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A STUDY OF SELECTED FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH PARTICIPATION
IN THE BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS EMPLOYMENT ASSISTANCE
PROGRAM ON A DAKOTA INDIAN RESERVATION
IN THE NORTHERN GREAT PLAINS

BY

DANIEL GREGORY FAAS

Donald S. Robinson 178 July 1970
Harold M. Davis 17 July 1970

A thesis submitted
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree Master of Arts, Major in
Sociology, South Dakota
State University

1970

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This thesis is approved as a creditable and independent investigation by a candidate for the degree, Master of Arts, and is acceptable as meeting the thesis requirements for this degree. Acceptance of this thesis does not imply that the conclusions reached by the candidate are necessarily the conclusions of the major department.

Thesis Adviser

Date

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Date

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DGF

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The issue of poverty in America has always existed, although it was dulled somewhat by the economic prosperity of the post World War II years. Why, then, has poverty gained a new prominence among a growing number of American citizenry? In the preface of Poverty in America, the editors write that one of the contemporary contributors to a sudden sense of urgency to the reduction of poverty was the "Civil Rights Movement of the 1960's."¹ Two of the central issues in the civil rights movement have concerned the high incidence of poverty among members of minority groups, in addition to the lack of economic opportunities available to them.

Although measurement of poverty is not simple, either conceptually or in practice, the 1960 Census Report, in noting the composition of the poor by using a \$2,999 "poverty-line" criteria, cited a high direction toward poverty among those families categorized as Negro, Puerto Rican, Mexican-American, and American Indians. Of these four minority groups, the American Indian constituted the largest percentage (54.9) of those families with yearly incomes below \$3,000.

¹Louis A. Forman, Joyce L. Kornbluh, and Michael Haber, Poverty in America: A Book of Readings (Ann Arbor, Michigan: The University of Michigan Press, 1965), p. xix.

The United States Bureau of Indian Affairs (in an unpublished manuscript of October, 1966) reported that "76 percent of reservation Indian families earn less than \$3,000 a year."² Although the income of reservation Indians rose nearly twice as much from 1939-1964 than for non-reservation Indians, "income of reservation Indians was only 32 percent of that of non-Indians in 1964"³ (i.e., \$1,800 to \$5,710).

The high unemployment rates of Indians are a major factor in explaining their relatively low incomes. A comparison of data for all Indians with that for non-Indians reveals that "it is evident that while the unemployment rate for non-Indians fell 67 percent between 1940 and 1959, the unemployment rate for all Indians ROSE 24 percent."⁴

This increase in unemployment for all Indians is, primarily, a consequence of the great exodus from reservations in search of more remunerative employment. Since, in many cases, these individuals are limited by lack of training and education (in 1960, median education for males 14 and over was 8.4 years), they are restricted to unskilled occupations.

²Alan L. Sorkin, "Trends in Employment and Earnings of American Indians," Toward Economic Development for Native American Communities-- A compendium of papers submitted to the Subcommittee on Economy in Government of the Joint Economic Committee, Congress of the United States, Vol. I, "Part I: Development Prospects and Problems" (Washington: U. S. Printing Office, 1969), p. 115.

³Ibid.

⁴Ibid., p. 110.

Data compiled by the U. S. Bureau of the Census demonstrate the extremely high unemployment rates for reservation males. In the early 1960's "the male unemployment rate on reservations was almost double the unemployment rate (25 percent) for all workers in the depths of the depression."⁵ Another discouraging aspect of the data on the unemployment among reservation Indians is that the unemployment rates seem quite insensitive to the movement of the business cycle. This fact is exemplified by a decrease of 60 percent in the overall unemployment rate between 1961 and 1967--a period of increasing prosperity. However, "the unemployment rate for male reservation Indians declined by only 25 percent."⁶

On some reservations more than half of all males in the labor force are unemployed. This situation is illustrated by data from the United States Bureau of Indian Affairs which demonstrated that in 1966 "unemployment ranged from a low of 20 percent on the Calville Reservation in Washington to 79 percent on the Fort Berthold Reservation in North Dakota."⁷

Factors responsible for the high unemployment rates for reservation Indians are many. However, some of the leading reasons are the following: First, "most Indians' lands are economically depressed areas..." These are the lands to which the Indians were removed because non-Indians succeeded in getting the most desirable lands which the

⁵Alan L. Sorkin, p. 111.

⁶Ibid.

⁷Ibid.

Indians had formerly occupied. It is estimated, however, "that even full practical utilization of these lands today would provide a livelihood for less than half the population now residing on the reservation."⁸ Second, "tribal ties are strong and Indians' emotional feeling about their ancestral land is deep and compelling."⁹ This feeling provides a sense of security completely unrelated to its present or prospective economic value. This attitude helps to explain why a population double the size that the land can support remains on the reservations. Third, "Indian cultures are not job-oriented."¹⁰ Most Indian children grow up in families "where their elders have never had regular employment, have never thought in terms of reporting for work each morning or even of rising at a regular hour."¹¹ Wage work is accepted as a means of providing for the family's immediate needs, "not as the basis for the future."¹² Fourth, "time, in the sense of measuring duration by clocks and days...is not important" in the Indian way of life.¹³ Fifth, there is a need of many Indians for more education and training to prepare them for better paying and highly skilled jobs.

⁸Unemployment among American Indians, Bureau of Indian Affairs, United States Department of Interior, September 10, 1963, p. 1.

⁹Ibid.

¹⁰Ibid.

¹¹Ibid., p. 2.

¹²Ibid.

¹³Lloyd B. Dennis, American Indians: Neglected Minority (Washington, D. C.: Editorial Research Reports, 1966), p. 638.

The Bureau of Indian Affairs, in attempting to improve the present conditions of high unemployment and low incomes on American Indian reservations is coordinating its ameliorative activities in three related ways: Two methods involve development of resources and industry on and near the reservation. The third method involves the Employment Assistance Program.

The two main services of the Employment Assistance Program, Direct Employment Assistance and Adult Vocational Training, are aimed toward the goals of the Bureau of Indian Affairs itself; that is, "maximum Indian economic self-sufficiency, full participation of Indians in American life and equal citizenship privileges and responsibilities for Indians."¹⁴

The Bureau of Indian Affairs contends that both services are aimed at more than just a job or preparation for a job through learning a skill or a trade. By living and working in a non-Indian community, the Indian "has an opportunity to participate in the general American way of life"¹⁵ by employment with persons of other racial and cultural groups; in the school and training situation; and in church and civic organizations. In this social setting the privileges and responsibilities may more closely approximate those shared by a general cross-section of the population away from the somewhat paternal guidance of the Bureau and Tribal programs.

¹⁴Program of Branch of Employment Assistance Toward Fulfillment of Goals of Public Laws 87-734 and 87-735 and the Bureau of Indian Affairs.

¹⁵Ibid., p. 1.

In addition to learning the social roles appropriate to the life styles of off-reservation living, "proper work habits and attitudes toward employment are stressed and, during training periods or periods of employment, may become important qualities in the individual's thinking."¹⁶

From a purely humanitarian perspective, few would find fault with the goals set by the Bureau of Indian Affairs for its program of employment assistance or for the confidence it places in the acculturation potentiality of the program. However, considering the difficulties inherent in replacing or modifying a whole range of attitudes and behaviors, the question might logically be asked as to whether the goals established for the Employment Assistance Program are in fact attainable. Equally important, has the Program of Employment Assistance attained to date any of the objectives established for it? Literature reviewed which might provide answers to these questions is, however, inadequate.

Based upon both, the review of literature concerning government sponsored training programs for the unemployed and literature studied relating to the effect of participation in the Employment Assistance Program upon its Indian participants, it becomes eminently apparent that further investigation is needed. Such an assessment must, however, proceed only from within a context that adheres to the requisites of scientific research.

¹⁶Program of Branch of Employment Assistance Toward Fulfillment of Goals of Public Laws 87-734 and the Bureau of Indian Affairs, p. 1.

Objectives of the Study

Within the perspective of the need for this study, therefore, the objectives are as follows: first, to study those demographic factors which may be associated with the choice and the termination of services of the Employment Assistance Program; second, to examine certain socio-economic variables which may be associated with participation in the Employment Assistance Program.

Statement of the Problem

Consistent with the objective of this study, the central problem under analysis is expressed in this question: What characteristics tend to be associated with persons participating in each of the BIA-sponsored Employment Assistance services and what influences might their participation have on certain socio-economic variables? These variables include the following:

1. Attitude toward earning a living
2. Attitude toward BIA Employment Assistance Program
3. Percentage of time employed
4. Monthly earned gross income
5. Present employment status

Organization of the Thesis

The remainder of this thesis is divided into major parts. Chapters II and III present literature concerning, respectively, the Employment Assistance Program in an evaluative and an organizational

and procedural perspective. Chapter IV presents and discusses the theoretical framework. Chapters V, VI, and VII include, respectively, the design of the study, the operational definitions of the variables, and the substantive hypotheses. The testing of the statistical hypotheses and the findings are found in Chapter VIII. Chapter IX summarizes the major findings, points out limitations of the study, and includes implications for further research and for program policy change. The bibliography is followed by the appendixes which include a map of Standing Rock Reservation, a formula for the Chi-square test of significance, and the interview schedule.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter has as its primary purpose the presentation of literature relevant to previous research, evaluations, and statements which apply, either indirectly or directly, to the participation of Indian peoples in the BIA Employment Assistance Program. In order to present the forthcoming literature in a logically consistent manner, however, the chapter will be structured in the following manner. The first part will deal with a succinct discussion of the growing significance of government-sponsored training programs for the unemployed and a brief review of three studies evaluating the effectiveness of two such programs. The second part will be a presentation of available literature relating to participation of Indians in the BIA Employment Assistance Program. The final portion of this chapter will be devoted to a summary statement as to the meaning and significance of the literature previously presented to this study.

Studies of Government-Sponsored Training Programs

One of the recent national policies to sharply increase employment potential for the jobless, for the underemployed, and for persons of minority group status, has been government-sponsored training programs. One of the major reasons for a growing interest in government-sponsored training programs is the result of "faith in education as a major vehicle of general well-being and of long-term economic

growth"¹ for society. Furthermore, the cost of training is seen as a long-term investment in human beings; like the general educational process, this investment promises great future returns. Finally, analysts of the labor market consider training of the unemployed as an important response to the "technological and structural changes which leave pockets of unemployed workers in declining industries, occupations, and areas."²

Two programs recently undertaken by the United States government for the purpose of providing training for the unemployed have been inaugurated under the Area Redevelopment Act (ARA) and the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA). The ARA, passed in 1961 provides training programs to equip unemployed and underemployed persons in economically distressed areas. The more inclusive MDTA, passed in 1962, broadened federal activity in the field of occupational training and retraining.

In an effort to evaluate the effectiveness of training the unemployed under the MDTA, two separate studies were conducted during 1963 and 1964. The first concerned the attributes and attitudes of trainees that were associated with successful training; the other, the economic costs and benefits of training. Both were based on

¹Gerald G. Somers, "Training the Unemployed," In Aid of the Unemployed, ed. Joseph M. Becker, S.M. (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1965), p. 227.

²Ibid.

samples of trainees who entered training courses in Michigan communities, and both cover those who failed to complete their training as well as those who completed their training.

The findings of the first study indicated to the investigators that the pull of the labor market affects training retention rates. When the "labor market tightened, those least likely to attain employment (i.e., nonwhites, women, and youth) remained to complete training."³ In addition, educational experience and marital status did not seem to affect completion.

Three-fourths of the trainees "who were interviewed 3 months after their courses, and 70 percent of those who were in training-related work." Those trainees who failed to complete their training were one and one-half times as likely to be unemployed.⁴

Unemployment rates did not differ significantly between trainees and the control group (nontrainees of similar backgrounds); however, "nearly half the trainees but only 30 percent of the control group felt 'very much' job satisfaction."⁵

In the second study, training courses were appraised to be sound investment for the economy and the individual trainees. The

³Dr. Einar Hardin, Dr. Sigmund Noscow, and Dr. Michael E. Borus, "Measuring the Benefits and Costs of Training Programs for Unemployed Workers," Manpower Research Projects, Report for the U. S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, 1969. Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, p. 18.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Ibid., p. 19.

"benefit-cost ratio was estimated to be 1.21 for society." Short courses, those of 60 to 200 hours, had a considerably higher-than-average cost ratio--17.34.⁶ Similarly, there were significant benefits for trainees, particularly those in short courses, who were estimated to receive nearly \$7,500 in added income over a 10-year period as a result of training.

The social and individual benefit-cost ratio for short courses were "above average among women, nonwhites, and trainees who had low earnings in the year before training."⁷

Support was also found for the efficacy of government-sponsored training for workers, especially disadvantaged workers, in a 1965 study of 373 Connecticut workers who were involved in job training courses. The purpose of the study was "to weigh the benefits and the costs of training the unemployed and to determine if training the unemployed was a good investment"⁸ for the individual workers, the government, and the economy.

Among other findings, the study revealed that:

1. The average annual gross income of the workers who used the training was "\$500 greater than their expected incomes in the absence of training."⁹

⁶Hardin, et al., p. 19.

⁷Ibid.

⁸M. E. Borus, "A Benefit-Cost Analysis of the Economic Effectiveness of Training the Unemployed," The People Left Behind, Report by the Presidents National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, September, 1967), p. 32.

⁹Ibid., p. 33.

2. Expected benefits per worker enrolled in training courses were much higher for the government than for the individual. Expected benefits to the government per worker--defined as "increases in tax revenues, decreases in unemployment transfer payment, and the average present value of the expected benefits of training for the economy"--were estimated at between \$5,500 and \$8,000 for the 10-year period.¹⁰

3. Training benefits were multiplied still more in the total economy by virtue of making unskilled and semi-skilled jobs available to workers who would otherwise be unemployed. The net benefits to the total economy per worker "over the 10-year period were estimated as being between \$20,000 and \$30,000."¹¹

Literature Pertinent to BIA Employment

Assistance Program

The BIA Employment Assistance Program is unique in the field of government-sponsored training programs for the unemployed and disadvantaged. This situation is brought about by law, which specifies that program participants may be members of but one ethnic group, that of the American Indian. Although the relocation and participation of Indian peoples in the BIA Employment Assistance Program is a complex problem in human behavior and should be carefully assessed and evaluated periodically, previous available literature appraising the program tends to raise more questions than it answers.

¹⁰Borus, p. 33.

¹¹Ibid.

In a pamphlet prepared by the Bureau of Indian Affairs entitled Vocational Training Programs for American Indians, it was found that during fiscal year 1964 about 4,000 Indian trainees were enrolled in Adult Vocational Training services. Furthermore, "counting family dependents," 25,000 to 30,000 individuals can be said to have "benefited, either directly or indirectly," from AVT services.¹²

Another pamphlet published by the Bureau of Indian Affairs indicated that "since the beginning of the program (1952)...over 61,500 Indian people" had been given "help" toward Direct Employment by the end of fiscal year 1967. This same article referred also to 24,300 Indians as having "received the benefits" of Adult Vocational Training.¹³

In the matter of the effectiveness of the Employment Assistance Program, an article published by the Bureau of Indian Affairs in 1963 noted that of the nearly 30,000 Indian workers who had "received services" between fiscal years 1952 through 1963, 17,000 or 60 percent have become "permanently employed."¹⁴

Although the Bureau of Indian Affairs is consistent in its references of the effectiveness of the Employment Assistance Program,

¹²Bureau of Indian Affairs, U. S. Department of Interior, Vocational Training Programs for American Indians (n.d.)

¹³Bureau of Indian Affairs, U. S. Department of Interior, Answers to Your Questions about American Indians, May, 1968, p. 18.

¹⁴Bureau of Indian Affairs, U. S. Department of Interior, Unemployment among American Indians, a statement submitted to the Employment and Manpower of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, United States Senate, September 10, 1963, p. 5.

Joan Ablon in a 1961-1962 study involving relocated Indians in the San Francisco Bay area offers a counterstatement. She writes, "the Bureau of Indian Affairs has had no program to follow-up relocatees except through chance encounters or by the grapevine...therefore, they label a unit they hear has remained in the city for over a period of years and has not frequently called on them for aid...as being a successful relocation."¹⁵ Ablon further stated that "many of the BIA relocatees remain in the cities to treasure the security of jobs in 'dirty work' that the more educated, acculturated persons would not endure."¹⁶

Joan Ablon concluded her study with the observation that "in the course of my study in the Bay Area I did not encounter any persons I could consider to be assimilated." In this respect, she added that such basic qualities of Indians--as Indian identity and continuing belief in early teaching and values--"are strongly resistant to change, despite efforts of the Bureau of Indian Affairs and the dominant white society to affect fundamental changes during the process of adjustment."¹⁷

John Price, in a 1966 city-wide survey comparing BIA relocatees in Los Angeles to those who migrated to the city independent of BIA

¹⁵Joan Ablon, "American Indian Relocation: Problems of Dependency and Management in the City," Minority Responses, ed. Minake Kurokawa (New York: Random House, 1970), p. 203.

¹⁶Ibid.

¹⁷Joan Ablon, "Relocated American Indians in the San Francisco Bay Area," Human Organization, XXIII (Winter, 1964), p. 297.

assistance, found support for Ablon's reference to the difficulty changing or modifying earlier forms of socialization. Price wrote that urban acculturation for the Indian involves more than "simply the learning of financial budgeting, industrial skills, or driving on the freeways, but the changing of a whole range of attitudes."¹⁸

Price found, for instance, that the Indians in his sample tended "to retain the attitude that one should not spend much on clothes or housing."¹⁹ (Attitudes, according to Price, held on the reservation.) Hence, the Los Angeles Indians interviewed "on the average spent a relatively small portion of their income on clothes and housing." Although most of the surveyed households had a television set, it was "probably" watched less than it would have been by whites.²⁰

In a 1956 survey sponsored by the Association on American Indian Affairs, LaVerne Madigan found that the returnee rate to the reservation was, in some areas, as high as 90 percent.²¹ An American Indian, speaking to the high returnee rate from relocation stated that "one reason for this failure is that people from the reservations haven't learned to live with people outside. As a result, they have tagged

¹⁸John A. Price, "The Migration and Adoption of American Indians to Los Angeles," Human Organization, XXVII (Summer, 1969), p. 170.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 171.

²⁰Ibid., p. 172.

²¹LaVerne Madigan, The American Indian Relocation Program. Report to the Association on American Indian Affairs. (n.d.)

relocation as not the right thing to do. Now others don't want to leave because they feel the program is unsuccessful."²²

Summary

Review of literature pertinent to the topic of the BIA Employment Assistance Program has revealed; one, an over-all lack of significant data dealing with the identification, entrance, exit, and subsequent socio-economic status of its program participants; two, apparent inconsistencies in statements and assessments purporting to measure the "effectiveness" of the BIA Employment Assistance Program.

At the same time, however, it is important to note that both, the literature presented assessing government-sponsored training programs for the unemployed, and the questions provoked by apparent inconsistent appraisals of the efficacy of the BIA Employment Assistance Program, stimulated a beginning conceptualization of variables and hypotheses which were pertinent to the focus of this study.

The literature presented in this chapter, together with the literature still to be presented in Chapter III (featuring organizational and procedural aspects of the Employment Assistance Program) and the social processes paradigm of Robert Park in Chapter IV seemed to provide a firm enough foundation upon which to develop and finalize the variables and hypotheses ultimately used in this study.

²²"Where The Real Poverty Is: Plight of the American Indians," U. S. News and World Report, April 25, 1966, p. 108.

The very fact of the non-existence of pertinent, in-depth studies relating directly to factors associated with participation in the Employment Assistance Program would seem to point up the very essential need for such a study. This thesis project, then, the author is hopeful, will be regarded as a first step in that direction.

CHAPTER III

FEDERAL INDIAN POLICY TO AND INCLUDING THE
BIA EMPLOYMENT ASSISTANCE PROGRAM

Whereas in the previous chapter the Employment Assistance Program was viewed from an evaluative perspective, this chapter will appraise the Employment Assistance Program from an historical and organizational context. The purpose in treating the BIA Employment Assistance Program from the dual dimensions of history and organization is to indicate that its contemporary role of providing vocational skills and employment placement for program participants is a policy reflection of the federal government's attempt to discontinue segregation of the Indian on reservations but rather to bring him into the normative American way of life.

In order to accomplish this objective, the chapter will be sectioned into seven parts. In sections one through five literature will be presented referring to the federal government's initial attempts, through its policy promulgations, to control the Indian by restricting his personal and social freedoms, and later its movement (Reorganization Act) toward official recognition of the Indian's right to affect his own destiny. The BIA Employment Assistance Program, then, one of the federally sponsored programs to assist the Indian people in attaining self-sufficiency, is discussed in part six. Part seven of this chapter will be comprised of a summary statement.

Community Diplomacy

When settling the American continent, Europeans needing the friendship of the Indians, treated them as free men and owners of the land, but they failed to grasp the Indian concept of land use and tenure. It was a common assumption that Indians were too primitive to have developed a property system. Another belief was that Indians were hunters to the exclusion of all other occupations, an assumption which gave comfort to settlers who regarded agriculture as a preferable use of land and "so justified themselves when they encroached upon Indian lands."¹

From the beginnings of colonization until the middle of the 18th century, each British colony was allowed to deal directly with the Indians within its borders. Practices varied widely from colony to colony; in addition, the administration of the rules of a colony was often so inadequate that Indians complained of their treatment, threatened, and at times actually resorted to armed resistance.

Because of the confusion and hostility resulting from unrestricted individual dealings with the Indians, the British Crown in 1754 formulated a policy for dealing with the Indians which took jurisdiction away from individual colonies. Under this policy, "the tribes were independent nations under the protection of the crown...and any individual attempt to buy or seize lands from the Indians was illegal."²

¹D'Arcy McNickle, "Indian and European: Indian-White Relations from Discovery to 1887," The North American Indians, ed. Roger C. Owen, James J. F. Deetz, and Anthony D. Fisher (New York: Macmillan Company, 1969), p. 625.

²John Collier, The Indians of the Americas (New York: W. W. Norton and Company, Inc., 1947), p. 175.

Control By Treaties

The policy of the British Crown was essentially that of the new American government after independence. One of the first acts of the Continental Congress on July 12, 1775, was to declare its jurisdiction over Indian tribes by creating three departments of Indian Affairs. Commissioners, empowered with the authority to make treaties with the Indians, were appointed to head the newly established Northern, Southern, and Middle departments.³

In 1784 the Congress of the Confederation placed the administration of Indian Affairs within the War Department, with the Secretary of War directed to place armed militia at the disposal of the Indian commissioners for the purpose of "negotiating treaties with the Indians."⁴

The first full declaration of the Indian policy of the United States government was made clear in the Northwest Territory Ordinance of July 13, 1787. It stated in part: "The utmost good faith shall always be observed toward the Indians: their land and property shall never be taken from them without their consent; and in their property, rights, and liberty, they shall never be invaded or disturbed unless in just and lawful wars authorized by Congress; but laws founded in

³Bureau of Indian Affairs, Federal Indian Policies, United States Department of Interior, n.d., p. 5.

⁴Ibid.

justice and humanity shall from time to time be made for preventing wrongs done to them, and for preserving peace and friendship with them."⁵

The first departure from the 'official' policy of respecting Indians' rights came under President Andrew Jackson. The Indian Removal Act of 1830 gave the President authority to put into effect a long-discussed plan to resettle Indians living east of the Mississippi River on unoccupied lands west of the river. In exchange the re-established Indians would be given perpetual title for their old lands and improvements thereupon.

In 1834 Congress gave regular and permanent status to the Indian Affairs office which had been created on March 11, 1824. It began carrying out President Jackson's directions to remove all Indians living east of the Mississippi River to new western lands. "These removal policies relied more on military force than diplomatic treaty."⁶

Small northern tribes were relocated without great difficulty in northern Wisconsin and Minnesota and in some cases on lands farther south. Removal of the large and powerful tribes established in the southeastern states was another matter. Cherokees, Chickasaws, Choctaws, Creeks and Seminoles--the so-called Five Civilized Tribes--had reached a relatively high degree of economic and cultural development. Efforts to bring about their removal oftentimes precipitated

⁵Bureau of Indian Affairs, p. 5.

⁶Ibid., p. 6.

armed resistance; consequently, the transfer took ten years to complete, involved considerable military action, and resulted in extensive suffering and hardship.

By 1849 with the creation of the Department of the Interior, the Bureau of Indian Affairs passed from military to civil control. Its efforts consisted of attempts at "civilizing" the Indian by training him for farming or trades. In 1862, the Secretary of the Interior, Caleb Smith, recommended a "radical change in the mode of treatment of Indians to regard them as 'wards' of the Government." Hence, the Bureau's efforts were often in conflict with the military policy of forced submission and it "at times found itself in the uncomfortable position of being a buffer between the Indians and the United States Army."⁷

The removal policy succeeded in large measure with the Five Civilized Tribes because they envisioned an Indian nation, fully sovereign and federated. However, the Indians west of the Mississippi (the Plains Indians) resisted all military moves to relocate them. For three decades, beginning in the 1850's raiding parties and sporadic, pitched fighting took place up and down the western plains.

By the 1860's and 1870's public sentiment had turned against continued military campaigns by the Army to clear a path westward for settlers. The government began making treaties with survivors of Indian tribes, setting aside tracts of land for them and supplying

⁷Bureau of Indian Affairs, p. 8.

food, clothing, livestock, and farm tools--all in an effort to help the Indians establish their own communities. These Indian lands became known as reservations.

The U. S. Congress, on March 3, 1871, finished the treaty period in the form of a rider to an appropriation act for the Yankton Indians, which decreed: "...hereafter no Indian nation or tribe within the territory of the United States shall be acknowledged or recognized as an independent nation, tribe, or power with whom the United States shall contract by treaty."⁸

Forming Reservations

The reservation system brought a new dimension of losses to the Indians, resulting from the federal government's pressuring them into relinquishing customs and culture.

Chieftanship, which had been encouraged since Colonial days as a means of tribal control, was not attacked directly. Instead, chiefs were bypassed while law and order was delegated to tribal police forces and Courts of Indian Offenses.

In addition, native religions were discouraged, some ceremonies forbidden, and Christian missionaries encouraged. Along with these changes, the Indian often found it impossible to gain his livelihood after the traditional pattern. The hunting tribes of the Great Plains, for example, could no longer follow the herds of buffalo.

⁸D'Arcy McNickle, p. 634.

As a result of the gradual breakdown of tradition upon which the social and economic spheres of Indian society were based, the Government found it necessary to feed the Indian populations on many reservations. This action also served to prevent the Indians' starvation and precluded the possibility of rebellion. The Indians "...soon came to be dependent upon direct relief..."⁹ Many knew nothing of agriculture and the old economic base had been extinguished with such suddenness that they did not have time for gradual adjustment to the changed environment."¹⁰

Assimilation Theory

In the latter part of the last century assimilation came to be viewed as the only humanitarian alternative to physical extermination of the Indians. The major means for promoting this policy was the General Allotment Act of 1887. This law provided that tribally-owned lands could be broken up at the discretion of the President and allotted to individual Indians. To avoid making the transition from Indian custom too abrupt, the land would be held in trust for 25 years, after which it could be sold. Citizenship was given to those Indians who accepted allotments and were adjudged competent in the working of them.¹¹

⁹The United States Indian Service, "A Sketch of the Development of the Bureau of Indian Affairs and of Indian Policy," adapted in part from Handbook of Federal Indian Law by Felix O. Cohen, published 1945 by Government Printing Office, for period to 1935 (December, 1956), p. 8.

¹⁰Ibid.

¹¹William T. Hagan, American Indians (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961), p. 148.

Tribal lands remaining after each individual had received his share were declared surplus. The President was then authorized to open the surplus lands to non-Indian homesteaders.

Supporters of the allotment act claimed that it was a sincere effort to promote economic development and the civilization of a population that could no longer survive by following a traditional economy of hunting and gathering. Critics of the law maintained that it was simply a device for taking away Indian land by legal means.

No matter what one might think of the goals of the allotment act or of the theory behind it, there is wide consensus that it failed to accomplish its broader purposes. Because the Indian lacked both the technical knowledge to make his land profitable and did not have the credit to acquire materials to operate the land, he fell prey to whites who were seeking land for homesteading and eager to buy allotments at far below their true value.¹² By the time the law was repealed in 1934, land of Indian tribes and individuals was reduced from 140 million acres in 1886 to under 50 million.¹³ This 90-million-acre diminution resulted in the loss of almost two-thirds of their land base.¹⁴

Because of the provision of the Allotment Act, the Indian Bureau, in addition to seeking national appreciation for the record of Indian

¹²Charles F. Marden and Gladys Meyer, Minorities in American Society (New York: American Book Company, 1962), p. 8.

¹³Federal Indian Policies, p. 11.

¹⁴D'Arcy McNickle, p. 635.

volunteers in World War I, began a push for full Indian citizenship. In 1924 Congress passed the Indian Citizenship Act, granting citizenship to all Indians who had not previously acquired it.

The Indian population had been growing smaller through the decades after mid-19th century. The California Indians alone "...dropped from 100,000 in 1853 to not more than 30,000 in 1864 and 19,000 in 1906."¹⁵ An epidemic of cholera in the central plains in 1849 struck the Pawnee. Disaster in the form of smallpox decimated the Blackfeet, Assiniboiné and Cree as late as 1870-71. The decision of 1871 to discontinue treaty-making and the Allotment Act of 1887 "were both founded in the belief that the Indians would not survive and hence it did not much matter whether their views were sought in advance of legislation or whether lands were provided for coming generations."¹⁶

Increasing public awareness of the plight of reservation Indians and its subsequent agitation for reform led Interior Secretary Hubert Work in 1926 to request the Institute of Government Research to study the Federal Indian policies. The survey which resulted was headed by Lewis Merriam. The investigators found most Indians living under poverty conditions, in bad health, without education, and not adjusted to the dominant culture around them.

¹⁵"North American Indian," Encyclopaedia Britannica, XII (1968), p. 77.

¹⁶Ibid.

Among reforms urged were a more realistic education program better attuned to the problems of reservation life and the need for more carefully chosen, better paid personnel. Perhaps most important was the recommendation for an "establishment of a professional and scientific Division of Planning and Development to hasten agricultural advances, vocational guidance, job placement, and other aspects of economic development on the reservations."¹⁷

Reorganization Act

Spurred in part by the recommendations of the Merriam Report and in part by an emerging liberal philosophy of treatment toward the Indian espoused by Commissioner of Indian Affairs, John Collier, Congress adopted the Indian Reorganization Act of 1934 (Wheeler-Howard Act), which contemplated an orderly decrease of federal control and a concomitant increase of self-government and Indian responsibility.

More specifically, the new law prohibited allotment of tribal lands in the future but authorized the tribes themselves to assign use rights to the individuals; authorized return to the tribes of surplus lands pre-empted by homesteaders; authorized tribes to adopt written constitutions and charters of incorporation embodying their continued management of internal affairs; and established a revolving credit program for land purchases. "The keynote became cooperation between Indian tribes and the federal government to achieve change without forcing it."¹⁸

¹⁷Federal Indian Policies, p. 12.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 13.

The Commissioner of Indian Affairs, John Collier, observed the following regarding the Act: "While the Wheeler-Howard Act marks a decisive shift of direction of American Indian policy, it falls far short of the ultimate goal. It is merely a beginning in the process of liberating and rejuvenating a subjugated and exploited race living in the midst of an aggressive civilization far ahead, materially speaking, of its own."¹⁹

Although assimilation was not abandoned as the ultimate goal, there was a decrease in the pressure to accomplish it quickly. The "new look" in Indian affairs recognized the positive values of Indian cultures and the need for a better economic base in Indian communities.

The Indian Reorganization Act was never fully put into effect. Funds were scarce during the Depression and insufficient money was appropriated to accomplish some of its ambitious goals. Later, during World War II, funds were even more scarce and there was a notable decline of interest in Indian affairs as the nation became pre-occupied with the war effort.

To a great extent World War II changed both the Indian way of life and federal Indian policy directions. Nearly 70,000 Indian men and women left reservations for the first time to go into military service and defense industries.

The war produced both new skills and a greater degree of cultural sophistication than had ever before been achieved by large numbers of Indians. But it also brought post-war demands for

¹⁹Federal Indian Policies, p. 14.

reservation economic development and for assistance in Indian vocational training and direct employment. The assertion for skills training and/or placement became a reality with the development of the BIA Employment Assistance Program.

BIA Employment Assistance Program

Historically, the present Employment Assistance Program of the Bureau of Indian Affairs is an outgrowth of activities which began on the Navajo reservation, covering parts of Arizona, New Mexico, and Utah, in the late 1940's.

It began originally as a job placement program, carried out in cooperation with state and federal employment services and focused largely on seasonal employment in agriculture and on railroads. Even during this early period, however, some Indians were given aid in moving permanently away from the reservations and establishing themselves in large, urban cities, such as Los Angeles, California.

On the basis of this limited experience, the Bureau in 1952 undertook a national program of relocation assistance for Indian volunteers. This venture embraced all tribes that came within the sphere of the Bureau's responsibilities and provided for relocation in any one of several western or mid-western cities. Under the Relocation Program, assistance was provided to both the Indian job-seekers and to family dependents as well; it also included transportation to the relocation destination, subsistence grants prior to the receipt of the first paycheck, and guidance toward community adjustment.

In 1956 the program was given additional impetus when Congress enacted a law (Public Law 959 of the 84th Congress) authorizing the Bureau of Indian Affairs to provide Indians, chiefly between the ages of 18 and 35, with vocational training, on-the-job training, and apprenticeship training (direct employment).²⁰ Lack of skills had been a seriously limiting factor in the earlier employment assistance activities;²¹ consequently, the 1956 enactment was a major step in the further development of the existing Employment Assistance Program.

The Branch of Employment Assistance is the unit of the BIA which administers Public Law 959. Each agency (reservation-level) office has an AGENCY EMPLOYMENT ASSISTANCE OFFICER who assists Indians in completing the application for employment assistance. This officer accepts or

CHAPTER IV

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Before securing dependable knowledge outside himself, the social scientist must initially consider what Kerlinger refers to as "the basic aim of science." He writes, "the basic aim of science is to find general explanations of natural events. Such general explanations are called theories." If one accepts theory as the ultimate goal of science, according to Kerlinger, "explanations and understanding simply become subaims of the ultimate aim." This characteristic is the result of the definition and nature of theory: "A theory is a set of interrelated constructs (concepts), definitions, and propositions that presents a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables, with the purpose of explaining and predicting the phenomena."¹

The value of theory, then, stems from its inclusiveness and generality. As soon as some action or event or situation can be conceptualized and placed into a category whose relationship to other variables is known, it becomes possible to make useful inferences. Theory therefore has full dimensions: it is concerned both with finding specific relations and also those relations which are most generalized.

¹Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964), pp. 10-11.

The concept of generality is important. Theories, because they are general, apply widely to many phenomena and to many persons in many places. A specific relation is less widely applicable.

Finally, by identifying the conditions under which events are likely to occur, theory makes possible prediction. Such predictions, however are not forecasts. They do not assert that something will in fact happen, but only that IF certain conditions exist, it is likely to happen.

Seeking explanations into the nature of relations between dominant and minority groups in multigroup societies has emerged in recent years as one of the most urgent goals for concerned members of the scientific community. Realizing this end, however, has been proven somewhat difficult because minority problems occur within the larger reference frame of social structure and social processes. Consequently, there exists no unique, separate body of theory of dominant-minority interrelations. Nevertheless, "they (dominant minority interactions) may be chosen as a focus within which a general theory of social relations is applied."² This practice is true of the writings of Robert E. Park, who with his theoretical paradigm of the "modes of human interaction" viewed "relations between dominants and minorities

²Marden and Meyer, p. 428.

as moving through a definite cycle, with one outcome, the assimilation of the minority into the dominant society."³ Greatly facilitating the transmission of cultural traits of one social group to another was, as attested by Park, the "educational process." Without the capability to speak a "common language", the internalization of unfamiliar cultural beliefs and behaviors is not possible.

For the theoretical purposes of the present study, then, the author has selected Robert E. Park's theory of intergroup relations. As a consequence, the sustained relations between the dominant white society and that of the subordinate Indian social group will be perceived as involving the following social processes: competition, conflict, accommodation, and assimilation.

The balance of the present chapter will be structured in the following manner: part two examines and describes Robert Park's four modes of human interaction; the third and final parts deal with the application of Robert Park's theory of social processes to Indian-white relations since European colonization up to and including the enactment of the Bureau of Indian Affairs Employment Assistance Program in the late 1940's. An essential segment of the

³Marden and Meyer, p. 430.

final part will relate the BIA Employment Assistance Program to Park's fourth mode of human interaction, that of assimilation. Park maintains that for a person or a group to become an integral part of another group, he must first learn to perceive cultural items in like manner as the group to which he seeks membership. It is Park's contention that a medium through which one comes to learn this sense of commonality is that of the process of education. Finally, an attempt will be made to analyze the possible effects of the acculturative process when a minority group (or one of its members) attempts to take on the values of the dominant society while still retaining certain value orientations acquired during socialization in the social system it seeks to leave.

For the purpose of the present research study, the BIA Employment Assistance Program will be perceived as a channel of acculturation through which the Indian program-participant may learn vocational roles necessary to compete effectively in an urbanized, technical society.

Social Processes Theory

Robert E. Park's systematic analysis of society revolved around four postulated modes of human interaction*: "competition,

*Interaction: Society, in mechanistic terms, reduces to interaction. This is the reason that the limits of society are coterminous with the limits of interaction, that is, "of the participation of persons in the life of society." The medium of interaction is communication (i.e., senses, emotions, and sentiments, and ideas). Park and Burgess, Introduction to the Science of Sociology, pp. 344-346.

conflict, accommodation, and assimilation."⁴ Race and cultural contacts were subsumed under this system.

Of the four types of interaction, competition, which is devoid of social contact**, "is the elementary, universal and fundamental form."⁵

Cooley, according to Park in Society, is probably the first to have undertaken to give an account of competition in sociological terms, and in doing so, expresses that its function is "to assign each individual his place in the social order." He adds that "competition is not a hostile contention nor even something of which the competing individual is always conscious."⁶

⁴Robert Ezra Park, Society (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1955), p. 104.

**Social Contact: is the "initial stage of interaction, and preparatory to later stages." A second dimension of social contact is that "it is only when the meaning that is in one mind is communicated to another, can social contact be said to exist." Social contact not only includes communication in primary associations, but communication through all forms of communication (i.e., languages, letters, television, etc.). Park and Burgess, Introduction to the Science of Sociology, p. 280.

⁵Robert E. Park and Ernest W. Burgess, Introduction to the Science of Sociology (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1924), p. 506.

⁶Robert Ezra Park, Society, p. 62.

Competition has its setting in the "struggle for existence,"⁷ (i.e., the competition of life and for space). This struggle is sometimes represented as a chaos of contending individuals in which the less strong perish in order that the stronger may survive. However, among men the free play of competition is "restrained by sentiment, custom and moral standards," as well as the more conscious control through law.⁸

From the perspective of the individual, competition means mobility, freedom, and from the point of view of society, pragmatic or experimental change. Restriction of competition is thus tantamount with "limitation of movement, acquiescence in control, and telesis,... (Ward's term for changes ordained by society in distinction from the natural process of change)."⁹

Although both "competition" and conflict are forms of interaction, they differ in important ways. Although competition "is a

⁷Robert E. Park and Ernest W. Burgess, Introduction to the Science of Sociology, p. 511.

⁸Ibid., p. 512.

⁹Ibid.

struggle between individuals, or groups of individuals, who are not necessarily in contact and communication" conflict "is a contest in which contact is an indispensable 'ingredient'." Both competition and conflict are forms of the struggle for existence. Competition, however, is continuous and impersonal: conflict is intermittent and personal. At such time then as the competitive relations between men become identifiable with the person, competition is transferred into conflict, and men thereupon label themselves as "rival" or "enemies," rather than "competitors" as previously had been the case.¹⁰

In general, one may say that competition "determines the position of the individual in the community"* (i.e., person's vocation in the division of labor): conflict "fixes his place in society,"** (i.e., status). Within Park's conceptual frame, then, the traits of location, position, and ecological independence are characteristics of the community*, but status, subordination, and superordination and control are the distinctive works of a society**.

¹⁰Robert E. Park and Ernest W. Burgess, Introduction to the Science of Sociology, p. 574.

*Community: term applied to "societies and social groups when they are considered from the point of view of the geographic distribution of the individuals and institutions of which they are composed," p. 163, Park and Burgess.

**Society: is "an organization of individuals as well as a complex of organized habits, sentiments, and social attitudes" (in essence, cultural traits), "all of which are necessary to collective human behavior," p. 163, Park and Burgess.

Writing in The Introduction to the Science of Sociology, Park states that nowhere but in the relations between races* do social contacts so readily provoke conflict, especially when "racial differences are reinforced by color as well as culture."¹¹

The unwillingness of one race to enter into personal competition with a race of a different or "inferior" culture ("conflict of cultures"), turns out, in the long run, to be the unwillingness of a people occupying a superior status to compete on equal terms with a people of a lower status. Race conflicts, like wars, are essentially the struggles of racial groups for status.

In all instances, the general effect of conflict has been to extend progressively the area of control of men, and to modify and limit the struggle within these areas. In Society, Park states that "conflict...tends to bring about an integration and superordination and subordination of the conflict groups, whether they be familial or tribal in character, or national, religious, or racial."¹²

*Race-relation, according to Park in "The Nature of Race Relations," in "Race Relations and the Race Problem," Thompson, p. 3, refers to "the relations existing between people distinguished by marks of racial descent, particularly when these racial differences enter into the consciousness of the individuals and groups so distinguished, and by so doing determine in each case the individual's conception of himself as well as his status..." In this sense, it is not so much the relations that exist between individuals as between individuals conscious of these differences.

¹¹Robert E. Park and Ernest W. Burgess, Introduction to the Science of Sociology, p. 578.

¹²Robert Ezra Park, Society, p. 63.

Accommodation, the third of Park's human interaction types "is the process by which the individuals and groups make the necessary social and psychological adjustments to social situations which have been created by competition and conflict."¹³

All the social heritages, traditions, culture, techniques, are accommodations--that is, "acquired adjustments that are society transmitted."¹⁴ They are not part of the racial inheritance of the individual, but are acquired by the person in social experiences.

The intrinsic relation between conflict and accommodation is stated by Georg Simmel in his analysis of war and peace and the problems of compromise. "The situations existing in time of peace are precisely the conditions out of which war emerges."¹⁵ War, on the other hand, brings about adjustments in the relations of competing and conflict groups which make peace possible. The problem, consequently, must find a solution in some method by which the conflicts which are latent, or develop out of, conditions of peace may be adjusted without resort to war.

¹³Robert E. Park and Ernest W. Burgess, Introduction to the Science of Sociology, p. 509.

¹⁴Ibid., p. 664.

*Georg Simmel: German sociologist noted for his studies of the "forms" of society. Social "forms" were defined by Simmel as meaning "that element of social life which is relatively stable..." (e.g., superior-inferior relations, competition, division of labor, etc.), in contradistinction to "consent," which is "conspicuously variable." Taken From: Nickolas S. Timasheff, Sociological Theory: Its Nature and Growth (New York: Random House, 1967), p. 103.

¹⁵Robert E. Park and Ernest W. Burgess, p. 669.

The outcome of the accommodation, which the struggle for existence enforces, is a state of relative equilibrium among the competitors. Essentially that with the exception of order based on competition, social organization of accommodation of differences through conflicts.

Every society represents an organization of elements more or less antagonistic to each other, but united for the moment by agreement which defines the reciprocal relations and respective spheres of action of each. This "accommodation" may be relatively permanent as in a society constituted by castes or quite transitory as in societies made up of open classes. In either case, the accommodation, while it is maintained, secures for the individual or the group a discernable status.

In an accommodation, then, the antagonism of the hostile element is, for the moment, regulated and conflict disappears as visible action, although it remains latent as a potential force. With a change in the status quo, the adjustment that had previously held in control the antagonistic forces fails. There is confusion and unrest which may result in open conflict. Conflict, in whichever form, "invariably effects a new accommodation or social order, which in general involves a changed status in the relations among the participants."¹⁶

¹⁶Robert E. Park and Ernest W. Burgess, Introduction to the Science of Sociology, p. 665.

In the area of personal relations, accommodation tends to take the form of subordination and superordination. "Even where accommodation has been imposed, as in the case of slavery, the personal relations of master and slave were invariably supported by appropriate attitudes and sentiments."¹⁷ It has been shown "under conditions of accommodation by force, sentiments of subordination which have grown up in conformity with an accepted situation eventually become the basis of a life philosophy of the person."¹⁸

Assimilation, the fourth of Park's modes of human interaction "is the process of interpenetration and fusion in which persons and groups acquire the memories, sentiments, and attitudes of other persons or groups,"¹⁹ and in so sharing their experience and history, are incorporated with them a common cultural life. Insofar as assimilation denotes this sharing of tradition, this intimate participation in common experiences, assimilation is central in the historical and cultural processes.

With reference to their respective roles in society, the distinction between accommodation and assimilation explains certain important formal differences between the two processes. An

¹⁷Robert E. Park and Ernest W. Burgess, Introduction to the Science of Sociology, p. 667.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 669.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 735.

accommodation of a conflict, or an accommodation to a new situation, may take place with rapidity. The more intimate and subtle changes involved in assimilation come about more gradually. The changes that occur in accommodation are frequently "sudden." Even though they may appear considerable in their accumulation over a long period of time, the modification of attitudes in the process of assimilation is not only gradual, but moderate. In accommodation "the person or the group is highly conscious of the occasion,"²⁰ as in the peace treaty that marks the end of the conflict. In assimilation the process is incorporated into the common life before he is cognizant of the cause of events which brought about this incorporation.

As social contact initiates social interaction, assimilation is its final perfect product. But the nature of social contacts is decisive in the process. Assimilation takes place most rapidly where contacts are primary (i.e., touch or familiar relationships), that is, "where they are most intimate and intense."²¹ As a result, "admission to the primary group...makes assimilation comparatively easy, and almost inevitable,"²² unlike the situation in secondary groups. Secondary contacts facilitate accommodations, but do not generally promote assimilation. The contacts in the accommodation process are external and too weak.

²⁰Robert E. Park and Ernest W. Burgess, Introduction to the Science of Sociology, p. 736.

²¹Ibid., p. 737.

²²Robert Ezra Park, Society, p. 209.

A common language is indispensable for the most intimate association of the members of the group; "its absence is an insurmountable barrier to assimilation." The phenomenon "that every group has its own language," and its cultural symbols is evidence of the interaction between communication and assimilation.²³

Writing in Race and Culture, 1950, Park states that John Dewey formulated a definition of the educational process which he identifies with acculturation.* Education, he says in effect, is a self-renewing process, a process in which and through which the social being lives.

"With the renewal of physical existence goes, in the case of human beings, the re-creation of beliefs, ideals, hopes, happiness, misery, and practices. The continuity of experience, through renewal of the social group is a literal fact. Education, in its broadest sense is the means of this social continuity of life."²⁴

²³Robert E. Park and Ernest W. Burgess, Introduction to the Science of Sociology, p. 737.

*Acculturation: process referring to the "transmission of cultural elements from one social group to another." It is to be distinguished from "amalgamation," which is the "fusion of races by interbreeding and intermarriage." Amalgamation, while it is limited to the crossing of racial traits through interbreeding and intermarriage, promotes assimilation of social heritages. The offspring of a 'mixed' marriage not only biologically inherits the physical traits from both parents, but also acquires in the blending of family life the attitudes, sentiments of both parents. This "amalgamation of races insures conditions of primary social contacts most favorable for assimilation," Robert E. Park and Ernest W. Burgess, Introduction to the Science of Sociology, p. 737.

²⁴John Dewey, Education and Democracy, pp. 2-3, from Robert E. Park, Race and Culture, p. 262.

Although education may be viewed as a means of acculturation, it is not known completely what is involved in this process of transmission of a tradition from one generation to another and from one cultural group to another. This is especially true where the two cultural groups are as different as are, for example, "those of the American Indian and European, where under ordinary circumstances, the two races live together, but in more or less complete cultural isolation.²⁵

In such a case, isolation may markedly preserve and perpetuate an existing culture; but, in the course of the educational process, some sort or some degree of change in the culture is bound to take place. Some modification of tradition is necessary to preserve the content of the cultural tradition; for a tradition is not only something to be preserved, but like the society of which it is a part, it is a body of information to be renewed and perpetuated. That is why education, when successful, is somewhat of a creative process in which the culture is, in course of transmission, re-created in the mind of the student and of the community.

Cultural traits of one group, regardless of the medium of socialization, however, are not transmitted to another by the mere fact of exchange and use. Similarly, an "'alien' may be said to be assimilated not when he has learned to use the language, customs, and

²⁵Robert E. Park, Race and Culture, p. 318.

institutions of his adopted country, but when he has been also able to make them his own in some more thoroughgoing way than mere use implies."²⁶

Relation of Theory to Study

Competition

Viewed within a broad perspective, relations between the immigrating Europeans and American Indians during the period of colonization were based upon a mutual desire for trade and barter. The French, for instance, were primarily concerned with fur trade, and the English sought Indian land, although the fur trade also attracted some.

As white settlers became more numerous and began to press westward, however, many tribes began to grow hostile. Soon confrontation was unavoidable.

Conflict

The Indians' response to the subsequent threat of cultural and physical inundation by the hordes of white settlers surging across their lands--lands which had been guaranteed government protection by treaty--was three decades of sporadic fighting. In the 1860's, the 1870's, and the 1880's, the Sioux tried violently to assert their independence; in the 1860's, the Cheyennes and the Arapahoes tried to

²⁶Robert E. Park, "Social Assimilation," Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, II (1930), p. 282.

assert theirs; in the 1870's the Medocs tried to assert theirs, and the Nez Perce's, theirs.²⁷ The end, however, was always the same; defeat and death or isolation through segregation on reservations.

Accommodation

Following his confinement on reservations, the Indian sought, through two revivalistic movements, to erect a more viable culture out of the defeat and decay of its previous one. This process involved a transition from the Ghost Dance phenomenon of 1890, in which there was an attempt to recover attributes of a dying culture by violently destroying its dominant white antagonist, to the Peyote Cult, which sought peaceful adaptation by integrating into its own religious system certain beliefs and practices of the dominant cultures Judeo-Christian religious orientation. This final phase of the revivalistic movement reflected the Indians' desire to adapt rather than to retreat from the eminent subjugation of the dominant white.

Assimilation

In stabilizing its dominance over the Indian, the federal government, in an act of March 3, 1871, declared that hereafter "no Indian nation or tribe 'would be recognized' as an independent power with whom the United States may control by treaty."²⁸ Indian affairs

²⁷Roy H. Pearce, The Savages of America (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1965), pp. 220-223.

²⁸Marden and Meyer, p. 362.

were brought under the legislative control of Congress to an extent that had not been heretofore attempted. Tribal authority with respect to criminal cases committed by members within the tribes was reduced to the extent that murder and other major crimes were placed under the jurisdiction of the federal courts. "The policy and the practices of the Indian Officer from this point on were aimed at weakening tribal organization of the Indians, destroying their culture, and forcing the assimilation of Indians as individuals into the normative American way of life."²⁹

One phase of the policy of forced assimilation concerned the "educational program."³⁰ This approach by the dominant white culture embodied the boarding school program which called for establishing schools in the eastern United States and elsewhere distant from the reservation. This 'theory' of Indian education called for the removal of children of school age from their parent's homes so that they might be "civilized." Often the children were taken from their homes by force and subjected in the schools to a rigid discipline and a standardized, outmoded course of study. Much of the time was devoted to school work, the remainder, however, to performing routine institutional tasks such as laundering, cleaning, wood-chopping, and the like.³¹

²⁹Marden and Meyer, p. 363.

³⁰Ibid.

³¹Harold E. Fey and D'Arcy McNickle, Indians and Other Americans: Two Ways of Life Meet (New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1959), p. 110.

Forbidden to speak their own language in school, out of touch with family and tribal life, the children would return home from school unable to readapt themselves to reservation life and equally unable to find a place in a white community. They had learned to read and write, but were unfamiliar with the customs and language of their own people, and found schooling of little use in making a living in the dominant white society. Until the appearance of the Merriam report (already described in its general context in Chapter II), the total Indian education situation was growing progressively worse.³²

The report was especially critical of the boarding schools, which still dominated the scene although for some years the Bureau supposedly was directing its efforts away from the boarding schools and toward the use of public schools and local Indian day schools.

Arrangements for the care of children in boarding schools, the survey staff found, were wholly inadequate. "The diet was deficient in quantity, quality, and variety; the dormitories were crowded; medical services were below standard; the schools were still supported in part by the labor of student, and some work performed probably violated state child-labor laws; and finally, the work program was not adequate substitute for vocational training--in fact, the facilities for vocational training were inadequate."³³

³²Harold E. Fey and D'Arcy McNickle, Indians and Other Americans: Two Ways of Life Meet, pp. 111-112.

³³Ibid., pp. 112-113.

The Bureau had made increasing use of public schools, until by 1920 the enrollment of Indian students in them exceeded that in Bureau schools. The report commented on this development, and "regarded it as a movement in the direction of the normal transition of Indian ways to white."³⁴ In addition, the report recommended that Indian day schools on reservations be increased in number and improved in quality so that it might reach adult Indians as well as children.

The last of the special reports concerning Indian education was issued by the National Advisory Committee on Education in 1931. The committee found "that the educational policy of the federal government toward the Indian population of the United States had been a tragic failure."³⁵ It stated that the government had concentrated too exclusively on its "fiduciary role and had not given enough attention to training to be...economically self-supporting, and competent in caring for his own property."³⁶ The effect of that policy, according to the N.A.C.E., "had pauperized the Indian and left him as helpless in the face of a strange economic civilization as he had been in his first contacts with that civilization."³⁷

³⁴Harold E. Fey and D'Arcy McNickle, Indians and Other Americans: Two Ways of Life Meet, p. 114.

³⁵Ibid.

³⁶Ibid.

³⁷Ibid.

The Bureau of Indian Affairs Employment Assistance Program enacted in 1963 is viewed as a direct outgrowth of the need--as expressed in the aforementioned reports--of Indian education in the form of vocational and skills training. Within the process of this program, Indian students are provided access to a channel of acculturation through which to learn various occupational roles valued by the dominant, white society. However, before a participant in the Employment Assistance Program is able to internalize the various aspects of the occupational role in which he is being socialized, there are three dimensions of said role to which he must adjust. The first is referred to as STRUCTURALLY GIVEN DEMANDS, the second stresses personal ORIENTATION or CONCEPTION of role, and the third refers to the ACTIONS of the individual.³⁸

In the first sense, wherein role is defined as the STRUCTURALLY GIVEN DEMANDS (norms, expectations, responsibilities, etc.) associated with a given position, the role demands are external to the individual. Role is, in this sense, something outside the given individual, a "set of pressures and facilitations that channel, guide, impede, and support his functioning."³⁹

Confronted with a complex system of requirements and conditions of work, the individual effects his mode of adaptation. Through this

³⁸D. J. Levinson, "Role, Personality, and Social Structure," in Sociological Theory: A Book of Readings, ed. Lewis A. Coser and Bernard Rosenberg (London: The Macmillan Company, Collier-Macmillan Limited, 1969), pp. 297-309.

³⁹Ibid., p. 300.

process the person defines his ORIENTATION or CONCEPTION of the part he is to play (second definition of role). This may involve "possible adjustment, active furthering of covert role-demands, and the like."⁴⁰ The personal role-definition may thus have varying degrees of 'fit' with the role requirements. As such it may involve a high or low degree of self-commitment and personal involvement on the part of the individual.

Finally, role refers to the characteristic manner in which the individual ACTS as the occupant of a particular status (in this analysis, the status of a specific vocational training position).

It had been commonly assumed that there was great uniformity in role-performance; however, upon investigation, several behavioral-types rather than a single dominant pattern were found.

Not that this variability is surprising. Role-performance, like any other form of human behavior, is the resultant of many forces. Some of these forces derive from the organizational matrix: for example, from role-demand and the pressures of authority, from impending sanctions. Other determinants lie within the person, as for example his role-conceptions. Except in certain cases where all forces operate to channel behavior in the same direction, role-performance will reflect the individual's attempts at choice and comprise among diverse external and internal forces. For the member of a minority group who aspires to become a member of the dominant group, through whatever means of acculturation, his role-performance may well depend upon his ability to cope with what Robert Park refers to as the phenomena of the "marginal man."

⁴⁰D. J. Levinson, p. 304.

In Race and Culture, Robert Park states that during the process of acculturation, "when old habits are being discarded and new ones not yet formed, there is inevitably a period of inner turmoil and intense self-consciousness; the person who thus finds himself on the margins of two cultures and not fully accommodated to either," Park refers to as the "marginal man."⁴¹

Park's study of the "marginal man" phenomena is based upon his conviction that the individual's personality, "while based on... temperament and the endocrine balance, achieves its final form under the influences of the individual's conception of himself."⁴² The conception which each individual inevitably forms of himself is determined by his social role and upon the opinion and attitude which persons in that society form of him, in short, depends upon his social status. In this sense then, the individual's conception of himself is not an individual but a social product.

In studying the "marginal man" concept, Park stresses that he is concerned "finally and fundamentally less with a personality type than with a social process, the process of acculturation."⁴³ In doing so, he has chosen to investigate the process less from the point of view of the person rather than of the society of which he is a part.

⁴¹Robert E. Park, Race and Culture (New York: Knickerbocker Printing Corporation, 1950), p. 353.

⁴²Ibid., p. 375.

⁴³Ibid., p. 376.

It is possible that while the Indian participant in the Employment Assistance Program will be able to make a satisfactory adjustment to the various role requirements of his vocational placement, he may at the same time perceive the occupation he has chosen--via vocational training--as providing only a limited opportunity to achieving the economic success to which he aspires. In this dilemma, what might be his behavior? How will he adapt?

When there is conflict between cultural goals and the availability of legitimate means toward those ends, according to Robert Merton, individuals may adapt according to five basic modes: conformity, retreatism, ritualism, innovation, and rebellion. Insofar as the present analysis is concerned, only the first and second modes of adaptation will be dealt with.

To the extent that a society is stable, conformity to both cultural goals and institutionalized means is the most common and widely diffused type of individual adaptation. Were this not so, the stability and continuity of the society could not be maintained. It is, in fact, only because behavior is typically oriented toward the basic values of society that one may refer to a human aggregate as making up a society. Unless there is a consensus of values shared by interacting individuals, there exist social relations--if disorderly interactions may be so described--but no society.

As conformity is the most frequent mode of adaptation, retreatism (the rejection of cultural goals and institutional means)

is probably the least common, according to Merton. People who adapt in this fashion are "in the society but not of it,"⁴⁴ as they do not share a common frame of values.

This mode of adaptation is most likely to occur when "both the cultural goals and the institutional practices have been thoroughly assimilated by the individual and imbued with effect and high value, but accessible institutional avenues are not productive of success."⁴⁵ The competitive order is maintained, but the frustrated and handicapped individual who is not able to cope with this order drops out. Defeatism and resignation are exhibited in escape mechanisms which ultimately lead him to withdraw from the requirements of society. This type of adaptation, then, is that of the "socially disinherited who if they have need of the rewards held out by society also have a few of the frustrations attendant upon continuing to seek those rewards."⁴⁶ Although individuals exhibiting this type of behavior may gravitate toward areas where they come into contact with others manifesting the same behavior, their adjustments are mainly private and isolated.

⁴⁴Robert K. Merton, "Social Structure and Anomie!", in Social Perspectives On Behavior, ed. Herman D. Stein and Richard A. Cloward (New York: The Free Press, 1958), pp. 517-536.

⁴⁵Ibid., p. 532.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 533.

Merton writes that these categories (conformity and retreatism) refer to "role behavior in specific types of more or less enduring response, not types of personality organization."⁴⁷

Summary

Robert E. Park's social processes formulation was seen on the grand scale in the sweep of historical progression toward ultimate assimilation. In the short run, however, he admitted that there are certain conditions (e.g., effect of marginality) that impede assimilation.

For those persons who have accepted the goals of a given social order as their own, but discover, as limiting, the means they possess to attain those objectives may react in several ways, two of which include conformity and retreatism. Thus, the Indian participant of the Employment Assistance Program who perceives his vocational or employment choice as inconsistent with the economic goals he has set for himself may, if the frustration becomes great enough, seek refuge by returning to the reservation and the security of a previous and familiar life style.

⁴⁷Robert K. Merton, "Social Structure and Anomie!", p. 524.

CHAPTER V

THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The research data for the present study were gathered on the Standing Rock Reservation during the time period spanning December 10, 1969, to January 10, 1970. Before proceeding, however, to discuss other design dimensions of the study, a succinct historical and demographic presentation of the Standing Rock Reservation is called for.

Standing Rock Reservation is part of the Great Sioux Indian Reservation, which originally comprised the following reservations: the Cheyenne River Indian Reservation, the Rosebud Reservation, the Crow and Lower Brule Reservations, and the Pine Ridge Reservation. Following the establishment of Standing Rock as a separate reservation in 1889,¹ the Bureau of Indian Affairs Agency headquarters was moved from south of Wakpala, South Dakota, to its present site at Fort Yates, North Dakota.

The 876,796-acre reservation is located in Sioux County and a small portion of Adams County in North Dakota and in Corson County and small portions of Dewey County and Ziebach County in South Dakota (see Appendix A for map).²

¹The Encyclopedia Americana, XV (1965), 44g.

²Information on South Dakota Reservations, Commission of Indian Affairs, Pierre, South Dakota, ed. Roy E. Dibble, n.d. but after 1964, p. 5.

Standing Rock Reservation was populated by sub tribes of the Dakota Sioux, principally the Teton and Yanktonai bands.³ Today the total population of the Standing Rock Reservation (those living on the reservation) is 10,841.⁴

The selection of the Branch of Employment Assistance at Standing Rock Agency, Ft. Yates, North Dakota, as the reservation-level office through whose assistance the sample for this study would be chosen, was premised upon three singularly important criteria. First, although it may not be necessarily representative of its program counterparts on South Dakota reservations, the Bureau of Indian Affairs Area Office, Aberdeen, South Dakota, considers the BIA Employment Assistance Program on the Standing Rock Reservation to be one of the most efficiently performing programs within its area of administrative jurisdiction. Second, employment and vocational services offered by the Standing Rock Employment Assistance Program are more comprehensive than some of those employment and vocational services provided by Branch of Employment Assistance offices on South Dakota Reservations. Third, follow-up services furnished by the BIA Employment Assistance office on Standing Rock Reservation for those program participants who have terminated their service-placement are more varied than are those follow-up services as provided by some Employment Assistance Programs on reservations in South Dakota.

³Information on South Dakota Reservations, p. 6.

⁴Standing Rock Sioux Tribe, Programs for Progress: 1870-1970, Fiscal Year 1969, p. 21.

Selection of Respondents

The respondents for this study were drawn from a list of 593 persons who had participated in the BIA Employment Assistance Program for the first time, between the period January 1, 1960, to June 30, 1966. Because of the logistic requirement of the study, however, that the respondents chosen be current residents of the Standing Rock Reservation, the initial list of 593 potential respondents was ultimately reduced to 93. The selection of January 1, 1960, as the date which would mark the beginning of the time-frame for this study was based upon the information that the "Employment Assistance Information Record" (the form which would provide necessary descriptive data about participant at time of his acceptance for program services) was revised at that time in order to provide more comprehensive data about participant than had been provided by the previous form. The adoption of June 30, 1966, as the reference point which would indicate the ending of this study's time-frame was made in the recognition that each potential respondent would therefore be provided with approximately three years in which to develop expression of those factors chosen in this study to be associated with the effectiveness of the BIA Employment Assistance Program.

Interview Schedule and Interviewing Procedure

A pre-test of the interview schedule was conducted on the Standing Rock Reservation. Thus, a means of discovering and thereby eliminating any unforeseen shortcomings or weaknesses of the construction of the interview schedule was provided. The pre-test

took the form of personal interviews with persons who had been participants in the BIA Employment Assistance Program but not during the time-frame of the present study. On the basis of the findings of the pre-test, although no questions were added to or omitted from the schedule, some questions were revised in order to provide greater clarity.

The interview schedule itself was comprised of predominantly "closed or fixed-alternative" questions, as opposed to "open or open-ended" questions.⁵ (See copy of interview schedule in Appendix C.) An introductory paragraph of the interview schedule assured the respondent that his name would remain anonymous and the information he gave confidential. Following this introductory statement, the body of the schedule was structurally composed of three major sections.

Section A of the schedule was primarily designed to ellicit information pertaining to the respondent's date of entrance and departure from the BIA Employment Assistance Program as well as to reveal respondent's appraisal of the availability of employment opportunities on Standing Rock Reservation in general and in particular for those having had participated in the program of employment assistance. Section B dealt entirely with the respondent's "Employment Record" since departing from the Employment Assistance

⁵Bernard S. Phillips, Social Research: Strategy and Tactics (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966), p. 117.

Program as an active participant. Section C incorporated two parts. The first part included several item-statements with which to assess the respondent's attitude toward the BIA Employment Assistance Program. The second part of Section C contained item-statements with which the respondent's attitude toward "Earning A Living" was to be measured. The attitude-scaling instrument used to measure both attitude-positions was a Likert-type summated rating scale.⁶ With the Likert technique the subject responds to an attitude item in terms of several degrees of agreement or disagreement (intensity). In this schedule, for instance, five response-choices were available to subject: Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree. A numerical value was assigned to each response-choice and the scores of the items of the scale were summed to yield the subject's attitude score on the particular property being measured. The purpose of the summated rating scale, as in all attitude scales, "is to place an individual somewhere on an agreement continuum of the attitude in question."⁷

Before the actual process of interviewing respondents began, a training session was held with selected employees of the Standing Rock Sioux Tribe Economic Opportunity program. The workers consisted

⁶Claire Selltitz, Marie Jahoda, Morten Deutsch and Stuart W. Cook, Research Methods In Social Relations (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969), p. 366.

⁷Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research: Educational and Psychological Inquiry (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964), p. 484.

of community health and neighborhood center aides who were specifically chosen for this study because of proven competence displayed during the course of previous research studies* on Standing Rock Reservation.

At the outset of the session, the interviewers were provided with information concerning the general background of the field study, its purpose, and its scope. It was felt that if the interviewers had an understanding of the study as a whole, they would be better equipped to cope with possible objections from respondents and to convince them of the importance of the inquiry--and thus to reduce the likelihood of refusals. The author reviewed the interview schedule with instructions to interviewers and answered questions of clarification. In order that the respondent would not be forced to distort his responses, either explicitly or otherwise, the interviewers were advised to develop as permissive an atmosphere as possible so that he might feel free to express himself without fear of disapproval or future repercussion. In addition, all interviewers were directed to reaffirm verbally to the respondent as to the intent of the introductory paragraph of the interview schedule: that is, that his information would remain confidential and his personal identity, anonymous. The interviewers were further counseled that, upon completing each schedule, they should examine it to make certain that it had been filled out in accordance with instructions. Then, if errors or omissions were noted, they were to be corrected immediately or as soon as a reinterview could be arranged.

*One such study was the Nutritional Food Survey, conducted on the Standing Rock Reservation in August of 1969.

Private and group sessions were held, when appropriate, throughout the period of the field work. Such meetings were scheduled for the purpose of offering critical appraisal of the interviewer's interviewing technique and his recording of replies. The schedules were edited in the presence of the interviewer so that he could receive any necessary instruction and correct his mistakes before they became habitual.

A direct result of the establishment of the schedule-reviewing process was that relatively few schedules required a reinterview with the subject, and, in the final analysis, no schedules were determined to be unacceptable for the study purposes.

Once the process of interviewing eligible respondents had been completed, it was determined that of the 93 potentially eligible respondents, a total of 48 had been interviewed and 45 had not. The reasons for inability to interview those 45 are outlined below:

<u>Reason</u>	<u>No. of Eligible Non-Respondents</u>
1. Refused	7
2. Not residing on reservation	28
3. Whereabouts unknown	<u>10</u>
Total	45

Mode of Statistical Analysis

The choice of the Chi-square test (See Chi-square formula in Appendix B.) to be used in the analysis phase of this study was primarily based upon two criteria: first, the Chi-square statistic is

a nonparametric test in that it and the "probability statements associated [with it] do not depend on the shape of the population distributions of observations from which the sample observations are drawn;"⁸ second, although the Chi-square technique deals primarily with problems involving discrete data (variables)--in which the values of the variables are given as categories--"any continuous data may be reduced to categories and the data so tabulated that the Chi-square may be applied."⁹ Though the majority of data collected for the present study was in discrete form, the continuous information gathered was broken down and its values assigned to categories, thus enabling the use of the Chi-square test.

A very practical application of the Chi-square test is the test in connection with making a comparison "between observed frequencies with frequencies to be expected on some hypothesis or in terms of some theory."¹⁰ For the analytical purposes of this study two-way tables--referred to as "contingency tables"--were constructed in order to analyze and interpret possible associations between participation in the BIA Employment Assistance Program and selected demographic and socio-economic variables.

⁸Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research: Educational and Psychological Inquiry, p. 260.

⁹N. M. Downie and R. W. Heath, Basic Statistical Methods (New York: Harper and Row, 1965), p. 160.

¹⁰Henry E. Garrett, Elementary Statistics (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1962), p. 139.

The Null Hypothesis of no difference was tested in the Chi-square procedures. This is a hypothesis which in effect states that the proportion of observations appearing in a particular category of a contingency table is the same for all the groups being compared.

The .05 level of statistical significance was used in the statistical evaluations. The confidence level is correspondingly placed at the 95-percent level.

Before proceeding with the following chapter, "The Findings of the Study," a mention should be made concerning two dimensions of the research process which bear significantly on the analysis and interpretation of the data gathered for this study.

First, the present study may be said to have dual functions in as much as it sought, through the review of pertinent literature and theory, to discover and develop meaningful hypotheses which could be statistically tested. Second, as the selection of respondents was nonrandom, it cannot be said or assumed that those respondents chosen are representative of the population from which they were drawn. Indeed, nonrandom methods of selection "may yield samples in which some members of a population are over-represented or under-represented."¹¹ Because it cannot be stated with scientific certainty that the present sample of respondents is unbiased, no attempt will be

¹¹Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research: Educational and Psychological Inquiry, p. 53.

made to generalize concerning the characteristics or relations between characteristics in the population. Instead, inferences drawn on the basis of the Chi-square results will be restricted to those participants of the BIA Employment Assistance Program from the Standing Rock Reservation who have been selected as respondents for this study.

CHAPTER VI

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF VARIABLES

The hypotheses of the present study are focused on several independent and dependent variables. In order that these variables be examined empirically, they must be defined in such a manner as to make measurable the reality to which they refer. The purpose of this section, then, is to clarify the meanings of the variables used in this study by describing how they will be measured.

This chapter is divided into two parts. The first part lists and describes those variables, both independent and dependent, given under Objective No. 1 of this study. The second section enumerates and describes those variables, both independent and dependent, given under Objective No. 2 of the study.

Part One

A. Dependent Variables

1. Employment Assistance Service: refers to the type of BIA. Employment Assistance activity participant is accepted into by reservation-level Employment Assistance office. The program activities consist of the following choices: Adult Vocational Training and Direct Employment. The necessary information for this variable was extracted from each participant's "Employment Assistance Information Record," on file in reservation Employment Assistance office.

2. Service-Termination:

- a. Adult Vocational Training: refers to whether participant did or did not complete training requirements according to program regulations.
- b. Direct Employment: refers to whether participant was or was not listed employed (part or full time) as of the date of the Field Office's (placement location) six-month follow-up letter to reservation Employment Assistance office.

The data necessary to measure this variable were obtained from each participant's "Employment Assistance Information Record," on file in reservation Employment Assistance office.

B. Independent Variables

1. Age: refers to the number of chronological years participants have survived to their nearest birthday at the time of application for Employment Assistance services. This data became an official part of his "Employment Assistance Information Record," on file in the reservation Employment Assistance office.
2. Gender: refers to either MALE or FEMALE gender as designated by participant at time of his (her) application for Employment Assistance services. This information was written into participant's "Employment Assistance Information Record," on file in the reservation Employment Assistance office.

3. Blood Quantum: refers to the "degree of Indian blood" as indicated by program participants at the time of application for Employment Assistance services. This information is an official part of participant's "Employment Assistance Information Record," on file in the reservation Employment Assistance office.
4. Education Level: refers to the highest level of formal education as completed by participants and as indicated on their "Employment Assistance Information Record," at the time of their application for employment services. This information is on file in the reservation Employment Assistance office.
5. Marital Status: refers to the marital circumstance of participants at the time of application for Employment Assistance services. This information is a part of his "Employment Assistance Information Record," on file in the reservation Employment Assistance office.
6. Number of Dependents: is defined as the "number of dependents" as listed by participants at the time of application for Employment Assistance services. This information is an official part of participant's "Employment Assistance Information Record," on file in the reservation Employment Assistance office.

7. Religious Affiliation: refers to the religious denomination to which participants associated themselves at the time of application for Employment Assistance services. This information is a part of participant's "Employment Assistance Information Record," on file in the reservation Employment Assistance office.

Part Two

A. Independent Variables

1. Length of Service-Placement: refers to the time period in months, measured from the placement of participants into a training or employment situation to their service-termination (completion or non-completion). This information is a part of the case record of each participant and is filed in the reservation Employment Assistance office.
2. Service-Termination: (described in no. 2, Part One of this chapter)

B. Dependent Variables

1. Attitude Toward Earning a Living: refers to the beliefs, feelings and action tendencies which the respondents have toward earning a living. This variable is measured by using a Likert-type summated scale. The procedure involved a series of items to which the respondents were asked to react in five degrees of agreement or disagreement. Each response had been given a numerical score indicating its

favorableness or unfavorableness. The summation of the scores of the respondents' responses to all separate items gave their total score, which was interpreted as symbolizing their position on a scale of agreement-disagreement toward earning a living.

2. Attitude Toward BIA Employment Assistance Program: refers to the beliefs, feelings and action tendencies which the respondents have toward BIA Employment Assistance Program. This variable is measured by using a Likert-type summated scale. The procedure involved a series of items to which the respondents were asked to react in five degrees of agreement or disagreement. Each response had been given a numerical score indicating its favorableness or unfavorableness. The summation of the scores of the respondents' responses to all separate items gave their total score, which was interpreted as symbolizing their position on a scale of agreement-disagreement toward BIA Employment Assistance Program.
3. Percentage of Time Employed: refers to the total months employed divided by the number of months elapsed between a time frame beginning since service-termination and ending at time of the present study. Data relative to this variable were secured through a section (The Employment Record) of the interview schedule which was designed to elicit information as to participant's employment history since service-termination.

4. Monthly Earned Gross Income: refers to the total employment earnings of participants divided by the total number of months employed from the time period covering service-termination to time of present study. Data relative to this variable were gathered through a section (The Employment Record) of the interview schedule designed to elicit information as to participant's employment and income history since time of service-termination.
5. Present Employment Status: describes employment situation of participants at time of present study. One item is used to measure this variable. The respondent could choose one of two alternatives as to "employment at the present time": "Yes" (full or part time) or "No" (not employed).

CHAPTER VII

SUBSTANTIVE HYPOTHESES*

The sources of the hypotheses to be formulated for this study were derived from the following two areas: First, the literature reviewed in Chapters II and III pertaining, respectively, to the effectiveness and the organizational processes of the Employment Assistance Program; second, Chapter IV which constituted Robert E. Park's theory of social processes as it pertained to dominant-minority interrelations.

In order to present those hypotheses fundamental to the objectives of this study, this chapter is divided into two parts. The first part lists those hypotheses relating demographic attributes of participants with their selection of program-services and their service-termination. The second part is comprised of the formulation of those hypotheses associating length of service-placement and service-termination of participants with certain socio-economic variables.

*"Substantive Hypothesis" refers to "a conjectual statement of the relation between two or more variables." A substantive hypothesis is itself not testable, but is tested through "statistical" hypothesis. (Kerlinger, p. 173)

Substantive Hypotheses of Part 1

Program-Service

1. There is a significant difference between the distribution of ages of participants and their selection of program-services of the Employment Assistance Program.
2. There is a significant difference between the distribution of gender of participants and their selection of program-services of the Employment Assistance Program.
3. There is a significant difference between the distribution of blood quantum of participants and their selection of program-services of the Employment Assistance Program.
4. There is a significant difference between the distribution of the education of participants and their selection of program-services of the Employment Assistance Program.
5. There is a significant difference between the distribution of marital status of participants and their selection of program-services of the Employment Assistance Program.
6. There is a significant difference between the distribution of number of dependents of participants and their selection of program-services of the Employment Assistance Program.
7. There is a significant difference between the distribution of religious affiliation of participants and their selection of program-services of the Employment Assistance Program.

Service-Termination

1. There is a significant difference between the distribution of ages of participants and their termination of program-services.

2. There is a significant difference between the distribution of gender of participants and their termination of program-services.

3. There is a significant difference between the distribution of blood quantum of participants and their termination of program-services.

4. There is a significant difference between the distribution of education level of participants and their termination of program-services.

5. There is a significant difference between the distribution of marital status of participants and their termination of program-services.

6. There is a significant difference between the distribution of number of dependents of participants and their termination of program-services.

7. There is a significant difference between the distribution of religious affiliation of the participants and their termination of program-services.

Substantive Hypotheses of Part 2

Length of Service-Placement

1. There is a significant difference between the distribution of length of service-placement of participants and their attitude toward earning a living.

2. There is a significant difference between the distribution of length of service-placement of participants and their attitude toward the BIA Employment Assistance Program.

3. There is a significant difference between the distribution of length of service-placement of participants and their percentage of time employed.

4. There is a significant difference between the distribution of length of service-placement of participants and their monthly earned gross income.

5. There is a significant difference between the distribution of length of service-placement of participants and their present employment status.

Service-Termination

1. There is a significant difference between the distribution of service-termination of participants and their attitude toward earning a living.

2. There is a significant difference between the distribution of service-termination of participants and their attitude toward the BIA Employment Assistance Program.

3. There is a significant difference between the distribution of service-termination of participants and their percentage of time employed.

4. There is a significant difference between the distribution of service-termination of participants and their monthly earned gross income.

5. There is a significant difference between the distribution of service-termination of participants and their present employment status.

CHAPTER VIII

THE FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings of the testing of the hypotheses* of this study as they relate to: Objective No. 1, or the determination of those socio-demographic attributes of the respondents which are associated with the selection and the termination of program-services of the Employment Assistance Program; and, Objective No. 2, or the examination of participation in the Employment Assistance Program, as it is related with certain socio-economic variables. The procedure for presenting the findings will be as follows:

1. The hypotheses, expressed in their null form for testing, will be given.
 2. Crossbreak** (contingency) tables with their Chi-square statistic, below them, will be presented.
 3. The results of each hypothesis thus tested will be discussed.
- Though percentages and propositions are frequently used in summarizing

*The "hypotheses" to be presented in this chapter are "statistical" hypotheses, stated in null form. (Kerlinger, p. 173) The null hypotheses, as they were used in this study, were considered rejected when the Chi-square statistic indicated a probability at or below the .05 level of statistical significance. This means, in essence, that the observed difference in the distribution between the two variables would not occur more than 5 times out of 100 by chance alone.

**"Crossbreak" refers to a "numerical tabular presentation of data, usually in frequency or percentage form, in which variables are juxtaposed in order to study the relations between them." (Kerlinger, p. 625)

data from contingency tables, Blalock (in speaking to the number of observations in cells of contingency tables) contends that one should "never compute a percentage unless the number of cases on which the percentage is based is in the neighborhood of 50 or more."³ Because the observed frequencies in the cells of the contingency tables in this study are, in many cases, quite small, it was decided to express the actual numbers of observations in each category rather than percentages.

Before proceeding, however, with the actual presentation of the findings of this study, an explanation for the use of the Chi-square test with small cell frequencies is in order. Garrett maintains that one of the restrictions to the general use of the Chi-square test is that "the expected or theoretical 'f' (frequency) in any cell should be at least 5...to get a valid Chi-square result."⁴ Conversely, Grizzle in a counterstatement notes that "our results (empirical examination of the power of Chi-square tests) are in agreement with the usual recommendation that the smallest expected value computed under the assumption that H_0 (the null hypothesis) is true be at least 5 before putting reliance on the X^2 (Chi-square) statistic. However, when the smallest expected value is less than 5, one would choose X^2 (Chi-square test without Yates' correction for continuity) over X^2_c (Chi-square test with Yates' correction for continuity), but with the

³Hubert M. Blalock, Jr., Social Statistics (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960), p. 28.

⁴Henry E. Garrett, Elementary Statistics (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1962), p. 153.

realization that the resulting test is overly conservative."⁵ On the basis of Grizzles' finding, the decision was made to proceed with the Chi-square analysis without the correction for continuity (except in cases of 2 x 2 tables), realizing that often the cell observations were less than five.

Finally, when the degrees of freedom of the data to be analyzed by the Chi-square test was 1, Yates' correction for continuity was used. This is a statistical procedure made necessary because the Chi-square formula involves certain mathematical approximations which are not fulfilled when the expected frequencies are small. In two dimensional tables, "when the cell entries are small (as in the case of this study), a more precise Chi-square is obtained by subtracting .5 from each of the two (o-e)'s. This adjustment is called the Yates' correction."⁶

Statistical Hypotheses and Findings Pertaining to Objective No. 1 of Study

PROGRAM-SERVICE

Age of Participants

Null Hypothesis No. 1: There is no significant difference between the distribution of ages of participants and their selection of program-services.

⁵James E. Grizzle, "Continuity Correction in the χ^2 -test for 2 x 2 Tables," The American Statistician (October, 1967), p. 32.

⁶Henry E. Garrett, p. 153.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the ages of the participants, nominally assigned to three categories on the basis of a frequency distribution, were related to their selection of program-services. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 1.

TABLE 1

PROGRAM-SERVICE BY AGE OF PARTICIPANTS

Age	Program-Service	
	AVT	DE
	(frequencies)	
17 - 19	11	2
20 - 27	21	9
28 and over	3	2
Totals	35	13
$\chi^2 = 1.452$ d.f. = 2 $P > .05$		

Three-fifths (21) of those participants selecting Adult Vocational Training services were 20 - 27 years of age, whereas more than one-fourth (11) were 17 - 19 years of age, and 3 were 28 years of age or older. Like AVT services, the largest proportion of those preferring Direct Employment activities were in the 20 - 27 age group. The remaining four participants in DE activities were evenly divided between the respective age categories of 17 - 19 and 28 and over, each having two.

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

Gender of Participants

Null Hypothesis No. 2: There is no significant difference between the distribution of gender of participants and their selection of program-services.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the gender of participants was related to their selection of program-services. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 2.

TABLE 2
PROGRAM-SERVICE BY GENDER OF PARTICIPANTS

Gender	Program-Service	
	AVT	DE
	(frequencies)	
Male	20	12
Female	15	1
Totals	35	13
$\chi^2 = 3.810$ d.f. = 1 $P > .05$		

A higher proportion of males than females selected Adult Vocational Training services rather than Direct Employment activities. Four-sevenths (20) of the participants of AVT services were males

as compared to females who constituted three-sevenths of the AVT participants. Males overwhelmingly tended to prefer DE activities in contrast to females (12 of 13).

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

Blood Quantum of Participants

Null Hypothesis No. 3: There is no significant difference between the distribution of blood quantum of participants and their selection of program-services.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the degree of Indian blood of participants, nominally assigned to three categories on the basis of a frequency distribution, was related to their selection of program-services. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 3.

Of these 35 participants selecting Adult Vocational Training services, more than twice as many (16) possessed 100 percent Indian blood as possessed 25 - 50 percent Indian blood (7). More than one-fourth of those participants preferring AVT services were categorized as having 51 - 99 percent Indian blood. Unlike AVT services, more than half (7) of those participants selecting Direct Employment activities possessed 51 - 99 percent Indian blood, whereas the remaining 6 participants were evenly divided (with 3 each) between the respective blood quantum categories of 25 - 50 and 100 percent Indian blood.

TABLE 3

PROGRAM-SERVICE BY BLOOD QUANTUM OF PARTICIPANTS

Blood Quantum (percentage)	Program-Service	
	AVT	DE
(frequencies)		
25 - 50	7	3
51 - 99	12	7
100	16	3
Totals	35	13
$\chi^2 = 2.186$ d.f. = 2 $P > .05$		

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

Education Level of Participants

Null Hypothesis No. 4: There is no significant difference between the distribution of the education of participants and their selection of program-services.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the education level of participants was arbitrarily divided into four nominal categories and related to their selection of program-services. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 4.

More than two-thirds (24) of those participants selecting Adult Vocational Training services had 11-12 years of education, whereas just over one-fourth (9) had 9 - 10 years of education. The remaining

two participants in AVT activities were evenly divided, with one having 8 years of education and one having 13 years of education or over. Similar to the situation found in AVT services, those with the highest and second highest proportions selecting Direct Employment services were participants with 11 - 12 years of education (6) and 9 - 10 years of education (5), respectively. No individuals with 8 years of education selected DE activities, but 2 with 13 or over did.

TABLE 4

PROGRAM-SERVICE BY EDUCATION OF PARTICIPANTS

Education (years completed)	Program-Service	
	AVT	DE
(frequencies)		
8	1	0
9 - 10	9	5
11 - 12	24	6
13 and over	1	2
Totals	35	13
$\chi^2 = 4.041$ d.f. = 3 $P > .05$		

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

Marital Status of Participants

Null Hypothesis No. 5: There is no significant difference between the distribution of marital status of participants and their selection of program-services.

To facilitate the testing of this null hypothesis, the marital status of participants was dichotomized and related to their selection of program-services. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 5.

TABLE 5

PROGRAM-SERVICE BY MARITAL STATUS OF PARTICIPANTS

Marital Status	Program-Service	
	AVT	DE
	(frequencies)	
Married	14	7
Single	21	6
Totals	35	13
$\chi^2 = 0.145$ d.f. = 1 $P > .05$		

Although, proportionally, more single participants than married participants tended to choose Adult Vocational services, a larger proportion of those participants who choose Direct Employment activities were married rather than single. Three-fifths (21) of the 35 participants who preferred AVT services were single, whereas a majority (7) of the 13 participants who preferred DE activities were married.

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

Number of Dependents of Participants

Null Hypothesis No. 6: There is no significant difference between the distribution of number of dependents of participants and their selection of program-services.

To enable the testing of this null hypothesis, the number of dependents of participants, nominally assigned to three categories on the basis of a frequency distribution, was related to their selection of program-services. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 6.

TABLE 6

PROGRAM-SERVICE BY NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS OF PARTICIPANTS

Number of Dependents	Program-Service	
	AVT	DE
	(frequencies)	
None	16	8
1 - 2	12	2
3 and over	7	3
Totals	35	13
$\chi^2 = 1.678$ d.f. = 2 $P > .05$		

Nearly half (16) of these 35 participants selecting Adult Vocational Training services had no dependents, whereas approximately one-third (12) had 1 - 2 dependents and one-fifth (7) had three dependents or more. Like their counterparts in AVT services, those with no children constituted the greatest proportion (over three-fourths)

of the participants preferring Direct Employment activities. Unlike the situation in the AVT services, there were more participants (3) with three dependents or more selecting DE activities than with 1 - 2 dependents (2).

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

Religious Affiliation of Participants

Null Hypothesis No. 2: There is no significant difference between the distribution of religious affiliation of participants and their selection of program-services

In order to test this null hypothesis, the religious affiliation of participants was dichotomized and related to their selection of program-services. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 7.

TABLE 7

PROGRAM-SERVICE BY RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION OF PARTICIPANTS

Religious Affiliation	Program-Service	
	AVT	DE
	(frequencies)	
Catholic	17	9
Protestant	18	4
Totals	35	13
$\chi^2 = 0.641$ d.f. = 1 $P > .05$		

Just over a majority (18) of those participants selecting Adult Vocational Training services were Protestant, whereas just under a majority (17) were Catholic. Conversely, more than twice as many Catholics (9) selected Direct Employment activities than did Protestants (4).

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

SERVICE-TERMINATION

Age of Participants

Null Hypothesis No. 8: There is no significant difference between the distribution of ages of participants and their termination of program-services.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the ages of the participants, nominally assigned to three categories on the basis of a frequency distribution, were related to their termination of program-services. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 8.

Of those 28 participants completing their program-services, approximately two-thirds (18) were 20 - 27 years of age, whereas just under one-third (10) were evenly divided--five each--between the following age categories: 17 - 19 and 28 and over. Interestingly, although the 20 - 27 age group constituted the greatest proportion of those participants completing program-services, so also did

participants in the 20 - 27 age category constitute the largest proportion (three-fifths) of those who failed to complete their program-services. The remaining 8 participants who failed to complete program-services were 17 - 19 years of age.

TABLE 8
SERVICE-TERMINATION BY AGE OF PARTICIPANTS

Age	Service-Termination	
	Completion	Non-Completion
	(frequencies)	
17 - 19	5	8
20 - 27	18	12
28 and over	5	0
Totals	28	20
$\chi^2 = 5.717$ d.f. = 2 $P > .05$		

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

Gender of Participants

Null Hypothesis No. 2: There is no significant difference between the distribution of gender of participants and their termination of program-services.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the gender of the participants was dichotomized and related to their termination of

program-services. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 9.

TABLE 9
SERVICE-TERMINATION BY GENDER OF PARTICIPANTS

Gender	Service-Termination	
	Completion	Non-Completion
	(frequencies)	
Male	20	12
Female	8	8
Totals	28	20
$\chi^2 = 0.267$ d.f. = 1 $P > .05$		

More than two-thirds (20) of those 28 participants completing program-services were males, and fewer than one-third (8) were female. Males also provided the highest proportion of non-completers with three-fifths (12) failing to complete program-services, whereas two-fifths (8) of the female participants failed to complete their program-services.

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

Blood Quantum of Participants

Null Hypothesis No. 10: There is no significant difference between the distribution of blood quantum of participants and their termination of program-services.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the degree of Indian blood of participants, nominally assigned to three categories on the basis of a frequency distribution, was related to their termination of program-services. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 10.

TABLE 10

SERVICE-TERMINATION BY BLOOD QUANTUM
OF PARTICIPANTS

Blood Quantum (percentage)	Service-Termination	
	Completion (frequencies)	Non-Completion (frequencies)
25 - 50	6	4
51 - 99	11	8
100	11	8
Totals	28	20
$\chi^2 = 0.014$ d.f. = 2 $P > .05$		

Of those 28 participants who completed their program-services, well over three-fourths possessed from 51 - 100 percent Indian blood, whereas fewer than one-fourth (6) had 25 - 50 percent Indian blood. Although those participants with 51 - 100 percent Indian blood constituted the largest proportion of individuals completing their program-services, so did they also comprise the largest proportion (four-fifths) of those participants failing to complete their program-services. One-fifth (4) of those participants failing to complete their program-service possessed 25 - 50 percent Indian blood.

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

Education of Participants

Null Hypothesis No. 11: There is no significant difference between the distribution of the education of participants and their termination of program-services.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the education level of participants was arbitrarily divided into four nominal categories and related to their termination of program-services. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 11.

TABLE 11

SERVICE-TERMINATION BY EDUCATION OF PARTICIPANTS

Education (years completed)	Service-Termination	
	Completion	Non-Completion
	(frequencies)	
8	1	0
9 - 10	12	2
11 - 12	13	17
13 and over	2	1
Totals	28	20
$\chi^2 = 7.895$ d.f. = 3 $P > .05$		

Considerably more than three-fourths of those participants completing their program-services had 9 - 12 years of education, whereas of the remaining 3 completers 1 participant had 8 years of education, and 2 had 13 or more. More than three-fourths (17) of those participants failing to complete their program-services, however, had 11 - 12 years of education. Two of the participants not completing program-services had 9 - 10 years of education, and 1 participant had 13 or more.

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was below the .05 level of significance, a significant difference was determined to exist.

Marital Status of Participants

Null Hypothesis No. 12: There is no significant difference between the distribution of marital status of participants and their termination of program-services.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the marital status of participants was dichotomized and related to their termination of program-services. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 12.

While the proportion of those married and single participants who completed program-services was equally divided (14 to 14), three-fourths (13) of those who failed to complete their program-services were single.

TABLE 12

SERVICE-TERMINATION BY MARITAL STATUS
OF PARTICIPANTS

Marital Status	Service-Termination (frequencies)	
	Completion	Non-Completion
Married	14	7
Single	14	13
Totals	28	20
$\chi^2 = 0.474$ d.f. = 1 $P > .05$		

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

Number of Dependents of Participants

Null Hypothesis No. 13: There is no significant difference between the distribution of number of dependents of participants and their termination of program-services. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 13.

Interpretation indicates that the number of dependents of participants is significantly associated with their completion or non-completion of program-services. Of those 28 participants who completed their program-services, nearly three-fourths (18) had from 1 to 3 or more dependents, whereas more than one-third (10) had no dependents. The highest proportion (seven-tenths) of those individuals failing to

complete their program-services was those participants with no dependents, whereas three-tenths (6) had 1 - 2 dependents.

TABLE 13
SERVICE-TERMINATION BY NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS
OF PARTICIPANTS

Number of Dependents	Service-Termination	
	Completion	Non-Completion
	(frequencies)	
None	10	14
1 - 2	8	6
3 and over	10	0
Totals	28	20
$\chi^2 = 9.893$ d.f. = 2 $P < .05$		

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was below the .05 level of significance, a significant difference was determined to exist.

Religious Affiliation of Participants

Null Hypothesis No. 14: There is no significant difference between the distribution of religious affiliation of participants and their termination of program-services. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 14.

Not only were just over half (15) of those participants who completed their program-services Catholic, but so also were just over half of those participants (11) who failed to complete their

program-services. Correspondingly, just under half of those participants who completed (13) and failed to complete (9) their program-services were Protestant.

TABLE 14
SERVICE-TERMINATION BY RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION
OF PARTICIPANTS

Religious Affiliation	Service-Termination	
	Completed	Non-Completion
	(frequencies)	
Catholic	15	11
Protestant	13	9
Totals	28	20
$\chi^2 = 0.059$ d.f. = 1 $P > .05$		

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

Statistical Hypotheses and Findings Pertaining
to Objective No. 2 of Study

LENGTH OF SERVICE-PLACEMENT

Attitude toward Earning a Living

Null Hypothesis No. 15: There is no significant difference between the distribution of length of service-placement of participants and their attitude toward earning a living.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the length of service-placement of participants, nominally assigned to four categories on the basis of a frequency distribution, was related to their attitude toward earning a living. Because the Likert-type summated rating scale measures, essentially, the respondent's degree of favorableness toward a given attitude, this attitude set was, for testing purposes, trichotomized as follows: low, moderate, and high degrees of favorableness toward earning a living.* The contingency table summarizing the relationship between these two variables is expressed in Table 15.

Although approximately three-fourths (28) of those 38 participants with moderate favorableness toward earning a living had 1 - 7 months of service-placement, three-fourths (7) of the 9 participants with high favorableness had 8 - 11 months and over. The one participant with a low degree favorableness toward earning a living had 1 - 3 months of service-placement.

*Determination of the three equal-appearing categories was made by computing the range of the theoretical minimum and maximum summated scores of the respondents. On the basis of the Likert-type five-response scale with 15 item-statements to each attitude section, the theoretical range extended from 15 to 75. Dividing the range (60) by three yielded the following categories: 15 - 34; 35 - 54; and 55 - 75. Each category was then, respectively, defined as: low, moderate, and high. This same arithmetical procedure was followed for the 3 attitude sets to be found on the subsequent pages which present these sets.

TABLE 15

ATTITUDE TOWARD EARNING A LIVING BY LENGTH
OF SERVICE-PLACEMENT OF PARTICIPANTS

Length of Service-Placement (months)	Degree of Favorableness		
	Low	Moderate	High
(frequencies)			
1 - 3	1	14	1
4 - 7	0	14	1
8 - 10	0	6	4
11 and over	0	4	3
Totals	1	38	9
$\chi^2 = 10.491$ d.f. = 6 $P > .05$			

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

Attitude toward BIA Employment Assistance Program

Null Hypothesis No. 16: There is no significant difference between the distribution of length of service-placement of participants and their attitude toward the BIA Employment Assistance Program.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the length of service-placement of participants nominally assigned to four categories on the basis of a frequency distribution was related to their attitude toward the BIA Employment Assistance Program. Because the Likert-type summated scale measures, essentially, the respondent's degree of favorableness toward a given attitude, this attitude set was, for testing

purposes, trichotomized as follows: low, moderate, and high degrees of favorableness toward the BIA Employment Assistance Program. The contingency table summarizing the relationship between these two variables is expressed in Table 16.

TABLE 16

ATTITUDE TOWARD BIA EMPLOYMENT ASSISTANCE PROGRAM
BY LENGTH OF SERVICE-PLACEMENT OF PARTICIPANTS

Length of Service-Placement (months)	Degree of Favorableness		
	Low	Moderate	High
(frequencies)			
1 - 3	0	4	12
4 - 7	1	5	9
8 - 10	0	5	5
11 and over	1	5	1
Totals	2	19	27

$$\chi^2 = 9.401 \quad \text{d.f.} = 6 \quad P > .05$$

Although a majority (10) of those 19 participants with moderate favorableness toward the BIA Employment Assistance Program had from 8 to 11 months and over of service-placement, more than three-fourths (21) of those 27 participants with a high degree of favorableness had 1 - 7 months of service-placement. Of the 2 participants with a low degree of favorableness toward the BIA Employment Assistance Program, 1 had 4 - 7 months of service-placement, and 1 received 11 months and over.

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

Percentage of Time Employed

Null Hypothesis No. 17: There is no significant difference between the distribution of length of service-placement of participants and their percentage of time employed.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the length of service-placement of participants, nominally assigned to four categories on the basis of a frequency distribution, was related to the percentage of time employed--categorized into fourths, ranging from 0 to 100 percent. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 17.

TABLE 17

PERCENTAGE OF TIME EMPLOYED BY LENGTH OF SERVICE
OF PARTICIPANTS

Length of Service-Placement (months)	Percentage of Time Employed (frequencies)			
	0-24%	25-49%	50-74%	75-100%
1 - 3	10	1	3	2
4 - 7	4	4	5	2
8 - 10	3	2	1	4
11 and over	0	1	3	3
Totals	17	8	12	11
$\chi^2 = 14.537$ d.f. = 9 $P > .05$				

Just under two-thirds (10) of those 17 participants who were employed 0 - 24 percent of the time had only 1 - 3 months of service-placement, whereas just over one-third (7) received 4 - 10 months of service-placement. One of the 8 participants who were employed 25 - 49 percent of the time had 1 - 3 months of service-placement, three-fourths (6) had from 4 - 10 months, and 1 participant had 11 months of service-placement or more. One-fourth (3) of those 12 participants who were employed 50 - 74 percent of the time had from 1 - 3 months of service-placement, whereas just under half (5) had 4 - 7 months and one-third (4) had 8 to 11 months or more. Approximately one-third (4) of those participants employed 75 - 100 percent of the time had 1 - 3 months of service-placement, whereas just under two-thirds (7) had 8 to 11 months or more.

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

Monthly Earned Gross Income

Null Hypothesis No. 18: There is no significant difference between the distribution of length of service-placement of participants and their monthly earned gross income.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the length of service-placement of participants, nominally assigned to four categories on the basis of a frequency distribution, was related to their gross income earned during employment--its values also assigned to categories on the

basis of a frequency distribution. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 18.

TABLE 18

MONTHLY EARNED GROSS INCOME BY LENGTH OF
SERVICE-PLACEMENT OF PARTICIPANTS

Length of Service- Placement (months)	Monthly Earned Gross Income		
	\$0 - 200	\$201 - 400	\$401 and over
	(frequencies)		
1 - 3	8	7	1
4 - 7	1	7	7
8 - 10	2	7	1
11 and over	0	5	2
Totals	11	26	11
$\chi^2 = 16.272$ d.f. = 6 $P < .05$			

Analysis indicates that a higher proportion of participants in each of the three income categories has been those with fewer than 8 months of service-placement. Although approximately three-fourths (8) of those participants earning \$0 - 200 per month while employed had 1 - 3 months of service-placement, fewer than one-fourth (3) had from 4 - 10 months. More than half (17) of those participants earning \$201 - 400 per month while employed had 1 - 7 months of service-placement, whereas more than two-thirds (8) of those 11 participants earning over \$400 per month also had from 1 - 7 months of service-placement.

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was below the .05 level of significance, a significant difference was determined to exist.

Present Employment Status

Null Hypothesis No. 19: There is no significant difference between the distribution of length of service-placement of participants and their present employment status.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the length of service-placement of participants, nominally assigned to four categories on the basis of a frequency distribution, was related to their employment status at the time of the present study. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 19.

TABLE 19

PRESENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS BY LENGTH OF SERVICE-PLACEMENT OF PARTICIPANTS

Length of Service-Placement (months)	Present Employment Status	
	Employed	Not Employed
(frequencies)		
1 - 3	5	11
4 - 7	5	10
8 - 10	5	5
11 and over	3	4
Totals	18	30

$$x^2 = 1.130 \quad d.f. = 3 \quad P > .05$$

More than half of those participants (10) who were employed at the time of the present study had had 1 - 7 months of service-placement; fewer than half (8) had had from 8 to 11 or more. Proportionately, a similar phenomenon occurred with regard to those participants who were not employed at the time of this study. Of those 30 participants, for instance, who were not employed, approximately three-fourths (21) had had 17 months of service-placement, whereas just over one-third (9) had had from 8 to 11 or more.

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

SERVICE-TERMINATION

Attitude toward Earning a Living

Null Hypothesis No. 20: There is no significant difference between the distribution of termination of services of participants and their attitude toward earning a living.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the service-termination of participants was dichotomized and related to their attitude toward earning a living. Because the Likert-type summated rating scale measures, essentially, the respondent's degree of favorableness toward a given attitude, this attitude set was, for testing purposes, tri-chotomized as follows: low, moderate, and high degrees of favorableness toward earning a living. The contingency table summarizing the relationship between these two variables is expressed in Table 20.

TABLE 20

ATTITUDE TOWARD EARNING A LIVING BY
SERVICE-TERMINATION OF PARTICIPANTS

Service- Termination	Degree of Favorableness		
	Low	Moderate (frequencies)	High
Completion	0	21	7
Non-Completion	1	17	2
Totals	1	38	9
$\chi^2 = 2.947$ d.f. = 2 $P > .05$			

Except for the proportional configuration in the low category, there tended to be a higher proportion of participants who had completed program-services in both the moderate and high degrees of favorableness categories. Although those participants who had completed their program-services constituted only a majority (21 of 38) of those participants with moderate degrees of favorableness toward earning a living, approximately three-fourths (7) of the 9 participants with high degrees of favorableness had completed program-services. No completers had a low degree of favorableness toward earning a living, but 1 non-completer, however, did have.

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

Attitude toward BIA Employment Assistance Program

Null Hypothesis No. 21: There is no significant difference between the distribution of termination of services of participants and their attitude toward the BIA Employment Assistance Program.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the service-termination of participants was dichotomized and related to their attitude toward the BIA Employment Assistance Program. Because the Likert-type summated rating scale measures, essentially, the respondent's degree of favorableness toward a given attitude, this attitude set was, for testing purposes, trichotomized as follows: low, moderate, and high degrees of favorableness toward the BIA Employment Assistance Program. The contingency table summarizing the relationship between these two variables is expressed in Table 21.

TABLE 21

ATTITUDE TOWARD BIA EMPLOYMENT ASSISTANCE PROGRAM BY SERVICE-TERMINATION OF PARTICIPANTS

Service- Termination	Degree of Favorableness		
	Low	Moderate	High
	(frequencies)		
Completion	1	14	13
Non-Completion	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{5}{19}$	$\frac{14}{27}$
Totals	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{5}{19}$	$\frac{14}{27}$

$$\chi^2 = 3.051 \quad \text{d.f.} = 2 \quad P > .05$$

Although three-fourths (14) of those 19 participants who viewed the BIA Employment Assistance Program with moderate favorableness had completed their program-services, more than half (14) of those 27 participants who had a high degree of favorableness toward the Employment Assistance Program had failed to complete their program-services. Participants with a low degree of favorableness toward the Employment Assistance Program were equally distributed, with one who had completed program-services and one who had not.

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

Percentage of Time Employed

Null Hypothesis No. 22: There is no significant difference between the distribution of termination of services of participants and their percentage of time employed.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the service-termination of participants was dichotomized and related to their percentage of time employed--and categorized into fourths, ranging from 0 to 100 percent. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 22.

A greater proportion of participants completed their program-services in all "time employed" categories, except the first (0 - 24%). More than half of the participants who had been employed, respectively, 25 - 49 and 50 - 74 percent of the time since service-termination had

TABLE 22

PERCENTAGE OF TIME EMPLOYED BY SERVICE-TERMINATION
OF PARTICIPANTS.

Service- Termination	Percentage of Time Employed			
	0-24%	25-49%	50-74%	75-100%
	(frequencies)			
Completion	7	5	7	9
Non-Completion	10	3	5	2
Totals	17	8	12	11
$\chi^2 = 4.611$ d.f. = 3 $P > .05$				

completed their program-services, whereas fewer than half of the participants in the same two categories had failed to do so. Nearly two-thirds (10) of those 17 participants who were employed 0 - 24 percent of the time had failed to complete their program-services, and more than three-fourths (9) of those 11 participants who were employed 75 - 100 percent of the time had completed their program-services.

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

Monthly Earned Gross Income

Null Hypothesis No. 23: There is no significant difference between the distribution of termination of services of participants and their monthly earned gross income.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the service-termination of participants was dichotomized and related to their monthly earned

gross income--categorized on the basis of a frequency distribution. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 23.

TABLE 23

MONTHLY EARNED GROSS INCOME BY SERVICE-TERMINATION
OF PARTICIPANTS

Service- Termination	Monthly Earned Gross Income (frequencies)		
	\$0 - 200	\$201 - 400	\$401 and over
Completion	3	19	6
Non-Completion	8	7	5
Totals	11	26	11
$\chi^2 = 6.756$ d.f. = 2 $P < .05$			

Whereas three-fourths (8) of those participants who earned \$0 - 200 per month while employed had failed to complete their program-services and approximately three-fourths (19) of those 26 participants who earned \$201 - 400 had completed their program-services. More than half (6) of those 11 participants who earned \$401 and more had also completed their program-services.

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was below the .05 level of significance, a significant difference was determined to exist.

Present Employment Status

Null Hypothesis No. 24: There is no significant difference between the distribution of termination of services of participants and their present employment status.

In order to test this null hypothesis, the service-termination of participants was dichotomized and related to their employment status at the time of the present study. The contingency table summarizing the results of this variable relationship is listed in Table 24.

TABLE 24

PRESENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS BY SERVICE-TERMINATION OF PARTICIPANTS

Service- Termination	Present Employment Status (frequencies)	
	Employed	Not Employed
Completion	12	16
Non-Completion	6	14
Totals	18	30
$\chi^2 = 0.462$ d.f. = 1 $P > .05$		

Although two-thirds (12) of those participants who were employed at the time of the present study had completed their program-services, more than a majority (16) of those participants who were not employed had also previously completed their program-services.

Result of Chi-square test: Because the probability was above the .05 level of significance, no significant difference was determined to exist.

CHAPTER IX

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The focus of the present study has been the participation of a selected group of Indian peoples in the BIA Program of Employment Assistance. In order to provide insight into the nature of the social phenomena under study in this thesis, Park's social processes paradigm was utilized as the theoretical framework. Park's discussion of the educational process as a medium through which one group may acquire cultural items of another lent itself to conceptually perceiving the Employment Assistance Program as a channel of acculturation in which its Indian participants might inculcate the attitudes and behaviors necessary in the dominant culture to acquire and maintain positions of employment. Park's theoretical model, in addition, complemented that part of the historical review of literature which noted that assimilation--either forced or implicit--of the Indian into the normative American way of life found expression in a variety of policies of the federal government since the latter part of the last century. One of these policies has been the educational program of the federal government.

Data for the study were secured in two manners: by the administration of interview schedules to 48 selected respondents on the Standing Rock Reservation and by extracting from respondents case record--on file in the Standing Rock Reservation office of the Branch of Employment Assistance--personal data relevant to their vocational

training or employment activities with the program. Analysis of the data thus secured took the form of the Chi-square test of significance.

In keeping with the central concern of this study, that is, an examination of Indian participation in the Employment Assistance Program, two objectives were conceived considering the association of demographic and socio-economic factors to program-participation. A summary of the findings and implications for further research concerning the variable relations subsumed under Objectives No. 1 and No. 2 will now be discussed.

Findings, Summary, and Implications

Under Objective No. 1

Objective No. 1 of this study was to determine whether there were demographic factors relevant to participants' choice and termination of services of the BIA Employment Assistance Program. Those demographic factors to be considered were the following: age, gender, blood quantum, education, marital status, number of dependents, and religious affiliation of participants.

Although the results of the analysis concerning a majority of the demographic characteristics of participants and their choice and termination of program-services yielded few statistically significant differences, the proportional distribution of frequencies within the contingency tables expressing these variable relationships tended to reveal, for the group studied, a composite description of the participant who was most likely to have chosen Adult Vocational Training or

Direct Employment services, and the participant who was most likely to have completed or failed to complete program services.

The participant who was most likely to have chosen AVT services was a 20-27-year-old single male with 100 percent Indian blood, 11-12 years of education, no dependents, and of the Protestant faith. Like his counterpart in AVT services, the participant who was most likely to have chosen DE activities was also a 20-27-year-old single male with 11-12 years of education and no dependents. Unlike those choosing AVT services, however, the participant who was most likely to have chosen DE services possessed between 50 and 100 percent Indian blood, was married rather than single, and was a Catholic rather than a Protestant.

Insofar as the group studied is concerned, the participant of the Employment Assistance Program who was most likely to have completed program-services was a single or married 20-27-year-old male with 1-3 dependents who possessed between 50 and 100 percent Indian blood, had 9-12 years of education, and was a member of the Catholic faith. The participant of the Employment Assistance Program who was most likely to have failed to complete program-services was similar to the participant who completed program-services in all respects save the following: he had 11-12 years of education--as opposed to 9-12 years--and was single with no dependents.

Analysis of the findings of the variable-relations included under Objective No. 1 of this study revealed that no significant differences existed between any of the demographic variables of participants and their selection of program-services. This finding is true

also in the case of a majority of those hypotheses relating these same demographic variables to service-termination; however, a significant difference was determined to exist between the education and number of dependents of participants and their service-termination.

The summarization of the findings of the variable relationships listed under Objective No. 1 of the study tends to reveal a number of implications for further research. Why, for instance, did this study find that 12 times as many males as females selected Adult Vocational Training services as selected Direct Employment activities? Is there significance in the finding that Indian participants with less than 100 percent Indian blood were relatively evenly distributed among those selecting AVT and DE services, but that more than 5 times as many with 100 percent Indian blood selected AVT to DE services? Further research might also consider the finding that nearly twice as many participants 17-19 years of age failed to complete their program-services, whereas 5 times as many of those participants 28 years or older completed their program-services as failed to complete them. Are there factors at work that produced the finding that a higher proportion of those with 9-12 years of education completed their program-services as did those with 13 years of education or over. Also, future research should consider the finding that a higher proportion of those with more than 10 years of education failed to complete their program-services as did those program non-completers with 10 years of education or less. Finally, further research might consider the finding that 3 times as

many of those participants with at least one child completed program-services as compared to those participants with none who failed to do so.

Findings, Summary, and Implications

Under Objective No. 2

Objective No. 2 of this study has been stated as follows: to examine selected socio-economic variables which may be associated with participation in the BIA Employment Assistance Program. Under this objective, hypotheses expressing relationships between length of service-placement and service-termination of participants and the following socio-economic variables were developed: attitude toward earning a living, attitude toward BIA Employment Assistance Program, percentage of time employed, monthly earned gross income, and present employment status:

The Chi-square test of significance concerning those hypotheses listed under Objective No. 2 yielded the following results:

1. There was determined to exist no significant difference between length of service-placement of participants and their attitude toward earning a living, attitude toward the BIA Employment Assistance Program, percentage of time employed, and present employment status.

2. There was determined to exist no significant difference between the service-termination of participants and their attitude toward earning a living, attitude toward the BIA Employment Assistance Program, percentage of time employed, and present employment status.

3. There is a significant difference between length of service-placement and service-termination of participants and their monthly earned gross income.

The Chi-square analysis indicated that although there were no significant differences between those variable relationships expressed in numbers 1 and 2 above, significant differences were found to exist between those variable relationships expressed in number 3 above.

Park, in his social processes paradigm, may provide an explanation as to why no significant differences were determined to exist for a majority of those variable-relationships under examination under Objective No. 2 of this study.

Park writes that during the process of acquiring new and unfamiliar sets of attitudes and behaviors, a person or a group undergoing socialization may become, under certain conditions, subject to the "marginal man" effect. That is, if the acculturative process should become threatening to a set of perspectives and behaviors already held by the group--or individual--it may react by referring to a low degree of self-commitment to the newly demanded role requirements.

Viewed within Park's theoretical framework, then, those participants of the Employment Assistance Program, expected to learn a set of attitudes and skills necessary to function in a highly competitive culture, may, if the acculturative demands become too painful, retreat to a former life style--the reservation culture--which is agreeable to the values and beliefs of his earlier socialization.

The summarization of the findings of the variable relationships formed and analyzed under Objective No. 2 of this study tends to reveal the following implications for further research: first, are there additional or differential factors at play which resulted in the finding that a greater number of those participants with fewer than 8 months service-placement had moderate and high degrees of favorableness toward earning a living as compared to those participants with 8 months or more? Second, what might constitute some of the reasons for the finding that a greater proportion of those participants with fewer than 8 months of service-placement hold higher degrees of favorableness toward the BIA Employment Assistance Program than those participants with more than 7? Third, further research should examine which factors may have contributed to the finding that a greater proportion of those with fewer than 8 months of service-placement were observed in all monthly earned gross income categories (\$0-200, \$201-400, \$401 and over) than were those participants with more than 7 months of service-placement? Fourth, additional research may seek to discover which factors may have been important in the finding that a greater proportion of those participants with a high degree of favorableness toward the BIA Employment Assistance Program failed to complete their program-services.

Although the Chi-square test results yielded no significant differences between length of service-placement of participants and their subsequent percentage of time employed, attitude toward earning a living, and attitude toward the BIA Employment Assistance Program,

perhaps an association between these same variables may have been determined by using a different sample population. That is, future research may find the BIA Employment Assistance Program effective--in terms of the above variable relationships--by using a sample of respondents who receive their primary socialization in the competitive and materially oriented dominant white culture rather than a sample--as in this study--whose primary socialization was in a cultural system wherein stress is not placed on achievement, success, and material comfort.

Because many Indian children are socialized in familial environs where their parents never had regular employment and never thought in terms of reporting for work each morning, future research may wish to consider whether there is a relationship between a program participant's percentage of time employed since service-termination, his attitude toward earning a living, and his parents' (mother and/or father) employment history. In addition, future research might investigate as to whether a relationship exists between the type of skills training, if any, or employment experience of the parents of participants and their choice of Employment Assistance services.

Because, traditionally, Indian tribal and familial ties are strong, future research may choose to study whether there exists a relationship between the frequency of home visits with relatives during participant's service-placement and his length of service-placement and service-termination. In addition, as Indian culture is

traditionally non-future oriented, future research may wish to consider whether a relationship exists, subsequent to service-termination, between participant's concept of time and his attitude toward earning a living and his percentage of time employed.

In his social processes paradigm, Park proposes that acculturation takes place more rapidly where contacts are primary (personal) as opposed to secondary (impersonal). Following from this theoretical position, then, future research may wish to examine whether there exists a relationship between the number and character of organizations and groups to which a program participant possesses membership during his service-placement and his length of service-placement and service-termination. Equally important, what is the nature of the relationship, if any, between the type and intensity of counseling services provided by BIA city staff members and program participant's length of service-placement and service-termination.

Park proposes that cultural traits are not transmitted between persons or groups by the mere fact of exchange and use, but instead when they have been internalized; that is, when they have become an integral part of one's personality process and structure. Consequently, future research may investigate whether there exists, subsequent to service-termination, a relationship between a participant's degree of internalization of the dominant society's values pertaining to success and achievement and his attitude toward earning a living, and percentage of time employed.

In the review of literature, Chapter II, Joan Ablon concluded, on the basis of her study of Indian relocatees in the San Francisco Bay Area, that certain basic values--e.g., continuing belief in early teachings--of the study group were found to be strongly resistant to change, despite the efforts of the BIA to affect same. Future research, then, may wish to consider whether there is a relationship between the nature and extent of the BIA Employment Assistance program's socialization process and its participant's propensity to complete program services, subsequent attitude toward earning a living, and percentage of time employed.

Finally, future research may wish to study as to whether there exists a relationship between job opportunities on and/or near the reservation and program participant's percentage of time employed since service-termination and his attitude toward earning a living. Equally important, future investigation may wish to examine whether and to what degree congruency exists between the type of services offered by the BIA Employment Assistance Program and the nature and availability of reservation employment.

Limitations

It becomes pertinent at this point that if the findings of the study are to be placed in their proper perspective, a specific statement as to its limitations should be made. There are at least five major aspects in which the study presents but a limited assessment as to the association of certain factors to participation in the BIA

Employment Assistance Program. First, the selection of respondents was undertaken in a nonrandom fashion; consequently, a conscious effort was made not to make statements beyond the range of the study sample. Second, further limiting the representativeness and ability to make empirical generalizations was the small sample size of 48 respondents. Third, as 38 of the potential 93 respondents for this study were unable to be interviewed because either they were unable to be located or they were not residing on the reservation at the time of the study, it is felt that the value of the study was consequently lessened. The possibility is good that if the 28 who had been residing off the reservation at the time of the study could have been interviewed and utilized as a comparison group, the findings of this study may not only have been different but their validity greatly strengthened as well. Fourth, because cultural variations exist among different Indian tribes in different areas of the United States, it is possible that by drawing a sample of Indian participants of the BIA Employment Assistance Program from other tribes or areas, the findings of the analysis of the variable relationships of the study may have been different. Finally, because the study was inherently of the ex post facto type, extraneous variance may have, unknown to the researcher, affected the variation of the dependent variables such as the participant's attitude toward earning a living and attitude toward the BIA Employment Assistance Program.

Implications for Reevaluation of Program Policies

The Bureau of Indian Affairs has expressed that the goals established for the Employment Assistance Program envision its participants as not only learning a skill or trade but acquiring as well the proper sets of work habits and attitudes necessary for their effective and continuing execution. However, perceived within the context of the aforementioned limitations, the results of the findings of this study relating the two variables, length of service-placement and service-termination of participants, to their percentage of time employed, monthly earned gross income, attitude toward earning a living, and attitude toward the BIA Employment Assistance Program itself justify questioning not so much the goals of the Employment Assistance Program, but rather whether there may exist certain policy weaknesses in the processes through which the goals are to be realized.

Officials of the Employment Assistance Program at the policy-making level may wish to reconsider the efficacy of certain of their policy approaches upon considering the results of an independent follow-up study of a sample of 48 of its participants residing on a single reservation found, as an aggregate, their average percentage of time employed since service-termination to be 45 percent as an aggregate, their average monthly earned gross income since service-termination to be less than \$296.00; as an aggregate, their mean attitudes toward earning a living and the BIA Employment Assistance Program computed to be not positive but rather ambivalent (undecided).

The findings tend to reveal, furthermore, that at the time of the study 63 percent of those respondents interviewed were unemployed.

If the results of the findings of this study are valid indicators of the present socio-economic existence of those 48 participants of the Employment Assistance Program interviewed, it becomes apparent that re-appraisal of the policy intended to attain the goals of the BIA Employment Assistance Program is not only necessary but vital.

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APPENDIX A



Land reserved for the State



Standing Rock Reservation

APPENDIX B

Project Title _____
 Date _____
 Location _____
 Country _____

Project Title _____
 Date _____
 Location _____

The information collected will be used for the purpose of _____
 The information collected will be used for the purpose of _____
 The information collected will be used for the purpose of _____
 The information collected will be used for the purpose of _____

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

Project Title _____
 Date _____
 Location _____
 Country _____

Project Title _____
 Date _____
 Location _____

Project Title _____
 Date _____
 Location _____

Project Title _____
 Date _____
 Location _____

Project Title _____
 Date _____
 Location _____

Project Title _____
 Date _____
 Location _____

Schedule No. _____ Name of Participant _____
 Date _____
 Interviewer _____ Address _____
 (community)

BIA Employment Assistance Program Survey
 Standing Rock Indian Reservation
 Ft. Yates, North Dakota

This survey is undertaken with the approval of the members of the graduate faculty, Rural Sociology Department, South Dakota State University, Brookings, South Dakota. The information collected will be used toward completion of a Thesis-Project, which in turn will serve as partial completion of program requirements toward a Masters of Science Degree in Rural Sociology.

The information received will be kept completely CONFIDENTIAL! Toward this end, the name of each participant will remain anonymous. The study is concerned only with general characteristics and selected attitudes of participants of the BIA Employment Assistance Program, and not with identifying specific individuals or family heads.

DESCRIPTIVE PHASE

Area _____ Initial Request _____ Adult Vocational Training _____
 Agency File No. _____ Institutional _____
 Destination File No. _____ Repeat () () () On-the-job _____
 Date _____ 1 2 3 Other _____
 Direct Employment _____

Name of Participant _____
 (Last, First, Middle)

Mailing Address _____ Location of Residence _____

Sex: ___ Male ___ Female Marital Status ___ M ___ S ___ W ___ D ___ Sep

Degree of Indian Blood _____ Religious Affiliation _____

Number of Dependents _____ Relationship _____
 w d s p gp br sis

Income Past 12 months

Source or Employer	Address	No. Months	Amount
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

Education (encircle highest grade completed)

Grades 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

College 1 2 3 4

Post High School _____

Post College _____

Vocational Training or Special Training _____

Employment Record (account for past 12 months)

Job Title _____

Description of Work _____

Reason for Leaving _____

General Comments _____

Employment Assistance Plan _____

Adult Vocational Training Objectives

Course _____

Course _____

Course _____

Course _____

Employment Placement Objectives

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

Detailed Plan

Selected Training Location _____

Employment and Residence Location Desired _____

Date of Entry into Training _____

Location _____

Date of Completion of Training or Placement _____

Discontinuance _____

Additional Comments: _____

Schedule No. _____ Address _____
 Date _____ (community)
 Interviewer _____

BIA Employment Assistance Program Survey
 Standing Rock Indian Reservation
 Ft. Yates, North Dakota

The information gathered in this study will be kept completely CONFIDENTIAL! Toward this end, the name of each respondent will remain anonymous. The study is concerned only with general characteristics and selected attitudes of participants of the BIA Employment Assistance Program and not with identifying specific individuals or family heads.

SECTION A

While you were growing up, what was your father's usual occupation?
 (please be specific) _____

While you were growing up, what was your mother's usual occupation?
 (please be specific) _____

Prior to your first participation in the BIA Employment Assistance Program, what would you estimate to be your usual occupation? Please describe your job as best you can recall. (If occupation was that of a student, omit this question.) _____

Would you say that you: were usually self-employed ()
 usually worked for others ()
 usually worked part-time or seasonal ()
 usually worked full-time or year-around ()

When did you begin first participation in the BIA Employment Assistance Program? _____
 (month) (year)

Where was your first training program or employment placement located?
 (city) (state)

If you did not complete your first training or employment program, please give the date of discontinuance (non-completion).

____ (month)

____ (year)

If you did complete your first training or employment program, please give the date of completion.

____ (month)

____ (year)

How soon after you completed or discontinued (did you complete) your first program services with the BIA Employment Assistance Program did you find your first job? ____ Day(s) ____ Week(s) ____ Month(s) ____ Year(s)

What was the manner in which you found your first employment-position after you completed or discontinued (non-completion) your first program training in the BIA Employment Assistance Program (check one):

☐ officials of the BIA Employment Assistance Program

☐ other governmental agency (specify) _____

☐ friends

☐ relatives

☐ self

☐ State Employment Agency (specify which state) _____

☐ other (specify) _____

If you received your Employment Assistance services off the reservation (if not applicable go to next question) check the items listed below for your reason(s) for returning to the reservation.

a. this is the home of my people _____

b. lack of off-reservation job opportunities _____

c. poor housing _____

d. better job opportunities on reservation _____

e. desire to be with friends and relatives _____

f. more freedom to do what you want to on reservation _____

g. reservation less crowded with people and buildings _____

h. low wages _____

i. lack of friendliness off reservation _____

j. other (specify) _____

The number of job opportunities on the reservation are: (check one)

a. less than adequate _____

b. adequate _____

c. more than adequate _____

Why do you say this? _____

Do you feel that you have been able to find employment on the reservation in the type of work for which the BIA Employment Assistance Program trained or placed you? (check one) Yes ☐ No ☐

If answer is "no", why not? _____

If answer is "no" but you have been employed on the reservation, please describe the type of work you have engaged in. _____

Are you employed at the present time? Yes ☐ No ☐
 Part-time ☐ Full-time ☐

SECTION B

The following section is in two parts. The first deals with the number and type of employment you have had since receiving services through the BIA Employment Assistance Program. The second part deals with a record of unemployment for the same period of time.

Begin the first part (The Employment Record) by noting first your present or most recent job and then progressively work back to (and include) the first job acquired after leaving the Employment Assistance Program.

In the second part list the number of times unemployed since leaving the Employment Assistance Program.

I. THE EMPLOYMENT RECORD

Job No. 1

From _____ To _____
 Name of Job _____
 Description of Work _____

Location of Job: _____ Community _____ State _____
 _____ off reservation _____ on reservation
 Salary: \$ _____ per _____ Day _____ Week _____ Month _____ Year
 Reason for Leaving _____

Length of Job _____

Job No. 2

From _____ To _____
Name of Job _____
Description of Work _____

Location of Job: _____ Community _____ State _____
_____ off reservation _____ on reservation
Salary: \$ _____ per _____ Day _____ Week _____ Month _____ Year
Reason for Leaving _____

Length of Job _____

Job No. 3

From _____ To _____
Name of Job _____
Description of Work _____

Location of Job: _____ Community _____ State _____
_____ off reservation _____ on reservation
Salary: \$ _____ per _____ Day _____ Week _____ Month _____ Year
Reason for Leaving _____

Length of Job _____

Original Interview Schedule contained 10 forms for employment record since termination of services from the BIA Employment Assistance Program.

II

In this second part, list amount of time unemployed since having participated in the BIA Employment Assistance Program. Remember your name shall remain anonymous and your answers confidential!

<u>Year</u>	<u>Day(s)</u>	<u>Month(s)</u>	<u>Name Month(s)</u>
1969	_____	_____	_____
1968	_____	_____	_____
1967	_____	_____	_____
1966	_____	_____	_____
1965	_____	_____	_____
1964	_____	_____	_____
1963	_____	_____	_____
1962	_____	_____	_____
1961	_____	_____	_____
1960	_____	_____	_____
1959	_____	_____	_____
1958	_____	_____	_____
1957	_____	_____	_____

If neither employed nor unemployed during all or part of any of the above years but were otherwise occupied, please explain reason and give length of time(s). _____

SECTION C

Because you have participated in services of the BIA Employment Assistance Program, I would like to ask a few questions in order to have you indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements. (check one)

1. The government has a treaty obligation to support and care for the Indian person if he chooses to live on reservation.

☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree

2. Indian people and not the government are responsible for their own personal needs and wants.

☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree

3. It is mostly the responsibility of the male head of the house to care for the needs of the woman, children, and older relatives.

☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree

4. A person has the right to do his own living as long as his family and children are being taken care of by others.

☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree

5. Working is important, but it should never interfere with person's own interests.

☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree

6. Only after his family and children have been cared for should a person think about his own needs and wants.
- ☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree
7. A person should have the time and freedom to follow his own interest and not always have to think about work first.
- ☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree
8. I have been able to provide a better living for myself and/or my family since participating in services of the Employment Assistance Program.
- ☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree
9. I am more confident about getting and keeping jobs since I have participated in services of the Employment Assistance Program.
- ☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree
10. Participating in the Employment Assistance Program was very helpful but neither I and/or my family is any better off now than before I received services.
- ☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree
11. Participation in the Employment Assistance Program is very helpful even if the individual is not employed directly in the area for which he was trained.
- ☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree

12. Participation in the Employment Assistance Program is just as valuable for the person who returns to the reservation as for those who remain off the reservation.
- ☐ strongly agree
 - ☐ agree
 - ☐ undecided
 - ☐ disagree
 - ☐ strongly disagree
13. Although the Employment Assistance Program teaches new skills to all who participate, those who return to the reservation to look for work are at more of a disadvantage than those who don't.
- ☐ strongly agree
 - ☐ agree
 - ☐ undecided
 - ☐ disagree
 - ☐ strongly disagree
14. Participation in the Employment Assistance Program is more valuable for those who complete their training or employment than for those who do not.
- ☐ strongly agree
 - ☐ agree
 - ☐ undecided
 - ☐ disagree
 - ☐ strongly disagree
15. Those Indian persons who have participated in services of the Employment Assistance Program and live on the reservation want to and are able to provide a better way of life for themselves and their families but find it difficult to get good jobs.
- ☐ strongly agree
 - ☐ agree
 - ☐ undecided
 - ☐ disagree
 - ☐ strongly disagree
16. The Employment Assistance Program is used by the government as a way to end its obligations to care for Indian people.
- ☐ strongly agree
 - ☐ agree
 - ☐ undecided
 - ☐ disagree
 - ☐ strongly disagree

17. Good jobs are usually available on the reservation for Indian persons who have participated in the Employment Assistance Program and who want to provide a better way of life for themselves and their families.

☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree

Because you have participated in services offered by the BIA Employment Assistance Service, I would like to ask a few questions in order to have you indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements. Remember that people differ on their opinions about this issue. Your answers will remain Confidential! (check one)

1. Preparations by the Reservation Employment Assistance Office for persons receiving their training or employment services off the reservation are adequate.

☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree

If not, explain why _____

2. The Reservation Employment Assistance Office provides adequate information and assistance to prepare participants to handle problems of:

- a. transportation to relocation site

☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree

If not, explain why _____

- b. enough money to live on until first pay check

☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree

If not, explain why _____

- c. persons or organizations to contact for emergency problems after arrival at relocation

☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree

If not, explain why _____

3. After receiving information from the Reservation Employment Assistance Office, one feels confident about handling any problems that might arise during the trip from the reservation to the relocation site.

☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree

If not, why do you feel you were not adequately prepared? _____

4. After you arrived at your relocation site, did you find that the information you had about relocation was adequate? ☐ yes

☐ no

If not, why? _____

5. Advice and assistance offered by the Field (city) Employment Office to program-participants is adequate.

☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree

If not, explain why _____

6. The Field (city) Employment Office provides adequate information and held in the following areas:

- a. getting acquainted with city life

☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree

If not, explain why _____

b. employment or vocational training counseling

- _____ strongly agree
- _____ agree
- _____ undecided
- _____ disagree
- _____ strongly disagree

If not, explain why _____

c. assistance in locating adequate housing

- _____ strongly agree
- _____ agree
- _____ undecided
- _____ disagree
- _____ strongly disagree

If not, explain why _____

d. helping to get settled in community

- _____ strongly agree
- _____ agree
- _____ undecided
- _____ disagree
- _____ strongly disagree

If not, explain why _____

e. follow-up social and home services

- _____ strongly agree
- _____ agree
- _____ undecided
- _____ disagree
- _____ strongly disagree

If not, explain why _____

f. needed referral to community social service organizations

- ☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree

If not, explain why _____

g. adult-educational counseling other than job or training related

- ☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree

If not, explain why _____

7. The Employment Assistance Program adequately prepares one to begin one's employment or vocational training services.

- ☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree

If not, explain why _____

8. After beginning one's service-placement one usually finds understanding and capable persons supervising him.

- ☐ strongly agree
☐ agree
☐ undecided
☐ disagree
☐ strongly disagree

If not, explain why _____

If you had to do it again, would you still participate in services offered by the BIA Employment Assistance Program?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Undecided

Why do you say this? _____

What suggestions might you offer to the Employment Assistance Program to make it a more worthwhile or effective program for the Standing Rock Indian people who participate in its services? _____
