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AN EXPLORATORY CASE STUDY ANALYSIS OF TRIBAL AND  
SCHOOL LEADERS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARD HOW GAMING  
MONEY IS USED IN A TRIBAL SCHOOL

A Thesis in

Educational Leadership

by

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to examine how Indian gaming revenue is used to support tribal schools by exploring key stakeholders' perceptions of the overall effect of gaming money on improving services provided by tribally controlled schools in the Midwest. In addition, underfunded tribal schools and failed federal policies remain a dilemma for most American Indian tribes.

The study site was a tribally controlled school located in one Midwestern state. A qualitative exploratory method was used to assess tribal and school leaders' perceptions as a means of gathering rich, descriptive information. Participants from both the tribe and tribal school were interviewed for this case study. Interviews were divided into three sections that included: face-to-face, telephone, and email journals.

The following information describes the findings based on the participants' perceptions, which include, for example: (a) a new school; (b) providing jobs and tribal infrastructure; (c) extracurricular activities; (d) parent involvement including volunteering and community culture activities; (e) new computers; and (f) socioeconomics and self-determination. In addition, gaming revenue is making an impact on student academic achievement in the following areas: attendance; student-to-teacher ratios; language and culture; and salaries.

Additional research in the area of Indian gaming and tribal schools is needed. It is recommended that future researchers experiment with other types of methodologies. For example, a quantitative study could be used for tribal school participants by comparing tribal schools that receive gaming money and those that do not (e.g. T-test).

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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **Overview**

The purpose of this study is to examine how Indian gaming money is used in a tribally controlled school in one Midwestern state. Several tribes in Minnesota, Wisconsin, Michigan, Connecticut, and Arizona, for example, support Indian education programs through gaming (NIGA, 2000). It is essential to understand that the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) requirements outlined by the federal government cannot be met without the necessary funding (National Indian Education Association, 2005). Funds from gaming are becoming a major contributor to these educational services and a means to achieve state and federal standards.

#### **Statement of the Problem**

Underfunding of education has been a problem in the United States, particularly for Indian education. School construction, facilities, and basic operations of schools are examples of these under-funded programs (BIA Consultation Report, 2004). The 2000 Census reports that there are approximately 4.1 million American Indians in the United States. Despite recent gains through Indian gaming, American Indians continue to face a disproportionately high poverty rate, high student dropout rate, unemployment, and under funded schools (NIGA, 2003).

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to examine how Indian gaming revenue is used to support tribal schools by exploring key stakeholders' perceptions of the overall effect of gaming money on improving services provided by tribally controlled schools in the Midwest.

### **Research Questions**

#### *Primary Question*

1. What are the perceptions of tribal and school leaders towards the use of gaming money in tribally controlled schools? In what ways is gaming money making a difference in tribally controlled schools?

#### *Secondary Questions*

2. What are the perceptions of tribal and school leaders toward the impact that gaming money is having on student academic achievement?
3. To what extent and under what circumstances are gaming monies used to support facilities and equipment, special education, culture and language activities, salaries of school personnel, and parent/community involvement?  
What are other uses of gaming money, if any?

4. What are the demographic characteristics of the tribe and its schools that receive gaming money?

### **Significance of the Study**

In 1991, the Indian Nations at Risk Task Force concluded in a final report four major areas of concern: (a) schools have not provided an adequate education to American Indian students and adults; (b) American Indians are losing valuable customs, languages, and culture; (c) tribal trust land and natural resources are under constant threat (i.e., under siege); and (d) the laws and policies governing self-determination are constantly being changed by Congress. The report included recommendations for parents of American Indian children, school administrators and educators, tribal entities and local communities, higher institutions, and state and federal governments. In order to significantly rectify these major concerns outlined by the task force, tribes and local education agencies need proper funding. Money used from Indian gaming is one way to contribute to restoring and maintaining self-determination (Indian Nations At Risk Task Force Report, 1991).

Section 701, Part A of The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 outlines the federal governments' unique trust responsibility to American Indian and Alaska Native students. For example, the provisions of Title VII under the NCLB Act of 2001 identify the following needs for American Indian and Alaska Native students: (a) provide for culturally responsive activities which support the school district's curricula; (b) local education agencies must provide school readiness implications in early childhood

programs for Indian children; (c) combine educational services with other programs which are pertinent to Indian families and culture; (d) coordinated services that include development for problem-solving and cognitive thinking needed to achieve state standards; (e) career preparation and vocational services; (f) substance abuse services and activities; and (g) integrate specific culturally responsive teaching and learning strategies into the school districts' curriculum (U.S. Department of Education, 2003). As a result of this study, exploratory and baseline data will be collected regarding the use of Indian gaming revenues provided by tribes to education programs.

### **Definition of Terms**

The following terms are defined and serve as a significant source of information pertinent to this study.

Indian Self-Determination Act and Education Assistance Act of 1975 (PL 93-638). Federal law, enabling tribes to restore tribal languages, customs, values, traditions, education, economic development, and cultures (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001).

Indian Gaming Regulatory Act of 1988 (P.L. 100-497). In 1987, the United States Supreme Court confirmed the authority of tribal governments to establish gaming operations independent of state regulation. However, in 1988, Congress intervened and conducted a series of hearings that resulted in the Indian Gaming Regulatory Act of 1988. Congress offered states a voice in determining the scope of tribal gaming (NIGA, 2004).

National Indian Gaming Association. Established in 1985, the purpose of the National Indian Gaming Association is to promote economic, social, infrastructure, and

healthy living standards for American Indian tribes in the United States through gaming enterprises.

National Indian Gaming Commission. Established pursuant to the 1988 Indian Gaming Regulatory Act to oversee Indian gaming operations in the United States.

Class I Gaming. Class I gaming is defined as traditional Indian gaming and social gaming for minimal prizes. For example, raffles, gift certificates and door prize drawings.

Class II Gaming. Class II gaming is defined as the game of chance, commonly known as bingo, without regard to a specific version (i.e., bingo games may or may not be electronic, interactive, or computerized).

Class III Gaming. Class III gaming includes games of chance such as: black jack, video slot machines, and poker, and must enter into a compact with the state.

Title VII. Pursuant to the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Title VII provides provisions under the NCLB Act outlining educational services to American Indian and Alaska Native students.

Impact Aid. Under Title VIII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. Amended, January 2002. In order to fulfill the federal responsibility by ensuring educational services to federally connected children by promoting local education agency control with little or no federal or state involvement with respect to American Indian tribes and military families residing on federal property. Financial assistance is provided by the federal government to help children meet state and local academic standards (U.S. Department of Education, 2003).

Family and Child Education Program. The Family and Child Education Program (FACE) was initiated in 1990 to serve children ages 0 to 5 and their parents in both home and school environments.

Individuals with Disabilities Education Act. Reauthorized in 1997 and signed into law by President Bill Clinton. It insures that all students with disabilities will receive a Free Appropriate Public Education (FAPE). Reauthorized in 2004, known as the IDEA Improvement Act.

Bureau of Indian Affairs. Originally established in 1824 as part of the War Department and later transferred to the Department of the Interior in 1949 established responsibility and management services in trust land, self-determination, and government to government relations with American Indian and Alaskan Native tribes.

Bureau of Indian Education. Department within the Bureau of Indian Affairs serving American Indian and Alaska Native schools and students in the United States.

Lotteries. In 1964, New Hampshire launched the lottery phenomenon as a means to raise funds for public purposes.

Pathological Gambling. This is a persistent and reoccurring maladaptive gambling behavior that disrupts personal, family, or vocational pursuits. Although a few individuals are “hooked” with their very first bet, for most the course is more insidious.

According to the Diagnostic Statistics Manual (DSM-IV) criteria, pathological gamblers are associated with having five or more of the following symptoms: (a) preoccupied with gambling; (b) tolerance (e.g., needs to gamble with increased amounts of money in order to achieve the desired excitement); (c) withdrawal symptoms; (d)

escape (e.g., needs to gamble in order to escape the problems of life); (e) after losing money returns the next day to try and recover losses; (f) lying as a means to hide gambling habits; (g) loss of control (i.e., can't stop gambling); (h) has committed illegal acts (e.g., forgery, fraud, theft, and embezzlement); (i) risk jeopardizing relationships; (j) requests bail out money to relieve a financial situation.

PL 93-638 Tribal Compacts. Signed into law in 1975 also known as the Self-Determination Act and Education Assistance Act. American Indian tribes have the right to enter into compacts with the federal government that give tribes total control over the funding and jurisdiction of health, education, and welfare programs.

PL 100-297, Tribally Controlled Schools Act of 1988. Gives American Indian tribes the right to govern their own schools without affecting the federal governments' trust responsibility for education programs for AI/AN students.

### **Summary**

Historically: (a) schools have not provided an adequate education to American Indian students and adults; (b) American Indians are losing valuable customs, languages, and culture; (c) tribal trust land and natural resources are under constant threat (i.e., under siege); and (d) the laws and policies governing self-determination are constantly being changed by Congress (Indian Nations at Risk Task Force, 1991). In addition, the proposed provisions in the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 under Title VII intend to address the needs for American Indian and Alaskan Native students; however, proper funding needed to fulfill the proposed provisions remain an issue for tribally controlled

schools. Indian gaming revenue is one way to alleviate the federal funding shortfalls for tribal schools.

The following chapter will review the literature on Indian education, federal policy, gaming, lotteries, gaming regulation, socioeconomics, funding, and research questions developed for this case study on the use of tribal gaming revenues on a tribally controlled school.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

Chapter two begins with information regarding federal policies that govern American Indian/Alaska Native (AI/AN) education in tribally controlled schools. In addition, a snapshot is provided of the current status of American Indian education including special education services. Topics were chosen for this study based upon reviewing literature on Indian education. Funding problems emerged as a significant problem for most tribal schools. Revenue from American Indian gaming has provided some funding relief to several reservations and a few tribal schools across the country.

#### **Self-Determination**

Historically, the Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act of 1975, Public Law 93-638, provided American Indian tribes greater control over their own affairs including education (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001). Consequently, it is important to understand what self-determination means for tribes today and what the impact of self-determination and sovereignty is on socioeconomic development for tribal members. As suggested by Swisher and Tippeconnic (2001), self-determination is a key ingredient in fundamental change that restores tribal languages, customs, values, traditions, education, socioeconomic development, and cultures.

Educators face an uphill battle as a result of past practices aimed at assimilating American Indians into the dominant society's linear approach to education and methodology. Still, today, the effects of this deficit approach are deeply woven into the

fabric of our nation's schools. The evidence of this can be found in low-test scores, high dropout rates, truancy, and enrollment and graduation rates in higher education (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001). What does the future hold for Indian educators and researchers willing to tackle these tough issues resulting from the deficit approaches? According to Swisher and Tippeconnic (2001), these undertakings must include the guidance of tribal self-determination. Although there has been some progress in self-determination during recent decades among indigenous people in the United States, researchers such as Swisher and Tippeconnic, believe residual effects of past assimilation and terminated policies continue to plague the lives of students today.

### **Enrollment Projections**

Today, most American Indian students attend public, private, or parochial schools (90%); however, there are approximately 187 BIA funded or operated schools on 63 reservations in 23 states (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001). More than 60% of these schools are tribally controlled and are funded through contracts or grants (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001). The reality is that most research and writing activities in Indian education originate from information obtained from BIA schools, since gathering data from public schools on the low numbers of Indian students in contrast to all other students is a daunting task (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001). According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2005), over 1,260 public schools in the United States include an American Indian enrollment of approximately 25%. Roughly, 80,000 public schools have just under a 25% enrollment (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001). According to

a study conducted by Freeman and Fox (2005), enrollment projections for AI elementary and secondary students accounted for approximately 1% or 624,000 of all students in public schools in the United States.

### **American Indian Nations at Risk**

The low number of American Indian students enrolled in our nation's public schools makes research difficult in comparison to the BIA funded schools where the Indian education knowledge base is larger and the data driven results are easier to maintain. American Indian students have the highest dropout rate among all other ethnic groups in the country (approximately 36%) (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001). However, in a recent report by Freeman & Fox (2005), in 2003, the dropout rate for AI/AN students was 15% in contrast to 6% for Whites and 4% for Asian/Pacific Islanders. Although the dropout rate seems to be higher for AI/AN than Blacks (10.9%), dropout rates for AI/AN students are still lower in contrast to Hispanic students (23.9%) (Freeman & Fox, 2005). According to the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) American Indian 4<sup>th</sup> grade students are below the national average in reading, math, and history (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001). School attendance and test scores are not the only issues that need to be addressed in Indian country, but what does need to be done to improve Indian education issues depends upon good research. Improved pedagogy, methodology, and practice have been proven in a number of schools attended by American Indian students. Still, more sustained research is needed in order to produce measurable and plausible effects. Several successful practices have also been identified in the *Indian Nations at*

*Risk Report, 1991*. For example, an early childhood pre-K curriculum American Indian culturally based model at the Denver Indian Center was successfully implemented. In past years, BIA funded schools, via the Office of Indian Education Programs, have concentrated on school improvement (e.g., No Child Left Behind Act of 2001), and other school reform efforts (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001). For example, the Family and Child Education Program (FACE) was initiated in 1990 to serve children ages 0 to 5 and their parents in both home and school environments. An important component of the FACE program is the integration of American Indian language and cultures (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001).

It is surmised that effective practice is important especially believing that all students can and will learn, schools can make a positive difference, and student learning is based upon student outcomes (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001). Still, in order to carry out this initiative successfully parents and community members must take part in their children's education. It is the parents and community who are ultimately responsible for providing a positive school environment that is conducive to student learner outcomes, civil and educational rights. Consequently, adequate funding must be provided for American Indian programs. However, funding issues continue to plague tribal and federal efforts that support learning environments for Indian students. For example, 2004 budget appropriations did not provide for the unmet needs required for the provisions in the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, especially for AI/AN students and families (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 2003).

In addition, according to the BIA systems finance specialist Joe Herrin, funding appropriations reveal a slight increase for elementary and secondary tribal schools for 2006 to 2008 in budget appropriations. The following amounts reveal appropriations for grants that include Indian School Equalization Program, (ISEP), student transportation, and early childhood: \$457,750,000 (2006); \$458,310,000 (2007); and \$476,500,000 (2008). The amounts for 2006 are actual figures and the amounts for 2007-2008 are projected. However, appropriations for facilities operations, residential education, juvenile detention, and Johnson O'Malley reveal a decrease. For example, the actual appropriations for 2006 were: \$75,887,000. The projected appropriations for 2007-2008 are reduced to, \$72,390,000 (2007); and \$61,803,000 (2008) (Personal Communication August 22, 2007).

As previously mentioned, self-determination is the key ingredient to sustaining values, customs, language, and culture. Still, there are questions left unanswered in American Indian education. Quality research can lead to resolutions and positive outcomes in Indian communities searching for improvement in education reform. What must be done in Indian communities yearning for improved practice, research, methodology, and outcomes? Indian communities must communicate and collaborate more effectively by creating conditions for success in education. In addition, schools must recruit, train, and retain highly qualified teachers and administrators. Educators, tribal officials, and parents must also work to help students make a smooth transition from elementary to secondary to post-secondary systems, especially those receiving

special education services. A standards-based curriculum including tribal languages and culture is paramount to creating success for all (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001).

With budgets subject to the uncertainties of congressional political processes, school building and renovation projects on reservations are frequently overlooked, and operating budgets remain low especially salaries for those individuals providing professional services (e.g., school teachers, principals, and superintendents). Educational and socioeconomic conditions are somewhat improving on reservations due to the impact of Indian gaming operations. In essence, there is a positive side and a down side as a result of Indian gaming. Positive results include gaming tribes giving money to educational programs, facilities, and other infrastructure systems. Negative results include the impact gaming has on individuals, the home environment and other significant outcomes (e.g., pathological gambling) (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001).

For the most part, Indian education remains much as it was in 1991 when Dr. John Tippeconnic stated (as cited in Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001):

There is reason to be cautiously optimistic about the future of Indian education in the United States, but it will take a broader approach. This approach should include a partnership among tribes, states, the federal government and other interest groups that will provide leadership and minimize politics while maximizing quality education for Indian students (p. 305).

### **Funding Indian Education**

According to the U.S. Department of Education (2003):

Unlike public schools, Indian schools and Indian programs across the nation are totally reliant on the level of federal funding received to ensure they meet even minimal standards. The federal government has a unique and continuing trust relationship with and responsibility to the Indian people for the education of Indian children (p. 81).

Underfunding of American Indian schools has been a problem throughout history, dating back to the 1928 *Meriam Report* (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001). In 1965, President Johnson signed into law the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, which he viewed the “war on poverty.” For the first time in history federal funding became a significant portion of financial support for the Bureau of Indian Affairs, grant, tribal, and public schools across the nation (U.S. Department of Education, 2003). As a result, federal funding is provided to our nation’s schools including Indian education programs through Title Programs (e.g., Title I, II, III, IV, V, VI, VII, VIII, and IX). Title programs are what the federal government use to ensure quality education for public and non-public schools by offering criteria, grant guidelines, and budget appropriations. Main appropriations for Indian education under these entitlements are described as: Indian Schools Equalization Program (Title V), Johnson O’Malley, Impact Aid (Title VIII), and

Special Education Programs. Still, these federal appropriations are not enough, and adequately funding Indian education remains an issue.

### **Funding Unmet Needs**

In 2002, the U.S. Department of Education provided local tribal schools approximately \$200 per pupil for Indian students. The National Indian Education Association (NIEA) estimates that payments should have been at least \$250 per pupil in order to meet minimal funding standards (NIEA, 2005). According to the 2000 census, the American Indian population is on the rise. In essence, funding of unmet education needs for Native students continues to be inadequate. For example, the NIEA estimates that an additional \$10 million is needed to service existing unfunded special programs for Native students. These under-funded programs include: education services for Indian children; planning pilot demonstration programs; Indian Fellowships; educational professional development; gifted and talented programs; and grants to tribes for education administration, planning and development. Consequently, according to this report, in 1999, the federal government failed to adequately fund several BIA schools on the Navajo reservation when per pupil payments were funded at 30% below the national average (U.S. Department of Education, 2003). In addition, researchers in this study argue that grant money allocated to BIA schools does not always reach the students they intend to serve. In other words, there are no requirements for how that money should be spent. Most Indian students are educated in public schools—not BIA or tribal schools.

Consequently, school districts may or may not be in compliance with how funds for Indian education should be used (U.S. Department of Education, 2003).

The federal education budget for fiscal year 2006 includes several cuts for Indian education (IndianZ.com, 2005). Programs within the BIA and the Department of Education are at risk of cuts and may be eliminated altogether. The budget will affect everything from school construction, housing, Johnson O'Malley (J.O.M.), and special education programs. The appropriations for BIA construction will be cut by \$89.5 million and J.O.M. by 50%. According to the proposed budget, grants for the Family and Child Education (FACE) program, school statistics database, and BIA contract schools will be eliminated. Impact Aid will also face cuts for fiscal year 2006 (IndianZ.com, 2005).

The following section provides information on topics included in the research questions. This section also served as a basis of reviewing the literature needed for this study.

### **Student Achievement**

In April of 2004, President George W. Bush signed into law the Executive Order, which signifies the government's unique responsibility to preserve and to assist in the educational and culturally related academic needs of American Indian and Alaska Native students (White House, 2004). According to the Executive Order of 2004, the government is committed to continuing its efforts with American Indian tribal governments on a government-to-government basis, and supports tribal sovereignty and

self-determination. Also, it is the purpose of the Executive Order to assist American Indian and Alaska Native students in meeting the challenging academic standards of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (Public Law 107-110) in a way that is consistent with tribal traditions, languages, and cultures. In addition, the order builds on the innovations, reforms, and high academic standards of the No Child Left Behind Act; for example, developing stronger accountability for results; more flexibility in the use of funding; better choices for parents; and an emphasis on research-based instruction that is conducive to American Indian culture and customs (i.e., curriculum that works) (White House, 2004).

Increasingly, schools across the country, including AI and AN schools, are being pressured to meet the demands of the NCLB Act of 2001. Today, the standards-based school reform movement provides potential benefits for Indian education. Standards-based reform may provide motivation to improve learning for AI/AN students. Standards that promote a holistic approach to teaching and new criterion-referenced and performance-based methods of assessment offer hope for all (Fox, 2001).

According to Swisher and Tippeconnic (2001), performance-based assessment is often referred to as *authentic* assessment because it allows for demonstration of applied knowledge and the performance of tasks of the real world (i.e., hands-on learning). Although questions may arise with the use of performance-based assessment like reliability and validity, it still remains a constructive element in Indian education.

The impression that schools will be held accountable for student learning is a positive sign for Indian education because Indian families, like other people in America,

want their children to have academic success. Consequently, it is up to the federal, state and local education agencies to disaggregate data to ensure that all groups of students are making academic gains, especially under the proposed mandates of the NCLB Act of 2001. If these data indicate that students or groups of students are falling behind or making insufficient gains, accountability policies may require schools to be closed, reconstituted, or have funding withheld (Fox, 2001). In addition, a study conducted by the U.S. Department of Education (1999), revealed that students who enter school from high poverty areas, including American Indian reservations, have lower English vocabularies than students from more affluent areas. The fact is that students with higher word vocabularies have an easier time learning the standard core curriculum and performing better on standardized achievement exams (Fox, 2001).

Finally, all stakeholders in education, including parents, must be held accountable in order for standards-based reform efforts to become successful for AI and AN students. It is obvious that federal and state entities play a vital role in helping AI and ANs achieve academic success. A primary example of this is providing adequate funding for academic programs. Also, their efforts will be more effective with the assistance of the four guiding principles as outlined in the *Indian Nations At Risk Task Force Report* (1991) that includes: (a) merge language and culture to help strengthen students' ability to speak their Native Languages and English (i.e., two-way bilingual), and to assist in making instruction more culturally linguistic; (b) promote and build community and parental involvement; (c) provide teaching methods that are appropriate for Indian students,

addressing learning styles and student interests; and (d) employ testing strategies that are appropriate for Indian students (Fox, 2001).

According to Tippeconnic (1988), the lack of assessment research conducted in Indian education, with even less regarding special education issues, has great implications for researchers. Observers began to question the reliability and validity of testing practices and theories in the 1920s, through the following seven decades scrutinizing racial differences across numerous instruments (Deyhle & Swisher, 1997). In addition, it is important to conduct on-going research into these reported racial differences to provide additional guidance to educators who provide assessment services and/or intervention services for young AI/AN children and their families. Consequently, further research is needed to identify issues, concerns, and barriers that impact academic achievement for American Indian students inclusive of special education, early childhood education, and early childhood special education (Banks, 1997).

### **Culture and Language**

Historically, federal education policy beginning in the mid-1870s and continuing for a century emphasized assimilation as the main objective of American Indian/Alaska Native education. According to the 1928 Meriam Report, AI/ AN schools utilized unfit curricula, employed unqualified teachers, and were understaffed (Lipka, 2002). Since that time several researchers have described effects of assimilationist policies that separated many AI/AN students from their homes and communities and forced them to attend boarding schools, forever weakening the unique languages and cultures of an

indigenous existence (Lipka, 2002). In addition, recent accounts include observations by Deyhle and Swisher (1997); Lipka and Mohatt (1998); Lomawaima (1999); Skinner (1999); and Swisher and Tippeconnic (1999) that have led to enlightenment for AI/AN students, schools, and communities. Today, several AI/AN communities are employing a unique approach to education in their school systems. For example, exemplary programs in Rock Point, Arizona are striving to meet at least two of the following three criteria derived from research syntheses by Deyhle and Swisher (1997), Swisher and Tippeconnic (1999), and Yazzie (1999): (a) the program must include community/tribally controlled schools, (b) the program must use the indigenous culture and language, and (c) academic achievement must show a significant and measurable gain over time (Lipka, 2002). For instance, school administrators, teachers, and community members at Rock Point School District have designed a culturally appropriate curriculum that has illustrated positive outcomes in recent years by going from one of the lowest performing schools to improving test scores in reading, language, math, and English when compared to other reservation schools (Lipka, 2002).

According to Bea Medicine (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001), the historic ban against Native language use has had a demeaning impact on the communication skills of American Indians and Alaska Natives since language is the inner most expressive element in culture, music, song, dance, art, and religion. Today, it is imperative for educators to incorporate language and culture into producing positive outcomes for American Indian and Alaska Native students. Eli Taylor provided a good example of the unique characteristics of indigenous life when she stated:

Our Native language embodies a value system about how we ought to live and relate to each other....It gives a name to relations among kin, to roles and responsibilities among family members, to ties with the broader clan group....There are no English words for these relationships because your social and family life is different from ours. Now if you destroy this language, you not only break down these relationships, but you also destroy other aspects of our Indian way of life and culture, especially those that describe man's connection with nature, the Great Spirit and the order of things. Without our language, we will cease to exist as a separate people (cited in Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001, p. 113).

According to Dan Jones, an Ojibwa language instructor at Fond du Lac tribal college in Minnesota, a new beginning is occurring in many parts of the United States as indigenous people strive to relearn their Native languages, cultures, and customs. This is evident in the building of sweat lodges, the number of Ojibwa language talking circles being created, and the increasing number of American Indians returning to spiritual ceremonies of their ancestors. Jones (as cited in Peacock, 1999) was also optimistic about the future when he stated:

As an Ojibwe language teacher, I find Native students who are studying their language to be self-motivated, positive, and searching for identity. I believe that

non-Natives are becoming more accepting of Indian languages, and that it is the right time to re-acquire our language rights (p. 6).

### **Parental Involvement**

In recent years, a number of researchers have developed parent involvement models that reflect the most common types of parental involvement and parent involvement roles that occur in the education process of children with and without disabilities. While several models exist, one of the most widely used in education today is the framework developed by Epstein (1997), also known as the Epstein model. The six types of involvement included in Epstein's model are: (a) assist families in best practices for parenting by providing training programs, workshops, and other support programs conducive to an adequate learning environment; (b) provide for effective communicating between educators and families through a cooperative agreement and clear information; (c) promote active participation and volunteering; (d) helping with home curriculum-related activities that are designed to encourage parent involvement with the child; (e) promote shared decision-making and parent involvement membership on school committees (e.g., site-councils); and (f) collaborate and exchange information with community entities to ensure the family's community partnerships by providing the opportunity to access services, resources, and programs. Epstein suggests that all parents, regardless of their child's ability level, can accomplish these general types of involvement. Consequently, the clear and concise affects of each general type of parent involvement included in Epstein's framework are supported in the research literature.

According to Faircloth and Tippeconnic (2000), as parents become more active in participating in the development of their children's education, it is imperative to recognize, verify, and support their efforts. Significant parent involvement also requires parents to take the initiative in their children's learning. The Education for Parents of Indian Children with Special Needs Project (EPICS) encourages parents to ask questions, actively participate in meetings by sharing thoughts and ideas, and as a result, review information and policies to ensure that they are understood (Faircloth & Tippeconnic, 2000).

### **Facilities**

Preparing students for the technical demands of tomorrow's workforce may be thwarted by the inability to fund new school facilities or extensive renovation to existing ones (Fellin, 1996). School facilities have not kept up with the unprecedented growth in student population in the United States. Many students in urban, suburban, and rural areas are being educated in schools that are more than 100 years old. According to Fellin (1996), schools are badly in need of repair as a result. They suffer from leaky roofs, crumbling walls, sewage problems, and other problems that may cause potential fire hazards. Data collected by the U.S. General Accounting Office in 1994 reported that one out of every three school districts in the United States had at least one building in need of renovation. This affects more than 14 million students. Also, these school districts cannot meet the construction costs for updating facilities through local taxation efforts. For example, the superintendent in a small rural school district in Raymond, Washington

reported that one school was constructed in the 1920s and the renovation project would cost over \$14 million, three times the schools' operating budget (*The American School Board Journal*, 1996). In addition, adequate buildings and infrastructure are not enough. The desired equipment and supplies pertinent to the development of students' needs are also essential.

Consequently, most AI communities are in desperate need of new school facilities. The existing buildings are old and in very poor condition. Federal budgets in many AI schools have been inadequate and poorly managed. The backlog of new school construction in Native communities remains disproportionate. Safety remains an issue for Indian children attending these schools. Safety concerns have forced many parents to transfer their children to public schools. AI students must be provided with adequate and safe up to date facilities, maintenance and transportation to ensure an optimum education. According to Swisher and Tippeconnic (2001), school facilities serving AI students are often obsolete and do not meet adequate building codes and regulations (i.e., condemned). In addition, tribal and BIA schools do not have a tax base on which to draw from to aid in new construction or renovation projects. Public Law 815, *Federally Impacted Areas Aid Act*, has provided some relief in construction funds for schools serving AI students; however, according to Swisher and Tippeconnic (2001), a shortage of construction and renovation funds still exists. There is a shortfall of at least \$700 million for BIA schools alone.

### ***Health Facilities***

The lack of healthcare facilities is another concern for AI tribes and communities. According to the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights (2003), it is estimated that in 2001, there was approximately a \$900 million back log for unmet health needs for facilities. In addition, an estimated \$1 billion is needed for new facility construction. Safety and efficiency also remain a problem for existing health facilities. It is estimated that the average age for health care facilities for AI tribal communities is 32. According to this report, Indian health care is managed in two ways, either through the federal Indian Health Service (IHS) or by the tribes themselves through self-determination contracts. In 2003, IHS facilities were funded at approximately \$475 million—a federal shortfall of an estimated \$4.25 million (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 2003).

### **Equipment**

The lack of proper equipment and technology is another concern in Indian country. Hands-on learning or inquiry based methods best describes pedagogy in our schools today. Educators are encouraged to abandon traditional methods in light of the inquiry-based methods that prepare students for challenges and demands of the twenty-first century (Hardy, Sudweeks, Tolman, & Burton, 1996). No longer is it plausible to have students just read the chapters and complete the questions at the end. As a result, teachers are digging into their own pockets to purchase additional equipment, supplies, and materials not provided by the school district. For example, according to Hardy, Kalt, Taylor, Curtis, Cornell, Grant, Jorgensen, Lee, and Nelson (1996), science teachers must

provide for numerous kinds of teaching aids, materials, and equipment as part of the hands-on inquiry based curriculum. It is estimated that on average elementary science teachers spend between \$120 and \$154 of their own money to enhance instruction (Hardy, et al, 1996). In addition, according to the U.S. Department of Education (1996), it is estimated that all elementary science teachers in the United States spent between \$168 and \$215 million of their own money to enhance science instruction. As previously mentioned, teachers are digging into their pockets to help pay for equipment and supplies; however, their time and effort must also be better compensated. The following section describes salary disparities for teachers, administrators, and other staff personnel.

### **Salaries**

The following data collected by the National Survey of Salaries and Wages in Public Schools illustrates the average salaries for superintendents, principals, and teachers for the 1999-2000 school year: superintendents \$112,158; assistant superintendents \$89,913; elementary principals \$69,407; middle school principals \$73,877; high school principals \$79,839; and classroom teachers \$42,213 (Williams, 2000).

According to Pavel (1995), a staff survey conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics, principals with a master's degree in tribal and BIA schools earn on average approximately \$10,000 less than do principals in public schools with a low Native American student population. On the other hand, teachers in tribal and BIA schools with a bachelor's or master's degree earn approximately the same as teachers in

public schools with either a high or low concentration of Native American students in accordance with the salary schedule (Pavel, 1995). In contrast, Vance, Miller, Humphreys, and Reynolds (1989), who polled thirty BIA teachers on occupational stress, found that teachers rated salary as the number one professional job dissatisfaction. The other categories included lack of recognition, lack of status and respect, lack of advancement, and lack of progress in job (Vance, et al, 1989).

### **American Indian Students with Disabilities**

Another concern that must be examined in schools serving AI students is the high disproportionate representation of AI students placed in special education programs. According to the NCES (2005), there are approximately 624,000 American Indian/Alaska Native students attending school today (NCES, 2005). Roughly 90% of these students attend public schools and 10% attend BIA schools. American Indian/Alaskan Native students make up only 1% of the entire American student population yet, they account for 1.3% of special education students (Tippeconnic & Faircloth, 2000). This data clearly points to the fact that American Indian/Alaskan Native students are overrepresented in special education programs in our schools.

The BIA, grant, and contract schools follow guidelines as outlined by the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA, 2004). In June of 2002, the BIA introduced the special education coordinated services plan. This plan is a federal Congressional mandate established in Public Law 105-17 and IDEA 1997 amendments. The federal responsibility for meeting the needs of American Indian/Alaska Native

children with disabilities is outlined in three sections of the IDEA amendments. The outline also includes the coordination of other services provided by federal, state and local education agencies: (a) the first part signifies an “assurance” that the Department of Health and Interior enter into coordinated services with LEAs as well as state agencies which facilitate programs, resources, and services for American Indian children who reside on or close to reservations. It is also the responsibility of the Department of the Interior to provide appropriations to the BIA, Office of Indian Education and the Indian Health Services in relation to child find, evaluation service, diagnostics, medical equipment, and therapeutic services (i.e., the Department of the Interior is the facilitator of these coordination of services); (b) next, section 611 (i)(4) of the IDEA Amendments directs the DOI and the OIEP to develop and implement a Plan for the Coordination of Services; and (c) another IDEA Amendment 611 (i) (5) calls for the establishment of an Advisory Board also known as the Advisory Board of Exceptional Children. This board was established to provide recommendations to the BIA/OIEP through the Lead Education Specialist for BIA Special Education. Below is a list of guidelines established by IDEA for the Advisory Board to follow (Office of Indian Education Programs, 2002):

- Assist coordination services within the BIA and with state, federal, and LEAs in relation to educational provisions for infants, toddlers, and handicapped children;
- Develop and recommend policies concerning and affecting inter- and intra-agency collaboration; and
- Make the necessary directives for school improvement and programming for Indian infants, toddlers, and children with disabilities.

Table 2.1 describes the approximate number of Indian children in BIA schools who currently receive special education services (BIA, 2002).

Table 2.1.

*Children with Disabilities Receiving Special Education in BIA Schools*

Disability	Number/Percentage of Children by Disability and Age at Data Collection						Totals by Disability Category	
	Age 5 (Grade K)		Ages 6-11 (Grades 1-6)		Ages 12-21 (Grades 7-12)		All Children Ages 5-21	
Mental Retardation	5	1.9%	200	4.8%	292	7.1%	497	5.8%
Hearing Impairments	2	0.8%	21	0.5%	21	0.5%	44	0.5%
Speech/Language Impairments	181	68.0%	1010	24.2%	187	4.5%	1378	16.1%
Visual Impairments	0	0	16	0.4%	10	0.2%	26	0.3%
Emotional Disturbance	1	0.4%	205	4.9%	407	9.9%	613	7.2%
Orthopedic Impairments	0	0	13	0.3%	7	0.2%	20	0.2%
Other Health Impairments	4	1.5%	123	2.9%	63	1.5%	190	2.2%
Specific Learning Disabilities	14	5.3%	2241	53.6%	2991	72.5%	5246	61.2%
Deaf-Blindness	1	0.4%	2	0.05%	2	0.05%	5	0.05%
Multiple Disabilities	7	2.6%	150	3.6%	134	3.2%	291	3.4%
Autism	0	0	13	0.3%	5	0.1%	18	0.2%
Traumatic Brain Injury	0	0	5	0.1%	8	0.2%	13	0.2%
Developmental Delay	51	19.2%	179*	4.3%			230*	2.7%
	266	100%	4178	100%	4127	100%	8571	100%

Source: "Report of Children with Disabilities Receiving Special Education - 2001," BIA/OIEP.

As previously mentioned, the topics reviewed in this study included examples of past research in Indian education. Funding has served as the primary focus. Consequently, it is necessary to examine the history of gaming in the United States and Indian gaming in order to get a better perspective of the funding implications for Indian education.

### **History of Casino Gaming**

Indian gaming is a relatively new phenomenon; however, in order to better understand its existence we must take a closer look at the origins of casino gaming in the United States. Casino gaming in the United States originated in 1931 in the state of Nevada as a means of reviving local economies; however, it was not until the mid 1940s, after World War II, that casino gaming began to grow. The first casino, called the El Rancho, opened in 1941. In 1947, the Flamingo hotel and casino opened through organized crime by Bugsy Siegel and Meyer Lansky. By 1957 Mormon bankers financed other gaming operations that supported the opening of the Riviera. In 1966 tycoon Howard Hughes invested in the Desert Inn and, thus, gaming exploded in downtown Las Vegas, which was otherwise known as the strip. In 1969, the Corporate Gaming Act of Nevada allowed large corporations such as: MGM, Hilton, Ramada Inn, and Holiday Inn to hold gaming licenses. During this time only the state of Nevada had legalized gaming operations (Munting, 1996).

By the mid 1970s, Atlantic City, New Jersey obtained a gaming license in order to resurrect tourism. As a result, large corporate returns have done little to support the

people of Atlantic City (Munting, 1996). However, the gaming compact Atlantic City has with the corporations states that a percentage of revenue must be given to local education and cultural programs. This amount is approximately \$18 million a year according to the New Jersey Commissions annual report to the legislature (New Jersey Casino Control Commission, 2003). State lawmakers began to see the impact casino gaming had on the economy (i.e., revenue generated). Lotteries spawned across the country as a means to minimize taxes and other expenditures.

### *Lotteries*

Before 1964, lotteries were illegal in every state in this country. Today they are operated in over 37 states and the District of Columbia. Lotteries are also legal in 100 different countries around the world. In 1964, New Hampshire launched the lottery phenomenon as a means to raise funds for public purposes. The following projects were funded by revenue generated from the lottery: Jamestown settlement, Harvard College, and the Continental Army (Clotfelter, Cook, Edell & Moore, 1999).

According to the National Impact Study Commission (1999), there are five types of lottery games for individuals to choose from: instant games, keno, video, lotto, and daily number picks. The first modern day innovation was introduced in the mid 1970s known as the instant scratch-off game that utilized a paper ticket where potential winners scratched off a cheat proof substance that revealed the winning numbers. Today, sophisticated vending machines and computer terminals are used for advanced lottery games. The multi-state lottery, otherwise known as the Powerball lotto game may be

among the most popular, especially for small states where the population is lower. These smaller states join into consortiums that produce huge jackpots annually. Internet gaming is another form of gambling that has woven itself into the fabric of American culture.

According to the American Gaming Association (2004), the first online virtual casino opened in 1995. By 2004, over 2,500 online illegal gambling websites were open for business around the world. In addition, it is estimated that revenues for 2004 reached approximately \$10 billion. According to this report, American bettors are responsible for approximately \$4 billion (American Gaming Association, 2004).

### *Lotteries as a Revenue Source*

One main reason states adopt lotteries is to generate revenue. This is a cash flow amount left over after the winner is paid and retailer commissions and other operating expenses get their cut. In essence, this profit margin amounts to an implicit tax (i.e., a tax not revealed to the consumer) and is comparable to an excise tax levied at a certain rate on the purchases of a particular product. While a lottery is not a tax in itself, it is important to understand it is indeed comparable to a tax. In the same way observers would be interested in conventional taxes, it is useful to note three concepts of implicit tax: (a) the earmarking of it for specific purposes, (b) its rate, and (c) its importance to state revenues (Clotfelter, et al, 1999).

### *Earmarking*

Many states reserve revenue profits for road construction, parks/recreation, economic development, and other community purposes. Of the approximately 38 state lotteries, the revenue from only 10 goes into their general funds. The remaining states earmark all or part of their lottery revenues for education, making that the most common use of lottery funds. Other uses range from tax relief, stadium construction for professional sports, and public service pensions such as the police and fire department in Indiana. While earmarking might be an excellent tool for enticing political support for a lottery, there may be a downside. Setting aside monies for important purposes such as those mentioned earlier can be positive. However, when expenditures on an earmarked purpose far exceed the revenues available from the lottery (e.g., the general education budget), the legislature often reallocates the earmarked revenue and appropriates it to other existing programs, thus, defeating the purpose of earmarking funds to community programs and services (Clotfelter, et al, 1999).

### *Lottery Fund Rate*

According to Clotfelter et al. (1999), approximately 87% of American adults reside in a state where lotteries are legal. It is estimated that of this 87%, 55% of adults are active participants in the states that sell lottery tickets in comparison to 27% who do not reside in a state where lotteries are legal. Lottery play affects both demographic and socioeconomic patterns. Consequently, 50% of American adults play the lottery in any given year. Among these people who played the previous year, the top 5% spent more

than \$3,870, which overall represented 54% of all sales. Those individuals gambling between \$1,600 and \$2,500 a year accounted for the top 10 and 20% respectively. In addition, these heavy players make up 82% of all lottery sales combined. It is also noted that the average player spends approximately \$75 a year on lottery games. Consequently, Clotfelter et al. (1999) believes it is the heavy player who determines the average ticket sales, thus, generating the highest revenue for the state. Demographically, it is assumed that men typically play the lottery more than women. The rate of participation among various ethnic groups is about the same; however, statistics reveal that on average black men spend a little more per capita. A survey conducted by Clotfelter et al. (1999) reveals 86% of the participants who played the lottery the previous year and those who played the previous week admitted to losing more money than they won.

State lotteries produce a service to American citizens by selling a game of chance for cash prizes. States own this monopoly and market one of the largest operations in state government. In 1997, patrons spent more than \$36 billion on state run lotteries. According to the U.S. Bureau of the Census 1998, this amount was exceeded only by education, the department of corrections, parks, and the department of natural resources (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1998).

Marketing has become an important component of state lotteries. This includes commercial marketing such as, promotions, advertising, and product design. During the late 1990s, states spent over \$400 million a year on advertising alone. One goal of state

marketing managers is to maximize revenue through rigorous advertising and ad campaigns, however, concerns have risen as a result. For example, some state advertising has been criticized for implicitly supplying information about gaming aspects. In other words, not reporting winning probabilities for prizes subjected to the Federal Trade Commission. Another concern relates to the use of persuasive advertising used by states to manipulate patrons into playing (e.g., leading the public into believing that all they need is a dollar and luck, which is better than hard work). Recently, states like Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Virginia have prohibited such ad slogans and ad campaigns. Many people across the country play lottery games and other forms of gambling (e.g., casino games and bingo) for entertainment purposes; however, the following information indicates that others may become problem gamblers (Clotfelter, et al. 1999). As previously mentioned, there's a positive side and a negative side to gaming.

### **Negative Impact of Gambling**

As demonstrated in a report by the National Opinion Research Center at the University of Chicago and the American Psychiatric Association (APA, 1994), it is estimated that there are 2.5 million pathological gamblers in the United States. Also, it is noted that an additional 3 million are considered to have a problem with gambling. As part of a telephone survey conducted by APA (1994), statistics reveal that at least 15 million adults are at-risk gamblers and about 150 million are low-risk gamblers, while another 29 million admitted to having never gambled. Men are more likely to become pathological and at-risk gamblers than women. According to this study, problem

gamblers are substantially higher among African Americans as compared to other ethnic groups. However, African Americans are still a minority in relation to all other pathological and at-risk gamblers. Adults over 65, households whose income is over 100,000 and college graduates are less likely to be problem gamblers. However, college graduates are more likely to become at-risk gamblers as compared to people at other education levels. Also, adults who live close to a casino (e.g., 50 miles or less) are twice as likely to become problem gamblers as opposed to those who have to travel 50 to 250 miles to gamble.

Pathological gamblers suffer more than monetary loss. They can also become a detriment to society by becoming dependent on welfare, declaring bankruptcy, arrested or incarcerated. In addition, pathological gamblers are at higher risk for mental health related problems than recreational and low-risk gamblers. These health problems may include: depression, anxiety, hyper-tension, and other manic symptoms that need professional attention (e.g., medical or psychiatric counseling). Pathological gamblers make up about 2.5% of all sales in casino, pari-mutual, and lottery betting. Other statistics reveal that pathological and at-risk gamblers in the United States cost society about \$5 million a year and over a lifetime an additional \$40 billion in costs for productivity reductions, counseling services, and creditor loss (Gerstein, Hoffmann, Larison, Engelman, Murphy, Palmer, Churcho, Toce, Johnson, Buie, & Hill, 1999).

According to the APA (1994):

Pathological gambling is a persistent and reoccurring maladaptive gambling behavior... that disrupts personal, family, or vocational pursuits...although a few individuals are 'hooked' with their very first bet, for most the course is more insidious. There may be years of social gambling followed by an abrupt onset...the gambling pattern must be regular or episodic, and the course of the disorder is typically chronic (pp. 615-17).

Pathological gambling is perceived to be a chronic disorder unlike those associated with acute disorders. As compared to chronic disorders, acute disorders like wounds, broken bones, and influenza may be healed over time and leave no scars or susceptibility. On the other hand, chronic disorders like pathological gambling, depression, alcoholism, and other addictions are a lot different in nature. Chronic disorders tend to recur and reoccur causing a lifetime of mental health problems and vulnerability. Although there are periods of remission, chronic symptoms can lay dormant promoting relapse episodes. These episodes are treatable, but as this study indicates are never fully cured.

Evidence in this report (APA, 1994) supports findings that the average pathological gambler suffers from several consequences such as, being a burden to themselves (e.g., mental and emotional stress), family, work, society, and the criminal justice system. As a result, it is estimated that the average cost is approximately \$1,200 per year for pathological gamblers combined and roughly \$715 a year per pathological

gambler. Lifetime costs are listed at \$10,500 and \$5,130 respectively (Gerstein, et al, 1999). On the other hand, casino gaming and other forms of gambling are viewed positively.

### **The Supporting Role of Indian Gaming**

For several generations American Indians have lived in poverty, victims of genocide and hopelessness. As a result, many became victims of a failed system of federal paternalism. On the other hand, Indian gaming has become more than just a band-aid for the social and economic ills suffered throughout Indian country. Revenue obtained through gaming helps Indian and surrounding communities prosper by building infrastructure and economic prosperity. In addition, gaming has given tribal members a new vision of the future. It has enabled tribal governments to provide additional financial support to health, education, and welfare. Indian gaming has become a Native American success story that helps tribes recapture past customs, culture, respect, and has restored pride and honor among the people (NIGA, 2004). The following information emphasizes a cross-section of American Indian tribes who support education programs with gaming revenue.

### **Public Support for Indian Gaming**

A majority of the American public (80%) supports Indian gaming and sees it as a means of creating jobs and utilizing revenue for essential services to its members (NIGA, 2004). Currently, 21 states have entered into Class III gaming compacts with their states

(e.g., video slots card, and table games) and another seven states run Class II bingo style gaming that includes pull-tabs and other games of chance. Recently, voters in Arizona, Idaho, California, and New Mexico have approved additional gaming initiatives. In 2002, approximately 18 million American patrons visited Indian gaming establishments in 28 different states. Also, it is estimated that during that same year, the average casino gambler made at least five trips to an Indian gaming facility which comprised over 100 million visits nationwide (NIGA, 2004).

### **Indian Gaming Regulation**

Tribal government-sponsored gaming dates back to the 1970s. Tribes across the United States established bingo parlors as a means of raising funds to support local government operations. During this time, state governments were also looking for ways to generate revenues; they accomplished this by setting up charitable gaming operations such as pull-tabs, black jack, and lotteries. In the beginning, there seemed to be some mutual interest in government-sponsored gaming. However, tribal and state governments soon found themselves at odds over tribal gaming issues. The debate revolved around whether tribes had the right to conduct their own gaming operations independent of state regulations. After much debate and lower court rulings, the matter was finally resolved in 1987 by the United States Supreme Court (National Indian Gaming Commission, 1998-2000). The Supreme Court confirmed the authority of tribal governments to establish gaming operations independent of state regulation, provided that the state in

question permitted some form of gaming (California v. Cabazon Band of Mission Indians, 480 U.S. 202, 1987).

Congress decided to intervene and conducted a series of hearings that resulted in the Indian Gaming Regulatory Act of 1988. Congress offered states a voice in determining the scope of tribal gaming. States can only enter into Class III gaming compacts with tribes. For example, tribally run casinos with black jack, video slots, craps, roulette, and electronic wagering must enter into a compact with the state. Class I and II tribally run gaming is free from state jurisdiction. In 1988, the federal government formed the National Indian Gaming Commission to oversee all Indian gaming operations. The 1988 Gaming Regulatory Act established three classes of Indian gaming. Class I gaming is best defined as traditional Indian gaming and social gaming for minimal prizes. Class II gaming is defined as the game of chance, commonly known as bingo, without regard to a specific version (i.e., bingo games may or may not be electronic, interactive, or computerized). In addition, if played at the same location, pull tabs, punch boards, tip jars, and instant bingo are also classified as Class II gaming. Tribes retain and have the authority to regulate, license, and conduct Class I and II gaming operations, as long they are approved by the National Indian Gaming Commission. States have no regulatory authority over Class I or II Indian gaming (National Indian Gaming Commission, 1998-2000).

As previously mentioned, Class III gaming includes games of chance such as: black jack, video slot machines, poker, etc. If they engage in Class III gaming, tribes must form a compact with the states in which they reside. Gaming compacts can be

made for several years at a time between the state and the tribe. The provisions and components of these compacts are determined by tribal and state officials. Tribal gaming establishments can exist only on tribal land. Before a tribe can enter into Class III gaming, three conditions are required: (a) the forms of gaming offered by a tribe must be permitted by the state in which it resides; (b) upon entering into an agreed compact, both the state and tribe must then seek approval from the Secretary of the Interior; (c) the chairman of the gaming commission must approve any adopted tribal gaming ordinances (National Indian Gaming Commission, 2000). Only a recognized tribe (e.g., tribes with a government-to-government relationship with the federal government) can enter into gaming compacts with the state that include applying for a Class II or Class III gaming license (NIGA, 2004).

The National Indian Gaming Commission plays a key role in Class II and III Indian gaming. It has special regulatory authority over compacts, management contracts, and tribal ordinances.

Many tribal members, including Ernie Stevens, chairman of the National Indian Gaming Association, believe that gaming casinos give Natives the opportunity to experience the American dream; in other words, a chance to live a better life (NIGA, 2004). Funding education programs has always been difficult for many school districts especially for Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) and tribal reservation schools. An investigation of how Indian gaming revenues that support Indian education programs is needed to determine whether or not this additional funding is conducive to positive outcomes because: (a) few research studies have been conducted in this area in the midst

of this relatively new phenomenon; (b) federal legislation has put higher demands on education programs as a result of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB, 2001); and (c) adequately funding Indian education has been difficult (NIGA, 2000).

Indian gaming is tightly regulated by tribal, state, and federal government entities. In 2003, tribes spent more than \$200 million on regulation compliance and gaming management. In addition, tribes gave states approximately \$50 million and nearly \$10 million to the National Indian Gaming Commission to assist with federal policies and logistics. Indian gaming is classified by the federal government as Class I, Class II, and Class III. Class I gaming includes games of chance with minimal prizes (e.g., drawings, gift certificates). Class II gaming is comprised of games such as bingo, lottery, or pull-tabs. States can only enter into Class III compacts with Indian tribes that consist of casino-style gaming such as table games, video slots, and card games. Located in Washington D.C., the National Indian Gaming Commission provides consulting and support to member Indian tribes in areas such as gaming compacts, gaming ordinances, licensing, audits, employee training, and surveillance. The United States Department of the Treasury constantly monitors the financial transactions and banking habits of Indian casinos. Under federal law, the Federal Bureau of Investigation and the Justice Department have the authority to prosecute all individuals who may embezzle, cheat, or defraud an Indian gaming facility (NIGA, 2004).

### **Indian Gaming Revenue**

According to the final impact analysis (NIGA, 2004), the projected revenues for Indian casinos were estimated at between 14 and \$16 billion. This is a significant increase from the previous year. These tribally owned gaming facilities have created over 500,000 jobs nationwide in and around Indian reservations. As a result, gaming tribes paid out over \$4.5 billion in federal taxes and another \$100 million in state taxes in 2003.

As outlined in the Indian Gaming Regulatory Act of 1988, tribes must use revenue to: (a) fund tribal governments, (b) promote health/welfare, (c) donate to charitable causes, (d) ensure economic development, and (e) support local tribal agencies. In addition, approximately 220 tribes across the country currently have class II and III gaming compacts with states. The significance of gaming revenue has made a positive impact on and around these reservations by creating: school funded programs, infrastructure, jobs, new schools and renovation, economic growth, health, welfare, and housing to name a few. As previously mentioned, Indian gaming tribes have taken in around \$16 billion in 2003. NIGA (2004) estimates that 20% goes to education, children/elderly, and charity. Another 19% goes to economic development, 17% to health care, 17% to police and fire protection, 16% to infrastructure, and 11% to housing. On the other hand, according to research conducted for this study only a small percentage of the 220 Indian tribes with either Class II or Class III gaming compacts with the state profit from gaming revenue (National Indian Gaming Commission, 2000).

The 2000 census reports that there are approximately 4.1 million American Indians in the United States. Although Indian tribes have benefited from gaming, there are still significantly high poverty (24.7%) and unemployment rates (11-22%) compared to the national average of 6% (NIGA, 2004).

Tribally run casinos have used profits to help the local economy by creating jobs, loans for businesses, charitable donations, college scholarships, contributions to tribal colleges, building schools, and funding educational programs. Research and data submitted by Dr. J. Stein of Montana State University (NIGA, 1996) signifies the positive impact tribal gaming has on Indian education. Several tribes reported that Indian gaming has brought new money into tribal higher education and has contributed to the development of new or existing programs. As a result of gaming revenue: (a) tribal members have had the opportunity to enroll in college level classes without assuming loans, (b) new facilities have been constructed, and (c) there is hope for the future by tribes becoming a stakeholder in revenue and profit sharing. Tribes are constantly updating facilities and creating better services for children and the elderly. Eighty-four percent of the gaming tribes in this study agreed that other non-gaming tribes should take a serious look at gaming as a means of generating opportunities for their people. Based on the literature review for this study, non-gaming tribes do not want Class III gaming for the following reasons: (a) gambling is considered taboo and non-traditional or cultural; (b) the state in which the tribe resides may not permit gaming; (c) gaming compacts take several years to complete; (d) Indian gaming is becoming saturated; and (e) several tribes are located in rural areas and cannot generate a substantial amount of revenue.

Tribes use gaming revenue to support community programs. According to the 2003 impact analysis study conducted by NIGA, education is a top priority for gaming tribes. The following narrative will describe: (a) the impact and growth of Indian gaming, (b) present data and literature pertinent to Indian gaming and education, and (c) report the results of gaming tribes and their relationship with education.

### **Schools Supported By Indian Gaming**

The Saginaw Chippewa Tribe in Michigan recently gave \$84,000 to Sheppard Public Schools. In the past, the school was able to build a playground and add to its athletic facilities from money given to them by the tribe. A neighboring school district received over \$400,000 from the tribe. In all, the tribe has donated over \$50 million to the community (*The Midland Daily News*, 2002).

Tribal gaming has enabled Minnesota's Indian tribes the opportunity to take the initial steps necessary to rebuild their reservations and communities after years of abuse, poverty, and neglect. Revenues from Indian gaming are positively influencing the complexion of reservation life. The impact is having an everlasting effect on economics, health care, and education. Examples of schools funded by tribal gaming include (Lockard, 2001):

Shakopee Mdewakanton Sioux (Minnesota tribes):

- Guaranteed tuition programs for college-bound youth, health care, a new fitness center, a new childcare center, and K-8 cultural education model.

Fond du Lac Chippewa:

- A new community college, support for a magnet school, and a work-study program for high school students.

Red Lake Chippewa:

- Expanded education department to serve Indian and non-Indian students, incentive program to secure on-reservation physician service, and housing for tribal and casino employees.

Grand Portage Chippewa:

- Expanded basic education programs, new education programs for special-needs children, and expanded programs in community health and chemical dependency.

Mille Lacs Ojibwe:

- Two new schools, an expanded Head Start program, child day care, a new health clinic, upgraded housing, a water system, and a new museum and cultural center.

Leech Lake Chippewa:

- Support for ten Head Start centers, emergency medical technician services and equipment, housing upgrades and weatherization programs, college scholarship funds, housing maintenance and transportation for elders, a new sanitation system, and updated recreation sites.

Prairie Island Sioux:

- Expanded education department, as well as updated health care for casino employees and tribal members.

Upper Sioux Community:

- A Dakota language program at Southwest State University, improved health insurance for tribal members and employees, a new sweat lodge, and weather radar system.

Bois Forte Chippewa:

- Expanded education program, emergency medical technician services and equipment, new housing and studies of future housing needs, nutrition programs, new powwow facilities, and wild rice processing plant.

Although these advancements are significant, it will take several more years of successful gaming to bring Minnesota's Indian reservations to the same level of prosperity that most non-Indian communities in Minnesota have long taken for granted. For the vast majority of Indians in Minnesota, the playing field is still far from level (National Indian Gaming Association, 2001).

In Arizona, tribal gaming operations have donated generously to local charities, schools, universities, and other organizations. Significant contributions to education were specifically noted (e.g., Ft. McDowell gives \$1 million each year to the state's public universities). Tribal gaming has supported students and student athletes by providing stipends, tuition reimbursement, clothing, payment for books, and living expenses (Magna Management Consulting, 2000).

The Ho Chunk Nation in Wisconsin is currently funding a cultural and language program, which involves 10 communities. According to Division Manager Faye Begay, (Personal Communication, October 22, 2002) the program is fully funded from gaming revenue. The following is a list of the communities serving a high concentration of

Indian students: Black River Falls, (main office), La Crosse, Tomah, Baraboo, Nekoosa, Madison, Milwaukee, Wisconsin Rapids, Wisconsin Dells, and Wittenberg.

### **Summary**

American Indian students are not afforded educational opportunities equal to other students in the United States. They continue to face an uphill battle in outdated school buildings, inadequate funding, weak curriculum, under paid teachers, and deteriorating equipment and technology. In addition, cultural teachings and customs are rarely implemented into the standards based curriculum and as a result, the achievement gap between Indian and non-Indian students persist. States do little to provide adequate financial support to tribal schools. Because there is no tax base on reservations, Indian schools must continue to rely on federal funding resources. Consequently, it is the federal government's responsibility to provide for a free appropriate public education for all, especially Indian students (U.S. Department of Education, 2003).

President George W. Bush's education budget plan for the 2005-2006 school year included cuts and shortcomings; however, it called for every school in the country to make Adequate Yearly Progress as a result of the NCLB Act. Several school districts including BIA, contract, and grant cannot meet these federal standards without proper funding (IndianZ.com). Tribal gaming revenue supporting Indian education programs can make a difference in the midst of these proposed budget cuts. Tribal gaming is not a panacea for adequately funding Indian education. However, it has directly helped tribal

education programs by investing in new schools, facilities, and scholarships for its members (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001).

The Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act of 1975 was a success for American Indian tribes. It acknowledged their sovereignty, strengthened their stance in legal terms, and gave them more confidence. But it remained incomplete. In order to ensure sovereignty and decrease poverty and unemployment among the tribal population, special financial resources were needed. The Indian Gaming Regulatory Act of 1988 became a stepping stone for tribes looking to provide another way to increase prosperity and socioeconomic development for its people (Kuhlmann, 1998).

Many tribes support education programs through gaming revenue. According to the 1988 Gaming Regulatory Act, a certain percentage of profits from tribal gaming must go towards education or charitable foundations. In other words, as long as tribes earn profits from gaming operations Indian education programs can benefit. The goal of this study was to obtain an overall picture of both positive and negative outcomes tribal gaming has on Indian education including socioeconomics in their communities. The following information is an example of tribal prosperity due to revenue generated through gaming: new jobs have been created, new schools built, curriculum models funded, scholarships created, facilities updated, as well as new equipment and infrastructure. Tribal gaming is a proponent of self-determination; it has enabled American Indian communities across the country to restore values, customs, cultures, traditions, languages, and identity.

The following chapter provides information on the methodology used in this study, including research design, participants involved in the study, data collection, data analysis, member checking, observations, interview protocol, procedures, documents, informed consent and limitations.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

The current investigation is an exploratory case study of a tribally controlled school located in a Midwestern setting. The tribally controlled school receives funding from tribal gaming revenues. The tribal Nation which funds the school is unique in that it is one of the few in the United States that makes a generous profit from Indian gaming and in turn, utilizes this financial windfall to help support local economy, infrastructure, and education programs. This study involves an examination of a tribally controlled school within or in close proximity to the tribal reservation, which receives a portion of gaming revenue to financially support education programs and services. Data obtained from several sources (e.g., school board minutes, semi-structured interviews, observations, tribal council minutes, archives, and financial data records) were used to address the following questions:

#### **Primary Question**

1. What are the perceptions of tribal and school leaders towards the use of gaming money in tribally controlled schools? In what ways is gaming money making a difference in tribally controlled schools?

### **Secondary Questions**

2. What are the perceptions of tribal and school leaders toward the impact that gaming money is having on student academic achievement?
3. To what extent and under what circumstances are gaming monies used to support facilities and equipment, special education, culture and language activities, salaries of school personnel, and parent/community involvement?  
What are other uses of gaming money, if any?
4. What are the demographic characteristics of the tribe and its schools that receive gaming money?

### **Research Design**

According to Hammersley and Atkin (1983), quantitative research seeks to clarify the ways people make sense of work as well as operate in their social environment by drawing out social meanings through observations, interviews, subject observations, and documentation. On the other hand, qualitative research seeks to add to the collective knowledge of social phenomena and attempts to bring understanding about social practices, why certain social practices occur and what it means to the subjects being studied in a social environment (Louis, 1982).

Yin (1994) identifies three strategies of qualitative methods: grounded theory, case study, and ethnography. These methods are not mutually exclusive and can be used in conjunction within the same study; however, there are differences in theory behind

each method. Qualitative research is not meant to “tell the whole story”. The main emphasis is on a specific case (or cases in a multisite design) and not the total population of possible cases (Stake, 1988). Stake (1988) explains that “in the case study, there may or may not be an ultimate interest in the generalizable...the search for an understanding of the particular case, in its idiosyncrasy and its complexity” (p.268).

An exploratory case study research method was used for this study. The following definitions describe the case study method involved, followed by the data collection procedures, participants, data analysis, and procedures that were used to study the influence of gaming revenue on schools with Indian student enrollment.

### ***Exploratory Case Study Design***

There are several definitions of the case study method; some are more specific than others. For instance, Creswell (2003) briefly defines and describes the case study as follows:

The case study is a research strategy in which the researcher explores in depth a program, an event, an activity, a process, or one or more individuals. The cases are bounded by time and activity, and researchers collect detailed information using a variety of data collection procedures over a sustained period of time (p.15).

Yin (1994) similarly describes the case study, adding that it is adaptable and inclusive and relies on multiple sources of evidence.

The case study method is adaptable because it can be used to collect either quantitative or qualitative data, or both. The inclusiveness of the case study is based on its use of multiple sources of evidence. According to Yin (1994), the use of multiple sources of evidence "...essentially provide multiple measures of the same phenomenon. Consequently, one analysis of case study methods found that those case studies using multiple sources of evidence were rated more highly, in terms of their overall quality" (p. 92). However, case study results cannot be generalized to a population or "universe" like those found in survey research. On the contrary, case study research relies on analytic generalization, rather than universal generalization, where the researcher's purpose is to "...generalize the study's results to some broader theory" (p. 36). The goal and objective of case study research is to develop and expand theories about the phenomenon being studied, in essence, providing a more in-depth understanding of a particular issue(s).

*Exploratory case study.* Case studies are used for various research purposes (Yin, 1994). In this dissertation, the case study design was selected to explore the phenomenon of Indian gaming and its effect on tribally controlled schools because of its ability to use a variety of evidence, a characteristic that is important when exploring a topic for which data is meager. In addition, according to Yin (1994) the case study is an appropriate choice when the research question or questions include "how" and "what" questions.

For the reasons previously mentioned, the exploratory case study methodology will be implemented for the purposes of this study. A single case study of a tribally controlled school within a Midwestern tribal reservation is the basis of the research.

### **Data Collection**

According to Yin (2003), evidence for case studies is derived from six main sources. These include: (a) documents, (b) archival records, (c) interviews, (d) direct observations, (e) participant-observations, and (f) artifacts. In addition to the sources previously mentioned, the researcher must give a fair amount of attention to the following overriding principals: (a) multiple sources of evidence, (b) a case study database, and (c) a chain of evidence (i.e., the data collected, related links to within the data collection process, and the conclusions drawn) (Yin, 2003). The use of multiple sources of evidence in case studies allows a researcher to address a broader range of historical, attitudinal, and behavioral concepts. In essence, the most important advantage presented by using multiple sources of evidence is the development of *converging lines of inquiry*, (i.e., a process of triangulation). In addition, Stake (1995) describes *methodological triangulation* as the most widely used of all triangulation protocols for case studies. It is the process of following direct observation with a review of old records (Stake, 1995). Developing a case study database is essential to this process. Notes are likely to be the most common element of a database for case studies. However, the researcher's notes may take a variety of forms; for example, interviews, observations, or document analysis may be kept as handwritten, typed, audio taped, or computer files (Stake, 1995).

According to Stake (1995), an important principle to be followed in order to increase *construct validity* and *reliability* of the information involved in a case study, is to maintain a proper chain of evidence. As Stake (1995) suggests, accurately following this principle allows an external observer—in this situation, the reader of the case study—to follow the origin of any evidence ranging from initial research questions to the essential case study conclusions.

### ***Development of the Interview Protocol***

The tribe and tribal school participants were contacted ahead of time to solicit interest and encourage participation. Various types of data were collected for this study. A series of semi-structured interviews were conducted with stakeholders from both the tribe and tribal school that included: (a) the tribal vice-chairman, assistant tribal finance director, and higher education director; (b) superintendent, business manager, principal, special education director, technology coordinator and the culture teacher from the school. In addition, the tribal school board was interviewed. The interview sessions were audio taped and later transcribed to reflect information and accurate data. In addition, certain documents were collected during the research process. For example, archival school financial records, tribal gaming information, minutes of school board and tribal council meetings, and other public documents and official reports that were pertinent to the exploratory study were attained. Also, triangulation of data was used in this study to validate the findings.

The researcher conducted face-to face interviews with those previously mentioned. A semi-structured interview protocol was developed for use in this study to ensure that each participant was asked the same questions (see Appendix C for a copy of the interview protocol). The interview protocol included a combination of open-ended questions and structured questions aimed at gathering data for thematic and comparative analysis. The open-ended questions addressed demographic issues as well as topics related to gaming revenue and its significance to school and community. The researcher probed issues raised by participants in order to broaden the depth of information collected. The interview protocol was divided into the following three sections:

The first section described the directions of the interview protocol (see Appendix A). The second section collected tribal demographic information (see Appendix B) on the following items: (a) tribal structure (i.e., how many councilmen or women including the chairman are elected into tribal offices); (b) the length of their terms in office; (c) total profit from gaming operations each year; (d) total tribal enrollment; (e) the number of casinos located on tribal land; (f) whether the tribe is rural or urban; (g) education programs supported by gaming contributions from the tribe; (h) tribal infrastructure; (i) reservation size in terms of area; and (j) how many tribal employees are hired to oversee education programs and what their positions are. The second section also included demographic information on the tribal school such as: (a) total student population in the school for the 2005-2006 school year; (b) student percentage by race; (c) location of the school (i.e., rural or urban); (d) names of tribes represented in the school; (e) the number of administrators, teachers, and non-certified staff employed in the school; (f) money

received from gaming used for new school construction and/or renovation projects; (g) total budget for the 2005-2006 school year including money received from gaming contributions and federal and state aid; (h) the extent to which money received from gaming is used to support curriculum development, strategic planning, and other education programs in the school; (i) the number of American Indian and non-Indian educators employed at the school and their positions; and (j) the age of the school and other facilities used for education purposes.

Section three described the interview questions provided for tribal officials, including the superintendent, business manager, technology coordinator, special education director, culture teacher, and principal from the tribal school (see Appendix C). The tribal school board will also be interviewed for this case study. The primary question was used to develop the overall sequence of interview questions for the participants in this study: What are the perceptions of tribal and school leaders towards how gaming money is used in both public and tribally controlled schools? In what ways is gaming money making a difference in public and tribally controlled schools? Secondary questions addressed in the interview protocol included the following: Student academic achievement, parent involvement, salaries for school personnel, language and culture, facilities and equipment, special education, and perceptions of gaming money and its influence on the school and community.

Each participant in this study was expected to be interviewed approximately three times. This included face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, and email journals. However, due to unforeseen circumstances some of the interviewees chose not to

participate. The interview protocol was introduced to the participants by sections. In essence, this was done to increase the richness, reliability and validity of the data collected by probing and exploring information conducive to the key stakeholders' perceptions on how gaming money is used in both a public and tribally controlled school.

### **Participants**

A tribally controlled school was chosen for this study because of the unique relationship between Indian gaming and Indian education. The participants in this study included the tribal vice-chairman, tribal assistant finance director, tribal school superintendent, principal, special education director, school business manager, technology coordinator, culture teacher, higher education director, and the school board from a Midwestern tribe. The tribal vice-chairman is actually a female. She has several years of experience in tribal government. She is an enrolled member of the Midwestern tribe. According to other tribal participants, her leadership is paramount to the self-determination efforts of the tribe. The tribal assistant finance director is relatively new to the tribe and is an enrolled member of another tribe. The tribal school superintendent or administrator has served the school and community for the past eight years. She is well respected and is not only an enrolled member of the tribe but also pursuing a doctorate degree from an accredited institution. The K-12 principal is nearing retirement and is non-Native. He spends 50% of his time in each building. The K-8 building is located a few miles away from the high school. The special education director is a female, an enrolled member of the tribe, and has served as past principal for the tribal school. The

tribal school business manager is female, non-Native and has served in that capacity for seven years. The technology director is male, non-Native, and has served as the director for five years. The language and culture teacher is female, an enrolled tribal member, and has eleven years of experience. The higher education director is female, an enrolled tribal member, and has assumed the position for nine years. The nine member school board is all enrolled tribal members, five female and four male. Some school board members are parents that have children attending the tribal school.

The tribe was chosen according to the literature review in this study that revealed at least 13 tribes within the United States successfully contribute gaming revenue to tribal schools including education programs. The tribe and tribal school were selected using the purposeful selected sample strategy as described by Creswell (1998). According to Creswell (1998): “In a *phenomenological study*, it is essential that all participants experience the phenomenon being studied” (p. 118). This sample strategy works well when all individuals being studied have a chance to experience the phenomenon (Creswell, 1998). Once the tribal school was identified, the tribal officials, school administrators, business manager, school board, special education director, technology coordinator and culture teacher were contacted by telephone to explain the study and interview process and to ensure participation. In addition, cover letters (see Appendix D) were mailed. The cover letter provided details regarding the study including a description of the study, instructions, an agreed upon time for the interviews, consent form, and the first section of the interview protocol. The interviews and interview protocol were divided into three sections. Each section was mailed to the participants

prior to an agreed upon time for the actual interview. A follow-up telephone call was made to ensure the cover letter and other items previously mentioned reached their destination.

### ***Member Checking***

Participants were given the opportunity to make corrections to their interview responses. Approximately three weeks after completing the initial interview phase, participants received a copy of the synthesized interview results by email. Participants were asked to verify the synthesized interview results by acknowledging that it captured what they said during the actual interviews and email journals. Approximately five weeks following the interviews, the school administrators, tribal officials, school business manager, special education director, teachers, and school board members involved in the study were mailed a copy of the results along with a thank you card.

### **Data Analysis**

Data were analyzed using NVIVO 7.0 for the qualitative data. For the analysis the following sequence was planned.

### ***Coding***

Examination of data from the face-to-face and telephone interviews and the email journals allowed selection of key words and sentences relating to the research questions from the original texts. These were coded into folders called free nodes. NVIVO 7.0

automatically color codes the free nodes and displays them as coding stripes to be used in reporting information. Free nodes are a data analysis process specifically designed to cluster information pertaining to the research questions. In addition, the frequencies of free nodes were analyzed to examine the relationships and responses from the participants (Appendix E). In order to better answer the research questions, data matrices were also used in the data analysis process to see what patterns and themes emerged from the coding sequence. For example, Appendix F shows the most frequently occurring themes including data matrices. In addition, Appendix G provides a definition of terms involving the coding presence for matrices. The information illustrated in the data matrices provides an in-depth analysis of the topic/themes that emerged from Table 4.1.

The validity and reliability of the topic/themes that emerged in Table 4.1 were checked for clarity and consistency with peer researchers including advisors and professors. The transcriptions from face-to-face, telephone, and email journal interviews were coded using NVIVO and reviewed. Peer researchers, advisors, and professors concurred that the emerging topic/themes in Table 4.1 were a reliable and valid source for the study.

According to Miles and Huberman (1994), diversity underscores a central theme. There is no right or wrong way for constructing a matrix design. In other words, matrix design is a creative, imagiNative, and systemic task that researchers use to make sense of the database. Consequently, the question is not whether the researcher is building the right matrix but rather is it meaningful and constructive in developing reasonable and sustained answers to the questions being addressed (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

### *Interviews and Email Journal*

The study used face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, and email journals. The interview protocol consisted of fourteen open ended, semi-structured questions and several probing questions. The interview protocol (Appendix C) was intentionally divided into thirds in order to provide for a rich data collection process. Interviews occurred on three separate occasions using the three types of interview strategies. A total of ten individual participants and one group of participants participated in the face-to-face, telephone interviews, and email journals. Participants included the tribal school board (group interview), vice-chairman, assistant financial officer, tribal school superintendent, principal, business manager, special education director, language and culture teacher, technology coordinator, and higher education coordinator. Each interview, including the email journals, was audio taped and transcribed. In addition, participants of the tribe and tribal school were asked to give demographic information prior to commencing the main questions.

NVIVO 7.0 data analysis software allowed loading transcribed texts of information obtained from the face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, and email journals into sub-folders called free nodes. Free nodes are developed from the participants' perceptions by clustering bits of information that relate to the research questions. This information is later examined to look for emerging themes.

Matrices were used to summarize information on qualitative data (i.e., displaying patterns and frequencies that emerge from the data) in order to categorize the responses of the tribal officials, school administrators, school board, business manager, and cultural

teacher and technology director and to identify possible themes within response categories (i.e., student achievement, demographics, facilities and equipment, special education services, salaries for teachers, administrators, and other school personnel, language and culture, parent involvement, and other areas of the school and community).

The following matrix is an example of the matrices used for this study.

<b>Theme</b>	<b>Supporting Qualitative Data</b>
Use of gaming money is a necessity	One teacher said, “without the use of gaming money, the school would not have the essential programs”
Ambivalence about use of gaming money	
And so on and so forth	

According to Glaser (1992), qualitative analysis means any kind of analysis that produces assumptions or ideas and hypotheses that are not arrived at by statistical methods. In essence, qualitative analysis may be accomplished with data arrived at quantitatively or qualitatively or in some combination.

Consequently, when writing a book or paper, researchers theoretically sample for more data—the end justifies the means. For example, Glaser (1992) states: “It’s all data for the analysis. Whether soft or hard it is just grist for the mill of constant comparison and analyzing” (p. 12).

### **Procedures**

This study was motivated by the need to examine the Indian gaming fund contributions to a tribally controlled school in the Midwest. This is done using in-depth semi-structured interviews including telephone interviewing, and email journaling. The basic aim of the face-to face interview questions (see Appendix C) was to gather information about the topic. In addition, tables, figures, and pie charts were used to illustrate the impact of gaming revenue on the tribal school's education programs. As a result, the contrasting descriptions and findings of qualitative information will provide an insight or baseline foundation for the subjects of this study. As previously mentioned, the researcher looked for themes that emerged through a matrix design.

### ***Observations***

In addition to the interviews, visits to the research site and tribal headquarters provided added insights. Observations and tours of the tribal school facility allowed for recording the amazing and unique architecture and design. Observations also extended to a school board meeting, gatherings at the tribal headquarters, and the main gaming facility. Field data collection coincided with the tribe's annual fall harvest week. As a result, classroom observations were difficult due to all the fall harvest activities and limited school hours. At the end of each day, note sorting preceded entering information onto a laptop computer for storage and future data analysis.

### ***Documents***

The two main documents obtained were: (1) tribal school budget reports, which provided an overall picture of how much revenue the tribal school received and from what sources, and (2) the tribal schools BIE Report Card (i.e., performance indicators on student achievement according to the Adequate Yearly Progress guidelines set by the NCLB Act of 2001). In addition, other collected documents included memos, school philosophy and mission statement, tribal school strategic plan, tribe and school demographics, class schedules, meeting agendas, and school policies (e.g., handbooks).

### ***Obtaining Tribal Council Consent for Tribal School Research***

The tribal council received for review a copy of the interview script, demographic information, and a cover letter explaining the purpose of the research project. Once the tribal council approved the study (approximately eleven weeks later) the tribe sent a letter of acceptance. The only stipulation was that the results of the study be shared with the tribal council and the research participants of the tribal school. The tribal secretary was the main contact person for conducting the field research and ensuring a successful visit with the tribal stakeholders and research participants.

In addition to tribal review, the proposal for this study was submitted to the Penn State University Office for Regulatory Compliance to undergo a Human Subjects Review. Prior to the field research, a copy of the informed consent (see Appendix E) was mailed to all participants including the tribal council for review.

### **Limitations**

Three study limitations should be addressed. First, the onsite field research was brief and may have limited the researcher's ability to observe more intrinsic phenomenal types of data (e.g., classroom teaching and methods). Second, information provided in this study is limited to a purposeful selected sample of one tribally controlled school that receives gaming contributions from the governing tribe. This is a relatively new phenomenon. As a result, data on which to draw on has been difficult to obtain. Finally, some bias may have occurred since I (the researcher) am not a member of the Midwestern tribe and served as the interviewer, and assessed the participants' perceptions to open-ended questions posed in the face-to-face, telephone interviews, and email journals. However, this bias should be insignificant since actions were taken to reduce bias (e.g., conducting reliability checks for coding of open-ended answers, tape recording interviews, and asking a tribal member to contact participants to schedule face-to-face and telephone interviews).

### **Summary**

The information in this chapter followed guidelines for qualitative research methodology and an exploratory case study design. This included developing the interview questions necessary for the participants for field research. Interviews were divided into three sections involving face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, and email journals. Topic/themes emerged as a result of using NVIVO data analysis

software. Matrices were used to describe and further analyze the data collected. The following chapter describes the tribe and tribal school descriptions and findings.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DESCRIPTIONS AND FINDINGS**

Information in this chapter provides a clear and concise descriptive and exploratory case study analysis of tribal and school leaders' perceptions of the extent to which gaming revenue is making a difference in a tribally controlled school in the Midwest United States. This section begins with the main research questions followed by the study's findings, including a demographic description of the tribe and school. In addition, descriptions are provided for each research question section of the face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, and email journals. Consequently, answers to the following research questions arise from figures, tables, frequencies, ethnography, and analysis of topic/themes.

#### **Primary Question**

1. What are the perceptions of tribal and school leaders towards the use of gaming money in tribally controlled schools? In what ways is gaming money making a difference in tribally controlled schools?

#### **Secondary Questions**

2. What are the perceptions of tribal and school leaders toward the impact that gaming money is having on student academic achievement?
3. To what extent and under what circumstances are gaming monies used to support facilities and equipment, special education, culture and language

activities, salaries of school personnel, and parent/community involvement?

What are other uses of gaming money, if any?

4. What are the demographic characteristics of the tribe and its schools that receive gaming money?

## **Descriptions**

### *Tribal Demographics and Description*

The tribe and tribally controlled school are in a Midwestern region of the United States. The nine member tribal council consists of a chairman, vice-chairman, secretary, treasurer and five councilmen. Five females and four males constitute the governing body. The chairman and three councilmen are male. The vice-chairman, secretary, treasurer, and the two other council members are female. All members of the council are elected to three-year terms.

The tribe operates one main casino with two other small outlets located in convenience stores. The tribe started Class II gaming (bingo parlors) in 1976 and later in 1992 moved on to Class III gaming (e.g., table games and slot machines) that includes a 99-year gaming compact with the state. The tribe's gross profit from gaming operations was approximately \$150 million for 2005-2006. The tribe's reservation includes both rural and urban settings and encompasses several thousand acres, which are in close proximity to a non-tribal urban area. In addition, the tribe hopes to one day reclaim land lost due to the Dawes Allotment Act of 1887. The intent of the Dawes Act was to

assimilate the Indians by parceling off reservation land and ceding the sub-units, for farming purposes, to individual land owners, which included Indians and non-Indians.

The estimated population of the tribe is 17,000. Approximately 4,000 tribal members are under the age of 18. In addition, an estimated 11,000 tribal members' fall into the 18 to 65 age range and another 2000 tribal members are over the age of 65. Most of the tribe's school-aged children attend nearby public schools. An estimated 1,600 students are divided among five public school districts in the region.

The tribal police department consists of approximately 30 police officers. They are cross-deputized with the county. The tribe does not have its own court system however; they do have an appeals system that is maintained by 11 judges. The law enforcement is primarily funded with tribal funds (i.e., gaming revenue) but they also receive some state and federal assistance.

Gaming and federal funding support the tribe's entire infrastructure and operations. For example, the tribally controlled school system, Head Start, daycare centers, higher education, adult community education center, strategic planning and staff development, housing projects, health care, assisted living (elder care) programs, land management, public works, museum, language and cultural center, waste management and water treatment facility all obtain full or partial support from gaming revenues. The tribe employs an estimated 4,000 individuals who are both Indian and non-Indian (e.g., 45% non-Indian and 55% American Indian). In addition, the tribe contributes approximately \$3 million a year from gaming revenue to tribal school and education

programs. The tribe is the seventh largest employer in the County. The tribe also operates an agriculture and Black Angus cattle farm.

The following section provides demographic information for the city of the Midwestern state on social, economic, and housing characteristics for 1999. The social characteristics include the following: (a) population over 25 five years of age (667); (b) high school graduates (478), 71%; (c) bachelor's degree or higher (91), 13.6%; (d) civilian veterans over the age of 18 (83), 11.7% (e) disability status including those over the age of 5 (234), 22.4%; (f) foreign born (58), 5.3%; (g) males married over the age of 15 (207), 67%; (h) females married over the age of 15 (191), 40.6%; and (i) speak a language other than English (192), 18.4%.

The next section provides information on economic characteristics that include: (a) workforce over the age of 16 (434), 59.3%; (b) median household income for 1999 (\$31,588); (c) median family income (\$35,288); (d) per-capita income (\$13,766); (f) families below poverty level (51), 18.3%; and (g) individuals below the poverty level (199), 18.5%.

Information in the next section describes housing characteristics that include: (a) single-family occupied homes (217); (b) median home value (\$102,000); and (c) monthly mortgage payment (\$773).

### ***Tribal School Demographics and Description***

The K-8 tribal school opened in 1979 with a student enrollment of approximately 100 students and one school administrator. Emphasis was on development of a tribal

specific curriculum with a predominantly American Indian staff. During the early 1980s, the school, for the first time, offered special education services to its students. Today, the tribal school employs approximately eight special education teachers including a special education coordinator. The special education department serves approximately 30 students ranging from mildly to severely mentally disabled. The tribal school does not directly fund the special education program with gaming contributions; its primary support is via the BIA/BIE.

Historically, the student population at the tribal school has experienced significant growth. The kindergarten moved from a half day schedule to a full day program. Near the end of the decade approximately 200 students attended the tribal school. An assistant principal was hired and the school became a candidate for accreditation through the North Central Accreditation Association. Supplemental services increased to include Chapter I reading and math, speech/language therapy, and learning disabilities support, as well as an early childhood exceptional needs program. Other programs incorporated into the curriculum included athletics, library services, counseling, and drug prevention. In addition, the BIA/BIE selected the tribal school to participate in the Effective Schools Program. Only thirteen Bureau funded schools were chosen from a list of over seventy applicants. The Effective Schools Program provided funding for equipment needs, training for staff, and evaluation. During the early 1990s the school's student population grew to an estimated 250 with 60 new kindergarten students. The school began to feel the strain of over crowded classrooms and facilities. An action plan by the tribal school board for a new elementary school included a request for construction funds from the

BIA. The BIA denied construction money but did remit approximately \$10,000 for computer equipment. By the mid 1990s the school integrated a holistic language program into the curriculum. The first completed school evaluation consortium review was positive. The review generated specific recommendations that included strategies to improve school objectives and develop activities in the area of reading and language arts. Consequently, the schools' student population continued to grow, and no limit is foreseen.

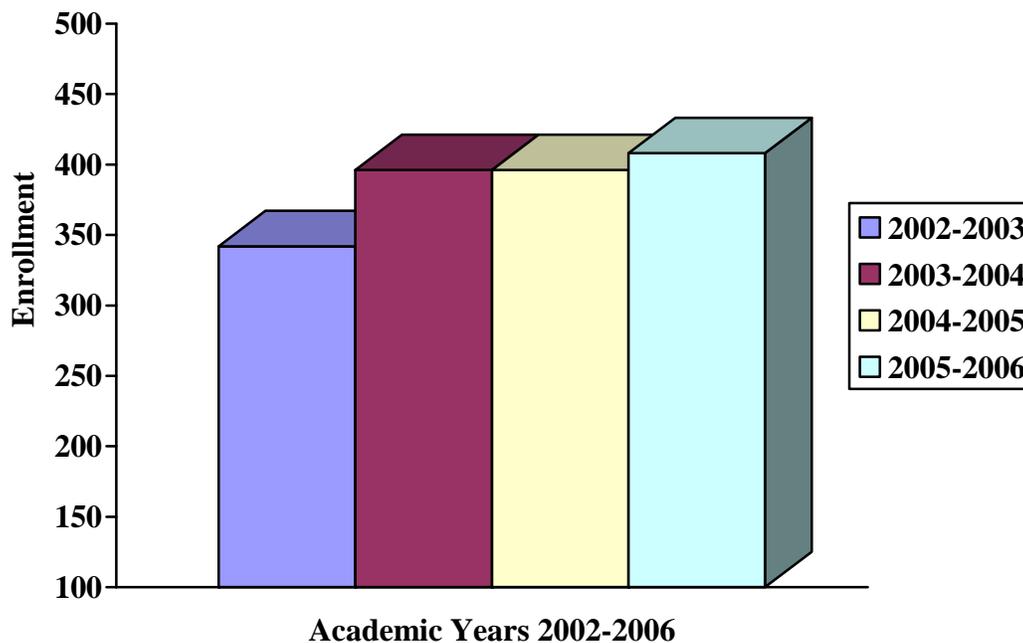
By 1995, a new K-8 facility was built, and the tribal school received full accreditation by the North Central Accreditation Association. The construction costs including furniture and equipment for the new tribal school totaled approximately \$15 million. The dome shaped architectural design contains an estimated 170,000 square feet of space. In addition, of the \$15 million budgeted for the construction of the new tribal school, an estimated \$12 million came from a bond issue (i.e., bank loan). Tribal contributions from gaming revenues were the revenue sources for annual payments. The new tribal school offers inspiration and a foundation for display of culture-based information. The architectural design inside the school contains features that are pertinent to the Native American language and culture. This includes wampum belts and the creation story, clan symbols, life cycle and basket designs.

Today, the tribal school houses approximately 415 students and employs approximately 89 staff. Staff includes: (a) one building administrator (superintendent); (b) principal; (c) business manager; (d) special education coordinator; (e) technology coordinator; (f) eight clerical workers; (g) counselor; (h) Family and Child Education

Program (FACE) coordinator; (i) seven language and culture teachers; (j) eight primary teachers; (k) six music, art, and physical education teachers; (l) three resource staff; (m) eight special education teachers; (n) three student services facilitators; (o) three FACE teachers; (p) 10 teachers' aides; (q) and 26 non-certified staff that include bus drivers, truant officers, cooks, and custodians. Of the 89 staff members, an estimated 39 are Indigenous or American Indian. Also, the tribal school has a nine-member school board for governance.

The following figures represent key performance indicators for the tribal school (see Figures 4.1 - 4.4). Figure 4.1 includes student population followed by the number of students in special education, yearly dropout rate, and graduation rate. Subsequent discussion covers relevant topic themes including participants' perceptions.

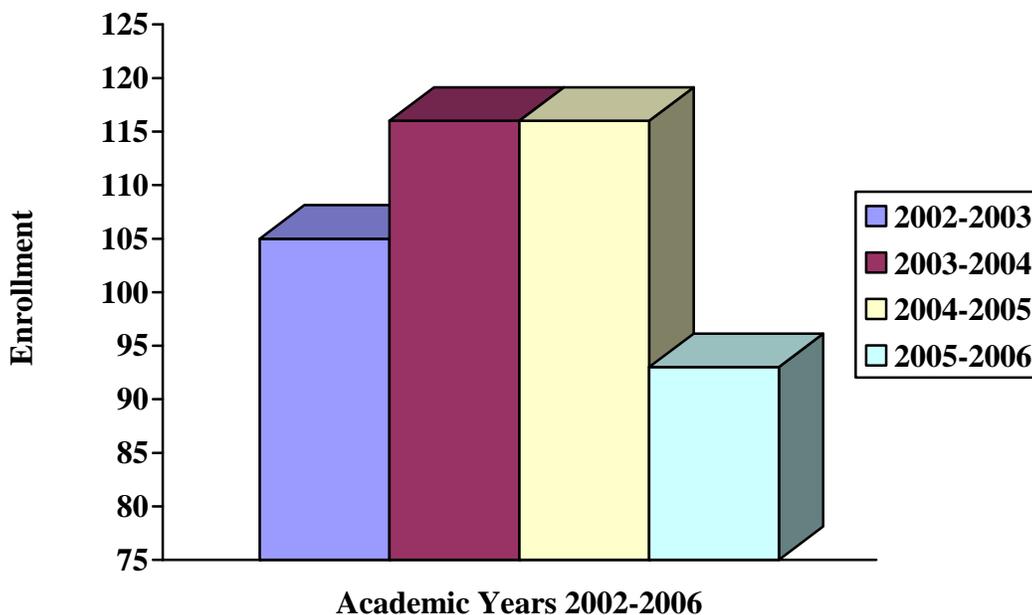
Figure 4.1.

*Tribal School Enrollments*

(Source: Tribal school district pamphlet, 2005-06)

The pupil counts, illustrated in the tribal school's annual Bureau of Indian Education (BIE) Report Card for the years 2002 to 2006, include enrollment for the following school years: (a) 2002-03 (342); (b) 2003-04 (396); (c) 2004-05 (396); (d) 2005-06 (408). From 2002-03 to 2003-04, enrollment increased by 54 students. The pupil count showed no increase for the years 2003-04 to 2004-05, but increased by 12 students during the 2005-06 school year. As part of the Indian Schools Equalization Program (ISEP), the tribal school receives federal funding based on student population.

Figure 4.2.

*Tribal School Enrollment – Number of Students Receiving Special Education Services*

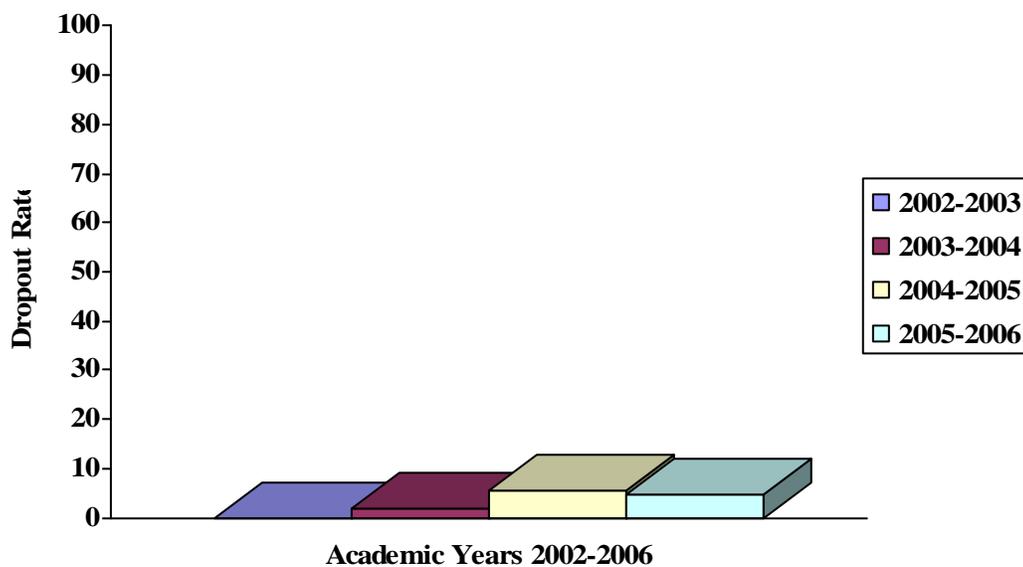
(Source: Tribal school district pamphlet, 2005-06)

The pupil count for students receiving special education services for the years 2002-2006 were: (a) 2002-03, 105; (b) 2003-04, 116; (c) 2004-05, 116 and (d) 2005-06, 93. According to Figure 4.3, from 2002 to 2006, pupil counts for students receiving special education services in the tribal school is decreasing. It is interesting to note that the pupil count for the tribal school students receiving special education services is actually decreasing. This is contrary to past research that AI/AN students are overrepresented in special education (Faircloth & Tippeconnic, 2000). According to the

special education coordinator, students are involved in open enrollment and transferring to five surrounding school districts. More information is provided later in this chapter.

Figure 4.3.

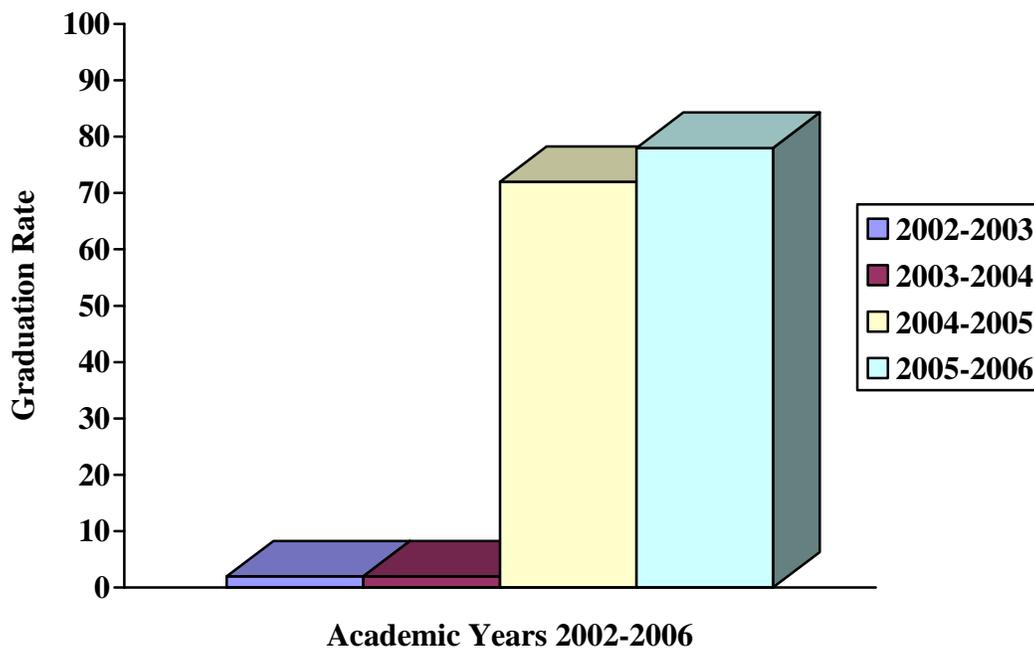
*Tribal School Dropout Rate*



(Source: Tribal school district pamphlet, 2005-06)

The K-8 tribal school had no records for the 2002-03 school year. The tribal school reported 2.02% dropout rate for 2003-04, 5.61% dropout rate for 2004-05, and a 4.55% dropout rate for 2005-06.

Figure 4.4.

*Graduation Rate*

(Source: Tribal school district pamphlet, 2005-06)

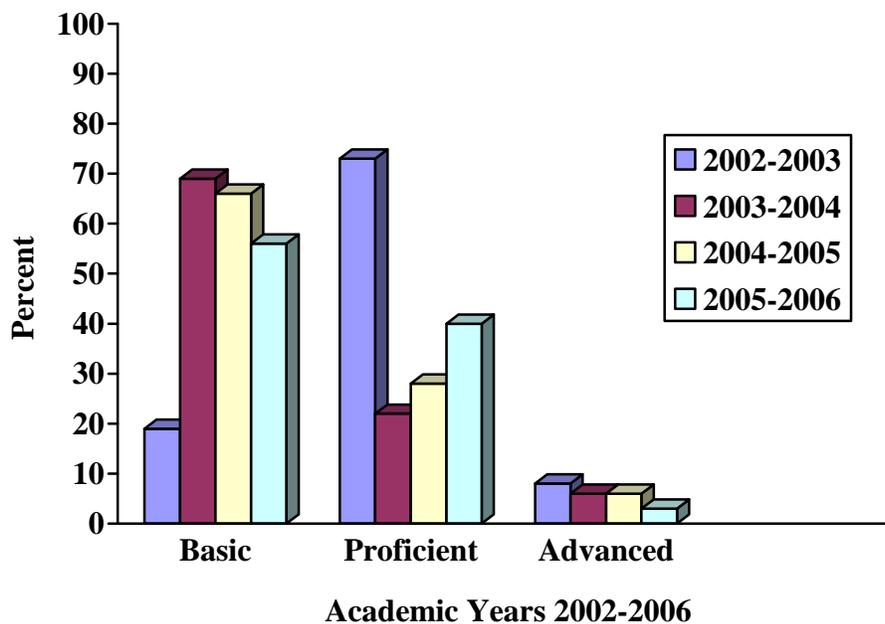
Between 2002 and 2004, the tribal school did not report dropout rates to the Bureau of Indian Education. As a result, the graduation rate appears as “no data.” The school was in the midst of the NCLB of 2001 transformation and did not keep records for these years. The graduation rate for 2004-05 was 72% and 78% for the 2005-06 school years.

### *Educational Advances*

The K-8 tribal school made AYP for the 2005-2006 academic school year according to the Bureau of Indian Education Report Card. Below are examples of the areas of proficiency in math achievement, language arts, reading, and technology for students in grade levels K-8 (see Figures 4.5 thru 4.12). Examples also include results for students receiving special education services in these areas.

Figure 4.5.

#### *Percent Proficient in Language Arts*

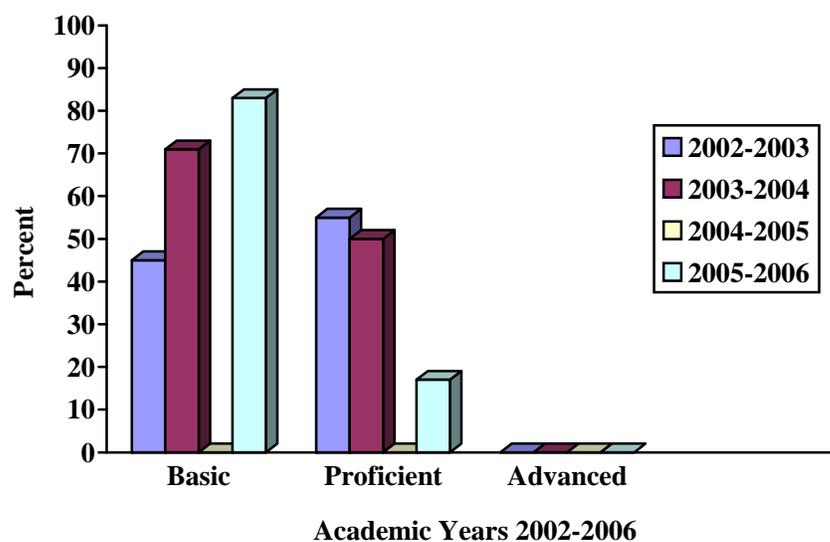


(Source: Tribal school district pamphlet, 2005-06)

For the years 2002 through 2004 students in grades four and eight participated in testing for language arts. The proficiency levels for 2002-03 were: basic (19), proficient (73), and advanced (8). The proficiency levels for 2003-04 were: basic (69), proficient (22), and advanced (6). The proficiency levels for 2004-05 were: basic (66), proficient (28), and advanced (6). In 2005-06 the tribal school began testing for grade levels three through eight in accordance with the state assessment standards. The proficiency levels for 2005-06 were: basic (56), proficient (40), and advanced (3). It is interesting to note that although the percent for proficiency levels declined and then increased, the trend for advanced levels continued to decline during the four-year period.

Figure 4.6

*Percent Proficient for Students Receiving Special Education Services*

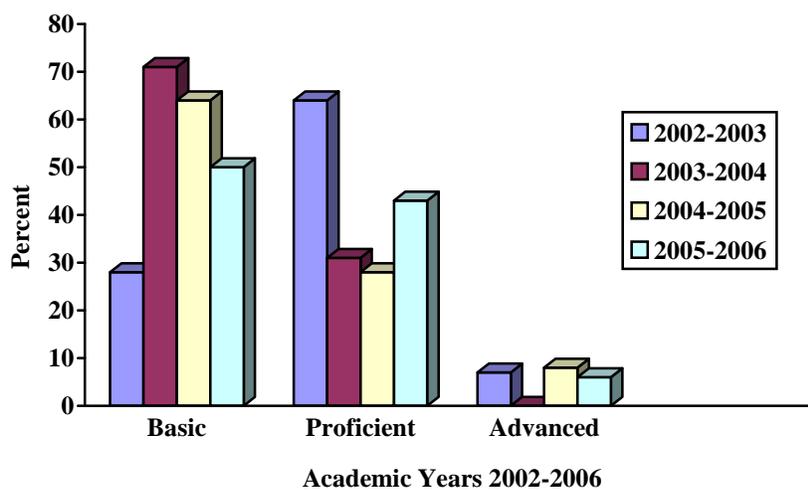


(Source: Tribal school district pamphlet, 2005-06)

For the years 2002 through 2004 testing language arts for students receiving special education services in grade levels four and eight showed the following. The proficiency levels for 2002-03 were: basic (45), proficient (55), and advanced (no data). The proficiency levels for 2003-04 were: basic (71), proficient (50), and advanced (no data). The proficiency levels for 2004-05 were: basic (no data), proficient (no data), and advanced (no data). In 2005-06 the tribal school began to test in grade levels three through eight, in accordance with the state assessment standards. The proficiency levels for 2005-06 were: basic (83), proficient (17), and advanced (no data). According to this figure basic proficiency levels increased while percent proficiency levels decreased over the four-year span.

Figure 4.7

*Percent Proficient in Math*

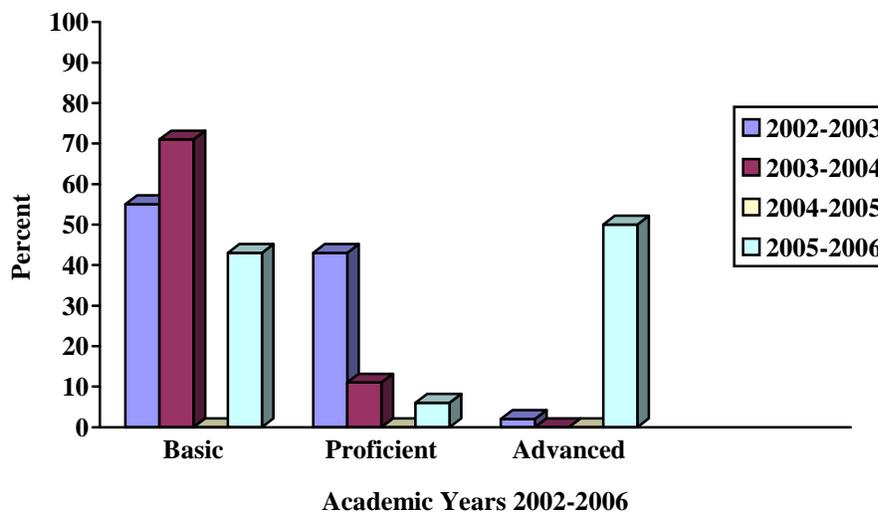


(Source: Tribal school district pamphlet, 2005-06)

For the years 2002 through 2004 students in grade levels four and eight were tested for proficiency in math. The proficiency levels for 2002-03 were: basic (28), proficient (64), and advanced (7). The proficiency levels for 2003-04 were: basic (71), proficient (31), and advanced (no data). The proficiency levels for 2004-05 were: basic (64), proficient (28), and advanced (8). In 2005-06 the tribal school began testing in grade levels three through eight in accordance with the state assessment standards. The proficiency levels for 2005-06 were: basic (50), proficient (43), and advanced (6). The trend in percent proficiency levels for basic, proficient, and advanced levels are consistent.

Figure 4.8

*Percent of Proficiency Levels in Math for Students Receiving Special Education Services*

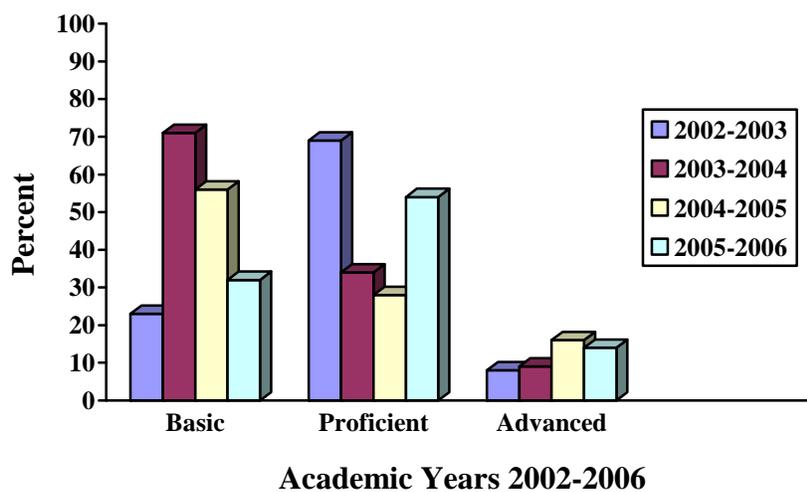


(Source: Tribal school district pamphlet, 2005-06)

For the years 2002 through 2004 students receiving special education services were tested in grade levels four and eight for proficiency in math. The proficiency levels for 2002-03 were: basic (55), proficient (43), and advanced (2). The proficiency levels for 2003-04 were: basic (71), proficient (11), and advanced (no data). The proficiency levels for 2004-05 were: basic (no data), proficient (no data), and advanced (no data). In 2005-06 the tribal school began testing in grade levels three through eight in accordance with the state assessment standards. The proficiency levels for 2005-06 were: basic (43), proficient (6), and advanced (50). According to this figure, students receiving special education services showed significant gains during the 2005-06 school year, especially for advanced levels.

Figure 4.9.

*Percent Proficient in Reading*

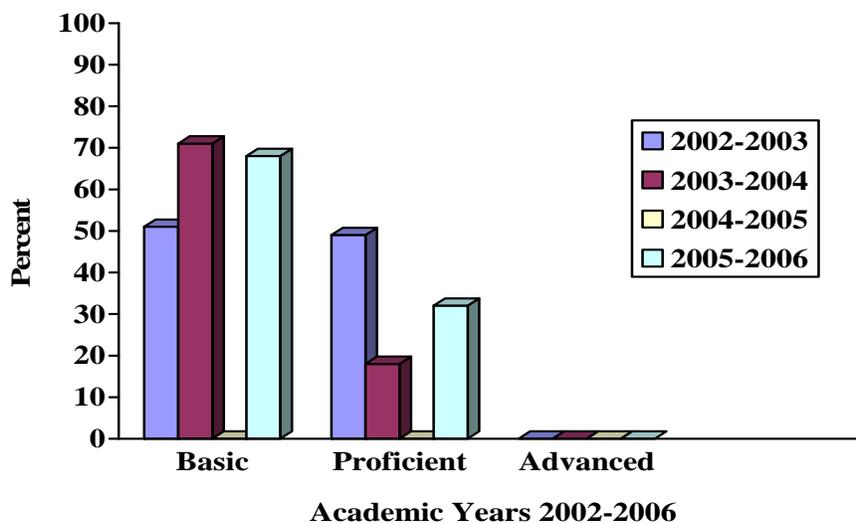


(Source: Tribal school district pamphlet, 2005-06)

For the years 2002 through 2004 students in grade levels four and eight were tested for reading proficiency. The proficiency levels for 2002-03 were: basic (23), proficient (69), and advanced (8). The proficiency levels for 2003-04 were: basic (56), proficient (34), and advanced (9). The proficiency levels for 2004-05 were: basic (56), proficient (28), and advanced (16). In 2005-06 the tribal school began testing in grade levels three through eight, in accordance with the state assessment standards. The proficiency levels for 2005-06 were: basic (32), proficient (54), and advanced (14). Proficient levels increased significantly during the 2005-06 school year in contrast to proficient levels for the 2003-04 and the 2004-05 school year.

Figure 4.10.

*Percent Proficient in Reading for Students Receiving Special Education Services*

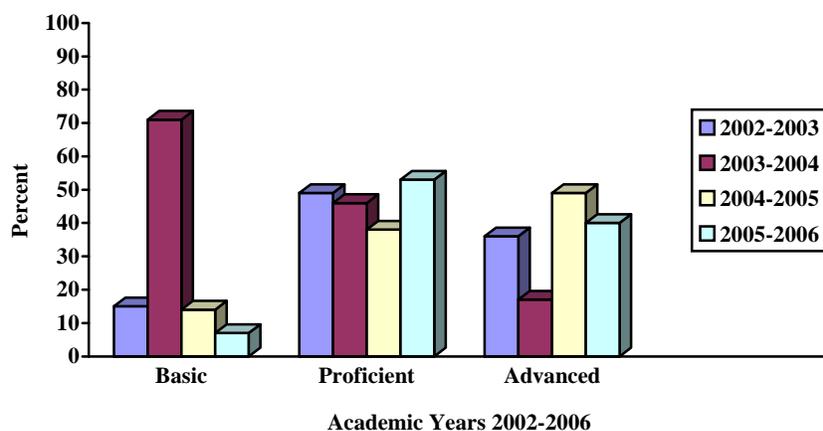


(Source: Tribal school district pamphlet, 2005-06)

For the years 2002 through 2004 special education students in grade levels four and eight were tested for reading proficiency. The proficiency levels for 2002-03 were: basic (51), proficient (49), and advanced (no data). The proficiency levels for 2003-04 were: basic (71), proficient (18), and advanced (no data). The proficiency levels for 2004-05 were: basic (no data), proficient (no data), and advanced (no data). In 2005-06 the tribal school began testing in grade levels three through eight, in accordance with the state assessment standards. The proficiency levels for 2005-06 were: basic (68), proficient (32), and advanced (no data). The percent levels for students receiving special education services remain constant for basic, proficient, and advanced. It is interesting to mention that the percent proficient levels are increasing again after two year trend of declining.

Figure 4.11.

*Percent Proficient in Technology*



(Source: Tribal school district pamphlet, 2005-06)

For the years 2002 through 2004 students in grade levels four and eight were tested for proficiency in technology. The proficiency levels for 2002-03 were: basic (15), proficient (49), and advanced (36). The proficiency levels for 2003-04 were: basic (37), proficient (46), and advanced (17). The proficiency levels for 2004-05 were: basic (14), proficient (38), and advanced (49). In 2005-06 the tribal school began testing in grade levels three through eight, in accordance with the state assessment standards. The proficiency levels for 2005-06 were: basic (7), proficient (53), and advanced (40). According to this figure, there has been a two-year trend of increased levels for proficient and advanced levels.

As previously illustrated, each figure signifies proficiency levels for core subject areas by percent for students at basic, proficient, and advanced levels. The tribal school receives approximately two-thirds of its funding from federal sources. As a result, the school has a responsibility to meet AYP as outlined by the NCLB Act of 2001 in order to continue to receive future funding allocations.

### ***Highly Qualified Teachers***

The following data illustrates information on highly qualified teachers for the tribal school. Data is displayed from the annual BIA report card for the 2005-06 school year. Subsequent years were not reported. Full time teaching positions available in the current school year (54); full time teachers new to the school (3); unfilled vacancies for full time teachers (0); total number of teachers (54); number of teachers at the end of the 2004-05 school year (53); teachers not offered continuing contracts (0); teachers retiring

(0); teachers returning (52); number of core area teachers (45); number of highly qualified core area teachers (45); current school principal tenure (5 years); number of core area classes taught (107); core area classes taught by highly qualified teachers (107); and core area teachers incorporating culture or language into their classes (0). In addition, the following information represents percent levels for the core area highly qualified teachers. The proficiency levels for 2005-06 were: basic (7); proficient (53); and advanced (40). Based on information obtained from tribal school documents (e.g., BIE Report Card) and the tribal school leaders' perceptions, the tribal school has met the NCLB Act of 2001 requirements for highly qualified teachers (Tribal school district pamphlet, 2005-06).

### **Findings**

Research Question #1: *What are the perceptions of tribal and school leaders towards the use of gaming money in tribally controlled schools? In what ways is gaming money making a difference in tribally controlled schools?*

As a result of an extensive analysis of transcribed interviews including participants' perceptions, documents, and observations the following topic/themes emerged.

Table 4.1 presents the themes that emerged from email journals, face-to-face discussions and telephone interviews.

Table 4.1.

*Themes Emerging from Interviews Regarding Tribal Gaming Funds*

Topic-Theme	Frequency of Topic/ Theme	Description of Topic-Theme
Strengths of tribal contribution	27	Provides jobs; keeps the tribal school operating; infrastructure; supports education, health, and extra curricular programs.
Parent and community involvement	26	Tribal contribution supports community feast, pow-wows, parent aides, story tellers, school board, strategic plan, and volunteering.
Facilities *renovation construction	23	Supports the construction of the new tribal elementary school and furnishings.
Equipment	16	Tribal contribution supports sporting equipment, computer labs, software curriculum, and other audio visuals (e.g., TVs, and VCRs).
Salaries	15	78% of the gaming revenue received by the tribal school is used for teacher salaries.
Language and culture	12	Funds the garden project, feast, two culture teacher salaries, aides, cultural and language curriculum, materials, and resources
Weaknesses of tribal contribution	12	Entitlement among the tribal members may become an issue; relying too much on tribal contribution could become a problem; some participants believe gaming brings in drugs and prostitution to the reservation; gaming may create pathological gamblers; gaming may not always be there and negatively affects outside funding sources, and the tribe is slow in matching funds for a school project.
Student achievement	11	Attendance, low student to teacher ratio, made AYP, ability to hire highly qualified teachers. State-of- the-art facilities positively affect school climate, high assessments, and graduation rates.
Athletics	10	Supports athletic programs including uniforms, salaries for coaches, and lights for sports complex.
Teacher to student ratio	6	Tribal contribution supports lower class sizes, ability to hire more teachers and teachers' aides.
Higher education	5	Tribal members are given the opportunity to attend college at no cost. Each member receives up to \$20,000 a year to attend college through tribal contribution (i.e., gaming revenue).
Breakfast and lunch	4	Annual tribal contribution is an estimated \$300,000.
Staff development	4	Tribal contribution indirectly supplements staff training, curriculum development, the purchasing of text books and supplies.
Health	3	Supports health care center, Family and Child Education program, and programs within the tribal school (e.g., vision, dental, immunization, and general care).

The topic/themes presented in Table 4.1 represent the scope and sequence of the emerging patterns in which gaming money is used for the tribe and tribal school. Table 4.1 includes the frequencies of the topic/themes by rank from highest to lowest, as well as a description of the perceptions regarding each. The most frequently occurring topic-theme in the coding process was strengths of tribal contribution. The least frequently occurring topic-theme was health. As these topic/themes demonstrate, gaming revenue has given the tribal school a means to prosper and to look towards the future with an optimistic lens. The frequencies and presence of relationships (See Appendix E) that emerged from the participants' perceptions indicate that saturation has occurred. For example, based on the process of gathering information and rigorous critical appraisal of the data from face-to-face, telephone, and email journal interviews including asking several questions no new pattern of themes, findings, and results emerged and are not likely to emerge.

The following perceptions provide information from the interviewees on the topic/themes that include: (a) strengths of tribal contribution; (b) parent involvement; (c) facilities and reconstruction; (d) equipment, salaries, language and culture; (e) student achievement; (f) weaknesses of tribal contribution; and (g) other uses of gaming money.

### *Strengths of Tribal Contribution*

Most of the participants interviewed for this study felt that money received from gaming revenue gives the tribal school and community the ability to become more self-

reliant. For example, gaming money becomes part of the general fund for the entire organization. As federal funding becomes limited, the tribal general funds help to support the other tribal entities in day-to-day operations to enable the programs to continue to operate without interruption of services to the community. For example, federal funding for the Johnson O'Mally program was cut during the 2005-2006 school year. Rather than totally eliminate this program, the tribal school was able to request gaming revenue or "tribal contribution" to fund this program. According to the language and culture teacher, "... gaming is the whole reason why we have a tribal school." The tribal vice chairman agreed "Everything is generated through gaming and you know before we were able to develop these partnerships, we were able to make very little progress."

Other interviewees agreed that gaming revenue in other departments, such as higher education, the library, youth recreation programs, and the community education center will help make the community more self-determined. In addition, a new water works and capital improvement process is funded entirely from gaming revenue.

According to one participant, "The extracurricular activities (i.e. athletics, class trips, etc.) are primarily funded by tribal contribution and fundraising. Any educational component, whether it be traditional or non, is matched with the tribal contribution from gaming." The same participant continued, "Tribal schools do not receive any share of property tax revenues collected for the school systems by the state and would not be able to do what we are doing if it weren't for gaming revenues." Another participant said, "Like any other funding, the educational impact of gaming funds is directly correlated

with identifying needs in the school system, an effective plan of action to meet those needs, and the ability to implement the plan with all stakeholders (students, parents, staff and community) in a timely manner.”

Several interviewees concurred that the tribal school would not exist in the form that it is today without gaming revenue or tribal contribution. If the school had to rely strictly on federal dollars the school would become second rate. One participant said, “I think we’re, we’re moving beyond that. And I think that working together with federal dollars and tribal dollars, we’re able to do more than if we had to rely on either of them alone. It’s a good partnership I think in this particular tribe.”

Gaming dollars give the tribe the opportunity to have a quality education system within reservation boundaries. The tribe also has the opportunity and the ability to have more funds to create better experiences for students and affords them more opportunities. According to one participant, “We really would not be able to have those activities the, the football team, the football team because all of the funding for that comes from tribal monies. And also it allows us to, to have smaller class sizes. We adjust the money that we get from the Bureau of Indian Education does not pay for all of the salaries. And we use tribal funds to cover that, which gives us the ability to have smaller class sizes, and a better teacher- to-student ratio.”

The least frequently occurring topic/theme was health. It is interesting to note that only a few participants in this study mentioned health or health care for the tribal members. Some of the participants in this study believe health is a separate entity that is primarily monitored through the FACE program.

Interesting findings from the face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, and email journals include the contrasting perceptions between tribal and school leaders. For example, the tribal leaders seemed to focus more on the infrastructure and socioeconomics of the tribe. As a result, the tribal school is only one of these entities. Tribal leaders, including representatives of the federal government, have a relationship and a trust responsibility to ensure health, education, and welfare to all tribal members. For example, the Indian Self-determination and Education Assistance Act of 1975 provides tribes the privilege to have control over their own affairs and well being by restoring language, culture, values, customs, socioeconomic development, and education (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001). However, when it comes to funding education there remains a paradox. What happens to the federal funding for the tribal school if the tribe becomes totally self-reliant on the use of gaming money? Will the federal government cut all funding to tribal schools that receive gaming money? This is probably why the tribe would not release any financial data information other than verbal estimates on gaming revenue. The tribal school leaders were concerned primarily with having enough money to fund positions and run educational programs. In addition, the tribal school participants basically concurred that gaming money is a special treat and feel very fortunate in accepting whatever contributions the tribe will give them.

Another interesting issue is the evidence of leadership. It is evident from my observations that the tribal and school leaders are very passionate about what they do, and that is lead and support tribal infrastructure as well as socioeconomic development including providing quality education for the tribal school students and adults within the

community. While observing, the morale at the tribal offices and the tribal school seemed consistently above average. The tribal officers and school administrators are respected by other tribal staff members. One tribal official has been voted into office for more than twenty years. The tribal school superintendent has been providing services to the tribal school for approximately eight years and is currently working towards a doctorate degree. According to some of the tribal school staff, she is a great leader and inspires the staff to do the best that they can. Tribal leaders believe gaming money is having a positive effect for the tribal school and blankets the entire operations of the school. Tribal school leaders believe gaming money is making a difference for the tribal school especially for salaries, athletics, language and culture, parent involvement activities, facilities, equipment, transportation, and student achievement.

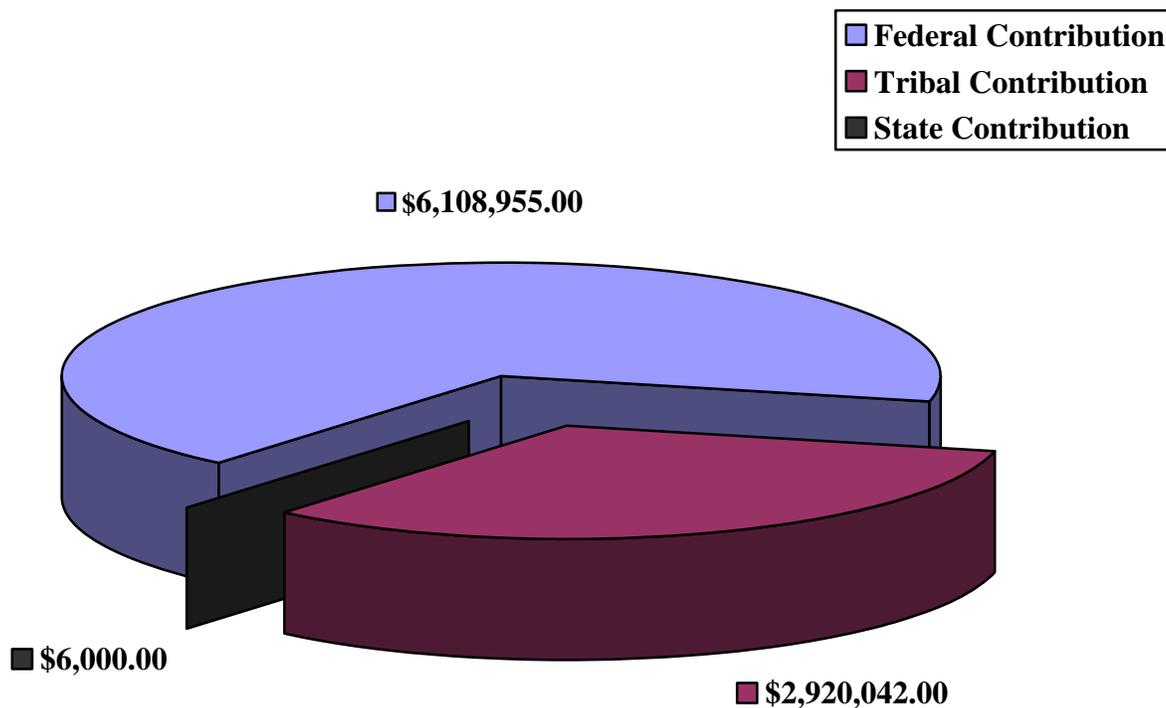
The tribal school budget includes federal, tribal, and state sources of funding. Disclosure of budget documents had the approval of the superintendent and tribal school business manager.

### ***Funding Sources***

The budget information in Figure 4.12 is for the 2005-2006 fiscal school year. The tribal school's administrators did not authorize the release of budget documents for previous years. The total budget for the tribal school for 2005-06 was \$9,028,997.

Figure 4.12.

*Sources of Funding for Tribal Schools*



(Source: Tribal school business manager)

Funding levels from federal sources include: ISEP, office of administration including salaries, \$2,037,068; special education, ISEP, \$367,206; gifted and talented, \$207,478; transportation, \$312,594; maintenance, \$1,018,900; parent involvement, Title IV; \$29,500; Title I, \$550,642; family and child education grant, \$250,000; technology, Title II, \$18,500; special education, Part B grant, \$590,879; drug free schools, \$28,300; Title II, \$109,300, and lunch program, \$588,588. Funding levels for tribal contribution

include: salaries including fringe benefits, \$2,175,000; transportation and buses, \$125,417; library books, \$23,000; athletics, \$125,000, and lunch program, \$85,622.

It is apparent that without the tribal contribution made possible by gaming revenue the tribal school would have approximately \$2.9 million of unmet need. There is clearly a federal funding shortfall for the tribal school. According to the U.S. Department of Education (2003), funding of unmet education needs for Native students continues to be inadequate (U.S. Department of Education, 2003).

According to the participants' perceptions gaming revenue is making a difference in several areas for the tribal school. For example, it has provided: (a) jobs; (b) the ability to hire highly qualified teachers; (c) new school construction; (d) supplements the tribal school budget; (e) teacher salaries; (f) indirectly supports staff development; (g) provides computer equipment and curriculum supplies; (h) supplements salaries for two language and culture teachers; (i) provides funding for parent-involvement including cultural activities, extracurricular activities, and health; (j) provides college scholarships for future scholars; (k) lunch program; and (l) supports transportation costs for regular and special education students. These are some examples in which gaming revenue helps to make a difference for the tribal school. It is interesting to mention that the tribal school provides a positive learning environment for staff and students through cultural enrichment activities in a state of the art facility. For example, unlike several other tribal schools that suffer from school facilities in disrepair and poor health facilities, the K-8 tribal school is nearly brand new and equipped with advanced technology services that

are compatible for child centered and adult learning including a relatively new health care center that provides services to the tribal members.

Research Question #2: *What are the perceptions of tribal and school leaders toward the impact that gaming money is having on student academic achievement?*

### ***Perceptions of the Impact of Tribal Gaming Revenue on Student Achievement***

Most of the participants interviewed for this single-case study agreed that student achievement is closely tied to attendance. For example, one school board member said, “The tribal contribution that’s received at the school assists in, in allowing us to do additional services that we normally could not cover if we didn’t, if we had to rely solely on, on federal funding.” The elementary school principal continued with, “We’re tying attendance obviously to student achievement levels and we did make AYP this year.” The vice chairman replied, “If anything, the gaming revenue is probably providing the assistance that families need to keep their kids in school.”

Most respondents believe that attendance is closely tied to student achievement. Gaming dollars afford the tribal school the ability to hire a truant officer and provide needed assistance to families. According to one respondent, “If it’s attendance and we need to have someone going to make a visit to their home you know that’s a person, that’s mileage, that’s all of these things and without tribal contribution we may not be able to reach the parents as much as we are able to do that.” Other participants agreed that tribal contribution is directly responsible for keeping class sizes low, providing a low student to teacher ratio, providing state-of-the-art facilities, positively affecting school

climate, giving the school the ability to retain highly qualified teachers, and increasing graduation rates and higher test scores.

It is interesting to note that tribal and school leaders made little or no mention of how state standardized testing or performance-based assessments are affecting student outcomes. The tribal leaders' perceptions of student academic achievement were tied to athletics and funding. One tribal officer mentioned that tribal students in higher education receive a \$20,000 stipend to attain a degree. Students in higher education do not have to pay for tuition, food, clothing, school supplies, and room and board due to the stipend offered by the tribe. The stipend comes from gaming revenue. On the other hand, tribal school participants concurred that gaming revenue is making a difference in attendance, student to teacher ratio, small class sizes, and making AYP. According to the tribal school superintendent, the tribal school follows a school improvement plan developed mainly by the BIA. As a result, the school must follow guidelines that are specific to meeting the challenges and goals as outlined in the NCLB Act of 2001 for American Indian and Alaskan Native students. Past research supports the findings that student achievement is significant to self-determination (The White House, 2004). For example, the purpose of the Executive Order of 2004 is assist AI/AN students in meeting the challenging academic standards of the NCLB Act of 2001 in a way that is consistent with tribal traditions, customs, languages, and cultures. The tribal school did make AYP during the 2005-06 school year. The standards-based reform movement does have positive outcomes for AI/AN students as I confirmed earlier in the study (The White House 2004). In addition, according to Swisher and Tippeconnic (2001), performance-

based assessment is often referred to as authentic assessment because it allows for demonstration of applied knowledge and the performance of tasks by utilizing a holistic approach to teaching strategies and learner outcomes for AI and AN students.

The tribal school measures standardized testing in grades four and eight. It is interesting to point out that according to Figures 4.6 thru 4.12 (see Chapter Four), the proficiency levels for technology seem most impressive. The tribal school is equipped with a state of the art computer lab. The tribal school's computer system also is used to monitor attendance, student-to-teacher ratios, class sizes, discipline referrals, lunch program, and student achievement data (e.g., assessment results).

*Research Question #3: To what extent and under what circumstances are gaming monies used to support facilities and equipment, special education, culture and language activities, salaries of school personnel and parent and community involvement? What are other uses of gaming money, if any?*

One of the strongest topic/themes that emerged from the research is the perceptions of the participants regarding parent and community involvement (see Table 4.1).

### ***Parental and Community Involvement***

Parent involvement seems to be a staple for tribal school activities. Parents are active in serving as volunteers for athletics; they serve on the tribal school board; take

part in pow-wows, parent-teacher conferences, field trips (chaperones), and serve as teachers aides. For example, one respondent replied, “Well I’m sure they have made a difference because then through some of our other programs we used to use some JOM funds but that’s been cut and some of that money has been replaced by gaming money where we have been able to continue to emphasize parent and community involvement.” In addition, parent volunteering has also emerged as a theme through extensive data analysis. The vice chairman said, “The public announcement system is at the top and then at the lower level they have a, a concession stand type area. So it’s parents volunteering in that concession stand for selling, you know, the hamburgers, hotdogs, type stuff to raise money for the, these special events for the kids.” Another interviewee continued, “We do have parents involved in volunteering for our JOM committee; the parents come in and volunteer their time you know working within the actual classroom with the teacher. Lunch hours they’re there helping to monitor. Athletic events they’re always there helping.” Most participants agree that parents are active in just about any kind of extracurricular activity that the school has, including the fall harvest, extracurricular events, cultural events, and athletics. One participant said, “Those are all prime examples of what the parents actively do and participate in within the school system. Well, the school board, that is parents and community members, just rewrote our mission statement. It hasn’t been looked at or reviewed or changed in about 12 years, I think. And they just redid that, which is obviously a major impact on the decisions for the school and planning.”

According to the participants, parents are actively involved in the tribal school system. Gaming revenue is used for cultural events (e.g., the garden project, pow wows, extracurricular activities, and the fall feast). In addition, parents are serving as volunteers, chaperones, teachers' aides, monitors, various committees, and the school board. Supporting evidence of the importance of parent participation in schools is revealed in past research practices (e.g., the Epstein model, Epstein, 1997). Similarities among the participation of the tribal school and parents relate to Epstein's six guiding principles. For example, the tribal school promotes: (a) active parent participation and volunteering; (b) shared-decision making and parent involvement in membership on school wide committees; and (c) effectively communicates with community stakeholders by providing the opportunity to access services, resources, and programs. It is interesting to note that parents are actively involved in the tribal school system (e.g., school board, school improvement committee, and the garden project). According to the tribal school superintendent, "parents are involved in all phases of school improvement planning including staff development training". Gaming money is responsible for food and supplies for the garden project including the fall feast, other language and cultural events, pow wows, and athletic events. Without these sponsored activities, parental involvement would be limited.

### ***Facilities and Renovation Construction***

The interviewees for this case study concurred that gaming money, also known as tribal contribution, is good for the school and community. The tribal school was built

with gaming revenue from a bond contract made available to the tribe. Most of the \$15 million used to build and furnish the tribal school was, first, a loan through a bank. The tribe then made annual payments. One interviewee said, “Actually our facilities we do have a budget from the bureau but the new elementary school was built entirely with gaming revenue.” The respondent continued, “From a facilities standpoint we use gaming revenues as the, you might say, the collateral to back up the, the debt instrument that was taken out to build the facility. We also support the school operations with a tribal contribution to their annual budget. Basically, for every federal dollar put into the program, there’s a dollar of matching tribal contributions.” Various tribal members and community members both Indian and non-Indian believe the tribal school is the best elementary school facility in the region.

Historically, tribal schools have been labeled outdated and in badly need of repair. Supporting evidence is revealed in the literature review (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001). Today, renovation and construction costs are back-logged to the tune of approximately \$700 million for several BIA and tribal schools. Most of this money must come from the federal government as BIA and tribal schools have no tax base on which to draw funds. On the contrary, the tribal school revealed in this case study has a beautiful facility shaped with cultural patterns. As previously mentioned, the money to build the tribal elementary school came from gaming revenue. It is also important to mention that it is an advantage for this reservation to be located near a metropolitan area.

### *Equipment*

Most respondents agreed that tribal contribution has a significant impact on equipment, supplies and resources for the tribal school. The middle school has a computer lab for 3<sup>rd</sup> grade, 4<sup>th</sup> grade, and 5<sup>th</sup> grade. The middle school also has a technology room with computers for all classes to use. One interviewee said, “But as far as equipment goes, there’s been a number of things that the gaming has been used for. One of the things that impacts my department a lot is the fact that the most of our student PCs and staff PCs, our printers, they take care of all of our networking in terms of router switches, cables, trouble shooting—all that comes out of the gaming monies.”

The elementary tribal school students are proficient in the use of technology (see Figure 4.12). Each teacher has a state of the art computer in his/her classroom. AI/AN students learn through visualization, demonstration, and hands-on learning. The fact that gaming money was used to enhance equipment and supplies for the tribal school’s technology needs including training and staff development is an interesting finding.

### *Salaries*

The tribal school receives approximately \$3 million each year from gaming revenues. Of that, 78% is used to cover salaries including fringe benefits. Fourteen teachers, teacher substitutes, and 11 kitchen staff salaries are supplemented with gaming revenue. The total is \$2,175,000 (see Figure 4.5).

The base salary for the K-8 tribal school administrative staff for the 2005-06 school year was \$30,300; this includes the district administrator, building principals,

assistant principals, special education coordinator, student services coordinator, technology coordinator, and executive assistants. The base salary does not take into account years of experience. The salary schedule for the tribal school administrators is described as: (a) district administrator (superintendent) \$73,872.72, (b) K-12 principal \$64,056.30, (c) special education coordinator \$53,213.87, (d) student services director \$51,633.26, (e) technology coordinator \$53,213.87, (f) assistant principal \$49,998.91, and (g) executive assistant to the superintendent \$59,896.80.

The base salary for the K-8 tribal school administrative staff for the 2006-07 school year was \$30,300; this includes the district administrator, building principals, assistant principals, special education coordinator, student services coordinator, technology coordinator, and executive assistants. The base salary does not take into account years of experience. The salary schedule for the tribal school administrators is described as: (a) district administrator (superintendent) \$80,719.20, (b) K-12 principal \$69,993.00, (c) special education coordinator \$58,145.70, (d) student services director \$56,418.60, (e) technology coordinator \$58,145.70, (f) assistant principal \$53,540.10, and (g) executive assistant to the superintendent \$65,448.00.

The base salary for teachers for the 2005-06 school year was \$25,671 and \$28,441 for the 2006-07 school year. The average teacher's salary for 2006-07 was \$40,211 and \$39,485 for the language and culture teachers. The salary schedule contains eight lanes across (education levels) and 30 steps down (years of experience). Also, the schedule includes a base salary as previously mentioned for those with a bachelor's degree to those

holding a master's plus 30 years of experience. The pay for this level is \$53,396 for 2005-06 and \$57,641 for 2006-07.

According to one participant, gaming money affords the tribal school the ability to attract highly qualified teachers and administrators. Still, it is interesting to note that the tribal school superintendent's salary of \$80,719.20 for 2006-07 lags behind the national average for public school superintendents for 1999-00, \$112,158.00. The tribal school principal's salary for 2006-07, \$69,993.00, is comparable to the national average elementary public school principal of \$69,407.00 for 1999-00. However, there is a seven-year gap in comparison. The tribal school's average teacher's salary for 2006-07 was \$40,211 and \$39,485 for the language and culture teachers. Compare that to the 1999-00 average national teacher salary of \$42,213.00 for public schools. The findings are supported by previous research (e.g., Williams, 2000).

### *Language and Culture*

Several of the participants in this study agreed that gaming money has a positive affect on the community and the tribal school. Not only does gaming money or tribal funds contribute to teacher salaries but it also helps to fund the garden project. The garden project begins in the spring of each year. Students, staff, and community members plant a garden and maintain it throughout the summer. During the fall, the vegetables are used for the annual feast and cultural festivities. According to one participant, "I think some of the teachers, they just get together and with the students and they plan a garden, strawberries, I think there's beans. Potatoes they put in, and, and they

teach the children about gardening, how to plant, maintaining, harvesting, that's all a part of that language/culture program." The respondent continued, "The traditional Native sport, in the spring, we have language and culture day. It's a two-day event and we bring in artists in the area and people who know about language and culture, and they'll do traditional activities like cooking and traditional foods. Making things like wampum belts, pottery, you know, all these different kinds of activities like that. The language and culture classes we do lots of that kinds of hands-on stuff. Also, I'd like to add, we also have our own sugar camp and the kids tap trees, and we make maple syrup. That's school wide from K-12 grade and we have, then we have a big celebration and we use the syrup in a meal for the parents and the grandparents of the kids, all the kids in the school."

In addition, tribal contributions provide resources, materials, and technology services to the language and culture program. As a result of the NCLB provisions of 2001, the tribal school changed the goals with regard to the curriculum for the language and culture program. One of the main objectives was to increase reading levels. One of the language and culture teachers also has a reading specialist certificate. This person teaches an accelerated reading program that has raised test scores significantly (see Figure 4.10).

Gaming revenue is used to support the salary for two language and culture teachers and their aides. It is also used to cover classroom supplies and curriculum through purchase orders approved by the tribal council. The tribal elementary school utilizes a language and culture curriculum that requires teachers to incorporate the

indigenous language into the accelerated reading program (i.e., learning numbers, the alphabet, foods, creation stories, and classroom activities in English and in the Native language). Evidence supporting the need to incorporate language and culture into the curriculum promote positive student outcomes for AI/AN students and the preservation of self-determination can be found in the Indian Nations at Risk Report, and Swisher and Tippeconnic (2001). Still, it is interesting to note that the participants in this study made no reference to test bias or culturally responsive assessment instrumentation for AI/AN students. The need for authentic assessment and culturally relevant curriculum is well documented (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001).

### *Health*

The least frequently occurring topic/theme that emerged was health care. Several respondents or participants believe the tribe can do a better job in utilizing gaming money when it comes to health services for the youth and other tribal members. However, the tribe did fund and build a brand new clinic using gaming revenue. According to the Gaming Regulatory Act of 1988 and significant supporting data, Indian tribes with Class III gaming compacts must use a portion of the gaming revenue to support the health and welfare of the tribe (NIGA, 2004). It is interesting to mention that the participants either did not view health as a major priority for the tribal school or were reluctant to give adequate information. According to the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights (2003), unmet health needs for AI/AN people lag some twenty-five years behind the general American population in health care (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 2003). According to

researchers Henson, Kalt, Taylor, Curtis, Cornell, Grant, Jorgensen, Lee, and Nelson (2007), health concerns for AI/AN also remain an issue. The condition of Indian health is better than it was 30 years ago. For example, the Indian mortality rate fell approximately 65%, cases of tuberculosis decreased by a staggering 86%, death due to accidental injuries fell 54%, and the maternal death rate fell 75%. Still, AI/AN are plagued by other health conditions. The infant mortality rate for AI infants remains the highest among all other ethnic groups at an alarming 124% of the national average. In addition, tobacco use, Type II diabetes, and alcohol abuse remain well above the national average. Although there has been a decline in alcohol abuse during the past 30 years it is estimated that it remains a contributing factor in: (a) unintentional injury including death; (b) fetal alcohol syndrome; (c) domestic violence and motor vehicle accidents; (d) cirrhosis; (e) homicide; and (f) suicide (The Harvard Project on American Indian Economic Development, 2007).

### ***Ethnographic Observations***

According to Emerson, Fretz, and Shaw (1995), at least four key inferences are necessary for understanding ethnography as the inscription of participatory experience when they stated:

- (a) What is observed and ultimately treated as “data” or “findings” is inseparable from the observational process;
- (b) in writing field notes, the field researcher should give special attention to the indigenous meanings and concerns of the

people studied; (c) contemporaneously written field notes are an essential grounding and resource for writing broader, more coherent accounts of others' lives and concerns, and (d) such field notes should detail the social and interactional processes that make up people's everyday lives and activities (p. 11).

One of the opportunities available while conducting field research was observing the tribal school's annual cultural feast and fall pow-wow. The annual pow-wow, which was indirectly sponsored by gaming revenue or tribal contributions, took place at the tribal school's gymnasium. The grand entry began around 1:00 pm central standard time. The weather was fair to partly cloudy with above average temperatures. Veterans were the first to emerge from behind the bleachers raising flags while others and dancers followed wearing American-Indian dancing regalia. Everyone stood and removed their hats as the flags were brought into the arena and one of the drum groups played the grand entry song. Drum groups were stationed in the middle of the gym forming a circle. No one is allowed to walk across the drum circle during such a ceremony. The flags carried into the gymnasium included the United States flag, tribal flags, Prisoners of War flag, and eagle staffs of various tribes. When asked, an elderly man sitting nearby explained exactly what the flags represented:

American Indians hold the United States flag in an honored position despite the horrible treatment received from this country. The flag has a dual meaning. First it is a way to remember all of the ancestors that fought

against this country. On the other hand, it is also the symbol of the United States, which we Indigenous people are now a part of. The United States flag also reminds people of those people who have fought for this country.

Following the veterans into the gym were various tribal chiefs, princesses, elders, and pow-wow organizers. Next in line were the men dancers. The men were followed by the women dancers. The song ended once all of the participants formed a circle around the drum groups. In addition, another song was conducted to honor the flag and the veterans. After a prayer, the dancing resumed, the drum groups played a few round dances. For a while all that could be heard was loud drumming, singing, and jingling coming from the regalia of the dancers. After each song the master of ceremonies would ask a different drum group to share its song and encouraged applause from the audience. After the round dances concluded, some intertribal dancing songs were sung and everyone was invited to dance including the general public. The regalia the dancers wore were magnificent. Many of the outfits were made of buckskin, cloth, leather, silver, gold, eagle feathers, bear claws, and parts of other various types of animals from Mother Earth. I asked one female dancer what material was used to make her jingles on her outfit. She replied, "tops from cans of Copenhagen snuff." Out in the hallways of the gym were food booths where people could purchase hamburgers, hotdogs, chips, pop, coffee, or even some Indian fry bread. Some children sold T-shirts and yelled the same selling pitch over and over again, "Tribal T-shirts, ten dollars, tribal T-shirts, ten dollars, etc." Other vendors were just inside the walls of the gym. They were selling everything from

quilts and clothing to books, videotapes, digital videos, and jewelry. Several hundred people streamed in and out of the gymnasium all day long for the grand entries scheduled for 1:00 and 6:00 pm.

The cultural feast is also sponsored indirectly by tribal contributions or gaming revenue and is part of the tribal schools garden project and language and culture program. Every spring, community patrons, teachers, administrators, and students get together and plant a garden. The purpose of planting the garden is to grow vegetables for the cultural feast held annually in the fall of each year. This year the feast was held in the high school cafeteria adjacent to the tribal headquarters. At approximately 4:00 pm the tribal school's administrator Ms. Greystone addressed the crowd from a podium. Up until that time, the place was buzzing with laughter and loud conversations. Ms. Greystone asked for everyone to be quiet. She stood for a moment while everyone heeded her request. One could tell just from body language that she (Ms. Greystone) is a respected individual. Ms. Greystone, a tribal member, was dressed in black conservative attire. She wore glasses, had black hair and brown eyes and a bright smile. She then proceeded to thank everyone for participating in the event and all those involved in preparing for the garden project and the feast the entire year. In addition, she thanked the community members for participating and for such a large turn out. The principal, a non-Native who once was retired wore a long sleeve shirt and tie, and also addressed the crowd. He wore glasses and had grey hair and blue eyes. He also thanked everyone for participating in the event. Shortly after, Ms. Greystone asked everyone to bow their heads while a tribal elder said a prayer in the indigenous language. A few moments later, teachers, parents, students, and

administrators began to serve the meal, buffet-style, to patrons waiting in line. The food was shared among the public and all tribal members of the community. The meal was served with turkey and indigenous foods from the garden project including wild rice, potatoes, fry bread, buffalo stew, corn soup, tomatoes, carrots, onions, cucumbers, pumpkin pie, strawberry drink, and tea. Dessert and refreshments were also served. In addition, the tribal school's athletic department had a booth near the back of the cafeteria in which they had for sale T-shirts and sweatshirts with the schools logo on it. The school counselor also had a booth where he distributed pamphlets to the community. His main message was drugs, alcohol, tobacco, and domestic violence prevention.

By 8:00 pm, approximately 650 community members, parents, and children had partaken of the feast. As the event came to a close, Ms. Greystone helped the teachers, students, and volunteers clean cafeteria and kitchen areas.

Reflexivity is paramount to understanding and appreciating the relationships and interactions of the tribal members through observing the events as they occur (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw 1995). In addition, it is interesting to note that the events as previously mentioned were made possible through the use of tribal contribution.

### ***Other Uses of Gaming Money***

The following is an example of other uses of gaming revenue. Another somewhat intriguing factor is the tribal school's special education department is not directly supported with gaming revenue. The special education program is federally funded. However, gaming funds indirectly affect students with disabilities through other

programs and services including extracurricular, language and cultural activities, athletics, higher education and transportation. The FACE program is also federally funded. However, one interviewee still believes gaming money does somewhat have an indirect impact on the tribal schools special education program when she said, “In the fact that special education has an inclusion program so that those students go to the regular education program, and then the Bureau pays for the special education teacher and the special education teacher aides. And those aides accompany and sometimes the teachers at the high school you’ll see a lot of team teaching. And because it has lowered the student/staff ratio I would have to say yes, indirectly because all of the special education funding comes from the Bureau. However, because it is the child being in the regular classroom you know for inclusion and team teaching, that there would be an impact that way.” One interesting factor is that student enrollment for special education seems to be declining (see Figure 4.2). The decline in students receiving special education services may be attributable to several factors. For example, according to one interviewee, “Many special education students have graduated. In the last few years, we have not had many special education students; they have all been working at grade level and are successful. We are catching struggling students younger with interventions that have been successful. Some students do transfer out of our school district, we service five surrounding school districts, and others transfer out of state.”

According to past research, AI/AN students make up 1% of the entire American student population. Yet, they make up 1.3% of all special education students and are clearly overrepresented in K-12 schools (Tippeconnic & Faircloth, 2000). As past

research reveals, all grant, BIA, and tribal schools must adhere to the guidelines mandated by the Individuals with Disabilities in Education Improvement Act of 2004. According to the research in this study, the tribal school's special education department is properly funded by the federal government. Participants in this study made no mention of the special education department being an under-funded program. It is interesting to note two significant findings of the tribal school's special education program. First, according to past research, President Bush has threatened to eliminate grants for the FACE program (IndianZ.com, 2005). Second, participants for this study made no mention of parent training for the needs of special education students (Tippeconnic & Faircloth 2000).

According to the business manager, "It does help with our busing and transportation. We are able to supply transportation at no cost to the parents for the kids to come to school." Gaming money or tribal contribution also supports special education and other students through extra curricular activities such as athletics. The special education coordinator added, "Gaming money is also used to cover the athletic program, yearbook, senior trip, and other activities that are held for the students or parents. Extracurricular activities are also funded by tribal contribution." The technology coordinator responded by saying, "In other areas that are impacted back in '96 I believe I kind of spearheaded the beginning of the middle school football program. We basically weren't able to do anything without funding, and I drew up a overall budget to get that started and ongoing and brought it to the board which then took it to the tribal council and it was funded through the tribe gaming monies for all the equipment and support of

that program.” The tribal school business manager said, “Gaming money is used to support our athletic programs both at the high school and the elementary school. And that includes salaries for the coaches, the payment for the refs for the various sports. Okay, I can break out the numbers; the elementary school receives approximately \$63,611 for athletics.”

### *Socioeconomic Impact*

According to Henson et al. (2007), American Indian casinos have helped to increase the socioeconomic recovery under way in the self-determination era by supporting tribal government budgets. As a result, many AI nations have invested in casino-related facilities such as hotels, conference centers, entertainment facilities, golf courses, RV parks, and tribally owned businesses (The Harvard Project on American Indian Economic Development, 2007).

Evidence suggests that gaming revenue has a trickle down effect. According to Evans et al. (2002), in 2001, an additional 35,000 jobs were created in this Midwestern state due to Indian gaming operations; thus, the unemployment decreased approximately 2% across the state including an estimated 10% decrease in the county with Indian gaming. The Indian tribes pay the state over \$24 million annually to have gaming operations. Consequently, millions are paid in income tax and taxes paid to vendors and suppliers as well as other goods and services annually (Evans et al., 2002).

Perhaps the strongest argument against gaming money used in tribal schools is that it may have negative impacts for the tribal people. For example, gaming can cause

pathological gambling as mentioned in Chapter 2 (Gerstein, et al, 1999). Although the perceptions of the interviewees indicate that gaming is making a difference in their tribal school, they concur that gaming does have a downside.

### ***Weaknesses of Tribal Contribution***

Some participants believe that gaming revenues add an element of complacency to the tribal school and community. One participant said, “I hope gaming money available to individuals does not give them the entitlement mentality and forget about being self-reliant.” Another participant continued, “Our retirement plan is significantly lower than the public schools, which makes it difficult to get a good number of applicants for vacant positions.”

The respondents clearly value the benefits of tribal contribution but believe much more can be done to increase child care needs including nutritional and parenting programs. Also, a few participants believe that gambling can become addictive especially for the youth. Upon turning 18 years of age tribal members can gamble and get what’s called per capita payments totaling approximately \$500 to a \$1000 a year from the tribes’ gaming revenue.

One participant added, “It’s like gaming is always a controversial thing and it’s always challenged through legislative actions. So we try not to prepare for that and try to think outside of the box and try to diversify how we generate revenue because if it’s gone we must have a way to continue to operate. But we think that threat is a weakness of using gaming dollars.” The participant continued, “Well, one of the other drawbacks or

weaknesses is the fact that sometimes it can negatively impact our ability to seek assistance from other granting sources because of having the availability of tribal contribution. There is a misconception that that then makes us one of the richer tribes so to speak. And it limits our ability to seek outside funding sources from private granting foundations and those types of agencies when you know it's, it's that misperception that we have all this buckets of money sitting everywhere 'cause we have gaming."

As previously mentioned, supporting evidence reveals that excessive gambling does create pathological gamblers (Gerstein, et al., 1999). It is estimated that there are 2.5 million pathological gamblers in the United States. In addition, males are more likely to become addicted to gambling than women. Although a downside exists for Indian gaming, the significance of its existence appears to be more positive than negative, especially for tribal infrastructure and socioeconomics.

### *Unanticipated Outcomes*

Some of the participants appeared a bit apprehensive, especially during budget data collection. For example, one tribal official was reluctant to reveal real budget figures or access to gaming revenue reports. The response to the query for information was, "We don't give that kind of information out." Other participants gave vague statements to certain open-ended queries even after persistent questioning. The implication was that they thought their identities would not remain confidential, even with assurance that pseudonyms would be used in the case study. Another example of difficulty in data collection included frustration pertaining to the email journals.

Participants were slow to respond to the interview questions. Some did not respond at all. Most of the answers were short and concise, which created an obstacle to engaging in a full-length dialogue.

In addition, it is important to mention that the infrastructure concerning American Indian tribes are complex. Tribal governments and individuals working in tribal government enterprises deal with many issues. The exploratory research conducted for this case study examined one area (education) among multiple tribal areas. Consequently, the responses from the participants may have been affected depending on their differences of opinion, responsibility, and location within the tribe or tribal school.

### **Summary**

The findings in this study illustrate the effects gaming money has on tribal schools and the extent to which it is making a difference. The use of gaming money or tribal contribution was perceived by study participants to be more positive than negative for the tribal school and community. Two important factors determined whether or not gaming money is making a difference in the tribal school budget reports and tribal and school leaders' perceptions.

First, the tribal school receives approximately one-third of its budget from tribal contribution or gaming money (see Figure 4.5). The school received approximately \$3 million for the 2005-2006 school year. Approximately 78% of the gaming revenue was used for tribal school staff salaries including benefits. The remaining 22% was used for

extracurricular activities (e.g., athletics, pow-wow, and cultural feast), equipment, transportation, and the lunch program.

Second, tribal and school leaders believed that tribal contributions are making a difference by supplementing the tribal school's education programs including tribal infrastructure, parental involvement, facilities, maintenance, equipment, athletics, student achievement, language and culture, higher education, salaries, class size, student-to-teacher ratios, attendance, lunch program, and transportation. In addition, tribal contributions supplement federally funded programs in the school whenever a need arises. For example, the JOM federal funds were cut during the 2005-2006 school year, and as a result, tribal contribution funded the program. In addition, the tribal school has a high attendance rate. Interviewees tie this to student achievement because, when students are in school, they focus and learn and when they are absent they do not. Participants also believe gaming revenue has a significant impact on student academic achievement because the truant officer's salary is entirely paid by gaming revenue.

As a result of the data analysis process, the following topic/themes emerged: (a) strengths of tribal contribution, (b) parent and community involvement, (c) facilities and renovation construction, (d) equipment, (e) salaries, (f) language and culture, (g) weaknesses of tribal contribution, (h) student achievement, and (i) athletics. As a result, the topic/themes (see Table 4.1) provided rich data on which to draw. The following examples describe the use of gaming revenue: (a) provides jobs; (b) tribal school maintenance; (c) infrastructure; (d) supports staff development activities; (e) volunteering and parent aides; (f) new school construction; (g) provides computer labs and computers

for each classroom; (h) funds the annual fall feast and the tribal school garden project; (i) teacher salaries; (j) provides resources for the language and culture program; (k) provides attendance liaison officers (l) supports the athletic program; (m) permits small class sizes; (n) supports the breakfast program; and (o) provides health care for the tribe and tribal school.

As a whole, participants believe gaming money gives the tribal school and community the chance to become self-reliant. As previously mentioned, attendance is perceived to be closely linked with student achievement. The perception is that gaming money aids in school improvement and the development of tribal infrastructure. Volunteering is also a viable entity for the parents of the tribal school. They serve on various education committees and as chaperones as well as participating in cultural activities such as the garden project, fall feast, sporting events, and pow-wows.

Although most of the participants believe gaming money is making a difference for the school and community ambiguity remains. For example, some participants believe tribal members may become dependent on gaming revenue (e.g., per-capita payments). Entitlement, addiction to gambling, gaming dissolution, and loss of federal funding may one day undermine the tribal culture, language, and self-determination efforts.

Finally, gaming has provided the tribe self-control, socioeconomic development, and prosperity. Consequently, self-determination has emerged as a thematic presence throughout this study. A discussion highlighting the case study including implications and conclusions are presented in the following chapter.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

An exploratory case study, conducted in a tribally controlled school in a Midwestern state, examined tribal and school leaders' perceptions of the extent to which tribal gaming revenues are making a difference in educational services and student outcomes. Based on the participants' perceptions reviewed in this study, gaming money is making an overall socioeconomic impact for the tribe and tribal school. Based on an in-depth analysis of the participants' perceptions relating to the research questions, gaming contributions have made an impact in the following ways: (a) building of a new school; (b) providing jobs and tribal infrastructure; (c) supporting extra curricular activities; (d) promoting parent involvement including volunteering and community cultural activities; (e) supporting the clinic and providing health services to the tribal school participants; (f) providing computers and lab equipment; (f) supplementing teacher salaries; (g) supporting school curriculum; (h) enabling small class sizes; (i) supplementing the breakfast program for the tribal school; and (j) supporting staff development.

This chapter includes a discussion of the implications and comparisons of the similarity of this researcher's findings with that of previous studies. The discussion is organized according to the main research questions that guided the case study:

### **Primary Question**

1. What are the perceptions of tribal and school leaders towards the use of gaming money in tribally controlled schools? In what ways is gaming money making a difference in tribally controlled schools?

### **Secondary Questions**

2. What are the perceptions of tribal and school leaders toward the impact that gaming money is having on student academic achievement?
3. To what extent and under what circumstances are gaming monies used to support facilities and equipment, special education, culture and language activities, salaries of school personnel and parent and community involvement? Are there other uses of gaming money?
4. What are the demographic characteristics of schools and the tribe receiving gaming money?

This chapter concludes with implications for policy and practice, recommendations for current and future practitioners and researchers, and overall conclusions.

### **Implications for Policy**

According to Henson, et al (2007), U.S. Indian education policy reflects the larger trends of the federal government's relationship with AI/ANs. Until the beginning of the contemporary era of self-determination, federal policy in regards to Native control of education remained in limbo with political turmoil but was dominated by the theme of non-Native control. Consequently, a case can be made that while much of the history of federal Indian policy has been dominated by oligarchy, attempts at termination of Indian nationhood, and federal Indian education policy sought the abolition of Indian self-identity (The Harvard Project on American Indian Economic Development, 2007).

Education policies and practices began to improve for AI/ANs through the passage of the Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act of 1975. Past research indicates that self-determination gives tribes greater control and a better chance for prosperity (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001). However, according to the literature review in this study and data from the interviewees, the federal government has not lived up to the trust responsibility, thus, underfunded programs and unmet needs in the tribal school still remain.

Through gaming the tribe has been able to supplement programs where federal funding levels have fallen short (e.g., salaries for language and culture teachers, and extracurricular activities). However, the BIA/BIE needs to be more supportive in providing adequate resources and funding for the programs, as previously mentioned, especially for the language and culture programs. The findings in this study lead to additional questions that relate to policy and the government-to-government relationship

between tribal entities and the federal authorities. For example: Is the federal government fulfilling its responsibility of ensuring a quality education for all AI/AN students? An attempt to ensure a quality education for AI/AN students can be found at least on paper in the 2004 Executive Order signed into law by President Bush when he said:

By the authority vested in me as President by the Constitution and the laws of the United States of America, and to recognize the unique educational and culturally related academic needs of American Indian and Alaska Native students consistent with the unique political and legal relationship of the federal government with tribal governments, it is hereby ordered as follows:

Section 1. Purpose. The United States has a unique legal relationship with Indian tribes and a special relationship with Alaska Native entities as provided in the Constitution of the United States, treaties, and federal statutes. This Administration is committed to continuing to work with these federally recognized tribal governments on a government-to-government basis, and supports tribal sovereignty and self-determination. It is the purpose of this order to assist American Indian and Alaska Native students in meeting the challenging student academic standards of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (Public Law 107-110) in a manner that is consistent with tribal traditions, languages, and cultures. This order builds on the innovations, reforms, and high standards of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, including: stronger accountability for results;

greater flexibility in the use of federal funds; more choices for parents; and an emphasis on research-based instruction that works (p. 1).

Arguably, the federal government has failed to provide the funding resources or policies necessary to ensure a quality education as outlined in the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 for AI/AN students. For example, in the tribal school—the subject of this research—the federal government funds approximately two-thirds of the school’s entire budget. However, the tribal school is left with unmet funding need and has to rely on gaming revenues or tribal contributions in order to adequately fund its education programs, salaries, extracurricular activities, and facilities. In addition, the federal government has failed to implement best practices including authentic assessments and language and culture curriculum strategies that adequately support academic achievement for AI/AN students.

On the other hand, the tribal school has to rely on gaming revenue in order to carry out the day-to-day operations of the school. This includes supporting the language and culture program by paying for the teacher salaries including classroom resources and supplies. According to Swisher and Tippeconnic (2001), the basis of providing a well rounded education and ultimately the reason for schooling AI/AN students is the importance of a culturally responsive curriculum. As a result, a responsive curriculum guides teachers and ultimately makes a difference in student academic achievement. In addition, “language, tradition, and histories of a people shape how and what we learn and

who we are to become as intellectual, political, and social beings” (Swisher & Tippeconnic, 2001, p. 96).

According to Tippeconnic (1995) the policy of self-determination combined with the efforts to downsize and reconstruct the federal government have resulted in the use of self-governance compacts (i.e., funding based on pupil count), and other grants like ISEP, Impact aid, Johnson O'Malley, Child Find (FACE), and PL 93-638 tribal control compacts) to drive the restructuring and reorganization of the BIA. Consequently, the concept and intention are positive because they mean more tribal control and self-reliance. This is also in keeping with the government-to-government relationship between American Indian nations and the federal government. However, a number of questions arise. For example: Can the BIA provide adequate resources for future federal initiatives? Findings in this study suggest the BIA or BIE funding levels for the tribal school have fallen short. For example, the lack of appropriations for special education including adult special education programs has been well documented. According to Beaulieu (2005), in 2006, special education programs for tribal schools were projected to be funded at approximately \$508 million, which is half the proposed funding for 1975 (NIEA, 2005). According to the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights (2003), older AI/AN special education students have fared no better than young AI/AN school-aged children. Funding education programs servicing AI/AN special education adults have been all but eliminated. The last budget appropriations were back in 1995. Still, budget requests by the NIEA for approximately \$6 million for 2002 were denied. Adult special education

AI/AN's need education programs that help them complete a general education diploma and fulfill other requirements (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 2003).

According to the U.S Commission on Civil Rights (2003), from 1998 to 2003, funding various sub-programs for AI/AN were completely absent altogether. For example, self-determination has been delayed, if not imperiled, by the federal government's failure to adequately fund whose necessity and trust responsibility has been established by law. Consequently, the federal government has not upheld its legal and moral obligation to provide sufficient funding for the education of AI/AN students (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 2003).

Other questions remain: Will the federal government strengthen its role and commitment to Indian education? Can the BIA provide meaningful trust responsibility to tribes? Is Indian education a trust responsibility? Will federal responsibility be weakened and eventually abolished? Also, other issues arose including what are the future ramifications for Indian gaming? These are legitimate concerns and must be addressed to ensure self-determination, and not termination, as an end result.

Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that the tribe continue to allocate gaming (i.e., tribal contributions) revenue to the tribal school. Also, according to a summative analysis of the participants' perceptions it is suggested the use of gaming revenue is having more of a positive than negative impact in the tribal school and educational services provided for students including student academic achievement.

It is interesting to note that some of the topic/themes in Table 4.1 seem to overlap (i.e., probably could be grouped under one main topic-theme. For example: (a) salaries,

(b) language and culture; (c) teacher to student ratio; (d) staff development; (e) breakfast and lunch; and (e) health could be sub-topics under the student achievement topic-theme. Consequently, these topic/themes as previously mentioned, show a direct link or triangulation to student achievement.

Although the federal government recognizes the unique educational and culturally related academic needs of American Indian and Alaska Native students, many of the federal initiatives including the NCLB Act of 2001 are under funded (U.S Commission on Civil Rights, 2003). The relevant information obtained in this study point to the fact that gaming contributions have become a band aid of sorts that covers a federal funding wound. This wound has been present since the establishment of tribally controlled schools. Previous research in the *Indian Nations At Risk Task Force Report* (1991), revealed under-funded federal programs with inadequate resources. The topic/themes that emerged in this study highlight the areas of unmet need and also the impact gaming revenue is having on the tribal school. In addition, the following describes the ramifications of the study and what may enhance policies for AI/AN students: (a) authentic assessment reform (e.g., testing for AI/AN students in tribal schools need to be revised to fit the language, culture, customs, and values); (b) gaming money can be used to establish a national reform committee (i.e., a comprehensive reform model for all tribal schools); (c) merit grants for showing continuous improvement in student achievement levels as it relates to proficiency levels for the NCLB Act of 2001; (d) increased funding levels for services for special education students; (e) revise curriculum standards for public schools serving a high concentration of AI/AN students (e.g. mandate an

American Indian unit on language and culture be taught in all public and tribal schools); (f) increase the number of hiring highly qualified teachers and administrators; (g) make salaries more comparable to those in public schools; and (h) increase federal funding levels and resources for tribal schools.

### **Implications for Practice**

Improved gaming revenue allocations from the tribe to the school has the potential to: (a) increase student achievement outcomes; (b) the possibility of hiring better highly qualified teachers and practitioners for assessments; (c) competitive salaries; (d) socioeconomic stability; (e) tribal identity; (f) better parental involvement activities; (g) athletics; (h) transportation; (i) facilities and equipment; (j) a functional curricula that include language and cultural activities; and (k) self-determination for the tribe and community. These, combined with the mandates of NCLB and other school improvement acts (e.g., effective schools), motivate the tribal school to continue to improve student learner outcomes.

Another important question is: Do other areas exist where gaming revenue can make a better contribution and/or difference in student achievement? Instead of simply supplementing salaries, extracurricular activities, and the lunch program for the tribal school, can the tribe improve funding in other areas without compromising the federal government's responsibility? For example, the tribal school must submit purchase orders to the tribe for anything over and above what is budgeted. The tribe then approves the purchase order and allocates the funds for the project. Far better would be the business

manager and school administrator submitting an overall budget for the upcoming school year (e.g., compensatory funds). That way the tribal school could disburse gaming money for certain projects without involving individual allocation for tribal purchase orders. According to one interviewee, “It gets kind of hectic; you know, when you need some funds to cover new computers or athletic equipment and the purchase orders aren’t approved for months.” On the other hand, from observation, an important aspect to mention is that some tribal officials believe that if they give the tribal school too much tribal contribution at one time the government may abolish its funding and trust responsibility to the tribal school.

Aside from the gaming phenomenon, what about trends in student performance? Some interesting trends emerged from the tribal schools’ BIE report card as previously mentioned in the description section of Chapter Four. For example, two interesting trends surfaced. First, the proficiency levels for technology are highly impressive. This could be directly attributed towards the state of the art computer labs and staff development training for staff. Second, it is interesting to note that the number of students receiving special education services is declining. As previous research suggests AI/AN students are overrepresented in special education (Faircloth & Tippeconnic, 2000). Could the BIE report card contain inadequate information? Could there be some other explanation? The tribal school receives an annual special education grant for approximately \$600,000. It doesn’t seem any budget figures were inaccurate because if that were the case the tribal school would lose federal funding. It’s just possible that over the last four years special education students have been placed in the Least Restrictive

Environment and as a result, special education students are working at grade level. If this is what's happening then, of course, the special education student or students Individualized Education Plan would have to be revised. As a result, the student is then placed in the mainstreamed, full-time, regular classroom.

According to Tippeconnic (1995), the position of the BIA is to protect what is already present, especially funding, and at the same time find ways to make dollars stretch. Today, little has changed in the way the BIE operates in regards to funding tribal schools. Additional appropriations will be difficult to obtain, especially to adequately fund the provisions outlined in the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001.

At the same time, individuals in policy, practice, and budget positions must be educated in, and consequently learn to respect tribal sovereignty, treaty rights, and the rest of the body of knowledge that supports the government-to-government relationship (Tippeconnic, 1995).

### **Recommendations for Future Researchers**

The findings in this study indicate additional research is needed in the area of Indian gaming and tribal schools. One recommendation for future researchers is to examine how gaming revenue can better meet the academic needs of the students in relation to improving student achievement levels for all educational programs and services (e.g., authentic assessments that address pedagogy and learner styles). Additional research is needed in identifying student achievement outcomes based on funding resources as it relates to participants' perceptions of tribal schools.

Researchers must also consider other possible reasons for conducting this type of research. One of the main reasons for conducting this type of research is to discover what the uses of gaming revenue are and is it making a difference for the tribe and tribal school since inadequate funding remains an issue. Future researchers must also consider conducting research on the differences between tribal and school leaders' perceptions regarding the impact of gaming monies. For example, the difference of perceptions for tribal leaders in this case study seemed to focus more on tribal infrastructure and viewed the tribal school as one of those entities. On the other hand, tribal school leaders were more concerned with the tribal school operations and seemed oblivious to how funds were handled at the tribal headquarters. In addition, it is interesting to mention that the tribal school leaders' perceptions were given with the concern or the awareness of the tribal government hierarchy.

Another recommendation for the future researcher is to utilize a comparative method. This type of study could improve results and findings by comparing a tribal school that receives gaming money and a tribal school that does not. A cross-case analysis of the data may reveal additional findings of whether or not gaming money is making a difference in tribal schools. In addition, future researchers may also want to include a quantitative methodology that examines the significance of gaming money on student assessments by comparing tribal schools that receive gaming money and those that do not (e.g., T-test hypothesis). Also, further research is needed for the gaming phenomenon in conjunction with tribal school reform issues including federal policies that affect student outcomes. For example, according to Henson et al, (2007), while

tribally controlled schools hold substantial promise for improvement, the important role that state and civic public schools play in the education of AI/AN youth across the United States means that improvements in Indian education require broad reform (The Harvard Project on American Indian Economic Development, 2007). In addition, according to Henson et al, (2007) although efforts under the Effective Schools movement appeared promising, the passage of the NCLB Act of 2001 simply replaced the Goals 2000 initiative and changed the direction of reform in Indian education for both tribally controlled and public schools. Also, with its emphasis on academic accountability, NCLB increased the demands on both tribal and public schools by requiring provable yearly progress for students. The goals of the NCLB Act of 2001 include improving teacher quality, increasing parent involvement, and using scientific research supported methods of practice. However, shortfalls in funding have impeded the ability of schools and school districts to meet these requirements. These mandates have, thus, created additional pressure in Indian communities and on schools serving a high concentration of Indian students that are already struggling with a lack of resources, high teacher turnover, and inappropriate student assessment methods (The Harvard Project on American Indian Economic Development, 2007).

### **Conclusion**

The three most important findings in this study are: (a) federal funding and policies are failing to meet the academic needs of AI/AN students; (b) gaming money is increasing socioeconomic development and self-reliance for the tribe and tribal school;

and (c) student academic achievement levels are influenced by salaries, highly qualified teachers, attendance, parent involvement, facilities, equipment, athletics, student-to-teacher ratios, and health. These findings will be shared with the tribe and tribal school participants by mailing a copy of the study. In addition, I the researcher can also present the findings in person upon a request from the tribal council.

Is the use of gaming revenue or tribal contribution making a difference for this tribal school located in a Midwestern state? According to the participants' perceptions revealed in this study it is providing financial assistance towards an overall positive impact for all tribal members including the tribal school. For example, gaming money or what the participants call tribal contributions is making an impact especially in providing valuable resources for salaries, athletics, facilities, equipment, parent involvement enrichment activities, student achievement, tribal infrastructure, attendance, school improvement, tribal leadership, and language and culture events. Still, additional research is needed for this relatively new phenomenon as it relates to tribal schools and communities.

It is interesting to mention that I the researcher served as an instrument for the study based on past administrative and teaching experience in K-12 schools. This experience has not only strengthened my skills as a researcher but also enhanced the credibility of the findings. This is important because it justifies what I thought I'd find for the most part in concluding what the participants' perceptions would be for the use of gaming money in tribal schools. For example, at some point during the interview process I realized that some participants were reluctant to give in-depth information regarding

their perceptions. For example, tribal budget documents were kept confidential. Faced with near genocide and years of oppression it is no wonder some of the participants in this study were holding their cards close to the vest, so to speak. Some of the participants and tribal members also showed concern for not being allowed to gain access to tribal government documents.

Gaming revenue is not a panacea for the problems of the tribe and the tribal school. For example, supplementing the tribal school's budget relieves the responsibility of the federal government's funding obligation to the school. Who knows how much longer the tribe will continue to operate gaming facilities or gain from the revenue it generates. According to the vice-chairman, "we're setting ourselves up for the future for some day we realize profits from gaming may not always be there". According to the research conducted for this study, only a few of the 220 tribes with gaming actually benefit from the profits. Consequently, gaming tribes located in urban settings are more likely to benefit or make substantial profits from gaming. However, most gaming tribes are located in rural settings. The participants in this study believe they are fortunate to be benefiting from the gaming enterprise.

Finally, this study has provided baseline data on tribal and tribal school leaders' perceptions on whether or not the use of gaming revenue is making a difference for education programs and student outcomes. The study has also clarified the unmet funding shortfalls of the federal government including the ways gaming revenue supplements the tribal school budget and the areas affecting student outcomes. As previously mentioned, gaming revenue gives the tribe hope for the future in terms of

socioeconomics, self-determination, infrastructure, and identity. In essence, the tribal school is part of the tribe's infrastructure. The answer is yes, money received from gaming is making a positive difference for the tribe and tribal school. Money received from gaming has helped the tribal school become the exception rather than the rule when it comes to tribally controlled schools. In addition, the tribal school located in a Midwestern state is a model school for other tribal schools to follow in terms of facilities, education, and programs.

The future for the tribal school depends on federal policy and tribal leadership collaborative efforts. This includes reexamining the requirements of the NCLB Act of 2001 for AI/AN students that lead to a more comprehensive culturally responsive curriculum and authentic assessment strategies that could result in increased student academic achievement.

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## Appendix A

### Interview Protocol Script

Hello, My Name is: \_\_\_\_\_

(actual interview script):

I am conducting an interview in which you have agreed to participate. In response to my cover letter previously sent, this is the time and day you have selected. Is this still a good time for you? (If yes, we'll continue)

Your school has been selected to participate in this study.

The **purpose of this interview** is to obtain information on tribally controlled and public schools who receive gaming contributions for educational services such as: special education, student achievement, parental involvement, cultural and language activities, facilities, equipment, salaries, and community infrastructure.

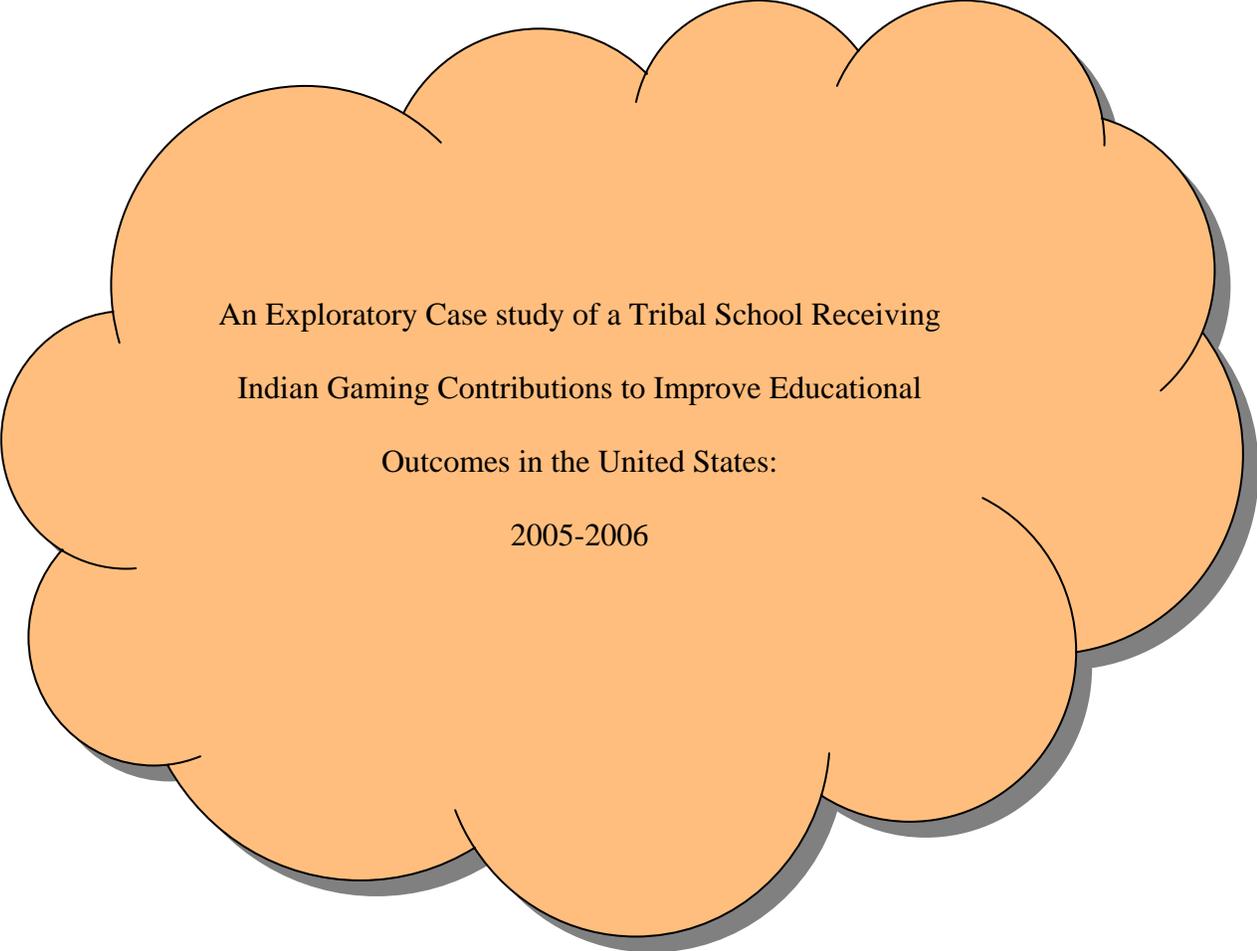
At this time I want to remind you that your participation in this interview is voluntary and you may withdraw at any time. Your participation in this study implies that you have given your **consent** for me to use the information from this interview for my dissertation study and for future publications.

Before we begin I would like your permission to record our interview so I can accurately transcribe the information and refer to it if I fail to hear any of your responses correctly. Do I have your permission? \_\_\_\_\_

During the interview I will be writing down the information you provide. All recorded information for this interview will be kept on file for a brief period before being destroyed.

**If you feel uncomfortable at any time during the interview or need to take a break do not hesitate to let me know. Also, you may pass or skip any question but please realize that it is very important to answer as many questions as possible.**

The interview will take approximately 40 to 50 minutes to complete. If you have any questions or need me to call back to finish the interview let me know.



An Exploratory Case study of a Tribal School Receiving  
Indian Gaming Contributions to Improve Educational  
Outcomes in the United States:  
2005-2006

***Thank you in advance for completing this interview.*** All responses included in the interview will be mailed to you so that you may revise your responses or add additional information as needed.

Neil Trottier, Doctoral Candidate  
Education Policy Studies, College of Education  
The Pennsylvania State University, Suite 300 Rackley Building  
University Park, Pennsylvania 16802-3201.

(continued). **Interview Questionnaire**

**Directions: Please Read First**

1. The items in this questionnaire are designed to provide information regarding Indian gaming tribes who financially support education programs in the following areas: demographics, special education, salaries, facilities, student achievement, parental involvement, language and cultural activities, equipment, and other areas of the school and community. Accuracy is an important part of this study; therefore, it is essential that you listen to each question carefully before responding.
2. Please respond to each interview question. You may ask the researcher to repeat any or all parts of the question.
3. **If you are uncomfortable answering any question**, feel free to skip to the next question. Please note, all questions and responses are important to the overall quality of the interview process.
4. No personally identifying information will be published or presented.

Feel free to contact me regarding any of the information contained in the questionnaire. I can be reached at: (814) 861-3042 or emailed at [nwt104@psu.edu](mailto:nwt104@psu.edu)

## Appendix B

### *Demographic Information:*

#### **Tribe:**

Tribe demographics will include information on the following: Tribal structure (i.e., how many councilmen or women including the chairman are elected into tribal offices?) What is the length of their terms in office? How much profit is made by the tribe from its gaming operations each year? What is the total tribal enrollment? How many casinos are located on tribal land? Is the tribe located in a rural or urban setting? What types of educational programs are supported by gaming revenue? How much gaming money is used toward tribal infrastructure? What is the size of the reservation in terms of area? Also, how many tribal employees are hired to oversee education programs and what are their positions? Information will be obtained for the questions previously mentioned by observing tribal records, interviews, documents, minutes from tribal council meetings, archival data records, and tribal newspapers.

#### **Schools:**

School demographics will include information on the following: What is the total student population in the school for the 2005-2006 school year? What is the student percentage by race in the school? Is the school located in a rural or urban setting? According to student population, what are the names of the tribes represented in the school? How many administrators, teachers, and non-certified staff are employed in the

school? How much money received from gaming is used for new school construction and/or renovation projects? What is the total budget for school including money received from gaming and federal and state aid? How much money received from gaming is used to support curriculum development, strategic planning, and other education programs in the school? How many American Indian and non-Indian educators are employed at the school and what are their positions? How old is the school and other facilities used for education purposes? Information will be obtained for the questions previously mentioned by observing school records, interviews, minutes from school board meetings, archival data records, documents, tribal newspapers, and other multiple sources of evidence.

## Appendix C

## Interview Protocol

**INTERVIEW QUESTIONS For Administrators, Tribal Officials, Business Managers,  
and Teachers**

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Interview with school administrators, principals, tribal officials, business managers, and teachers \_\_\_\_\_

Length of interview: Time started: \_\_\_\_\_ Time

- Q1. How long have you been in your current position of \_\_\_\_\_?  
(name position) What were you doing prior to you current position?**
- Q2. Is money received from gaming making a difference in student academic achievement at the school level?**
- a. (Probe: Does money from gaming contributions have a direct or indirect difference on (e.g., student attendance, grades, truancy, dropout rates, adequate yearly progress reports and/or other assessment practices)?**
- Q3. How long has the tribe been receiving gaming revenue? How long has the school received gaming revenue from the tribe?**
- a. (Probe: How much gaming money did the school receive from the tribe during the 2005-06 School Year? What about past years? How long do you think the school will continue to receive gaming funds?**
- Q4. Do you think gaming money has made a difference in the number and type of language and cultural activities available to students? Explain.**

- Q5. Has gaming money been used to support salaries of personnel (including teachers) in your school? If yes, indicate the personnel supported and the amounts of gaming funds.**
- Q6. Does money received from gaming improve the student to teacher ratio in your school?**
- Q7. Do you think the money has made a difference in special education services offered to students? Explain.**
- Q8. Has gaming money been used to support facilities and equipment at the school? Explain.**
- a. (Probe: How much gaming money or tribal contributions is budgeted for technology services and facilities for the school each year? Does your school have a technology service plan for staff and students? (e.g. lesson plans, staff development, language and culture programs)?**
- Q9. Has gaming money been used to support parent and community involvement activities at the school?**
- a. (Probe: (e.g., in what ways are parents and community members involved in the schools mission, vision, or strategic plan for the school?**
- Q10. What are the strengths of using funds received from gaming for the school?**
- Q11. What are the weaknesses of using funds received from gaming for the school?**
- Q12. Are there any other uses of gaming money at the school level? Explain.**
- Q13. Are there other areas in the school where gaming money is needed to support activities? Explain.**
- Q14. Would you like to make any other comment concerning tribal gaming funds used to support education in the schools?**

## Appendix D

## Cover Letter

300 Rackley Building  
Pennsylvania State University  
University Park, PA 16802

Tribal Chairman and Participants  
Omega Tribe of Indians of USA  
PO Box 999  
Omega, USA 55555

Dear Mr. Chairman:

This letter is in reference to research I am conducting for my doctoral thesis at The Pennsylvania State University. The purpose of this research is to examine how Indian gaming money is used in tribally controlled schools in the Midwest.

Your tribe was selected using a criterion based sample strategy (i.e., participants directly involved with Indian gaming and education) as part of an elaborate research effort of American Indian tribes who contribute gaming revenues toward education programs and services.

Are you willing to help out with this study? (IF YES) I would like to set up an appointment to conduct on-site, semi-structured interviews with you and the following key stake-holders: (a) tribal finance director, (b) tribal education director, (c) school administrators, (d) school board president, (e) school business manager, (f) special education director, and (g) two lead teachers. As I mentioned previously in our telephone conversation, I will telephone you again upon receipt of this letter to set up and confirm possible interview times and dates for the on-site, semi-structured interviews that are most convenient for all participants.

Just to let you know, your participation is *voluntary* and you can withdraw at any time. By completing the interview, and not notifying me that you want to withdraw, you are giving consent to use the information that I gather in a dissertation and possibly, an educational journal article or various other publications. No real names will be used in the written report and as previously mentioned, you have been selected to participate in this study based on the criterion sample strategy.

Sincerely,  
Neil W. Trottier  
Doctoral Degree Candidate  
American Indian Leadership Program

## Appendix E

**Informed Consent Form for Social Science Research**

The Pennsylvania State University

**Title of Project:** AN EXPLORATORY CASE STUDY ANALYSIS OF TRIBAL AND SCHOOL LEADERS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARD HOW GAMING MONEY IS USED IN A TRIBAL SCHOOL

**Principal Investigator:** Neil Wayne Trottier  
821A Apt. 10 Southgate Drive  
State College, PA 16801  
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(814) 861-3042

**Advisors:** Dr. John W. Tippeconnic III  
Educational Leadership  
Suite 300 Rackley Building  
The Pennsylvania State University  
University Park, PA 16802  
E-mail: [jwt7@psu.edu](mailto:jwt7@psu.edu)  
(814)-863-1626

Dr. Susan C. Faircloth  
Educational Leadership  
Suite 300 Rackley Building  
The Pennsylvania State University  
E-mail: [scf2@psu.edu](mailto:scf2@psu.edu)  
(814)-863-3775

1. **Purpose of the Study:** The purpose of this study is to examine tribal and school leaders' perceptions of how Indian gaming money is used in a tribally controlled school in the Midwest.
2. **Procedures to be followed:** A series of semi-structured interviews including telephone interviews and email journals will be conducted with stakeholders from both schools. Participants will include: (a) the tribal chairman, tribal finance director, and tribal education director; (b) superintendents, business managers, principals, special education director; and (c) two teachers from each school. In addition, the school board president and assistant principal will also be interviewed at the public school. The interview sessions will be audio-taped and later transcribed to reflect

information and accurate data. In addition, certain documents will be collected during the research process. For example, archival school financial records, tribal gaming information, minutes of school board and tribal council minutes, and other public documents and official reports that are pertinent to the exploratory study will be attained.

**3. Duration/Time:**

Participants will be involved in approximately three 45 minute interviews that may include telephone interviewing and email journals.

- 4. Statement of Confidentiality:** Your participation in this research is confidential. Only the person in charge, and his advisors, will know your identity. The data will be stored and secured at *the principal investigator's apartment* in a *(locked/password protected)* file. Only the principal investigator and the transcriber will have access to the audio recordings from the participants. Since the study proposed the use of the Internet or email, "Your confidentiality will be kept to the degree permitted by the technology used. No guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by any third parties." The audio recordings will be destroyed approximately three years after all data has been collected for the research study.
- 5. Right to Ask Questions:** Please contact the principal investigator at (814)-861-3042 with questions or concerns about this study. You may also contact research compliance coordinator, Jodi L. Mathieu at the Office for Research Protections at (814) 865-1775.
- 6. Voluntary Participation:** Your decision to participate in this study is voluntary. You can stop at any time. You do not have to answer any questions you do not want to answer.

You must be 18 years of age or older to consent to take part in this research study. If you agree to take part in this research study and you have read and understand the information outlined above, please sign your name and indicate the date below.

You will be given a copy of this form for your records.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Participant Signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Principal Investigator

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

## Appendix F

The following information is used to explore phenomenal types of data by connecting relationships to frequencies.

*Presence of Codes in Telephone Follow-up Interviews*

Node	OPADS2	OHED T2	OSEC S2	OLCUTS 2	OVCTR2	OACHFOT 2	OBMS 2	OSBCMS 2	OSUA DS2	OETC S2
athletics	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes
breakfast and lunch	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No
equipment	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
facilities and renovation construction	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
health	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
higher education	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
language and culture	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No
parent and community involvement	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
salaries	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No
staff development	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
strengths of tribal contributions	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
student achievement	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
teacher, student ratio	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
weaknesses of tribal contributions	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes



*Presence of Coding for Electronic Email Journals*

<b>Node</b>	<b>OHEDT3</b>	<b>OSBCMS3</b>	<b>OSECS3</b>	<b>OPADS3</b>	<b>OVCTR3</b>	<b>OSUADS3</b>	<b>OETCS3</b>
athletics	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
breakfast and lunch	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No
equipment	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
facilities and renovation construction	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No
health	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No
higher education	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No
language and culture	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
parent and community involvement	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
salaries	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No
staff development	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
strengths of tribal contributions	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
student achievement	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No
teacher, student ratio	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
weaknesses of tribal contributions	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes

## Appendix G

Theme	Supporting Qualitative Data
Strengths of tribal contribution	One school board member replied, "Gaming money becomes part of the General Fund for the entire organization. As federal funding becomes limited, the Tribal General Funds help to support the other tribal entities in day to day operations to enable the programs the ability to continue to operate their programs without interruption of services to the community. One example, which I believe we previously mentioned is Johnson O'Mally funding which was cut this year from the federal level. Rather than totally eliminate this program, we were able to request 'tribal contribution' to fund this program without having to eliminate the program from school services."
Strengths of tribal contribution	The language and culture teacher said, "Well gaming is the whole reason why we have a tribal school."
Strengths of tribal contribution	The technology coordinator replied, "We're at the process right now of doing the cost analysis for the high school and that funding will be provided through gaming funds."
Strengths of tribal contribution	One school member said, "I think some of the teachers they just get together and with the students and they plan a garden, strawberries, I think there's beans. Potatoes they put in, and, and they teach the children about gardening, how to plant, maintaining, harvesting, that's all a part of that language/culture program. Everyone attends the annual feast in the Fall; I think it's funded with tribal contributions."
Strengths of tribal contribution	The tribal official replied, "When you go inside and tour the tribal school facility it's a very nice facility. We were able to get that with gaming dollars."
Strengths of tribal contribution	Another school board member said, "The overall school budget is supplemented with 'tribal contribution' funding to enable coverage for federal shortfalls throughout the school budget. Although these funds are not labeled 'gaming money,' they are a part of the tribe's "general fund."
Strengths of tribal contribution	The higher education director replied, "The gaming revenue in other departments, such as higher education, adult learning center, the library, youth recreation programs, Community Education Center... will help make the community self-determined."
Strengths of tribal contribution	The tribal vice chairman said, "Everything is generated through gaming and you know before we were able to develop these partnerships, we were able to make very little progress."
Strengths of tribal contribution	The business manager said, "It does help with our busing and transportation. We are, we are able to supply transportation at no cost to the parents for the kids to come to school."

<b>Theme</b>	<b>Supporting Qualitative Data</b>
Parent and community involvement	One teacher said, “It indirectly impacts the students positively.
Parent and community involvement	Another teacher replied, “Most of the parent participation is you know with their children like parent teachers conference, coming in seeing what their student is doing. Participation in field trips. The JOM like the parent teachers, or the parent deciding how that funding is, is to be spent.”
Parent and community involvement	One interviewee said, “They also throughout the school year have what they call sleepovers and generally those are held in the Turtle School gymnasium. Segregated classes I believe. Segregated that class is segregated group—girls in one group, the, the boys in another group. And the parents always volunteer for those events also.”
Parent and community involvement	According to one participant, “They come in and volunteer their time you know working with the actual in the classroom with the teacher. Lunch hours they’re there helping to monitor. Athletic events they’re always there helping.”
Parent and community involvement	Another interviewee replied, “Oh yes. Yes. In fact, the entire school board is made up of parents and community members. Good call. I hadn’t thought about them.”
Parent and community involvement	The principal replied, “Oh boy I think, I think so. Well I’m sure they have because then through some of our other programs we used to use some JOM funds but that’s been cut and some of that money has been replaced by tribal contribution where we have been able to continue to emphasize parent and community involvement.”
Parent and community involvement	One participant said, “In special education we can’t do anything without the parents.”

Theme	Supporting Qualitative Data
Facilities and renovation construction	A tribal official said, “Our infrastructure is fairly significant and large and the gaming revenue supports the maintenance of all those infrastructures including the tribal schools.”
Facilities and renovation construction	The technology coordinator added, “Well, from the infrastructure end of it I think it makes a significant difference. I mean if this school building wasn’t here our students academics I think would, would suffer a lot because I believe in the public schools I think that statistics show that the success and achievement levels of Native American students in terms of graduation rates and stuff are relatively low compared to what we’re doing here.”
Facilities and renovation construction	The vice chairman replied, “From a facilities standpoint we use gaming revenues as the, you might say the collateral to back up the, the debt instrument that was taken out to build the facility. We also support the school operations with a tribal contribution to their annual budget. Basically, for every federal dollar put into the program, there’s a dollar of matching tribal contributions.”
Facilities and renovation construction	The school administrator said, “Actually our facilities we do have a budget from the bureau but the new elementary school was built entirely on tribal contributions.”
Facilities and renovation construction	The school board chairman said, “The overall school budget is supplemented with ‘tribal contribution’ funding to enable coverage for federal shortfalls throughout the school budget. Although these funds are not labeled ‘gaming money,’ they are a part of the tribe’s general fund.”
Facilities and renovation construction	The tribal vice chairman said, “I believe gaming money will always be a part of the operation for the school.”
Facilities and renovation construction	The school principal exclaimed, “Gaming money or tribal contribution is which is primarily gaming money even though there are other entities that, that, that make money for the tribe has been used to support facilities and equipment at the school. It was used significantly in the construction of the, the elementary school, our Turtle School. And is, is a key component in, in many of our programs.”

<b>Theme</b>	<b>Supporting Qualitative Data</b>
Equipment	The language and culture teacher said, “The middle school has a lab, 3 <sup>rd</sup> , 4 <sup>th</sup> , 5 <sup>th</sup> has a lab, and the little kids have a lab. And then we have a technology room with computers in for classes in there. These are supported; I believe were funded with gaming contributions.”
Equipment	One participant said, “Just recently the PA system for the gym, fencing for the football field, and desks were purchased using tribal contribution.”
Salaries	The special education coordinator replied, “Yes, because tribal contribution I know does help to pay for the staff in language and culture.”
Salaries	One teacher replied, “I believe two of the language and culture teachers are, are supported . . . or salaries totally from gaming, are from tribal contribution.”
Salaries	The business manager said, “Of the tribal contribution, which is approximately 3 million, 78% of that is used to cover salaries.”
Student achievement	One school board members said, “The tribal contribution that’s received at the school assists in, in allowing us to do additional services that we normally could not cover if we didn’t, if we had to rely solely on, on federal funding.”
Student achievement	The elementary school principal said, “We’re tying attendance obviously to student achievement levels and we did make AYP this year.”
Student achievement	The vice chairman replied, “If anything the gaming revenue is probably provided the assistance that families need to keep their kids in school.”
Student achievement	The business manager said, “Well, I can attest to the attendance with gaming money being part . . . this is gaming contribution.”
Student achievement	The special education coordinator replied, “If we didn’t get the extra funding we would not be able to provide students with programs that would meet their needs. If its attendance and we need to have someone going to make a visit to their home you know that’s a person, that’s mileage, that’s all of these things. And without that we may not be able to reach the parents as much as we are able to do that.”
Language and culture	One interviewee replied, “Yeah we’re, yes it has a direct impact because we are, we were able to hire more language and culture teachers due to gaming contributions.”
Language and culture	One participant said, “I . . . you know if we didn’t have the monies to support the language and culture I think we, we would be even closer to having lost the language than we are right now.”

Weaknesses of tribal contribution	One participant said, “Our retirement plan is significantly lower than the public schools, which makes it difficult to get a good number of applicants for vacant positions.”
Weaknesses of tribal contribution	The higher education coordinator said, “More gaming revenues could be utilized to expand on to the nutritional programs, parenting programs and child care needs. We can’t always control the home environment but we should take as much control of the school environment as possible for the betterment of the child.”
Athletics	The vice chairman said, “Now when the athletic program if you see the, the team go somewhere or, or you know stride out on the field and, and someone doesn’t like the appearance of the uniforms, we’ll hear about that pretty quick. So we always make sure they have good uniforms for everyone.”
Athletics	The special education coordinator replied, “Gaming money is also used to cover the athletic program, yearbook, senior trip, and other activities that are held for the students or parents. Extra curricular activities are also funded by tribal contribution.”
Athletics	The principal said, “Gaming contributions sponsors our athletic programs. Cause I mean without that we’d be in a world of hurts as far as trying to have an athletic program.”

## Appendix H

## Abbreviations Illustrated in Coding Presence for Data Matrices Displays

OPADS1	OHEDT1	OSECS1	OLCUTS1	OVCTR1	OACHFORT1	OBMS1	OSBCMS1	OSUADS1	OETCS1
--------	--------	--------	---------	--------	-----------	-------	---------	---------	--------

O	Omega
TR	Tribe
S	School
SB	School Board
SU	Superintendent
AD	Administrator
P	Principal
HE	Higher Education
D	Director
SE	Special Education
C	Coordinator
L	Language
CU	Culture
T	Teacher
VC	Vice Chairman
A	Assistant
CH	Chief
F	Financial
OR	Officer
B	Business
M	Manager
CM	Committee
E	Education
T	Technology

**Neil Wayne Trottier**  
**821 A Southgate Drive State College**  
**Pennsylvania, 16801**  
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**Educational Background**

**Ph.D., Education Leadership, 2007**

The Pennsylvania State University

**Ed. Specialist, Education Leadership, 1998**

The University of St. Thomas, Saint Paul, Minnesota

**M.S., Education Leadership, 1993**

Northern State University, Aberdeen, South Dakota

**B.S., Physical Education, Coaching, American Indian Studies, 1989**

Mayville State University, North Dakota

**A.A., Liberal Arts, 1986**

Turtle Mountain Community College, North Dakota

**Professional Experience**

- **Facilitator on Special Assignment**, St. Paul Public Schools, Minnesota 2001-2002
- **Superintendent of Schools**, Pine Point School District, Minnesota. 1999-2001
- **Teacher**, St. Paul Public Schools, Minnesota, 1994-1999
- **Superintendent of Schools**, Jud Public School District, North Dakota, 1993-1994
- **Superintendent of Schools**, Wildrose Public School District, North Dakota, 1992-1993
- **College Instructor**, Turtle Mountain Community College, North Dakota, 1989-1990

**Educational Leadership Activities**

- **Member**, Pi Lambda Theta, International Honor Society and Professional Association in Education
- **Member**, Minnesota Association of School Administrators
- **Member**, American Association of School Administrators

**Presentations**

- **“Circle of Ethics”**, College of Education, The Pennsylvania State University, 2004

**Awards/Honors**

- **Fellowship**, Education Administration and the American Indian Leadership Program, The Pennsylvania State University, Pennsylvania
- **Fellowship**, The American Indian Graduate Center, Albuquerque, New Mexico
- **Scholarship**, J. Ralph Rackley Memorial Award, The Pennsylvania State University, Pennsylvania
- **Scholarship**, Minnesota Native American Award, Minnesota
- **Scholarship**, North Dakota Native American Award, North Dakota