.8%	41.8%	4.0%	15.4%
1940	34.3	45.4	8.7	11.5
1955	30.9	52.5	8.7	7.9
1960	25.2	60.5	8.1	6.2
1965	28.8	58.6	6.2	6.3
1970	23.1	64.6	5.9	6.3
1977	22.5	67.7	5.7	4.1

[1]BIA-operated and contract schools.
[2]Indian children attending public school and living within areas of BIA service responsibility..
[3]Includes mission and other private schools.
[4]Indian students eligible for schooling who lacked access to schools. Does not include children who dropped out of school.

Source: See Table 8.

all across the nation is considered, the educational role of the system of BIA-funded schools is seen to be still smaller.

Data on nationwide Indian enrollment in public schools was not available until 1968. However, beginning then, the Office of Civil Rights in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (now in the Department of Education) has published results of a nationwide survey every two years on the enrollment of minority students in public and private schools. (BIA-funded schools are not included in the survey.) As shown in Table 10, in 1968 there were a total of 177,463 Indian students in the public and private schools of the United States. In subsequent years, Indian enrollment in these schools rose steadily, climbing to 288,262 Indian students in 1976 and then to 353,462 Indian students in 1986.

Given only limited growth of enrollment in the system of BIA-funded schools, this system now plays only a small role in educating the Indian children of the United States, as many Indian families have left (and are leaving) reservations to seek employment in off-reservation communities. As seen in Table 10, the BIA-funded system contained 22.5 percent of Indian students as recently as 1968. However, by 1986, Indian enrollment in BIA-funded schools was less than 10 percent of the nationwide enrollment of Indian children.

In individual states, nevertheless, BIA-funded schools continue to play a significantly greater role in Indian education. Yet, even in these states, the BIA-funded system has become less important over the years, and public (and private) schools have taken on a larger responsibility for the provision of Indian education. For example, as shown in Table 11, BIA-funded schools in Arizona provided the education for more than 50 percent of Arizona Indian students as recently as 1968. Then, in the next ten years, Indian enrollment in public and private schools in Arizona more than doubled, while enrollment in BIA-funded schools declined by 8 percent. As a result, by 1978 the share of the BIA system in Indian education had fallen from above 50 percent to below 30 percent. For the years 1980 to 1984, data for Indian enrollment in Arizona public and private schools is distorted by revised sampling procedures. However, the 1986 survey by the Office of Civil Rights in the U.S. Department of Education returned to the procedures employed in 1978 and earlier years. In 1986, BIA-funded schools served only 28 percent of the total Indian enrollment in Arizona.

In New Mexico, the system of BIA-funded schools played a smaller role in Indian education in 1968, containing 33 percent of Indian enrollment. As shown in Table 12, in subsequent years there have been only slight changes in the roles of public and private versus BIA-funded schools in the education of New Mexico Indian students. Thus, BIA-funded schools in New Mexico contained 28 percent of Indian enrollment in both 1978 and in 1986. By 1986, Arizona and New Mexico were comparable in this regard.

The trends in state and Federal roles in Indian education also differ significantly in North Dakota compared with South Dakota. As shown in Table 13, North Dakota--

TABLE 10

TOTAL INDIAN ENROLLMENT IN U.S. ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION, BY TYPE OF SCHOOL

Year	Public and Private Schools[1]	BIA-Funded Schools[2]	All Schools	Percent BIA-Funded
1968	177,463	51,448	228,911	22.48
1970	197,245	52,098	249,343	20.89
1972	232,765	53,646	286,411	18.73
1974	288,208	49,524	337,732	14.66
1976	288,262	45,609	333,871	13.66
1978	329,430	41,324	370,754	11.15
1980	305,730[3]	41,604	347,334	11.98
1982	N/A	40,773	N/A	N/A
1984	364,313[3]	40,693	405,006	10.05
1986	353,462[4]	38,475	391,937	9.82

[1]Does not include BIA-funded schools.
[2]BIA-operated and contract schools. Excludes BIA dormitory counts. Prior to 1980, based on enrollment counts taken that were defined and calculated differently from determining average daily attendance (ADA).
[3]Government sampling procedures employed in 1980, 1982, and 1984 were modified from earlier years and were not designed to yield a representative sample of Indian students. As a result, no projections of Indian students could be made in 1982, and the 1980 and 1984 projections contain abnormally large standard errors.
[4]Preliminary.

Sources: U.S. Department of Education. Office of Civil Rights Survey 1968-1986 (Public and Private School data); BIA FY 1968-78 Statistics Concerning Indian Education (BIA-Funded Schools data); BIA School Reports 1980-86 (BIA-Funded Schools data).

TABLE 11

TOTAL INDIAN ENROLLMENT IN ARIZONA ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION, BY TYPE OF SCHOOL

Year	Public and Private Schools[1]	BIA-Funded Schools[2]	All Schools	Percent BIA-Funded
1968	14,431	14,874	29,305	50.76
1970	19,541	15,691	35,232	44.54
1972	24,743	15,857	40,600	39.06
1974	26,711	15,448	42,159	36.64
1976	30,803	13,241	44,044	30.06
1978	33,556	13,751	47,307	29.07
1980	19,952[3]	12,716	32,668	38.92
1982	N/A	13,360	N/A	N/A
1984	58,270[3]	14,599	72,869	20.03
1986	35,471[4]	13,637	49,108	27.77

[1]Does not include BIA-funded schools.
[2]BIA-operated and contract schools. Excludes BIA dormitory counts. Prior to 1980, based on enrollment counts taken that were defined and calculated differently from determining average daily attendance (ADA).
[3]Government sampling procedures employed in 1980, 1982, and 1984 were modified from earlier years and were not designed to yield a representative sample of Indian students. As a result, no projections of Indian students could be made in 1982, and the 1980 and 1984 projections contain abnormally large standard errors.
[4]Preliminary.

Source: See Table 10.

TABLE 12

TOTAL INDIAN ENROLLMENT IN NEW MEXICO ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION, BY TYPE OF SCHOOL

Year	Public and Private Schools[1]	BIA-Funded Schools[2]	All Schools	Percent BIA-Funded
1968	19,742	9,720	29,462	32.99
1970	19,216	9,286	28,502	32.58
1972	22,134	10,803	32,937	32.80
1974	23,600	10,477	34,077	30.75
1976	22,801	8,780	31,581	27.80
1978	22,436	8,841	31,277	28.27
1980	20,969[3]	8,458	29,427	28.74
1982	N/A	9,381	N/A	N/A
1984	24,057[3]	9,791	33,848	28.93
1986	24,815[4]	9,594	34,409	27.88

[1]Does not include BIA-funded schools.
[2]BIA-operated and contract schools. Excludes BIA dormitory counts. Prior to 1980, enrollment counts were defined and calculated differently from average daily attendance (ADA).
[3]Government sampling procedures employed in 1980, 1982, and 1984 were modified from earlier years and were not designed to yield a representative sample of Indian students. As a result, no projections of Indian students could be made in 1982, and the 1980 and 1984 projections contain abnormally large standard errors.
[4]Preliminary.

Sources: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Civil Rights Survey 1968-1986 (Public and Private School data); BIA FY 1968-78 Statistics Concerning Indian Education (BIA-Funded Schools data); BIA School Reports 1980-86 (BIA-Funded Schools data).

TABLE 13

TOTAL INDIAN ENROLLMENT IN NO. DAKOTA ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION, BY TYPE OF SCHOOL

Year	Public and Private Schools[1]	BIA-Funded Schools[2]	All Schools	Percent BIA-Funded
1968	1,523	3,049	4,572	66.69
1970	1 133	3,218	4,351	73.96
1972	4,017	3,768	7,785	48.40
1974	4,493	3,221	7,714	41.76
1976	6,128	3,719	9,847	37.77
1978	5,055	3,314	8,369	39.60
1980	1,662[3]	3,512	5,174	67.88
1982	N/A	3,297	N/A	N/A
1984	7,089[3]	3,315	10,404	31.86
1986	5,934[4]	3,223	9,157	35.20

[1]Does not include BIA-funded schools.
[2]BIA-operated and contract schools. Excludes BIA dormitory counts. Prior to 1980, enrollment counts were defined and calculated differently from average daily attendance (ADA).
[3]Government sampling procedures employed in 1980, 1982, and 1984 were modified from earlier years and were not designed to yield a representative sample of Indian students. As a result, no projections of Indian students could be made in 1982, and the 1980 and 1984 projections contain abnormally large standard errors.
[4]Preliminary.

Sources: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Civil Rights Survey 1968-1986 (Public and Private School data); BIA FY 1968-78 Statistics Concerning Indian Education (BIA-Funded Schools data); BIA School Reports 1980-86 (BIA-Funded Schools data).

like Arizona--has seen sharp declines over the past two decades in the role of BIA-funded schools in Indian education, the share of these schools declining from 67 percent in 1968 to 35 percent in 1986. In South Dakota, as shown in Table 14, the estimates of public and private Indian enrollment made by the Office of Civil Rights show no consistent up or down pattern. The year-to-year shifts in the estimates may reflect changes in sampling procedures and random variations that result in large standard errors for small population estimates. The overall trend, however, suggests that public and private schools in South Dakota over the years have contained around 60 percent to 70 percent of Indian enrollment, leaving 30 to 40 percent of student enrollment in BIA-funded schools.

TABLE 14

TOTAL INDIAN ENROLLMENT IN SO. DAKOTA ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION, BY TYPE OF SCHOOL

Year	Public and Private Schools[1]	BIA-Funded Schools[2]	All Schools	Percent BIA-Funded
1968	16,533	5,046	21,579	23.36
1970	7,536	5,700	13,236	43.06
1972	9,009	6,143	15,152	40.54
1974	11,899	5,758	17,657	32.61
1976	9,121	5,455	14,576	37.42
1978	8,501	4,343	12,844	33.81
1980	8,430[3]	5,488	13,918	39.43
1982	N/A	5,152	N/A	N/A
1984	7,545[3]	5,307	12,852	41.29
1986	10,021[4]	5,397	15,418	35.00

[1]Does not include BIA-funded schools.
[2]BIA-operated and contract schools. Excludes BIA dormitory counts. Prior to 1980, based on enrollment counts that were defined and calculated differently from average daily attendance (ADA).
[3]Government sampling procedures employed in 1980, 1982, and 1984 were modified from earlier years and were not designed to yield a representative sample of Indian students. As a result, no projections of Indian students could be made in 1982, and the 1980 and 1984 projections contain abnormally large standard errors.
[4]Preliminary.

Sources: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Civil Rights Survey 1968-1986 (Public andPrivate School data); BIA FY 1968-78 Statistics Concerning Indian Education (BIA-Funded Schools data); BIA School Reports 1980-86 (BIA-Funded-Schools data).

Future Enrollments of Reservation Children

In examining the future of the system of BIA-funded schools, it is important to examine not only past enrollments but also to assess likely future enrollments. Hence, projections were developed of future Indian populations of school age on reservations and of possible future levels of attendance of these reservation children in BIA-funded schools. It should be noted that BIA-funded schools draw a number of students who actually live off-reservation, but near enough to participate in the tribal community. Indians living near but not on reservations are generally eligible for BIA services, including BIA schools.

TABLE 15

PROJECTED TOTAL NUMBERS OF INDIAN CHILDREN LIVING ON INDIAN RESERVATIONS, AGES 5-17, BY REGION

REGION	ACTUAL 1980	ESTIMATED 1985	PROJECTED 1990	PROJECTED 1995	PROJECTED 2000
Navajo Arizona[1]	24,763	28,027	30,816	33,182	35,183
Other Arizona	13,282	14,844	16,352	17,717	18,907
Total Arizona	38,045	42,871	47,168	50,899	54,090
Pueblo New Mexico	8,217	9,167	10,069	10,801	11,479
Navajo New Mexico	9,498	10,712	11,789	12,723	13,522
Other New Mexico	2,393	2,670	2,934	3,159	4,057
Total New Mexico	20,108	22,549	24,792	26,262	29,058
South Dakota	9,607	10,709	11,715	12,611	13,390
North Dakota	3,866	4,395	4,862	5,261	5,595
4 State Total	71,626	80,524	88,537	95,033	102,133
All Reservations	110,970	122,976	134,599	145,395	155,052

[1]Navajo Arizona counts include a limited number of Utah and Navajo children as well.

Sources: 1980 Census of Population (American Indians, Eskimos, and Aleuts, on Identified Reservations and the Historic Areas of Oklahoma Excluding Urbanized Areas); and unpublished projections made by the Indian Health Service by state and county of total Indian population in 1990, 1995 and 2000. Numbers of Indian children ages 5-17 in each county on each reservation, as shown by the U.S. Census for 1980, were adjusted to 1985, 1990, 1995 and 2000 in proportion to total rates of Indian population growth projected for that county, using the growth projections made by IHS. County projections were then summed for appropriate groupings of counties.

Table 16 is therefore based on the highly simplifying assumption that reservation children in the future will attend BIA and tribal schools in the same percentages that they attended BIA and tribal schools in 1980. Using this simplifying (and in fact unrealistic) assumption, in the four states of Arizona, New Mexico, North Dakota and South Dakota, there are projected to be 54,554 Indian students in BIA and tribal schools in 1990, an increase from 1980 of 23.6 percent. Enrollment in BIA and tribal schools is projected to be 62,570 in the year 2000, an increase from 1980 of 42 percent.

As indicated above, these enrollment projections are based on U.S. Census data on student populations in 1980, adjusted by IHS projected rates of growth to 2000 of Indian populations. However, different sources of data offer different findings with respect to student counts. Thus, the Census reported that in 1980 there were 44,150 Indian students enrolled in BIA and tribal schools in four states, whereas the BIA reported for these same states and schools a total attendance in 1987 of only 31,794. Part of the problem may lie in the ambiguity of "attendance" and "enrollment." The various concepts of enrollment may include: (1) the number of students in school in any given count week (or other specified period) (2) this number, plus those with legitimate reasons for being absent from school; (3) the number of formally

TABLE 16

PROJECTED TOTAL NUMBERS OF INDIAN CHILDREN IN BIA OR TRIBAL SCHOOLS, AGES 5-17, BY REGION

REGION	ACTUAL 1980	PROJECTED 1990	PROJECTED 1995	PROJECTED 2000
Navajo Arizona[1]	16,162	20,110	21,658	22,969
Other Arizona	7,517	9,337	10,034	10,784
Total Arizona	23,679	29,447	31,692	33,753
Pueblo New Mexico	4,905	5,999	6,412	6,825
Navajo New Mexico	2,943	3,656	3,948	4,198
Other New Mexico	1,136	1,384	1,483	1,625
Total New Mexico	8,984	11,039	11,843	12,648
South Dakota	8,203	9,938	10,677	11,321
North Dakota	3,284	4,130	4,455	4,748
4 State Total	44,150	54,554	58,667	62,570
All Reservations	54,922	66,617	71,960	76,739

[1]Navajo Arizona counts include a limited number of Utah, Navajo children as well.

Sources: 1980 Census of Population (American Indians, Eskimos, and Aleuts, on Identified Reservations and the Historic Areas of Oklahoma Excluding Urbanized Areas); and unpublished projections made by the Indian Health Service by state and county of total Indian population in 1990, 1995 and 2000. Numbers of Indian children ages 5-17 in each county in BIA or tribal schools, as shown by the U.S. Census for 1980, were adjusted to 1985, 1990, 1995 and 2000 in proportion to total rates of Indian population growth projected for that county, using the growth projections made by IHS. County projections were then summed for appropriate groupings of counties.

registered students, whether present or not, in any given week; or (4) the total number of students who have attended the school at any time over the course of the year.

Moreover, BIA student counts are based on submissions from schools themselves, whereas Census student counts are derived from questions addressed to the parents. Data problems are further compounded on Indian reservations, where families are often hard to reach and inexperienced in filling out questionnaires. All in all, it should not be surprising that enrollment estimates from different sources may differ considerably. Yet, in some individual cases the differences are so large as to suggest that future investigation is needed. For example, the Census reported in 1980 that 23,679 students were attending BIA and tribal schools in Arizona, whereas seven years later the BIA reported only 13,390 students in BIA and tribal schools in Arizona.

Despite rapid growth in total Indian populations and populations of school age children in recent years, enrollment in BIA-funded schools actually has been fairly stable for many years. Indeed, if anything, the trend has been slightly downward over the past decade. Hence, projections of future BIA and contract school populations are perhaps better based on the recent trends in actual student counts in these BIA and contract schools, rather than on projections of future numbers of Indian children. If this method is used, the future of BIA and contract schools may not hold rapid rates

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CHAPTER III

Descriptions of the Schools Themselves

As part of the planning effort for this report, the Office of Indian Education Programs (OIEP) asked the principals of selected schools--both BIA-operated and contract--to describe their school. Each principal was asked to summarize briefly the working environment of the school, the background of the students, school successes, school problems, interactions with tribes and parents, and other matters of interest. The selection of schools was not based on a methodology that would seek to ensure a sample representative of all schools. Indeed, the selection process was probably biased towards schools with articulate and enthusiastic principals who might have some educational successes and other good things to say. Moreover, while many principals responded, others did not; in the end, 28 replies of widely varying detail and completeness were received. Here again, there was probably some bias introduced in favor of principals with successes to relate.

Although a limited and not fully representative sample, the responses nevertheless give a good sense of the circumstances of both BIA-operated and contract schools. One of the important messages is in fact the diversity of the BIA-funded system. What is true of one school is often not true of another--even limited to the 28 schools that responded. While it is possible to generalize about Indian education, it must also be kept in mind that there are likely to be important exceptions.

With these cautionary notes, some of the significant themes that emerged in the comments of the school principals are presented below, including selections in the words of principals themselves, excerpted from their written remarks.

Physical and Cultural Isolation

As examined in Chapter II, Indian education in America has largely become a system of public school education. The Federal government is likely to have direct responsibility for Indian education only in special circumstances. The BIA system has thus become in many ways a backup system, filling in and meeting Indian educational needs when other schools were less able or willing to do so. Perhaps the most frequent factor explaining the presence of a BIA-funded school is the physical isolation of Indian communities and children. Many BIA schools have been built and maintained in remote areas where other schools were not available.

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The physical isolation of BIA schools reaches an extreme in the case of the Havasupai Elementary School. Partly because of the isolation of the Havasupai Tribe, no member of this tribe has yet graduated from college. The principal writes of the school's setting:

> Our Havasupai Tribe consists of 545 people living on our 196,000 acre reservation abutting Grand Canyon National Park. We live in Supai Village, at the bottom of Havasu Canyon. We are the most geographically and culturally isolated Tribe in the continental United States. The nearest road, accessible only by foot or horse, is eight miles away and over a half mile up. The nearest town of 1000 is 80 miles away. The nearest cities are Kingman (2 hours west) and Flagstaff (3 hours east).
>
> Communications with the "outside world" are sporadic at best. About a dozen families, the school and tribal government offices have phones. But the phones don't work a lot of the time. No broadcast T.V. is available, Radio bounces in (and out) only at night. Mail service is now five days per week, through which we obtain food and other supplies.

The wide geographic dispersion of students, severe climate and physical isolation of Navajo communities have had a major impact on the system of education developed on the Navajo Reservation. Attendance in day schools has been infeasible for many Navajo students, because they were too far from school and/or roads were inadequate for daily bus travel. In addition, many Navajo believe that Navajo children will receive better food and in general be better served by the environment of a boarding school, as compared with poverty-stricken and socially distressed home environments. Combined with the additional employment for Navajo generated by dormitories, the Navajo have often strongly favored boarding schools. The principal of the Dzilth-na-o-dith-hle boarding school thus writes:

> Community, for the Navajos living here, refers to remote land areas where the people live in extended family groups in relative isolation. Thus, the schools and Chapter Houses (the political and social precincts of the Navajo Tribe) become the foci of community life. The Dzilth-na-o-dith-hle enrollment boundary encompasses over 700 square miles serving three chapters: Huerfano, Counselors, and Nageezi with a total population of over 6,000 Navajos.
>
> The school's academic program goes from kindergarten through 8th grade. However, due to isolation factors, the school has expanded it's dormitory program to include secondary students who are bussed daily to Bloomfield Public High School. Otherwise, these 67 students would face bus rides exceeding 60 miles one way, most over ungraded and unimproved dirt roads which in inclement weather often become impassable. The winters can be harsh.

> employment, besides the school and that provided through the community and tribal governments, are at the trading post and clinic. These two organizations provide five jobs.

It is not only in the Southwest that Indian students must be gathered over wide areas. The principal of the Ojibway School in northeastern Minnesota reports that "the students are from the five surrounding school districts of Cloquet, Carlton, Duluth, Albrook, and McGregor. This area is over a three county area. Our five buses travel in excess of 850 miles per day." In South Dakota, the principal of the Fort Thompson Elementary School writes of the cultural isolation of the members of the Crow Creek Sioux Tribe: "Since the reservation is isolated the mixture of the different cultures is of a limited basis. The people of the Crow Creek Reservation do not on a regular basis associate or marry non-Indian persons."

Illustrating the diversity of circumstances in Indian education, while the majority of BIA schools are in isolated locations, the Salt River Day School is located right on the edge of Phoenix. Its principal writes that:

> The Salt River Day School was built in 1935, with a number of Indian high school boys helping with the construction. The architecture is Spanish with white-washed adobe brick, re-tiled roofs, and a lovely grassed patio which is very fitting to life on the Southwest's Sonoran Desert.
>
> The Salt River Indian Community is located in Maricopa County, Arizona, at the eastern edge of the Phoenix Metropolitan Area. It is bounded by the cities of Scottsdale, Tempe, and Mesa on the west and south; by open land for the most part in the public domain to the east, and by the Fountain Hills Development and the McCormick Ranch on the north.

School Facilities

School facilities vary widely among the BIA-operated and contract schools that make up the BIA-funded system of Indian education. Some BIA schools are housed in modern buildings with contemporary architecture, containing all the equipment and room space that modern education may demand. Other schools are the one-room school house, often built long ago and today suffering physical deterioration. Three schools of the latter type are found on the Cheyenne River Sioux Reservation in South Dakota:

> The three East End Schools are Promise, Swift Bird, and White Horse Day Schools. The distance between White Horse and Promise schools is 20 miles and between Promise and Swift Bird schools is 30 miles whereas White Horse and Swift Bird schools are 40 miles apart on black-top road.

> White Horse and Promise are also connected by a black-top road. However, the road between Promise and Swift Bird is gravel.
>
> The landscape of the reservation is quite picturesque and beautiful. It is a part of American Prairies and is utilized for ranching. It is also the area where the monument of chief Sitting Bull is located. There is good hunting and fishing on the reservation but about 80 percent families have to survive with below povertyline income. Unemployment stays at 75 percent or more most of the time. There is no industry on or around the reservation. Job situation is very serious and grim most of the time.
>
> Promise Day School is housed in a building which could be classified as a one-teacher-one-room school with a small apartment for the teacher in the same building. Recently the apartment for the teacher in the building has been converted to a small classroom which is being used for Chapter I program. It also has another small room used as the office and one other room which is used for Special Education. A single width trailer is also located close to the main building and it is used as a classroom for upper grades (5th to 8th). The room in the main building serves as a classroom for grades K-4th. The basement of the building serves as kitchen and lunchroom. The school also has a house for a teacher's residence on the premises and a bus garage which is also used for storing anything spare in the school. Some playground equipment has been there for several years and a few new pieces have also been installed recently. There is no provision for games, sports and athletics because of no facilities, equipment or personnel for it.

Adjoining the Cheyenne River Sioux Reservation is the Standing Rock Reservation, straddling the boundary between South Dakota and North Dakota. It is the home of the Standing Rock Sioux Tribe and of Standing Rock High School, located in Fort Yates in North Dakota. Unlike the day schools of the Cheyenne River Reservation, this high school is a fairly new and modern facility, reflecting the latest thoughts in education design. The principal writes that:

> The school facility was occupied for the first time in the fall of 1979. The school is a poured concrete building and was designed on the open space concept. The building is a sprawling, basically one story structure and one of the finest facilities in the area. It includes: modern shop areas for woodworking, drafting, auto mechanics and home economics. A large gymnasium supports the physical education programs and community supported athletic activities. The academic classrooms, though basically open, have been partitioned by portable walls to create a semblance of self-containment and classroom organization.

In Oregon, the Chemawa school is an off-reservation boarding school, which was founded more than 100 years ago as part of the movement to draw Indian students

away from the damaging influence--as it was then seen--of traditional Indian culture. The Chemawa School today still draws its Indian high school students from Idaho, Montana, Oregon, Washington, Wyoming and several other states. A new and modern school facility was completed in 1980, as described by the principal:

> Completed in 1980 and set in a beautifully landscaped area, Chemawa School has an impressive two-story brick instruction complex housing open concept classroom spaces designed to accommodate 600 students, large indoor pool, beautifully appointed gymnasium and recreation center, large dining area, an auditorium with a seating capacity of 750, library with 8,500+ books, football stadium, softball and baseball fields, tennis courts, outdoor amphitheater and large covered play area. An on-going art program of student murals have beautifully decorated the hallways, library and dining area. Covered walkways lead to 10 hillside 3 and 4-level dormitories with a capacity for 400 students--two students per room with a bathroom between each set of two rooms. A staff office, kitchenette, laundry room and living room area completes each unit. These college-type dormitories provide a maximum of privacy but the design presents supervision and staffing challenges for an adolescent population.

While a number of schools have excellent facilities, others report overcrowding, use of temporary structures and dilapidated conditions. There is currently a long backlog of school requests for repairs and renovation of school facilities, and in some cases the further expansion of capacity. The principal of the Fort Thompson Elementary School writes:

> The Fort Thompson School system is a K-6 educational institution serving 170 students in grades K-6. The educational facility is a one story structure built in the 1960's. The structure has been renovated and has had additional classroom space added since the initial construction. There are four modular buildings outside the main structure which house kindergarten, Chapter 1, and Fifth and Sixth grade classrooms. Since the renovation the patch work that was done has started to reopen causing the cracks to reappear making it necessary to request additional renovation to be submitted. Also with the rise in enrollment for the next several years we anticipate our enrollment to climb to at least 240 students, making the facility inadequate to fill the needs of the students. We are also requesting an addition be added to the present facility to fill this need. With the renovation project of 1984 that project extended the useful life of this facility to the early 1990's. This would mean that the total facility complex would then be obsolete within two years.

Curriculum

The curriculum of BIA schools depends on the size of the school and the availability of physical facilities. Schools with fewer students and smaller facilities can offer mainly basic courses in reading, writing, mathematics, spelling and other educational requirements. However, most BIA schools have a wider range of offerings. The principal of the Ojibway School (grades 7 to 12) in Minnesota writes that:

> The curriculum of the Ojibway School includes Reading and Language Usage, School Newspaper and Composition, General Math, Algebra, Geometry, Earth Science, Life Science, Physical Science, Biology, Chemistry, Environmental Science, Ojibway Language, History, Geography, Civics, Sociology, Tribal Government, Fond du Lac History, Minnesota Chippewa Tribe History, Drawing, Painting, Ceramics, Beading, Jewelry, Photography, Clay Molding, Wood Carving, Physical Education, Health, Human Anatomy, Sexuality, Drug and Alcohol Abuse, Nutrition, Computer Studies, and Computer Literacy.

Even in elementary school, many BIA schools offer a wide range of programs and materials for their students. Some of these schools can match the curriculum of the best schools in well-off suburban school districts in metropolitan areas. The principal of the Salt River Day School (grades K-6) writes that:

> Curriculum Offerings: The curriculum at the Salt River Day School is designed to emphasize subject areas of reading, language arts, math, science, social studies, health and physical education. Classes are small, with an average of 15-20 students per classroom teacher. It is the responsibility of the school to provide an instructional program to meet the special needs of <u>all</u> students, in particular, the special needs of children in kindergarten and first grades.
>
> The major function of the school curriculum is to facilitate individualized, prescriptive teaching/learning experiences and to provide instructional support in grades K-6.
>
> Consistent with the school philosophy to develop an instructional program that meets the special needs of all students in the school, Individual Education Plans (IEP's) are developed and maintained in reading, language, and mathematics for all students. The foundation of diagnostic-prescriptive protocol for each IEP is the <u>Brigance Inventory of Basic Skills</u>. This criterion-referenced tool provides guidance in the systematic development of instructional objectives and in the programming of appropriate instructional strategies.

> The school's academic program promotes the concept of the inter-disciplinary treatment team approach between the Regular Program and Chapter 1 staff, with the support and assistance of the special education teachers, school counselor, special education coordinator, speech/language pathologist, and the consulting school psychologist.

Even in the isolated environment of the Standing Rock Sioux Reservation, some BIA students are exposed to a full range of the latest developments in American education. The Little Eagle Day School in South Dakota has students from families that are mostly Hunkpapa Sioux. The principal writes that "at least eighty-five percent of 105 students enrolled speak or understand the Lakota Siouan language and utilized Lakota English or have limited English proficiency. Most community activities and religious ceremonies are held in Lakota. The average educational level of fifty-three parent sets is eighth grade." While the parents did not have the opportunity, the current students of Little Eagle Day School will be exposed to a rich and diverse curriculum that will include the worlds of modern media, computers and technology:

> The educational goals number fifteen, all directed to producing self-sufficient citizens and retain cultural values so a positive self-concept may be developed.
>
> Elementary education services provided are in accordance with federal and state requirements. Additional support services are provided as required or petitioned through special education, Chapter 1 and Title VII, Bilingual/Bicultural instruction. The support services are provided for students needing remedial instruction, handicapped and to increase English proficiency.
>
> A written congruent curriculum containing level instructional goals and objectives is used for each subject required in basic skills, content and special areas as music, physical education, and art. Library science and computer literacy is taught to all grades. The classrooms are self-contained with combined grades in second/third, fourth/fifth, and sixth/seventh, eighth grades. The arrangement of combined grades is definitely an overload for a teacher, though alternate subject plans are devised. Opportunities are provided for students to be exposed to career interests. The instructional program reflects the special needs of students and yet is flexible enough to permit modifications as deemed necessary. All students are properly placed by grade enrollment information, transcripts or placement tests according to the levels of difficulty with emphasis on basic skills.
>
> Corrective Writing and Sustained Writing classes have been implemented to improve writing skills under the auspices of Title VII.

In addition to the basic texts, a variety of supplementary materials and supplies are used for each subject area. A variety of filmstrips, records, tapes, films, library books, newspapers, weekly readers, magazines, reference materials, photographs, maps, charts, graphs and other illustrative materials are used to assist in the understanding of the text. All materials are carefully controlled based on reading levels. Resources are sought from many sources, state film library, universities or colleges, free sources, federal and the community, as needed. All media is centrally located and inventoried. New additions include four (4) computers and a variety of software.

Counseling services are provided through the Agency plan.

Extra-curricular activities include volley ball, basketball, dancing, Indian club, track, field trips, honor trips, and fund raising.

One of the chief obstacles faced by many Indian students is that they do not speak English when they arrive in school. Indian students thus tend to lag behind other student populations most of all in the language arts areas. In the 1930s, the BIA introduced bilingual education, but language has remained a major problem. In recent years, therefore, some BIA schools have introduced new methods and refocused their attention on the methods to instruct Indian children effectively. The Chuska and Dilcon boarding schools on the Navajo Reservation in Arizona have been two BIA schools that have met the challenge head-on by introducing the "whole language" method. Whole language is an instructional approach that realizes the importance of capitalizing on the sociocultural background and the individual set of experiences that an Indian or any student brings to the classroom. Instructionally, whole language maximizes the learning experience of each student-participant by building upon the student's knowledge gained outside the classroom. Chuska's principal explains:

There are seven basic components to the Whole Language program:

- **Reading to the Students.** Students need to see adults model "Reading" behaviors. Stories are read in both the classroom and dormitory. Stories and poems are shared and the students develop a sense of belonging. The dorm aides and/or teachers encourage the students to predict what will happen next in a story or guess how a character might solve a problem. Students can be introduced to more sophisticated writing and vocabulary than what they can read.
- **Students Read to Themselves Daily.** Students are allowed to select books of their choice. So that there is an adequate variety of materials, a large selection of hardback and paperback books have been purchased for both the classroom and dormitory reading centers. The staff encourages the students to select a wide variety of reading material.

- **Students Write Everyday.** From the very first day of school all students are encouraged to write. Kindergarten and first graders new to our school are also encouraged to write even though they may be the only ones who can read their writing. Usually children who are hesitant about their ability to write will begin their writing with scribbles, pictures, letters, copying and spelling inventions. Each student keeps a journal and teachers must write back to the student at least three times per week. (This journal is so crucial that it is a part of all regular and special education teachers' performance standards). These student writers quickly see the relationship between writing and reading. There is meaning in all their writing and hence they expect to encounter meaning when they read the writing of others.

- **Students Bring Familiar Language to the Classroom.** Students dictate rhymes, songs, and commercials to the teacher who puts the information on the board. The dormitory staff teach fun songs and finger plays to the students. This has the effect of adding to the students' English language base.

- **Language Experience Activities.** Students talk about their experiences and then write them with the help of the teacher and/or aide or independently. The teacher and/or aide talks the children through the story and helps them clarify their thoughts. Students then read their stories to others. Because the children are writing about themselves and things familiar to them the cultural values of the Navajo people are given respect and creditability. Whole Language methods and techniques work equally well in Navajo or English. The child learns at an early age to respect their traditional values and their native language.

- **Extended Literature Activities.** The students and teacher share poems, stories and books. Ideas gleaned in these discussions are expanded upon to provide more material for reading and writing.

- **Reading Strategy Instructions.** Students learn to sample from print and to make predictions a. d then to read to confirm these predictions.

Using these seven whole language components has accelerated the learning process for students attending Dilcon and Chuska schools in the Fort Defiance Agency. Since many of the Indian students are bilingual who attend these two schools, improvement in English reading, speaking and writing skills cannot be observed overnight. But unlike their non-whole language counterparts, who tend to loose learning momentum in the classroom after the third grade, whole language students are observed to increasingly master basic skill areas over time. By the eighth grade or the last year in elem ntary school, Dilcon and Chuska students are near or above national norms, as measured by the CTBS battery of tests:

National Eighth-grade Norm (spring)	= 8.7
BIA Norm (spring 1987)	= 6.7
Chuska (spring 1987)	= 7.7
Dilcon (spring 1987)	= 8.9

A number of other schools on the Navajo Reservation also use the whole language program. The principal of the Greasewood-Toyei Consolidated School in Arizona writes that:

> Greasewood-Toyei Consolidated School is comprised of 95% Navajo students who primarily speak their native tongue. English as a second language has been emphasized over the years particularly in the lower grades. With the implementation of the whole language approach new techniques are used to enhance language development. It is the belief of the staff of Greasewood-Toyei School that once a child can comprehend the English language he will progress in reading and other areas.
>
> Class schedules have already been made whereby the expertise of the sixth-grade teachers will be utilized in teaching the main concepts of the Whole Language program (Literature studies, creative writing, journals, etc.) Elective classes in Home Economics, Industrial Arts, Science, and Typing will be scheduled for upper grade students. Music, Art, Computers, and Library will include all grades. In the Fort Defiance Agency all schools are mandated to implement the Whole Language Approach to teaching in all grades K-8th. At Greasewood-Toyei School, all teachers are required to have training in Whole Language. If/when new teachers are hired they are scheduled to participate in the Agency-wide summer institute. Throughout the year consultants visit the school to provide technical assistance for those who may have problems. In-service is conducted throughout the school year as a means of keeping staff motivated and up to date on new techniques and ideas. With the implementation of the Whole Language approach, there has been academic growth among students in all grades. The follow-up visits to the consultants as well as wing meetings eased the tension of those staff members who felt initially uncomfortable about utilizing the concepts of the whole language approach. Throughout the school year students participated in writing contests held at other schools. Awards received were a result of teachers and aides spending many hours planning, organizing, and implementing techniques developed to enhance student progress in writing skills. Students in grades K-8th published books and shared with their classmates as well as other classrooms and the library. Older students read their books to younger children. The following illustrates the amount of student gain from the fall of 1986 to the spring of 1987 in language.

2nd grade.....1.6.....3.1

3rd grade..... 2.3.....3.1

4th grade .....3.3.....4.2

5th grade.....4.2.....4.6

6th grade.....5.6.....7.9

7th grade.....5.0.....5.9

8th grade.....7.0.....8.2

Although BIA education long ago sought to eliminate the influence of tribal culture on Indian students, this policy was reversed in the 1930s. In recent years, a number of schools have made greater efforts to teach Indian history, government and other elements of Indian culture. The goals set for students by the Dzilth-na-o-dith-hle School on the Navajo Reservation include the following for seventh and eighth graders:

Seventh graders are expected to:

- Compare and contrast given time-lines of New Mexico history with United States history.
- Outline Navajo history up to 1868.
- Compare and contrast the treatment of an Indian tribe in the United States, Canada and a Latin American country by their respective national governments during initial contact and present day periods.
- Select a major historical event from those studied and illustrate a cause-effect relationship which produced its significance.
- Find comparable elected offices between Tribal and state officials in terms of duties and responsibilities (e.g., chairman, governor, councilman, representative, etc.).
- Select and prepare a defense for one side of a local issue which brings in its historical background (e.g., redistricting chapters, Navajo constitution, rights of way, etc.).

- Trace sample legislation through either the Tribal or state process from initiation to enactment.
- Evaluate various tools historians must use in terms of their probable reliability (e.g., official documents, diaries, eye-witness accounts, artifacts, etc.).

Eighth graders are expected to:

- Plot a time-line for a given period of history being studied.
- Outline Navajo history from 1868 to the present.
- List the primary functions and responsibilities of the Navajo branches of government (executive, legislative, and judiciary) and describe how any could be amended.
- Explain how the Navajo Nation election process is conducted for Chapter and Tribal offices (e.g., nominations, qualifications, voter registration, primaries, etc.).
- Research and prepare for a debate, either for or against, on a given local or Tribal issue.
- Compare and contrast the way other school subject areas have influenced history, past and present.

These expectations become significant when one realizes that the students at this school are expected to function skillfully in two distinct societies.

In South Dakota the members of the Sisseton-Wahpeton Sioux Tribe over the years found themselves questioning the ability of the public schools to meet the educational needs of their children. Discontent with the public school treatment of Indian culture played an important part in the decision of the tribe to establish a new tribal school, the Tiospa Zina School. Formed in 1981 and originally funded exclusively from tribal sources, the Tiospa Zina Tribal School (grades K-12) became a Federal contract school in 1986. The formally stated goals of the school are:

- To provide an alternative educational process other than the public educational process to students of Indian ancestry; an alternative educational process which will take into perspective the culture, heritage, and social background of the Indian student;
- To develop educational programs relevant to Indian culture, history, art, language and tradition to be used in the alternative educational system
- To develop, implement, operate and evaluate basic education programs (K-12) to be used in the alternative educational system;

- To further the educational alternatives available to parents of Indian children by developing, maintaining, and operating educational institutions governed by the School Board;
- To advocate, sponsor, and support the availability and utilization of resources and personnel to aid in the advancement of educational opportunities for Indian children;
- To formulate educational curricula relevant to the needs of Indian people and communities;
- To advance Indian self-determination through higher education of Indian people;
- To enhance the development of academic curricula related to the alternative educational system;
- To provide for and to facilitate the presentation of works relating to the cultural and artistic endeavors of the indigenous people of North America;
- To employ education personnel adequate to fulfill the purposes set out above.

As a contract school, the Tiospa Zina Tribal School has sought and earned accreditation from the State of South Dakota. Moreover, as the principal writes, the school seeks to ensure that materials in Indian culture are an addition to, rather than a substitute for, the learning of the basics of reading, writing, mathematics, and other subject matter:

> In addition to these standards, the school is attempting to meet all standards of the Bureau of Indian Affairs. The curriculum and requirements of the School Board and Tribal School require "more than" rather than "less than" of students, requiring 1,700 minutes of instruction weekly at a minimum for all grade levels (exclusive of intermissions) for a 184 day in session school term for 1987-88. The existing graduation requirements for grade twelve students numbers (22) units of credit, above the (19) units which are required by the Division of Education and Cultural Affairs. Dakota Language and Dakota Culture are requirements of instruction K-8, as well as graduation requirements for 9-12 students. The 1987-88 school term will provide for the first year of vocational education options for students; expanded resources in computer equipment will enable expanding implementation of Computer Literacy coursework and learning activities.

While some tribes are looking to the schools for greater education in tribal history and culture, other tribes see the schools only as the bridge for Indian students to the outside world. They regard Indian history and culture as the responsibility of the parents and the traditional community, and reject a role for Federal schools in such

matters. The principal of the San Felipe elementary school, serving the San Felipe Pueblo in New Mexico, writes that:

- The students who come to San Felipe Elementary School from the San Felipe Headstart speak a primary language of Keres. Approximately 85% of the students entering San Felipe Elementary School at the kindergarten level speak no English, or have little knowledge of English. The school program, with this fact in mind, is geared toward making the students confident in English before they graduate from the sixth grade into the local public school system.
- San Felipe today is one of the most culturally conservative pueblos. The people of San Felipe place great emphasis on traditional community values and social/religious responsibilities. The native language and religion play a vital role in their total behavior and outlook on life. They place great emphasis on maintaining and protecting their tribal traditions. Accordingly, the San Felipe Tribal Council has stated that the responsibility for teaching language and culture to the children of San Felipe belongs in the home rather than the school.

The Teachers

Good education depends on capable and committed teachers. Much like other school systems, the BIA has sought in recent years to improve the training and skills of its teachers. Inadequate education, high turnover and low expectations for Indian students have been problems in the past for some BIA teachers. In response, BIA teachers are now required to obtain state certification. The BIA has sought to increase the proportions of Indian teachers. Efforts have also been made to combat high turnover by improving the working environment of schools and by hiring teachers who have roots in the state and local areas and are thus less likely to leave. Programs of in-service teacher training have been expanded.

Almost all teachers in BIA schools today possess state certification, or will shortly receive it. The principal of the Wingate Elementary School, 15 miles east of Gallup, New Mexico and serving a Navajo population, writes that:

> The faculty at Wingate Elementary School consists of forty-five (45) professional and seventy-two (72) para-professional staff members. Of the professional staff, all possess one or more degrees in education and/or related fields. Nearly all of the teachers have regular certification with the state of New Mexico and the remaining few are on provisional status. Professional affiliations include teachers organizations such as NEA, NCBIAE, NMEA, etc.

In South Dakota, the principal of the Little Eagle Day School similarly reports that:

> certified teaching staff is predominantly non-Indian. Thirty percent of the certified teaching staff are Indian. The staff, for the past four years has been extremely stable. This is due to the level of dedication of staff, the comfortable atmosphere at the school, and a comparable salary schedule for staff, in particular teachers. The Board of Education has instituted a staff development program to encourage instructional staff to further their education. There are five teachers actively seeking their Master's Degree. Two teacher's aides are planning to attend Community College classes next year.

Some schools have been able to recruit and retain a high calibre faculty, despite salaries that are not competitive with nearby public schools. The Sherman off-reservation boarding school, located in Riverside, California (population 200,000) does not face the isolation characteristic of many Indian schools. Its principal reports that:

> The professional staff of SIHS (30 teachers, 3 counselors, one school psychologist, 5 department heads, and assistant principal and principal) have been employed here an average of seven years. Turnover has been minimal for the past four years. Last school year, for example, two teachers resigned (one for health reasons) and one retired (again, for health reasons). The minimal turnover is remarkable when one considers that BIA salaries, compared to local school districts, are between $6500 to $15,000 less. Out of the group above, nearly 70% have a California credential. Those without a credential are the status-quo employees. Thirteen individuals have masters degrees and three have doctorates. Nine of the above group are Indian, including the Principal and six of the teaching staff. The professional staff have come from all over the United States and offer many talents and skills, reflecting this diversity. Recruitment is done via "open/continuous" vacancy announcements issued every six months for all types of positions. Announcements are sent to over 90 colleges, universities and school districts in California, BIA schools and BIA Agency offices within the Phoenix Area. Due to rigorous standards, including a passing score on the C-BEST, it is difficult for out-of-state applicants to obtain a California credential. Since our enrollment has declined, we have not been faced with the difficulty of having to compete with higher-paying school districts for teachers and our current teacher-pupil ratio is excellent, providing for much more individualized and small group instruction.

Turnover also has not been a major problem for the three small day schools on the Cheyenne River Sioux Reservation, due partly to the hiring of local staff:

> All teachers in Promise, Swift Bird and White Horse Day Schools are fully qualified and certified by the Department of Education, State of South Dakota. Most of them are natives of South Dakota and have a good understanding of educational, social, economic, and cultural needs of In-

> certified teaching staff is predominantly non-Indian. Thirty percent of the certified teaching staff are Indian. The staff, for the past four years has been extremely stable. This is due to the level of dedication of staff, the comfortable atmosphere at the school, and a comparable salary schedule for staff, in particular teachers. The Board of Education has instituted a staff development program to encourage instructional staff to further their education. There are five teachers actively seeking their Master's Degree. Two teacher's aides are planning to attend Community College classes next year.

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> dian students. There is some turn-over of teachers but it is not abnormal. Most teachers have been in the system for more than three years and some of them even for seven and eight years. Recruitment of teachers has, so far, been done by advertisement through colleges and universities placement offices, interviews and selection by respective school boards and final appointment by the BIA officials. Almost one week preceding the re-opening of schools after summer vacations, is devoted to in-service program of teachers. During the school year also occasional in-service workshops and training opportunities are provided teachers and the support staff in Curriculum, alcohol and substance abuse and other areas related to child protection and assistance. The in-service is conducted at school level as well as at Agency level with all the schools in the system participating.

Other schools have also sought to bolster their in-service training programs. The Tiospa Zina Tribal School has a teaching staff of whom 55 percent are members of the Sisseton-Wahpeton Sioux Tribe. As a new contract school, it has sought to instill a high morale and esprit de corps among its teaching staff. The principal of Tiospa Zina Tribal School writes:

> Overall staffing at the Tribal School consists of employees having a high level of commitment, dedication, perseverance, and competency. During the initial contracting term staff worked through many developmental, communication, structural, policy, and other activities. Having this initial year of experience as a K-12 Contract School has greatly enhanced the capabilities of the staff in meeting the developmental needs of students, and the institution. A four-day intensive preservice was conducted in August, 1986, prior to the beginning of the school term; other inservice training for all staff was held on the topics of Alcohol/Drug Abuse; other inservice conducted for various groups included BABES; Language Experience Approach to Teaching Language; Dealing with Anger, Child Abuse and Neglect; Curriculum Development; other related areas of training. The administration will be conducting a comprehensive staff inservice training assessment with all personnel of the school on September 2-4, 1987, in preparation for the new term inservice training program. The Preservice training will focus upon Alcohol/Drug Abuse; Choices for Boys and Girls; basic conditions of employment; comprehensive educational planning; team-building; cultural awareness; and, activity planning. The preservice training is a requirement of all personnel.

Parents and Students

A successful school involves the participation of all members of the community--teachers, parents, and students alike. Indian families in many cases lack the educational and economic advantages of other American children. Nevertheless, Indian parents have in recent years begun to play a much greater part in the education of

their children. BIA and contract schools have sought to devise new instructional and other techniques and programs to meet the special needs of Indian students.

Language is, as described previously, a major problem for many Indian children, who even today enter school speaking their native Indian language, and little or no English. For example, the principal of Wingate Elementary School in New Mexico reports that:

> The majority of the students enrolled at Wingate Elementary School are from homes where the Navajo language is the primary means of communication. A large percentage of the students still live in geographically isolated areas and are unable to be served by a day school. Also, many of the students come from socioeconomic home conditions which necessitate attendance at a boarding school.

Wingate is like many Indian schools in having a major problem with a transient student population. Many Indian students have several educational options; some of them switch back and forth frequently among these options. If one school is proving difficult or unsatisfactory, Indian students show an unusual ability and willingness to transfer elsewhere. The principal of Wingate Elementary School writes:

> A 1982 study indicated that of approximately 12,825 Navajo students in the Eastern Navajo Agency, 58% are enrolled in Bureau funded schools with the remaining school age students attending public, private and mission schools. Recent developments of roads and living conditions do not seem to have decreased the percentage of Bureau school enrollment, possibly because of the high unemployment rate present in McKinley County. Approximately 25% of the students at Wingate Elementary School withdraw during the school year and enroll in public school while 20% will enter Wingate from the public school.

Transient student populations have been a particular problem at off-reservation boarding schools. Despite its long tradition of Indian education and attractive physical facilities, the Chemawa Indian High School in Oregon loses 50 percent of its students every year, making educational continuity an impossibility. Chemawa's principal explains further:

> Movement between secondary and alternative education programs is characteristic of our students: 22% have attended one high school; 48%, two high schools; 24%, three high schools and 6%, four high schools. These figures reflect the number of different schools attended, <u>not</u> the number of actual secondary enrollments, which is a higher number yet (i.e., more than one enrollment in the same school). The term "drop-out" is a misnomer since students characteristically move within the current education system available to them; i.e., public school, tribal school, alternative programs, boarding schools and Job Corps. Of the 53% of stu-

> dents who left Chemawa this year, more than 3/4 requested transcripts to attend other schools. 78% of the total Chemawa Student Body this year were transfers from or have attended other programs. Just as students tend to continue their high school education, most graduates also enter into post high school education programs, but ordinarily this occurs one to two years after graduation either because they need to work, have insufficient funding for vocational programs, or need to be home at least a semester after graduation. Over 50% of graduates go on to school. A well-documented follow-up study would reflect a higher percent. Increasingly, students are going into military service following graduation, scoring high enough on the ASVAB test to enter specialties of their choice.

The high transiency of student populations in off-reservation boarding schools also reflects the demands placed on these schools to educate children who already have significant problems of one sort or another. The principal of Sherman Indian High School in California writes:

> Due to the current admission criteria for off-reservation boarding schools, about 25% of our students are here due to behavioral or truancy problems. The Intensive Residential Guidance (IRG) program is structured so as to provide a variety of counselling, tutorial and recreational activities to assist these students to become more productive and develop a more positive self-image. Many of these students also need much remedial work, as their behavioral problems have effected their school progress. An additional 25% to 50% of our students, when tested in the ninth grade, as a class, are approximately 2-3 grade levels below national norms. This 2-3 year gap persists through the 12th grade. It is quite frustrating for staff to try to remediate a skill deficiency, such as reading, that has been allowed to deteriorate during the 8 or so years a student has been in school prior to coming to Sherman. On the other hand, those individual students who test at or above grade level continue to maintain these scores and are not held back by other students. Although funds for the gifted have been minimal, Sherman provides the STEP program, and during the past year, has seen 50 students benefit from the additional attention.

One of the major problem areas for Indian students--like many of their parents--is alcohol abuse, often linked to withdrawal from or poor attendance in school. The BIA in recent years has sought to develop programs to address the alcohol problems of its students. The principal of Chemawa explains:

> Retention is affected by age, grade and behavior. The higher the grade level the higher the retention rate. Older students in higher grades have diminishing options and more concern for high school completion. Alcohol-related behaviors are the most frequent reason for suspension and

expulsion. We have indicators from student-wide testing to believe depression also plays a part in retention rate. We believe this correlates with issues of self-esteem and repeated school failure before enrollment. We are still educating many students who are the first in their families to complete high school or in the first generation of graduates in their families.

The Chemawa Alcohol Education Program is multifaceted, offering a variety of regular culturally based activities in cooperation with school staff. Two recreational therapists offer high-risk outdoor, developmental and group process activities for Intensive Residential Guidance students targeted because of substance abuse problems. 75% of students have alcohol as a major area of dysfunction in their families, based on the CAST screening instrument administered to the students this year. Chemawa School and the Chemawa Alcohol Education Program, in cooperation with IHS, is implementing a program initiated last spring that brings students through a process of assessment and outpatient treatment with 10 contracted alcohol residential treatment beds at nearby Red Willow, an adolescent alcohol treatment center, available for the estimated 5% of addicted students. This program will impact an additional 20% of the students with substance abuse problems serious enough to warrant suspension and/or expulsion. By concentrating School, IHS and CAEC staff and resources on this problem area, we will continue to improve retention rate for this group of high risk students.

Alcohol is only one of the problems that many Indian students must overcome to achieve success in school. Indian children often live in environments marred by violence, poverty and social breakdown. The principal of the Little Eagle Day School describes the difficult environment from which his students come:

Ninety-five percent of the fifty-three (53) families who have children enrolled in school have an income which is derived from either state or federal welfare. The unemployment rate is high. The exact percentage for the locale is unknown at this writing. Only two (2) work sites are available in the community, the school and Headstart Center. Only about ten (10) community members can be employed at these sites.

Recent studies have indicated a direct correlation between family income and academic achievement. The average education level also makes it difficult to secure the employment needed. This contributes to the negative self concept of both student and parent. Often family and group conflicts arise. Family disorganization is evident. Of the fifty-three (53) families, twenty-two (22) are single parents. Twelve (12) of the families are grandparent guardians.

> There are many social problems created by the lack of economy. Idleness, substance abuse, apathy and quite recently within the past two (2) months, three stabbing deaths with a total of seven (7) persons indicted, facing possible life incarceration. One of these deaths involved a high school honor student who came to visit his mom for one evening! Due to high rental and utility fees in government quarters, the police assigned here moved to a neighboring town ten (10) miles away. There is no steady police protection and communication is poor since there are only three (3) phones in the community.

The BIA operates a number of dormitories for students who live in isolated locations or for other reasons are unable to attend public schools as day students. In this way BIA enables these students to live in BIA dormitories while attending public school. The principal of Carter Seminary in Oklahoma writes that:

> The Dormitory Program served a total of 230 students during 1986-87 school year. The official count was 133. The authorized enrollment is 128 and serves grades 1 to 12. The enrollment boundary includes Oklahoma and adjoining states. The enrollment is primarily made up of the Five Tribes of Eastern Oklahoma; however 23 tribes were represented this past school year. Most of the students are below age-grade level. Many factors contribute to this. including poor home situations, alcohol and drug abuse, neglect, broken families and unemployment.
>
> The campus consists of 24 acres with modern buildings. The dormitory is co-educational with common living, T.V. room and game rooms for the students. The buildings are all in good repair and well maintained.

Another dormitory is located in Eufaula, Oklahoma. The principal of this contract dormitory writes:

> Eufaula Dormitory, contracted by the Creek Nation of Oklahoma, houses 128 students. The Dormitory is co-educational and serves grades 1-12. The students of Eufaula Dormitory attend Eufaula Public Schools. Eufaula Dormitory enrollment has been above capacity the past two years. The faculty of Eufaula Dormitory are considerate of students, firm with discipline and dedicated to the job of caring for young Indian people The past three years we have had no turn-over rate and have had to supplement and train five employees through Tribal Programs because of the number of students we have had. Eufaula Dormitory student enrollment has climbed at record rates.
>
> Through constant encouragement, Eufaula Dormitory students have accomplished many successes. Acceptance in the Eufaula Public School and not just existence has been the key.

> In the past three years Eufaula Dormitory has placed 30 or more students on the Honor Roll per year. Eufaula Dormitory had 35 boys who participated in football. The first year of contracting there was one participant. Three months of the nine months, Eufaula Dormitory had the "Student of the Month" Award. Eufaula Dormitory had the Girl's basketball leading scorer for 1986-87, had six varsity wrestlers, three varsity starters in baseball, and two superior band ratings.

In Utah, the public schools of the Sevier School District have proven agreeable to accepting students from the Navajo Reservation. As the principal of BIA's Richfield dormitory explains, its presence allows Navajo students to take advantage of this opportunity:

> Currently the dormitory houses approximately 130 students grades 9-12 that attend school at Richfield High School, South Sevier High School and Sevier Valley Tech. Students from the Western Navaho Agency are eligible to attend school in the Sevier District while residing in the Richfield Dorm. The Navaho people of the Western Navaho Area realize the quality education offered through the public school district and the opportunity for vocational training at the Sevier Valley Tech.
>
> Attached is a report of the students overall academic achievements in the Sevier School District. Approximately 50% of the graduates go on to advanced educational programs. The Sevier School District has excellent academic results as shown in the attached report.
>
> The relationship that exists between the Navaho students and the educational system is excellent. Both public schools utilize Chapter 1 funds to provide professional assistance to the students. When the students arrive at the beginning of the year they are tested, and programs are designed and developed to meet the academic needs of the Navaho students.

Greater involvement and support of Indian parents is vital in improving Indian education. Many Indian parents have in fact been seeking to help out, even when they have been somewhat unsure how to do so. The principal of the Navajo Mountain School writes:

> The desires of the Navajo Mountain parents are like most parents. They want their children to learn and do well in school. Since English is the second language in almost all homes, the school focus has been on the development of English language skills and basic mathematics skills. The grade equivalent mean test score for all students completing the sixth grade on a nationally normed achievement test showed the students at Navajo Mountain eighteen months behind the national average mean score for students at this grade level.

> Parents involve themselves in the school by attending and participating in school functions like talent shows, movies, cultural and athletic events. Some parents hike each spring the fourteen miles into Rainbow Bridge and back out again with the sixth grade class. The school has not yet been fully successful in getting full participation in classroom programs that directly relate to improvement of basic academic skills. Programs for students are available such as spelling contests, science contests, speech and poetry contests. The students have placed high when competing in these contests with students from other schools in the Western Navajo Agency.

In Fort Yates, the Standing Rock High School has sought to obtain greater community involvement with the school. As its principal indicates:

> The community of Fort Yates is involved in some of the activities of the school. A parent/teacher organization has been organized during the last three years to facilitate school-community interaction. The meetings have been sparsely attended, but continued efforts will, hopefully, create more involvement. School sponsored athletic events, such as football and basketball contests are fairly well attended, but not the full support as other communities receive. Parent/Teacher Conferences are attended by approximately 25-30% of the patrons. Newsletters describing certain events and letters of invitation are sent to parents to encourage their participation at school sponsored functions, the school board is elected at large on the reservation, with anyone who wishes to be elected need only to file a petition. The board is charted under by-laws of its constitution. The chairman is selected by the board at its first regular meeting following the annual election. The council supports the board in carrying out its requests for such items as 638 contracting as needed. Local businesses of which there are few do support the activities of the school by donating money to many class organization sponsored endeavors. A Parent-Booster Club levels its support by working at athletic contests and by sponsored scholarships to deserving graduates at commencement exercises. The local Businessmen's Club sponsors an award given to a deserving academic/athletic achievement as part of a local memorial scholarship.

One of the main objectives in the enactment in 1978 of the Education Amendments Act (better known as P.L. 95-561, or simply "561") was to promote greater Indian involvement in the running of BIA schools. This policy for Indian education is, of course, part of the broader policy of Indian self-determination. While the change has not occurred overnight, a number of principals reported substantial progress in this regard. The principal of the Little Eagle Day School reports that "The School community relationships have improved greatly since the inception of P.L. 95-561. More parents are involved in the education process." The principal of the Lower Brule Day School in South Dakota writes that "The community is involved in the activities of

the school as much as 80% attending school functions, including Christmas and spring concerts, sporting events and special picnic affairs." Moreover, "The elected tribal council members of the tribe also serve as the school board. There is a high rate of parents attending parent/teacher conferences. In addition a close relationship exists with the school for overall academic achievement."

In the Southwest, the principal of the Dzilth-na-o-dith-hle School reports that Navajo parents are also assuming a growing role in the education of their children:

> The Dzilth-na-o-dith-hle School Board meets and confers with the school's administration, staff and students as well as with the Bloomfield Public School's Indian Education coordinator on a regular basis to look after the interests of their students. Additionally, the Indian Education Coordinator has a parent advisory council with representatives from the three chapters. The School Board meets with this council and has established communication links through the school as well as with the chapters. Thus, articulation between both schools is established with student progress and problems addressed.

In New Mexico, the principal of the San Felipe Elementary School writes:

> Parents at San Felipe are concerned with their children's education and are involved in the educational process. The local Parent-Teacher group meets once a month and is an integral part of the educational program. Several pieces of equipment were bought from funds raised by the parents. There are several parents on the school's activity committees.

Enactment of the Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act of 1975 (P.L. 93-638) sought to promote greater contracting for the delivery of Indian services to tribes themselves. By 1988, 30 percent of the students in BIA-funded schools were attending contract schools. The principal of the Theodore Jamerson Elementary School, a contract school in North Dakota, reported active parent interest and involvement in the operation of the school.

> Parental cooperation and support is very good at Theodore Jamerson. Turn out for parent/teacher conferences usually ranges between 85% to 90%. Other events such as potluck dinners, open house and school programs also show enthusiastic parent support.
>
> The School Board is made up of 5 elected members who meet monthly to guide and advise the administration of the school. The members take part in training as offered by the national associations.

Similarly, the principal of another contract school, the Leupp Boarding School, writes that:

The Leupp Boarding School, Inc., School Board is elected every four years, two members from each of the three communities. As a contract school board, it is responsible for hiring of all personnel as well as making and/or approving all policies of the school. The School Board and the Director work together to articulate and strengthen the vision of an education that promotes tribal self-sufficiency.

Extra-curricular Activities and Special Programs

Extra-curricular activities can play an important role in developing a strong sense of a school community, something that contributes to educational success as well. Sports often play a particularly important role in this regard, and Indian schools typically have active sports programs. Some of them report considerable competitive success. The principal of the Bullhead Day School (K-8) in South Dakota writes that:

> For extra-curricular we have cross-country, girls basketball and boys basketball. We had a very successful season in these areas. Cross-country team placed high in all of their meets. Successful season in both girls and boys basketball teams winning championships. The ironic thing is that we do not have a gymnasium at our school. We either practice outdoors or borrow the facilities from our neighboring bureau-operated school, Little Eagle Day School.

In Montana, the leading extra-curricular activities in the Rocky Boy High School include sports and community work to combat alcohol and drug abuse. The principal of Rocky Boy writes:

> Some of the outstanding programs in the high school include our outstanding athletic program with a state championship in Boy Crosscountry and second and third place finishes as well; third place in Girls Crosscountry the first year they entered in 1986; third place in Boys State Basketball in 1987; and numerous district and divisional championships in Basketball and Track. Our Community Action Team (team of school faculty, students, parents, and community agencies combatting alcohol/drug abuse) was formed in 1985 and is very active in sponsoring drug & alcohol free activities. The team also sponsored our Hawaiian/Rocky Boy Student Exchange Program in 1987 where we sent 15 drug/alcohol free students to Hawaii during the Spring of 1987 and hosted 9 of their drug/alcohol free students in the Summer of 1987.

Extra-curricular activity can provide an important means whereby Indian students gain exposure to and recognition in the broader world beyond the reservation. The principal of the Ojibway School in Minnesota explains:

> The school provides a number of co-curricular activities for students. There is a school newspaper for juniors and seniors as a course elective.

> The Student Council has representatives from all grades. The Council also has a representative on the Board of Education. The Pow Wow Club is the school's drum group. They also have a number of traditional dancers who are active in area pow wows. This group hosts and plans the school's annual pow wow. For the past two years, the school has sponsored a trip for students to Washington DC through the Close Up Foundation. The program is a week long trip to the nation's capitol for students to learn first hand about the operation of the federal government. They also get the opportunity to meet the congressional delegation.
>
> The school's communications teacher regularly enters students writings into contests. Student works were sent to and published by the *High School Writer* and the *Cloquet Pine Know* and the *Duluth News Tribune*. One student won a Creative Writing Contest sponsored by the *Tribune* for a poem he wrote about the Tokyo Stock Exchange. For his efforts he was awarded the typeset page the *Tribune* used for publicizing the contest complete with his picture.

Extra-curricular activities can offer the opportunity to single out individual students for attention, giving them recognition while also emphasizing the bonds of friendship and camaraderie that bring together the school community. The principal of the Fort Thompson Elementary School in South Dakota reports that:

> The Fort Thompson School being student centered has focussed on promoting recognition of students through out the school year. At least once a month we recognize the students who have birthdays, through having a mini pow-wow for all students at the school. There is a honor song sung for the students who have birthdays as well as several social round dances for all to participate in. The birthday students are given ribbons that designate them as such. We also invite the parents/guardians to the school once a month for visitation. The parents/guardians come to the school to visit the classrooms and have lunch with their children. We also recognize students on a weekly basis by selecting students of the week. This notice is posted on the bulletin board in the hallway so that all can see who made this list. The students also get a laminated certificate designating them as the student of the week for their particular grade.

Some BIA schools have achieved national recognition for their programs. The St. Stephens Indian School was founded in 1884 by a Jesuit priest. Now a contract school, it was recently given national recognition as one of the best schools in the nation. Some BIA schools have been invited to participate in nationwide efforts to develop innovative teaching and administrative methods. The principal of the Greasewood-Toyei School in Arizona reports:

One of the unique programs at Greasewood-Toyei School is the Mastery In Learning Project (MILP). The school was one of the six pilot schools selected nation-wide to participate in the project sponsored by the National Education Association (NEA) for school year 1985-86. MILP began with an eighteen month pilot phase (March 1985 August 1986) which delineated project goals and strategies. An information base of research and previous reform efforts was compiled for staff use. Material was developed and different techniques were tested throughout the school year. The project was organized using the following activities: a detailed description of the school was developed, a faculty inventory was conducted, staff explored/reviewed educational research material on learning, teaching, curriculum, and school reform, and staff developed a school improvement action plan, tested it and implemented it. The five initial areas (according to staff inventory) were: Whole Language: Student Evaluation; Testing; Instructional Material; Student/Parent Attitudes Toward Education; and Stability and Continuity. Committees were organized and a Chairperson was selected for each of these areas. Staff members worked as a team to find solutions and develop a program that would improve these areas. At the end of the year final reports were submitted and analyzed for future reference. In Phase II (school year 1986-87) areas of concern were similar to the ones in Phase I due to the consolidation of Greasewood and Toyei Schools. The same procedures were used to identify the areas of concern which were: Whole Language; Parent/Student Attitudes; Curriculum Revision; and Community-School Public Relations (liaison). The MILP played a major role in making the transition of consolidation much easier than anticipated since staff were required to work as a team with one goal in mind, that of providing an Educational Program that emphasizes "Mastery In Learning". One of the highlights of the MILP Project at Greasewood-Toyei School (GTCS) this past year was a visit by a group of Cameroonians from Africa. Dr.Sam Stimple, the site base coordinator from Northern Arizona University through NEA and the University of Southern California coordinated the visit. The GTCS student council planned, organized and played host to the group by taking them to visit classrooms, served lunch to them and presented them each with a gift from Navajoland. The student council members made quite an impression on the visitors. They set up the family style dining room so that one of the gentlemen was seated at a table with several students. It was very impressive to see our students carry on conversations and talk about their culture, family, and school visitors. According to Dr. Stimple, the Cameroonians' visit to Greasewood was the highlight of their two week visit to the United States. This is only one of the many activities the Student Council gets involved with. They are very active and play a major role in all areas of the School Program.

Outside recognition of school programs and activities shows students that they can successfully participate in the broader society and can do much to enhance their self-

esteem. It builds pride and enthusiasm among parents, teachers and students alike. Connected to its whole language program, the Wingate Elementary School in New Mexico has been a leader in encouraging its students to write and perform for fellow students and parents, as well as for outside groups. Its principal writes:

> The school is becoming known as a "model" for whole language teaching. Numerous educators, from both BIA and public schools, have requested to visit the program and observe first-hand the program. And requests keep coming in. Also, the school's education specialist has provided whole language training in Navajo area schools, again both in BIA and public, on numerous occasions.
>
> One administrator and one teacher are now involved in a Whole Language Consortium, comprised of several BIA, public, and contract schools serving Navajo children. The objective of the consortium is to develop a written curriculum for whole language appropriate for the school's populations.
>
> Some of the whole language activities include SSR (Sustained, Silent Reading), literature studies, process writing workshop, journal writing, environmental print, shared book experiences, thematic units, transformations, and inquiry strategies. In the area of writing, excellent progress has been noted. Students at all grade levels are writing their own stories and publishing them for use in classroom libraries.
>
> One sixth grade class last year had a goal of 300 student-authored stories, and these prolific authors published a total of 343. This class set a goal of 400 stories, and at the end of the first semester had already written 301.
>
> To enrich the writing program, the school has secured the services of a consultant, Mick Fedullo, during the past two years to help train teachers to work with poetry. The result of his work is a beautifully published calendar of student-authored poetry and student art, much of it reflecting their culture and reservation life. Another publication is planned for this year.
>
> A creative writing contest is in progress at the present time in the categories of fiction, essays, poetry, dictated stories, and group/class stories. Awards will be given to the winners in all categories at all grade levels.
>
> A new reading program has been started this year to encourage more leisure and self-selecting reading. WKRP (Wingate Karate Reading Program) awards karate belts (ribbons), all the way up to a black belt, to students who read so many books.

The residential department assists the academic program by conducting a study hour in the dormitories four nights a week. Homework or class assignments are completed during this time. A part of the study hour from 20 to 30 minutes, is designed for additional self-selected reading. This program, called "Million Minutes," is now in its third year. The first year, the students were challenged to read a cumulative total of one million minutes. When the students surpassed their goal in May, the Student Council requested that the staff come to school one day dressed as "punk rockers" and most personnel cooperated. Last year when the students met their goal of 1,250,000 minutes, the staff dressed up as cartoon or story book characters everything from Kermit the Frog to Tom Sawyer. This year the goal has been raised to 1,350,000.

Special days are celebrated throughout the year to capitalize on holidays and special events as well as everyday life. Some examples are T-Shirt Day, Hat Day, Thank You Week, Red Day, Christmas Card Day, American Indian Week, and Heart Days. Teachers are requested to plan whole language activities to tie meaningful languaging to the special days.

A vital part of the whole language curriculum are the school's theatrical productions. Two major musicals are staged each year, one at Christmas and one in the spring. The Christmas play, sponsored by the junior high but involving 100 students from all grades, is entitled, "Three Wee Kings." This play, an annual tradition of three full performances, has costumes, lighting, sets, sound track, choir, and choreography. The *Gallup Independent* reported this year about the play: "It's not the scene for a Broadway production, but the play is as close to professional as you'll get with amateurs. And these amateurs are grade school students, no less." This year, the students will attempt to perform the Shakespeare play "MacBeth."

Conclusion

The system of BIA-funded Indian schools has about 38,000 students. Many big-city school systems and even some suburban systems have many more students. Yet, the system of Indian schools encompasses an enormous geographic and cultural range. The diversity of the BIA system is unique in American education.

In asking principals to write briefly about their schools, the Office of Indian Education Programs sought only a limited sample. Yet, even this small sample has effectively conveyed the very wide range of circumstances that face Indian educators. Most schools serve a student population that lacks the educational advantages of homes with high education and income. Many BIA schools have had difficulty in seeking to bring their students to a level of educational achievement comparable to other students in American education. Some schools, however, have been more successful, in part because they have experimented with new ideas and methods. It is to be hoped

that communication within the system of Indian education can be improved to allow for a more rapid dissemination of such successes, and greater exchange of ideas among the members of this system.

CHAPTER IV

The Performance of BIA Students on Nationally Standardized Tests

Evaluation of the performance of schools is complicated by the fact that they have many different goals and purposes. Schools offer role models for the young and education in the values of the community. They teach standards of punctuality, proper dress, courtesy to others, and generally the codes of proper conduct expected in society. These and other elements of education are difficult, if not impossible, to measure in a formal and objectively quantifiable way.

There are, however, other aspects of educational performance that are more readily measured. Schools are expected, above all else, to teach their students how to read, write and spell; do mathematics; comprehend the basic facts of their own heritage; know the key political and economic workings of their society; and understand other basics of education. Through standardized tests it is possible to measure--at least in a rough fashion--the degree of knowledge that students possess in these areas. Indeed, there are a variety of national tests given to elementary and secondary students each year. Because these tests are taken by students all across the United States, it is possible to compare student achievement in individual schools with the typical levels of achievement of fellow students throughout the United States.

Use of standardized tests has been controversial, however, especially with respect to minority children. Some critics contend that the tests are designed for children with the background and outlook of mainstream America. In implicit and sometimes subtle ways, the tests may discriminate against children who bring to the tests a different cultural experience and outlook. There is little expert consensus on the validity of such criticisms and the degree of validity may vary among different tests such as mathematics and language. Nevertheless, one of the main purposes of education-- including Indian education--is to prepare students to understand, deal with and function well in the cultural context of mainstream America. At a minimum, then, standardized tests would seem to offer an approximate measure of this aspect of educational performance.

It should also be emphasized that test scores take no account of the difficulty of the educational task facing each school. Some schools may do an excellent job of educating students from minority backgrounds. Other schools may be blessed with students who have family support and economic advantages that almost guarantee they will

learn rapidly, as measured by standardized achievement tests. The results of standardized achievement tests may show schools of the former type achieving scores well below schools in the latter category. Yet, educationally, the quality of educational performance could be the opposite; the school with the lower scores could actually be doing the best teaching job. In short, assessments of school performance must take account of the starting points of students, as well as where they end up.

BIA schools have many students who enter school already well behind their peers in the typical American school. Indeed, many entering BIA students--by some estimates roughly 30 percent--do not speak English as a primary language. They also come in disproportionate numbers from families that have low incomes, unemployment, alcoholism and other social problems. In 1987, 31 percent of elementary and secondary students in BIA-funded schools lived away from home at boarding schools, where they received less exposure outside the classroom to adult conversation and attention. BIA students generally face a more difficult task than other students in that they must seek to blend and understand two different cultures. For all these reasons, the test scores of the students in BIA schools are not in themselves a full measure of the educational performance of the schools.

There are some ways, however, in which it may be fair to draw some conclusions about the educational performance of BIA schools. For example, if two BIA schools accept students from similar backgrounds and degrees of social advantage, and students in one school learn much more than students in the other, it may well be reasonable to draw the conclusion that the first school is achieving an educational performance superior to the second. The results of testing may also show that students in some schools are achieving levels of learning far below their peers nationwide. Given the staffing and resources available, the school may be doing as well as could reasonably be expected of it. One may still conclude, however, that the school is performing at an unacceptably low level and that whole new approaches--perhaps involving greater resources--may be required.

Until recently, there was no systematic testing of students in BIA schools Bureauwide. However, reflecting a policy decision made in 1985, all BIA-operated schools--and contract schools as well--are now directed to administer a standard national test to their students. Such tests were first administered throughout the system in the 1985-1986 school year--although the majority of schools had already begun some form of testing earlier. Tests were also given throughout the BIA system for the 1986-1987 school year, but the results were not available in computerized form in time for presentation in this Final Review Draft. However, the Final Report, to follow this Final Review Draft, will incorporate the test data for 1986-1987, replacing the 1985-1986 test scores presented in this draft.

Each BIA-funded school is directed to administer one of two tests, the California Achievement Test (CAT-E/F) or the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills (CTBS-U/V). The CAT and CTBS are normed by McGraw-Hill and are used widely to test students throughout the United States. BIA students, beginning in grade 2, are tested

every year for knowledge of reading, language, mathematics and other subjects. A composite or "battery" test score gives a single measure of the overall student level of knowledge in all subject areas. In the spring of 1986, a total of 23,218 students in BIA-funded schools took the tests and received battery test scores that were centrally scored by McGraw-Hill. Of the total, 4,901 students were in contract schools and 18,317 in BIA-operated schools. The tests used were divided about equally between the CTBS and CAT--11,647 of the former and 11,571 of the latter. The largest number of test takers, 2,909, was in grade 3 and the smallest, 1,112, in grade 12. The smaller number in grade 12 reflected dropouts from school altogether and the common practice for BIA students to transfer to public schools, especially following grade 8.

In 1986, the BIA reported enrollment of 38,475 students in BIA-funded schools. Thus, only about 60 percent of students took the national tests. This percentage reflects the absence of testing for kindergarten and first grade (although some tests are given to first graders); dropouts from school between "count week" and the testing date; failure to be tested due to illness and other excused absence; decisions of some BIA schools not to send test data to McGraw-Hill; resistance of some contract schools to giving the tests; and other factors.

Test results are shown in this chapter in two ways, as a "percentile ranking" and in terms of a "grade equivalent." The percentile ranking shows how the test taker compared with other students nationwide in the same grade and taking the same test at that time. Thus, a percentile ranking of 75 would indicate that the student scored as high or higher on the test than 75 percent of all the students nationwide taking the test and below the remaining 25 percent of still higher scoring students. The lowest possible score would be a percentile ranking of 1--indicating that 99 percent of test takers nationwide scored higher. The highest possible score would be a percentile ranking of 99-- indicating that the student scored higher than all but 1 percent of the test takers nationwide.

The "grade equivalent" shows the grade level in school for which the test score would represent the expected or average result nationwide. Thus, if a student in the fourth grade received a grade equivalent of 5.5, it would show that the fourth-grader's test score would normally be expected of a student in the middle of the fifth grade taking the same test. A test score by the same fourth grader of 3.5 would indicate a score normally expected of a student in the middle of the third grade on the same test.

Since the tests were administered in the spring of the 1985-1986 school year, a student keeping pace with his or her grade level nationwide should have made substantial progress toward the next grade. For example, BIA fourth-grade classes should achieve a test result showing a grade equivalent of 4.7, if they are keeping up with the typical rate of learning of other fourth graders nationwide. A grade equivalent of 3.7 would show that BIA fourth graders were one full school year behind the national averages for their grade.

In presenting test results for all BIA-funded schools, or for some of the larger regions, it simplified the presentation to average together percentile rankings and grade equivalents obtained separately from CAT and CTBS tests. This was done by first calculating the average "scale score" for all students taking the CTBS in a given region, and then separately for all students taking the CAT in the region. These figures were then converted into percentile rankings or grade equivalents corresponding to the average raw test score of all regional CTBS or CAT test takers. The separate results of the CTBS and CAT were then merged into a single percentile ranking or grade equivalent by using a weighted average, the weights derived from the absolute number of CTBS and CAT test takers.

Taking the weighted average of separate tests is not a standard test reporting procedure. However, in the great majority of cases, the percentile rankings and grade equivalents for the two tests were very similar in the same region--within a few percentage points of one another, for example, in percentile rankings. Hence, very little would be gained by a separate reporting of CTBS and CAT results; yet such a presentation would be more cumbersome and difficult to follow.

Many BIA-funded schools include special education students--who possess mental and physical handicaps of various sorts--in their regular standardized testing program. Thus, the test results sent to McGrall-Hill for 1985-1986 scoring included special education students from some BIA-funded schools. Public schools in the United States, however, typically exclude special education students in their reporting of their students' standardized test scores. Accordingly, the test score results presented below for BIA-funded schools are not directly comparable to test results for public schools. This problem will be resolved in the Final Report, because the 1986-1987 test results will be reported there. The revised 1986-1987 policy of BIA-funded schools for student testing excludes the test results of special education students from test score reporting of regular students.

Because systemwide testing began only in 1985-86, and critical procedures for inclusion of special education students were charged for 1986-87, it will be impossible to demonstrate any systemwide time trends until the test results for the 1987-88 test year are received. The data included in this chapter are limited in that they show test results for only one point in time. Many individual schools and Agencies have been testing for longer periods and can show changes in student test results over time. In some cases these results are promising in that test scores, even while low, are showing significant upward movement.

Systemwide Results for BIA Schools

The test scores of both BIA-operated and contract schools show that their students are falling well behind the mean of other students nationwide in their ability to demonstrate learning of reading, language, and mathematics. Table 1 shows for each grade the percentile ranking for the average battery test score achieved by students in BIA-operated schools, students in contract schools, and students in all schools

TABLE 1

PERCENTILE RANKINGS FOR 1986 TEST SCORES, BY GRADE AND TYPE OF SCHOOL BATTERY OF TESTS (Number of Test Takers in Parentheses)

Type of School	Grade 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
BIA-Oper. Schools	N/A	22% (2,256)	22% (2,441)	22% (2,412)	20% (2,068)	22% (2,045)	22% (1,796)	20% (1,693)	16% (1,037)	16% (947)	20% (819)	21% (803)
Contract Schools	N/A	18 (433)	16 (468)	19 (441)	18 (333)	17 (412)	19 (537)	18 (491)	16 (573)	16 (491)	17 (353)	20 (309)
All BIA-Funded Schools	N/A	22 (2,689)	21 (2,909)	21 (2,853)	19 (2,461)	21 (2,457)	21 (2,333)	19 (2,184)	16 (1,610)	16 (1,438)	18 (1,172)	21 (1,112)

(BIA and contract) together. The figures shown in parentheses below the percentile rankings in Table 1 (and all subsequent tables in this chapter) indicate the total number of test takers for that type of school and grade.

As seen in Table 1, the highest systemwide percentile ranking of any grade in BIA-operated schools was the 22nd percentile, a ranking which was achieved by several grades. For students in BIA-operated schools from grade 2 to grade 8, the percentile rankings varied only between 20 and 22. For students in BIA-operated schools from grade 9 to grade 12, and for contract schools at all grade levels, the typical test result was a percentile ranking between the 16th and the 20th percentiles. Contract schools generally achieved test scores in 1986 similar to, but in most cases a few percentage points below, BIA-operated schools. For all grades, the contract schools were, on average, 2.5 percentage points below the BIA-operated schools. Such differences may reflect different backgrounds and educational disadvantages of students in contract schools, rather than any differences in the quality of educational programs. Indeed, it is possible that contract schools could be doing a superior educational job, even though test scores are slightly lower.

There is a common belief that test scores of disadvantaged minority students decline over time, as students progress upward through grade levels. However, using percentile rankings as a way of assessing test scores, there is little evidence for this view in the test results for BIA-operated and contract schools. The average scores for both second and third graders in BIA-operated schools represented a percentile ranking of 22; the percentile rankings for seventh and eighth graders were 22 and 20, respectively. A significant drop in test scores does occur from eighth to ninth grade. However, this drop occurs along with a sharp decline in the BIA population of test takers, from 1,693 test takers in the eighth grade to 1,037 test takers in the ninth grade. The decline in BIA scores for the ninth and other high school grades probably reflects

the retention in BIA-operated high schools of students with greater educational disadvantages who may already have had lower test scores in earlier grades.

Once entered in high school, BIA percentile rankings rise a few percentages from 9th grade to 12th grade. Here again, this rise may reflect a tendency of poorer students to drop out, rather than improved educational performance for a given body of students. The test scores for contract schools also show a relative stability from second grade through eighth grade, a drop in ninth grade and then some limited rises in scores by the twelfth grade.

Percentile rankings on reading tests are shown in Table 2 and on language tests in Table 3. Generally, the results are similar to those shown in Table 1 for the full bat-

TABLE 2

PERCENTILE RANKINGS FOR 1986 TEST SCORES, BY GRADE AND TYPE OF SCHOOL READING (Number of Test Takers in Parentheses)

Type of School	Grade 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
BIA-Oper. Schools	25% (2,626)	20% (2,653)	20% (2,546)	22% (2,414)	19% (2,077)	19% (2,054)	19% (1,805)	17% (1,707)	14% (1,069)	14% (960)	17% (827)	17% (815)
Contract Schools	18 (549)	18 (449)	18 (473)	20 (446)	21 (397)	19 (413)	22 (544)	17 (493)	18 (584)	18 (503)	20 (367)	23 (321)
All BIA-Funded Schools	23 (3,175)	20 (3,102)	20 (3,019)	22 (2,860)	19 (2,474)	19 (2,467)	20 (2,349)	17 (2,200)	16 (1,653)	16 (1,463)	17 (1,194)	18 (1,112)

TABLE 3

PERCENTILE RANKINGS FOR 1986 TEST SCORES, BY GRADE AND TYPE OF SCHOOL LANGUAGE (Number of Test Takers in Parentheses)

Type of School	Grade 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
BIA-Oper. Schools	N/A	23% (2,260)	17% (2,444)	22% (2,413)	22% (2,072)	25% (2,058)	28% (1,802)	26% (1,699)	20% (1,052)	20% (955)	23% (827)	24% (813)
Contract Schools	N/A	17 (434)	21 (472)	21 (441)	19 (394)	19 (413)	23 (540)	20 (492)	17 (582)	19 (500)	19 (359)	22 (316)
All Schools	N/A	22 (2,694)	17 (2,916)	22 (2,854)	21 (2,466)	23 (2,471)	26 (2,342)	24 (2,191)	19 (1,634)	20 (1,455)	21 (1,186)	24 (1,129)

tery of tests. Relative to BIA-operated schools, contract schools did slightly better on the reading tests, achieving percentile rankings on average a percentage point higher. However, BIA-operated schools did somewhat better on the language tests, as shown in Table 3. The language test includes measures of knowledge in spelling, grammar, punctuation, vocabulary and other skills needed for writing.

The percentile rankings on the mathematics test, shown in Table 4, exhibit greater variability from grade to grade than the rankings for the other tests. Students in BIA-operated schools in the 1st, 2nd and 3rd grades achieved the highest percentile rankings of any grades. Unlike the other tests, the mathematics test scores for BIA-operated schools show a tendency for student relative performance to decline as students advance to higher grades in school. First-grade students in BIA-operated schools achieved mathematics scores in 1986 in the 41st percentile. First graders in contract schools achieved a percentile ranking of 34. Although many students enter BIA-operated and contract schools speaking primarily their tribal language, this is less of a disadvantage for mathematics. By the eighth grade, however, the mathematics test scores for BIA-operated schools and contract schools show a decline to the 22nd and 19th percentiles, respectively.

TABLE 4

PERCENTILE RANKINGS FOR 1986 TEST SCORES, BY GRADE AND TYPE OF SCHOOL MATHEMATICS (Number of Test Takers in Parentheses)

Type of School	Grade 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
BIA-Oper. Schools	41% (2,198)	35% (2,574)	30% (2,547)	26% (2,417)	26% (2,072)	23% (2,057)	24% (1,804)	22% (1,702)	17% (1,048)	19% (963)	21% (834)	22% (817)
Contract Schools	34 (522)	22 (445)	16 (473)	19 (444)	17 (395)	17 (413)	19 (542)	19 (495)	16 (591)	17 (501)	19 (364)	21 (324)
All BIA-Funded Schools	40 (2,720)	28 (3,019)	23 (3,020)	25 (2,861)	24 (2,467)	22 (2,470)	23 (2,346)	21 (2,197)	16 (1,639)	19 (1,464)	20 (1,198)	22 (1,141)

Table 5 is based on the same raw test scores as Table 1. However, instead of showing the results of the tests as a percentile ranking, the test scores are now converted into a grade equivalent. As Table 5 shows, BIA-operated schools start off already well behind in the second grade. A grade equivalent of 2.7 is the national norm for second grade when the tests are taken in the spring. However, a grade equivalent of 2.2 was actually achieved by BIA second graders. Thus, in the first two years BIA students had already fallen five months behind. Students in BIA-operated schools then

TABLE 5

GRADE EQUIVALENTS FOR 1986 TEST SCORES, BY GRADE AND TYPE OF SCHOOL BATTERY OF TESTS (Number of Test Takers in Parentheses)

Type of School	Grade 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
BIA-Oper. Schools	N/A	2.2 (2,256)	2.7 (2,441)	3.5 (2,412)	4.1 (2,068)	4.8 (2,045)	5.2 (1,796)	5.8 (1,693)	6.3 (1,037)	7.0 (947)	7.8 (819)	8.2 (803)
Contract Schools	N/A	2.2 (433)	2.6 (468)	3.1 (441)	3.7 (393)	4.3 (412)	5.0 (537)	5.7 (491)	6.3 (573)	7.0 (353)	7.3 (491)	7.9 (309)
All BIA-Funded Schools	N/A	2.2 (2,689)	2.7 (2,909)	3.4 (2,853)	4.0 (2,461)	4.7 (2,457)	5.2 (2,333)	5.8 (2,184)	6.3 (1,610)	7.0 (1,438)	7.7 (1,172)	8.1 (1,112)

fall steadily further behind as they move to higher grades. By eighth grade, the average BIA student exhibits a grade equivalent of 5.8, compared with the 8.7 grade equivalent that is the national average for eighth graders in the spring test period. The average BIA student thus by the end of the eighth grade is almost three years behind the mean of other students nationwide.

The test scores shown in Table 5 may seem to suggest that the performance of BIA students gets worse at each succeeding grade level, compared with their student peers nationwide. However, as was shown in Table 1, the percentile rankings of students in BIA-operated schools actually change little from the second to the eighth grade, falling in every case from the 20th to the 22nd percentiles of all students taking the tests nationwide. The figures in Table 5 do reflect the fact that a ranking in the 20th or 22nd percentile represents a growing absolute deficiency in demonstrated knowledge relative to the level of knowledge shown on the test by an average student for that grade level. In this sense, the view that BIA students fall further and further behind as they move through school has some validity.

Tables 6, 7 and 8 show the grade equivalents achieved by students in BIA-operated and contract schools for the specific tests in reading, language and mathematics. Generally, the test results show patterns similar to those shown in Tables 2, 3 and 4 for percentile rankings. The BIA-operated schools on the whole do a little bit better than contract schools. For example, eighth graders in BIA-operated schools achieved a grade equivalent of 7.0 in mathematics, compared with a grade equivalent of 6.3 for eighth graders in contract schools. Mathematics was also the area in which eighth grade students in BIA-operated and contract schools come closest to their actual grade level--perhaps partly reflecting the language difficulties of many Indian students. The combined eighth-grade students in BIA-operated and contract schools scored at grade equivalents for reading and language of 5.9 and 5.2, respectively, compared with a 6.8 grade equivalent in mathematics for eighth graders.

TABLE 6

GRADE EQUIVALENTS FOR 1986 TEST SCORES, BY GRADE AND TYPE OF SCHOOL
READING (Number of Test Takers in Parentheses)

Type of School	Grade 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
BIA-Oper. Schools	1.4 (2,626)	2.1 (2,653)	2.5 (2,546)	3.1 (2,414)	3.7 (2,077)	4.6 (2,054)	5.1 (1,805)	5.8 (1,707)	6.4 (1,069)	7.1 (827)	8.0 (815)	8.5 (96)
Contract Schools	1.4 (549)	2.1 (449)	2.5 (473)	3.1 (446)	3.8 (397)	4.5 (413)	5.4 (544)	6.2 (493)	6.9 (584)	7.6 (503)	8.1 (367)	8.8 (321)
All BIA-Funded Schools	1.4 (3,175)	2.1 (3,102)	2.5 (3,019)	3.1 (2,860)	3.8 (2,474)	4.6 (2,467)	5.2 (2,349)	5.9 (2,200)	6.7 (1,653)	7.3 (1,463)	8.0 (1,194)	8.6 (1,136)

TABLE 7

GRADE EQUIVALENTS FOR 1986 TEST SCORES, BY GRADE AND TYPE OF SCHOOL
LANGUAGE (Number of Test Takers in Parentheses)

Type of School	Grade 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
BIA-Oper. Schools	N/A	2.2 (2,260)	2.5 (2,444)	3.3 (2,413)	3.9 (2,072)	4.4 (2,058)	4.7 (1,802)	5.3 (1,699)	5.2 (1,052)	5.8 (955)	7.0 (827)	7.6 (813)
Contract Schools	N/A	2.1 (434)	2.5 (472)	2.8 (441)	3.3 (394)	3.6 (413)	3.8 (540)	4.9 (492)	4.7 (582)	5.5 (500)	5.5 (359)	6.5 (316)
All BIA-Funded Schools	N/A	2.1 (2,694)	2.5 (2,916)	3.3 (2,854)	3 8 (2,466)	4.2 (2,471)	4.5 (2,342)	5.2 (2,191)	4.9 (1,634)	5.7 (1,455)	6.5 (1,186)	7.2 (1,129)

TABLE 8

GRADE EQUIVALENTS FOR 1986 TEST SCORES, BY GRADE AND TYPE OF SCHOOL
MATHEMATICS (Number of Test Takers in Parentheses)

Type of School	Grade 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
BIA-Oper. Schools	1.6 (2,198)	2.4 (2,574)	3.1 (2,547)	3.9 (2,417)	4.7 (2,072)	5.3 (2,057)	6.1 (1,804)	7.0 (1,702)	7.2 (1,048)	7.8 (963)	8.1 (82?)	8.1 (817)
Contract Schools	1.6 (522)	2.3 (445)	2.8 (473)	3.4 (444)	4.2 (395)	4.7 (413)	5.6 (542)	6.3 (495)	7.0 (591)	7.4 (501)	7.6 (364)	7.8 (324)
All BIA-Funded Schools	1.6 (2,720)	2.3 (3,019)	3.1 (3,020)	3.8 (2,861)	4.6 (2,467)	5.2 (2,470)	6.1 (2,346)	6.8 (2,197)	7.1 (1,639)	7.7 (1,464)	7.9 (1,198)	8.0 (1,141)

Test Scores by Type of School and Residency

For a number of years the policy of the BIA has been to encourage day schools and to limit or reduce the number of boarding schools. Day schools allow the student to live in a home environment, where there may be greater interaction with and learning from adults. Living at home involves the parents in education. They may be able to encourage students to stay in school and may help in shaping good work and study habits. Involved parents are a key to involvement of the whole community in education and to the development of a strong tribal commitment to successful schools.

There remain some Indian children, however, who may be better off in boarding schools. Some students have a home environment that would hinder more than help the education of the student. Proper space to study as well as peace and quiet may be missing in some homes. Boarding schools may offer superior nutrition and closer supervision than some students would receive at home. Boarding schools are also necessary for some students who live at such isolated locations that daily trips to and from school would be infeasible. In 1987, 31 percent of BIA-operated and contract school students were boarding students.

Table 9 shows the percentile rankings for the full battery of tests for day and boarding schools (which also include many students who attend on a day basis). In terms of measurable educational achievement, there is little difference through the eighth grade in test scores for BIA-operated day and BIA-operated reservation boarding schools. However, test scores drop sharply for BIA-operated reservation boarding schools for grades 9 and 10, especially compared with a rise in test scores for BIA-operated day schools in these same grades. Scores of students in BIA-operated reservation boarding schools then rise somewhat for grades 11 and 12.

The sharp drop from grade 8 to grade 9 in percentile rankings of BIA-operated reservation boarding schools may partly reflect a decline in the quality of education offered by these BIA-operated schools. However, a more important factor may be a shift in the composition of BIA students from grade 8 to grade 9. Following grade 8, many of the better students of BIA-operated schools graduate and go on to public schools. As shown in Table 9, the total number of test takers in BIA-operated reservation schools (day and boarding) dropped from 1,570 students in eighth grade to 786 students in ninth grade. An above-average number of the students who attend BIA-operated boarding schools from ninth through twelfth grades have disciplinary, learning, and other problems. Some may have been dismissed from public schools and attend BIA-operated boarding high schools as the school of last resort.

Off-reservation boarding schools (four BIA-operated and one contract reported test scores of the seven off-reservation schools) show test results similar to reservation boarding schools, including a drop from grade 8 to grade 9. Until grade 9, there are few test takers in off-reservation boarding schools--only 40 in grade 4--so the percentile rankings for the earlier grades have limited significance.

TABLE 9

PERCENTILE RANKINGS FOR 1986 TEST SCORES, BY GRADE, SCHOOL TYPE & RESIDENCY BATTERY OF TESTS (Number of Test Takers in Parentheses)

Type of School & Residency	Grade 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
BIA-Op. Day Schs.	N/A	22% (1,021)	20% (1,063)	22% (963)	22% (795)	24% (834)	24% (544)	21% (547)	31% (165)	25% (147)	30% (115)	28% (97)
BIA-Op. Reserv. Boarding	N/A	23 (1,207)	24 (1,356)	22 (1,409)	19 (1,220)	20 (1,135)	22 (1,132)	20 (1,023)	13 (521)	13 (425)	17 (371)	21 (369)
Contract Day	N/A	18 (349)	19 (359)	20 (353)	19 (295)	18 (301)	19 (388)	18 (324)	16 (424)	17 (367)	18 (266)	23 (217)
Contract Reservation Boarding	N/A	11 (84)	9 (109)	16 (88)	14 (98)	13 (111)	20 (149)	16 (167)	13 (113)	16 (86)	13 (62)	19 (89)
Off-Res.Boarding	N/A	19 (28)	10 (22)	18 (40)	20 (53)	22 (76)	24 (120)	19 (123)	15 (387)	17 (413)	19 (358)	20 (360)

As seen in Table 9, the percentile rankings in contract day schools for grade 1 to grade 8 are typically a few percentages points below the rankings for the same grades in BIA-operated day schools. For example, the average percentile ranking of a seventh grader in a BIA-operated day school was 24, compared with a percentile ranking of 19 for a seventh grader in a contract day school. For grade 9 to grade 12, the overall percentile rankings of BIA-operated day schools exceeded that of contract schools by a greater margin.

Contract day schools had higher test scores than contract reservation boarding schools. For example, as shown in Table 9, the fifth graders in contract day schools achieved a percentile ranking of 19, compared with a percentile ranking of 14 for contract reservation boarding schools. For grade 9 through grade 12, the contract day schools also had higher test scores than contract reservation boarding schools.

Table 10 is based on the same raw test scores as Table 9, but in this case the results are shown as grade equivalents. The same patterns and tendencies discussed with respect to Table 9 are also evident in the grade equivalents shown in Table 10. At the end of eighth grade, students in BIA-operated day (6.2 grade equivalent), BIA-operated reservation boarding (5.7), contract day (5.8), contract reservation boarding (5.5), and off-reservation boarding schools (6.0) are all substantially behind their peers. By the end of twelfth grade, they have fallen still further behind. Twelfth graders achieved grade equivalents of 8.5 in BIA-operated day schools, 8.5 in BIA-

TABLE 10

GRADE EQUIVALENTS FOR 1986 TEST SCORES, BY GRADE, SCHOOL TYPE & RESIDENCY BATTERY OF TESTS (Number of Test Takers in Parentheses)

Type of School & Residency	Grade 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
BIA-Op. Day Schs.	N/A	2.3 (1,021)	2.7 (1,063)	3.4 (963)	4.0 (795)	5.0 (834)	5.4 (544)	6.2 (547)	8.0 (165)	8.2 (147)	8.7 (115)	8.5 (97)
BIA-Op. Reserv. Boarding	N/A	2.2 (1,207)	2.8 (1,356)	3.5 (1,409)	4.1 (1,220)	4.6 (1,135)	5.0 (1,132)	5.7 (1,023)	5.8 (521)	6.7 (425)	7.6 (371)	8.5 (369)
Contract Day	N/A	2.2 (349)	2.7 (359)	3.1 (353)	3.8 (295)	4.5 (301)	5.5 (388)	5.8 (324)	6.3 (424)	7.1 (367)	7.5 (266)	8.1 (217)
Contract Reservation Boarding	N/A	2.0 (84)	2.3 (109)	3.0 (88)	3.7 (98)	4.0 (111)	5.0 (149)	5.5 (167)	6.0 (113)	6.9 (86)	6.7 (62)	7.8 (69)
Off-Res.Boarding	N/A	2.1 (28)	2.3 (22)	3.8 (40)	4.2 (53)	4.8 (76)	5.4 (120)	6.0 (123)	6.1 (387)	6.9 (413)	7.5 (358)	7.8 (360)

operated reservation boarding schools, 8.1 in contract day schools, 7.8 in contract reservation boarding schools and 7.8 in off-reservation boarding schools.

Among educators there has been considerable debate concerning the impact of school size on learning success. Small schools may offer a stronger sense of community, greater involvement of parents, and more attention of teachers and school leadership to individual students. However, small schools may not be able to offer specialized instruction, retain curriculum and other specialists at the school, and generally benefit from the efficiencies of a larger school size. A larger student body may offer greater diversity and competition among students, creating a greater interest in learning. If strong leadership is in short supply, a few larger schools may be more likely to obtain principals with such leadership qualities.

In order to shed some light on these issues, all BIA-operated and contract schools were grouped into four categories: less than 100 students; from 100 to 250 students; from 251 to 500 students; and more than 500 students. As shown in Table 11, there is no strong relationship between the size of a school and the percentile rankings achieved by students in these schools. However, for grade 2 through grade 8, the percentile rankings do offer some evidence that larger schools work better than smaller schools. For example, in grade 6, schools with less than 100 students achieved a percentile ranking of 18; schools with 100 to 250 students also a ranking of 18; schools with 251 to 500 students a ranking of 20; and schools with more than 500 students a percentile ranking of 24. Schools with more than 500 students achieved percentile rankings of 30, 29 and 28 in grades 2 through 4, compared with percentile rankings of 21, 19, and 17 for the same grades in schools with less than 100 students.