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The Democratic Purpose Of Post Secondary Education: Comparing Public, Private Nonprofit, And Private For-Profit Mission Statements For Expression Of Democratic Social Purpose

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THE DEMOCRATIC PURPOSE OF POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION:
COMPARING PUBLIC, PRIVATE NONPROFIT, AND PRIVATE
FOR-PROFIT MISSION STATEMENTS FOR EXPRESSION
OF DEMOCRATIC SOCIAL PURPOSE

by

Lon Youngberg

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree

of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in

Education

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ABSTRACT

The Democratic Purpose of Postsecondary Education: Comparing Public,
Private Nonprofit, and Private For-Profit Mission Statements for
Expression of Democratic Social Purpose

by

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Utah State University, 2008

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Thomas Jefferson envisioned a symbiotic relationship between democracy and public education because he considered educated citizens to be the critical ingredient of a successful democracy. Nevertheless, political and educational reforms over the past two centuries have not always been kind to the relationship that Jefferson envisioned. This study examines frequency that postsecondary education institutions declare a democratic social purpose in their mission statements. The DSP definition, data instrumentation, and theoretical lens for this study were situated from the Jeffersonian perspective.

Although the primary concern for this study was publicly funded/subsidized postsecondary education, recent enrollment growth in private education and privatization initiatives, such as voucher programs, justifies comparison with private nonprofit and private for-profit institutions to reveal how the different types of institutional control

influence DSP. The comparison also provides a sense of the non-economic consequences of reduced public education subsidy and intentional or unintentional privatization. A number of Carnegie classification variables were also examined to better understand what factors influence DSP expression.

This study utilized a national random sample of undergraduate institutions, from associates colleges to research universities. The sample size was 336 and there were no cases of missing data. Interrater reliability was calculated as .873 Kappa on the dichotomous dependent variable (DSP presence or absence).

The first research objective was to determine if public, private nonprofit, and private for-profit institutional mission statements differ in the frequency of DSP expression. Public institutions exhibited 36.5% DSP, private nonprofit institutions exhibited 69.1% DSP, and private for-profit institutions exhibited 11.9% DSP. Chi-square test determined that there was significant difference between each of 2x2 comparisons ($p < .003$). The second research objective utilized logistic regression analysis to gauge the influence of several variables on DSP frequency. Institutional control, focus, enrollment, and mission statement length were found to be significant at the $p = .05$ level.

There are differences between public and private institutions and also between two-year and four-year institutions in the frequency of DSP expression. These differences have serious social and political implications that will likely go unnoticed as the bulk of society focuses on private and economic concerns.

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Regardless of the day of the week, the month of the year, the duration of my silence, or the miles between us, I could count on my committee chair, Dr. Edward Reeve, to respond to my inquiries quickly and candidly. Thanks for knowing the right things to say, when to provide a gentle nudge, and when to stop me from going “willy-nilly.”

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Lon Youngberg

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Thomas Jefferson (1820) wrote, “I know of no safe depository of the ultimate powers of society but the people themselves; and if we think them not enlightened enough to exercise their control with a wholesome discretion, the remedy is not to take it from them, but to inform their discretion by education.” Public schools were starting to take root when those words were written and the underlying Jeffersonian philosophy was instrumental in convincing local communities to support public education through taxation in the following decades.

The logic behind this philosophy and public funding of education is simple: First, the United States of America was created as a democracy. Second, a democracy is ruled by the citizens. Third, broadly educated citizens are better prepared for responsibilities of democratic citizenship. Fourth, it follows that publicly funded education is sensible and a democratic education system should seek to educate the entire citizenry. While this rationale is often used to justify public funding of education, educational historians such as Carnochan (1993), Kliebard (2004), and Ravitch (2000) represent a number of curriculum reforms as decidedly undemocratic. Some of those reforms were successful and are still in practice. Adler (1982/1998), Apple (2003), Apple and Beane (1995), Dewey (1916), Giroux (1998), Kozol (1991), and many others discussed the need for democratically principled education and demonstrate the result of democratic neglect. Thus, the overarching problem is well documented and examined in numerous ways, it nonetheless remains and evolves as the three following examples illustrate.

First, as publicly subsidized postsecondary education becomes increasingly vocational (i.e., vocationalism) and citizens struggle to maintain jobs and social status in the global economic market, one must question the fairness of taxing one generation to pay for the next generation's vocational education. If vocationalism is the primary purpose or manifestation of education, the older generation is financing the competitive advantage of the following generation. Presumably the younger generation will compete with and displace the older generation in the workplace faster than would be possible without this advantage. On the other hand, when education is primarily focused on public interests of democracy, this hypothetical inequity does not exist and it makes sense for each preceding generation to finance the education of the following generation because the primary purpose is more about common good and less about advancement in the marketplace. This study informed this potential problem by determining the frequency that public postsecondary institutions pledge support for democratic social purpose.

The second example relates to the apparent shift from public education to private education at the postsecondary level. National Center for Education Statistics (NCES, 2005a) data for the period between 1990 and 2004 showed tuition and fees increased by 145% at public postsecondary institutions while tuition and fees increased by only 113% at private postsecondary institutions. The difference is presumably due to reduced subsidy by state and federal agencies. Regardless of the cause, enrollment in private institutions is encouraged as the economics become more favorable. For the same period (1990 to 2004), NCES (2005b) data confirmed the expected—as tuition and fee growth at public institutions outpaced that of private institutions, enrollment in public institutions

increased by only 19.7% while enrollment increased by 44.3% at private institutions. The *Fact Book on Higher Education* (Marks, 2003) corroborates these numbers for the 1994 to 2000 time period saying, “Enrollments at private or independent four-year colleges and universities in the SREB [Southern Regional Education Board] and in the nation increased faster than at public four-year colleges and universities” (p. 53). One concern resulting from this dynamic condition is that private institutions do not necessarily share the democratic social obligation of public institutions; as private institutions they are free to set their own agenda and priorities. Although the basic nature of private nonprofit institutions suggests voluntary support for democratic social purposes, it would be naïve to extend those expectations to for-profit institutions. Will the enrollment trend from public to private postsecondary education further erode the democratic purpose of education? This study enlightened that concern by comparing public, private nonprofit, and private for-profit postsecondary institutions in terms of the expression of democratic social purpose demonstrated by institutional mission statements.

Third, the proliferation of literature referring to citizens as “human capital” by corporate and government agencies (Maxfield & Magnum, 2002; North Dakota University System, 2006; for instance) appears consistent with Apple’s (2000) discussion of neoliberalism. This and other neoliberal trends (see Apple, 2003) seem contrary to the fundamental democratic concept of government’s existence for the benefit of the citizenry and more aligned with nationalism or the government serving capitalism. Coupled with the possibility of reduced emphasis on democratic education and the apparent trend towards privatizing education, the semantic twist could be meaningful.

This study provided evidence, albeit indirect and inconclusive, of the governmental intent.

These three examples help form this study and are also offered to illustrate how this research could be applied to contemporary issues. Researchers could expand on these or find new applications. More generically, there is good potential for integration into longitudinal studies that focus on the effects of vocationalism, privatization, educational equity, or mission statement evolution. Educators may find additional uses related to curriculum design. Administrators and trustees could use the findings when crafting new mission statements or in positioning for organizational uniqueness. Unfortunately, like any of the previous studies, essays, and books on this topic, this study alone cannot hope to solve these problems. The best that can be done is to shed new light, reach a new audience; and possibly help breach the consciousness of the public—the only group that can truly make democracy work.

Before the formal problem and purpose of this study can be stated, the previous logic must be extended: Through the Jeffersonian lens, one would reason that since publicly funded education is justified by democracy's need for educated citizens, the purpose of all public institutions is necessarily democratic. In other words, public schools (meaning publicly funded or subsidized institutions of all levels, not only grades K through 12) exist for public purposes and public purposes in a democracy are principally democratic. Similarly, private education institutions exist for a particular purpose related to the goals of the institution. Presumably nonprofit (e.g., religion based) private institutions would have a purpose related to their beliefs or the ideals that they were

founded upon, which likely includes some consideration for democratic social ideals such as common good. Private for-profit institutions would presumably have a purpose related to their corporate nature; this could be expressed in the form of the institutional goal of maximizing profit or as their desire to help their students maximize their economic status. Consequently, an expression of social purpose, such as common good, in a for-profit institution is less likely and suspect if it does exist. Renowned economist Milton Friedman (1970) reflected on the contradictory nature of for-profit enterprise espousing social purpose in an article titled, *The Social Responsibility of Business is to Increase Profits*.

Problem Statement

Using a Jeffersonian theoretical perspective, the overarching problem is that the central focus of publicly financed education strays from the intended democratic social purpose (DSP). More specifically, it is not known whether post-secondary institutions intend their mission to include DSP or what factors influence an institution's expression of DSP in their mission statement. Considering the reported enrollment shift from public institutions to private institutions (NCES, 2005b; Marks, 2003), DSP may be further marginalized if private institutions are less concerned about DSP than public institutions. Investigating those concerns would seem an important step toward fulfilling Jefferson's vision and Kliebard's hope that, "Education can take its proper place as the linchpin in an authentic democracy" (Kliebard, 2000, p. 200).

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to compare public, private nonprofit, and private for-profit postsecondary institutions in terms of the presence of DSP expressed in their mission statements.

Research Objectives

1. Investigate whether there are differences among the proportion of public, private nonprofit, and private for-profit post-secondary institutions that express DSP in their mission statements.
2. Evaluate the influence of selected Carnegie Classification variables on the presence of DSP in postsecondary institutional mission statements.

Theoretical Perspective

Although this subject can be traced back to ancient philosophers contemplating alternate forms of government and what knowledge is important for citizens and rulers, this study's perspective is specifically limited to democracy and education in the United States. While the theory is summarized in the opening paragraphs of this study, it is important to acknowledge the need of specifying a particular (Jeffersonian) variety of democratic education due to alternate interpretations of the democratic concept. Educational historians recount numerous anti-democratic curriculum reforms that were swaddled in red, white, and blue and presented with assurances of democratic purpose. For example, Ravitch (2000) wrote, "Such policies [referring to differentiated

curriculum], packaged in rhetoric about democracy...encouraged racial and social stratification in American schools. This book will argue that this stratification not only was profoundly undemocratic but was harmful, both to the children involved and to American society” (p. 15). Kliebard (1999) wrote, “*Cardinal Principles* is saturated with the language of democracy, and this served to mute its underlying social efficiency orientation” (p. 143). Consequently, to simply state a theory of democratic education would invite contrary interpretations. The Jeffersonian concept is demonstrated by the opening quotation and logic, a broad (liberal) model of education, and the characteristically thick form of democracy that Jefferson championed.

It is acknowledged that other theories of democratic education exist. Gutmann (1987) developed a more formal version of democratic education theory and Dewey (1916) was often referenced on this topic. However, for the purposes of this study, the more familiar Jeffersonian philosophy is adequate and appropriate.

Definition of Terms

Public education: For purposes of this study, references to public education refer to any level of education that is publicly funded or significantly subsidized through taxes. The reference is not exclusive to K-12 as is sometimes the custom. The focus of this study is on postsecondary education; however, curriculum issues and educational purpose flow from one educational level to the next and it is therefore often necessary to examine the system of education rather than considering postsecondary education a discreet or unrelated entity.

Vocationalism: Kliebard (1999) referred to vocationalism as a conceptual shift in the public's perception of the central purpose of education. As such, popular opinion dictates that the purpose of education is to gain employment leading to economic prosperity. Professional education is used to distinguish baccalaureate and graduate programs from associate degree and certificate programs that are identified with traditional vocational education. Regardless of the educational level, the central purpose of education is occupational under this paradigm. Consequently, vocationalism should be recognized as a competing theoretical perspective to the Jeffersonian perspective; where the central purpose of education is citizenship within a democracy. Vocationalism is covered in more detail in the literature review.

Democratic social purpose (DSP): For the purposes of this study, DSP is recognized when any of the following intents are expressed by institutional mission statements: common good, liberal education, participatory citizenship, social equity, social justice, liberty, freedom, and democracy. Appendices A and B provide and in-depth discussion of these terms.

Delimitations and Assumptions

It should be recognized that this study examined the expression of democratic purpose, rather than actual practice, through examination of postsecondary institutional mission statements. An expression of democratic purpose may not necessarily result in a more democratic curriculum. Mission statements often represent ideals and aspirations and it is a presumption of this study, via Jeffersonian theory, that democratic ideals are

valuable for their own sake. This study is limited to education institutions offering undergraduate degrees as described in the population section of this study.

The data were limited to organizational mission statements and do not include vision statements or other related expressions. Mission statements gathered for this study were assumed to be current. When multiple versions of an institutional mission statement were located, the most current or the version judged to be most current was used.

Mission statements are highly visible declarations of institutional intent and serve as the top-level criteria for institutional assessment. Accreditation agencies are currently focused on requiring institutions to demonstrate that their resources, policies, and practices are aligned with their self-declared mission. Estanek, James, and Norton (2006) provided an overview of the assessment movement and further situate institutional mission with assessment. Essentially, mission statements are receiving more attention, both internally and externally, due to growing emphasis on educational assessment. This study makes the basic assumption that mission statements are functional and meaningful. Appendix C provides examples of both DSP present and DSP absent mission statements.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This literature review is intended to accomplish a number of objectives: First, it is necessary to elaborate on the Jeffersonian educational philosophy such that the grounded theoretical perspective is evident when discussing the DSP construct. Second, this study positions democracy as the founding purpose of public education and the curriculum history section describes curriculum influences that have sometimes threatened and sometimes supported the democratic purpose of education. Third, vocationalism is situated as the most successful of the curriculum influences and the biggest current threat to democratic education. Basically, if vocationalism is the central purpose of education, democracy is relegated to a subordinate role. Fourth, this study utilizes institutional mission statements as meaningful sources of data with regard to educational purpose and it is appropriate to review prior empirical research and contemporary usage.

Jeffersonian Education

Even a concise biographical sketch of Thomas Jefferson is not brief. It is instructive, however, to note what he did and did not include on his self-written epitaph: “Author of the Declaration of American Independence, of the Statute of Virginia for Religious Freedom, and Father of the University of Virginia” (Wagoner, 2004, p. 13). Wagoner noted that Jefferson’s list represents political freedom, religious freedom, and intellectual freedom—the values he most wanted to contribute to his country. Jefferson did not include his service as Governor of Virginia, Minister to France, Secretary of

State, Vice President, two terms as President of the United States, or any of the milestones, such as the Louisiana Purchase, resulting from his political service. In retrospect, perhaps the greatest omission was his enduring influence in American political and social culture—education being just one element of that culture.

Jefferson was serving the United States in France when the U.S. Constitution was written, debated, and adopted. The mere mention of education in the United States Constitution would provide an anchorage between democracy and education, emphasize equity, impart curriculum stability, and provide a common purpose. However, the word education is not contained in the Constitution or any of its amendments and strict interpretation reveals no Constitutional right or requirement for public education. The tenth amendment, which Jefferson was instrumental in securing, provides the states and the people with authority over all things not specifically reserved by the constitution, bolstering state and local control of education as the rightful domain. On the other hand, the Supreme Court has decided cases related to public education where the language may indicate that a fundamental right to public education exists. Law professor John Denver (2001) expanded the definition of the United States Constitution to include Jefferson's *Declaration of Independence*, reviews related Supreme Court cases, and then argues that a good education is a right of national citizenship under the privileges or immunities clause of the fourteenth amendment. Nevertheless, Denver recognized that this right was not yet explicit.

Evaluation of direct quotations is recommended when interpreting a historical figure's thinking on any given subject and Coates (2000) facilitated this task by

compiling and editing: *Thomas Jefferson on Politics and Government: Quotations from the Writings of Thomas Jefferson*. Study of Jefferson's quotes pertaining to education reveals his sincere belief that democracy benefits from the participation of all citizens and all citizens needed sufficient education to adequately serve democracy. Jefferson envisioned three levels of education: elementary, college, and university. Elementary education would be free (publicly financed) and schools placed every few miles so everybody could attend. The best students from elementary school could attend regional colleges and the best college students could go on to the state university. From multiple quotations spaced over several years, it appears that Jefferson wanted college and university education to also be free; but, in some writings he conceded that students with the financial means would share in the expenses of their education. At times Jefferson suggested that a minimum literacy level should be a requirement for citizenship. His high expectations for elementary education were rooted in the soil of democracy as the following passage indicates:

The objects of...primary education [which] determine its character and limits [are]: To give to every citizen the information he needs for the transaction of his own business; to enable him to calculate for himself, and to express and preserve his ideas, his contracts and accounts in writing; to improve, by reading, his morals and faculties; to understand his duties to his neighbors and country, and to discharge with competence the functions confided to him by either; to know his rights; to exercise with order and justice those he retains, to choose with discretion the fiduciary of those delegates; and to notice their conduct with diligence, with candor and judgment; and in general, to observe with intelligence and faithfulness all the social relations under which he shall be placed. (Report for University of Virginia, 1818)

Jefferson's relentless pursuit of public education is documented as early as 1779 and continues through letters, speeches, and proposed legislation until shortly before his death in 1826. The following passage demonstrates the essence of Jeffersonian

educational philosophy. It captures the reliance of democracy on education, specifies a liberal sort of education, champions equity and inclusion, requests public funding, and warns against tyranny and corruption if these conditions cannot be satisfied.

Laws will be wisely formed and honestly administered in proportion as those who form and administer them are wise and honest; whence it becomes expedient for promoting the public happiness that those persons whom nature has endowed with genius and virtue should be rendered by liberal education worthy to receive and able to guard the sacred deposit of the rights and liberties of their fellow citizens; and that they should be called to that charge without regard to wealth, birth or other accidental condition or circumstance. But the indigence of the greater number disabling them from so educating at their own expense those of their children whom nature has fitly formed and disposed to become useful instruments for the public, it is better that such should be sought for and educated at the common expense of all, than that the happiness of all should be confined to the weak or wicked. (Diffusion of Knowledge Bill, 1779)

Wagoner (2004) also frequently relied on Jefferson quotations when writing *Jefferson and Education*. He painted Jefferson as progressive, a nonconformist, and often prophetic; qualities one might expect of the author of *The Declaration of Independence*. However, the book is mostly a story of failure and fortitude because despite Jefferson's forty plus year crusade for public education and despite working from prominent positions (legislator, governor, president, distinguished citizen, etc.), his campaign for publicly financed education was not successful, at least during his lifetime. Wagoner stated, "It was a failure embedded in the limited vision of those whose religious, social, and political views thwarted his numerous attempts to bring such a system into existence" (p. 145).

Wagoner (2004) described Jefferson's efforts chronological order by referring to legislation, meetings, letters, and political wrangling that Jefferson undertook on behalf of education. Although Jefferson did enjoy some modest success along the way, such as

establishing the United States Military Academy during his presidency, for the first thirty-five years or so his efforts followed a similar pattern: sponsor legislation, rally supporters, and then have the legislation either lost in committee or defeated outright. Toward the end it seems that Jefferson did not want to die without a more concrete contribution to education and he began to focus on what would become the University of Virginia. Over a period of years and using some less than forthright tactics, Jefferson accomplished the following: (a) took control of a Virginia academy that was sanctioned by the legislature but never funded, (b) received legislative approval to convert the academy to a college, (c) started building the college, and (d) then persuaded the people and politicians of Virginia to place the state university at the site of his college. As was his personal habit, Jefferson proceeded to spend well over his budget building the University of Virginia. Wagoner reported:

While struggling to obtain funds to complete the University of Virginia, Jefferson also professed that, if forced to choose between the establishing a system of general education and finishing the university, “I would rather abandon the last, because it is safer to have a whole people respectively enlightened, than a few in a high state of science [knowledge], and many in ignorance.” (p. 13)

It is well established that Jefferson believed that society needed to change with the times and each new generation had the right/obligation to amend the errors of their forefathers and even revise the *Constitution* as the social conscience evolved. Jefferson’s strong views on intellectual freedom and religious freedom are also well documented. Essentially nothing about the beliefs and habits of man was sacred to Jefferson and virtually everything was subject to revision as dictated by science. With respect to this study, these premises arguably justify the transition from democracy to vocationalism as

the central purpose of education. However, Wagoner (2004) revealed an important inconsistency in Jefferson's steadfast beliefs that became evident during Jefferson's search for the initial professors at the University of Virginia.

Jefferson insisted on appointing only the highest caliber, most qualified professor available for each discipline and early in the search it became apparent that he would have to look to Europe to fill most positions. Prospective professors were recruited with assurances of unlimited intellectual and academic freedom, even though the standard of the times required more conformity. One by one the positions were filled until only the law/government position remained. According to Wagoner (2004), Jefferson, with the concurrence of Madison, required special conditions for the law professor:

Not only should the professor be an American, but he should insure that his students were well acquainted with democratic-republican scripture. Thus, while all other professors at the university were given total freedom in the selection of books to be used in their courses, an exception was made in the case of the professor of law. (p. 137)

Thus, contrary to Jefferson's indifference toward other conventions of man, which were subject to amendment due to social and scientific scrutiny, democracy was not negotiable. God's existence and the shape of the earth were subjects to question, but democratic governance was not. One can speculate about Jefferson's justification for this exception; but, it is noteworthy to the current study that Jefferson's self-proclaimed "last act of usefulness" (Wagoner, 2004, p. 113) created a public institution of higher education where, by Jefferson's own design, democracy was the only topic that was placed above reproach.

It would be careless not to mention what would be considered grievous errors by

today's standards. First, Jefferson did not recognize the need for women to be educated beyond an elementary level. Although his own daughters were well educated, Wagoner (2004) suggested that Jefferson could not imagine public support for educating women. Second, despite his 4-decade crusade for education, Jefferson did not openly advocate education for slaves and apparently made no organized attempt to provide education for his own slaves; although, Wagoner (2004) reported that several of Jefferson's slaves could read and write. Wagoner also noted legislation sponsored by Jefferson that specified the gradual emancipation of slaves and Jefferson's proposal to return black slaves to Africa where they would be colonized as free people. Related to this concern, Jefferson's original draft of the *Declaration of Independence* denounced the slave trade, but the denunciation was later stricken by congress (Jefferson, 1776). Nevertheless, given that Jefferson was constantly in debt, one might question Jefferson's practical ability to free his own slaves and the effect that his indebtedness could have had on his position as an emancipation advocate.

Jefferson's political and social influences are so broad that his work on behalf of education may have been overshadowed. For example, at Jefferson's insistence, the University of Virginia did not have prescribed curriculums. The policy stated, "Every student shall be free to attend the schools of his choice, and no other than he chooses" (Wagoner, 2004, p. 139). Decades later, Charles Eliot initiated a similar policy at Harvard and became known as the father of the free elective system; even though he gave credit to Jefferson. Similarly, Jefferson is not recognized as the father of public schooling. Many would bestow that title on Horace Mann; however, Wagoner provided perspective:

Well in advance of the period when Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, and other fathers of the common school movement began their crusade for state organized and publicly funded school systems, Jefferson was proposing that his state undertake its own crusade against ignorance. (p. 36)

From this review it may appear that Jefferson's passion was education, but such an interpretation would be superficial. A deeper analysis suggests that his passion was freedom; that democratic governance was the platform needed to enable and maintain freedom; and that an educated citizenry was the only foundation he trusted to sustain the democratic platform. This interpretation is supported by one of his most famous quotations, "If a nation expects to be ignorant and free, in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never will be." (Wagoner, 2004, p. 14) It may also help explain his placing democracy above intellectual freedom when hiring the University of Virginia's first professor of law and government—the pinnacle cannot survive without a solid platform.

Curriculum History

This portion of the literature review provides a historical account of the undulations of the American curriculum once public education was widely adopted in the United States. Kliebard (2004) is covered extensively here; however, notable parallels, contrasts, and supplements from Carnochan (1993), Labaree (1997), Ravitch (2000) follow. The executive summary of this section can be surmised by noting that most of the titles of each of these books specify conflict: Carnochan's "battleground," Kliebard's "struggle," and Ravitch's "battles." In essence, the current form of education is the result of more than a century of conflict and compromise.

Kliebard's *The Struggle for the American Curriculum: 1893-1958* (2004)

chronicles four interest groups' enduring curriculum influence between the years of 1893 and 1958. The four groups identified by Kliebard, along with an alternative description of their ideals, were: (a) humanists (cognitive development through liberal education), (b) developmentalists (appropriate curriculum determined by child study), (c) social efficiency educators (vocational specialization through differentiated curriculum, also Taylorism), and (d) social meliorists (education as an instrument of social reconstruction). Within the context of the present study, these groups and certain beliefs or embodiments of each are more or less favorable toward democratic education and social purpose. This review is situated from that perspective.

Kliebard (2004) began with the humanist group, which is commonly associated with the traditional academic or liberal education curriculum organized by subjects such as math, history, and English. In 1893, Harvard President Charles Eliot and the Committee of Ten refused to endorse a differentiated curriculum for those students intending to go to college from that of students intending to go to work. The committee provided four courses of study that they felt were appropriate for either destination. Implicit within their recommendation was optimism in human capacity and recognition of the potential socioeconomic consequences of differentiated curriculum. Although the decision supports democratic education by insisting upon educational equality throughout secondary education, some argued that the decision was undemocratic on the basis of reduced educational participation because the inherent academic rigor caused many students to dropout. Nonetheless, many consider the humanist ideal of liberal education

for all to be fundamental to democratic progress and rich in social purpose. Mortimer Adler's (1982/1998) *Paideia Proposal* exemplifies this notion.

During the same period, when Eliot and the humanists demonstrated optimism in the cognitive capacity of the masses, G. Stanley Hall and some of the early developmentalists demonstrated pessimism. This group advocated designing the curriculum around the interests and capacities of children. Hall represented his beliefs as science and posed a serious threat to the traditional humanist curriculum. Although Hall engaged in child study, his declarations regarding the developmental capacities of children were curiously inept; consequently, so were his ideas concerning curriculum reform. Influenced by Darwinism, a differentiated curriculum was a necessity for Hall, who sought to segregate based on multiple factors. The anti-democratic character demonstrated by early developmentalism was more a product of Hall's personality than the underlying beliefs of developmentalism. On the whole, its social influence is probably best gauged by its broad influence on cognitive proficiency and educational persistence.

With the industrial revolution threatening the dominant social order and some politically powerful individuals explicitly advocating social control, by about 1912 the time was right for social efficiency educators to enter the fray. Taking cues from Fredrick Winslow Taylor's scientific management techniques, Franklin Bobbitt developed a method of scientific curriculum-making and the traditional humanist curriculum was now threatened by an even stronger adversary. Students were assigned (based on ethnicity, social class, and other potential indicators of probable destination) to a specialized curriculum that would efficiently train them for their future vocation. Waste was to be

eliminated and traditional subjects such as mathematics and history represented curriculum waste as they were of no purpose for the large majority of students training for their future vocations. Social efficiency education enjoyed broad support. Kliebard (2004) wrote, “By 1917...with money, powerful lobbying groups, energetic leadership in high places, and a sympathetic public, vocational education was well on its way to becoming the most successful curricular innovation of the twentieth century” (p. 123). Education was broadly used as a tool for social control and capitalism rather than a tool for democracy as Jefferson intended. John Dewey opposed the social and political injustice, but he was one of the few to voice opposition. Using Germany as a reference, Dewey (1914/1977) opposed: (a) placing the well-being of the state ahead of the well-being of the citizen (nationalism), (b) using publicly funded schools to train labor for the benefit of large employers, (c) policy that systematically perpetuates class structures, and (d) favoring narrow vocationalism over broader education. Dewey did not deny a place for occupations and industry within schools, but, he was clear on what that place should be, stating: “The aim must be efficiency of industrial intelligence, rather than technical trade efficiency” (p. 55) and when referring to the well-being of the working class he stated “[the facts] speak for the necessity of an education whose chief purpose is to develop initiative and personal resources of intelligence [rather than trade-training].” (p. 56) Despite Dewey’s protests, social efficiency grew stronger and citizenship was more often reduced to traits of social control such as punctuality and obedience. In essence, social efficiency education is a direct assault on the democratic social purpose of education.

At about this same time, the Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education (National Education Association, 1918) was published and Kliebard indicates that it was much more moderate than the political climate of the time would predict. The report called for maintaining comprehensive high schools rather than differentiated high schools, and Kliebard credited that single compromise as the key to preventing extinction of the common curriculum.

To the extent that social efficiency was antidemocratic, the social meliorists were pro-democratic. By 1926 the national sentiment was shifting and voices opposing the social injustice were increasingly heard. A few years later, George Counts and Harold Rugg emerged advocating a curriculum theory labeled social reconstructionism. They “saw the curriculum as a vehicle by which social injustice would be redressed and the evils of capitalism corrected” (Kliebard, 2000, p. 154). Arguing that both social efficiency and developmentalist curriculums inherently perpetuate the social order, the social meliorists sought to use the will of educators and the power of education to rectify social injustice and restore democratic principles. Social reconstructionism was a strong force within education throughout the depression and until the onset of World War II, when social criticism was replaced by patriotism and social efficiency regained strength.

Since that time there have been a number of thrusts at the American curriculum, but these four ideals remain as influences that alternately strengthen and weaken with the changing political environment. One need not look far in today’s schools to see vestiges of each. Kliebard summed it up:

The outcome of the struggle for the American curriculum was an undeclared, almost unconscious, *détente*. At one and the same time the curriculum in the

twentieth century had come to represent a reasonably faithful reflection of the intellectual resources of our culture and its anti-intellectual tendencies as well; it served to liberate the human spirit and also to confine it; it was attuned to the well being of children and youth and also contributed to their disaffection and alienation from the mainstream of social life; and it represented a vehicle for social and political reform as well as a force for perpetuating existing class structures and for the reproduction of social inequality. (p. 270)

Labaree (1997) contrasted with Kliebard (2000) by identifying democratic equality, social efficiency, and social mobility as three goals that exist, often in a contradictory fashion, in American education. The democratic purpose of the democratic equality goal is self-evident. Labaree acknowledged social efficiency's antidemocratic characteristics saying:

Over the years, the idea that schools should be making workers more than making republicans has undermined the ability of schools to act as a mechanism for promoting equality of access and equality of treatment. The notion of educational equality is at best irrelevant to the expansion of the GNP, and it is counterproductive in a capitalist economy where the pursuit of competitive advantage is the driving force behind economic behavior. Under pressure to be economically productive, schools have adopted a structure that is highly stratified. (p. 24)

At the same time, he credits the social efficiency goal as contributing to public good by providing the human capital required for a thriving economy. Labaree's focus in this work, however, is the social mobility goal, which he attributes with even less democratic value and indicates that social mobility directly opposes the democratic ideals of equal treatment and civic virtue. Labaree points out that the democratic equality and social mobility goals do share the ideal of equal access.

After referring to various expectations and goals for education, Labaree (1997) states:

I argue that the central problems with education in the United States are not

pedagogical or organizational or social or cultural in nature but are fundamentally political. That is, the problem is among ourselves about what goals schools should pursue. Goal setting is a political and not a technical problem. It is resolved through a process of making choices and not through a process of scientific investigation. The answer lies in values (what kind of schools we want) and interests (who supports which educational values) rather than apolitical logic. (p. 16)

Labaree then suggests that pedagogical studies, organizational restructuring, and curriculum changes are ineffectual because educational consensus does not exist --- we disagree on what we are trying to improve. Labaree goes on to examine and compare each of the three goals (democratic equality, social efficiency, and social mobility) in the context of likely social outcomes and indicates that since each competes with the next in multiple ways, educational progress will continue to be stifled unless consensus can be reached.

Ravitch (2000) described many of the same events and influences as Kliebard (2000) but, she is often more assertive in her presentation. Many of her historically informed beliefs resonated with the basis for this study:

It should be remembered that there are many more reasons to get a good education than preparing for gainful employment. Whether or not individuals get a better job with a better education, they will nonetheless find personal, lifelong value in their knowledge of history, literature, science and social science, art and mathematics. And democratic society itself is dependent on the judgments of a majority, which suggests that everyone benefits by disseminating reason, knowledge, and civic wisdom as broadly as possible. (p. 462)

She identified English philosopher Herbert Spencer's question "What knowledge is of most worth?" during the 1850s as a precursor to differentiated curriculum in the United States. Spencer's point was that academic knowledge was of no value without practical application. Like Kliebard, she cited backlash from the Committee of Ten's

1893 decision (refusing to differentiate the curriculum based on expected occupation) as the first real affront to the original democratic purpose of education, but indicates that “American education seemed to be firmly committed to the ideals of liberal education” (p. 49) until that point.

Ravitch (2000) described the various actors involved in educational reform by elaborating on their vision for education. She uses the words like aim, goal, purpose, mission, and objective to convey a multiplicity of often conflicting educational expectations. Oddly, this montage of purposes helps explain the absence of clear purpose.

After over 400 pages detailing the various educational reform movements and the characters involved, Ravitch essentially concludes that all the battles and suffering only got in the way of the genuine education that was envisioned a century ago. She ended by offering her own vision for education, “To be effective, schools must concentrate on their fundamental mission of teaching and learning. And they must do it for all children. That must be the overarching goal of schools in the twenty-first century” (p. 467).

Both Kliebard (2004) and Ravitch (2000) emphasized the debates and social conditions leading to publication of the *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* (National Education Association, 1918) as the turning point for social efficiency education. The *Cardinal Principles* report effectively reversed the 1893 Committee of Ten recommendation by endorsing vocational education via differentiated curriculum. Endorsement for vocational education eventually leads to today’s concept of vocationalism, which competes with the democracy as the central purpose of education.

The *Cardinal Principles* refer to seven objectives for secondary education: (a)

health, (b) command of fundamental processes, (c) worthy home membership, (d) vocation, (e) civic education, (f) worthy use of leisure, and (g) ethical character. None of these objectives appear inherently anti-democratic; however, the authors note some concern in their statement “this commission enters its protest against any and all plans, however well intended, which are in danger of divorcing vocation and social-civic education” (National Education Association, 1918, p. 10). Thus, there was some acknowledgment of the potential for vocational education to lead to inequitable conditions and reduced capacity for citizenship. At the same time, the document’s language suggests that differentiated curriculum represents a more democratic curriculum by means of greater access and participation. Also, relevant to the present study, the committee correctly predicts an expanding role for higher education and cautions against unjust entrance requirements. They remind higher education of their democratic obligation to provide for all students whose interests could be served by postsecondary education and insist upon vocational students’ place in higher education:

Pupils who, during the secondary period, devote a considerable time to courses having vocational content should be permitted to pursue whatever form of higher education, either liberal or vocational, they are able to undertake with profit to themselves and to society. (p. 14)

Carnochan’s *The Battleground of the Curriculum* (1993) reinforced liberal education’s role in strengthening democracy. However, he pointed to the “twin wounds of commercialism and professionalization” (p. 29) as contributors to the fall of liberal education. He also noted the apparent lack of purpose for liberal education which could be exemplified by the familiar conversation: “What is your major?” someone asks, “Liberal arts” (or “history” or “English” or any liberal degree) a student answers, “Oh,

what are you going to do with that?” The inevitable response is usually accompanied by a raised eyebrow. The point is, our materialistic society automatically validates a vocational or professional degree, but questions a liberal degree.

Carnochan (1993) traced the influence of Harvard President Charles Eliot’s free elective system and James McCosh’s (eventually Princeton’s president) distribution requirements. He uses the elective system, distribution requirements, and courses such as Western Civilization to emphasize how the undulating curriculum often returns to prior practices in a circular manner. Although Carnochan recognizes the value of local control and institutional uniqueness, he suggests that the lack of linear progress is due to higher education’s lack of common purpose. Essentially saying the curriculum is influenced by habit and impulse more than it is influenced by a reasoned ideology. It should be noted that Carnochan’s reference to the “twin wounds of commercialization and professionalism” (p. 29) predates broad recognition of vocationalism; but appears to have similar meaning. Like Ravitch (2000), Carnochan concluded by suggesting that there needs to be a common, overarching mission for education:

Lacking adequate criteria of purpose, we do not know how well our higher education works in practice or even exactly what working well would mean . . . to understand what they [universities] have been trying individually and collectively to do – and then, as good sense may suggest, take steps needed to bring ends and means into closer alignment. (p. 126)

Vocationalism

The premise for the present study contends that public education institutions exist for public purposes and, from the Jeffersonian theoretical perspective, the central purpose

of education is to promote and extend democratic principles. History shows that other, less democratic, ideologies can successfully compete for the central purpose position and vocationalism currently appears to dominate. Kliebard (1999) called vocationalism “...the controlling purpose of American schooling” (p. 231).

In this section, the origins and conceptualizations of vocationalism are examined. As you will see, vocationalism is rooted in the social efficiency movement (Kliebard, 1999) but also contains a decidedly consumerist character (Grubb & Lazarson, 2005). This section ends with Labaree’s (2006) theory that liberal education may have survived vocationalism through an ingenious symbiotic relationship with professional education.

Kliebard (1999) traced the evolution of manual training in the late 1800s to the vocationalism we experience today by describing fine distinctions, such as the difference between manual training and trade training, and by constructing detailed case studies of specific vocational programs. Much broader strokes must be used here and in essence, manual training eventually evolved into vocational education and vocational education has been subsumed by vocationalism. Consequently, we still recognize vocational education in the traditional sense, but vocationalism would also include our understanding of professional education. Vocationalism is the ideal that the primary purpose of education is occupational. While that might describe the nuts and bolts of the classifications, Kliebard examined the processes and the influences responsible for vocationalizing the curriculum, which enabled the establishment of vocationalism.

While even Jefferson conceived of education as being locally financed and controlled, the federal government became a major curriculum influence by establishing

the National Act for Vocational Education of 1917, commonly known as the Smith-Hughes Act. This legislation provided states with financial incentives for offering vocational education. To this day, similar federal legislation (such as the Perkins Act) exists. The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 combined with the Cardinal Principles Report of 1918, and the industrial needs related to World War I to strengthen the social efficiency movement and utilitarian views of education. Kliebard (1999, p. 171) wrote, “By the end of the 1920s, the key elements in the vocationalization of the American curriculum were in place”, implying that it was widely accepted that education existed to serve social efficiency, that all students were subject to the occupational sorting mechanism previously reserved for vocational education, and that the curriculum would be adjusted to accommodate that view.

Kliebard (1999) indicated that the promised benefits of vocationalism (e.g., individual and social prosperity, industrial efficiency, inclusion of neglected groups, superior skills and workforce, etc.) have not been reliably demonstrated. Nonetheless, the real success of vocationalism is demonstrated in the broad public perception that the purpose of education is to get better jobs and make more money.

Grubb and Lazerson (2005) approached vocationalism from strictly the higher education perspective that is situated mostly after World War II, while Kliebard (1999) ended with World War II. Their basic conceptualization appears consistent with Kliebard’s, but their work focuses on the professional end of the occupational spectrum. From that perspective, the authors emphasize the influence of student choice (consumerism) on the changing curriculum and growth of vocationalism; whereas,

Kliebard was more focused on public policy and politics. Certainly both are a major influence.

At the higher education level, Grubb and Lazerson (2005) point out that professions (e.g., engineering, accounting, law, medicine) did not require a degree or license to practice until sometime in the twentieth century. As the professions became more specialized and technical, higher education provided an organized system to transfer knowledge and standardized criteria to verify expertise. The authors recognize the decline of liberal education and the related growth of professional education, stating "...at the beginning of the twenty-first century at least two-thirds of college undergraduates are in professional fields, with clearly vocational goals dominating their progression into higher education" (p. 7). They are also clear on the rationale driving professional education: "Students come in order to get ahead, to get a credential and licensed, and be valuable in the labor market" (p. 9).

Grubb and Lazarson (2005) discussed inequities that result from the system of higher education. Specifically they refer to disparities in spending and access when comparing the hierarchy of state systems: trade school, community college, state college, and state university. Realizing that vocationalism is not likely to be reversed, they then turn the discussion to ways of instilling public and academic ideals into professional education by contextualizing ethics, liberal ideals, and civic responsibilities within the professional curriculum. If this is sounding familiar, it is because Grubb (1996) proposed similar treatment for vocational education in a paper titled *The New Vocationalism*.

Grubb and Lazarson (2005) recommended that institutions become mission

centered by focusing on what they do best rather than trying to emulate the elite academic institutions. Zemsky (2005) made the same recommendation later in this literature review.

While Grubb and Lazarson (2005) were actively trying to instill liberal ideals in professional education, Labaree (2006) suggested that it is already happening, somewhat covertly. Labaree's premise is fairly simple: as the purpose of education is increasingly vocational, the content of the curriculum is increasingly liberal. It is true that professional degrees are regularly added and professional enrollments are growing while liberal programs are shrinking. However, by examining the curriculum comprising professional degrees, Labaree made a convincing case that the coursework is more liberal than practical. He contended that there was more liberalizing of professional education than the other way around.

Although the basic premise may be simple, the mechanisms and theories are more involved and deserve a full reading from those with interest. Larabee (2006) discussed a number of factors that combined to make this unexpected salvation plausible, but listed stratification and formalism as the most influential. His stratification theory basically asserted that educational institutions aspire to the next level in the hierarchy of higher education. Thus, community colleges are lowest in rank and the most vocational while research universities are the highest in rank and most liberal, with the rest in between in both rank and liberal content. The underlings emulate the research universities they aspire to be and thereby liberalize the content of their curriculum over time. His formalism theory is succinctly described as academic inertia.

Labaree (2006) extended somewhat different circumstances to explain the development of vocationalism than either Kliebard (1999) or Grubb and Lazarson (2005). First, he credited the United States with inventing three unique strands of higher education: the land-grant college, the normal school, and the community college. Each of these types of institutions had a strong vocational mission and the majority of today's enrollment is in institutions with these same vocational roots. Second, since state appropriations only pay for part of postsecondary public education, postsecondary institutions are subjected to market pressures. Higher education depends on enrollment for full time equivalent (FTE) based state subsidies and for student tuition. Consequently, they are put in the position of catering to the consumer, which reinforces the consumerism aspects of vocationalism.

If Labaree's (2006) liberalization of professional education theory is true, it only mitigates the anti-democratic tendencies for those participating in professional education programs. Participants in traditional vocational education programs, the larger subset of vocationalism, are essentially unaffected by Labaree's contention.

Mission Statement Studies

This section provides an overview of relevant research that involved mission statements from postsecondary education. It is worth noting that empirical research related to educational mission statements has been infrequent. However, in addition to Meacham and Gaff (2006) and Morpew and Hartley (2006), which are covered below, at least two other empirical studies were published in 2006. Boerema (2006) performed a

content analysis on K-12 private schools in British Columbia and Estanek and colleagues (2006) performed a content analysis of Catholic college and university mission statements. The combination of recent empirical research, nonempirical papers, and focus on assessment suggests growing interest and receptive timing for the present study.

Delucchi (1997) compared colleges claiming to be liberal arts institutions with their graduation rates in professional fields such as business, criminal justice, education, and engineering. The study used descriptive synopsis (not necessarily the actual institutional mission statement) found in the in-depth (advertisement) portion of a popular guide to 4-year colleges to identify 327 institutions claiming to have a liberal arts academic mission. Delucchi did not report interrater reliability on this dependent variable. He determined that 68% of the institutions claiming a liberal arts academic mission actually had graduation rates in professional fields exceeding the 60% cut-off criteria. Delucchi used logit regression analysis to identify seven significant institutional characteristics that help explain the inconsistency. The analysis predicts that rich, old, selective, residential institutions are best able to maintain a liberal arts focus. Stated differently, they can afford to resist the market's demand for vocationalism. Delucchi discussed the broad decline in liberal arts degrees and the corresponding increase in professional degrees and suggested that influences such as public image, institutional traditions, alumni loyalties, and finance issues were thought to perpetuate the liberal arts claims. The method of the present study was similar to the method used by Delucchi.

Stemler and Babell (1999) used content analysis to examine educational mission statements in an attempt to characterize the purpose of education at the elementary,

middle, secondary, and postsecondary levels. The study's introduction provides a historical sketch of the evolving purpose of education that sometimes contrasts but mostly complements the historical works cited previously. The researchers acknowledged that the sampling and data collection techniques would allow systematic bias. However, the primary relevance of this work lies in the methodology used to examine educational mission statements. The researchers collected mission statements from each of the four educational levels and then used an emergent coding scheme, like a pilot study, to arrive at 10 major themes. The remaining sample was then coded accordingly. The researchers investigated interrater and intrarater reliability and arrived at an overall interrater agreement of .76 and intrarater agreement of .80 overall. To contrast with the mission statement element of the present study, Stemler and Babbel were interested in developing multiple themes, whereas only one theme, democratic social purpose, is of interest here. Stemler and Babbel found that college mission statements contained an average of 4.23 themes, whereas the present study will focus on how prevalent the theme of democratic social purpose is within college mission statements. The researchers found that academic, citizenship/vocational, and emotional were the three most frequently occurring themes at the college level. Although grouping citizenship and vocational together as one theme is odd from the perspective of the current study, it reinforces Westheimer and Kahne's (2004) contention of multiple forms of citizenship and modern tendencies to equate citizenship with simplistic functions such as working and paying taxes.

Morphew and Hartley's (2006) thematic analysis focused on higher education mission statements. They began by questioning the premise and value of mission

statements in general. Like Stemler and Babel (1999), they questioned whether mission statements were more empty rhetoric than meaningful guidance. After building insightful context by reviewing literature both pro and con, they concluded "...mission statements are important documents" (p. 459). Essentially, mission statements have been criticized for being vague, overly general, overly ambitious, and often unrealistic; however, they do serve valuable normative and strategic functions that are increasingly recognized and utilized.

Morphew and Hartley (2006) obtained a random sample of 299 mission statements from a population of 1,106 4-year institutions listed in the 2000 Carnegie Classification. The mission statements were printed from the World Wide Web and then half were coded by each of the researchers with the following research question in mind: "How do college and university mission statements differ in content, and are there any differences reflective of recognized differences between institutional types" (p. 460)? The researchers then discussed and reorganized the identified elements, individually coded some of the same mission statements, confirmed similar coding, and then apparently recoded each mission statement. Interrater reliability was not reported. They ended up with 118 distinct elements and further identified those elements found at the beginning of each mission statement. The method appeared to use emergent coding and then text analysis to generate frequencies that were stratified by Carnegie classification and institutional control. Inferential statistical methods were not reported.

Morphew and Hartley (2006) reported these findings: (a) institutional control (public/private) was more predictive than Carnegie classification (baccalaureate, masters,

doctoral); (b) some elements, such as diversity and liberal arts focus, are common; and (c) elements related to the concept of service are common but the connotation differs between public and private institutions. The three most common elements were reported for each classification and subdivided by institutional control. With regard to the present study, several elements that could indicate democratic social purpose (such as diversity, community, civic duty, and access) were identified. More striking is the remarkable absence of elements indicating an occupational or professional purpose. None of the reported common elements directly refers to occupational preparation. The closest possibilities would be “prepare for the world” and “student development.” Are institutions truly avoiding occupational references in this age of rampant vocationalism? Or is the absence of such references a product of the research method?

Meacham and Gaff (2006) created a list of 39 student learning goals and then searched 312 college mission statements, derived from a commercial review of the nation’s best colleges, for expression of those goals. Commenting that mission statements provide surprisingly few learning objectives, the researchers reported finding an average of five learning goals. Many institutions used a term indicating a liberal education focus as their only expression of learning goals. Goals that could be associated with democratic social purpose (e.g., social responsibility, diversity, and responsible citizenship) appeared relatively frequently. Although this sample would be considered more oriented to liberal education than Morphew and Hartley (2006) above, occupational or professional references were again notably absent.

The researchers go on to argue that literature indicates a growing national

consensus of undergraduate learning objectives and they suggest that this consensus should be visible in institutional mission statements. They note that community contribution, leadership skills, and imagination and creativity are not elements of the alleged national consensus and yet frequently appear in institutional mission statements. This finding might be informed by Morphew and Hartley's (2006) contention that mission statements were written for multiple audiences and often include elements that appeal to their benefactors. Thus, the local community wants to see a community purpose and the arts crowd values imagination and creativity.

Mission Statement Influence

Since both Morphew and Hartley (2006) and Stemler and Babell (1999) indicated some skepticism within the academic community when mission statements are represented as anything more than window dressing, it is appropriate to briefly introduce some relevant papers that could help change that image. First, Carver (2000) provided sage advice on how to create a meaningful mission statement. He recommends clearly specifying how success will be defined in terms of a particular result and identifying particular recipients. In other words concentrate on the "ends" and do not get tangled in the "means," the motivations, or philosophy behind the goal. He also cautions against using "try" (p. 21) words (e.g., promote, influence, assist, support, desire, aspire, attempt, advocate, etc.) which tend to create the vague missions that are creating skepticism.

Zemsky's (2005) work, *Today's Colleges Must Be Market Smart and Mission Centered*, drove at the heart of the present study. Written from a publicly funded

education perspective, he describes how higher education is now perceived as mainly providing personal advantages and charging accordingly. As state subsidies are reduced, public institutions become more like private institutions and both are squeezed in the competitive market according to Zemsky. He also noted that some private institutions are essentially forced to abandon their social mission to survive and comments about the state of higher education in general:

Much is lost when higher-education institutions are shaped almost exclusively by the desires of students pursuing educational credentials or business and government agencies seeking research outcomes. When a college or university is wholly dominated by market interests, it sacrifices much of the capacity to serve its public purposes and sometimes even its fundamental mission. (paragraph 2)

Zemsky's (2005) solution was not to go back or even hold the line. He suggested that higher education can fulfill more public purpose by embracing the market and making smart choices with the resources obtained from market endeavors. His strategy relies on basic economics. The goal of market enterprise is typically to maximize profits. In the case of public higher education, however, Zemsky proposed that the goal is to maximize mission attainment. He used an example of how a healthy business department could generate surplus revenue to cross-subsidize a continually struggling philosophy department that is needed to fulfill the institution's mission. Such subsidies are common; but, when success is defined by mission attainment, the importance of a sound, broadly supported mission is emphasized.

Zemsky (2005) pointed out that financially struggling institutions were slaves to the market; they cannot fund their subsidies and consequently have no means of asserting their mission—they are forced to be market smart but do not have the option of being

mission centered. Also, some institutions can generate huge surpluses; but, if the means used to generate the surpluses is contrary to the institutional mission, the organization has lost rather than won. Speaking of the ability to generate surplus, former Harvard President, Derek Bok discussed the commercial temptations in higher education at length in his book *Universities in the Marketplace: The Commercialization of Higher Education* (2003).

Berg, Csikszentmihalyi, and Nakamura (2003) constructed a systems model to show how a variety of internal and external forces act upon institutions of higher education to perpetuate either good work or compromised work. The primary determinant is how well the institutional mission can align these often conflicting forces. The authors discuss six questions that should be considered when an institution defines or revises its mission: (a) What kind of school? (b) To whom are we responsible? (c) What are our strengths? (d) Whom should we hire? (e) Who shall lead? (f) When to change? Essentially, good work at the institutional level requires a clear, broadly supported mission that helps all parties navigate through both good times and bad.

Literature Review Summary

The essence of Jeffersonian educational philosophy was introduced to situate education's place in democracy and elaborate on the Jeffersonian theoretical lens. Next, historical context was provided to describe the major influences and events that have shaped education in the United States; thereby, building a bridge between Jeffersonian thought and current conditions regarding democratic education. Vocationalism emerged

from this historical review as the primary threat to the democratic purpose of education. Consequently, a review of vocationalism was provided not only as background information, but also to rationalize the instrumentation described later. Finally, literature regarding institutional mission statements, including empirical research, was reviewed with regard to the current study.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

This chapter elaborates on the methodological elements of the study. The design, population, sample, instrumentation, reliability and validity, data collection, and statistical analysis methods are described below.

Design

The research was conducted as a quantitative, observational study. Essentially, published mission statements were reviewed for DSP content and assigned a zero for DSP absence or a one for DSP presence. The instrumentation section describes the observational criteria used to determine DSP presence/absence and other sections of this chapter provide appropriate details for the quantitative method.

Population

The Carnegie Classification of higher education was created by the Carnegie Foundation to facilitate the study of higher education. The classification variables are revised every few years to provide an up-to-date, yet reasonably stable framework for higher education research. In 2005 the system of classification became multiple systems of classification that enable researchers to focus on higher education through a number of perspectives. There are now six inclusive classifications of institutional attributes including the Undergraduate Instructional Program classification used for this study. This study utilized the 23 January 2007 data file (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement

of Teaching, 2007).

The target population for this study includes all Institutions Listed in the Carnegie undergraduate instructional program classification ($N = 3,415$). This classification was recently created based on 2003 and 2004 national data. The focus is on undergraduate education; however, this classification does not exclude institutions offering graduate degrees unless the institution is exclusively graduate studies. The classification excludes institutions devoted to a special focus such as medicine, law, theology, or music.

It is the intent of this study to represent the experience of undergraduate college students with regard to the specified research objectives. Consequently, when adjusting the raw population, care was taken to ensure that the final population represented over 95% of the raw population's enrollment number. The raw population represents an enrollment of 16,902,876 students; thus, the final population was required to exceed 16,057,732 students.

Institutional exclusion criteria were used to ensure appropriate and readily available data from a random sample of the final population. After applying the exclusion criteria specified below the final population size of 2,796 represented 96.4% of the Carnegie undergraduate program enrollment; exceeding the 95% goal. The exclusion criteria included the following.

1. Institutions with accreditation status listed as unknown ($n = 125$) or state ($n = 9$) accreditation were excluded because accreditation agencies are the driving influence for institutions to publish a mission statement, and work with pilot data indicated that many of these institutions do not publish a mission statement.

2. Institutions that are outside the 50 United States ($n = 58$) were excluded to prevent influences outside the U.S. political system.

3. Institutions with over 80% graduate enrollment ($n = 18$) were excluded because such a high graduate concentration would be expected to influence the institutional mission and because such institutions poorly represent the targeted undergraduate population.

4. Institutions lacking locale/urbanization data ($n = 129$) were excluded because Carnegie's specific assignment criterion for locale was not apparent; thus, assigning these institutions a locale was not possible.

5. Institutions with enrollment of less than 330 were excluded because prior to that enrollment level many institutions appeared to have a specialized focus (e.g., golf academy, refrigeration school, court reporting, advertising) and small enrollment institutions tended to have missing data. Although 280 institutions did not satisfy this criterion, their influence on students/citizens was limited by their small enrollment status.

Sample

A sample size of 336 was selected after examining the complex problem of logistic regression power. The selected sample size was determined by considering the values suggested by commercial software and by estimating cell frequencies for this specific study. Using STATA® software on a similar problem, statisticians from the UCLA Academic Technology Services group (n.d.) calculated a minimum sample size of 182 when using five predictors, .05 alpha, .80 power, one standard deviation criterion,

and a .40 squared correlation coefficient (retrieved April 1, 2007). While these values and assumptions are potentially applicable to the present study, calculation of expected cell frequencies indicates that a sample size of 280 is needed to achieve a minimum expected cell frequency of six when an 80/20 split is assumed on the dichotomous dependent variable of the smallest category. Ultimately the 336 sample size was determined by adding 20% to the 280 value that represented the most conservative of the methods used to estimate the minimum sample size. The 336 sample equates to 12% of the 2,796 population.

SPSS's case selection function was used to randomly select 336 institutions, listed in Appendix D, from the population. Table 1 shows the theoretical sample size by

Table 1

Logistic Regression Independent Variables and Sample Analysis

Variable	Data type	Sample levels/range	Full population	Theoretical 12% sample	Random sample
Control	Categorical	Public	1,527	183.2	181
		Private nonprofit	961	115.3	113
		Private for-profit	308	37.0	42
Enrollment	Continuous	330 to 57,026	2,796	336.0	336
Locale ^a	Ordinal	Large city & fringe	1,014	121.7	127
		Midsized city & fringe	960	115.2	122
		Smaller locales	822	98.6	87
Focus ^a	Categorical	Associates	1,374	164.9	164
		Arts & science	341	40.9	41
		Balanced	486	58.3	64
		Professional	595	71.4	67
Accreditation ^a	Categorical	National/specialized	333	40	41
		Regional	2,464	296	295
Word count	Continuous	5 to 1,237	2,796	336	336

^a Carnegie classification levels were combined or transformed for these variables.

variable level and also the outcome of the random selection. Comparison of the random sample values with the theoretical sample values reveals that the simple random sampling procedure did return a representative sample.

Instrumentation

Early in the formation of this study it was apparent that describing and then recognizing Jeffersonian democratic social purpose (DSP) would be critical. The Jeffersonian theoretical perspective, curriculum history, and vocationalism sections of the literature review informed the criteria development process and resulted in the data collection instrument (Appendix A) and DSP recognition criteria (Appendix B).

Jeffersonian educational purposes identified on the instrument were developed by listing the prevalent purposes or ideals of education found in Jefferson's writing. The list was then narrowed by removing those purposes that in today's language and usage would support competing concepts of democracy and competing purposes for education. Then the remaining Jeffersonian purposes were defined by developing specific criteria for recognizing whether that purpose was present or absent when reading any given mission statement. The instrument is used to record the presence or absence of Jeffersonian DSP.

Early versions of instrument and DSP recognition criteria were improved through a piloting sequence where the criteria and instrument were applied to mission statements from outside the study sample, weaknesses were discovered, and the criteria modified. That sequence was then repeated with the addition of an interrater. Ultimately, this early work provided confidence regarding the feasibility of the study.

Reliability and Validity

Two raters of DSP were used to guard against the possibility of biased coding of this variable. The first rater was the author of this dissertation. The second rater, Elaine Youngberg, Ed.D., was thoroughly familiar with the research proposal. Interrater training was performed in accordance to the procedure specified in Appendix B and used postsecondary mission statements from outside the random sample. The researcher and interrater jointly applied the DSP recognition criteria to a number of mission statements until reasonably consistent interpretation appeared evident. Then the researcher and interrater examined 20 mission statements separately. The first iteration of this process resulted in 80% DSP concurrence. As specified by the interrater training procedure, the differences were discussed and then 20 more mission statements were coded separately. The second iteration resulted in 95% DSP concurrence (exceeding the 90% requirement) and the rater and interrater proceeded to interpret the study sample separately.

Interrater reliability was computed upon completion of data interpretation. Of the 336 mission statements interpreted, the raters agreed 315 times for a simple concurrence of 93.75 percent. Cohen's Kappa was calculated as .873 and the associated 95% confidence interval provided a .82 to .93 range. Each conflicted case was settled by mutual agreement prior to data analysis.

Face validity of the DSP construct was examined and deemed satisfactory by the supervising dissertation committee. Use of a representative sample of U.S. Carnegie institutions increased the external validity or generalizability of study findings.

Data Collection

Nearly all of the mission statements were collected from the relevant institutional website. There were a few exceptions where mission statements could not be found on the institutional website, but were found on either the system website (such as the Florida system of higher education) or private for-profit mission statements were sometimes found on a corporate website. Each mission statement was electronically pasted to the data collection form found in Appendix A.

The independent variables, listed in Table 1, were primarily derived from Carnegie Classification data. As mentioned previously, this study used the 23 January 2007 Carnegie data file which was downloaded in spreadsheet format (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2007). The data contained on the spreadsheet were examined in multiple ways utilizing various sorting routines to assess completeness and appropriateness. The exclusion criteria indicated earlier resulted from this examination. A final independent variable, measuring the word count from each institution's mission statement, was added to form a more comprehensive model. Word count was generated using a common word processing program.

Statistical Analysis

Data were exported from a spreadsheet program to SPSS® version 14 for statistical analysis. The criteria for statistical significance was set to $\alpha = .05$ for all analyses.

The first research objective was addressed through a 2-way chi-square analysis

comparing the independence of DSP with the three levels of institutional control: public, private nonprofit, and private for-profit.

The second research objective was addressed using multiple logistic regression analysis, where DSP served as a binary outcome variable. Independent variables consisted of institutional control, enrollment, locale, focus, accreditation, and word count. The analysis strategy followed the three steps, as outlined by Menard (2002): (a) assess how well the model fits; (b) assess the statistical significance and strength of relationship of each independent variable; and (c) assess whether the model appears to be correct and satisfy assumptions through diagnostic analyses.

Table 1 presents predictor variables, corresponding levels for categorical variables, and the possible range for the continuous variable. Note that samples for each variable equal a sum of 336; the number suggested by the *priori* sample size analysis as necessary to achieve sufficient power for the purposes of this study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter reports the statistical findings for each of the two stated research objectives. Table 2 lists the percentage of DSP presence for each variable by level and is included at the beginning of the chapter as an overview of the findings and a central location to compare DSP presence. The two continuous variables, enrollment and word count, show that DSP was found in 42% of the overall sample and could be considered a neutral basis for comparison.

Research Objective One

The first research objective was to investigate whether differences exist in the proportions of public, private nonprofit, and private for-profit postsecondary institutions

Table 2

Percent DSP Presence by Variable

Variable	Data type	Sample levels/range	DSP %
Institutional control	Categorical	Public	36.5
		Private nonprofit	61.9
		Private for-profit	11.9
Enrollment	Continuous	330 to 57,026	42.0
Locale ^a	Ordinal	Large city & fringe	34.6
		Midsize city & fringe	44.3
		Smaller locales	49.4
Focus ^a	Categorical	Associates	25.0
		Arts & science	68.3
		Balanced	60.9
		Professional	49.3
Accreditation ^a	Categorical	National/specialized	19.5
		Regional	45.1
Word Count	Continuous	5 to 1,237	42.0

^a Carnegie classification levels were combined or transformed for these variables.

that express DSP in their mission statements. As shown in Table 2, public institutions exhibited DSP in 36.5% of the cases, private nonprofit institutions exhibited DSP in 61.9% of the cases, and private for-profit institutions exhibited DSP in 11.9% of the cases. Since both DSP and institutional control are categorical variables, the chi-square test of independence was used to determine if the differences were statistically significant. The omnibus test, utilizing a 3x2 contingency table format, found institutional control and DSP to be significantly related [$\chi^2(2, N = 336) = 35.36, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .329$]. Follow up tests, using 2x2 comparisons, were necessary to determine which of the institutional control categories were significant. Applying the Bonferroni correction yielded $\alpha = .017$ for this series of tests. Public versus private nonprofit institutions were significant [$\chi^2(1, N = 294) = 18.17, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .249$]. Next, public versus private for-profit were significant [$\chi^2(1, N = 223) = 9.48, p = .002$, Cramer's $V = .206$]. Finally, private nonprofit versus private for-profit were significant [$\chi^2(1, N = 155) = 30.70, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .445$]. As suggested by these values, the sharpest contrast was between private nonprofit and private for-profit institutions. Figure 1 shows these comparisons graphically.

Research Objective Two

The second research objective was to evaluate the influence of selected Carnegie Classification variables (i.e., institutional control, enrollment size, locale, institutional focus, accreditation type, and mission statement length) and mission statement length on the presence of DSP in postsecondary institutional mission statements. Logistic

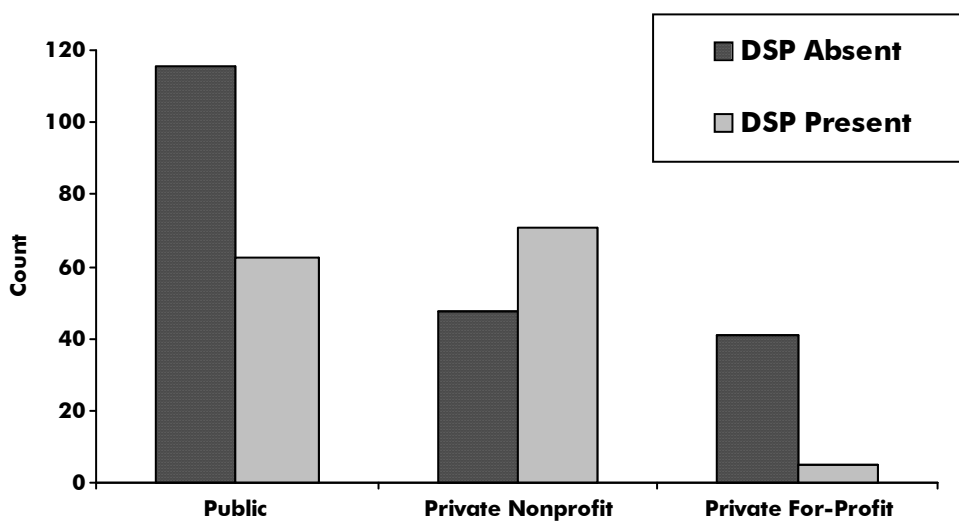


Figure 1. Bar chart of DSP by institutional control.

regression analysis was selected due to the dichotomous dependent variable. The independent or predictor variables included institutional control, enrollment, locale, institutional focus, accreditation type, and the number of words contained in the mission statement. There were no cases with missing data and the observed 42/58 proportion on the dichotomous variable (DSP presence/absence) was well above the 20/80 split used when estimating the appropriate sample size. Univariate analysis, using both SPSS's crosstabs and binary logistic regression routines, indicated that each of the variables were potentially meaningful to the multivariate model. Consequently, all of the variables were included in the preliminary binary logistic model. Early analysis revealed the need for two data transformations: (a) enrollment values were divided by 100 to facilitate interpretation of the results, and (b) a natural log transformation was applied to the word count variable to improve linearity in the logit.

Within the multivariate model, the accreditation variable lost statistical

significance and did not influence the regression coefficients; therefore, it was removed from the model. Locale was not significant at $p = .102$, but influenced multiple indicators of model fit; therefore, it was retained in the model. The other predictor variables remained significant within the model. Plausible interactions among the remaining variables were evaluated but found to be non-significant. Once the anticipated final model was established, the collinearity diagnostics in SPSS's linear regression module were utilized to determine that there were no multicollinearity concerns. Also, potential outliers were identified by examining leverage values, Cook's influence, and various residuals; however, each of the indicated cases was verified and deemed to be within the expected limits.

The final model was significantly different [$\chi^2(8, N = 336) = 129.94, p < .001$, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .431$] than a null model with no predictors included. Specific terms of the model are summarized in Table 3.

The overall effect of institutional focus was significant ($Z = 2.85, p = .043$), indicating that the Carnegie undergraduate program classifications are useful in predicting DSP. Since associates colleges were used as the reference category, it can be said that institutions with an arts and sciences focus were 3.24 times more likely to exhibit DSP than associates colleges. Similarly, institutions offering a balance between arts and science and professional programs were 2.39 times more likely and professionally focused programs were 1.28 times more likely to exhibit DSP than associates colleges.

The overall effect of institutional control was significant ($Z = 3.12, p = .006$),

Table 3

Variables in the Equation

Variable	B	S.E.	Z	Df	Sig.	Odds ratio	95% Range	
							Low	High
Intercept	-6.590	.967	6.889	1	< .001			
Focus			2.852	3	.043			
Arts & Sci.	1.175	.493	2.382	1	.017	3.239	1.231	8.521
Balanced	.873	.409	2.137	1	.033	2.394	1.075	5.332
Professional	.244	.395	.616	1	.538	1.276	.588	2.768
Control			3.213	2	.006			
Private N.P.	.669	.385	1.738	1	.082	1.952	.918	4.151
Private F.P.	-1.239	.586	2.112	1	.035	.290	.092	.915
Locale	.328	.201	1.634	1	.102	1.389	.937	2.060
Enroll100	-.005	.002	2.005	1	.045	.995	.991	1.000
WordsLn	1.210	.171	7.066	1	< .001	3.354	2.398	4.691

indicating that institutional control is also a useful predictor of DSP. Here the reference category was public institutions and the analysis indicates that private nonprofit institutions were nearly twice as likely to exhibit DSP; while private for-profit institutions were only 29% as likely. This result is closely related to the chi-square analysis performed above for the first research objective.

The locale variable was not significant ($Z = 1.63, p = .102$), but did appear to enhance the model. Locale was coded as an ordinal variable in a descending fashion (large, medium, small); thus, if locale were a reliable predictor, the interpretation would be that medium locales are about 1.4 times more likely to exhibit DSP than large (more metropolitan) locales and small (more rural) locales are about 1.4 times more likely to exhibit DSP than medium locales.

Institutional enrollment was significant ($Z = 2.01, p = .045$) and would be interpreted as every 100 student increase in enrollment is 99.5% as likely as the previous increment to exhibit DSP. In general, DSP is exhibited less by large schools. The final variable, word count, was added for reasons of model inclusiveness rather than academic interest. Wordy mission statements are more likely to include a DSP element than concise mission statements. As expected, word count was a significant predictor ($Z = 7.07, p < .001$), indicating that DSP is more likely to be found in longer mission statements.

Overall, the model was able to classify DSP presence and absence correctly 77.1% of the time. However, it was better at predicting DSP absence (83.1%) than DSP presence (68.8%). Appendix E includes additional logistic regression model statistics.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This research utilized a national sample to examine the expression of democratic social purpose (DSP) within the mission statements of postsecondary education institutions. The DSP construct was historically informed through Thomas Jefferson's conception of education and democracy where the central purpose of public education is democracy. The Jeffersonian theoretical perspective considers DSP presence as a positive and DSP absence as a negative condition. The following discussion maintains that perspective.

Institutional Control

Under the Jeffersonian lens, the central purpose of public education is democracy. Since mission statements are the primary place where educational institutions express their purposes, all public institutions would be expected to express DSP. Something is amiss when only 36.5% of the mission statements at public institutions meet the Jeffersonian-informed DSP presence criteria. A reasonable possibility is that democracy is not the central purpose of education. This study identified vocationalism as a strong competitor but did not attempt to quantify or compare the relative positions. The educational historians cited earlier describe multiple purposes for education and this diversity of competing purposes may preclude ever identifying a central purpose without a powerful policy change; such as a Constitutional amendment or Supreme Court decision. While a national change of that scale is unlikely in the near future, it is more

feasible for individual states or systems to establish a guiding central purpose and supplementary purposes. Another possible reason that mission statements at public institutions do not broadly exhibit democratic social purpose relates to the Jeffersonian ideology; perhaps our society has redefined democracy and education such that they are no longer captured by the Jeffersonian philosophy. Apple (2001) and Giroux (1998) provide relevant examples for this possibility.

While these uncertainties are worth considering, the primary finding, that only 36.5% of public postsecondary institutions expressed DSP, should be alarming to citizens, educators, and appointed and elected officials who, like Jefferson, believe in the primacy of democratic society and governance. If vocationalism is the controlling purpose of education, as Kliebard (1999, p. 231) contends and this study does not refute, then one should question the appropriateness of publicly funding a system with dubious democratic purpose. Does it make sense for a democracy to spend tax dollars to promote vocationalism? If vocationalism is advanced by the investment of public funds, does the public benefit equally or are inequities created? What are the outcomes of better vocationalism? How well does vocationalism address the nation's social problems? These questions deserve public debate because even if vocationalism is not the central purpose of education, there is obviously a large public investment in occupational preparation. An interesting exercise results from asking those same questions, but, inserting the word "democracy" in place of the word "vocationalism." Some, at least, will recognize that public investment in a democratic society has a logical and self-evident central purpose.

Although the DSP expressed within mission statements at public institutions was

disappointingly low, it would be hard to be disappointed by private institutions because, aside from operating within the law, there should be limited expectations. Private nonprofit institutions must meet certain legal criteria to obtain nonprofit status but they cannot be expected to share the social obligations of publicly funded institutions. Private nonprofit institutions were created for diverse purposes and it is a gift to democratic society that DSP was exhibited by 69.1% of the institutions; fortunately, for American democratic society, they are in the giving business. With only 11.9% of mission statements at for-profit institutions exhibiting DSP, they are a different story entirely. This sharp contrast should give pause to citizens, administrators, and elected officials currently considering educational vouchers or other programs where tax dollars can be directed to private institutions. From the DSP perspective, tax dollars directed towards nonprofits (with 69.1% DSP) would seem a good investment while for-profits (with 11.9% DSP) would seem a poor investment.

From the Jeffersonian perspective, private institutions should remain private, free to fulfill their private mission without the influence that will inevitably come when accepting tax dollars. Jefferson's position on restrained governmental influence is well documented and illustrated by the following, "...Were it left to me to decide whether we should have a government without newspapers or newspapers without government, I should not hesitate a moment to prefer the latter.... But I should mean that every man should receive those papers and be capable of reading them" (Wagoner, 2004, p. 129).

Educational voucher and similar privatizing initiatives could also be contrary to Jefferson's fundamental belief in religious freedom and the separation of church and

state. Jefferson had the opportunity to support his alma mater, the Church of England affiliated College of William and Mary, on multiple occasions and considered transforming it into the state university. However, his transformation would include making the institution appropriately secular and multiplying the democratic public purpose. As Governor of Virginia, Jefferson was unable to achieve this transformation; he abandoned the College of William and Mary and turned instead to the prospect of creating a worthy state university (Wagoner, 2004). Thus, Jefferson also wrestled with the dilemma of spending public funds to support private education and, ultimately, he was unwilling to taint or dilute the democratic public purpose he envisioned with private purposes, even though it would have been politically expedient to do so. This is another instance where Jefferson refused to compromise the principle of democracy.

Institutional Focus

The next noteworthy finding in this study was the influence of institutional focus on DSP. This study compared associates colleges with 4-year institutions that were categorized as arts and science program dominant, balanced between arts and science and professional programs, and professional program dominant. The contrast with associates colleges was purposeful because enrollment in associates colleges accounts for about half of the total postsecondary enrollment (47% of this study's random sample); a large percentage of citizens attend associates colleges.

Perhaps it was predictable that mission statements at associates colleges lagged the rest in the expression of DSP. Arts and science dominant institutions were 3.2 times

more likely, balanced institutions were 2.4 times more likely, and professional programs were 1.3 times more likely than associates colleges to express DSP. Kasper (2002/2003) and Bailey and Averianova (2000) discuss the changing (often expanding) role of community colleges. Both authors situate the changes in terms of institutional mission; Kasper wrote, “[T]oday their mission is more comprehensive, thanks to a gradual shift toward vocational education, job training, and programs catering to the community” (p. 14). Bailey and Averianova are more critical of the changes, “[C]ritics suggest that the [community] colleges have abandoned missions that should form the foundation of a democratic society and have squandered effort and resources in an attempt to ‘be all things to all people’” (p. 4). This study supports that statement insofar as democratic purpose was exhibited by only 25% of associates colleges while the various classifications of four-year colleges averaged 59.5%. Additional univariate analysis using a 4x2 contingency table revealed significant differences in DSP frequency based on institutional focus [$\chi^2(3, N = 336) = 41.971, p < .001$, Cramer’s $V = .353$], and subsequent 2x2 testing found that associates colleges were significantly different ($p < .001$) from each of the 4-year classifications. One possible interpretation, at least from a citizen or taxpayer point of view, is that they are spending tax dollars to perpetuate class structures; associates colleges appear primarily about occupational skills while more expensive 4-year colleges have a deeper social purpose. A potential outcome is the promotion of a laboring class that works and pays taxes but is relatively inactive politically and a governing class that is more politically active. The difference, this study may suggest, is partially due to publicly financed and government sanctioned differences

in institutional mission and the associated curriculum.

Jefferson firmly believed that preventing tyranny and corruption in government required broad participation from reasonably educated citizens, and it was ordinary citizens such as farmers and tradesmen that Jefferson most trusted to care for his fledgling democracy. Within this study, citizens attending associates colleges best represent Jefferson's ideal of ordinary citizens; however, with associates colleges exhibiting only 25% DSP, it is not the sort of education Jefferson envisioned and arguably not the sort of education that produces politically active citizens.

Westheimer and Kahne (2004) demonstrated that curriculum can be constructed to promote informed citizenship in a study titled, *What Kind of Citizen? The Politics of Educating for Democracy*. The study explored various conceptions of citizenship and reduced those concepts to three common themes: (a) personally responsible citizen, (b) participatory citizen, and (c) justice-oriented citizen. The personally responsible citizen is characterized as someone who works, pays taxes, obeys laws, acts honestly, and donates food to the local food drive. The participatory citizen knows how government works, has developed skills for facilitating collective tasks, and helps organize the local food drive. The justice-oriented citizen focuses on political and social injustice, has developed skills for facilitating systemic change, and works to solve the root cause of the local hunger problem. The researchers identify personally responsible citizenship as the form receiving the most support through community service and character building programs. This form emphasizes compassion, volunteerism, patriotism, loyalty, and a host of other characteristics that are not inherently democratic. While these are desirable goals for any

community, they serve totalitarian and capitalistic ideals equally or better than democracy. Westheimer and Kahne went on to show that through deliberate curriculum design, the two more informed versions of citizenship (participatory and justice-oriented) can be taught. The results of this study, with DSP present in 42% of the mission statements overall and only 36.5% in publicly controlled institutions, indicate that deliberate intention regarding democratic citizenship is deficient.

Most of what is known about the relationship between education and democratic political behavior is summarized by Nie, Junn, and Stehlik-Barry (1996) in their work titled *Education and Democratic Citizenship in America*. The researchers form causal links and provide an explanation of political behavior based on educational attainment; more educational attainment does result in greater political behavior. However, their data did not permit them to consider how specific attributes of education (institutional control or focus, for instance) influenced democratic enlightenment and political engagement. Consequently, they demonstrated educational attainment's influence on democratic citizenship in a general way, but two-years of education at a public associates college was treated the same as two-years of education at private nonprofit liberal arts college. The current study indicates that institutional control and institutional focus are significant factors for predicting the frequency, which DSP is expressed in institutional mission statements. Research is needed to determine if democratic enlightenment and political engagement are actually altered by institutional attributes such as these. If that is the case, then it is easier to demonstrate systematic inequities and to encourage more democratic educational practice.

Other Variables

Enrollment remained significant in the multivariate logistic regression model ($p = .045$) and indicated that larger schools were less likely to express DSP in their mission statement. To get a better feel for the variable, enrollment was broken into quartiles and then deciles and crosstabulated with DSP in a univariate fashion. This additional analysis was not particularly revealing. However, the smallest schools did appear to detract from the enrollment effect, lending credence to the original reason for excluding institutions with less than 330 students: very small institutions tend to have specialized purposes. Strict interpretation of the odds ratio, that each additional 100 student increment in enrollment is 99.5% as likely as the prior increment to exhibit DSP, remained plausible within the 331 to 57,026 enrollment range (567 increments) examined in this study. The practical implication of this finding is that only 35% of the enrolled students attend institutions that express DSP in their mission statements, even though DSP is expressed by 42% of the mission statements. For better or worse, large schools have a lot of leverage on democratic citizenship.

Again, the locale variable lacked statistical significance but did appear to enhance the model and the accreditation variable was dropped from the model because it was not significant and had no appreciable influence on the model. However, practical limitations of this study required both variables to be collapsed from the full Carnegie descriptions. For instance, the seven levels used by the Carnegie Classification system to describe locale were collapsed to small, medium, and large for this study. More interestingly, this study examined accreditation by comparing regional accreditation with national/

specialized accreditation. Although this is a fair and interesting comparison, it is possible that one or more of the six regional accreditation agencies had a significant influence on DSP that would not have been revealed by the current study. If that were the case, it may be possible to track the influence to a specific document or accreditation requirement and recommend adoption or deletion based on best-practices considerations. Comparison of DSP for the six accreditation regions is a specific area of recommended research. Similarly, comparing the various states for DSP could be enlightening.

Research Recommendations

This study utilized institutions from the Carnegie Undergraduate Instructional Program classification because it reflects the entire undergraduate experience, from associates colleges to research universities. However, a number of potentially revealing variables are not common between the 2- and 4-year classifications. For instance, Carnegie provided residential and selectivity variables for 4-year colleges that are not measured for 2-year colleges. Kowal (1998) considered residential campuses to be influential in citizenship value development, but Carnegie does not residential data for 2-year institutions. Such interruptions in the data make it easier for researchers to examine 4-year institutions alone or 2-year institutions alone. More predictor variables could be included if 2-year institutions were eliminated from the population, but doing so would remove a large percentage of the undergraduate enrollment and, accordingly, a large percentage of the democratic citizenship.

Another obvious question: is there a central purpose of public education? Or,

what is the central purpose of public education? It seems reasonable to limit the question to public education because private nonprofit institutions were created for a multitude of purposes by a variety of interest groups. For-profit institutions hold the profit motive in common and if one subscribes to the Friedman (1970) philosophy, there would be no reason to look further. However, many believe that public education is begging for direction—constantly searching for a beacon in the distance that is worthy of the struggle. Some, like Jefferson, consider democracy to be the most rational answer; nonetheless, the results of this study do not support that position. Vocationalism or knowledge would both have supporters, but appear to lack a moral basis that many would deem necessary. It is possible that the central purpose differs by institution focus or type. For instance, the results of this study clearly indicate that associates colleges' institutional mission statements express DSP less frequently than each of the 4-year classifications. As undemocratic as it may be, it is possible that the central purpose of public associates colleges is vocationalism while the central purpose of the arts and sciences classification is democracy.

On a philosophical level, the central purpose question should be preceded by asking: should public postsecondary education exist? If the answer is yes, then it follows that some logical rationale justifies the positive response. Then the question becomes: what public good is worthy of the public expense? While it may be tempting to answer that question with a long list of purposes, Carnochan (1993) and Ravitch (2000) remind us that a multitude of purposes is counterproductive in the absence of a single, guiding purpose.

Recent emphasis on institutional assessment by regional accreditation agencies is recognized. However, the result of that emphasis on mission statement outcomes remains a question. If a new purpose is expressed in a mission statement, is there a measurable corresponding outcome at some point in the future? Such a finding would give hope because mission statements are carefully crafted documents generally resulting from deliberate consideration by an educated and informed group. This rational process would be preferable to unplanned changes that are apparently resulting from consumerism and market influences. In fact that would seem the very reason for institutional assessment, to have a plan, work the plan, and assess the outcome. Although the above question is generically worded, research questions specifically related to this study could include: Are graduates from institutions that exhibit DSP in their mission statement actually more democratically active than other graduates? Do institutions that exhibit DSP in their mission statement also exhibit other democratic characteristics that are visible in their curriculum, student government, institutional governance, political activity, or otherwise?

Extended Implications

Jefferson was unwilling to compromise on the principle of democracy, but after two centuries, the cumulative effect of compromise and neglect is evidenced in our society. It seems to result from a lack of focus by the public rather than deliberate action. Thus, no one is to blame and everyone is to blame by virtue of democracy. One way to look at it is, the average American is an active consumer every day and an active citizen on Election Day, sometimes. A thriving democracy requires broader participation that

Jefferson and others sought to instill through education. While education remains a viable conduit for informed citizenship, the results of this study suggest that postsecondary education, like the public, is focused elsewhere or unfocused in general.

Westheimer and Kahne's (2004) lowest form of citizenship, the personally responsible citizen, appears to be thriving. The average American is honest, obedient, patriotic, giving, and hard working. Although those qualities seem beneficial to society, they are superficial to democracy. According to Westheimer and Kahne, the personally responsible citizen conception receives the most attention within education and actually competes with the deeper forms. With a shift in educational purpose, there is good reason to believe that deeper forms of citizenship can be equally successful.

Deeper democracy requires active participation, social criticism, independent thinking, and the ability and willingness to disagree. In a society where most disagreements are met with a shrug of the shoulders, the verbal response "whatever," or even worse, feigned agreement, Hiley (1996) and others pointed out that "disagreement is a very difficult thing to reach" (paragraph 1). Nonetheless, disagreement is necessary to the democratic process and necessary for educational progress. Hiley suggested that education, and particularly the democratic purposes of general education, are worthy of disagreement.

Although vocationalism has roots in social efficiency (Kliebard, 1999, 2004; Labaree, 1997), its recent success is a product of popular opinion (Kliebard, 1999). The bothersome issue is that the current generations espousing the popular opinion are unaware of the theoretical roots. Consequently, modern vocationalism is a product of

consumerism rather than democratic process. Would vocationalism beat democracy in a national election for the central purpose of public education? It is unlikely because on Election Day the American voters would behave like citizens rather than consumers. Nonetheless, we are stuck with the perception that the purpose of education is vocationalism, and for many, perception is reality. A challenge for our time is to distinguish between a consumer and a citizen, and consumerism and democracy—and then insist that public policy is based on rational democratic process rather than the appetite of consumerism or the covert mechanisms of neoliberalism.

Summary

Three most important findings of this study are: (a) mission statements at postsecondary public education institutions do not regularly express DSP as defined by this study, (b) mission statements at associates colleges exhibit significantly less DSP than four-year institutions, and (c) mission statements at private for-profit institutions express significantly less DSP than both public and nonprofit institutions.

With regard to public education mission statements lacking DSP, a democratic society should recognize that public education only makes sense if it is favorable to democracy; otherwise, we are tearing apart the very foundation that we stand upon. If someone says that postsecondary education exists “to get a good job and become wealthy” they are expressing a private purpose that is arguably detrimental to democracy. It is true that taxes collected on that income can be spent on public purposes, but taxes would also be collected if the education in question were from a private institution. Any

citizen has the right “to get a good job and become wealthy,” but the public should think twice about financing that desire. As a democratic society, we need to do a better job of leveraging the public investment towards public good that is measured in democratic principle rather than dollars. To do so we must restrain our economic fixation. Few citizens would be surprised to hear that the United States has the world’s largest GDP (gross domestic product). But, many would be surprised, perhaps even ashamed, to learn of the United States’ less favorable position on indices more reflective of democracy: literacy, infant mortality, freedom of the press, poverty, quality of life, satisfaction/happiness, and even democracy. These indices do exist and the low level of public awareness, as compared to the GDP index, exemplifies the national focus and underscores the need to direct public resources towards these and other non-economic indicators of democracy.

Two-year associates colleges exhibiting significantly less DSP than 4-year institutions is troubling because the numerical inequity (25% versus 59% DSP) likely reflects social inequity to some degree. While it is deplorable that public institutions exhibited only 36.5% DSP, it is much worse if the democratic expectations and opportunities are systematically reduced for one segment of society. Such a situation could only be described as anti-democratic. The sharp contrast between nonprofit and for-profit institutions is enlightening and will have increasing social implications if enrollments at private institutions continue outpace enrollments at public institutions, particularly if for-profit education grows rapidly. Nonprofits deserve praise for their good work and social concern. For-profits deserve exactly what they earn in the marketplace.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A
Data Collection Instrument

Data Collection Instrument

Carnegie Institution Number: _____

Institution Name: _____

Date of Mission Statement Collection: _____

Source (www address or other source): _____

Instructions: With the short list of Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purposes in mind and the training materials (Appendix B) at hand, read the mission statement and underline or otherwise highlight each phrase or passage that represents a democratic social purpose.

Place a check-mark or X next to each category identified. Place an X in the box labeled NONE if democratic social purpose was not identified.

Mission Statement: _____

Recognized Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purposes:

_____ Public Good / Common Good

_____ Liberal Education

_____ Participatory Citizenship / Social Responsibility

_____ Social equity / Social Justice

_____ Liberty / Freedom

_____ Democracy

NONE

Appendix B
DSP Recognition Criteria

Interrater Training

The interrater will be thoroughly familiar with the research proposal and the DSP expressions described below prior to active training. Initial training will be performed using post-secondary mission statements from outside the random sample. The researcher and interrater will examine a number of these mission statements together. Once it is jointly decided that there is reasonably consistent interpretation, the researcher and interrater will examine 20 mission statements separately. If there is less than 90% DSP agreement, the researcher and interrater will discuss the differences and then examine 20 more mission statements separately. Any differences will be discussed even if the proportion of concurrence exceeds 90%. Once both are comfortable with the interpretation procedure and 90% or more concurrence is evident, the researcher and interrater will interpret the study sample separately.

Expressions of Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purpose

Common Good - Refers to actions or decisions based on what is best for society as a whole. The expression may be phrased in terms of public or social welfare. Acceptable examples: "...concern for social welfare" or "... consideration of the common good."

Common Good Exclusions: The mere mention of community or service within a community is not sufficient. Also not valid if the expression is exclusionary and/or, competitively, economically, or occupationally phrased. Examples of unacceptable expressions: "concern for the welfare of all Christians" (excludes other belief systems,

would be acceptable if the word citizens or people were used in place of Christians), “Promoting the economic health of the region” or “Providing job training for all citizens of the state.”

Liberal Education - Must be a proactive expression supporting liberal education (or liberal arts) orientation. The expression must be clear that liberal education is an intended purpose or mission of the institution. Acceptable examples: “Warnack is a liberal arts college” or “... believe in liberal education” or “liberal arts and sciences core curriculum.”

Liberal Education Exclusions: Not valid if the expression lists liberal education as an equal among others. Such as “... provides vocational, professional, and liberal education” or “... offering terminal and liberal arts programs.” Also not valid if liberal education is simply implied by listing related elements such as “critical thinking.”

Participatory Citizenship / Social Responsibility - Any expression supporting participation in a democratic political process, or demonstrating a proactive attitude toward preparing citizens, or consideration of democratic social responsibility.

Participatory Citizenship / Social Responsibility Exclusions: The mere mention of citizens, society, service, or responsibility is insufficient. Examples of insufficient expression: “... educating the citizens of Utah” or “developing a sense of responsibility” (it is unclear that the sense of responsibility relates to citizenship, society or democracy—it could be referring to work-ethic or personal responsibility). Personal responsibility is insufficient. Also, focus on “world citizens” or “global citizenship” is outside DSP.

Social Equity / Social Justice - This expression is recognized by any statement promoting fair and/or equal treatment of all or just social conditions. References to “equal opportunity” or statements promoting education “regardless of race, creed, or color” or “social and economic status” would qualify as DSP.

Social Equity / Social Justice Exclusions: Recognizing, appreciating, respecting, or valuing differences is insufficient. Consequently, reference to diversity or pluralism is insufficient unless accompanied by political activity. For example, “Warnack College values diversity” is insufficient; however, “Warnack College provides a forum for discussion of diversity issues” or “Warnack College will actively engage the community in diversity issues” or “Warnack College will be the regional/local/community leader in matters of diversity” would be expressions of democratic purpose. Each of the three examples indicates an active role that at least implies political action. The last of the three examples (leadership) is the weakest and should be considered the lower threshold for accepting references to diversity as DSP. Reference to “open admission policy” does not qualify as social equity.

Liberty / Freedom - Supporting liberty and/or freedom within a democratic context would qualify as DSP. Example of qualifying expression: “... maintaining a free society” or “... ensuring the liberty of all citizens.” Reference to preserving any individual freedom (such as freedom of speech, the right to bear arms, intellectual freedom, religious freedom, etc.) would be a DSP statement.

Liberty / Freedom Exclusions: Non-democratic context (such as consumerism) is unacceptable: “Students have the freedom to choose courses that fit their interests.” Or

“Liberty College serves the rural population of ...” (proper name).

Democracy - Support of democratic government and political activity related to democracy. Qualifying expression: “... participation in the democratic process” or “... democratic values” or “... preparation for leadership within the political system.”

Democracy Exclusions: References made outside of social, political, or governmental context; although, no examples are apparent.

Appendix C
Sample Mission Statements

Data Collection Instrument

Carnegie Institution Number: 189565

Institution Name: Bryant and Stratton College-Syracuse North

Date of Mission Statement Collection: May 15, 2007

Source (www address or other source): http://www.bryantstratton.edu/about_bsc.aspx

Instructions: With the short list of Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purposes in mind and the training materials (Appendix B) at hand, read the mission statement and underline or otherwise highlight each phrase or passage that represents a democratic social purpose. Place a check-mark or X next to each category identified. Place an X in the box labeled NONE if democratic social purpose was not identified.

Mission Statement:

For well over a century, Bryant & Stratton's fundamental mission has been to provide individuals with skills that are immediately transferable to the workplace and to help them develop in their careers. From Dr. J. C. Bryant's Business Practice "learning lab" of the 1850's to the Active Learning of today, and from early correspondence courses conducted via mail to online education and training conducted via the Internet, Bryant & Stratton has evolved into an educational institution poised for the 21st century, committed to the same principles set forth by its founders.

While the words in the college's mission have changed over the years, the fundamentals have remained constant: Bryant & Stratton is dedicated to career education. Today's student is prepared not only for a career upon graduation, but also for a continuum of career-focused learning.

Recognized Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purposes:

- Public Good / Common Good
- Liberal Education
- Participatory Citizenship / Social Responsibility
- Social equity / Social Justice
- Liberty / Freedom
- Democracy

NONE

x

Data Collection Instrument

Carnegie Institution Number: 102076

Institution Name: Snead State Community College

Date of Mission Statement Collection: 14 May, 2007

Source (www address or other source): <http://www.snead.edu/about/mission.asp>

Instructions: With the short list of Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purposes in mind and the training materials (Appendix B) at hand, read the mission statement and underline or otherwise highlight each phrase or passage that represents a democratic social purpose. Place a check-mark or X next to each category identified. Place an X in the box labeled NONE if democratic social purpose was not identified.

Mission Statement:

Snead State Community College, one of the public two-year colleges of the Alabama College System, strives to provide accessible educational opportunities, to promote economic growth and development, and to enhance the quality of life for the College service area.

Recognized Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purposes:

- Public Good / Common Good
- Liberal Education
- Participatory Citizenship / Social Responsibility
- Social equity / Social Justice
- Liberty / Freedom
- Democracy

NONE

x

Data Collection Instrument

Carnegie Institution Number: 175786

Institution Name: Hinds Community College

Date of Mission Statement Collection: 26 May 2007

Source (www address or other source):

<http://www.hindscc.edu/About/MissionStatement.aspx>

Instructions: With the short list of Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purposes in mind and the training materials (Appendix B) at hand, read the mission statement and underline or otherwise highlight each phrase or passage that represents a democratic social purpose. Place a check-mark or X next to each category identified. Place an X in the box labeled NONE if democratic social purpose was not identified.

Mission Statement:

The mission of Hinds Community College, a public, comprehensive community college, is to offer pertinent and diverse educational programs and services for persons with various interests and abilities by:

- Providing academic (college transfer) programs that parallel the first two years of four-year college studies
- Providing occupational programs to prepare students for employment
- Providing continuing education programs for unemployed, employed, or underemployed adults who need training or retraining, or who can otherwise profit from the programs
- Providing continuing education programs that enhance the quality of life
- Providing short courses, seminars, workshops, and industrial start-up training that will meet educational, business, industrial, and service needs
- Providing high school general education and career services through a cooperative agreement with district high schools

Recognized Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purposes:

- Public Good / Common Good
- Liberal Education
- Participatory Citizenship / Social Responsibility
- Social equity / Social Justice
- Liberty / Freedom
- Democracy

NONE

x

Data Collection Instrument

Carnegie Institution Number: 126614

Institution Name: University of Colorado at Boulder

Date of Mission Statement Collection: 17 May 2007

Source (www address or other source):

<http://www.colorado.edu/chancellor/missionandroles.html>

Instructions: With the short list of Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purposes in mind and the training materials (Appendix B) at hand, read the mission statement and underline or otherwise highlight each phrase or passage that represents a democratic social purpose. Place a check-mark or X next to each category identified. Place an X in the box labeled NONE if democratic social purpose was not identified.

Mission Statement:

The Boulder campus of the university of Colorado shall be a comprehensive graduate research university with selective admissions standards. The Boulder campus of the university of Colorado shall offer a comprehensive array of undergraduate, masters, and doctoral degree programs.

Recognized Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purposes:

- Public Good / Common Good
- Liberal Education
- Participatory Citizenship / Social Responsibility
- Social equity / Social Justice
- Liberty / Freedom
- Democracy

NONE

x

Data Collection Instrument

Carnegie Institution Number: 144892

Institution Name: Eastern Illinois University

Date of Mission Statement Collection: 21 May 2007

Source (www address or other source): <http://www.eiu.edu/directives/mission.php>

Instructions: With the short list of Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purposes in mind and the training materials (Appendix B) at hand, read the mission statement and underline or otherwise highlight each phrase or passage that represents a democratic social purpose. Place a check-mark or X next to each category identified. Place an X in the box labeled NONE if democratic social purpose was not identified.

Mission Statement:

Eastern Illinois University is a public comprehensive university that offers superior, accessible undergraduate and graduate education. Students learn the methods and results of free and rigorous inquiry in the arts, humanities, sciences, and professions, guided by a faculty known for its excellence in teaching, research, creative activity, and service. The University community is committed to diversity and inclusion and fosters opportunities for student-faculty scholarship and applied learning experiences within a student-centered campus culture. Throughout their education, students refine their abilities to reason and to communicate clearly so as to become responsible citizens and leaders.

Recognized Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purposes:

- Public Good / Common Good
 Liberal Education
 Participatory Citizenship / Social Responsibility
 Social equity / Social Justice
 Liberty / Freedom
 Democracy

<p>NONE</p>

Data Collection Instrument

Carnegie Institution Number: 181853

Institution Name: York College

Date of Mission Statement Collection: May 15, 2007

Source (www address or other source): http://www.york.edu/campus_info/mission.htm

Instructions: With the short list of Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purposes in mind and the training materials (Appendix B) at hand, read the mission statement and underline or otherwise highlight each phrase or passage that represents a democratic social purpose. Place a check-mark or X next to each category identified. Place an X in the box labeled NONE if democratic social purpose was not identified.

Mission Statement:

The mission of York College is to provide a quality liberal arts education, equipping students to lead lives of purpose, leadership, and service consistent with Christian ideals.

Recognized Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purposes:

- Public Good / Common Good
- Liberal Education
- Participatory Citizenship / Social Responsibility
- Social equity / Social Justice
- Liberty / Freedom
- Democracy

<p>NONE</p>

Data Collection Instrument

Carnegie Institution Number: 141361

Institution Name: Young Harris College

Date of Mission Statement Collection: 19 May 2007

Source (www address or other source): <http://www.yhc.edu/aboutyhc.html>

Instructions: With the short list of Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purposes in mind and the training materials (Appendix B) at hand, read the mission statement and underline or otherwise highlight each phrase or passage that represents a democratic social purpose. Place a check-mark or X next to each category identified. Place an X in the box labeled NONE if democratic social purpose was not identified.

Mission Statement:

The purpose of Young Harris College is to provide the first two years of a baccalaureate degree in **liberal arts** for students who value and are attracted to an institution with high academic standards and superior teaching. The college offers an environment in a beautiful mountain setting conducive to the development of the Christian faith and character, opportunities for personal and intellectual growth, and **responsible citizenship**. The institution also provides, for both its students and the general public, programs, services, and facilities that accommodate diverse educational, recreational, and cultural interests.

Recognized Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purposes:

- Public Good / Common Good
 Liberal Education
 Participatory Citizenship / Social Responsibility
 Social equity / Social Justice
 Liberty / Freedom
 Democracy

<p>NONE</p>

Data Collection Instrument

Carnegie Institution Number: 117724

Institution Name: Los Angeles Trade Technical College

Date of Mission Statement Collection: 16 May 2007

Source (www address or other source): <http://www.lattc.edu/lattc/mission.htm>

Instructions: With the short list of Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purposes in mind and the training materials (Appendix B) at hand, read the mission statement and underline or otherwise highlight each phrase or passage that represents a democratic social purpose. Place a check-mark or X next to each category identified. Place an X in the box labeled NONE if democratic social purpose was not identified.

Mission Statement:

Los Angeles Trade-Technical College is a comprehensive, public community college offering learner centered associate degree and certificate programs to students who reflect the global diversity of the Los Angeles region. The college offers a unique education that fosters creativity, critical thinking, and applied learning experiences.

Our programs are rigorous, technologically current, and designed to promote student success in:

- Vocational/technical education
- Career and workforce advancement
- University transfer
- Life long learning, and
- Participation in our democratic society

The college partners with all sectors of the community to ensure that our programs are relevant, provide service-learning opportunities, and develop leadership that strengthens urban communities.

Recognized Jeffersonian Democratic Social Purposes:

- Public Good / Common Good
 Liberal Education
 Participatory Citizenship / Social Responsibility
 Social equity / Social Justice
 Liberty / Freedom
 Democracy

<p>NONE</p>

Appendix D

Random Sample and Data

#	Name	Focus	Enroll	Cont.	Locale	Accred.	Words	DSP
1	Alabama A & M University James H Faulkner State Community	4	6323	1	2	2	217	1
2	College	1	3233	1	2	2	105	1
3	J F Ingram State Technical College	1	634	1	2	1	82	0
4	University of West Alabama Lurleen B Wallace Community	4	2670	1	3	2	392	1
5	College	1	1466	1	3	2	104	1
6	Snead State Community College	1	1938	1	3	2	40	0
7	Stillman College	4	1116	2	2	2	230	1
8	Talladega College	2	362	2	3	2	229	1
9	Everest College	1	650	3	1	2	19	0
10	Collins College	1	2065	3	2	1	37	0
11	International Institute of the Americas	1	438	2	1	1	40	0
12	Cochise College	1	4270	1	3	2	64	1
13	High-Tech Institute-Phoenix	1	1435	3	1	1	40	0
14	Gateway Community College	1	7583	1	1	2	26	0
15	Mesa Community College	1	27332	1	1	1	57	1
16	Diné ollege	1	1935	1	3	2	92	1
17	University of Arkansas Main Campus	4	17269	1	2	2	416	0
18	University of Arkansas at Monticello	4	2942	1	3	2	152	0
19	Black River Technical College Cossatot Community College of the	1	1667	1	3	2	42	0
20	Univ of Arkansas	1	1056	1	3	2	75	1
21	Pulaski Technical College	1	7222	1	2	2	62	0
22	American River College	1	30055	1	1	2	180	0
23	Biola University California State University-	3	5362	2	1	2	222	0
24	Bakersfield	2	7755	1	2	2	71	0
25	California State University-Chico	3	15734	1	2	2	71	1
26	California Culinary Academy	1	2748	3	1	1	23	0
27	College of the Canyons	1	13953	1	1	2	50	0
28	Cerritos College	1	22155	1	1	2	14	0
29	Chabot College	1	14041	1	1	2	95	1
30	Chapman University	3	5554	2	1	2	24	0
31	Cuyamaca College	1	7658	1	1	2	73	0
32	De Anza College	1	22792	1	1	2	38	0
33	Fullerton College	1	19774	1	1	2	7	0
34	Hartnell College	1	9368	1	2	2	60	1
35	Humboldt State University	2	7550	1	3	2	125	1
36	Imperial Valley College	1	8064	1	3	2	43	0
37	University of La Verne	4	8140	2	1	2	274	0
38	Lake Tahoe Community College	1	3574	1	1	2	23	0
39	Laney College	1	11591	1	1	2	57	0
40	Long Beach City College	1	23177	1	1	2	90	1
41	Los Angeles Trade Technical College	1	12824	1	1	2	106	1
42	Miracosta College	1	9826	1	1	2	234	0
43	Napa Valley College	1	7367	1	2	2	74	1
44	Palomar College	1	25040	1	1	2	34	0

#	Name	Focus	Enroll	Cont.	Locale	Accred.	Words	DSP
45	Rio Hondo College	1	16748	1	1	2	24	0
46	University of San Diego	2	7599	2	1	2	36	0
47	San Joaquin Delta College	1	17011	1	2	2	165	1
48	Shasta College	1	8130	1	2	2	12	0
49	Thomas Aquinas College	2	331	2	1	2	60	1
50	Yuba College	1	9063	1	2	2	119	0
51	Arapahoe Community College	1	7560	1	1	2	36	0
52	University of Colorado at Colorado Springs	2	9039	1	1	2	49	0
53	University of Colorado at Boulder	2	32362	1	2	2	39	0
54	College America-Denver	1	552	3	1	1	40	0
55	Westwood College-Denver North	1	3379	3	1	1	71	0
56	Morgan Community College	1	1618	1	3	2	14	0
57	Naropa University	2	1232	2	2	2	210	1
58	Otero Junior College	1	1676	1	3	2	63	0
59	Pueblo Community College	1	5592	1	2	2	33	0
60	Colorado State University-Pueblo	2	5741	1	2	2	141	1
61	University of New Haven	4	4173	2	1	2	103	0
62	St. Vincent's College	1	407	2	2	2	186	0
63	Western Connecticut State University	4	5884	1	2	2	135	1
64	Wesley College	4	2037	2	2	2	111	1
65	George Washington University	2	24092	2	1	2	238	1
66	Lynn University	4	2510	2	2	2	57	0
67	Embry Riddle Aeronautical University-Daytona Beach Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University	4	4788	2	2	2	370	1
68	University	4	13067	1	2	2	175	1
69	Florida State University	3	38431	1	2	2	501	0
70	Florida Metropolitan University	1	1594	3	2	1	51	0
71	Gulf Coast Community College	1	6737	1	2	2	181	1
72	Hillsborough Community College	1	22123	1	1	2	25	0
73	Lake-Sumter Community College	1	3576	1	3	2	47	0
74	Miami Dade College	1	57026	1	1	2	33	0
75	Nova Southeastern University Palm Beach Atlantic University-West Palm Beach	4	25430	2	2	2	96	0
76	Palm Beach	3	3066	2	2	2	74	0
77	Palm Beach Community College	1	22554	1	2	2	51	0
78	Santa Fe Community College	1	13888	1	2	2	12	0
79	University of Tampa, The	3	4888	2	1	2	274	1
80	Valencia Community College	1	29556	1	2	2	103	0
81	Clark Atlanta University	3	4588	2	1	2	153	1
82	Bainbridge College	1	2617	1	3	2	744	1
83	Brewton-Parker College	4	1111	2	3	2	121	1
84	Covenant College	4	1299	2	2	2	504	1
85	Georgia Southwestern State University	4	2323	1	3	2	97	1
86	Lanier Technical College	1	3019	1	3	1	71	0
87	Oglethorpe University	2	1053	2	1	2	107	1
88	Toccoa Falls College	4	829	2	3	2	30	0
89	Valdosta State University	3	10400	1	3	2	725	0
90	Young Harris College	1	605	2	3	2	90	1

#	Name	Focus	Enroll	Cont.	Locale	Accred.	Words	DSP
91	Albertson College of Idaho	2	807	2	2	2	167	1
92	College of Office Technology, The	1	551	3	1	1	79	0
93	Bradley University	4	6069	2	2	2	236	1
94	Danville Area Community College	1	2559	1	3	2	34	0
95	College of Dupage	1	29854	1	1	2	51	0
96	Eastern Illinois University	3	11651	1	3	2	94	1
97	Highland Community College	1	2500	1	3	2	104	1
98	Benedictine University	3	3232	2	1	2	60	1
99	John A Logan College	1	7281	1	3	2	24	0
100	Millikin University	3	2676	2	2	2	81	1
101	National-Louis University	4	7433	2	2	2	22	0
102	Northern Illinois University	3	24820	1	2	2	255	1
103	Olivet Nazarene University	4	4364	2	1	2	8	0
104	Saint Xavier University	4	5722	2	1	2	44	1
105	Wheaton College	2	2898	2	1	2	24	1
106	Ancilla College	1	631	2	3	2	54	1
107	Butler University	3	4415	2	1	2	40	0
108	Ivy Tech State College-Whitewater	1	1605	1	3	2	49	1
109	Ivy Tech State College-Southeast	1	1711	1	3	2	48	1
110	Indiana University-Purdue University- Fort Wayne	4	11810	1	2	2	73	0
111	Indiana Business College-Indianapolis	1	828	3	1	1	29	0
112	University of Indianapolis	3	4199	2	1	2	103	1
113	Indiana University-Kokomo	4	2903	1	2	2	81	0
114	Des Moines Area Community College	1	15256	1	2	2	5	0
115	Grinnell College	2	1556	2	3	2	179	1
116	Hamilton College-Main Campus	1	669	3	2	2	344	1
117	University of Iowa	3	28442	1	2	2	62	0
118	North Iowa Area Community College	1	3004	1	3	2	32	0
119	Southwestern Community College Kansas City Kansas Community College	1	1254	1	3	2	31	0
120	Bellarmine University	3	2888	2	1	2	168	1
122	Eastern Kentucky University	4	16183	1	2	2	16	0
123	Bossier Parish Community College	1	4429	1	2	2	71	0
124	Grambling State University	3	5039	1	3	2	316	1
125	Our Lady of Holy Cross College	4	1446	2	1	2	84	0
126	Remington College-Lafayette Campus	1	406	3	2	1	164	0
127	University of Louisiana at Lafayette Louisiana Technical College-Tallulah Campus	4	16561	1	2	2	190	1
128	University of Louisiana at Lafayette Campus	1	374	1	3	1	156	0
129	University of Maine at Augusta	1	5538	1	3	2	48	1
130	University of Maine at Fort Kent	4	1076	1	3	2	190	1
131	Southern Maine Community College	1	4103	1	2	2	30	0
132	Bowie State University	3	5415	1	1	2	49	0
133	Goucher College	2	2349	2	1	2	240	1
134	Johns Hopkins University Tesst College of Technology-	2	18626	2	1	2	35	0
135	Baltimore	1	1033	3	1	1	45	0
136	Bentley College	4	5582	2	2	2	164	1

#	Name	Focus	Enroll	Cont.	Locale	Accred.	Words	DSP
137	Boston University	3	29596	2	1	2	531	1
138	Emerson College	4	4398	2	1	2	131	1
139	Fitchburg State College	3	5201	1	2	2	181	1
140	Hampshire College	2	1352	2	2	2	173	1
141	University of Massachusetts-Lowell Massachusetts Bay Community	3	11089	1	2	2	43	0
142	College	1	5132	1	1	2	63	0
143	Middlesex Community College	1	8122	1	1	2	119	1
144	North Shore Community College	1	6690	1	1	2	90	0
145	Mott Community College	1	10328	1	2	2	52	0
146	Delta College	1	10459	1	2	2	26	0
147	Macomb Community College	1	20471	1	1	2	33	0
148	St. Clair County Community College Hibbing Community College-A	1	4193	1	2	2	58	0
149	Technical and Community Coll	1	2120	1	2	2	21	0
150	North Hennepin Community College	1	6597	1	1	2	21	0
151	Rasmussen College-Mankato	1	383	3	3	2	60	0
152	Hinds Community College	1	9822	1	3	2	125	0
153	Millsaps College	2	1146	2	2	2	36	1
154	Mississippi College Baptist Bible College and Graduate	4	3588	2	2	2	334	0
155	School	3	705	2	2	2	10	0
156	Columbia College	4	11017	2	2	2	73	1
157	Crowder College	1	2611	1	2	2	248	1
158	Evangel University	3	1967	2	2	2	52	1
159	Hannibal-LaGrange College	4	1067	2	3	2	27	1
160	Harris-Stowe State College	3	1605	1	1	2	423	0
161	Missouri Southern State University	4	5256	1	2	2	347	1
162	University of Missouri-St. Louis	3	15498	1	1	2	69	0
163	Ranken Technical College	1	1733	2	1	2	38	0
164	Rockhurst University	3	2765	2	1	2	42	1
165	Sanford-Brown College	1	454	3	1	1	62	0
166	Three Rivers Community College	1	3273	1	3	2	19	0
167	North Central Missouri College	1	1406	1	3	2	36	0
168	Washington University in St. Louis	2	13210	2	1	2	201	0
169	Fort Peck Community College Montana Tech of the University of	1	504	1	3	2	80	0
170	Montana	4	1869	1	3	2	24	0
171	Montana State University-Northern	4	1421	1	3	2	136	1
172	Northeast Community College	1	5053	1	3	2	19	0
173	College of Saint Mary	4	994	2	1	2	71	0
174	Southeast Community College Area	1	10079	1	2	2	106	0
175	Union College Vatterott College-Spring Valley	4	936	2	2	2	22	0
176	Campus	1	379	3	1	1	18	0
177	York College	3	443	2	3	2	27	1
178	Sierra Nevada College	2	505	2	2	2	32	1
179	New Jersey City University	3	8799	1	2	2	405	0
180	Princeton University	2	6708	2	1	2	482	1
181	Rutgers University-Newark	3	10293	1	1	2	164	0
182	Thomas Edison State College	2	11000	1	2	2	268	1

#	Name	Focus	Enroll	Cont.	Locale	Accred.	Words	DSP
183	William Paterson University of New Jersey	2	11409	1	1	2	162	1
184	New Mexico State University-Dona Ana	1	6083	1	2	2	194	0
185	University of New Mexico-Los Alamos Campus	1	889	1	2	2	135	0
186	Bryant and Stratton College-Syracuse North	1	450	3	2	1	135	0
187	Cayuga County Community College	1	3896	1	2	2	73	1
188	CUNY Bronx Community College	1	8367	1	1	2	58	0
189	Helene Fuld College of Nursing	1	391	2	1	2	278	1
190	Interboro Institute	1	3875	3	1	1	90	0
191	Long Island University-Brooklyn Campus	3	8003	2	1	1	281	1
192	Medaille College	4	2526	2	1	2	75	0
193	Mercy College-Main Campus	3	10396	2	1	2	55	0
194	College of Mount Saint Vincent	3	1685	2	1	2	117	1
195	Paul Smiths College of Arts and Science	1	818	2	3	2	177	0
196	Roberts Wesleyan College	4	1920	2	2	2	25	0
197	Saint Josephs College-Main Campus	4	1336	2	1	2	153	1
198	SUNY at Binghamton	2	13860	1	2	2	34	0
199	SUNY at Buffalo	2	27276	1	1	2	154	0
200	SUNY College at Cortland	4	7350	1	3	2	330	1
201	SUNY College at Oneonta	3	5806	1	3	2	46	1
202	SUNY College at Plattsburgh	3	5909	1	3	2	84	1
203	Syracuse University	3	18247	2	2	2	11	0
204	Wagner College	3	2259	2	1	2	59	1
205	Wells College	2	390	2	3	2	97	1
206	College of Westchester, The	1	1050	3	2	2	63	0
207	Yeshiva University	2	6129	2	1	2	125	0
208	South Piedmont Community College	1	1940	1	3	2	163	0
209	Barton College	4	1231	2	3	2	36	1
210	Catawba College	3	1395	2	1	2	179	1
211	Cleveland Community College	1	2944	1	3	2	95	0
212	Greensboro College	3	1226	2	2	2	281	1
213	Johnston Community College	1	3758	1	2	2	106	0
214	Mayland Community College	1	1459	1	3	2	24	0
215	Methodist College	4	2277	2	2	2	202	1
216	Nash Community College	1	2542	1	2	2	62	1
217	North Carolina Central University	3	7727	1	2	2	207	1
218	Salem College	2	1114	2	2	2	378	1
219	Sampson Community College	1	1490	1	3	2	388	1
220	Wake Technical Community College	1	11322	1	2	2	122	1
221	Wingate University	3	1560	2	1	2	35	0
222	Aakers Business College	1	722	3	2	1	60	0
223	Minot State University-Bottineau Campus	1	602	1	3	2	137	0
224	North Dakota State University-Main Campus	4	12026	1	2	2	25	0
225	Academy of Court Reporting-Cleveland	1	483	3	1	1	82	0

#	Name	Focus	Enroll	Cont.	Locale	Accred.	Words	DSP
226	University of Akron Main Campus	4	21598	1	2	2	264	1
227	Central State University	4	1820	1	2	2	247	1
228	Cleveland State University	3	15664	1	1	2	61	1
229	Denison University	2	2211	2	1	2	355	1
230	ITT Technical Institute	1	514	3	2	1	72	0
231	Kent State University-Tuscarawas Regional Campus	1	1935	1	3	1	449	1
232	Marietta College	3	1480	2	2	2	80	1
233	Marion Technical College	1	2240	1	3	2	11	0
234	Otterbein College	3	3089	2	1	2	61	1
235	Wilberforce University	4	998	2	2	2	90	1
236	East Central University	4	4651	1	3	2	46	0
237	Eastern Oklahoma State College	1	2074	1	3	2	60	0
238	Murray State College	1	2045	1	3	2	12	0
239	Northeastern Oklahoma Agricultural and Mech Coll	1	2032	1	3	2	17	0
240	Oklahoma Christian University	3	1901	2	1	2	158	1
241	Oklahoma State University-Main Campus	4	23819	1	3	2	24	0
242	Eastern Oregon University	2	3338	1	3	2	74	0
243	Rogue Community College	1	4211	1	3	2	83	0
244	Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania	3	8304	1	2	2	369	1
245	Central Pennsylvania College	1	859	3	2	2	30	0
246	Erie Business Center	1	393	3	2	1	213	1
247	ICM School of Business and Medical Careers	1	1095	3	1	1	23	0
248	Indiana University of Pennsylvania- Main Campus	3	13998	1	3	2	315	1
249	Keystone College	4	1658	2	2	2	119	1
250	La Roche College	3	1681	2	1	2	82	1
251	Lycoming College	2	1505	2	2	2	234	1
252	College Misericordia	4	2271	2	2	2	288	1
253	Montgomery County Community College	1	8915	1	1	2	399	1
254	Pennsylvania State Univ-Penn State New Kensington	3	990	1	1	1	47	0
255	Saint Vincent College	2	1490	2	1	2	91	1
256	Slippery Rock University of Pennsylvania	4	7928	1	1	2	190	0
257	West Chester University of Pennsylvania	3	12822	1	1	2	50	0
258	Wilkes University	2	4364	2	2	2	27	0
259	York College Pennsylvania	4	5687	2	2	2	307	0
260	Providence College	3	5331	2	2	2	142	1
261	Community College of Rhode Island	1	16293	1	2	2	125	0
262	Benedict College	4	2769	2	2	2	189	1
263	Lander University	3	2918	1	3	2	466	1
264	Trident Technical College	1	11795	1	2	2	234	0
265	Mount Marty College	4	1163	2	3	2	29	1
266	Sinte Gleska University	1	1400	2	3	2	111	0
267	Western Dakota Technical Institute	1	893	1	2	2	23	0
268	Aquinas College	1	900	2	1	2	271	1

#	Name	Focus	Enroll	Cont.	Locale	Accred.	Words	DSP
269	Christian Brothers University	4	1907	2	1	2	41	0
270	Fisk University	2	842	2	1	2	326	1
271	Free Will Baptist Bible College	4	358	2	1	2	105	0
272	Jackson State Community College	1	3963	1	2	2	43	0
273	King College	3	812	2	2	2	29	0
274	Motlow State Community College	1	3540	1	3	2	394	1
275	Pellissippi State Technical Community College	1	7562	1	2	2	76	0
276	Trevecca Nazarene University	4	2089	2	1	2	13	0
277	Vanderbilt University	2	11294	2	1	2	79	1
278	Angelina College	1	4940	1	3	2	377	0
279	Blinn College	1	13999	1	3	2	99	1
280	Brazosport College	1	3389	1	1	2	53	0
281	Central Texas College	1	18351	1	2	2	22	0
282	University of Houston-Clear Lake	3	7785	1	1	2	297	1
283	University of Houston-Downtown	3	11408	1	1	2	244	1
284	University of Houston-University Park	4	35180	1	1	2	125	0
285	Howard Payne University	3	1319	2	3	2	136	0
286	Kilgore College	1	4952	1	2	2	22	0
287	Lamar State College-Orange	1	2047	1	2	2	98	0
288	University of Mary Hardin-Baylor North Harris Montgomery Community College District	3	2694	2	2	2	37	0
289	College District	1	35788	1	1	2	150	0
290	Saint Edward's University Southwestern Assemblies of God University	3	4651	2	1	2	339	1
291	University	4	1702	2	1	2	125	0
292	Stephen F Austin State University	3	11374	1	3	2	331	0
293	University of Texas at Arlington, The	4	25297	1	1	2	365	1
294	West Texas A & M University	3	7299	1	2	2	180	1
295	Southern Utah University	3	6672	1	3	2	56	0
296	Hollins University	2	1056	2	2	2	159	1
297	Lynchburg College	3	2248	2	2	2	201	1
298	Rappahannock Community College	1	2691	1	1	2	29	1
299	Shenandoah University	3	3000	2	3	2	68	1
300	Southern Virginia University	3	581	2	3	1	121	1
301	Virginia Military Institute	2	1362	1	3	2	92	1
302	Washington and Lee University	2	2174	2	3	2	1237	1
303	Big Bend Community College	1	1919	1	3	2	81	0
304	Pacific Lutheran University	3	3643	2	2	2	25	0
305	Bethany College	2	858	2	3	2	36	0
306	Fairmont State University	4	4071	1	3	2	30	1
307	Northcentral Technical College	1	3634	1	2	2	25	0
308	Ripon College	2	929	2	3	2	264	1
309	University of Wisconsin-Whitewater	4	10938	1	3	2	233	0
310	Eastern Wyoming College	1	1418	1	3	2	111	0
311	Georgia Perimeter College	1	20316	1	1	2	675	1
312	Warren County Community College	1	1332	1	1	2	23	0
313	Beckfield College	1	473	3	1	1	42	0
314	Sussex County Community College	1	3153	1	1	2	48	0
315	Thompson Institute	1	417	3	2	1	23	0

#	Name	Focus	Enroll	Cont.	Locale	Accred.	Words	DSP
	Southern Union State Community							
316	College	1	4560	1	3	2	481	1
317	St. Charles Community College	1	6772	1	1	2	21	0
318	San Joaquin Valley College	1	745	3	1	2	27	0
319	ITT Technical Institute	1	885	3	1	1	72	1
320	Pennsylvania Culinary Institute	1	1191	3	1	1	28	0
	University of Phoenix-San Diego							
321	Campus	4	4761	3	1	2	260	0
322	Remington College	1	657	3	1	1	15	0
323	Kings College	1	516	3	1	1	148	0
	Eastern New Mexico University-							
324	Ruidoso	1	674	1	3	2	210	1
325	International Institute of the Americas	1	389	2	1	1	81	0
	University of Phoenix-Southern							
326	California Campus	4	15913	3	1	2	260	0
	Minnesota School of Business-							
327	Brooklyn Center	1	724	3	1	1	30	0
328	Michiana College	1	600	3	2	1	158	0
329	Florida National College	1	1739	3	1	2	144	0
330	Colorado Technical University	1	425	3	1	1	52	0
331	ITT Technical Institute	1	455	3	2	1	72	1
332	University of Phoenix-Nevada	4	4125	3	1	2	260	0
333	Baker College Corporate Services	4	526	2	2	2	24	0
334	Virginia College-Huntsville	1	789	3	2	1	120	0
335	Colorado Technical University	2	586	3	1	2	52	0
336	ITT Technical Institute	1	393	3	2	1	72	1

Appendix E

Logistic Regression Statistical Output

Logistic Regression

Case Processing Summary

Unweighted Cases ^a		N	Percent
Selected Cases	Included in Analysis	336	100.0
	Missing Cases	0	.0
	Total	336	100.0
Unselected Cases		0	.0
Total		336	100.0

a. If weight is in effect, see classification table for the total number of cases.

Dependent Variable Encoding

Original Value	Internal Value
DSP Absent	0
DSP Present	1

Categorical Variables Codings

		Frequency	Parameter coding		
			(1)	(2)	(3)
FOCUS	Associates	164	.000	.000	.000
	Arts & Science Dominant	41	1.000	.000	.000
	Balanced	64	.000	1.000	.000
	Professional Dominant	67	.000	.000	1.000
CONTROL	Public	181	.000	.000	
	Private NonProfit	113	1.000	.000	
	Private ForProfit	42	.000	1.000	

Block 0: Beginning Block

Classification Table^{a,b}

			Predicted		
			DSP		Percentage Correct
Observed		DSP Absent	DSP Present		
Step 0 DSP	DSP Absent		195	0	100.0
	DSP Present		141	0	.0
Overall Percentage					58.0

a. Constant is included in the model.

b. The cut value is .500

Variables in the Equation

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0 Constant	-.324	.111	8.603	1	.003	.723

Variables not in the Equation

	Score	df	Sig.
Step 0 Variables			
FOCUS	41.971	3	.000
FOCUS(1)	13.292	1	.000
FOCUS(2)	11.686	1	.001
FOCUS(3)	1.826	1	.177
CONTROL	36.358	2	.000
CONTROL(1)	27.915	1	.000
CONTROL(2)	17.809	1	.000
LOCALE	4.890	1	.027
ENROLL100	3.966	1	.046
WordsLn	73.382	1	.000
Overall Statistics	109.167	8	.000

Block 1: Method = Enter

Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1 Step	129.944	8	.000
Block	129.944	8	.000
Model	129.944	8	.000

Model Summary

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	327.135 ^a	.321	.431

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 5 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Hosmer and Lemeshow Test

Step	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	6.246	8	.620

Contingency Table for Hosmer and Lemeshow Test

		DSP = DSP Absent		DSP = DSP Present		Total
		Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Step 1	1	34	32.812	0	1.188	34
	2	31	31.060	3	2.940	34
	3	28	28.523	6	5.477	34
	4	27	25.855	7	8.145	34
	5	22	22.737	12	11.263	34
	6	19	19.039	15	14.961	34
	7	12	14.823	22	19.177	34
	8	10	10.496	24	23.504	34
	9	6	6.730	28	27.270	34
	10	6	2.925	24	27.075	30

Classification Table^a

Observed	Predicted			
	DSP		Percentage Correct	
	DSP Absent	DSP Present		
Step 1 DSP	DSP Absent	162	33	83.1
	DSP Present	44	97	68.8
Overall Percentage				77.1

a. The cut value is .500

Variables in the Equation

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95.0% C.I. for EXP(B)	
							Lower	Upper
Step 1(a) FOCUS			8.131	3	.043			
FOCUS(1)	1.175	.493	5.673	1	.017	3.239	1.231	8.521
FOCUS(2)	.873	.409	4.567	1	.033	2.394	1.075	5.332
FOCUS(3)	.244	.395	.380	1	.538	1.276	.588	2.768
CONTROL			10.325	2	.006			
CONTROL(1)	.669	.385	3.020	1	.082	1.952	.918	4.151
CONTROL(2)	-1.239	.586	4.461	1	.035	.290	.092	.915

LOCALE	.328	.201	2.669	1	.102	1.389	.937	2.060
ENROLL100	-.005	.002	4.020	1	.045	.995	.991	1.000
WordsLn	1.210	.171	49.934	1	.000	3.354	2.398	4.691
Constant	-6.590	.957	47.461	1	.000	.001		

a Variable(s) entered on step 1: FOCUS, CONTROL, LOCALE, ENROLL100, WordsLn.

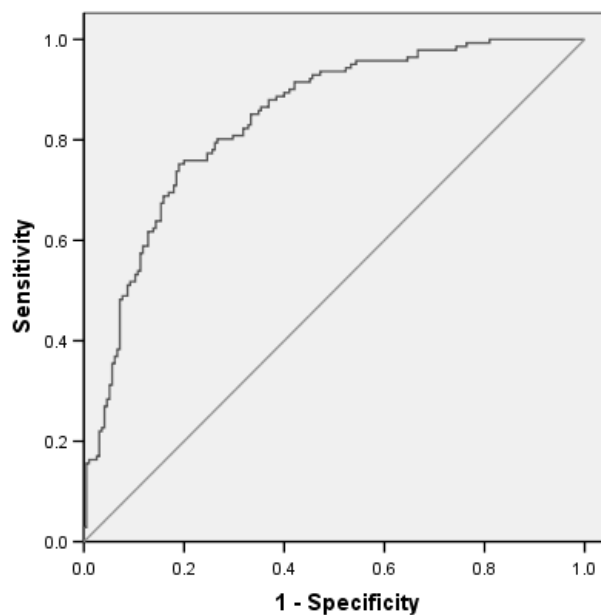
ROC Curve

Case Processing Summary

DSP	Valid N (listwise)
Positive(a)	141
Negative	195

Larger values of the test result variable(s) indicate stronger evidence for a positive actual state.
a The positive actual state is DSP Present.

ROC Curve



Area Under the Curve

Test Result Variable(s): Predicted probability

Area	Std.	Asymptotic	Asymptotic 95% Confidence

	Error(a)	Sig.(b)	Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.840	.021	.000	.798	.882

a Under the nonparametric assumption

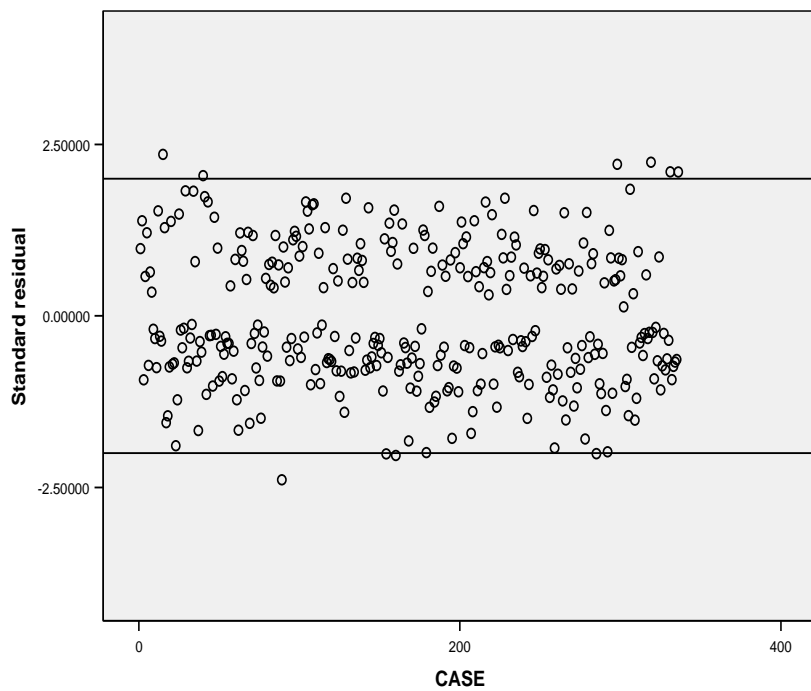
b Null hypothesis: true area = 0.5

Casewise List(b)

Case	Selected Status(a)	Observed	Predicted	Predicted Group	Temporary Variable	
		DSP			Resid	ZResid
15	S	1**	.066	0	.934	3.770
40	S	1**	.129	0	.871	2.594
89	S	0**	.940	1	-.940	-3.954
154	S	0**	.863	1	-.863	-2.513
160	S	0**	.865	1	-.865	-2.527
285	S	0**	.861	1	-.861	-2.485
298	S	1**	.090	0	.910	3.179
319	S	1**	.086	0	.914	3.264
331	S	1**	.117	0	.883	2.742
336	S	1**	.118	0	.882	2.738

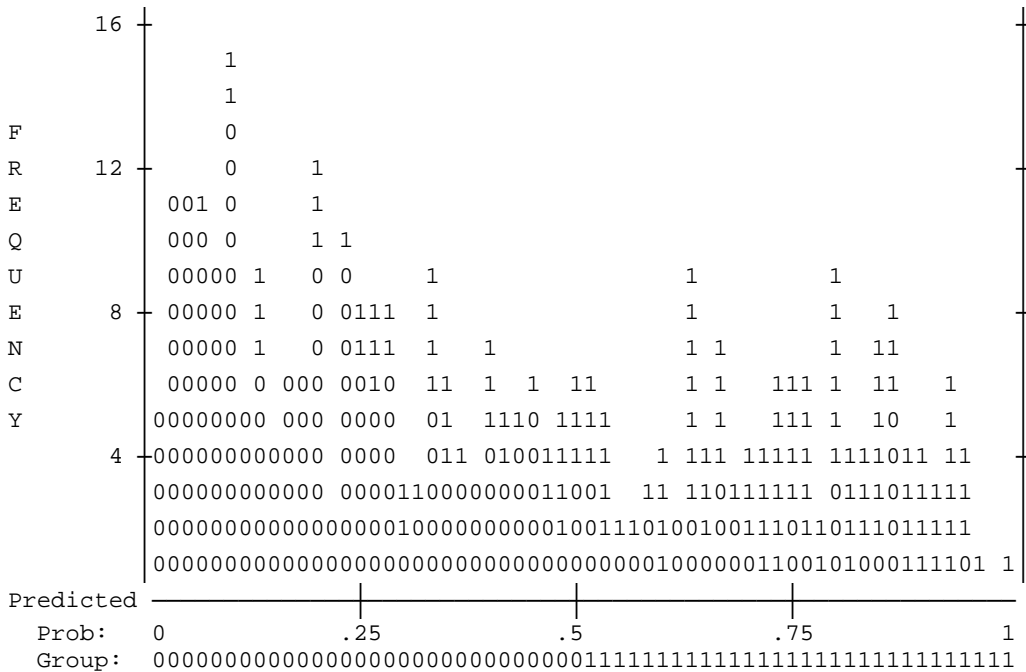
a S = Selected, U = Unselected cases, and ** = Misclassified cases.

b Cases with studentized residuals greater than 2.000 are listed.



Step number: 1

Observed Groups and Predicted Probabilities



Predicted Probability is of Membership for DSP Present
 The Cut Value is .50
 Symbols: 0 - DSP Absent
 1 - DSP Present
 Each Symbol Represents 1 Case.

CURRICULUM VITAE

LON YOUNGBERG

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SUMMARY

Lon worked in aerospace and oil-field equipment manufacturing for 12 years and continues to consult for industry. He has taught welding technology courses at the College of Eastern Utah since 1999.

EDUCATION

B.S. Industrial Technology (welding emphasis), Utah State University, 1986
M.S. Industry & Technology, Texas A&M University – Commerce, 1992
MBA Candidate, University of Dallas, Graduate School of Management (att. 1997/8)
Ed.D. Education, Utah State University, 2008

PROFESSIONAL AFFILIATIONS

American Welding Society
SkillsUSA

CERTIFICATIONS

Certified Welding Inspector (CWI), American Welding Society
Certified Welding Educator (CWE), American Welding Society

PUBLICATION/PRESENTATION

Development of a Corrosion-Resistant-Alloy Wireline Valve, *World Expo*, 1995
Balancing Welding Education with General Education, AWS National Conf. 2005

PATENTS

Filtration Screen Weld-Joint Test Apparatus & Methods, U.S. Patent: 5,597,959
Sand Control Screen Having a Sacrificial Anode, U.S. Patent: 6,092,604

AWARDS

MVP award at a manufacturer listed in America's 10 Best Plants, *Industry Week*, 1997
Outstanding Student Support, College of Eastern Utah, 2001
Section Educator Award, American Welding Society, 2003