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An Agriculture-Based Finance Model for Indian Community Colleges

James E. Shanley

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AN AGRICULTURE-BASED FINANCE MODEL FOR
INDIAN COMMUNITY COLLEGES

by
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Bachelor of Science, Eastern Montana College, 1968
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A Dissertation

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An Agriculture-Based Finance Model for
Indian Community Colleges

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The University of North Dakota, 1980

Faculty Advisor: Professor Donald K. Lemon

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History of the Problem

This paper traces the status of tribal land and natural resources from early Federal/Indian relationships through the Dawes Allotment Act up to the present day status quo. The paper also presents various legal interpretations of Indian treaties, status, and reservations which have prevailed throughout history. The paper also describes the development of Indian community colleges as an Indian initiated effort to improve reservation life.

An Agriculture-Based Finance Model for Indian
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The model is a two-phase description of the procedures that should be followed to begin and operate a tribal community college

agricultural operation. Each phase presents sample tools which might be helpful in this process.

Review of the Model

The model was reviewed by four people who were chosen for their expertise and background in Indian higher education and tribal economic development. The reviewers provided valuable insights into problems which might be encountered while implementing the model. The reviewers also suggested additions which might be helpful to those implementing the model.

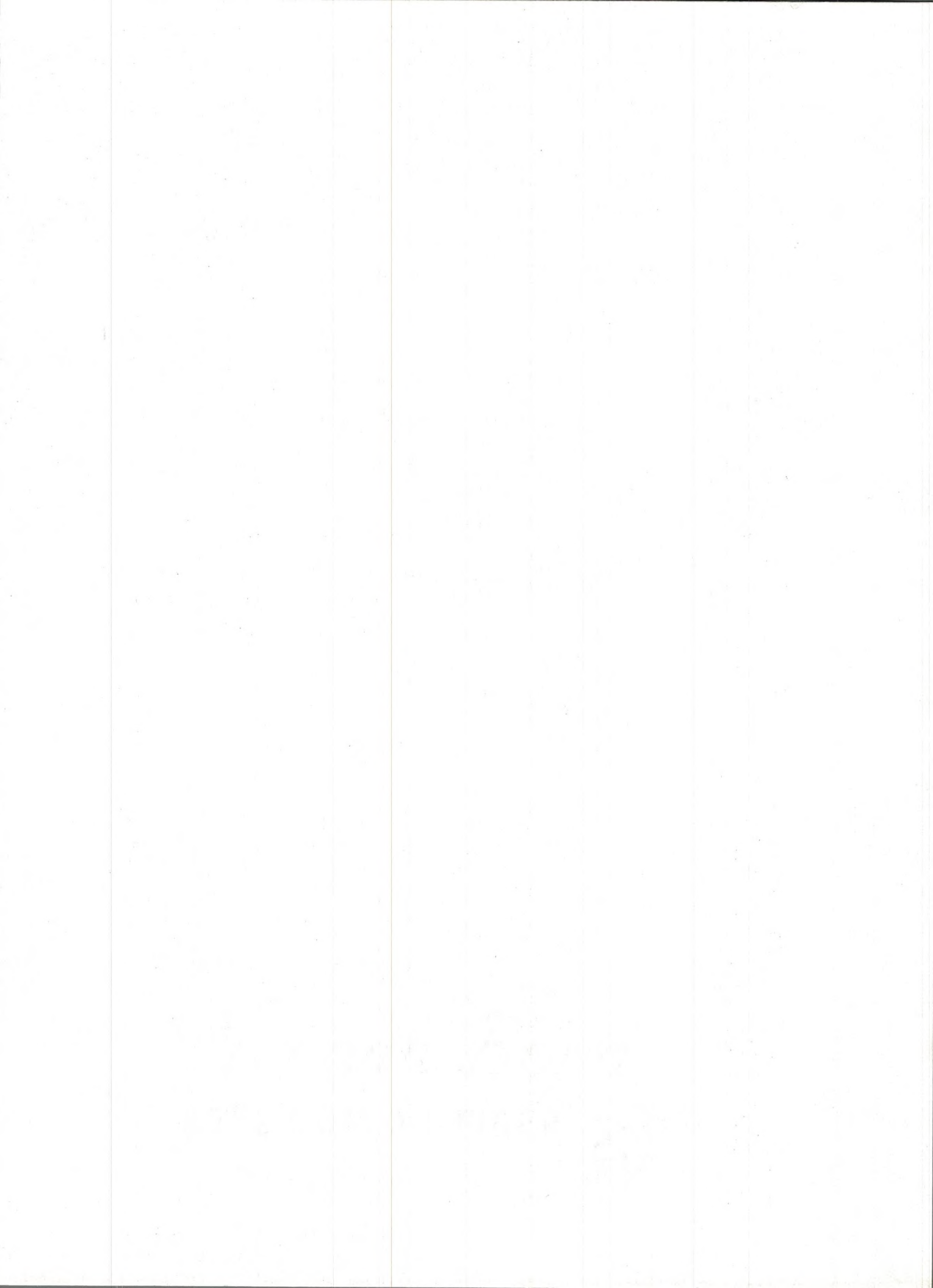
Conclusions

The review of the model provided two groups of conclusions. The conclusions which discuss features of the model are:

1. The model will work but certain conditions are necessary for proper implementation. Given a feasible situation, there must be good management of the operation.
2. Political approval and commitment to the project from the tribal council and local political groups are essential elements in the model.
3. The model, if successfully implemented, would stand as an educational role model for the tribe in development and management of tribal resources.
4. Before the model is implemented on a specific reservation, detailed background information needs to be gathered which identifies local social, economic, and political characteristics.
5. Continuity of leadership is an important factor in long range success of the model.

The conclusions which are suggestions for additions to the model are:

1. The scope of the model (agriculture) is too narrow and should include nearly any type of economic development.
2. The problems addressed by the model are not only economic but educational as well. The model, whether centered around agriculture or other enterprises, could easily be expanded to combine the management framework with an appropriate educational program.
3. If the focus of the model is aimed at agricultural or natural resource development, the model should incorporate a "Land Ethic" consistent with Indian philosophy.
4. In the planning portions of the model, it is advisable to use outside resources rather than to rely solely on existing governmental agencies.
5. Specific evaluation measures should be detailed for both pre-operational and operational stages of the model.



Permission

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Department Educational Administration (CTL)

Degree Doctor of Education

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Date Feb. 25, 1980

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ABSTRACT

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1. The scope of the model (agriculture) is too narrow and should include nearly any type of economic development.

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3. If the focus of the model is aimed at agricultural or natural resource development, the model should incorporate a "Land Ethic" consistent with Indian philosophy.

4. In the planning portions of the model, it is advisable to use outside resources rather than to rely solely on existing governmental agencies.

5. Specific evaluation measures should be detailed for both pre-operational and operational stages of the model.

CHAPTER I

FORMULATION AND DEFINITION OF THE PROBLEM

American Indian people are presently faced with severe social, cultural, educational, and economic problems. As a group, Indians rank at or near the bottom of most social indicators such as income, health, and housing. In the United States, these problems are historically complex and interwoven with official policies of the federal government. Many attempts have been made to deal with the so called "Indian Problem." Few of these attempts have improved the situation; many attempts have substantially contributed to the problem. There is a need for new strategies to solve some of the complex issues facing Indians today.

One strategy implemented by Indian tribes that seems to hold some promise is the development of Indian community colleges. These Indian controlled colleges are educational institutions which have only recently evolved. The first Indian community college, Navajo Community College, has been in existence only since 1969. Since that beginning the concept has significantly proliferated. Now there are at least twenty functioning Indian controlled community colleges with approximately twenty other tribal groups indicating some college development in their respective areas. The colleges are located from Point Barrow, Alaska to Tsaile, Arizona.

These colleges operate on the premise that it is essential for a society to have some institutionalized mechanism which will give its

members the skills to cope with modern life while at the same time strengthening and preserving the unique philosophies and cultural characteristics of the society. In short, these colleges have similar goals to those colleges of the larger, dominant society.

Like colleges in the dominant society, these colleges also have had difficulty securing the necessary money to meet the objectives which have been formulated. Particularly, Indian community colleges have lacked a stable funding base. The unique status and relationship that Indian tribes have with the Federal, state, and local governments have hindered local financing similar to that used for most public community colleges. The special conditions of Indian tribes and reservations create an atmosphere which presents some unique problems in institutional development. For example, Indian tribes (at this time) do not have a significant tax base which will support education or social services for tribal members. In the past, this responsibility has been assumed by the Federal government because of treaty obligations and the nature of reservations. In addition, the confused status of Indian land and resources has greatly inhibited the development of stable tribal economies. Stable financing for tribal colleges can then be connected directly to the development of stable tribal economies. A review of the historic legal and economic environments of reservations is necessary in the development of financing schemes for tribal higher education.

Description of the Study

This study has two aims. The first is to develop a theoretical scheme or model which can be adopted and/or adapted to assist in the development of basic funding for Indian colleges. This model is

intended to be an administrative guide which presents a framework within which modern management practices can be used in a reservation setting to achieve specific objectives. The model is directly connected to problems and conditions which exist on reservations.

The presentation of the model indicates the second aim, exploration of the involvement of the tribal community colleges in assisting tribes with the resolution of economic problems not directly connected to higher education. The presentation of the model suggests a new role for tribal community colleges. A final report for the Old West Regional Commission highlights this role.

What does this mean for the role of the community colleges on specific reservations? It means that the community colleges can and must take the lead in directing local tribal leadership toward a micro-approach to development. Reservation development must be in terms of local conditions. It must be in terms of local potentials. And it must take account of not only general but specific barriers. As centers of resident expertise, the community colleges can begin by thoroughly inventorying the specific potentials and barriers that characterize their respective reservations. The colleges can then assist tribal leadership in an attempt to realize local potentials and that takes account of local barriers. Where the barriers are insurmountable, the college must work with tribal leadership to seek types of development that will not be affected. Where the barriers are not insurmountable . . . , the colleges must take steps to overcome the barriers, . . . (Horse 1979, p. 19).

This model suggests, in particular, that economic development and the involvement of Indian colleges should be aimed at resolving the complex land ownership and management problems which exist on many reservations.

Scope of the Study

This study was not intended to be a comprehensive history of the relations between the United States government and Indian tribes. The

historical review is meant to outline significant historical factors underlying the development of the proposed model. Each tribal group and reservation has a unique history and government policy has had varying effects with each group. Nor was this study intended to be a comprehensive history of Indian education. There are several good sources available if the reader needs a more detailed understanding of the history of Indian education. Two such references are: To Live On This Earth (1973) by Estelle Fuchs and Robert J. Havighurst and Education and the American Indian (1974) by Margaret Szaz.

The sample tools presented in this study include budgets, monetary figures, and proportions which were usable at the time the study was written. Since this study is a finance study, changes in business conditions and the local and national economy will affect the applicability of the figures in the sample tools.

This study indicates a possible alternative for financing Indian colleges and was not intended to be a policy statement for a tribe or groups of tribes. The presentation and review of the model are preceded by a historical outline of some existing problems which have a relationship to the model.

Definitions of Terminology

The following definitions were used for the purposes of this paper.

Model. "A model can be defined as an abstracted intellectual pattern, generated from a cluster of interlocking and interspective concepts, which has the capability of interpreting generalizable trends and interrelations that prevail within the real world" (Knezevich 1969, p. 524).

Indian Community Colleges. Those community service-oriented colleges which are chartered by an Indian tribe and have an all Indian Board of Trustees and which serve a majority of Indian students.

Indian Reservations. Indian reservations are those designated land areas where Indians reside which were determined by treaty or executive action of the Federal government. The ownership of these land areas is tribal (owned collectively by the tribe); individual (either Indian or non-Indian); and in the case of Indian land, the land is held in trust by the U.S. government.

Purpose

The purpose of this project was practical. The model, with minor modifications, may be used by those tribal groups with appropriate natural resources to develop a locally based system of finance for an Indian community college. The study was also historical, inasmuch as the development of Indian colleges and their relation to the unique problem of Indian tribes was overviewed and discussed.

The study will consist of four chapters in addition to the introductory chapter. The second chapter presents a review of the historical background of the problem. This review is necessary in order to understand certain basic ideas incorporated in the model.

The third chapter is a presentation of the model. It is composed of administrative and management tools which can be used by administrators in business and education. These tools have been selected and arranged to apply to this particular problem.

The fourth chapter is a presentation of the review of the model by a panel of experts comprised of people who have extensive experience

and expertise in the areas of Indian education, economic development and planning, and Indian history. This panel provides a critique of the model. Special consideration was given to strengths and weaknesses of the model. The concluding chapter is a summary of the model, the review of the panel, and conclusions and recommendations for related work in the development of additional Indian college models. This chapter is also a presentation of possible additions and improvements and special conditions which affect this model.

CHAPTER II

HISTORY OF THE PROBLEM

A model which deals with the social-cultural-political systems of a society must examine, in at least a cursory fashion, the historical background of the particular society. The American Indian is the classic example of man caught between two vastly different world views brought into a shattering collision by the tides of history. The Indian is also unique in American history as the focal point for government imposed efforts to change basic cultural and philosophical values. This change effort has been referred to as the "Indian Problem" for the last two hundred years, and despite warfare, debate, agreements (called treaties), and legislation, the problem has not been resolved.

The legal status of the Indian today is the result of conflicting and contradictory laws, proclamations, and court decisions. Two issues which are important to Indian cultural, political, and economic survival are jurisdiction and land laws. Both issues are clouded by a maze of treaties and state and Federal laws. A complete understanding of the relationship of Indian tribes and the Federal government is difficult for even the most knowledgeable and experienced lawyers. On the other hand, the notion that Indians are just like other citizens is a dangerous simplification. One basic reason many Indian programs fail

is that their proponents have a false or inadequate perception of the historical development of Indian tribes.

The Indian controlled college movement is a very recent development. If Indian colleges are to survive, they must do so within the legal structure of tribal and Federal governments. They must provide an education which is compatible with the culture they serve. They must establish a stable funding base which will differ considerably from other tax-supported or privately-endowed institutions.

The purpose of this chapter is to present an overview of the legal relationship of Indian tribes and the Federal government, the policies which have fostered and hindered tribal development, the laws which govern their land base, and the examination of traditional methods of funding higher education in the context of the Indian way of life.

The issue of jurisdiction focuses on several important questions. Who has the authority to make laws governing the social and educational welfare of the Indian living on the reservation? Is the Indian reservation a sovereign nation or a ward of the state? Who can buy, sell, or lease land on the reservation? Who can determine how money derived from Indian land will be spent?

Early Federal-Indian Relationships

Unlike other American citizens who derive their right to citizenship from the Constitution and Amendments, the Indian has a prior claim based on the concept of original possessor of the soil. This right was recognized in the treaty-making era. The policy of making treaties with various indigenous Indian tribes in North America began as soon as the

first colonists arrived from Europe. The purposes of the treaties were to insure peace and to secure legal title to the lands settled by the colonists. Because the right to simply claim land was assumed under the doctrine of discovery, treaties with Indians never quite became pacts between the equally independent nations. According to Vine Deloria, Jr.:

The President, with the advice and consent of the Senate, could make treaties with the Indians that had the same legal status as those made with foreign nations. But treaties never gave the tribes a totally sovereign and independent status in the eyes of the United States because the doctrine of discovery lurked in the background. The early treaties were a frantic effort by the United States to gain Indian allies at the expense of England and other European nations who had not forgotten that a rich continent was still available for the taking (Ducheneaux and Kickingbird 1973, p. xxv).

One of the first Federal laws defining the relationship of the government and Indian tribes was the Ordinance of the Northwest Territory adopted by the Continental Congress in 1782. This legislation provided for a government survey to divide the land of the Northwest Territory (roughly the area north of the Ohio River, west of Pennsylvania, and east of the Mississippi River) into townships, sections, and quarter sections. Four sections in each township were reserved as bounties for soldiers and one section for public schools. The remainder was sold at public auction. It further provided for the organization of the territory, served to promote settlement, to encourage self-government, and to establish a procedure by which new states might come into the Union (McNickle 1962, p. 30).

The Federal government realizing that the land, far from being unoccupied, was the homeland of several hundred tribes who could form

alliances with the French or the British, included in the Northwest Ordinance this statement:

The utmost good faith shall always be observed towards the Indians; their land and property shall never be taken from them without their consent; and in their property, rights and liberty, they never shall be invaded or disturbed, unless in just and lawful wars authorized by Congress; but laws founded in justice and humanity shall from time to time be made, for preventing wrongs being done to them, and for preserving peace and friendship with them (Cohen 1942, p. 69).

Well intended as these principles were, they proved to be unenforceable. Following the Revolutionary War, the President and Congress were pushed by growing demands of settlers to ignore tribal claims and to remove the Indians from their lands. The argument brought forth was that in winning a war, the United States had become the absolute owner of the soil and everything on it (McNickle 1962, p. 31). With the ratification of the Constitution in 1789, the Federal government extended its jurisdiction over Indian tribes by reserving the power to make treaties and to regulate commerce.

The problem of state versus Federal jurisdiction over Indian tribes reached the United States Supreme Court in 1832. The Cherokees, roughly paralleling the procedures outlined in the Northwest Ordinance, established a government and a constitution which stated that the Cherokee Nation had "jurisdiction over its territory to the exclusion of the authority of every other state" (Hagan 1961, p. 74). The state legislature of Georgia considered the Cherokee territory to be within its borders and therefore subject to its law. Between 1828 and 1831, Georgia acted quickly by passing laws abolishing the Cherokee government except for the purpose of ceding the land, declaring that no

Indian could qualify as a witness in a court case involving whites and providing penalties for anyone interfering with removal plans. The conflict reached the Supreme Court in 1831 in Cherokee Nation vs. the State of Georgia. Chief Justice John Marshall stated:

Though the Indians are acknowledged to have an unquestionable, and, heretofore, unquestioned right to the lands they occupy, until that right shall be extinguished by a voluntary cession to our government; yet it may well be doubted whether those tribes which reside within the acknowledged boundaries of the United States can, with strict accuracy, be denominated foreign nations. They may, more correctly be denominated domestic dependent nations. They occupy a territory to which we assert a title independent of their will, which must take effect in point of possession when their right of possession ceases. Meanwhile, they are in a state of pupilage. Their relation to the United States resembles that of a ward to his guardian (Price 1973, p. 34).

The result of the decision was somewhat ambiguous and far removed from the battles of the Indians and the frontiersmen. To add to the agitation, gold was discovered in Cherokee territory. The Agent for the Cherokees brought in Federal troops to deal with the intruding gold seekers, but these were withdrawn when the governor protested to President Jackson that their presence violated Georgia's sovereignty. Georgia officials continued to operate under the assumption that state law superseded Indian claims. They arrested two New England missionaries to the Cherokees for refusing to obey a Georgia law and swear allegiance to the state. In 1832, their case was argued before the Supreme Court as Worcester vs. Georgia (Hagan 1961, p. 75).

This time, Chief Justice Marshall assisted by Associate Justice McLean supported the right of the Cherokees to be immune from state interference but still subject to Federal jurisdiction. Justice Marshall wrote:

The Cherokee Nation, then, is a distinct community, occupying its own territory, with boundaries accurately described, in which the laws of Georgia can have no force, and which the citizens of Georgia have no right to enter, but with the assent of the Cherokees themselves, or in conformity with treaties, and with the Acts of Congress. The whole intercourse between the United States and this nation, is by our Constitution and laws, vested in the Government of the United States (Price 1973, p. 44).

Justice McLean added, "So long as those laws and treaties exist, having been formed within the sphere of the Federal powers, they must be respected and enforced by the appropriate organs of the Federal government" (Price 1973, p. 45).

Subject to harassment by state officials and threats by gold seekers, the Cherokees looked in vain to the Federal government for protection. Although the Supreme Court ruled they were entitled to Federal protection, the authority to enforce the ruling lay with the executive. Since President Jackson had long favored the policy of removal and persuaded Congress to give legislative sanction to the removal policy in the Removal Bill of 1830, he chose to use Federal troops to force the removal of all Eastern tribes rather than to protect them. The resulting removal of the Eastern Indians to the West to what eventually would become Oklahoma became known as the "Trail of Tears" (Hagan 1961, p. 73).

The Trade and Intercourse Act of 1834, based on the constitutional authority to regulate trade, incorporated the provisions of earlier laws and also prescribed the method of making contracts with the natives and empowered the Commissioner of Indian Affairs to appoint traders as well as to regulate trade. It further provided that Indian lands could be acquired only by treaty or other agreements pursuant

to the Constitution. Penalties for trespassers on Indian land were also prescribed. Because the authority for the Act is derived from the Constitution, the relationship between tribes and the Federal government still rests on these provisions (Aberle and Brophy 1972, p. 18).

By about 1840, most of the Eastern tribes had been moved to lands west of the Mississippi River, described as the permanent Indian frontier. While this solution may have partially solved the problems of the Easterners, it served to intensify the conflicts between existing Plains Indians and the Eastern tribes and between the Plains tribes and the settlers. What had been a trickle of traders and miners passing through Indian territory increased by the thousands as settlers set off for Oregon and California. It soon became apparent that the forced concentration of many tribes in one area might lead to open warfare between the military sent to protect the settlers and a unified fighting force of warriors. The policy of removal to one vast open territory changed to the policy of concentrating each tribe on a particularly defined territory. The purpose of the government was not only to confine the tribes but also to establish "chiefs" of each tribe for administrative purposes.

In 1851, a treaty council was held at Fort Laramie. The Pawnee, Kiowa, and Comanche tribes, already weary of signing papers which deposed them from their lands, did not attend. However, representatives of the Sioux, Cheyenne, Arapaho, Crow, Gros Ventres, Assiniboin, Arikaras, and Shoshoni did. The treaty had been prepared in advance of the meeting and was presented by a Peace Commission. The Sioux were assured of the Dakota country north of the Platte River; the Mandan and Gros Ventres,

a triangle east of the Yellowstone; the Assiniboin, the region west of the Yellowstone; the Crows, a large area west of the Powder River; the Blackfeet, the mountainous country about the headwaters of the Missouri; the Cheyenne and Arapaho, the foothills of the Colorado between the North Platte and Arkansas Rivers. The terms were read and promises of gifts and annuities were made. It is unlikely that many Indians had any real conception of what was occurring. Nevertheless, there was opposition. Black Hawk of the Oglala refused to have any part of it saying, "You have split my land and I don't like it. These lands once belonged to the Kiowas and the Crows, but we whipped these nations out of them, and in this we did what the white men do when they want the lands of the Indians" (Utley and Washburn 1977, p. 173).

While the Peace Commission conducted its affairs in the West, government officials made further provisions for settlement of the new lands. The Homestead Act of 1862 provided that any American citizen, or any alien who had declared his intention of becoming a citizen, could acquire 160 acres of unoccupied government land by living on it or by cultivating it for five years. The Morrill Act of the same year granted each state establishing a public agricultural college thirty thousand acres for each senator and representative then in Congress. Subsequent acts regarding the distribution of public domain lands were made: the Timber Culture Act of 1873, the Desert Culture Act of 1877, and the Timber and Stone Act of 1878.

In 1867, Congress enacted legislation providing for the removal of all Indians to reservations, thereby breaking the promises given to the Plains Indians that they could keep their lands forever. Congress

again authorized a Peace Commission, this time composed of four civilians and three generals, to bring the Sioux wars to a close and to provide the way for permanent reservations. In 1868, the Sioux, again at Fort Laramie, agreed to cease fighting and to accept a reservation in Dakota Territory west of the Missouri River. Although the treaties appeared to be a solution, at least to the policy makers in the East, the reality of the situation was far different. For one thing, the Federal government was really pursuing two policies. The Indian Agents and Commissioners were trying to buy peaceful settlement on the reservation by gifts and promises of annuities. Nearby stood the Army threatening war if the Indians did not comply. Tom Fitzpatrick, a trader familiar with Plains Indians, commented:

The policy must be either an Army or an annuity. Either an inducement must be offered to them greater than the gains of plunder, or a force must be at hand able to restrain and check their depredations. Any compromise between the two systems will be only productive of mischief and liable to all the miseries of failure (Utley and Washburn 1977, p. 196).

A further complication was that the people signing the treaties on both sides were in no position to enforce them. The so-called "chiefs" were not so designated by their own people but by the Peace Commissioners. Furthermore, there was, in the history of the Plains Indian, no tradition which allowed any one person to represent the will of the entire tribe. Those Indians who did sign, however, had two good reasons for doing so. One was the obvious presence of the military. Though they had no official authorization to do so, Army officers made war against any band they deemed to be "hostiles." The second reason was that nearby the conference circle stood a great stock of presents awaiting distribution (Utley and Washburn 1977, p. 195).

The Sioux at this time were very egocentric. They did not share the world view of the whites that signing a paper had anything to do with the transfer of land ownership. In their own historical records, such as the Winter Count made by Iron Shell, there is no mention of battles or of treaties. What is recorded are those events which played a dramatic part in the total life pattern of the tribe such as the loss of a great leader, the hardship of a cruel winter, or the internal strife caused by wayward individuals (Hassreck 1972, p. 10). On the white side, the Peace Commissioners were authorized to present the treaties for signature. However, treaties must be ratified by Congress and appropriations must be made to cover the cost of the annuities promised. Likewise, the Peace Commissioners had no authority to order the military to protect the Indians from unscrupulous whites who settled on their lands or took the minerals from them. That authority rested with the Secretary of War and the President. Discovery of gold in the Black Hills is only one example where the Federal government failed to exercise authority to uphold treaty obligations. With so many weaknesses, it is little wonder that the treaty system proved an inadequate solution to the Indian problem.

While the treaty system floundered on the plains, another solution was gaining momentum in the East. In 1869, Congress authorized the President to name ten men to a Board of Indian Commissioners. They were to be men

. . . eminent for their intelligence and philanthropy, to serve without pecuniary compensation. The Board was to have joint control with the Secretary of the Interior over the disbursement of funds appropriated for the Indians. At the same time, in order to prevent the Indian service from becoming a domain of political patronage, Indian agencies were turned over to missionary groups, who were to appoint the agents and other personnel (Prucha 1978, pp. 3-4).

While this action may have helped to curb some of the corruption in the Indian Service, it did nothing to insure the peace. In fact, between 1869 and 1873, more than 200 battles took place between the U.S. Army and the Indians. With only one exception--the Battle of Little Big Horn in 1876--the Indians were decidedly losers in this contest.

On another front the Federal government was divesting itself of millions of acres of land. From 1850 to 1871, the railroad alone received more than 130 million acres of land in the West. Railroads were granted one fourth of the area of Minnesota and Washington; one fifth of Wisconsin, Iowa, Kansas, North Dakota, and Montana; and portions of Nebraska, California, and Louisiana (Degler 1973, p. 289). The land rush was on and the treaty system had not provided the desired results. In 1871, the treaty era was officially ended by Congress.

Hereafter no Indian nation or tribe within . . . the United States shall be acknowledged or recognized as an independent nation, tribe, or power with whom the United States may contract by treaty; but no obligation of any treaty lawfully made and ratified with any such Indian nation or tribe prior to March 3, 1871, shall be hereby invalidated or impaired . . . (Aberle and Brophy 1972, p. 26).

However, for many years afterwards formal agreements were embodied in acts of Congress. These compacts, sometimes inconsistently called treaties by Congress and the courts, had practically the same effects as treaties (Aberle and Brophy 1972, p. 26).

After the treaty making process was abolished, President Grant attempted to negotiate definite reservations for Indian tribes under executive agreement. Friction between the Indians and the hordes of new settlers and gold seekers in the West led to a series of conflicts that were called Indian wars. These conflicts resulted in the policy

of confinement to reservations. By the late 1880's, all of the Plains Indian tribes had been assigned to reservations.

The Reservation Period

Indian reservations are certain defined tracts of land upon which Indian tribes were forced to settle. There have been many viewpoints as to the legal status of reservations--that is, whether or not reservations are actually owned by the Indians. Judge Deadly, in 1888, stated that reservations were: "In the nature of a school, and the Indians are gathered there under the charge of an agent, for the purpose of acquiring the habits, ideas, and aspirations which distinguish the civilized from the uncivilized man" (Price 1973, p. 88). If reservations are, by nature, schools, at what point does the educational process end and who owns the school? Perhaps the most serious implication is the suggestion that when the lesson has been learned, the school can be dissolved. Reservations as classrooms, rather than entitlements, means that the Federal government can determine (a) when the individual Indians "graduate" and (b) when the reservation itself is no longer needed (Price 1973, p. 88).

For the next fifty years two intertwined ideas dominated Indian affairs: "civilizing" the Indian and individual land allotment. Beginning in 1878, Congress appropriated \$15,000 per year "to promote civilization among the aborigines." The United States Training and Industrial School of Carlisle, Pennsylvania, was founded in 1878. Others followed in 1880 at Chemawa, Oregon; Genoa, Nebraska; and Lawrence, Kansas. In 1882-83, several groups of individuals put forth similar proposals to civilize the Indian by dividing the reservations into small farm plots

with individual Indians as owners. These reformers, mainly from wealthy educated Eastern families, were composed of missionary leaders, government officials of the Indian Bureau, educational leaders, clergymen, and newspaper editors. Calling themselves Friends of the Indians, they set forth three proposals: (1) to break up the tribal relations and their reservation base and to individualize the Indian on a 160-acre homestead by the allotment of land in severalty; (2) to make the Indians citizens and equal with the whites in regard to both the protection and the restraints of law; and (3) to provide a universal government school system that would make good Americans out of the rising generations of Indians (Prucha 1978, p. 16). Believing that the only thing wrong with the Indian was his Indianness, the Friends of the Indian were determined to bring about a thorough transformation. If the Indian proved to be unwilling to accept such a change voluntarily, they were well prepared to force it on him (Prucha 1978, p. 8). Others of less noble purpose, such as land and mineral speculators, were quick to spot opportunity when they saw it and they, too, clamored for severalty. The popular magazines and newspapers filled their pages with the news and soon whipped the country into a fervor of religious and reformative zeal.

There was, however, opposition. One who spoke out against the proposed allotment was Senator Teller of Colorado:

It is in the interest of speculators; it is in the interest of the men who are clutching up this land, but not in the interest of the Indian at all; and there is the baneful feature of it that when you have allotted the Indian land on which they cannot make a living the Secretary of the Interior may then proceed to purchase their land, and Congress, will, as a matter of course, ratify the purchase, and the Indian will become the owners in a few years in fee and away goes their title. . . .

If I stand alone in the Senate, I want to put upon the record my prophecy in this matter, that when 30 or 40 years shall have passed and these Indians shall have parted with their title, they will curse the hand that was raised professedly in their defense to secure this kind of legislation, and if the people who are clamoring for it understand Indian character, and Indian laws, and Indian morals, and Indian religion, they would not be here clamoring for this at all (Deloria 1971, p. 47).

Not only were the Indians about to lose millions of acres of land on which they depended for their existence, they were also losing the right to live by their own customs and laws. In 1885 Congress passed the Seven Major Crimes Act. It extended the exclusive jurisdiction of Federal courts over Indian country and Indian persons committing the offenses of murder, manslaughter, rape, carnal knowledge, arson, burglary, robbery, and larceny (Price 1973, p. 11). The significance of this act was that it usurped powers the Supreme Court had held were within the jurisdictional powers of the tribes. Furthermore, in spite of the determined efforts by missionaries to "civilize" the Indians, few Indians knew English well enough to understand the intricacies of the court system and, since they were not citizens, presumably they were not guaranteed protection under the Bill of Rights.

A part of the government policy in the 1880-1890's was to bring various leaders to Washington, ostensibly to share their views with the "Great White Father." They were wined and dined, given gifts, and sent back home to convince their fellow tribesmen of the wisdom of following the white man's path. Several leaders saw beyond the sham and spoke out against the government proposals. Sitting Bull of the Hunkpapas said:

If a man loses anything and goes back and looks carefully for it he will find it, and that is what the Indians are doing now when they ask you to give them the things that were

promised them in the past; and I do not consider that they should be treated like beasts, and that is the reason I have grown up with the feelings I have. I feel that my country has gotten a bad name; and I sit sometimes and wonder who it is that has given it a bad name (Ducheneaux and Kickingbird 1973, p. xx).

In 1887, a council met in Indian territory to consider the proposed Allotment Act. Nineteen tribes were represented by 57 representatives who voted unanimously against allotment and against granting of railroad right-of-way through Indian lands (McNickle 1962, p. 73).

The House Committee on Indian Affairs opposed passage of the Act stating,

. . . it does not make a farmer out of an Indian to give him a quarter section of land. There are hundreds of thousands of white men, rich with the experiences of centuries of Anglo-Saxon civilization, who cannot be transformed into cultivators of the land by any such gift. . . . The real aim of this bill is to get at the Indian lands and open them up to settlement. . . . If this were done in the name of greed, it would be bad enough but to do it in the name of humanity, and under the cloak of an ardent desire to promote the Indian welfare by making him like ourselves, whether he will or not, is infinitely worse (McNickle 1962, p. 73).

Nevertheless, the reformers were firmly committed to the goal of Americanization of the Indian. Their aim was to do away with tribalism, communal ownership of land, culture patterns, native languages, Indian religious rites and practices--in short, with anything that deviated from the norms of civilization practiced and proclaimed by the white reformers themselves (Prucha 1978, pp. 7-8).

The General Allotment Act, also referred to as the Dawes Act, became law in 1887. There were five main provisions: (1) The President was authorized to allot tribal lands in designated quantities (160 acres to each family head; 80 acres to each single person over 18 and each orphan under 18, 40 acres to each other single person under 18).

(2) Each Indian would make his own selection, but if he failed or refused, a government agent would make the selection for him. (3) Titles were continued in trust for 25 years or longer at the President's discretion. (4) Citizenship was conferred upon all allottees and upon other Indians who abandoned their tribes and adopted "habits of civilized life." (5) Surplus tribal lands remaining after allotment might be sold to the United States (Prucha 1978, p. 7).

Unfortunately the prophecies of Senator Teller proved to be true and those of the Friends of the Indians proved to be false. Of the 138,000,000 acres held by the Indians in 1887, only 48,000,000 acres were left in 1934, and nearly half of the holdings were desert or semi-desert (Prucha 1978, p. 10). The other predictions were also correct; the Indian did not lose his Indianness, he merely became a landless Indian.

One of the more remarkable features of the General Allotment Act was the lack of foresight regarding eventual heirship of land. There was not any mechanism in traditional Indian culture to pass the land from one generation to another, nor did the Federal government consider the consequences of heirships applied to allotment.

Through a series of incredibly ignorant policy decisions the Federal government proceeded to further sub-divide the individual allotments by insisting that upon the death of an original allottee his lands be divided among his heirs according to Anglo-Saxon ideas of descent rather than in accord with traditional Indian customs (Ducheneaux and Kickingbird 1973, p. 24).

As a result, in just a few generations the land was subdivided beyond comprehension. The land itself has never actually been divided; the paper work has simply been changed at the agency level.

Ducheneaux and Kickingbird (1973, pp. 26-30) cite as an example the Nancy Cloud allotment on the Standing Rock Sioux Reservation in North Dakota:

In 1959 there was a total of 183 heirs to the 160 acres allotment. Of that total seven are undetermined estates; sixty-seven are Standing Rock enrollees; ninety-one are Cheyenne River enrollees; four are Rosebud enrollees; one is a Fort Peck enrollee; one is a Crow Creek enrollee; one is a Cass Lake Chippewa; one is a Canadian; and seventeen are Pine Ridge enrollees.

By this time the number of heirs has probably doubled and the interest that each has is highly fractional. Obviously, this makes controlling the land through leasing a highly complicated procedure and develops vast systems of paper work that take many tedious bureaucratic hours to manage.

The land comprehensive account of individual Indian land holdings showed that 10,697,612.58 acres of land are in individual Indian hands, with almost 6 million in the complicated heirship status. Much land simply cannot be used because any leasing of the land requires full consent of all heirs. Many heirs simply cannot be found. Their interest is so small that any lease money from the part would be smaller than the 25 cent service charge the Bureau levies for making out Indian lease checks. Thus, the heirs never receive any money from their share of the land and do not even know if they actually own any of it (Ducheneaux and Kickingbird 1973, pp. 29-30).

After allotments had been passed out to individual Indians under the authority of the General Allotment Acts, many reservations had land which was viewed by Congress in excess of the needs of the Indian. A series of Land Surplus Acts was then passed which opened these lands, reservation by reservation, for homesteading by white settlers. The result was that many reservations were checkerboarded with Indian and non-Indian ownership. After the twenty-five year trust period stipulated in the Dawes Act was over, the more ambitious settlers were often

able to purchase Indian land. In some cases, the non-Indians intermarried with the Indians which created further confusion.

More often, of course, the land after allotment, may pass to a non-Indian heir and then fall out of trust; the portion becomes subject to local taxation and can be sold for back taxes. The result is a certain pock-marked quality to land tenure in the reservation as tribal land holdings are severely broken up by allotments in varying stages of legal disrepair. . . . The nature of the reservation as classroom had disappeared, and with it the ability to work with the reservation as a manageable entity (Price 1973, p. 543).

A question remained as to who could use the land. Public pressure mounted upon the government to allow non-Indians to lease Indian land.

White men saw before them fertile Indian acres now in the hands of individual owners. For the most part these Indian owners were not active farmers who made the most of their lands. On the other hand, they were always trustable in money matters and would be very willing to rent--if the government would let them (Price 1973, p. 555).

Some small reservations did not contain enough land to provide individual allotments for all of the tribal members.

Their tribal estates had already shrunk to a minimum area while their populations had grown. After all the lands of the original tribal holdings had been allotted, the remainder of the Indians as yet unallotted were told to go out on some Public Domain and find land for themselves. Thus, several tribes were scattered and often decimated simply because the government would not provide lands in the immediate locale (Ducheneaux and Kickingbird 1973, pp. 20-21).

The Turtle Mountain Reservation in North Dakota is an example of this practice. Turtle Mountain enrollees were given allotments at Trenton, North Dakota, which is not a reservation, and on reservations in Montana.

The Dawes Act did specify that some lands including oil and mineral rights were to be held in common by certain tribes. In 1906, however, the Burke Act was passed by Congress to give the Secretary of

the Interior broad discretionary powers. Furthermore, the Secretary of the Interior was authorized to remove trusteeship and issue a patent-in-fee whenever he was satisfied that any Indian allottee was competent and capable of managing his affairs.

The ultimate termination of tribal governments like the decision abolishing the guardianship of Congress over the tribal property was, of course, hailed with delight by the predatory interests which now found themselves free to obtain oil and mineral leases even from the restricted Indian allottees all over the West (Wise 1971, p. 310).

In the years between 1917 and 1921, some 20,000 fee patents were issued. Most Indians lost the land and money quickly (McNickle 1962, p. 81).

The Dawes Act had through subsequent sale, fraud, and division by inheritance reduced many Indian family holdings to acreages too small to sustain life. By the 1920's a majority of Indians had a per capita income of under \$200 per year (Degler 1973, p. 465). Yet until the 1930's the prevailing belief was that the federal programs, if properly executed, would settle the Indian question. Gradually it became apparent that the destruction of Indian governments, the liquidation of tribal property, and hostility to Indian culture had been a mistake. The policies had defeated rather than furthered the objective of adjusting Indians to the dominant society. The Meriam Report, compiled in 1928 under the auspices of the Institute for Government Research, pointed out these shortcomings and showed what needed to be done to achieve the desired goals (Aberle and Brophy 1972, p. 182).

Another reform movement was underway. The Meriam Report urged Federal and state governments to cooperate in rendering services to the Indians in order to "hasten the day when there will no longer be a distinctive Indian problem and when the necessary governmental services

are rendered alike to whites and Indians by the same organization without discrimination" (Spicer 1969, p. 244). The report urged that top priority be given to medical and school improvements and to the creation of a long-range planning division. The report also recommended raising personnel standards in the Indian Service and a much closer scrutiny of the allotment system (Hagen 1961, p. 153). It was also suggested that the concept of a universal school for Indians had proven to be a failure and should be revised according to more contemporary educational theories.

The methods must be adopted to individual abilities, interests, and needs. Indian tribes and individual Indians within the tribes vary so greatly that a standard content and method of education, no matter how carefully they might be prepared, would be worse than futile. . . . The teacher must be free to gather material from the life of the Indians about her, so that the little children may proceed from the known to the unknown and not be plunged at once into a world where all is unknown and unfamiliar (Spicer 1969, p. 245).

Advocates of legislative reform included John Collier, Commissioner of Indian Affairs, who urged in favor of tribal governments:

Indians have the right of self-determination. . . . Cultural diversity is by no means inimical to national unity . . . the Federal government is forced both by the fact of law and the fact of self-interest to continue to give a friendly guiding and protective hand to Indian advancement. As to law: there is a large body of treaties and statutes to be interpreted and enforced; Indian property must continue to be protected against unfair practices by the dominant group. Indians must be assisted in attaining self-subsistence and full citizenship. As to government self-interest: the complete withdrawal of this protection would merely substitute a more difficult problem in place of the one that is on the way to solution. It would create a permanently dispossessed and impoverished group that will either have to live on the dole or become one more sore spot in the body politic . . . (Fey and McNickle 1970, pp. 131-133).

The resulting legislation was the Indian Reorganization Act (Wheeler-Howard Act) of 1934. The major provisions were:

- "1. No lands still in tribal ownership shall be allotted in the future.
- "2. An annual authorization of \$2,000,000 for the purchase of lands, such purchases to be held in trust and exempt from taxation.
- "3. Lands that had been withdrawn from tribal ownership for homestead settlement but not entered might be returned to the tribe, at the discretion of the Secretary of the Interior.
- "4. Conservation practices be adopted with respect to timber, grass, and other natural resources.
- "5. Authority for a revolving credit fund of \$10,000,000 from which loans might be made to tribes incorporated for credit and other purposes.
- "6. The Secretary of the Interior assist Indian tribes in adopting written forms of government, to exercise 'the inherent powers of Indian tribes' and certain additional specified powers.
- "7. Loans to Indians for the payment of tuition and other expenses in recognized vocational, trades schools, high schools, and colleges.
- "8. The Secretary of the Interior establish standards for employment 'without regard to Civil Service laws, to the various positions maintained, now or hereafter, by the Indian Office' and that Indians meeting such non-Civil Service standards 'shall hereafter have the preference to the appointment to vacancies in any such positions' (McNickle 1962, pp. 96-97).

The Indian Reorganization Act (IRA) gave individual tribes the option of adopting or rejecting the proposals. A total of 263 tribes voted on the Indian Reorganization Act; 192 accepted it, and 71 rejected it.

There was much opposition to the IRA and its principles were not always implemented by the Bureau of Indian Affairs. Although it slowed the pace of the deterioration of the Indian land base, the land that was maintained or regained was of little economic value. Another legislative attempt to correct past abuses was made in 1946 when Congress authorized the Indian Claims Commission to hear, among other provisions, claims based on the agreed compensation. The process of bringing a case to the court is complicated and seldom rewarding. Of the first 131

cases heard and brought to final judgment, less than four percent of the amount claimed in compensation was allowed (McNickle 1962, pp. 96-97). Like other reform movements, the goals of the Indian Reorganization Act failed to be realized by either the Indian tribes or the Federal government.

John Collier, the foremost champion of the Indian Reorganization Act, remained as Commissioner of Indian Affairs from 1933-1945. Despite the failure of many aspects of the IRA, Collier's term as Commissioner might later be viewed from the perspective of history as the key period which allowed Indians to survive as tribal units into the latter half of the twentieth century. The policies of the 1950's clearly indicate the misfortunes that Collier may have forestalled.

Indian Policy Since World War II

The two major policies of the 1950's were termination and relocation. Both terms became part of the vernacular of the Indian in the 1960's and 1970's. Termination was a policy which went back to some of the basic "Freedom" ideas of the Allotment Act.

In a 1957 article discussing the termination program, Senator Arthur V. Watkins implies that the tribal reorganization policy was a step backward.

Unfortunately the major and continuing Congressional movement toward Full Freedom was delayed for a time by the Indian Reorganization Act of 1934, the Wheeler-Howard Act. Amid the key social concerns of the depression years, Congress, realizing this change of policy, sought to return to the historic principles of much earlier decades. Indeed one of the original authors of the act was desirous of its appeal (Watkins 1957, p. 48).

This termination process not only removed the restrictions on the Indian "Freedom," it also removed the trust responsibility of the Federal government on Indian land and mineral rights. This action was formalized in House Concurrent Resolution 108, the 83rd Congress, 1953, which "named specific tribes which were to be terminated at the earliest possible time." It also named certain states where all of the tribes were to be freed from Federal supervision (Tyler 1973, p. 172). This policy would have effectively opened Indian resources to predatory interests. The predators which were feared most by the Indians were state and local governments with their powers of taxation.

The Indian response to the termination policy was aptly reflected by R. V. Bottomly at a meeting of the National Congress of American Indians in Spokane, Washington.

Ask the Indian. He says it means he will have to pay taxes on his land and that this is unjust. Why shouldn't he pay taxes on his land? He says it's Tax Free Status was bought by him when he made concessions of larger territories on condition that his land was to be his without conditions. He asks what the holders of Tax-Free municipal bonds would say if the government were suddenly to make them "assume their responsibilities as citizens" by paying taxes on these bonds. He inquires what manufacturers who have built plants for national defense after being promised Tax concessions would say if suddenly Congress were to decide they had to pay taxes on these buildings. He points out that educational institutions, cooperatives, and churches are not taxed; that oil wells do not have to pay taxes on 27 percent of their output as depletion allowance. All these concessions were made for a reason, the government receiving full value for the concession. The government has also received full value from the Indians, as expressed in nearly 400 treaties. But H.R. 108 means that Congress declares it is the policy of the United States to renounce its end of these bargains without returning to the Indians the valuable considerations they gave for this exemption (Bottomly 1956).

By the 1960s the termination movement slowed to a stop but not before several reservations had received the "beneficial" effects of

termination. With the oncoming of a Democratic administration and the war on poverty and the war in Vietnam, termination was forgotten except by the terminated tribes, some such as the Menominees of Wisconsin which have since had the Federal trust relationship reestablished by legislation.

The Relocation Program began with the Navajo tribe but soon became a nationwide effort. The idea was to assist individual Indians to seek permanent employment away from the reservation, mainly in the large urban centers of the nation. As Indian concerns in regard to termination legislation grew, some identified relocation as an individual kind of termination. A 1953 Bureau of Indian Affairs report suggested that less than a third of those relocated returned to the reservations. Non-Bureau surveys by critics of the program reported as many as 60 percent returning in some areas (Tyler 1975, p. 159). Indians were encouraged to leave their families and tribe and move to the cities where minimal kinds of training and support services were provided. Eventually Indian ghettos were formed in the major cities where area relocation offices were located.

This government policy eventually backfired. The young Indians who went to the cities became radicalized by association with other minority groups and young Indian militant leaders such as Russell Means and Dennis Banks came back from relocation in the cities with a purpose that had not existed in Indian affairs for seventy years.

During the late 1960's and early 1970's, the Indian situation saw similar upheaval and transition to that which was affecting the American society at large. Out of the protests and confrontation,

several new movements started to emerge which sought to strengthen the Indian position in this country. Education became one of the focal points for this energy.

On December 15, 1971, the United States Congress passed Public Law 92-189, the Navajo Community College Bill. This was the first recognition by the United States that there was need for Indian controlled institutions of higher education. The Navajo Community College had been started three years before by the Navajo people and was chartered by the Navajo Tribe in 1968 (AIHEC Testimony 1976, p. 228). The Navajo Tribe had long recognized that Navajos and other Indians did not succeed very well in outside colleges and universities. At the same time there was a pressing need for advancement through education. Indians were at the bottom of all social statistical indications for quality of life in the United States. For example, the average Navajo per capita income in 1970 was estimated at only \$735 annually. The average per capita income for the United States as a whole was estimated at \$3,700 (AIHEC Testimony 1976, p. 2). Similar alarming statistics existed in unemployment, housing, education, health, and other areas that reflect the well-being of American communities.

It was felt that an Indian college would be more sensitive to the unique needs of the Indian student and the overall reservation environment. The Navajo Community College adopted the following as a basic expression of their philosophy and objectives:

PHILOSOPHY OF NAVAJO COMMUNITY COLLEGE

- "1. For any community or society to grow and prosper it must have its own means of educating its citizens. It is

- essential that these educational systems be directed and controlled by the society they are intended to serve.
- "2. Each member of that society must be provided with a chance to acquire a positive self-image and a clear sense of identity. This can be achieved only when each individual's capacities are developed and used to the fullest extent possible. It is absolutely necessary for every individual to respect and understand his culture and his heritage, and have faith in the future of his society.
 - "3. Members of different cultures must develop their abilities to operate effectively in their own societies, and in the complex and varied cultures that make up the larger society of man.
 - "4. In the light of the difficulties experienced by traditional education programs in meeting needs of individuals and societies, Navajo Community College makes every possible effort to search out and test new approaches to dealing with old problems, and to build the capacity of the College so that it can respond effectively to problems arising out of rapidly changing conditions.
 - "5. To assure maximum development and success of individual students, Navajo Community College programs must assist students with their academic and their social adjustments.

OBJECTIVES OF NAVAJO COMMUNITY COLLEGE

- "1. To provide academic foundations for students who plan to transfer to a senior college or university.
- "2. To provide vocational-technical training programs for students.
- "3. To provide adult education courses for individuals who desire to further their education.
- "4. To provide a program of community service and community development.
- "5. To provide assistance and consultation upon request to public, church, and BIA schools, and to other organizations and institutions in the area which Navajo Community College serves.
- "6. To foster in its Indian students the development and preservation of a healthy pride in their heritage.
- "7. To serve as a center for development of Indian cultures, with special emphasis on the Navajo" (AIHEC Testimony 1976, p. ii).

The Navajo Community College became a model which many Indian tribes began to duplicate. Different tribes became aware of Navajo Community College and soon many Indian colleges were being formed on reservations all over the United States.

In 1972, six Indian community colleges founded the American Indian Higher Education Consortium to serve as an advocacy organization for the Indian College Movement. Each member of the consortium must meet the following criteria for membership:

- "1. It must be formally endorsed or chartered by a tribal government or an American Indian or Alaskan Native Community;
- "2. It must be governed by an all American Indian or Alaskan Native Board of Directors or Regents;
- "3. It must primarily serve American Indian or Alaskan Native Communities;
- "4. It must have a majority of American Indian or Alaskan Native students (AIHEC Testimony 1976, p. ii).

At the present time (1978) there are fifteen members of the American Indian Higher Education Consortium. Those members are:

American Indian Satellite Community College
Winnebago, Nebraska

Standing Rock Community College
Fort Yates, North Dakota

Cheyenne River Community College
Eagle Butte, South Dakota

Fort Berthold Community College
Newtown, North Dakota

He Haka Sapa at D.Q.U.
Davis, California

Inupiat University of the Arctic
Point Barrow, Alaska

Navajo Community College
Tsaile, Arizona

Oglala Sioux Community College
Pine Ridge, South Dakota

Sinte Gleska College
Rosebud, South Dakota

Sisseton-Wahpeton Community College
Sisseton, South Dakota

Turtle Mountain Community College
Belcourt, North Dakota

Little Hoop Community College
Fort Totten, North Dakota

Blackfeet Community College
Browning, Montana

Dull Knife Memorial College
Lame Deer, Montana

Crow Community College
Crow Agency, Montana (AIHEC List 1978)

Many other tribes and Indian groups are actively considering the community college for their own use. Some of these already have operated higher education centers. The following communities were identified as projected or potential Indian community college sites by the American Indian Higher Education Consortium in a 1975 survey conducted for the Bureau of Indian Affairs as authorized by U.S. Public Law 93-638 (the Indian Self-Determination Act): (1) Hualipi Reservation, Arizona; (2) Fort Apache Reservation, Arizona; (3) Salt River Reservation, Arizona; (4) Fort Hall Reservation, Idaho; (5) Keweenaw Bay Reservation, Washington; (6) Minnesota Chippewa Tribe, Minnesota; (7) Fort Belknap Reservation, Montana; (8) Fort Peck Reservation, Montana; (9) Warm Springs Reservation, Oregon; (10) Colville Reservation, Washington; (11) Yakima Reservation, Washington; (12) Menominee Reservation, Wisconsin. The Indian controlled community college, then, is a growing movement which is aimed at meeting the special educational needs of Indians from a cultural and linguistic viewpoint and also from the perspective of the unique economic environment of Indian reservations.

Although there has been a proliferation of Indian community colleges, the development has not been smooth and unencumbered by problems. In fact, Indian community colleges are faced with two primary, interconnected problems, the solution of which is essential to the survival of those colleges which are presently operating. These problems are accreditation and the lack of a stable funding base. The latter problem is of the most immediate concern and its resolution is the focus of this paper.

In an immediate sense their initial and most pressing difficulties can be traced directly to inadequate and instable funding . . . there is no question that unless a stable funding base is provided for basic operating costs of these colleges, they will face a formidable challenge indeed as to their ability to continue (AIHEC Testimony 1976, p. 179).

Providing stable funding bases for the basic operating of community colleges presents some unique problems when compared with financial resources available to non-Indian colleges. The major sources of funds for public owned community colleges are local tax levies handled through the local school district or special appropriations by state legislatures. Many private colleges have endowments formed by rich contributors or are permanent recipients from foundations and/or trust monies. Some colleges are affiliated with religious groups, churches, or organizations which provide basic operating money from revenue donated by the members. Other colleges actively engage in raising funds for either basic operating or endowment funds through the active solicitation of donations from segments of the population sympathetic to their particular group.

A view of Indian tribes and reservations as being distinct, political entities, dependent only on the Federal government still

exists today. This immediately rules out local school districts and state funds as resources for the basic support of Indian community colleges. The economic status of Indian tribes generally limits the possibilities of finding a number of rich Indian donors to support a community college and affiliation with religious groups is counter to the aims of colleges which are trying to support, preserve, and expand traditional Indian world views.

Indian tribes, at present, have no structure of local taxation, mostly because of the unique natures of trust land, and so cannot support community colleges through these means. There remains only two viable alternatives for the long-range basic support of Indian community colleges: the Federal government or some system based upon what resources remain to Indian tribes (land and water for the most part).

A partial temporary solution to the funding problem was achieved in October, 1978, when President Carter signed Public Law 95-471, the Tribal Community College Assistance Act. This act provides operational funds for tribal community colleges at the rate of \$4,000 per full time equivalent student enrolled in those institutions which meet the criteria spelled out in the act. The life of this legislation is three years. The tribal need still remains for basic independent financing for these colleges. The model developed for this paper offers one alternative.

CHAPTER III

AN AGRICULTURE-BASED FINANCE MODEL FOR INDIAN COMMUNITY COLLEGES

This model, an agriculture-based finance model for Indian community colleges, is aimed at solving two problems presently faced by Indian tribes living on reservations. The first problem is how Indians can use their land to their advantage; the second is how Indians can provide a sound, local base of funding for developing local Indian community colleges. The model has been developed primarily for use by administrators of Indian colleges, Boards of Regents of Indian colleges, and Indian tribal governments.

The model provides a framework for decision-making which would develop a functioning tribal agricultural operation using tribally-owned land and water resources, providing employment for tribal members, and at the same time providing revenue for the basic support of Indian community colleges. The model anticipates some of the possible trouble areas involved in the decision-making process but recognizes that these may differ from reservation to reservation.

Theoretical Framework

One of the major difficulties encountered in the establishment of land use policies for Indians has been the conflict between traditional Indian communal values and Anglo-oriented individual land

ownership ideas. The model aims to resolve this conflict by providing a framework wherein Indian land can be used by Indians following accepted modern management practices but for the benefit of the entire community as well as individual members of the tribe.

The model includes elements of several management systems which are presently being used in education, such as program planning and budgeting systems, management by objectives, and organizational hierarchy models. It also takes into account the unique governmental and political status of Indian tribes, their governing bodies, and legislation which may have bearing on the model.

The model is based on a "systems" approach to management insofar as it uses a variety of management tools to determine a decision-making process to accomplish certain predetermined objectives. These objectives are analyzed in terms of tasks required for completion of the objective. The model has two stages discussing the process of development, operation, and distribution of revenues of a tribal agricultural operation: preoperational and operational.

These stages will be presented in terms of potential objectives, tasks, and sample tools. The "systems" approach will be open insofar as the person or group using the model will have the flexibility to establish moderately different goals and objectives or substitute different tools which will work more efficiently in a given environment.

The model is strictly a guide for the establishment of an agriculture-based finance system and is in no way a policy statement or reflection of policy for any Indian tribe. However, it may be used if applicable, and modified to fit the particular needs of an Indian tribe interested in such a system.

How to Use the Model

The proposed model is intended to be used sequentially. However, the users of the model should become familiar with the entire model before attempting to implement the first phase. Success in implementing the model will depend largely upon the ability of the group using the model to demonstrate to the tribal government and local people that long-range planning has been done and, insofar as possible, the difficulties have acceptable solutions.

Both stages of the model, each prefaced by a narrative portion describing that section and its rationale, suggest the use of various tools and certain goals and objectives. Following the narrative is a breakdown of goals and objectives into tasks and sample tools which could be used by management.

It should be emphasized that at any step in the process the model can and should be supplemented by advice and consultation with experts and specialists in the agricultural, administrative, and investment fields. Only by the use of such knowledge sources will an individual with general administrative abilities be able to develop this type of complex operation successfully.

Pre-operational Stage

As in many complex activities requiring the cooperation of different organizations, the successful development of a tribal agricultural operation will depend a great deal upon the amount and quality of planning which takes place before the organization moves to the operational stage. This planning is the main responsibility of the college administrator, but each step should be carefully explained to the college Board

of Regents and their approval of the concepts should be sought. Since this type of operation involves the tribe and tribal resources, it is also imperative that the approval of the Tribal Council be sought. However, before the idea is taken to the Tribal Council, considerable planning should take place and explanations of technical aspects must be prepared. The steps might vary somewhat from reservation to reservation, but local involvement and approval are essential processes in the pre-operational stage. Approval at the beginning stage of the preparatory work will help avoid problems in the latter part of the pre-operational stage. A flowchart for the pre-operational stage follows.

A narrative explanation of the steps in the pre-operational stage follows.

I & II. Identification of the Problem and Initial Planning

The history of each reservation differs. The land and the management of land also present a different set of problems in each locality. Some reservations have mostly farm land; others have nearly all grazing land. The potential for development can be measured only by the available resources on the reservation using the model. This potential needs to be thoroughly researched and understood by the college administrator before starting the process.

III. Initial Approval from College Board

This step is self-explanatory. It is necessary for the college administrator to have the complete support of his employers before embarking on a project of this type.

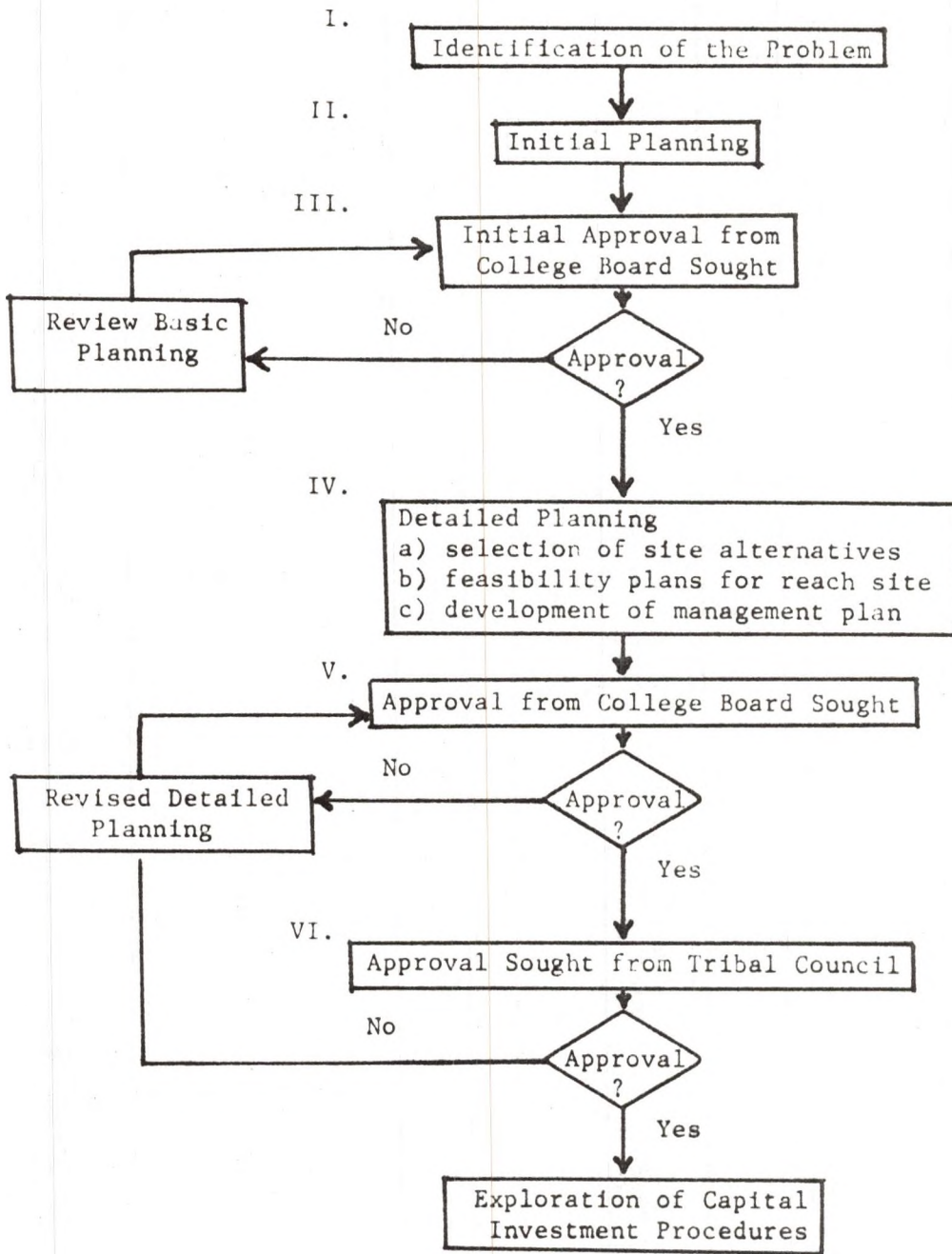


Fig. 1. Pre-operational Stage Flowchart.

IV. Detailed Planning

This step requires the administrator or person using the model to seriously consider alternative strategies for future development. There are three basic areas that need to be considered in the planning stage. Depending upon the political atmosphere of the reservation, raising undue expectations or apprehension during this stage may cause difficulties later in the process. The administrators should use a technical approach and should maintain a low profile in potentially controversial areas. The three major areas are:

A. Selection of site alternative--of primary importance in the development of an agricultural operation to be managed by a tribal community college is the selection of development lands and the types of operations to be conducted upon those lands. Primary considerations must be given to:

1. lands which are owned by the tribe in common in a convenient location or block which may profitably be farmed,
2. lands adjacent to convenient, profitable land which can be leased or operated on a profit-sharing basis with individual Indians receiving allotment.
3. lands owned or leased by non-Indian farmers and ranchers which can be secured, leased, or purchased.

The Local Land Operations Office of the Bureau of Indian Affairs would be able to provide information on the current status of reservation land. Several potential sites should be selected and each site should be analyzed for current use, leasing, and ownership status. The ideal site would be one that has agricultural potential and could be readily leased. The final site selection cannot be made until the

feasibility of each site has been analyzed and the proper political approval processes have been completed.

B. Site feasibility plans--each site must be analyzed in three areas: type of operation, amount of capital investment necessary, and potential revenue and operating expense. Types of operations on the northern plains can be generally categorized as dry land operations, irrigated operations, and animal production.

Some basic considerations which must be taken into account are initial investment of capital, availability of investment capital, suitability of land, and return on investment. For example, dry land farming in good years generally has a quite reasonable return on investment. Machinery, fertilization, and assorted operation costs form the major portion of initial start-up costs. In terms of initial investment, however, it is cheaper to operate an animal production operation than a dry land operation. A dry year may mean a disastrous, deficient year. For example, during the South Dakota drought of 1976, the newly initiated Sisseton Sioux tribal farm went bankrupt.

Irrigated agricultural operations, on the other hand, require much more initial investment but have a far better production yield. Irrigation, however, is limited to certain types of soil and is predicated on the availability of water. Some reservations, such as Fort Berthold which surrounds Lake Sakakawea of the Garrison Dam, are more suited for irrigation than other reservations.

Selection of potential agricultural sites should be based upon land use studies conducted by federal agencies such as the Bureau of Indian Affairs, Office of Planning, the Bureau of Land Management, and

the Army Corps of Engineers. If such studies have not been conducted on a given reservation, a study can be requested and the Bureau of Indian Affairs will conduct it. If possible, this site selection should tie into the tribe's overall plans for repurchasing and consolidating land.

The type of operation which is best suited for a particular site might be limited by the amount of capital investment needed to make that site operational.

The first major financial consideration is concerned with the amount of capital expenditure needed to become operational. Alpin and Casler provide this explanation of the process:

Decisions of capital expenditures are among the most difficult managerial problems. A major source of difficulty stems from the fact that the effects of most capital investments occur over a considerable period of time in the future. Because our knowledge of the future is imperfect it is imperative that considerable effort be made to predict as reliably as possible the probable costs and benefits of each investment alternative. Another difficulty arises because in the case of many capital expenditures most, if not all, of the capital must be laid out immediately whereas the benefits accrue to the business over time thus once management has reliable estimates of costs and benefits it has the problems of balancing added returns that will accrue to the business in future years against the capital expenditures that will be made immediately if the decision is made to invest. Sound decision on capital expenditures requires that management give careful attention to the following steps:

(1) Make a thorough search for possible profitable investment opportunities.

(2) Evaluating the profit potential of the various capital expenditure proposals.

(a) Determining the amount of capital required by each alternative.

(b) Forecasting the added earnings or benefits that would likely result from each investment alternative.

(c) Using a realistic method to evaluate the economic worth of the alternative investment proposals in view of the availability of costs in alternative uses of capital.

(3) Make the decision based upon the foregoing evaluation of the economic worth of the investment proposals, any significant intangible factors and the managerial judgment.

(4) Post auditing decisions to improvement management forecasting evaluation and decision making procedures in the future. All steps are vitally important. In accomplishing any particular step the decision maker is at the mercy of the quality of the job that has been done in the previous steps. In some cases management only needs to determine whether to accept or reject a capital expenditure project but in certain circumstances it may be necessary to rank projects in terms of their economic desirability in order that they may be compared with each other. The need to rank expenditure proposals arises when two or more projects are mutually exclusive. That is by their nature only one of them can be undertaken. For example, the business man is deciding between two pieces of equipment each of which will perform essentially the same function. Or he is analyzing alternatives used for a particular piece of property. The need for ranking capital expenditure alternatives also arises when the business does not have access to unlimited funds with which to undertake acceptable projects. In this case it is often necessary to rank proposed investments so that the limited capital funds available may be allocated among the competitive projects to the firm's best advantage (Alpin and Casler 1968, pp. 1-2).

It is necessary for the person who develops such a project to be aware of these considerations. Unless that person has had extensive experience in agriculture, this is the time to call in outside assistance. The assistance is often available on the reservation or at least within the state. One source of available expertise is the county extension agent who is usually affiliated with the agricultural college of the state land grant university and whose salary is at least partially provided by the Bureau of Indian Affairs. Other sources are the Tribal Planning Department, local farmers, ranchers, and agri-business dealers. A statement of projected capital investment needed should be developed for each potential site.

The next step is the development of a statement of estimated operating expenses. Again, outside expertise should be used to

determine basic operating costs. Major considerations will necessarily include labor, land rental, fuel, supplies, and repairs. It is difficult to project income for agricultural operations due to price and yield fluctuations. Farm income can be estimated, however, by agencies which deal with farm credit, such as the Production Credit Association, banks, Farmers Home Administration, and the Department of Agriculture. These agencies develop price and yield trend lines which extend over several years and can be used to estimate farm income. Expert assistance is also available through state universities and colleges which can match income and expense with type of operation and land. North Dakota State University in conjunction with the University of Nebraska has a computer program called AGNET which is available to county extension agents and colleges which can be used to determine feasibility of farm operations.

C. Management plan--after the feasibility of alternative sites has been analyzed, then a management plan is necessary for the administration and operation of the farm. The management plan will be discussed in detail in the operational stage of the model; however, for planning purposes and for presentation for approval, several sections must be spelled out. First is the hiring qualifications, job descriptions, and payment scheme for the farm manager. The second is a management schematic detailing the organizational structure. The third section includes the duties, responsibilities, and composition of an advisory board.

The farm manager is an essential management element in the success of this project. The farm manager could be paid an annual salary or a percentage of net profits or a combination of the two. The

motivation factors involved with sharing a percentage of the net profit while still guaranteeing a base salary are obvious. The actual percentage given to the manager would depend on the estimate of revenue. An initial figure to start with would be five percent of the net revenue of the operation. Various combinations of salary and percentage are possible, however, and should be studied.

The following is a management schematic for the tribal farm:

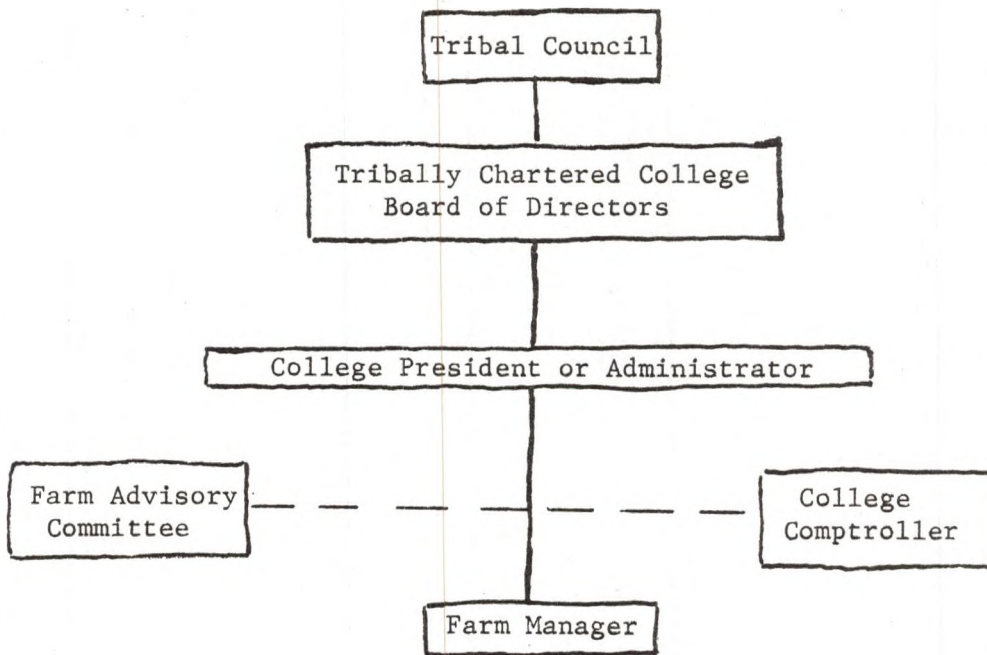


Fig. 2. Management Chart.

The Advisory Board could be made up of local people involved in agriculture, members of the college Board of Directors, members of the Tribal Council, the local county extension service, and Bureau of Indian Affairs employees (such as the superintendent). The board should consist of a number small enough so that meetings can be held without difficulty and be highly business-oriented. The farm manager and college president

should attend all meetings of the advisory board. The actual membership of the farm committee will be within the jurisdictional authority of the college board.

The main purpose of this board is to set production goals and to monitor the activities of the farm manager. One effective tool whereby this could be done is a program planning and budgeting system (PPBS). A realistic annual operating budget could be set by the college board with technical assistance from outside sources for the farm operation. The farm manager would have authority, within budgetary limitations, to incur debts and make purchases. All accounting for the farm operation would be done by the college comptroller and all major purchases would require the approval of the president of the college. This system of checks and balances could provide regular trial balances to the Advisory Board. The Advisory Board would review the farm manager's performance and make recommendations on the manager's employment contract. Expenditures which must be made outside of the budget limitations set up on the PPBS should be approved by board action prior to purchase. These activities would generally be classified as emergencies.

A source of technical assistance and advice not considered in the above management plan is the possibility of combining the college farm with a farm/ranch management education program. If this educational thrust is developed concurrently with the college farm, qualified instructors could serve as advisors and experts for the farm committee. Their experience and knowledge could be an asset to the program in nearly all areas of farm/ranch management.

V. Approval from College Board Sought

After detailed planning has been completed, alternatives should be presented with applicable information and permission obtained to seek approval from the Tribal Council. Site selection should still not be made at this point in deference to Tribal Council authority.

VI. Presentation and Approval by Tribal Council

All of the previous steps must be carefully and completely explained to the Tribal Council. The alternative sites and their relative merits should be clearly spelled out for the Tribal Council. Since the Tribal Council will have either direct contact or indirect influence on reservation-leasing policies, the Tribal Council's assistance must be sought in order to obtain the best possible farm site. If the Tribal Council is agreeable to the plan, it should be so stated in resolution form.

VII. Exploration of Capital Investment Sources

There are several sources of capital available to Indian tribes and groups which are not readily available to other groups. One obvious source is the Economic Development Administration, Department of Commerce (EDA). EDA has provided initial capital expenditures to date for several tribally-owned agricultural operations.

Another obvious source would be the Bureau of Indian Affairs. The BIA, in certain circumstances, has also been able to provide economic development monies for tribes. Money may also be available from the Indian Finance Act. Some tribes have sufficient tribal monies with which to make initial capital investments. These monies are usually

not available to many tribes because of other operating imperatives. Outside loans may be obtained from banks or agricultural credit associations such as the Federal Land Bank. The American Indian National Bank has also recently become a reality and can be looked to as a potential source of credit. It is possible, also, that some foundations would actively support such an endeavor through loans or grants. These resources are only suggestions and should not limit an enterprising grant seeker from exploring other possibilities.

The next section presents some sample tools which can be used during the pre-operational stage of the model. These tools correspond to suggested activities in the narrative.

Sample Tools

Following are sample tools which could be used during the pre-operational stage, but these tools are not the only formats which could be used. The persons or groups using the model should use those tools which best fit their situations. These samples can and should be modified to meet the needs of those using the model. The sample tools are presented in chronological order for their use in the pre-operational stage:

1. Objective/Activity Chart
2. Time Flow Chart
3. Sample Investment Initial Capital Estimate
4. Sample Operational Expense Estimate
5. Sample Revenue Estimates
6. Sample Farm Manager Job Description
7. Sample Tribal Resolution

TABLE 1

PRE-OPERATIONAL STAGE ACTIVITY CHART

Objective	Activity	Personnel	Time Frame
1. Obtain initial approval	Short presentation during regular meeting	College Director	1 week
2. Select site alternatives	Study of land use, documents, irrigation studies	College Director	3 weeks
	Discuss site selection with tribal planning department		
	Discuss site selection with Bureau of Indian Affairs realty office		
	Talk with knowledgeable reservation residents		
	Select alternative sites		
3. Determine feasibility of project	Selection of types of initial operation, e.g. wheat, cattle	College Director Technical Advisors	3 weeks
	Determination of capital expenditure		1 week
	Determination of operating expenses		1 week
	Determination of potential income		1 week

TABLE 1--Continued

Objective	Activity	Personnel	Time Frame
4. Develop a management plan	Develop job description for farm manager	College Director	1 week
	Develop organization chart		
	Develop guidelines for an Advisory Board, their duties, and functions		
5. Present for approval by college board	Present detailed planning information and discuss and receive approval for best strategy from college board	College Director	
6. Present for approval by Tribal Council	All information and plans must be prepared in a report for approval by Tribal Council		1 week
	Approval for seeking outside financial assistance must be obtained	College Director	
	Request assistance in selection and lease of best site		
7. Explore sources of capital investments	All potential sources of initial capital must be explored	College Director	3 months

TABLE 1--Continued

Objective	Activity	Personnel	Time Frame
7. <u>Continued</u>	For those sources which seem most favorable, applications should be prepared for loans and grants or both	College Director	
	Approval must be received to submit applications from the college board and Tribal Council	College Director	
	Approval of submitted applications	College Director	

TABLE 2
TIME FLOW CHART

Sample Dates	
July 1	Obtain initial approval from College Board
	Select site alternatives
July 7	-study land use documents
July 15	-discuss with appropriate agencies and people
July 21	-select alternative sites dependent on availability
	Determine project feasibility
August 1	-estimate capital investment required
August 7	-estimate operating expenses
August 14	-estimate revenue
	Develop a management plan
August 21	-develop job description for farm manager
August 21	-develop organizational charts
August 21	-develop Advisory Board guidelines
August 21	-develop profit distribution scheme
	Present for approval by Tribal Council
	-preparation of report
September 3	-presentation and approval
	Explore Sources of Capital Investment
October 3	-survey of sources
November 3	-preparation of applications
December 3	-application approval from Tribal Council and college board
January 31	-approval from bank or government agency

TABLE 3

SAMPLE INITIAL INVESTMENT CAPITAL ESTIMATE
(This is based on a 640 acre farm which is suitable for irrigation)

Sample Capital Expenditures:

Double pivot irrigation system and repairs	\$130,000.00
1 100 horsepower tractor	19,000.00
1 stack hand (self-propelled)	23,000.00
1 chisel plow	2,500.00
1 seed drill	5,000.00
1 baler	4,500.00
1 hay bin	3,300.00
2 500 gallon fuel tanks	500.00
1 steel Butler building	16,000.00
	<u>\$203,800.00</u>

TABLE 4

SAMPLE OPERATIONAL EXPENSE ESTIMATE
(This is based on a 640 acre farm)

Sample Operating Categories:

Salaries	
Farm manager (+ 5% of Net Profit)	\$ 10,000.00
Seasonal	5,000.00
Land rental (640 acres x \$15/acre)	9,600.00
Fuel, oil, grease	3,000.00
Seed (\$9.00 bu. x 1.25 bu./ac x 640 acres)	7,200.00
Irrigation	
Electricity	4,000.00
Supplies (general)	9,000.00
Repairs	2,000.00
Harvesting (custom rate \$5/acre x 640 acres)	3,200.00
	<u>\$ 53,400.00</u>
Annual interest on operating capital	
\$53,400 x 9% x 70% of year	4,806.00
Total Operating Capital	<u>\$ 58,206.00</u>

TABLE 5

SAMPLE REVENUE ESTIMATES

This is based on a 640 acre farm--400 acres in corn and 240 acres in alfalfa.

GROSS INCOME -

5 tons of alfalfa per irrigated acre with a five-year average price of \$35.00 per ton

240 x 5 tons x \$35/ton = \$ 42,000.00

400 acres of corn x 140 bushels per acre
x \$2.50/bushel = \$140,000.00

\$182,000.00

As a sample, the 400 acres of corn were analyzed using a computer program written by Larry Bitnery, University of Nebraska, AGNET Computer Service. The feasibility was broken down by the computer on a per-acre basis as follows:

Cash Costs

Purchased materials	\$16.00
Fuel and lube	22.80
Repairs and maintenance	11.79
Custom hire and machine rental	5.00
Interest on operating expense	4.63

(55.60 x 10.00% for 10.00 mos)

Total cash costs \$ 60.23

Labor

Direct labor	6.66
(1.9 hrs x 2.90/hr x 1.2 overhead)	

Total cash costs and labor \$ 66.89

Establishment Charge/Year 0.0

TABLE 5--Continued

Overhead and Management		
Overhead (total cash costs x 5.00%)	3.01	
Management charge (\$0.0 x estimated yield)	0.0	
Total overhead and management		3.01
Total cost per acre		125.54
Total cost per unit of production (Based on estimated yield)		0.90
Estimated Returns		
Estimated crop return per acre	350.00	
Estimated AUM grazing returns	0.0	
Estimated total return per acre		350.00
Estimated net return per acre	224.46	

Position: Community College Farm Manager

Salary: Negotiable based on education and experience

Duration: Annual appointment by Board of Directors

Description: The Farm Manager is responsible for the overall supervision and operation of a _____ acre agricultural operation which is coordinated by the Community College. The Farm Manager must supervise work activities of one permanent and several seasonal personnel. The Farm Manager will coordinate budgeting and accounting with the Community College and will be responsible for close coordination with an advisory committee.

Qualifications Desired:

- A. Application must have extensive experience in agriculture at the management level. College background in agriculture preferred but not necessary.

Fig. 3. Sample Farm Manager Job Description.

RESOLUTION NO. _____

WHEREAS, the _____ tribe is an unincorporated tribe of Indians having accepted the Indian Reorganization Act of June 18, 1934, and the recognized governing body of the tribe is known as the _____ Tribal Council, and

WHEREAS, the tribe is empowered to promote and protect the health, education, and general welfare of the members of the tribe and to administer services that may contribute to the educational, social, and economic advancement of the tribe and its members, and

WHEREAS, the _____ Community College is an Indian Institution of Higher Education chartered by _____ tribe, and

WHEREAS, the _____ Community College has thoroughly planned a system whereby a tribal farm operated by the college could provide revenues for the tribe and the college, and

WHEREAS, it is evident that such a tribal agricultural operation will benefit the members of the tribe.

NOW THEREFORE BE IT RESOLVED, that the _____ tribal council authorizes the _____ Community College to take steps as outlined in the attached plan to put such an agricultural program into operation,

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED, that the _____ tribal council requests the Bureau of Indian Affairs to assist in any way possible in the development of this agricultural operation in particular as regards expediting leasing arrangements for needed tribal property.

Fig. 4. Sample Tribal Resolution.

Operational Stage

At this point, the preliminary preparations for a college-tribal agricultural operation should be complete. A site should have been selected and leasing arrangements worked out; a feasibility study, which would include a breakdown of necessary capital investment and operating money needed, should have been completed; approval should have been given by the Tribal Council; and sources of initial funding

should have been approached, and start-up money should be available. The remaining task is to start and operate the farm.

Modern farm management is a more complex business operation than the family-owned farm of several generations past. It requires an administrative decision-making process which incorporates accounting, purchasing, personnel, supervision, marketing, capital investment, and record keeping. This model places much of the administrative process within the already existing framework of the community college and uses college management tools to insure a business-like operation.

In order to understand how the college can provide the desired administrative services, it is necessary to detail the roles of the major individuals and groups involved in the process. These roles, outlined in the pre-operational stage, consist of the farm manager, the Advisory Board, the college president, and the college comptroller.

The college president is one of the key persons in terms of the success of this model. At this point, the president would already have spent considerable time and energy in meeting the objectives of the pre-operational stage. The college president would have the overall administrative responsibility for the entire project. Considerable authority, however, would necessarily be delegated to other people in the process. The president would be responsible for monitoring the activities and progress of the total operation and ensuring a fluid working relationship between all components.

The college comptroller would directly supervise accounting, record keeping, and bookkeeping for this project. A sample of records that his office would keep includes cash receipts, inventory records,

production records, income records, summary and analysis, personnel and payroll records, and other miscellaneous records. His office would be responsible for all cash reimbursements and purchases, including payrolls. This office would also be responsible for any contracting, with the approval of the president.

There are several packaged farm accounting systems which will expedite the duties of the comptroller. The North Dakota State University extension service has two computerized programs available: the Mail-in and the KOTA Check systems. There is also a North Dakota Farm Account Book available from the extension service. Another good functional system is the Farm Business Management Account Book which is used by the North Dakota Vocational Agriculture Department. The comptroller could choose to incorporate the above systems or develop a system consistent with the college accounting system.

The comptroller would issue monthly trial balance statements to the president, farm manager, and advisory group. The college comptroller, as part of the normal operating procedures of the college, would require a periodic audit of the farm account at the same time that the overall system is audited by an independent outside auditing and accounting firm.

The Advisory Board would consist of local, knowledgeable people whose main responsibility would be to monitor the activities of the farm manager and provide advice and input regarding long-range planning and day-to-day operation of the farm. Working with the president and the farm manager, the Advisory Board would develop an annual operating budget and set production goals and work objectives. This board should meet regularly to review established objectives and make suggestions for the improvement of the farm operation.

The farm manager would be responsible for the actual operation and maintenance of the farm. It would be his responsibility, working closely with the advisory board and the college president to insure that the operation is successful. The farm manager would be responsible for determining additional personnel needs in consultation with the advisory board and would also be the direct supervisor for additional farm personnel. The farm manager should be a local reservation resident who will view this job as a career opportunity.

Many areas of agriculture are highly complex and require much experience or training of personnel in order to achieve maximum productivity. When technical questions that cannot be answered arise, assistance should be sought from state and Federal sources, such as the Bureau of Indian Affairs and the State Extension Service. There is literally a wealth of materials available on every aspect of farm management and crop and annual marketing and production. The accounting firm which provides assistance to the college is also a good source of advice on business matters. Inservice training is also a viable, available method of improving the potentials of the farm manager. For relatively little cost, the farm manager could receive training in nearly every aspect of agricultural production. Again, if this farm operation were to be combined with an educational program, residence expertise would be available to assist in the operational decision-making process. Inservice training for the manager would become a normal part of the overall program. Students in the educational program might also provide all or part of the labor needs of the farm operation.

The farm committee should use the budget and the calendar as general guidelines for evaluating the farm operation. Obviously, the operation will not follow preplanned activities exactly and the farm committee should be prepared to exercise their decision-making authority to expedite smooth operation of the farm.

To summarize to this point, the operation of the farm would be similar to a typical farm operation except that a well-thought-out budget process would be used with farm management decisions being made by a farm committee with access to expert advice. It would be necessary for the farm committee to evaluate the day-to-day job performance of the farm manager, particularly in the early stages of operation. If an educational program were combined with the farm, the agricultural instructors could be used to evaluate the manager's performance. If the farm was to operate without an education program, knowledgeable farm committee members and college staff could be used to provide overall supervision and evaluation. The amount of supervision necessary would decrease as the farm manager demonstrates competency and reliability.

After the operation has begun, the farm would generate revenue. This revenue would not be immediately available for expansion of other uses. The first consideration would be to erase any debt created through capital expenditure and operational expense for the initial period. Operational expense for the next operating period is the second consideration that must be made. A breakdown based on the example of a 640 acre farm follows the narrative.

The revenue developed from this project could be spent in a variety of ways. The profit could go directly into the operating budget of the

college, for example. This revenue, however, would be assumed to be new money, money that would not yet have been programmed out. Theoretically, it is money the colleges would not have an immediate need for, in terms of survival. It is a premise of this model then that these monies be used for development of a long-range funding plan which could eventually provide a stable financial base for the college.

An endowment fund operates on a simple plan. The profits from the farm project would be allowed to accrue as savings until a sizable enough amount was available for investment. This amount would then be increased with borrowed money using the original amount as collateral. Then, the combined project and loan money would be invested at a favorable interest spread. In other words, the combined money returns a higher rate of interest than the interest due on the loan money. Over the years, the earnings from this investment would enable the college to provide current budget support and meet the loan payments of interest and principal. After the loan has been retired, the college would own the investment. Each year the income from the farm program could be added to the endowment fund. Initially, the college would not realize any usable income, but after the initial loan was paid off there would be a continuous flow of revenue available to the college. This flow of revenue would continue to increase as the endowment was built up from revenue from the farm program. Other types of revenue, such as gifts, donations, and any profit realized through other activities, could also be used for the endowment fund.

Endowment funds, however, require astute management in today's economy. An alternative to endowment investment that should be seriously considered is reinvestment in agricultural expansion of the

college farm. The basic reservation problems addressed by the model could be approached through this type of expansion. Many variations exist for the college to use this expansion in assisting the tribe to develop and operate tribal farms. The individual Indian farmers, particularly those people with present marginal operations and those beginning ranching and farming operations, could be assisted in a variety of ways. Using a pragmatic approach to overall reservation agricultural development would not only provide a stable financial base for the college, but would also help the college meet a major mission--to assist the tribe in educational and economic development.

Sample Tools

Following are sample tools for the operational stage:

1. Guidelines for College Farm Committee
2. Sample Monthly Activities Calendar
3. Sample Net Income Statement
4. Sample Endowment Plan Chart
5. Projected Production Plan

1. Composition--The college farm committee should be composed of a majority of members from the college board of trustees. Two levels of committee membership may be necessary-- voting members and advisory members. The committee could be open; that is, any member of the board of trustees in attendance would be able to vote.

2. Quorum--A minimum number of committee members should be established to constitute a quorum so that meetings can take place on a timely basis.

3. Reporting--The farm committee will be responsible for reporting back to the community college board of trustees on a regular basis. These reports should also be made available to the tribal council.

Fig. 5. Sample Guidelines for College Farm Committee.

TABLE 6

SAMPLE MONTHLY ACTIVITIES CALENDAR

Monthly Activities--January

1. Completion of pre-operation stage
2. Approval of loan or grant program
3. Formation of advisory committee
4. Advertise for farm manager
5. Prepare leasing documents
6. Monthly advisory board meeting

Monthly Activities--February

1. Interview farm manager
2. Hire farm manager
3. Conclude base arrangements
4. Purchase equipment
5. Set up farm budget
6. Set up accounting procedures
7. Monthly advisory board meeting

Monthly Activities--March

1. Purchase equipment and supplies
2. General farm repair and maintenance
3. Prepare irrigation system
4. Crop production preparation
5. Monthly advisory board meeting

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Monthly Activities--April

1. Crop planting
2. Hiring additional summer help
3. General farm repair
4. Irrigation
5. Monthly advisory board meeting

Monthly Activities--May

1. Conclude crop planting
2. Irrigation
3. General farm repair
4. Weed control
5. Monthly advisory board meeting

Monthly Activities--June

1. Irrigation
2. General farm repair and maintenance
3. Weed control
4. Monthly advisory board meeting

TABLE 6--Continued

<u>Monthly Activities--July</u>	<u>Monthly Activities--August</u>	<u>Monthly Activities--September</u>
1. Weed control	1. Haying and hauling	1. Conclusion of harvest activities
2. Haying and hauling	2. Harvesting and hauling	2. General farm activities
3. General farm repair	3. General farm repair	3. Monthly advisory board meeting
4. Irrigation	4. Irrigation	4. Selling the crop
5. Monthly advisory board meeting	5. Monthly advisory board meeting	
<u>Monthly Activities--October</u>	<u>Monthly Activities--November</u>	<u>Monthly Activities--December</u>
1. General farm activities	1. General farm activities	1. Annual audit
2. Equipment repair	2. Equipment repair	2. Personnel evaluation
3. Monthly advisory board meeting	3. Monthly advisory board meeting	3. Contract negotiations
		4. Monthly advisory board meeting
		5. Annual report to tribal council
		6. Distribution of Net Income

TABLE 7

SAMPLE NET INCOME STATEMENT

Initial capital investment	\$208,300.00
Assume that \$108,300 has been secured in government assistance	
Initial capital investment owed	\$100,000.00
Borrowed from Farmers Home Administration at 10% interest	<u> x 10%</u> \$ 10,000.00
Total owed after first year	\$110,000.00
First-year operating capital	\$ 58,000.00
Projected second-year operating capital	\$ 64,000.00
Cross revenue - first year	\$182,000.00
First-year operating expenses	<u>- 58,000.00</u>
Net Income	\$124,000.00
5% profit share for farm manager	<u>- 6,200.00</u> \$117,800.00
Second-year operating expenses	<u>- 64,000.00</u> \$ 53,800.00
Loan repayment, if desired	\$ 53,800.00
The debt remaining from the second year of operation from initial capital investment	\$110,000.00 <u>- 53,800.00</u> \$ 54,200.00

By the third year of operation, the college farm should be generating unencumbered revenue.

TABLE 8

SAMPLE ENDOWMENT FUND CHART

	Investment	Earnings 9%	Interest 8%	Payment of Principal	Income
Year 1	300,000	27,000	16,000	11,000	
Year 2	300,000	27,000	15,130	11,880	
Year 3	300,000	27,000	14,169	12,831	
Year 4	300,000	27,000	13,143	13,857	
Year 5	300,000	27,000	12,034	14,966	
Year 6	300,000	27,000	10,837	16,163	
Year 7	300,000	27,000	9,544	17,456	
Year 8	300,000	27,000	8,147	18,853	
Year 9	300,000	27,000	6,639	20,361	
Year 10	300,000	27,000	5,010	21,990	
Year 11	300,000	27,000	3,251	23,749	
Year 12	300,000	27,000	1,351	161,894	8,755
Year 13	308,755	27,787	-----	-----	27,787
Year 14	336,542	30,288	-----	-----	30,288
Year 15	366,830	33,014	-----	-----	33,014

Total at end of 15 years = \$399,844.00

This table is a simplified explanation of possible endowment fund investments. In this example, the starting monies are arbitrarily established at \$100,000.00. This chart shows the growth of the initial \$100,000 plus borrowed money (\$200,000.00, obtained at 8 percent interest). This chart does not show additional monies which could be added annually to the endowment fund. The combined monies from the farm program and the loan are then invested at 9 percent. The table represents a fifteen-year period; the college owns the initial \$300,000.00 and has earned nearly another \$100,000 with annual earnings increasing yearly.

CHAPTER IV

A REVIEW OF THE MODEL

This chapter is a summary of a review (by a panel of four members) of the model presented in chapter III. The panel was chosen in consultation with the faculty advisor. The members of the panel are people who have experience with Indian reservation development and are familiar with Indian community colleges. The members of the panel were chosen for the particular viewpoints that they represent in terms of their present positions and past experience in reservation development. Complete resumes of the panel members are included in the appendix.

The panel consists of:

1. Lionel Bordeaux, President, Sinte Gliske Community College, Rosebud, South Dakota,
2. Dr. Robert Sullivan, Director of Special Projects, North Dakota State University, Fargo, North Dakota,
3. Earl Stewart, Director of Graduate Program in Community and Regional Planning, North Dakota State University, Fargo, North Dakota,
4. Leroy Clifford, Executive Director, American Indian Higher Education Consortium, Denver, Colorado.

The first panel member, Lionel Bordeaux, represents the viewpoint of the chief administrator of an Indian community college which might potentially use the model or an adaptation of the model. The second panel member, Dr. Robert Sullivan, as Director of the Regional Economic Development Center, has worked with several reservations in

a three-state area in the development of specific economic development projects and is familiar with general economic conditions on Indian reservations. Dr. Sullivan has also worked with several Indian community colleges and is familiar with their history. Mr. Stewart has worked on specific planning projects for Indian tribes in North Dakota and represents an academic viewpoint as to how planning can be applied to reservation development. Leroy Clifford, as a representative of the Indian community college movement nationwide, brings a broad viewpoint to the potential application of the model by Indian community colleges across the country.

Each member of the panel received copies of chapter II, the History of the Problem, and chapter III, an Agriculture-Based Finance Model for Indian Community Colleges. The panel members were asked to carefully review the materials and respond to a series of questions. The major question asked was: Will the model work? Several secondary questions were suggested to help the panel member consider his response. Those were: (1) What are the major strengths of the model? (2) What are the major weaknesses of the model? (3) What do you see as hindering factors to the success of the model? (4) What forces will help the model succeed? (5) Can you recommend any additions or changes which would strengthen the model? (6) How do you see implementation of the model affecting the overall mission of the community college? A sample of the letters to the panel members is included in the appendix.

The panelists responded in a variety of ways. Most did not strictly follow the sequence of questions asked in their responses.

However, each respondent did address, in his own way, the questions and in most cases, the responses went beyond the questions. The writer attempted to sort the data in the responses based on the apparent usefulness of various statements in terms of their applicability and usefulness in improving the model. The summaries which follow represent the writer's judgment of those comments which were most pertinent and helpful. The unedited responses of the panel can be found in appendix A.

Lionel Bordeaux's Response Summary

As an opening comment, Mr. Bordeaux points out that the finance model for Indian community colleges was designed for use with present day tribal governments. These tribal governments are, for the most part, based upon standard American democratic formats forced upon tribes rather than traditional Indian systems and values. Many of the contemporary conflicts on reservations can be traced to remaining tribal values and the differences between the values of modern society. The model does not adequately recognize the role that these conflicts play in everyday reservation life.

In addition, Mr. Bordeaux points out that the political, social, and economic characteristics vary widely from reservation to reservation and these factors would have to be identified on a situation by situation basis in order for this or any other model to work. It is also possible that development which is actually beneficial to Indian people cannot take place without a basic change in the entire spectrum of institutions and government relationships which now exist on reservations.

In the second section of his response, Mr. Bordeaux suggests the use of a diversified agricultural operation in the context of the model. He also brings out the point that an agricultural operation might operate with a "Land Ethic" consistent with Indian ideas of conservation and natural growth. Mr. Bordeaux also mentions that the model might be expanded to include development of other types of natural resources.

As an addition, Mr. Bordeaux suggests that the model should include an agricultural and/or natural resources educational program. He details several advantages which an education program would provide:

1. Justification to the tribal council as a major benefit to tribal members.
2. A direct benefit for young, interested members to become involved in an agricultural operation.
3. Justification of a demonstration "classroom" for an educational program through Federal grants, thereby providing/supplementing the initial investment capital.
4. An educationally based agricultural operation which might alleviate the economic pressure of realizing a profit during the first few years of operation. (Although maximum productivity would remain a primary objective.)
5. A method of building in agricultural expertise as a perpetual resources center within the community college.
6. Justification of agricultural research grants which might also supplement the operation.
7. Avenues for outside or external expertise through internships by other college students.

8. The development of an educational approach for tribal planners, who have a tremendous need to become familiar with planning, management, and terminology associated with natural resources and agriculture.

Some additional comments by Mr. Bordeaux point out that a valuable member on the advisory committee would be a banking or investment representative. He also mentions that the college might be wise to use outside consultants for land use evaluations rather than to rely on the Bureau of Indian Affairs.

Dr. Robert Sullivan's Response Summary

Dr. Sullivan believes that this model can produce revenue to support basic operational costs of a community college by the development of an agricultural operation. In addition, Dr. Sullivan believes that the model would be relevant to other enterprises which develop natural resources such as timber production or basic commercial operations. The development of these enterprises will take time and five conditions must be met if the model is to work. These conditions are:

1. The enterprise must be feasible from a business point of view. Operating revenues must exceed operating costs.
2. Good management is essential to a successful business.
3. The operation must employ no more people than required to do the job.
4. Sufficient operating capital must be available to insure that the new enterprise is able to weather the start-up period and bad years.

5. There must be full acceptance and a long-term commitment from tribal leadership to the community college projects.

In addition to providing support for the operation of a community college, Dr. Sullivan thinks that this model also offers a means of bringing about indigenous economic development on the reservations. The colleges would have this capability because it is the repository of technical expertise on the reservation and the college should be politically neutral. A successful implementation of the model will, from Dr. Sullivan's viewpoint, provide the tribe with an example of economic success which may be of great help and inspiration in future development efforts.

Earl Stewart's Response Summary

Mr. Stewart believes that a major strength of the model is its agricultural focus inasmuch as agriculture has the greatest potential for economic success on most reservations. In addition to agriculture, Mr. Stewart thinks that the model could be expanded to provide other services which are needed but presently not provided on the reservation. Some of the services that he suggests are:

1. Developing and maintaining a management information service or system.
2. Conducting censuses and surveys.
3. Providing technical assistance to the tribes and local organizations.

Mr. Stewart believes that a major weakness of the model is that the model can be seriously affected by the political climate of the reservation. Land ownership, in particular, is a potentially explosive

political issue. Other areas of economic development might offer a stable source of income without potential political involvement. In particular, the development of the community college as a technical assistance and training agency may help to provide income for the college while serving reservation needs.

LeRoy Clifford's Response Summary

Mr. Clifford believes that the model represents a realistic approach for development of resources by Indian community colleges on reservations. The model will be ultimately tested, according to Mr. Clifford, when it is actually employed by a tribe or Indian college to develop basic financing for a tribal college. Mr. Clifford recommends that the model might be strengthened by more systematic evaluation at each stage of the process.

Mr. Clifford goes on to say that many factors might hinder the success of the model. The term of office of the policy-makers is one important factor in the process. There should be continuity of leadership for this type of development. Resource constraints may also hinder some tribes from the use of this type of model. The reverse of many of the hindering factors (i.e., a system of continuity leadership) would prove to be very helpful in the successful implementation of the model.

Mr. Clifford says that specific steps for evaluation at each stage of the model would strengthen the process. This evaluation would help connect and align procedures in a timely manner.

The Panel's Overall Response

Each member of the panel responded to the model in a manner that corresponded to an individual perspective although those perspectives

did not necessarily match the perspectives for which the particular panel member was chosen. In response to the general question "Will the model work?", the consensus was that the model would work although not without difficulty in some areas. Several additions to the model were also suggested and are further discussed in chapter V under Conclusions.

The secondary questions were not answered in a sequential manner by all the panel members but several responses can be drawn for each question from the general narrative of each panel member. In considering the first secondary question, "What are the major strengths of the model?", Mr. Stewart responded by pointing out that agriculture was an appropriate focus for development of most reservations. Dr. Sullivan pointed out that the impartial political stance of a tribal community college and resident expertise were positive elements of the model. Leroy Clifford thought that the model presented a realistic process aimed at producing a desired end, financial resources for a tribal community college.

In response to the second question, a major weakness pointed out by the panel was that the model should deal with any applicable economic development such as development of natural resources of even business enterprises. The model proposed spoke only to agriculture but with minor revision would be easily adaptable to other areas of economic development. Mr. Bordeaux pointed out that the philosophical base of the model must be clarified and perhaps modified to fit the differing value systems of each particular tribe. He also pointed out economic development as a whole might be inconsistent with a traditional Indian

world view. Mr. Clifford thinks that the lack of specific evaluation methodology within the model is a major weakness.

In response to the third question, a major hindering force pointed out by the panel was the complex political/legal climate of the reservation. Dr. Sullivan mentions that there are not many successful organizational role models on the reservation. Leroy Clifford says that short terms of office of the policy-makers involved with the model may be a major hindering factor to the eventual success of the model. Mr. Clifford also mentions that general limitations in resources might be a hindering factor, such as lack of land or trained personnel.

In response to the fourth question, the panel generally agreed with Mr. Clifford's observation that the forces which would help the model would be the positive side of the hindering forces which would in fact be helping forces such as ample resources and commitment from the tribal government. Additions and suggestions for improvement of the model which are pointed out in chapter V would also serve, in many cases, as forces which would increase the effectiveness of the model.

Some ideas and suggestions presented by the model did not receive substantial consideration by the panel. For example, the panel members did not address the appropriateness of suggested tools. Nor was the question regarding the effect of the model on the overall education program and mission of the college substantially addressed. However, the education program and mission of the college might be changed by substantial involvement in an economic development process. The political neutrality of the community college might also be

jeopardized by involvement in activities which could change the economic and political status quo of the reservation. The panel did not make a judgment that compared the potential risks of the development of the model to the community college as an institution to the benefits that would be realized by the community college and the reservation as a whole. The panel also did not address the implications of this model being used as a base for development which might eventually help solve complex problems of land ownership and management.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This paper has presented a finance model for Indian community colleges. The model presented was based on the use of agricultural resources potentially available on Indian reservations. The problems involving Indian land were discussed in a general fashion in the second chapter. The purpose of the model was to illustrate how reservation resources could be used as financial bases for community colleges while at the same time offering an alternative to Indian tribes for the utilization of tribal resources.

The model presented a two-phase approach to the development of an agricultural operation which would generate income for a community college. The first phase discussed those preliminary activities necessary to secure land, determine feasibility of operation, and obtain political approval. The second phase of the approach discussed the operation of the farm and distribution and utilization of potential farm/ranch income. The model also presented samples of tools which could be used in both phases of the model.

The finance model for Indian community colleges was reviewed by a four member panel familiar with the problems addressed by the model. The panel members were chosen for their perspective viewpoints, experience, and backgrounds. The panel was not expected to reach a consensus opinion for approval or disapproval of the model but to

provide helpful expertise which might expand the utility of the ideas presented in the model. This chapter considers the panel's suggestions in the form of conclusions which might be useful to someone considering implementation of the agriculture-based finance model for Indian community colleges.

Conclusions

The review of the agriculture-based finance model for Indian community colleges provided several valuable additions to the model. The reviewers' insights into the processes addressed by the model and the reservation environment helped to form conclusions about the model and conclusions which may increase the utility of the model. These conclusions can be grouped into two areas: (1) conclusions which discuss features and characteristics of the model as it was presented, and (2) suggested additions which may increase the utility of the model. The importance of the conclusions will vary according to the needs of the person or group planning on using the model.

The conclusions which discuss features of the model are:

1. The model will work but certain conditions are necessary for proper implementation. Given a feasible situation, there must be good management of the operation. This idea can be extended to point out that the success of the model will be directly correlated to the management skills of the college trying to implement it.

2. Political approval and commitment to the project from the tribal council and local political groups are essential elements in the model.

3. The model, if successfully implemented, would stand as an educational role model for the tribe in development and management of tribal resources.

4. Before the model is implemented on a specific reservation, detailed background information needs to be gathered which identifies local social, economic, and political characteristics. These factors must be viewed in terms of existing conflicts between contemporary values and remaining tribal values and the potential impact of these conflicts on this type of development.

5. Continuity of leadership is an important factor in long range success for the model.

The conclusions which are suggestions for additions to the model are:

1. The scope of the model (agriculture) is too narrow and should include nearly any type of economic development.

2. The problems addressed by the model are not only economic but educational as well. The model, whether centered around agriculture or other enterprises, could easily be expanded to combine the management framework with an appropriate educational program.

3. If the focus of the model is aimed at agricultural or natural resource development, the model should incorporate a "Land Ethic" consistent with Indian philosophy.

4. In the planning portions of the model, it is advisable to use outside resources rather than to rely solely on existing governmental agencies.

5. Specific evaluation measures should be detailed for both pre-operational and operational stages of the model.

Recommendations

This paper has presented a finance model for Indian community colleges. The financial concerns of the Indian college movement, however, are only one aspect of a dynamic, unique development in American education. The Indian college movement retains many of the characteristics of mainstream American higher education such as needs for accreditation and transferable systems of credit. Indian colleges also have a responsibility to meet the needs of modern tribal societies with unique cultural and historical backgrounds. These emerging institutions offer fertile ground for a new thrust in educational research particularly in administration. The following recommendations, although not inclusive, suggest some directions that future researchers might consider.

1. Modeling should be considered as a primary research tool for Indian colleges. Model development is a particularly applicable and needed process which can be applied to nearly every aspect of Indian college development at this time. The possibilities range from feasibility of establishment through curriculum development and organic (tribal) administration and governance.

2. Models which are developed need to be tested. Methods need to be developed which enable the effectiveness of the model to be tested without endangering the basic institutions.

3. Academic research of a more empirical nature is needed to record and verify aspects of model development, implementation, and assessment of effectiveness. In addition, this type of research is needed for the Indian college movement as a whole. The basic assumptions underlying the development of the Indian colleges should be examined and clarified.

APPENDIX A

SAMPLE LETTER AND UNEDITED RESPONSES

SAMPLE LETTER

Dear _____

Enclosed is a copy of a Finance Model for Indian Community Colleges. Two explanatory chapters precede the model. As we discussed earlier, your task will be to review the model. The major question to which your response should be directed is: Will the model work? There are several secondary questions which may help formulate your response:

1. What are the major strengths of the model?
2. What are the major weaknesses of the model?
3. What do you see as hindering factors to the success of the model?
4. What forces will help the model succeed?
5. What additions or changes would you recommend to strengthen the model?
6. How do you see implementation of the model affecting the overall education program and mission of the community college?

Thank you for your energy and efforts in reviewing the model. Your comments will be greatly appreciated in evaluating the potential of using this model as a tool. I would also like to request a short resume of your experience and academic background for inclusion in the appendix. Thank you.

Sincerely,

James E. Shanley

A Review by Lionel Bordeaux

You requested comments regarding the strengths and weaknesses of the model. A finance model for Indian Community Colleges, with additions or changes perceived necessary to strengthen the model, factors facilitating or hindering the success of the model and the effect of the model's implementation on Indian Community Colleges. These comments were requested to enable a response to your major question, "Will the model work?"

The major question, "Will the model work?" is beyond the scope of this critique. The critique is developed in two parts responding in each part to as many of the secondary questions as possible. The first part critiques the model broadly focusing on issues regarding community development. Much of the commentary concerns the theoretical background statement in the paper. As a consequence comments are offered relative to the model in the context of the statements made and relative to broad issues concerning development not mentioned but perceived necessary in the development and operation of the model.

The second part of the critique comments specifically on internal features of the model emphasizing the agricultural foundation of the proposed finance model.

Part One

The theoretical framework for the model explains "one of the major difficulties encountered in the establishment of land use policies for Indians has been the conflict between traditional Indian communal values and the Anglo-orientated individual ownership ideas. The model

aims to resolve this conflict by providing a framework wherein Indian land can be used by Indians following accepted modern management practices . . ."

Comments:

1. The model is proposed as a device for resolving a conflict between traditional Indian communal values and Anglo-orientated individual ownership ideas.
 - a. The model is, however, based on Anglo-orientated individual ownership ideas and as a consequence causes a conflict, dis-functional to development.
 - b. The paper makes no statement by what is meant by Traditional Indian communal values or the nature of the conflict between these values and Anglo-orientated Indian land ownership ideas.
 1. Traditional Indian communal values may exist ideally but one must identify the extent to which they operate in the real Indian world or should operate as the case may be. Even traditional communal values are tribally specific in social expression and content. Any model designed to facilitate locally defined development must be very clear and precise about the social and cultural reality of the community focus of development.
 2. There is considerable value in designing a model for development which recognizes in specific terms the nature (social institution context) of conflict as suggested.
 - c. The model plugs into aspects of contemporary Indian tribal governance which are themselves based on Anglo-orientated economic and political ideas.

II. The model description of the application of the model identifies almost more areas where Tribal and reservation differences must be accounted for than areas where the model can be effectively applied to all reservations.

a. The nature of these variable factors in the application of the model are more interesting than the model itself for indicating the needs for a type of financial model sufficient to provide income for tribally based and controlled indigenous institutions of any kind.

1. The paper does not describe these variable factors save to mention that they exist.
2. No decision making system no matter how graphic will guarantee that the decisions made will be appropriate to the envisioned development.

To insure that decisions are more appropriate to a common desire for a specific result agreed to by all parties and individuals, the system for decision making must reflect the realities of the current social, political, and economic context of reservations. In other words, decision makers must be able to make decisions which are clearly yes or no and not the result of compromise by concerns not directly associated with development, i.e. in Northern Cheyenne, the Tribal Council who was against coal development for the Reservation was voted out of office because the tribe could not support its older Indian members who had retired and were unemployed at

the same time it was using tribal funds for attorneys, etc. In this case, the independent issue of coal development for the Northern Cheyenne was compromised by another distinct issue, the needs of older people.

- III. For the purposes of dissertation, the weakest aspect is the theoretical background for the model which should enable an understanding of what the issues are relative to development or the realities, giving a describable contemporary Indian social, political, and economic situation, of how to effectively and functionally facilitate development.

Recommendation for further information: Goodenough "Cooperation in Change, An Anthropological Approach to Community Development" and the manual, "The Fourth World," the last chapters.

- IV. It is quite possible without a fundamental restructuring of the political legal basis of the relationship of Indian Tribal Governments to the Federal Government and American Society of Indian Societies socially and economically, that the ability of any model no matter how strong would ultimately not function in the interests of the Indian people. This belief is based on the opinion that the context in which the model is compelled to function is just as important as the characteristics of the model itself.

Part Two

- I. In light of current agri-business trends, the emphasis of an agricultural operation should be oriented toward a diversified agricultural operation rather than a singular form or animal production unit.

Diversification would involve both crop and animal production. Although the initial investment of capital would be higher, the long range benefits would be consistently realized at the end of each growing season. That is, the success of a crop production might balance out the limited production of livestock in a given year due to a weak livestock market, and vice versa.

Perhaps the diversification of an agricultural operation could be implemented in independent components and dependent on the success of each component, the overall agricultural project could be a product of vertical integration. But each component would be managed in a concerted effort as part of the overall plan.

Other reasons for a diversified approach to take into consideration:

- a. Fluctuations in crop and livestock markets.
 - b. Uninvestigated marketing potentials - exploration of non-traditional marketing avenues (foreign trade) could be reflective of a tribe asserting their sovereignty.
 - c. Pursuit of a qualified agricultural manager - a person well versed in more than one type of animal or farm production will most likely be consistent in basic management practices.
 - d. Diversification, while requiring higher capital investments, will also involve or provide for the utilization of more resources (land and water) - thus using it and not losing it.
- II. The model needs to clarify the roles and responsibilities of the tribe and the college. Is this going to be a tribal program with the college assuming fiscal and managerial responsibility? Is

this going to be a college project utilizing tribal resources? What makes this agricultural operation unique from the average or standard cooperative agricultural project? Will initial investment capital be channeled through the tribe or directly to the college?

- III. The model might want to emphasize a "land ethic" approach toward the operation. Multiple use and diversification of the land and natural resources might parallel with the traditional Indian philosophies about the land and natural resources (i.e. Indian people recognized as the "original or traditional conservationists").
- IV. Diversification would allow inclusion or expansion of other natural resources such as wildlife, timber, soils, etc.
- V. The model might expand on the inclusion of an agricultural and/or natural resources educational program. Many tribes already acknowledge a tremendous need for qualified Indian people with expertise in these areas. Young Indian people with a serious interest in beginning or assuming an agricultural operation lack the experience and/or education to successfully implement and manage a farm or ranch. An educational base would provide:
 - a. Justification to the tribal council as a major benefit to tribal members.
 - b. A direct benefit for young, interested members to become involved in an agricultural operation.
 - c. Justification of a demonstration "classroom" for an educational program through federal grants, thereby providing/supplementing the initial investment capital.

- d. Although maximum productivity would remain a primary objective, an educationally based agricultural operation might alleviate the economic pressure of realizing a profit during the first few years of operation.
 - e. A method of building in agricultural expertise as a perpetual resources center within the community college.
 - f. Justification of agricultural research grants which might also supplement the operation.
 - g. An avenue could be opened for outside or external expertise through internships by other college students.
 - h. The development of an educational approach for tribal planners, who have a tremendous need to become familiar with planning management, and terminology associated with natural resources and agriculture.
- VI. The advisory board or committee should include a banking or investment representative. In addition to the good public relations and the financial expertise, this individual (assuming a direct liaison to a bank) will also have access to marketing quotations and trends. It is probably not necessary to elaborate on the fact that all members of the advisory body should have a positive and serious attitude about their roles with this project.
- VII. The tribal resolution in the model might include an additional "Whereas" with the intent of including some general proclamation about the protection and development of the natural resources. This would allow people to view this project as part of this philosophy of utilizing the natural resources in addition to viewing the project as just another business venture.

- VIII. Assuming that the college will undertake the fiscal responsibility, they should explore the immediate potential of a computer-link system. Not only would the accounting system benefit, but future filing and retrieval with a memory bank would be facilitated. Production figures and averages could be maintained and procured in a very short time. A computer would also facilitate the expansion needs of both the college and the agricultural project. Corporate financing might also be another consideration.
- IX. In the consideration of a project site, the tribe may want to utilize outside (independent) consultants for conducting land use evaluations rather than the Bureau of Indian Affairs. In trying to assess their resources, the tribe may find or discover areas where the Bureau has been lacking in their "trust responsibilities." The tribe may pursue this through "638" contracting.
- X. Page 58, paragraph two, last sentence: "The selection of a project site should be part of an overall tribe plan for land acquisition." Good point!

A Review by Robert Sullivan

The major question asked of the reviewers of the thesis, A Finance Model for Indian Community Colleges, is: "Will the model work?" Before turning to this question, however, a counter question and some clarification is in order. The counter question is, "Work for what?" and the reason it is asked is because the activities the author of this thesis is suggesting Indian community colleges undertake have two important potential outcomes. One of these potential outcomes is explicit in the title of the thesis and the greater part of the thesis text is devoted to it. This outcome envisions the community colleges becoming self-supporting through entrepreneurial activities.

The other outcome is not even hinted at in the thesis title; however, it is discussed at various points in the text. This other outcome envisions the community college spearheading reservation development. It sees the activities called for in the thesis, i.e., developing a profit making agricultural enterprise, serving an exemplary function for the college's tribe as well as directly furthering reservation development. In the opinion of the reviewer, this second outcome is as important as the first. Perhaps, the thesis title should read, A Finance Model for Indian Community Colleges and a Development Model/Tool for Indian Reservations.

Be that as it may, this review will approach the question, "Will the model work?" from two different standpoints or, to put it another way, it will assess the model twice. First, does the model offer a

means for an Indian community college to support itself? Second, is the model useful for initiating or furthering overall reservation economic development?

College Support

The model does offer a means whereby an Indian community college can support its educational activities. In short, from this standpoint the model can work. At bottom, the thesis is asserting that over time a community college can develop an agricultural enterprise capable of producing sufficient revenue to support the college's basic operational costs. Provided the conditions detailed further on are met, this assertion is undeniable. Moreover, it--and the model--is relevant to other than agricultural enterprises. On those reservations with timber, forest products enterprises could be developed by a community college. For those with other types of natural resources, enterprises could be developed utilizing these resources. Indeed, there is no reason why a community college could not develop the commercial sector on its reservation. (The commercial sector is almost completely lacking on the great majority of Indian reservations.)

To be sure, none of these enterprises will be able to provide a college's full operating expenses immediately. Time will be required. Money borrowed to initiate the enterprise must be repaid. The enterprise must grow to a size where its revenues surpass the college's operating expenses. But the model can work, and it will work provided the following conditions are met:

1. The enterprise must be feasible from a business standpoint. Put simply, operating costs must be less than operating revenues. And they must be sufficiently less to justify the use of capital in

the enterprise. Important considerations in the case of an agricultural enterprise include type of crops possible--which introduces marketing considerations, irrigation costs, etc. Analogous considerations must be taken into account for other types of enterprises.

2. Qualified people must be employed in the enterprise. This is particularly important in the case of management. For good management is essential to the success of any enterprise, be it agriculture, forest products, or a retail venture.
3. In addition to employing qualified people, the enterprise must employ no more people than are required. This point may seem obvious but it is extremely important. Too often tribally owned for-profit enterprises have failed because tribal leadership has seen them more as a means for putting unemployed people to work than as a business venture. Consequently, more people are employed than are required. In turn, the enterprise goes broke--or at best limps along at a break-even level.
4. Sufficient operating capital must be available to ensure that the new enterprise is able to weather the start-up period and bad years. The latter are particularly important in the case of an agricultural enterprise; even though the agricultural industry is profitable over the long term, in a given year it may not be.
5. There must be complete understanding, full acceptance and a long term commitment on the part of tribal leadership to the community college undertaking the entrepreneurial role proposed in this thesis. This is important in the case of any enterprise. But, again, it is particularly important in the case of agriculture--or for any enterprises based on the use of natural resources where access to the natural resource is tied to repeated short term contracts. For example, an agricultural enterprise, whether crop farming or cattle production, requires that the entrepreneur--in this case the community college--have access to the land resource for an extended period of time, e.g., twenty years. But leases of tribal land on Indian reservations--the provisions of which are dictated by the Bureau of Indian Affairs--are for only a few years at a time. So the community college must arrange a secondary contract with the tribe itself which guarantees that the college will have first lease rights to given sections of land for an extended period of time. Tribal leadership can change. The community college cannot risk the possibility that a change in leadership could end its agricultural enterprise by denying a lease renewal. A long term contract must be negotiated in the beginning.

Reservation Development

The model also offers a means for initiating or furthering reservation economic development. Indeed, it could well be the most effective

means of bringing about indigenous, i.e., Indian-controlled, economic development on the reservations. Two premises underlie this statement. First, unlike the situation in the non-Indian world, indigenous economic development on Indian reservations--or efforts at such development--generally relies on tribal rather than individual enterprise. (There are a few exceptions to this rule, e.g., there are some successful individual Indian farmers and ranchers. But generally speaking, substantial efforts at indigenous reservation development have been tribal in nature.) Cultural reasons account partly for this reliance on a tribal rather than individual model; to an unknown degree, Indian people still retain a communal tradition. But in the opinion of this reviewer, a more important reason lies in the fact that individual Indian people have no capital or access to capital. Even assuming the existence of individual entrepreneurial aspirations, there is no way these aspirations can be translated into economic development.

Second, once it is accepted that--for at least the foreseeable future--tribal enterprise is the only practical means of bringing substantial economic development to Indian reservations, two reasons dictate choosing the community college as the tribal organization best fitted for the task. To begin with, the community college is most likely to be the repository for what technical expertise there is available on a reservation.

More important, the community college is the only tribal organization capable of divorcing itself from tribal politics. The necessity of such a divorce cannot be over-emphasized. In its various manifestations tribal politics is the primary internal barrier to successful

reservation economic development. Economic development on Indian reservations is difficult at best. When tribal politics is thrown into the mix, it becomes impossible.

This is not to say that utilizing the model outlined in this thesis will make reservation economic development easy. Even granting that an Indian community college is a better vehicle for initiating economic development than other tribal organizations, there are still pitfalls. Clearly, if a community college's efforts to spearhead economic development are to be successful, it must meet the conditions stated earlier as essential to the success of any economic enterprise. Moreover, it is obvious that the community college can only devote a certain part of its energies to economic development without becoming something other than an educational institution. No one should anticipate Indian community colleges taking long term responsibility for all economic activity on a reservation.

However, by taking the spearheading role envisioned in this thesis, a community college can make two very important contributions.

1. It can provide an economic development model for its tribe, i.e., it can show the relationship between rational decision making and economic success.
2. It can provide its tribe with a success experience, or to put it another way, the community college entrepreneurial model laid out in the thesis can demonstrate that indigenous Indian economic enterprises are capable of providing jobs to Indian people and profits to a tribal organization. The potential psychological impact of such a demonstration is very great. A hundred years of being federal wards has left Indian people, and tribes, with a pervasive lack of belief that the future will be any better. This belief is at least partly responsible for the failures experienced by tribes in previous efforts at indigenous economic development. The community college entrepreneurial model offers a possibility of altering this belief.

A Review by Earl Stewart

In response to the questions set forth in your letter to me dated October 15, 1979, my comments are as follows:

What are the Strengths of the Model?

The main strength of the model appears to be in the fact that you have chosen agricultural development, the number one potential on most reservations, as the focus for financing Indian community colleges. The fact that you are addressing agricultural development as it relates to Indian reservations and outlining a process or procedure for moving in the direction of successful agricultural enterprise is in itself a positive contribution to conceptualization of what is required for success.

What are the Major Weaknesses of the Model?

My main criticism of the model or direction you are taking in the development of a model is the fact that the intangibles involved in the form of land ownership problems, political decisions as to land use and resource management, etc., weaken the entire process to the point where it becomes questionable that such a process can really be presented in the form of a usable model. I guess my main concern is that, in my opinion, a model for financing Indian community colleges should be based as much as possible on income derived from involvement that is affected as little as possible by political decisions or by built-in difficulties such as problems of land ownership on the reservation.

I see all kinds of opportunities for realizing income in support of Indian community colleges through providing for needs on the reservation that are, in most instances, not presently being adequately met.

Some of the needs I see are as follows:

- Develop and maintain an on-going information system for tribal planning (socio-economic, environmental)
- Conduct reservation surveys from time to time to determine population changes and movement, educational and training levels, unemployment and housing condition and needs.
- Provide special education and training for students in the community college to prepare them for specific jobs on and off the reservation.
- Provide technical assistance to the tribe and BIA office through the services of community college staff.

I could go on and suggest additional involvement. I guess what I am saying is that I would like to see your model include consideration of continuous involvement by the community college in providing for on-going needs of the reservation that are not readily affected by political decisions.

It seems to me that you could develop a broad based finance model to include involvement by the community college in a wide range of activities for which stable and continuous funding is available. The model should be designed for application to a broad spectrum of reservation economic development opportunities rather than restricting its concerns to agricultural development. This observation is consistent with my earlier comments to you that the model should be

expanded to include involvement by the community college in providing a continuous flow of basic socio-economic and environmental information regarding reservation resources. As pointed out earlier, accurate basic information is not presently readily available on the reservation if available at all. There is an obvious need for such information as a basis for planning and for decisions by the tribal council on reservation economic development. The community college is the most appropriate entity on the reservation for providing direction and technical assistance in furthering overall reservation economic development. I think that the model should be made applicable to overall reservation economic development rather than restricting its attention to agriculture. Should the model be broadened to include consideration of the above, an appropriate title for the thesis would be "An Economic Development Model for Financing Indian Community Colleges." Expanding the model to include a broad range of reservation economic development opportunities makes it readily applicable to all reservations. Also the diversification of economic opportunities interjected into the model is conducive to eventually realizing a steady and sufficient income in support of the community college rather than relying on agricultural development alone.

A Review by Leroy Clifford

At the request of Mr. James Shanley, President, Standing Rock Community College, I am pleased to comment on the proposed model titled, "A Finance Model for Indian Community Colleges." The model was developed by James Shanley as part of his inquiry into alternative finance models for Indian community colleges.

A major question posed by the author of the paper was, "Will the model work?" To answer this question, Mr. Shanley raised several secondary questions to help the reader commentor in formulating his response. These questions are as follows:

1. What are the major strengths and weaknesses of the model?
2. What factors might contribute to the success or failure of the model?

Answering the questions raised by the author required an examination of several disciplines i.e. political science, economics, econometrics, management science, and systems theory, as well as the discipline of education proper.

What are the Major Strengths of the Model?

According to leading management scientists, the general purpose of a model is to describe the real world. The merit of a model is therefore determined by how well it represents the real world.

This model, an agriculture-based finance model for Indian community colleges, clearly represents a realistic approach or process which can be used by Indian tribes, Indian college administrators, and Boards of Regents of Indian colleges to establish a finance system to

support a tribally controlled community college. The model accurately describes the resources, processes, and organizations, that must be employed if Indian community colleges are to survive and to have an appreciable impact on tribal resource development. A major strength of the model is that it shows the end product we can expect from following the given course of action or process. The ultimate test of the model's effectiveness will come when the predictions are exposed to reality; that is, when an Indian tribe attempts to employ the model as a guide towards establishing a finance system for an Indian community college.

Another major strength of the paper rests with the systematic approach used by the author to derive the agriculture-based finance model. The researcher used acceptable decision-making procedures in developing the model i.e. definition of the problem, statement of objectives, collection of data, and finally, formulation of the model.

The model shows the relationship between cause and effect, and between objectives and constraints. Because decision situations vary so widely among Indian tribes, the author has designed a model which is flexible, as well as adaptable to any Indian reservation.

What are the Major Weaknesses of the Model?

In reviewing the model, I could not identify any major weaknesses. The decision-making procedure used to formulate the model are sound, the definition of the problem is clear, and the objectives are clearly defined. The author did an excellent job of laying out the research design and process used to develop the model.

What Additions or Changes Would You Recommend to Strengthen the Model?

The model provides a useful tool for decision-makers to follow in establishing alternative finance models to support Indian community colleges. However, there has not been much discussion about how to evaluate the overall effectiveness of the model. As such, I would recommend that the author include a discussion of how the user might evaluate the effectiveness of the model at each stage of the process. Traditional flow charts of decision procedures outline four major steps related to model building. They are as follows:

1. Definition of the problem
2. Collection of data
3. Formulating the model
4. Evaluation

The only step missing in this paper is a section of evaluation.

What Do You See as Hindering Factors to the Success of the Model?

There are a number of factors on Indian reservations which could influence the success or failure of the model. These factors include such variables as politics, economics, legal considerations, technology, cultural and social considerations. Any of these factors, singularly or combined, could prevent a tribe from establishing a community college as well as exploring finance models to support such an institution. An important consideration relating to the success or failure of the model will certainly be the term of office of the policy-makers. It would seem that success in implementing the finance model is a function of continuity leadership. If the leadership turns over every year, it would be very

difficult to realize the goals of developing a stable funding base for an Indian community college. Resource constraints will also hinder the success of the model. Some Indian tribes may not have sufficient quantities of agricultural or natural resources to support a community college. As you are aware these are common variables which any tribe considering a community college must review very carefully before establishing a community college.

What Forces Will Help the Model Succeed?

The same forces which could hinder the success of the agriculture-based finance model (i.e., politics, economics, legal factors, cultural and social considerations) could also help the success of the model. For example, if a tribe has adequate agricultural resources, as well as other natural resources (land, water, timber, etc.) it may be able to support a community college utilizing the proposed agriculture-based finance model. Also, if a tribe has a tenure system which provides for continuity in leadership, this can contribute to the success of the model assuming, of course, there is commitment from top management to implement the model.

From Your Point of View, How Will the Implementation of the Model Affect the Overall Education Program and Mission of the Community College?

It is almost impossible to accurately assess the effect that the model might have on the overall education program and mission of the community college. Answering this question is a separate research project by itself. Lacking hard data as well as historical information about the various Indian reservations, I would not even attempt to comment on this specific cause and effect research question.

APPENDIX B

RESUMES

RESUME

Background:

Name: Lionel R. Bordeaux

Birth Date: February 9, 1940

Birth Place: Rosebud Sioux Indian Reservation

Address: Box 497
Mission, SD 57555

Education:

High School: St. Francis Indian Mission, St. Francis, SD

B.S. Degree - Black Hills State College, Spearfish, SD

M.A. Degree - University of South Dakota, Vermillion, SD

Doctoral Candidate - University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

Other colleges attended:

- A) Adams State College
- B) George Washington University

Previous Employment:

Bureau of Indian Affairs:

- A) Teacher-counselor, Jicarilla Agency, Dulce, New Mexico
- B) Management Intern, Washington, D.C.
- C) Vocational Counselor, Dallas, Texas
- D) Educational Specialist, Pine Ridge, SD

Recent Employment:

- A) President, Sinte Gleska College, Rosebud, SD
- B) Councilman, Rosebud Sioux Tribe
- C) Chairman, Rosebud Sioux Tribal Education Committee

Organizational Membership:

- A) Former President, American Indian Higher Education Consortium
- B) Former Board Member, National Indian Education Association

- C) Board Member, Americans for Indian Opportunity
- D) Board Member, South Dakota State Education & Planning Commission
- E) Member, National Congress of American Indians
- F) Ex-Officer, Board Member, South Dakota Indian Education Assoc.
- G) Acting Chairman, United Sioux Tribal Education Board

RESUMEPersonal:

Name: Robert L. Sullivan
Date of Birth: September 8, 1925
Marital Status: Married, 5 children
Address: 910 Broadway, Fargo, North Dakota 58102

Education:

University of California, Berkeley--A.B., 1951; Ph.D., 1964

Specializations:

Social Psychology: Attitude formation and change, mass communications, political behavior, motivation, social disorganization and delinquency, psychological measurement, public opinion polling.

Cross-Cultural Research and Development:

Social change, social, economic and political development, cross-cultural research techniques.

Experience:

1961-1964 Three years teaching prior to Ph.D. at the University of California and Sacramento State College in areas of introductory and social psychology, research methods, and psychological measurement.

1964-1968 United States Information Agency (USIA)

--Research Analyst, Far East Branch, Office of Research and Analysis, Washington, D.C., June 1964-June 1965.

--Chief, Research Division, Joint United States Public Affairs Office, U.S. Embassy, Saigon, Viet Nam, June 1965-October 1966.

Responsible for originating and implementing survey research efforts in Viet Nam for the Joint U.W. Public Affairs Office. This included selecting, training and supervising a Vietnamese staff of 80 interviewers, data processors, and field supervisors as well as designing and directing continuous public opinion polling in all

but wholly Viet Cong controlled areas of South Viet Nam. Other duties included training of South Vietnamese Ministry of Information employees in survey research techniques in order to develop independent research capabilities within the Ministry.

- Special Assignment to Policy and Planning, Department of Defense, Washington, D.C., October–November, 1966.
- Research Analyst, West European Branch, Office of Research and Analysis, Washington, D.C., December 1966–March 1967.
- Chief, West European Branch, Office of Research and Analysis, Washington, D.C., April 1967–July 1967.
- Deputy Assistant Director, USIA (for Office of Research and Analysis), Washington, D.C., July 1967–September 1968.

Responsibility for implementation of USIA's worldwide research operations including supervision of over 100 Washington staff divided into seven research branches: East Asia, Western Europe, Latin America, Africa, Near East and South Asia, Soviet and East European studies, and an overarching branch for media research worldwide. In addition to the Washington staff, which included approximately 50 research professionals--one-half of whom were Ph.D.'s--supervisory responsibilities included USIA's regional and country research offices in various parts of the world involving an additional twenty-five to thirty professional and non-professional staff.

1968–Present North Dakota State University

- Director of University Research Administration and Professor of Psychology, September 1968–present.

Responsible for setting up and directing an Office of Research Administration at North Dakota State University.

- Director, North Dakota State University Center for Economic Development, July 1970–present.

Responsible for originating and directing the University's Center for Economic Development, funded by the Federal Economic Development Administration. The Center provides technical assistance in community and business development to distressed areas of North Dakota, including the state's four Indian reservations and a number of non-Indian counties. Supervisory responsibilities for two full-time staff members and capability of calling upon any university faculty member for specialized assistance.

--Chairman, University Indian Education Commission,
September 1970-present.

Responsible for initiating Indian Studies courses and Indian student recruitment. Served as first faculty advisor to the North Dakota State University Indian Students' Association. Since the initiation of this effort Indian enrollment at the university has risen from ten to better than forty students.

--Director, North Dakota State University Year for ACTION,
November 1971-March, 1977.

Responsible for originating and directing North Dakota State University's Year for ACTION program, funded by the federal ACTION Agency. Student volunteers in the program serve for one year in anti-poverty activities--functionally, the program is identical with VISTA which is also a part of the ACTION Agency. Presently, eighty-five North Dakota State students are serving in various locations, primarily Indian communities throughout the state.

--Director of Special Projects, January 1974-present.

Responsible for all special projects at the University, including institutional research and educational development activities.

State of North Dakota

--Chairman, Fargo Regional Advisory Committee for Vocational Rehabilitation, January 1970-present.

--University Representative, State Advisory Committee for Planning Graduate Education in North Dakota, November 1970-present.

Organizational Memberships:

American Psychological Association

Honors:

Meritorious Honor Award, United States Information Agency

Commendation, Ministry of Information, Government of Viet Nam

Research & Consultation:

University of California: Two years as Research Associate on projects in the areas of juvenile delinquency, and more generally, social disorganization, 1961-1963.

Federal Government (USIA): Numerous classified field research studies on communication habits and barriers, attitude formation and change, modernization, and political behavior, principally in Southeast Asia but also in Western Europe. Direct design and supervisory responsibilities for studies in Southeast Asia and Western Europe. Overall supervisory responsibilities for design and mounting of USIA research world-wide while Deputy Assistant Director; 1964-1968.

North Dakota State University: Eleven years of experience in research, evaluation and the provision of technical assistance in areas ranging from economic and community development, to land use planning, to resource planning, to social services, to health, to education, to commercial and industrial development. Assistance has been provided to white communities in North Dakota. However, by far the greatest part of this work has been on Indian reservations in the two Dakotas and Montana.

Publications:

United States Information Agency. Numerous classified publications in the areas of political attitudes, media habits, and program evaluation. Specialized evaluation and market research in connection with United States government participation in international trade fairs and expositions.

Fargo Model Neighborhood Study. Comprehensive public opinion survey in connection with Model Cities program. Fargo Model Cities program, 1969, (mimeo).

Fargo-Moorhead Bus Transportation Surveys. Department of Transportation funded public opinion survey in connection with Fargo metropolitan area bus transportation study. City of Fargo, 1970, (mimeo).

Off-Reservation Indian Health Study. Statewide study of health care problems of off-reservation Indians. North Dakota State Department of Health monograph, 1972.

Some Alternatives for Providing Off-Reservation Indian Health Care in North Dakota. Plan for providing state assistance to off-reservation Indians in obtaining health care. North Dakota State Department of Health monograph, 1974.

Indian Cattle Operations in the Dakotas; the Destruction of an Industry. Report documenting situation confronting Indian cattlemen in the Dakotas as of April 1975, and estimating the assistance

required for the survival of the cattle industry on the two states' reservations, Spring, 1975.

On the Feasibility of the Standing Rock Sioux Tribe Buying and Operating the Douglas Skye Memorial Complex. Analysis including alternative uses, operating costs, operating revenues and recommendations, December, 1976.

Sun Lodge: Some Alternatives for the Future. Comprehensive report including the history of Sun Lodge, suggestion of a specific operational alternative and recommendation for implementing the operational alternative, 1976.

Chewing Black Bones Campground; Operating Recommendations; Three part comprehensive report including a short term operating plan, analysis of the proposed camp store and long term suggestions for the campground operation, 1976.

The Potential Market for a Mini-Mall in Belcourt, North Dakota. Comprehensive analysis of shopping center potential on the Turtle Mountain Indian Reservation, 1976.

IHS Health Care Delivery in the Four State Aberdeen Area. A comprehensive study of Indian health care needs on the reservations in the four state Aberdeen area. (Done with Wilbur Pleets), 1976.

Improving Indian Health Care in the Aberdeen Area: Three Alternatives. An examination of three different alternatives for improving Indian health care in the Aberdeen area complete with recommendations that IHS establish a large referral hospital in the area. (Done with Wilbur Pleets), 1977.

Commercial Agriculture Possibilities at Standing Rock Indian Reservation (A Preliminary Evaluation). Report examines three water-based commercial development possibilities on the Standing Rock Sioux Indian Reservation, 1978.

Survey of the Standing Rock Cattle Industry. Report depicts the Indian cattle industry on Standing Rock Reservation as of January 24, 1978.

The Bureau of Indian Affairs' Indian Business Development Grant Program: Three Recommendations. Report discusses three recommendations for the Business Development Grant Program with the goal of reinstating the grant program. 1978.

The Standing Rock Sioux Tribal Farm: Some Operational Alternatives. Analysis, complete with recommendations of different management and investment alternatives for the Standing Rock Tribal Farm, 1978.

Some Twenty Different Evaluations of Indian Community Colleges and Their Programs. 1974-1979.

Consulting and Evaluation:

Devils Lake Sioux Tribe, Fort Totten, North Dakota. Consultant for tribally operated Child-Parent Social Services Center, 1970-1975.

North Dakota State Board of Higher Education. Consultant for state-wide study of Indian post-secondary education--enrollment problems, needs, demands, 1971.

Standing Rock Sioux Tribe, Fort Yates, North Dakota. Consultant in connection with development of new reservation school facilities and programs, 1971-1973.

Standing Rock Sioux Tribe, Fort Yates, North Dakota. Consultant for reservation Indian Action Team Vocational Training Program, 1972.

City of Fargo Police Department. Consultant and evaluator for LEAA Police Improvement Projects, 1971-present.

University of Utah. Consultant in connection with initiation of new University Year for ACTION program at the University, 1973.

United Tribes Educational Technical Center. Consultant and developer of UTETC Master Plan, 1974.

Metropolitan State College, Denver, Colorado. Consultant in connection with initiation of University Year for ACTION Program at the College, 1974.

American Indian Higher Education Consortium (AIHEC). Evaluator for AIHEC organization and services to member schools, 1975.

National American Indian Cattlemen's Association. Consultant to consortium in connection with the results of the blizzards of Spring, 1975.

Turtle Mountain Community College. Evaluator for College's Title III program, yearly from 1975.

Four State Indian Health Board. Consultant to Medical Referral Center Project, Phase II; May 1976-present.

Turtle Mountain Community College. Evaluator for College's NSF program, 1976 and 1979.

Standing Rock Community College. Evaluator for College's Title III program, 1976 and 1979.

Crow Indian Reservation. Consultant to the Tribe in connection with the operation of Sun Lodge Motel. Summer, 1976.

Blackfeet Indian Reservation. Consultant to the Tribe in connection with the operation of Chewing Black Bones Campground Store, 1977.

Standing Rock Enterprises. Consultant to the board of directors in connection with the potential uses of the Douglas Skye Memorial Retirement Complex, 1976-1977.

Turtle Mountain Shopping Center. Consultant and member of the Board of Directors for the Turtle Mountain Shopping Center, 1977-present.

Standing Rock Sioux Tribe. Consultant on various projects to the Standing Rock ONAP office, 1975-present.

Fort Berthold Community College. Consultant and evaluator for College's Title III program, 1978.

Assiniboine and Sioux Tribe, Fort Peck, Montana. Consultant in connection with Fort Peck industrial development and energy resources, 1977-present.

Haskel Institute, Lawrence, Kansas. Consultant and evaluator in connection with College's Title III program, 1978 and 1979.

Standing Rock Community College. Consultant in connection with the development of the College's Master Plan, 1978-present.

American Indian Higher Education Consortium. Consultant in connection with Consortium's final report to the Old West Regional Commission in connection with the development of Indian community colleges in the Dakotas and Montana, 1979.

Consultant, evaluator and provider of technical assistance in over 100 different projects on the 18 Indian reservations in the Dakotas and Montana. These projects were carried out through the Center for Economic Development, of which the present Contractor is Director, and they cover every type of project from social services to economic development, to tribal government restructuring.

RESUME

Name: Earl Edward Stewart

Position: Chairman and Professor of Planning
Graduate Program in Community and Regional Planning
North Dakota State University
Fargo, North Dakota

Date and Place of Birth: January 10, 1922
Alpena, Michigan

Marriage: Granis Virginia Stewart, 1946

Children: Michael Edward, 1952; David Earl, 1954; Mark Thomas, 1957;
Granis Jane, 1962

Education: Alpena High School, Alpena, Michigan, 1940.

San Diego State College, Mathematics & Cartography, 1941-42.

George Washington University, Engineering, 1946-47.

Catholic University of America, Bachelor's Degree
Architecture, 1951.

Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Master's Degree,
Architecture, 1953.

Cranbrook Art Academy, Urban Design, Summer of 1961.

Massachusetts Institute of Technology, City & Regional
Planning, Summers of 1963 and 1965.

Scholarships, Fellowships:

Two scholarships from Massachusetts Institute of Tech-
nology, 1952-53 (Graduate Study)

Fellowship, American Institute of Architects, Cranbrook
Art Academy, Summer 1961 (Study in Urban Design)

Two fellowships, Ford Foundation, Massachusetts Institute
of Technology, 1963 and 1965 (Study in City & Regional
Planning)

Professional Experience:

1943-45 - Chief Cartographer - United States Marine Corps - South
Pacific

- 1945-46 - Assistant Director - Marine Corps Institute - Washington, D.C.
- 1947-51 - Architectural Designer - Murphy and Locraft - Washington, D.C. (During period of undergraduate study in architecture at the Catholic University of America)
- 1951-52 - Architect - Public Works Office - Camp Lejune - North Carolina (During period of recall into the United States Marine Corps)
- 1952-53 - Planning Consultant - Polaroid Corp. - Cambridge, Massachusetts (During period of graduate study at Massachusetts Institute of Technology)
- 1953-64 - Associate Professor of Architecture and Planning - North Dakota State University - Fargo, North Dakota
- 1956-64 - Executive Director - Fargo Urban Renewal Agency - Fargo, North Dakota (While serving as Associate Professor at North Dakota State University)
- 1957-64 - Planning Director - Fargo, North Dakota (While serving as Associate Professor at North Dakota State University)
- 1962-64 - Coordinator, Comprehensive Planning & Transportation Study, Fargo-Moorhead area (While serving as Associate Professor at North Dakota State University)
- 1964-69 - Acting Chairman and Associate Professor of Planning - University of Iowa and Planning Director for Iowa City, Iowa (Dual appointment)
- 1969 - Chairman and Professor of Planning, Graduate Program in Community & Regional Planning, North Dakota State University
- 1969-70 - Director, Center for Economic Development, North Dakota State University (While serving as Chairman for the Graduate Program in Community & Regional Planning, North Dakota State University)
- 1969-72 - Coordinator and Director of Planning, City of Fargo, North Dakota (While serving as Chairman for the Graduate Program in Community & Regional Planning, North Dakota State University)
- 1972-74 - Director for the Little Missouri Grasslands Study (While serving as Chairman for the Graduate Program in Community & Regional Planning, North Dakota State University)

- 1974-77 - Director for Planning and Research Studies undertaken for the North Dakota State Planning Division, Fort Berthold Indian Reservation and Standing Rock Indian Reservation (While serving as Chairman for the Graduate Program in Community & Regional Planning, North Dakota State University)
- 1977 - President, Earl E. Stewart & Associates, Inc., Planning Consultants, Fargo, N.D. (While serving as Chairman for the Graduate Program in Community & Regional Planning, North Dakota State University)

Professional Organization Membership:

American Planning Association
 American Institute of Certified Planners
 Association of Collegiate Schools of Planning
 North Dakota Planning Association

Professional Registration: Registered Architect
 State of North Dakota
 State of Iowa
 N.C.A.R.B. Certificate

Military Service: Served in United States Marine Corps 1940-46, 1951-52

Travel: New Zealand, Hawaii, New Caledonia, Soloman Islands, Mariana Islands, Scotland, Netherlands, Germany, Sweden, Finland, Mexico, Canada

Church Affiliation: Methodist

Publications:

Urban Renewal Needs and Opportunities Upper Midwest (co-author) 1964, eight articles, including: "The Federally Aided Urban Renewal Program," "Planning for American Cities," and "City Planning and Urban Renewal."

"Sound Control in Contemporary Schools," North Dakota Teacher, May, 1956.

"Fargo Urban Renewal Program," North Dakota State Engineer, November, 1958.

"Urban Renewal: A Case Study," Proceedings of the Urban Policy Conference, 1964. (University of Iowa).

"Transformation of the Planning Profession," Iowa Planning Association Newsletter, Summer, 1966.

"Planning for the Urban Future," Proceedings of the Urban Policy Conference, 1967. (University of Iowa).

Little Missouri Grasslands Study, "Introduction and Relationship to Other Studies," North Dakota State University, January, 1973.

Little Missouri Grasslands Study, "Conference on Property and Mineral Rights," North Dakota State University, April, 1973.

Little Missouri Grasslands Study, "Summary Report," North Dakota State University, January, 1974.

Economic Development Plan for Fort Berthold Indian Reservation, 1974.

Natural Resource Management Manual, Standing Rock Indian Reservation, February 1977 (co-author).

Analysis of Selected North Dakota Legislation pertaining to land use planning-management, March 1977 (co-author).

Fargo Park and Recreation Master Plan, July 1977 (co-author).

RESUME

Name: Leroy B. Clifford

Age: 35 years

Birthdate: December 30, 1943

Telephone: 303-750-9147

Tribal Affiliation: Sioux

Physical Condition: Excellent

Education: High School - Holy Rosary Mission, Pine Ridge, S.D.

College - Black Hills State College, Spearfish, S.D.
B.S. Degree in Business Administration
Minor in Accounting in Educational
Psychology

Utah State University, Logan Utah
M.S. Degree in Economics with an emphasis
in Agricultural and Economic Development

University of California at Los Angeles, CA.
Ph.D. Candidate in Economics
Minor in Management Theory and Behavioral
Science. Expected date of completion,
June 1980.

Honors & Scholarships:

Ford Foundation - Doctoral Scholarship 1971-1975

Graduate School Fellowship - Utah State University 1969-1970.

Distinguished Service Award 1970.

Resources for the Future Fellowship 1968-1969.

Professional Memberships:

National Congress of American Indians

National Indian Education Association

American Management Association

Institute for Management Science

Western Agricultural Economics Association

Work Experience:

Sept. 1977 to present - Executive Director, American Indian Higher Education Consortium, Denver, Colorado.

July 1975 - Sept. 1977 - Chief, Division of post-secondary education, Bureau of Indian Affairs, Washington, D.C.

April 1974 - August 1974 - Senior Research Specialist ACKCO Inc. Boulder, Colorado.

Aug. 1972 - February 1973 - President, D-Q University Davis, CA.

Jan. 1968 - Aug. 1969 - Management Intern, Bureau of Indian Affairs, Washington, D.C.

July 1966 - Dec. 1967 - Budget Analyst, Bureau of Indian Affairs, Albuquerque, New Mexico.

Aug. 1965 - July 1966 - Finance Analyst, Bureau of Indian Affairs, Gallup, New Mexico.

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- Knezevich, Stephen J. Administration of Public Education. New York: Harper and Row, 1969.
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