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INDICATORS OF COMMUNITY-LAND GRANT UNIVERSITY
READINESS FOR ENGAGEMENT FROM
THE COMMUNITY PERSPECTIVE

by

Cheryl LeMay Lloyd

A dissertation submitted to the graduate faculty
in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department: Leadership Studies
Major: Leadership Studies
Major Professor: Dr. Forrest Toms

North Carolina A&T State University
Greensboro, NC
2010

ABSTRACT

LeMay Lloyd, Cheryl. INDICATORS OF COMMUNITY-LAND GRANT UNIVERSITY READINESS FOR ENGAGEMENT FROM THE COMMUNITY PERSPECTIVE. (**Major Advisor: Forrest Toms**), North Carolina Agricultural and Technical State University.

This research examines community partner perceptions regarding levels of readiness for engagement in partnerships with universities. Since its inception the American land grant university has been a cornerstone in preparation of people for the role of university partner and engaged citizen. Theories of collaborative and integrative leadership suggests that readiness for engagement on the part of the community partner is important to the success of sustainable partnerships with universities, and for civic engagement in the twenty-first century. This study seeks to understand the community partners' perspective by exploring common indicators of community readiness for engagement with universities, and community leader's perception of partner roles in such relationships.

Built on a theoretical framework suggesting that collaborative leadership requires direction, alignment and commitment; this research attempts to explore two questions regarding community partners: Do community organization leaders believe they are prepared to be engaged partners with large land grant universities and their communities? What do community organization leaders expect from the university as an engaged partner? To answer these questions, a sequential mixed method design is employed that includes semi-structured interviews of leaders and the development of a quantitative

survey administered to community organizational leaders who participated in partnerships with two land grant universities. These methodologies explore the existence of correlations between indicators of social capital, trust, collective efficacy, leadership energy, perceptions of university readiness by community leaders, and organizational readiness for engagement.

Qualitative findings revealed community leader valued trusting relationships; opportunities to grown learn and acquire technical expertise and the development of collective efficacy in the relationships with university partners. Leaders perceive emerging concepts of spiritual capital and learning in public denote authentic engagement. Likert scales, reliable at assessing organizational readiness for engagement and individual levels of social capital were developed. These findings inform the research on community perspectives on sustainable civic engagement and practice oriented theory.

School of Graduate Studies
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This is to certify that the Doctoral Dissertation of

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Greensboro, North Carolina
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2010

DEDICATION

Yea, if thou criest after knowledge, and liftest up thy voice for understanding;

Then shalt thou understand the fear of the Lord,

and find the knowledge of God. (Proverbs 2: 3,5)

It is with humility and honor, that this dissertation is dedicated to the acceptance and passing on of Roots and Wings. To my parents Elvery and Sarah Peace Lemay, and my grandparents, Grant and Luvenia Grey Peace, Moses LeMay, Annie Grey Chavis, and John Turner. I am humbled by their wisdom. Their sacrifice, struggle, strength, and most of all vision served as the foundation for my development, and their encouragement allowed me to soar beyond my dreams. To my children, Kelly Denise Lloyd, Kevin Ricardo Lloyd, Jr. and Ashley Crews Lloyd, I am honored by your presence in my life. May this work and my life provide foundation for your development and the encouragement needed for you to also soar beyond your dreams? *Pay it forward!*

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Cheryl LeMay Lloyd's professional life included thirty years in a variety of roles within the North Carolina Cooperative Extension Service. She is a former Director of the Durham County Cooperative Extension Center and Emeritus State Leader, Urban Programs at North Carolina State University. Lloyd received the Bachelors of Science in Home Economics Education from North Carolina A&T State University in 1979, and the Masters of Science from North Carolina Central University in 1990. She is a candidate for the Ph.D. in Leadership Studies.

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I owe a debt of gratitude to Dr. Forrest Toms, who served as my committee chair. Dr. Toms' vision, wisdom, and determination provided the courage and direction needed for the creation of "*my own reality*." Thank you, Dr. Toms, for being a leader among leaders. A heartfelt thank you is given to the members of my committee for their unyielding support; Dr. Elizabeth Barber, Dr. Thomas Smith, and Dr. James J. Zuiches. I am indebted to those whom I value as my external committee, Dr. Calvin Ellison, Dr. Alexander Erwin, and Mr. Michael Palmer, without whom this dissertation would not have taken shape. And finally to my partners in the journey, Harriett, Jan, Monica, Landon, and Paul—*our lives have been changed*.

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CHAPTER 1

Community-University Readiness for Engagement

Land-Grant universities in the twenty-first century are challenged to transform themselves and lead in a society that must respond locally and globally to diversity, dynamic economic changes, and emerging technologies. Leadership for the participatory democracy that these universities were developed to foster is the ultimate responsibility of a diverse citizenry. The changing environment reflects a need for both universities and citizens to consider models of integrative leadership that foster dynamic, interdisciplinary partnership that draw upon the resources of campuses and communities in reciprocal roles. Universities have described this as community-university engagement (Bonnen, 1998).

Statement of the Problem

Since its inception, the land grant university has served as a cornerstone in the preparation of Americans for their roles as citizens. State and federally funded Land-Grant universities have a long history of engaging and responding to the needs of rural, homogeneous community networks within local agrarian economies. The seminal literature recounts the need for 21st century institutions of higher education to emulate and expand on the land grant model producing engaged scholarship of discovery, learning, and outreach (Boyer, 1990; Mattson, 1996; NASULGC, 2000). Echoed in the

research that followed, is an urgency in responding to the needs of an increasingly urban nation (Maurrasse, 2002; Mayfield, Hellwig, & Banks, 1999; Pasque, Smerek, Dwyer, Bowman, & Mallory, 2005; University of North Carolina General Administration, 2007). The third National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges (NASULGC), now the Association of Public and Land Grant Universities (APLU) report *Returning to our Roots* states, “It need hardly be said that we need a new emphasis on urban revitalization and community renewal comparable in its own way to our rural development efforts in the last century” (1999, p. 33).

Growing diversity, changing socioeconomic systems, and the proliferation of technological demands in urban and rural environments have contributed to the disintegration of community networks (Putnam, 2000). The resulting civic apathy suggests not only deteriorating civic life, but the inevitable disparities in economic, social and health outcomes that follow. Higher education has been criticized for its lack of responsiveness to real world issues and challenged to engage with communities rather than prescribe and deliver treatment to them (Boyer, 1990; Mayfield et al., 1999; NASULGC, 2000). Land grants in particular have been chastised for their focus on research to the detriment of teaching and outreach, and many have voiced the concern that these universities have been disassociated with the civic missions on which they were founded (Bonnen, 1998; Bringle & Hatcher, 2002; Checkoway, 2001; Kezar, Chambers, & Burkhardt, 2005; Lerner & Simon, 1998). It would be reasonable for community leadership to also accept some responsibility for responding in this dynamic environment.

Once an American republic protective of its civic rights and responsibilities, now the research suggests the twenty-first century United States population has become complacent with declining participation in community organizations and the democratic process (Putnam, Feldstein, & Cohen, 2004). People who develop networks, fellowship, trust, sympathy and social intercourse have become less common in the society most noted for such. Research, experiential learning and indigenous wisdom reinforces the conclusion that building a civically engaged nation influences multiple community factors including the community's social infrastructure, leadership, educational system, volunteer networks, civic participation, economy, and even health and human services. Scholars report that the decline in the social capacities needed to maintain and expand communities requires the restoration of civic engagement (Checkoway, 2001; Putnam et al., 2004).

Collaborative efforts between community and university have been cited nationally and internationally as the model for engaging and fostering these important characteristics of a participatory democracy. The researcher suggests that such a challenge requires integrative leadership focused on direction, alignment and commitment (DAC) rather than prescribed leader-follower roles that are the foundation of earlier leadership theory (Drath et al., 2008). Community and civic engagement is dependent upon skills in communication, negotiation, facilitation, networking, cultural competence, and some degree of technical expertise from all partners (Roussos & Fawcett, 2000).

Although there is substantial research focused on the factors influencing sustainable community-university partnerships from the university perspective, there is little known from the perspective of the community leader (Aronson & Webster, 2007; Baum, 2000; Bringle & Hatcher, 2002; Cox, 2000; Holland, 1997). These reciprocal relationships between university and community often require small community organizations to be prepared for partnering with traditionally large research institutions of higher education. The perceived imbalance of power and resource often challenge both organizations in practicing the leadership needed for sustainable engagement. Scholars suggest models of integrative leadership result in more engaged approaches that are significant, contextual, reflect scholarly content, and result in internal and external impacts on individuals and organizations (Drath et al., 2008).

This research begins the exploration of how the land grant university, founded as the conduit for a participatory democracy, and communities, can partner to effectively prepare individuals for civic engagement. It examines the implications of integrative leadership theory, focused on direction, alignment and commitment, on community-university engagement and provides insight into what it takes to build successful community university partnerships.

University and community requirements for effective partnerships have been studied. The literature is extensive, diverse and dynamic in review of the critical components for fostering a new and authentically engaged land-grant institution that is responsive to the needs of a disengaged citizenry (Alperovitz & Howard, 2005; Aronson & Webster, 2007; Bonnen, 1998; Maurrasse, 2002; NASULGC, 1999; Spanier, 1999). A

number of indicators of engagement, most prominent being the Carnegie Foundation criteria, Campus Compact guidance and the Community Campus Partnership for Health recommendations offer guidance for further study. A limited amount of research is focused on indicators of readiness for engagement even though this variable represents the portal for developing successful partnerships (Driscoll, 2008; Ferman, 2004; Foster-Fishman, Cantillon, Pierce, & Van Egeren, 2007; Holland, Green, Greene-Moton, & Stanton, 2003). Ferman (2004) and McNall, Reed, Brown, and Allen (2009) offer models and perspectives on indicators from higher education scholars. The Amherst Wilder Foundation's work identified indicators of readiness for community building (Mattessich, Monsey, & Corinna, 1997). The social science community based research of Lott and Chazdon (2008) and Onyx and Bullen (2000) suggested prominent indicators, and offered models for assessing readiness for community building and engagement. Although the disciplines of leadership, the social sciences, and higher education all contribute to the body of knowledge on readiness, an integrated approach that coalesces the knowledge of the three disciplines towards addressing readiness for engagement does not exist.

This research integrated and built on the work of Lott and Chazdon (2008); Onyx and Bullen (2000); Toms, Glover, Erwin, and Ellison (2008); and Drath et al. (2008). It utilized a sequential mixed method design to explore, from the community perspective, indicators of readiness for engagement between communities and universities.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to first explore the indigenous expertise generated from past community-university partnerships as pertains to the preparedness of the university and the community for the partnerships. The face to face interviews generated themes and validated prior research. The study then refined and assessed reliability of instruments used to survey community leaders concerning the implications of leadership, social capital, and community leader demographics on perceptions of readiness for civic engagement.

Research Questions

There are three fundamental questions addressed in this study of readiness for community-university engagement. First, what do community leaders and organizations perceive as indicators of readiness for an engaged partnership with a land grant university? Secondly, what do community leaders and organizations expect from the land grant university partners in the relationship? Finally, the research explored and developed reliability for instruments designed to assess indicators of organizational readiness for engagement and the predictors of individual social capital in organizational members

Recent studies concluded that indicators of engagement include mission compatibility, equitable treatment, mutual commitment, clarity of expectations and roles, effectiveness of communication, usefulness of service-learning, social networking and capital access, energetic leadership, relevance of research, sustainability, and mutually

beneficial exchanges (Creighton, 2006; Lott & Chazdon, 2008). This research examined to what extent, if any, selected factors surface among the expected prerequisites of North Carolina community leaders who partnered with land-grant universities.

Definition of Terms

Pursuing this study required consensus on the meaning and context of terms central to the development of the research. The culture, language and often the goals of universities and community organizations and their leaders are different. Creating common meaning was critical to effective inquiry and facilitated community based participatory research foundations of practice.

“Community” brings both literal and figurative meanings that may differ from those involved in this study. Gusfield distinguishes between two major uses of the term. The first is geographical or a territorial form of community and the second is a relational form of community (Huxham & Vangen, 2000). Research suggests that the strongest predictors of community are identified as: community residency, satisfaction with relations, neighbors one can identify, and the ability to function competently in the area, reflecting both territorial and relational precedence (McMillian & George, 1986). Based on these predictors, this research proposed to define community broadly as both territorial and relational, reflective of one or more of the predictors identified.

“Community-university engagement,” often stated as university-community engagement, has been defined in numerous ways across higher education. For the purpose of this study and in recognition of the value placed on community engagement, it

uses the term community-university engagement. The preeminent work of the Kellogg Commission on the future of state colleges and land grant universities suggests that the term reflects institutional reflection, reciprocity, engaged learning, discovery, and partnering that is both sympathetic and productive for all involved (APLU, 1999). Community-university partnerships require students and faculty members to collaborate with community residents and stakeholders (Cox & Pearce, 2001). It is scholarship that fulfills the campus mission while simultaneously fulfilling community need, dependent upon knowledge found within and outside the walls of the university. Community university engagement is the participatory, developmental process that ameliorates the relational injustices of power and privilege and results in growth and increased capacity in all partners.

“Social capital” for this study refers to the value of social networks available to leaders, in various communities of place and communities of interest. This includes the trust and reciprocity that result from such networks (John F. Kennedy School of Government, 2002). Social capital reflects the factors that enable participants to act together more effectively for the benefit of the group, resulting in trust, community participation and agency (Onyx & Bullen, 2000).

“Organizational readiness” is understood as individual and group capacity to define a mission, practice effective communication, implement leadership tasks, build and maintain a social network, and access resources. It is the extent to which communities are prepared to engage in strategic planning and networking to improve their community outcomes (Goodman et al., 1998). Although public health defined the

term in its broadest sense including both individual and organizational attitudes, beliefs and physical and fiscal capacities, a selected group of sociologists more recently suggest that readiness is a separate and distinct construct from physical capacities (Edwards, Jumper-Thurman, Plested, Oetting, & Swanson, 2000, Foster-Fishman et al., 2007). The researchers defined readiness as an attitudinal construct separate and independent of physical and fiscal capacity, but inclusive of the capacity to change.

“Partnership” as defined by the Community Campus Partnership for Health (CCPH) (2006) reflects a commitment to agreed upon mission, values, goals and measurable outcomes by two or more entities.

Significance of the Study

The findings from this study provide new perspectives for community leaders and their university partners by identifying and examining indicators of readiness believed to be central in preparing organizations for sustainable community-university partnerships and civic engagement. It offers a reflective approach for community leaders who have partnered with large land grant institutions to consider the benefits and constraints of accessibility to a university. The study has the potential to benefit the economic, social and physical well being of North Carolina communities by enhancing the capacity to effectively engage with land grant universities and other civic networks of leaders. As a result of integrating the knowledge of multiple disciplines, it fills the gap in the literature concerning readiness for leadership in community-university partnerships focused on enhancing civic engagement.

Delimitations

This study of readiness for civic engagement confined itself to the perspectives of community partners with land grant universities in North Carolina. A purposeful sample included only organizations that have partnered within the time period of 2006-2009.

The variables identified for examination were: trust, neighborhood connectivity, family and friend connectivity, value of life, participation in local community, social agency, community readiness, and university readiness, along with subject's age, physical location, race or ethnicity, position in organization, and educational level.

Limitations

The purposeful sample selected for this study reduces the capacity to generalize the findings to all community-university partnerships or all land grant universities. It further limits the ability to generalize the findings to all institutions of higher education engaged with communities in North Carolina. The time and resource limitations on this study resulted in the completion phase 1 and phase 2, thus limiting a more extensive examination of readiness. Correlations existing between variables in the study will require validation by future researchers.

Study Structure

This research is grounded in the work of Drath et al. (2008) towards an integrative theory of leadership. Their model for twenty-first century organizations describes how

people working collectively produce direction, alignment and commitment (DAC) (Drath et al., 2008). This offered an alternative view to earlier leadership ontology built on the Warren Bennis framework (Drath et al., 2008). Bennis suggests that leadership theories are formed on three critical, but simple components: leaders, followers and mutual goals. These theories with varying nuances, ask, who are the leaders and how do they interact with followers in attaining goals (Drath et al., 2008)? Although a critical and important model contributing to the body of knowledge about leadership, DAC effectively frames the unique university and community partnership need by asking “how people share work collectively producing direction, alignment and commitment” (Drath et al., 2008, p. 11). It allows for the clarifying of roles and expectations for partners attempting to revitalize participatory democracy.

Summary

This study is motivated by the land grant university history and future, and it is the goal of this research first to describe what we know—from the civic engagement, leadership, and community university engagement literature. This study also attempts to expand on an interdisciplinary body of knowledge that reflects community functionality. The subsequent chapters will review relevant literature to build a theoretical framework for community-university engagement, provide an overview of evaluation and assessment of readiness, present a methodology for the implementation of this research project, analyze findings and provide conclusions drawn from the research. Chapter 2 consists of the literature review which is a deliberative reflection of the literature and empirical

research on factors influencing university-community engagement, civic engagement and leadership. The chapter also presents the gaps in the research, importance of the research, new knowledge and a rhetorical argument in support of this dissertation research.

Chapter 3 sets out a comprehensive methodological design that reflects the parameters of the research, including population samples, sample size and selection and research procedures. Emphasis is on the design and validation of instrumentation. The research phases, procedures, data analysis plan, and implementation timeline of the research are reviewed and discussed.

Chapter 4 provides the data and findings from the study, and Chapter 5 offers a comprehensive analysis and discussion of the research findings. This chapter also provides insight into limitations inherent in the research, implications of the findings and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

Chapter 1 introduced the research focus—community perceptions of what constitutes readiness for partnerships with universities, and defined terms. This chapter reviews the literature on civic engagement, community university engagement, leadership and readiness to build a conceptual framework for the study. It has been critical to the development of this investigation that the literature reflects a diversity of disciplinary lenses.

The Integration of Disciplines

The engagement of citizens in participatory democracy is the defining construct of this Americanized form of governance. Civic engagement is constituted by the behaviors and activities oriented towards societal decision making or choosing, resource allocation, collective community action, care, concern and the development of others (McBride, Sherraden, & Pritzker, 2006). Although civic engagement and democracy have been envisioned and conceptualized by many, it seems that the Verba, Schlozman, and Brady (1995) description of civic engagement is the most comprehensive, considering civic engagement as a means for capacity building, increasing tolerance for diversity, supporting community and collective action on common goals, and democratic practice. Such skills and characteristics denote the value of social networks as an access

to resources, and define this human resource and foundation of engagement as “social capital” (Coleman, 1988).

Social capital was first linked by Robert Putnam’s work in 1993 to civic engagement by reporting via empirical data, that norms resulting from interpersonal associations encouraged people to act collaboratively and more effectively. By 1996 Putnam’s work and the subsequent works of the Saguaro Center identified the rapidly dwindling store of civic engagement and social capital in the United States, and expanded the depth and breadth of social capital and civic engagement scholarship in the first decade of the twenty-first century. The construct of social capital as a conduit for civic engagement required the integration of perspectives from scholars in sociology, political science, community psychology, higher education, leadership, and planning for a comprehensive look at potential constructs for enhancing its presence in society.

The political science, sociology and psychology fields have engaged in extensive investigations into social capital and its influence on all facets of community wellness (Brown-Graham, 2003; Flora, 2007; Goodman et al., 1998; McMillian & George, 1986; Putnam, 2000). Sociologists offer the community capital framework as one approach to analyzing how community social networks function (Flora, Flora, & Fey, 2003). A perspective from the economic development and political science disciplines provides empirical evidence that measures of civic engagement correlate with the indicators of social capital (John F. Kennedy School of Government, 2002).

Coleman (1988), Flora (2007), Putnam (2000), and Woolcock and Narayan (2000) offer a range of perspectives recognizing the implications of social capital on civic

engagement and the socioeconomic, physical, and emotional well being of communities. Social capital constitutes a critical asset that can be called on in crisis, provide entertainment and companionship, and be leveraged for material gain (Woolcock & Narayan, 2000). Communities with stronger social networks can address poverty, address conflict and take advantage of new opportunities more effectively than those with fewer social ties. Four perspectives summarize the foundational theories of social capital. First, the communitarian view focuses on local association. The network view focuses on community ties described as bonding and bridging capital. The institutional view perspective reflects political and legal accountability. The synergistic view enhances the capacity and scale of local organizations by merging components of the other theories.

Scholars in adult and higher education offered differing perspectives on engagement. Land grant universities, founded in the nineteenth century as conduits of participatory democracy, continue to explore the efficacy of engagement with citizens for civic capacity building as a core mission. These institutions and their faculty have contributed extensively to this area of study. Other institutions of higher education have focused in the more recent decades on engagement as a result of the seminal work of the Kellogg Commission on the Future of State and Land Grant Universities (APLU, 2000). Urban universities have been at the forefront of more recent attempts to redefine engagement. Engaged scholarship has become an intensive research focus in higher education offering perspectives from a host of noted researchers that provides nomenclature for the construct—“the scholarship of engagement.”

Community-University engagement, a form of civic engagement, is often work between large institutions and small community organizations. This work presents unique challenges that require intentional planning for sustainability and effectiveness. While extensive study has been conducted on the university role and perspective on community and university engagement, much less exists from the community perspective.

Scholars in the field of leadership provide yet another lens on engagement. A rapidly changing society and the responses of both the disciplines and communities have driven scholars in leadership and organizational development to look for models that transform the ontology of leadership to ones that meet the requirements of more collaborative work through communities of place and interest (Bolman & Deal, 1997; Drath et al., 2008; Huxham & Vangen, 2000). New perspectives on collaborative and integrative leadership have been put forth as frameworks for the twenty-first century.

The researcher would suggest that an important attribute of the concept of social capital is that it helps narrow the divides between disciplines, scholars, practitioners, and community leaders. Consequently, this chapter explores the threads that run through diverse disciplines as an attempt to improve civic engagement within a context of social capital and the capacity of citizens, at all socioeconomic and educational levels, to actively engage in the American practice of participatory democracy. It then explores existing research on indicators of community and university readiness for civic engagement and examines the implications of twenty-first century theory in practice on community-university partnerships.

Why might this be important? Western culture has fostered a society of individuals and groups with high aspirations. When they are engaged in critically important tasks that are to some degree difficult, yet attainable and with limited resources, the need for partners becomes apparent (Johnson & Johnson, 2006). Civic engagement and collective involvement provide what has been described as a sense of empowerment that not only helps develop the individual, but also gives impetus to community enhancements and policy change (Putnam et al., 2004). Where civic engagement and social capital are enhanced, one finds political efficacy, civic and leadership skill development and community involvement (Mattson, 1996). Developing relationships are then impacted by these enhancements in capital. Well developed relationships facilitate influence, effect policy design, and allow for mutual areas of interest to be explored.

Civic Engagement and Social Capital

The literature reiterates the characteristics and correlations between possessing forms of social capital and involvement in civic activity. Active connections among people result in trust, mutual understanding, shared values and behaviors that bind the members of human networks and communities. These actions make cooperative action possible. The more social capital one has, the more civically engaged one becomes with research denoting that homeowners, married couples, people with good jobs and higher salaries, older adults, business owners, and the better educated are more likely than others to be civically engaged. Consequently, they most often reflect larger quantities of the

attributes noted above as behaviors that bind human networks (McBride et al., 2006; Perkins, Brown, & Taylor, 1996; Putnam, 2000; U.S. Census, 2000; Verba et al., 1995). The development of social capital requires the active and willing engagement of citizens with a participative community (Onyx & Bullen, 2000). Social capital can be identified as cause and effect and it is conceptually and empirically complex.

The civic engagement variable is associated with positive group socioeconomic outcomes, democracy at the national, state and local levels, and improved group educational and health outcomes (Foster-Fishman, Berkowitz, Lounsbury, Jacobson, & Allen, 2001; Goodman et al., 1998; Mattson, 1996; Putnam et al., 2004; Tolbert & Lyson, 1998; Woolcock et al., 2000). Although bonding social capital is a defensive mechanism against poverty, one cannot infer that the presence of social capital is a prerequisite for fiscal well being. As a means for developing skills and capacity, increasing tolerance, building community, supporting collective action and representation, social capital builds on a foundation of community essential to well being. Etzioni (2004) suggested that individuals are not only motivated by self-interest in pursuit of pleasure, but by a complex set of social and individual goals. The primary focus of work in these new networks of civic engagement shifts from parochial/personal interests to the broader concerns of community. This expands the individual's sense of self and their domains of interest (Chrislip & Larson, 1994). Onyx and Bullen (2000) note that social scientists concur with the Chrislip and Larson findings, and also found the theory to be further validated when there is a presence of strong ethos, trust, mutuality, and social sanctions. These factors allow the development of social capital. Putnam's research reinforces this

intrinsic benefit to social capital by confirming that honesty, civic engagement and social trust are mutually reinforcing.

Cohen and Prusak (2001) describe social capital as a stock of active connections among people that includes trust, mutual understanding and shared values that form the basis for knowledge and learning exchanges. The requirements of time, space and communication are acknowledged as prerequisites for social capital to develop. The knowledge exchange needed to build civic engagement depends on social connection, and without some degree of trust and mutuality, that exchange will not occur. There is no such thing as “instant social capital” and a modest investment in social time can improve the engagement outcomes (p. 95).

Fukuyama (1999) contradicted the Cohen and Prusak notion of social capital as a developmental process suggesting that the construct of social capital is something somewhat spontaneous and without rationale in the fact that it is often the result of hierarchical sources of authority, pursuing and defining community norms with expected obedience for totally a-rational reasons. Such norms are transmitted from generation to generation through habitual not rational deliberation. These social traditions persist for generations, described as path dependent norms. Such historical developments usually incorporate a substantial measure of chance, genius, accident, or creativity that cannot be explained in terms of prior conditions.

Social trust between individuals is a contributor to both bonding and bridging social capital (Flora & Flora, 2003; Putnam et al., 2004). The literature confirms the need for both forms of social capital for sustainable civic engagement (Lott & Chazdon,

2008; Putnam, 2000). Various forms of social capital critical to civic engagement frame this body of knowledge. The community capital model developed by Flora and Flora (2003) suggested two aspects of social capital. First, bonding networks reference strong connections among individuals and groups that are similar. Members of a church or an ethnicity might be examples of bonding networks. They have many common interests and bonds. Second, bridging networks refer to strong connections among diverse individuals and groups. Active participation in the community chamber of commerce might reflect ones bridging capacity. Although differences exist, the group finds a common interest or area of interaction. Communities with both are most capable of effective civic engagement. The community capital lens frames an interdependency model that pre-supposes the need for natural, cultural, human, social bonding and bridging, financial, and built capital for community sustainability and economic development (Flora & Flora, 2003).

Civic engagement, wherever it is supported by bonding and bridging social capital, results in more effective solutions to local issues because:

- Residents are more likely to accept the change they help construct.
- Collaborative approaches build the skilled, knowledgeable, active citizenry needed to foster the creation of a physically, socially, and economically healthy community (Brown-Graham, 2003; Flora & Flora, 2003; Foster-Fishman et al., 2001; Putnam et al., 2004).

This collaborative capacity is the condition needed for coalitions to promote effective partnerships and create sustainable community change (Foster-Fishman et al., 2001;

Goodman et al., 1998). Strong social networks can enhance community capacity and are evidenced by (a) the numbers of linkages in the network, (b) the intensity of the relationships in the network, and (c) the benefits received as a result of the networks. A similar model is put forth by Roussos and Fawcett (2000) concluding that community partnerships are dependent upon leadership, skills in communication, negotiation, facilitation, networking that reflects cultural competence, and some degree of technical expertise contributed by all partners.

Civic engagement and social capital are intertwined through the scholarly literature of the social sciences. Numerous theoretical frameworks for the construct reflect the work of economists, sociologists, and psychologists. Engagement may occur in the individual domain and/or in a collective or community domain. Individualized domains highlighted in the work on social capital denote the development of self-efficacy. Yet collective approaches portray the integrative, bridging tenets of community building. Robert Putnam (2000) suggests that American associations may be construed in three categories: community based, faith based, and work based. This practical division of civic activity gives way to more theoretical divisions that provide the foundation for the study of civic engagement and social capital. McBride et al. (2006) postulate civic engagement as a construct of two spheres: social-action as a member of, volunteering for, or donating resources, to individual, group, association and or organizations; and political-behavior, that influences legislative, electoral or judicial process and public decision making. The four theoretical perspectives within these

spheres (none mutually exclusive) are institutional, life course, cultural, and resource based.

Institutional theories emphasize the opportunity for engagement. Those who rarely engage with others, according to institutional theory, may not do so because a solicitation has not been made. Similarly, those with fewer resources have too many other priorities to draw their attention from civic engagement (McBride et al., 2006; Walzer, 1992). Walzer's 1992 research reinforces this theory denoting that 71% of volunteer and 61% of philanthropic contributors act because they are asked to do so.

Life course theory suggests stages of life impact individual's civic engagement. McBride and associates (2006) conclude civic engagement is most prevalent in two periods of life; early adulthood and later in life. Glaeser, Laibson, and Sacerdote (2000) contradict this notion, theorizing that civic engagement activity in the life course is bell shaped with the greatest organizational activity occurring during the middle adult years. Both models suggest that activity is influenced by station in life, peer relationships, and developmental maturity.

Cultural theories of civic engagement describe the impact of socialization. Programs designed to instill civic value, generational, or cohort influence, such as those formed in relation to World War II or 9/11, may foster civic spirit and engagement. Similarly, those whose parents vote are more likely to vote, prior volunteerism is believed to influence future volunteer activity, and church participation impacts political activity. All stand as examples of the cultural theory of civic engagement (McBride et al., 2006).

Resource based theory is built on the civic volunteerism model that concludes that people are compelled to participate in some form of politics (Verba et al., 1995). Theory would suggest that as social beings, individuals wish to contribute to their community and provide some level of guidance. This theory reflects the institutional perspective of social capital and civic engagement noted by Woolcock and Narayan (2000). The resource theorist would suggest that recent drops in measures of civic engagement reflect shifts not in engagement, but in the methodology or resource in which engagement is manifested.

Measuring the manifestations of social capital and civic engagement has been deemed difficult by scholars, yet a number of measurement tools have been developed, validated and reported in the literature (Cohen & Prusak, 2001; John F. Kennedy School of Government, 2002; McBride et al., 2006; Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Putnam, 2000; Woolcock & Narayan, 2000). One commonly used measure of social capital is membership in informal and formal associations and networks. This measure has been reliable particularly in developing countries and rural areas (Woolcock & Narayan, 2000). The reported most important variables in these studies are density of associations, heterogeneity of membership and active participation. The significance of these three variables reinforces the importance of both bonding and bridging capital.

Fukuyama (1999) used the *World Values Survey* as a comprehensive assessment of social capital. This survey recognizes that social capital includes norms and values which facilitate exchanges, lower transaction costs, reduce the cost of information, permit trade in the absence of contracts, and encourage responsible citizenship. Trust is seen by

Fukuyama and other researchers as a key mediating factor in lowering “transaction costs” in communities and enterprises, and enabling people to work together more effectively. Researchers have also used this instrument to show the positive relationship between trust and levels of investment in a country (Woolcock & Narayan, 2000).

More recent studies attempt to develop indices based on the work of Robert Putnam and the Saratoga Institution’s *Benchmarking Social Capital Survey*. The index addresses five dimensions: (a) the giving climate, (b) community engagement, (c) charitable involvement, (d) the spirit of volunteerism, and (e) active citizenship (Putnam, 2000). The survey has been administered internationally and contains over 26,000 data sets. Eight factors were isolated based on individual social capital scores that could predict the community to which the person belonged, thus raising the prospects for the instrument to be used for planning, predicting, and monitoring community development activities. The eight factors, identified through factor analysis, were the following: (a) participation in local community, (b) proactively engaging in social context or social agency, (c) feelings of trust and safety, (d) neighborhood connections, (e) family and friend connections, (f) tolerance of diversity, (g) value of life, and (h) work connections (Onyx & Bullen, 2000). The reliability and validity inferred by these instruments and analysis offer a firm foundation for future exploration.

Robert Putnam (2000) and the Saratoga Institute (John F. Kennedy School of Government, 2002) are most noted for their empirical assessment of the declining social capital and civic engagement of the United States. The percentage of Americans involved in any civic activity dropped by nearly one-third between 1974 and 1994. In

1973 most Americans were involved in at least one of twelve civic activities; however by 1994 most engaged in none. An implication of loss of community life is reflected in the fact that cooperative forms of behavior have declined in the U.S. more rapidly than expressive forms of behavior. Serving on a committee would be a cooperative form of participation as opposed to writing a letter as an expressive form that can be enacted alone. Implications of the transition are seen in individual and group levels of tolerance for diversity and skills in performing collaboratively.

When community leaders were asked about civic engagement, they too reported a growing lack of civic participation. Half of the leaders reporting (50.4%) thought most people were only involved with one or two civic activities that affected their family, and only 13.7% believed people would be involved in activities to help others (Brisben & Hunter, 2003). A close look at all American associations including community, faith and work based associations found that barely one half of the groups in 1988 actually had individual members (Putnam, 2000).

The decline in social capital is not an irreversible state. Social capital may be generated anywhere under the right conditions. It requires dense lateral networks involving voluntary engagement, trust and mutual benefit, although Onyx and Bullen's research suggests it is most effectively developed in the nonprofit sector, Verba et al. (1995) suggest that social capital can be constructed in universities just as effectively.

The conclusion of McBride et al. (2006) suggests that people with limited fiscal resources are civically engaged; however, their financial limits curtail their ability to be more actively engaged. Challenges that kept low wealth individuals from active civic

engagement were most often the lack of available time and family care issues. Other challenges included problems with neighbors, lack of community groups, recent moves, lack of transportation and working multiple jobs. Neighboring activities are the most frequently reported activities of communities with limited wealth. There are few studies of neighboring activities; yet they offer benefits, from increased social capital and community capacity, to reduced social welfare costs (Putnam, 2000). These activities are also the developmental foundation for children's attitudes on civic engagement.

Scholars in sociology, economics, and political science have agreed that the concept of social capital provides one explanation for why some communities of place and interest are able to collectively solve problems more effectively (Brehm & Rahn, 1997). The implications of individual and group engagement on trust, family, neighbor relationships, tolerance for others, and activities of social agency not only benefit the individual, but the whole group's capacity to solve problems. Ella Baker, a community organizer of the twentieth century, may best frame this argument for civic capacity building and engagement: "Strong people don't need strong leaders" (Mueller, 2004). Baker's work to prepare local residents for the non-violent social justice movement of the 1950s and 1960s espoused the participatory democracy tenets of both collaborative leadership and self-management. The value of collaborative practice and trust are important concepts in the measure of civic engagement and social capital. Building the self efficacy and social capital of organizational members would result in less need for charismatic leadership for institutional sustainability. The core capacity building components of social capital refer to individual attitudes and preparedness to engage in

social activities. Yet the content of the activities suggests a social or collective location for social capital that influences the individual. It is clear across the literature that the individual participant is influenced by social activity, but equally clear that the social activity is significant to the collective body.

The diverse contributors to the paradigms of social capital and civic engagement find confluence in the presence of a number of factors. Trust is identified across the literature. Trust results in a willingness to take risks in social context with some assurance others will respond positively acting mutually supportive. Communal and collaborative activity is also evidenced across the literature (Fukuyama, 1999; Onyx & Bullen, 2001). The implications of developed capacity for bonding, bridging and linking social capital reflect positively on a broad range of both individual and community outcomes. The dense multifunctional ties of bonding capital and the weak, impersonal trust of strangers found in bridging capital can collectively benefit work, communal and personal networks for individuals and for the collective (Putnam, 2000).

More recent studies have suggested that the currently global environment requires a more dynamic process for organizational and individual knowledge acquisition. A concept based in the frameworks of “Web 2.0” development and incorporated into the facilitative tools needed to address controversial environmental issues; the concept of learning in public offers an emerging skill for the organizational leader complementary of social capital. Organization in a network without hierarchical control requires visibility and feedback. Relationships in these systems are mutual resulting in the ability to influence your neighbors, and your neighbors influence you. Walker (2010) would

suggest that all emergent systems are built out of this kind of feedback, the two-way connections that foster bi-directional higher learning described as learning in public.

The critical role of participation in networks of relationships is noted by a number of researchers as a resounding theme (Onyx & Bullen, 2001; Putnam, 2000; Woolcock & Narayan, 2000). Participation generates an increased availability of social capital in the future. Bullen and Onyx (2005) concluded that network participation can exist in micro and macro relationships, from individuals to groups.

Higher Education and Civic Engagement

Civic engagement has also been a part of the deliberate considerations in Higher Education.” Ernest Boyer (1990) pointedly challenged the academy to connect its resources to the most urgent social, civic, and ethical problems facing children in cities as an ethical response to its claims of community engagement. Fifteen years later, Kezar et al. (2005) proclaimed that universities were still disassociated with the civic mission on which they were founded.

As the social science community examined civic engagement and social capital in recent years, higher education began the examination of civic engagement through the lens of engaged scholarship and engagement with communities of place and interest. A new form of scholarship emerged cutting across teaching, research and service that resulted in generation, application and knowledge transfer that directly supported communities of interest and place (McNall et al., 2009). Engaged faculty and institutions reflected an interest in aligning university strengths and assets with community strengths,

interest and expertise (Kezar et al., 2005). This new form of scholarship was essential to the institutions' core mission and beneficial to both community and university.

Participating universities were driven to engagement by their intellectual interest, research goals, need for community placements for students and sometimes, their passion for community action. Community partners found opportunities to leverage resources, increase legitimacy, gain access to networks of leaders and potentially obtain project related resources (Ferman, 2004).

This new form of scholar introduced an epistemological change in the concept of knowledge creation. Universities once seen as the creators and disseminators of knowledge found themselves faced with an epistemological shift from a rational worldview that provided order, predictability, and leader control, to a constructivist worldview of complexity and collaborative action. Knowledge was not only not created and disseminated from the university, but capable of dissemination through two way interactive strategies. The constructivism proposition suggested that knowledge in its newest form was local, complex and dynamic thus offering alternatives for users. This generated new roles for researchers as boundary spanners, conveners and change agents creating shared solutions that addressed mutual interests. Scholars would suggest that this transformation in knowledge flow did not create an either/or, good/bad dichotomy, but a more diverse range of resources for the discipline of higher education (Weerts & Sandmann, 2008).

Structural differences provide unique challenges for engagement in higher education. Engagement requires cooperation among a variety of disciplinary fields and

the crossing of academic barriers historic to the university's management and budgetary environment if institutions intend to address societal problems.

Public universities were prodded to become more engaged by a 1999 proclamation to return to their roots. The Kellogg Commission on the Future of Land Grant Universities recognized that institutions needed to build mutually beneficial relationships with their communities using science, scholarship and their resources to respond to current social and economic concerns. The Commission of university presidents wrote, "Institutions must redesign their teaching research, and extension and service functions to become even more sympathetically and productively involved with their communities however community may be defined" (NASULGC, 2000). Mandates from the academy, federal, state and local funders, benefactors and the nation's rapidly changing urban communities, defined the need for public higher education, particularly land-grants, to become more engaged in the communities in which they reside. Scholars in higher education challenged universities to address the issues facing a twenty-first century knowledge economy, clustered around metropolitan areas in an increasing global society (Boyer, 1990; Comer, 2004; Cox & Pearce 2001; Ilvento, 1997; NASULGC, 2000; Rubin, 2000).

Although more than 1/3 of all colleges and universities report engaged scholarship—the 2007 Wingspread Conference reported that it was obvious that there is little or no collaboration on critical concerns of community and university, and only limited amounts of sharing of expertise and fiscal resources (Weerts & Sandmann, 2007).

The land grant university. The land-grant university, conceived in the Jeffersonian tradition of education for democratic citizenship, merged two differing paradigms: knowledge creation as a function of universities by intellectuals pursuing a scholarly life, and the use of that scholarship in egalitarian pursuit of a democratic society (Bonnen, 1998). One of its roles reflective of the one way knowledge flow model that is exemplified in the creation of the Agricultural Extension Service. The second role is conducive to the constructivist view of two way knowledge flow and exchange. The dichotomy of the systems roles has served as its strength and challenge. The land-grant system includes one institution per state legislated in 1862 and in the southern states, one additional historically Black institution legislated in 1890. These institutions, reflective of their date of inception, are described in the literature as 1862s and 1890s (Bonnen, 1998). Additional tribal colleges were added to the system in 1994, all espousing an institutional threefold mission of research, teaching and extension/outreach. In its 1862 inception and today, these paradigms create a tension evidenced by the institutions' struggles with conflicting roles and changing values.

Congressman Justin Morrill of Vermont, whose legislation, the "Morrill Act," passed Congress in 1862 and soon led to the founding of a "land-grant" college, envisioned access to higher education as a way to extend the opportunities and outcomes of technology and participatory democracy to a broader spectrum of the population. He and his colleagues envisioned a ladder of social mobility for those who were not by virtue of family lineage, destined to be graduates of the elite universities of the nation. Historians suggest that Justin Morrill did in fact foresee that this rationale would lead to a

role for land-grant institutions in carrying American democracy into the country's future (Ilvento, 1997). At one level the act accomplished that purpose by virtue of its design. The institutions it created, while rising to international prominence in areas of technology and science, have remained deeply rooted in the needs of their states and regions, as the 1862 act endowed (Bonnen, 1998).

Few have been as passionate a proponent of universities as a cornerstone to participatory democracy as William Rainey Harper (1905), founder of the University of Chicago, proclaiming: "Education is the basis of all democratic progress" (Kezar et al., 2005, p. 188). Land grants are challenged to develop a new generation of scholars and practitioners capable of connecting democratic values, applied science, and theory with practice and advocacy in community's worldwide (Alperovitz & Howard, 2005; Ilvento, 1997).

Building authentic partnerships within the community is one of four priorities for the engaged land-grant university. The remaining three priorities frame a work plan for academic and community leadership. Organizing internally within the university, leveraging university financial resources, and enhancing academic research, teaching and training, are all functions of leading the engaged institutions of higher education (Alperovitz & Howard, 2005).

Several twenty-first century trends impact the land-grant university and its capacity to achieve the priorities set out by academic and community scholars. The institutions have developed their earlier granted resources and they are now positioned as some of the nation's premier research universities. Highly intensive research universities

relegate; teaching and outreach to less prominent status. The transition from a rural nation to an urban one, changes in the population and the structure of farms, proportional shifts in funding for land-grants, and the relationship between research and extension, are all contributing challenges for these institutions (Comer, 2004; Ilvento, 1997). These changes have impacted the system's role and function in an economy that is neither agricultural nor industrial, but knowledge based (Feller, 1987).

Land grant universities have a long history of civic engagement attached to their one way but voluntary knowledge transfer mechanism of Agricultural, now Cooperative Extension, functions in local communities across the nation. The community based outreach centers that form university partnerships with local governments were once seen as the premier extension and engagement function of the university. They now take their place with a variety of models for university extension, outreach, and engagement (Ilvento, 1997; Lerner & Simon, 1998). Industrial extension, education extension, service learning, public television, design and textiles extension, humanities extension are but a few examples of the outreach initiatives presently found in land grant institutions.

Community-university engagement. Early civic engagement research focused on Cooperative Extension (Ilvento, 1997). The new focus on community-university engagement precipitated by Ernest Boyer and the Kellogg Commission gave rise to a number of case studies and self studies that reflect through qualitative observations, diverse programs in a number of land-grant, and large research institutions (Baum, 2000; Bringle & Hatcher, 2002; Felis, 2005; Mayfield et al., 1999; Perry, 2003; Reardon, 2006;

Spanier, 1999). McNall et al. (2009) identified and referenced five strands of engagement literature:

1. Universities defining and redefining the engagement mission that include the works of Lerner and Simon (1998) and Aronson and Webster (2007).
2. Community and university partnerships as a means to enriching educational experiences of students as described by Dorado and Giles (2004) and Allen-Gil et al. (2005).
3. Universities engaged in community development efforts in partnership with their surrounding neighborhoods as described by Wiewel and Lieber (1998).
4. University scholars and community members coming together to address issues of mutual interest through Community Based Participatory Research (CBPR), as in Walsh (2006).
5. Measurements of the characteristics and consequences of community-university partnerships in El-Ansari, Phillips, and Hammick (2001), Weiss (2006), Schulz (2003), and Granner (2004).

Building on this initial work, additional empirical investigations led to four academically driven models of effective community-university engagement that contribute to overall civic engagement. Table 1 reflects the principles espoused by the four bodies of scholars. Each paradigm recognizes the need for democratic process, relationships of trust, authenticity and commitment on the part of all partners. The Community Campus Partnerships for Health model (2006) denotes the importance of time in the development of an engaged partnership. This recognition supports the theory

Table 1. Models of Community Engagement

Model I: Campus Compact (2000)	Model II: Housing & Urban Development (2001)	Model III: Community Campus Partnerships for Health (1998)	Model IV: Council of Independent Colleges (2003)
Design democratic partnership	Joint exploration of goals & limitations	Relationship of mutual trust, respect, authenticity, & commitment	Goals and processes are mutually determined and include training
Build collaborative relationships	Creation of mutually rewarding agenda	Build upon strengths and assets	Resources, reward and risk are shared
Sustain partnership over time	Design that supports shared leadership	Balance power and shared resources	Roles and responsibilities are based on capacities
	Clear benefits and roles for partners	Clear and open communication	Parity is achieved by acknowledging expertise & experience
	Identification of early opportunities for success	Agreed upon roles, norms, & processes	Anticipated benefits justify the costs, effort and risk
	Focus on knowledge exchange, shared learning	Ensure feedback among stakeholders	Partners share a vision
	Attention to communication patterns	Share the credit for accomplishments	Partners are accountable for joint planning and ensuring quality
	Commitment to continuous assessment	Take time to develop and evolve	Partners are committed to ensuring each partner benefits.

that civic engagement is a process of building capacity and earning trust rather than the achievement of project outcomes.

The work over the two decades since the Kellogg Commission report has resulted not only in models of excellence from the university perspective, but salient findings that bring focus to this research. Many of the self studies from reflective accounts of the community university partnerships are characterized by recognition of the fact that the partnership changed over time with earlier periods focused on building trust and understanding, and later years emphasizing comprehensive planning and civic engagement initiatives (Prins, 2006; Reardon, 2006; Rubin, 2000; Spanier, 1999). The roles and stakeholders transitioned over time denoting that good partnerships recognized that neither the university nor its community partners stand as monolithic entities (Leiderman, Furco, Zapf, & Goss, 2002). Context was as important as content. Organizational and experiential diversity were important to achieving substantive partnership outcomes. All required a “commitment of enough time and resource in the short term for management, and enough over the long term for forging relationships” (Ferman, 2004, p. 253).

The value of civic engagement to land grants and other institutions of higher education became even more evident as the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, in 2005, created a criterion for engagement and service. Bringle and Hatcher (2002) suggest that strengthening the communities in which institutions of higher education reside enhances the campus’ ability to attract diverse faculty and students, enriching the academic experience and, thus anchoring the democratic society for which

land-grants were inaugurated. Communities provide transformative experiences for students, help to transcend cultural barriers for faculty and students, and inform the research and teaching foundations core to land-grant universities.

Building partnerships with community organizations reflective of a broad diversity of political and human resource prototypes requires clearly focused programmatic objectives (Foster-Fishman et al., 2001; Mulroy, 1998; Roussos, 2000). Lasker (2001) suggest that the responsibility for effectiveness in community-university partnerships should be left to those with traditional and formal leadership positions, to ensure that equal participative opportunities are afforded to all interested. Thus for university leaders, this mandate requires mutual commitment to the relationship (Lasker, 2001). Universities successful in partnerships for civic engagement have mapped: (a) how different layers of the university might work together to support communities, (b) how different interests in the community might pull in the same direction, and (c) long term effectiveness of relationship investments (Baum, 2000).

The research further suggested that the lack of clarity and mismatches between the scale and the resources required, and between the length of time required to accomplish the purpose and length of the project, are the challenges communities and universities report repeatedly in these decentralized partnerships (Alperovitz & Howard, 2005; Aronson & Webster, 2007; Cox & Pearce, 2001; LeGates, 1998; Roussos & Fawcett, 2000). Comprehensive university-wide community partnerships require institutional frameworks that reflect not only reciprocity, but interdisciplinary approaches to authentic communication and integration (Lasker, 2001; Murrasse, 2002; Pinsker,

1999). These requirements prove challenging for institutions that by definition, exist as decentralized bureaucracies, requiring strategically planned organizational events for change to slowly permeate the entire organization (Bolman & Deal, 1997).

Although more than 1/3 of all colleges and universities report engaged scholarship, the 2007 Wingspread Conference reports that there is little if any collaboration on critical concerns by communities and universities and only limited amounts of sharing of expertise and fiscal resource (Sandmann, Holland, & Burns, 2007).

While well meaning, the university perspective and design reflect the expert, one-way knowledge flow models within which faculty have been immersed. This results in a focus on charity rather than justice (Benson, 2000). House (1991) concluded that the group with perceived social status, authority and strength would be less apprehensive about using coercion in order to obtain compliance from others in a partnership. The equal sharing of status and power were most likely in groups or partnerships characterized as homogeneous, familiar, and communicative (Bass & Bass, 2008). Studies of civic engagement suggest task focus, inclusive decision making, participatory rewards, and mechanisms that foster intergroup cooperation important to the success of such partnerships (Matson, 2008).

Previous experience in a successful partnership is denoted as a predictor of success. Because partnerships can allow less accountability than individual member organizations; clarity of purpose and decision making were noted as determinates of success (Wildridge, Childs, Cawthra, & Madge, 2004). The Wilder Research Center identified 20 factors important to successful partnerships in their review of the literature

and placed them in six categories. First, the category of environment included history of cooperative and a conducive social climate. Membership denotes to mutual respect. Process and structure included flexibility and a reasonable pace of development. Open communication and ability to maintain informal relationships is the fourth of the categories. Wilder defined purpose as attainable goals, and shared vision, and the final category as resources that reflect sufficient funds, staff, and skilled leadership. Leadership that was described as boundary spanning or willing to network across organizations, discipline, and professions was also indentified as critical to partnership success (Mattessich et al., 1997).

Traditional land grant university characteristics often challenge these institutions' readiness to mirror the characteristics necessary for successful partnerships. The role of the university often reflects a distinct use of power that is evident to its partners (Prins, 2006). The institution's traditional and inherent lack of coordination is harmful although unintended and can overwhelm small groups of community partners (Bringle & Hatcher, 2002). The disparate paths into the university suggest to the community that it is not important enough to be given any attention and sends mixed signals contributing to the lack of trust. Kezar and associates (2005) compared the academy to Plato's anti-democratic idealist theory and further suggested that the commercialization of higher education has disassociated professors from any responsibility to prepare students for citizenship or engagement personally as citizens.

The Community Perspective of Engagement

Community wisdom is perhaps the mediating resource in the coalescing of this new area of exploration described as engaged scholarship. There is less research on community university engagement from the community perspective; however, a small cohort of scholars presented substantive findings from their focused research on the community expertise.

Communities see universities as well-funded, powerful, and uniquely situated community assets that can leverage resources (Creighton, 2006). They see their own organizations as critical assets, yet struggling for survival. According to the work of a number of scholars, the expectations of the university from the community partner include participation in mutually determined goals, creation of a shared vision, the sharing of data, resources and risk, strategic planning based on the specific needs and interest of the community of interest or place, and fostering peer relationships that recognize the experiential credentials of the community partner. Communities also expect benefits sufficient to justify the effort, systems of accountability and roles and responsibility based on the capacity and resources of all partners (Creighton, 2006; Ferman, 2004; Leiderman et al., 2002; McNall et al., 2009). Community partners anticipated that their university partner could and would navigate the full range of the institution and anticipate their ability to ameliorate negative impacts from other functions of the institution. These expectations are often difficult for university units and faculty to meet and may offer clues to the lack of study in this area.

Ferman offers a salient quote that reflects profoundly on the relationship expectations of both community and university partners: “Just as all politics is local, all partnerships are personal” (Ferman, 2004, p. 251). Community partners describe the actions of authentic partnerships as the ability to listen, sensitivity to the needs of others, commitment to finish projects that do not match the academic year, and acknowledging community and university historical baggage.

McNall et al. (2009) found that the anticipated benefits of community partners correlated in a limited number of areas with their perceived benefit. The majority of partners (67%) anticipated increases in collaboration among community organizations around a set of community issues, 67% increased knowledge of that issue, 56% improved service outcomes, and 56% increased resources (McNall et al., 2009, p. 54). When the perception of actual benefits was researched, McNall and associates found correlations between effective partnership management and the perception that the university had increased research on a community issue such that when community members reported the partnership management task as positively addressed, a positive perception of the university’s activity on research related to their community issue was more likely to be reported. There were also positive correlations between perceptions of co-creation of knowledge and improved service outcomes.

Outreach and engagement literature highlights the relational nature of community partnerships (Baum, 2000; Cox & Pearce, 2001; Lasker, 2001). Relational capacity is based on developing a positive working climate, developing a shared vision, and promoting power sharing (Foster-Fishman et al., 2001). The characteristics and

outcomes of community university partnerships and civic engagement depend on a number of factors including: prior relationships and motivation, ability of the partner to serve as a leader, competing institutional demands, trust and the balance of power (Bringle & Hatcher, 2002; Ferman, 2004; Maurrasse, 2002; McNall et al., 2009).

The Kellogg Commission on the Future of State and Land Grant Universities (NASULGC, 1999) has premised that the impact of demographic, technological, economic, and global competitiveness forces require higher education to confront a different environment involving more than incremental adaptation to changes. Overton and Burkhardt (1999) suggest that changes based on Peter Drucker's analysis in the *Paradigm of Leadership* may provide another perspective on the changing roles of institutions of higher education in civic engagement. Drucker predicts the demise of higher education without transformational changes to the leadership structure of the organizations (Overton & Burkhardt, 1999).

Leadership for Civic Engagement

New forms of leadership are proposed as important to addressing societal and environmental changes described as characteristic of the twenty-first century. An interconnected society that exhibits the capacity through technology to bring local specifications to global scale, suggests the importance of far more responsive institutions. The multicultural population in both workforce and community of place has given rise to the need to accommodate cultural and linguistic differences. The transition from industrial to knowledge economy also impacts the currencies of power and privilege.

These changes support and catalyze shared responsibility and getting the most out of the diversity of perceptions, competencies, and resources. They contribute to shared leadership, the fragmentation of power, and reconciliation of overlapping goals (Huxham & Vangen, 2000). This changing environment referenced in the work of the Kellogg Commission reflected a need for collaborative leadership that provides dynamic, interdisciplinary partnerships, drawing upon the resources of campuses, and communities in reciprocal roles.

The explorations of these new models of leadership find foundation in core leadership theory. Hofstede (2001) noted that while differences in coercive power within a group result in public success and the acceptance of leadership, resistance will bring about unintended consequences such as apathy and resentment. Other behavior focused theorists have observed that equalization of organizational member power results in increased participation, commitment and engagement with others (Argyris, 1982; Lawler, 1988; McGregor, 1966).

Integrative and collaborative forms of leadership. Why might the hierarchical relationship of leader to follower not apply? New world systems are collaborative and the individuals involved come from diverse organizations and groups. Leadership is becoming increasingly peer-like, occurring through collaborative structures and processes, not just through individuals. The heterogeneity of modern organizations suggests the rise of those with diverse, ambiguous and sometimes flexible cultures that result in the decentralization of leadership (Huxham & Vangen, 2000). Prominent theorists define this as network-centrism and propose it will be the guiding principle of

the future. These powerful networks create and manage knowledge, enforce social norms, encourage commitment, and create more democratic communities.

The process of agreeing upon collaborative goals is extremely difficult for organizations and institutions given the diversity of perspectives brought by individual representatives. The members contribute different leadership styles and facilitative behaviors, which contribute and detract from the collaborative process. These challenges yield roles for emergent informal leaders that are limited by the traditional leader-follower ontology (Drath et al., 2008).

While Overton and Burkhardt (1999) within the field of higher education called for a new leadership model, their perspective is limited to this discipline. Chrislip and Larson (1994) and Drath et al. (2008) suggested changes in the ontology from their studies of leadership as a discipline. Leadership ontology, the theory of the entities that are thought most basic and essential to any statement about leadership for the twenty-first century, requires reconsideration.

Warren Bennis (1999) so aptly describes the core of modern leadership theory as the interplay between leaders, followers and a mutual goal. Drath and associates (2008) suggest that although this ontology will remain an important foundation for leadership theory, the changing peer-like collaborative nature of the twenty-first century organizations may be more responsive to an outcome model built on processes of direction, alignment and commitment. The integration and flexibility needed to sustain engaged partnerships between large institutions such as land grant universities and the diverse mix of community partners requires such a model for leadership. This researcher

accepts that leadership occurs through collaborative structures and processes, not just through people; thus exploring emerging ontologies and theories of leadership is necessary for the progress of this research.

Leadership theory for many years has focused on formal leaders, followers, and an accepted goal. The components are reflected in the theoretical history of leadership as a discipline, including trait, contingency, and transformational approaches highlighted in the works of Blanchard, Bennis, Stodgill, and Fiedler (as cited in Huxham & Vangen, 2000). This foundation for twentieth century leadership theory was built on the notion of leaders transforming followers to achieve a defined goal. For much of the twentieth century, a concept of organizations operating with a managerial paradigm characterized by single leaders in formal positions, wielding power and influence over multiple followers, pervaded the leadership landscape and provided a conducive environment for an industrial based society (Drath et al., 2008).

Manz and Angle (1985) found that self control and self management in the business world resulted in increased compliance. Goal specification by the individual gave one feelings of purpose, compliance, and self control, and resulted in increased commitment and the smooth transfer of leadership as needed.

This leadership landscape gave way to transformational theory and the expansion of servant leadership frameworks (Burns, 1978). The shift encouraged the perception of goals in the leader-follower relationship as mutually conceived with interest and benefits to followers and leaders. Uhl-Bien, Marion, and McKelvey (2007) suggest that based on

complexity theory, leaders, followers, and their shared goals do not necessarily add up to leadership.

Three emerging areas of leadership theory highlighted by Drath and associates (2008) which suggest reasoning for more dramatically transforming the leader-follower-mutual goal ontology of the twenty-first century are: (a) shared and distributed leadership; (b) applications of complexity science; and (c) relational approaches. Shared leadership theory based on the work of Mary Parker Follett (1924), as cited in Cox and Pearce (2001), describes a condition in which teams of inter-relating individuals collectively exert leadership and influence as a part of a collaborative, emergent process of group interaction (Drath et al., 2008).

Complexity theory suggests that one cannot understand the whole through an exclusive focus on the parts, and therefore one cannot predict the future of a complex system with any degree of certainty, given the influence of such catalysts as people, ideas, behaviors, and adaptive tensions. Leader-follower-mutual goal ontology assumes a predictable response by followers and a preconceived and agreed upon goal.

Relational theory is the third development pushing against the leader-follower-mutual goal approach to leadership. Grounded in the constructionist perspective, it frames knowledge not in the individual mind, but through ongoing relationships. Based on the works of Dachler and Hosking (1995), Drath (2001), and Uhl-Bien et al. (2007), leadership is framed as a sense of an interactive negotiated social order developed over time in response to challenges facing the collective. Relational theory argues that people construct the realities of life in participation with others. It recognized that people are

individual and unique because of their interrelations with others, i.e. parent, child, artist, and extrovert. Thus leaders, followers, and goals change over time with the change in relationships and environment.

Joseph Rost (1991) suggests twenty-first century leadership reflects the unique characteristics of being relationships-based, multidirectional, and non-coercive. He further notes that leaders are followers, and followers are leaders in this new paradigm. Like the works of Drath and associates (2008), leadership is embodied in communal relationships.

Direction, alignment, and commitment. Community university partnerships are relationships between constantly changing communities and academic bureaucracies without true leaders. Of the emerging ontologies, the work of Drath and associates (2008) most closely defines the territory in which this research seeks to contribute, proposing that twenty-first century leadership is built on an ontology of direction, alignment and commitment (DAC). These three concepts result in more collaborative forms of leadership.

Direction is widespread agreement in a collective on overall goals, aims, and mission. Alignment is the organization and coordination of knowledge and work in a collective. Commitment is the willingness of organizational members to subsume their own interests and benefit within the collective's interest and benefit. The DAC framework includes leadership beliefs connected to other beliefs. The framework for DAC suggests first that leadership beliefs are connected to all other beliefs. These became the major justification and determinate of individual behaviors. DAC also

includes leadership practice seen as the collective enactments or application. The leadership culture rounds out the framework of DAC (Drath et al., 2008).

DAC beliefs are similar to cognitive maps, folk theories, team mental models, and are perhaps the templates or filters one imposed on the arena of leadership (Drath, 2001). Beliefs are not purely individual, but are connected to others' beliefs by both cultural similarity, affinity and ongoing interaction (Drath et al., 2008). This ontology assumes that people sharing work have or soon develop beliefs about how to produce Direction Alignment and Commitment, that lead to practices for further producing direction, alignment and commitment. DAC is open-ended, accommodating all current practices and the development of future innovation. Because Drath et al. (2008) theorize that DAC is continuous, reproduces itself, and contributes to long-term outcomes; leadership culture is the natural next step in the framework of this integrative leadership model. The concept of leadership culture supports a relational understanding of leadership. In DAC, leadership context is not an outcome, but it generates and justifies the beliefs and practices. It continuously reproduces itself and contributes to long term outcomes.

The changing cultural environment described in the social science, higher education and leadership literature seems to require an integrated view of community-university engagement. Sustained relationships require an appreciative approach and prerequisite skills that result in integrative approaches to achieving authentic partnerships. Individual and organizational preparedness or readiness for engagement in the twenty-first century organization is important to subsequent sustainability for more specific programmatic outcomes involving the community and university.

Readiness for Civic Engagement

Despite broad interest in community readiness across a number of disciplines, the research and measures are limited. The research on readiness for civic and university engagement is in its infancy. Community readiness is the extent to which communities are prepared to engage in, or improve the level of networking which is theorized to lead to more effective community engagement (Grasby, Zammit, Pretty, & Bramston, 2005). Readiness is a construct most examined in the public health literature as a prevention strategy. It most often has a professional service outcome. Civic engagement is based on sociological and political science agendas and has an outcome of democratic practice or process. While different, there are attributes that will contribute to the overall discussion of readiness for engagement.

Drawing from the public health work of Edwards et al. (2000), the community readiness model provides a practical set of research tools found in the Tri-Ethnic Center for Prevention Research at Colorado State University to help communities understand strengths and vulnerabilities in addressing health related outcomes. The model is ideally suited for addressing social problems such as alcoholism and domestic violence. Graspy and associates (2005) and Lott and Chazdon (2008) have applied the model to community socioeconomic and natural resource issues with modification. The community readiness model identified nine stages of readiness:

1. No awareness or tolerance of behaviors
2. Denial
3. Vague awareness

4. Preplanning
5. Preparation
6. Initiation
7. Institutionalization and stabilization
8. Confirmation and expansion
9. Professionalization, Collaboration, and synthesis (Edwards et al., 2000, p. 300).

Civic engagement has invited a different approach. Examining readiness in the sociological construct requires a response to the question of “readiness for what.” Foster-Fishman et al. (2007) found that different components of capacity and readiness mattered for different levels of community engagement. Their research suggests that what helps individuals move from in-action to action may be different from what inspires them to become more highly engaged residents in their communities. Readiness is thus defined by the outcome expected.

Edwards and associates (2000) advocated for a broad view of readiness that included infrastructure capacity, knowledge, and skill, along with social ties and leadership as tenets. Foster-Fishman and associates (2007) take the view of readiness as separate from skill and infrastructure capacity to infer attitudes and beliefs that impel members to work towards change. They found nurturing strong community leadership infrastructure to be critical to collective efficacy and hope for change. Although social ties and leadership were important, these are the critical indicators of readiness, according to the work of Foster-Fishman and associates (2007). The model, further developed by Foster-Fishman, Pierce, and Van Egerren (2009), depicts readiness and capacity as

separate entities accessible and measurable in a community. Both are catalyzed by community norms about activism, the problem or issue, leadership, and organizational skills. With all factors in place citizen participation occurs. Fishman-Foster et al. (2009) suggest readiness is thus defined as hope for change and collective efficacy mediated by social networks. All other constructs are seen as contributing factors to civic participation.

Attention to which elements of readiness are important in the development of useful and cost effective instruments is foundational to future research. Of the potential components of readiness, it is important to identify specific components and develop a clear understanding of these. The researcher selected the work of five scholars that included both public health and sociological foundations to be considered in a framework for studying readiness for community university engagement. These provided focus, specifically on the organizational capacity to change. Core attitudes that have been found to impact organizational leaders readiness include holding positive attitudes about collaboration, other stakeholders, respect for different perspectives, trust of others stakeholders, power sharing, and minimizing member status differences (Foster-Fishman et al., 2009).

First, the work of Lott and Chazdon (2008) provides an individually focused model built on the Tri-Ethnic Center model for predicting readiness for community engagement. It consists of four components: bonding capital, bridging capital, linking capital, and leadership energy.

Another perspective is provided by Foster-Fishman et al. (2007), who found in group-focused research that community residents who recognized a problem, believed the community had the capacity to alleviate the problem, had ties in the community, and felt there was effective leadership, were more likely to become civically engaged. Such communities were more likely to be actively involved in both individual actions and collective efforts on behalf of the community.

Onyx and Bullen's (2000) work focused on the identification of eight factors that are conceptual elements of social capital. Their perspective offers an empirical foundation for the consideration of prerequisites. They identified participation in community, social agency, and feelings of trust, neighbor connections, family and friend connections, tolerance of diversity, and value of life and work connections as the social capital indices that correlate with civic engagement.

Toms et al. (2008) identified a number of factors as predictors of readiness for community action. These include: (a) powerful vision and mission, (b) strong presence, (c) organizational expertise, access to potential consumers or markets, (d) extensive communication, programs and projects, (e) well-known respected leaders, (f) access to community leaders and influential people, facilities and equipment, fundraising and financial capacity, family and community engagement, and (g) a willingness to learn and build capacity as factors that predict community readiness for partnerships. This literature suggests readiness is influenced by varying degrees of social capital, leadership community capacity and character, and an orientation to the outcome/product or the

process. Table 2 denotes the congruencies and convergences within the research noted, and a more detailed discussion of these approaches follows.

Lott and Chazdon (2008) explored for the University of Minnesota Extension, the creation of a community readiness for engagement model built on the work of the Amherst Wilder Research Institute. Community capacity and social capital in their research is a combination of bonding capital, bridging capital, linking capital and leadership energy. Bonding and bridging social capital has been identified across the literature as a necessity in proportion for civic engagement to have positive outcomes (Flora & Flora, 2003; John F. Kennedy School of Government, 2002; Foster-Fishman et al., 2001; Putnam, 2000).

The linking capacity is of particular importance in the Lott and Chazdon (2008) work. Linking capital in their research refers to connections to organizations and systems that can help members gain resources and bring about change. This differs from the partnering capacity in bridging social capital in that the networks are not specifically focused on the acquisition of resources for the community. Lott and Chazdon's "linking capacity" finds literary foundation in the community capital work of Flora and Flora (2003) and the leadership research of Cohen and Prusak (2001). Cohen and Prusak's reference to "network-centrism" as a guiding principle of the future provides a framework that values networks of diverse resources, and the creation and management of knowledge, and enforces social norms, encourages commitment, and creates more democratic communities.

Table 2. Characteristics of Community Readiness

Researcher	Social Capital	Leadership	Community Characteristics	Process or Product Orientation
Foster-Fishman et al. (2007)	Social efficacy, hope, social ties defined as community capacity.	Leadership defined as community capacity		Process
Lott and Chazdon (2008)	Bonding social capital, bridging social capital, linking social capital	Leadership energy	Community infrastructure	Product
Onyx and Bullen (2000)	Trust, social agency, value of life, neighborhood connections, family and friend connections, tolerance of diversity, work connections, participation in local community			Process
Toms, Glover, Erwin, and Ellison (2008)	Family and community engagement	Powerful vision and mission, strong presence, well-known respected leaders, access to community leaders and influential people	Organizational expertise, access to potential consumers or markets, extensive communication, programs and projects, facilities and equipment, fundraising and financial capacity, willingness to learn and build capacity	Process Increased Civic and Community Engagement

Leadership energy offers a new area for discovery in the engagement research highlighted by community partners (Lott & Chazdon, 2008; Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Toms et al., 2008). Although leadership by university administrators, faculty and students has been extensively researched in the study of engagement, less is evident from the perspective of the community partner. Lott and Chazdon's (2008) research contributes to the readiness explorations of Foster-Fishman et al. (2007) and builds on the findings of Onyx and Bullen (2000). It also finds foundation in the leadership research proposing more integrative and collaborative frameworks (Drath et al., 2008; Huxham & Vangen, 2000; Lasker, 2001; McNall et al., 2009). The unique relationships needed to sustain community university engagement, contribute to the increasing need to consider collaborative and integrative ontologies of leadership.

In an examination of the social capital factors identified in the Social Capital Benchmarking Survey (SCBS), Onyx and Bullen (2000) identified eight factors that accounted for 49.3% of the variance and remained stable across the subsamples of the study. SCBS represents the seminal study of social capital with a sample size of approximately 26,000 and administered internationally. The eight factors identified as significantly reflective of social capital included trust, social agency, value of life, neighborhood connections, family and friend connections, tolerance of diversity, work connections, and participation in local community.

Foster-Fishman et al. (2007) also focus on community capacity and process rather than outcomes of specific activities or the solutions to a specific problem. Using a quantitative design, their study examined readiness for change with a sample of

approximately 3,300 people. Findings suggest that perceived strength of neighborhood leadership was one of the strongest predictors of how active an individual would be. Foster-Fishman and associates (2007) chose to distinguish readiness from capacity. Readiness in this study was the overall belief in the possibilities of change and capacity represented the local ability to implement change. The study, based on interviews of key informants and a quantitative survey with a collective Cronbach's alpha reliability of .74, found the perception of neighborhood readiness for change including collective efficacy and hope for change was strongly related to whether individuals were involved in collective actions. Foster-Fishman and associates (2007) reinforced the premise of other scholars that even within the context of extreme community problems, significant capacity can exist (McBride et al., 2006; Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Putnam, 2000).

Toms et al.'s (2008) work in the Leadership Enhancement and Engagement Project (LEEP) with faith-based communities suggests that individual efforts of faith-based leaders is not sufficient to effectively address the community and regional needs in rural African American communities. Although the four-phased program to enhance civic engagement is incomplete, they propose prerequisites that predict partnership success. Enhanced civic engagement proceeds through developmental phases of community building, training and engaging leaders, internal leadership development, and sustainability in leadership development. This model proposes the need for equal status in partnerships and the implication of willingness to engage in an ongoing relationship between community and university. The prerequisites, as noted in Table 2, reflect the focus on leadership, social capital, process over product, and community characteristics.

This model reflects the findings of a more recent work of Foster-Fishman et al. (2009), which suggested that community-building initiatives need to expand beyond improving community conditions to targeting the development of specific capacities that support residents in their participation efforts.

The work of the nations community development corporations and Cooperative Extension Centers are examples of this philosophical tension. While outcomes such as homes renovated and meals provided are important, the organizations are challenged to also develop leadership capacity and organizational skills needed for sustainability. The balance between the two is a challenge with which both organizations struggle. Sean Creighton's research findings present a framework from the community perspective of community development indicators of engagement (Creighton, 2006). Although this research is not focused on readiness for engagement, it offers a community partners perspective on expectations of the university partner and is important to the discussion of mission compatibility. Indicators of significance included mission, compatibility, and equitable treatment; usefulness of service learning; and relevance of research, synergy, and mutually beneficial exchanges (Creighton, 2006).

The body of knowledge would be expanded by the examination of significant indicators of readiness for engagement. Such an examination has implications for the disciplines of leadership, higher education, and the social sciences. The researcher further suggests that partnerships between communities and universities for the purpose of enhancing civic engagement benefit from theories of integrative and collaborative leadership. A framework for exploring indicators of readiness with community members

can begin with the examined factors of social capital, community capacity, and leadership.

Summary

From the literature, a foundation of (a) social networking skills represented by indicators of individual and organizational social capital, (b) community access to networks and resources, (c) varying forms of real capital, and (d) leadership that reflects collaborative decision making and energetic engagement represent factors that create a framework of readiness for engagement by community organizations. Such resources are mediated by the university and community need for relational capacity which is critical to the development of mutuality and reciprocity. Would such a model allow for the development of sustainable community-university engaged partnerships such as the LEEP program or Seed Grant programs in North Carolina Land-Grant Universities, with philosophical and historical foundations in outreach and engagement? How might the concepts of trust, collective efficacy, leadership and university preparedness for engagement in the community described in the works of Creighton (2006), Onyx and Bullen (2000), Drath and associates (2008), and Lott and Chazdon (2008) integrate to form a framework for organizational readiness?

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

Chapter 2 identified and reviewed through a multidisciplinary lens the tenets of civic engagement. The literature, while addressing extensively the characteristics of sustainable engagement from both campus and community perspectives, has limitations. A perspective on readiness and preparation for sustained community university engagement is an area requiring additional exploration.

Research Questions

This research seeks to identify significant indicators of readiness for engagement in community-university partnerships. The fundamental questions below were researched from the community's perspective:

1. What do community organizations expect from land grant universities as engaged partners?
2. What do community leaders and community organizations partnering with land grant universities perceive as indicators of readiness for effective engagement between community organizations and universities?
3. From the community leaders' perspective, are the variables of collective efficacy, leadership energy, trust and social capital, and perceptions of university readiness indicators of readiness for engagement?

Current knowledge of university engagement consistently validates the importance of reciprocity, collaborative goal setting, and suggests the need to apply research methodologies that are reflective of this philosophy. The complexity of community and university leadership issues made this study particularly conducive to a mixed methods research design that fostered discovery and exploration, and allowed for validation of a convergence of leadership, social science, and higher education theories and research results. The research questions, sample, data collection, instrumentation, and data analysis that guided this study are outlined in this chapter.

Research Design Using Mixed Methodology

This study employs a mixed methods design. A mixed methods design (Creswell, 2008) has been defined as:

The collection of analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study in which the data are collected concurrently or sequentially, are given a priority, and involves the integration of the data at one or more stages of the process of research. (p. 18)

To best address the needs of community partners in this investigation, the research design reflects sequential phasing with the qualitative methodology being the priority in sequencing (Creswell, 2008). Data collection was conducted in two phases that included face to face interviews in the first phase, followed by on-line and paper surveys in the second phase. Table 3 reflects the sequencing and instrumentation of the two phases.

Table 3. Phases of Research

Research Phases	Methodology	Instrumentation	Time
Phase I	Qualitative	Face to Face Interviews (CEQ)	March 2010
Phase II	Quantitative	Pilot Surveys (CES, ORS)	April 2010

An integration of the data from both qualitative and quantitative phases occurred as a part of the data analysis. The analysis of the qualitative data influenced the quantitative instrumentation and data collection. Beginning with the qualitative investigation provided the flexibility needed to allow for changes in the methodology that framed survey questions to better address the needs of the researcher and the research engagement partners.

The framework for this research was amenable to the expertise and experiences of the community partners. The researcher believes participants would use this reflective process as formative research in as much as it would build the human capital and capacity of community organizations for future partnerships.

Phase I solicited the response of community organization formal leaders on both the indicators of readiness for engagement of their respective organizations, and the perceived roles and expectations of the land grant university with whom they partnered. Phase II established the reliability of the two survey instruments. The Community Engagement Survey (CES) examines individual perspective on social capital and civic engagement. The Organizational Readiness Survey (ORS) examines the organizational

readiness for civic engagement. The research explored the reliability of selected indicators of readiness for engagement in community university partnerships, identified potential significant correlations for further study, and reflected on prior knowledge and research addressing community partnerships between community organizations and land-grant universities to enhance civic engagement (Creighton, 2006; Grasby et al., 2005; Lott & Chazdon, 2008).

Hypothesis

The literature suggests that the indicators of community readiness for engagement include:

- Leader perceptions of trust
- Leaders perceptions of collective efficacy
- Leadership energy
- Leaders' perception of university readiness.

These all lead to organizational readiness for authentic and sustainable engagement. This researcher would suggest the following hypothesis. Community leaders perceive that intervening variables of trust, a sense of collective efficacy, leadership energy and a perceived sense of university readiness lead to authentic engagement. The study further hypothesized that Community Engagement Survey and Organizational Readiness Survey are reliable instruments that can be used to confirm the findings of the qualitative data in this study.

Community Leaders as a Sample

This research was conducted with partners of Universities labeled A and B for the purposes of confidentiality. Universities A and B are members of a state system of public higher education institutions. They are the only land-grant designated and funded institutions within the system and North Carolina. Their system has a long history of responsiveness to the public. In 2007, the system completed a civically engaged strategic plan to direct the work of its institutions. Both institutions planned intentional responses to the larger system effort to engage more effectively with the state's communities.

University A is located in a metropolitan statistical area with a population of 705,684 that has experienced a decade of transitioning economic development and sustained population growth (U.S. Census, 2008). The community serves as the home to eight public and private institutions of higher education. Founded as a historically black institution and 1890 land grant university, it enrolls approximately 10,388 students and has 761 faculty members. The university awards bachelors, masters, and doctorate degrees and is ranked by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching as a Research I institution (2009). It has a long history of community extension, outreach and engagement. Community partners for this university include faith-based organizations and non-profits in rural communities within the state. Sample participants were engaged in the institution's civic engagement initiatives between 2007 and 2009.

University B is located in a metropolitan statistical area with a population of 1,088,765. This region has experienced two decades of substantial economic and population growth. The community is the home of seven public and private institutions

of higher education. Founded as a land grant, it enrolls 30,998 students and employs 2,132 faculty members. The university awards bachelors, masters, and doctorate degrees and also has a long history of community extension, outreach and engagement. It has been ranked by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching as a Research Intensive institution and distinguished by the voluntary Community Engagement designations (2006). Community partners for this university include urban business, governmental, non-profit, and student organizations within the state which participated in the University's faculty engagement incentives program between 2007 and 2009.

A purposeful sample was developed from University A and B's selected databases of community partnerships spanning 2006-2009. The sample community organizations and their executive directors or leaders had experiences as a partner with at least one of the two universities. The criterion for indentifying selected organizations included diversity of size, location, organizational structure, and socio-economic makeup. Organizational leaders were invited to be research partners and help define the data to be gathered (Appendix A). Initially 50 programs were invited to ensure a sufficient number of participants and account for attrition. Leaders in the identified community organizations served as the sample to participate in both phases. Eight participants were selected to participate in face to face interviews. The entire sample in this phase was asked to complete the instrumentation piloted in Phase II. The pilot sample was made up of 45 non-profit and faith-based organization leaders located in urban and rural communities.

Instrumentation

This study included qualitative and quantitative instrumentation built on the foundational literature noted in Chapter 2. The qualitative approaches to readiness by Creighton (2006) and Lott and Chazdon (2008) contributed to the semi-structured interview instruments, while the quantitative research was built on Robert Putnam's (2000) work, further developed by Mattessich et al. (1997), Onyx and Bullen (2000), and Toms et al. (2008). This literature provided a framework for the survey instrumentation used in Phase II of this research.

Qualitative Inquiry

The first phase of the research used a series of semi-structured interview questions in the "Community Expectations Questionnaire" (CEQ) (Appendix C) for the purpose of identifying the indicators of readiness for engagement, mission compatibility, and expectations of partners. The CEQ included four open-ended questions built on the work of Toms et al. (2008) and Creighton (2008), and solicited the leaders' perceptions on (a) effective community university engagement, (b) expectations of their university partners, and (c) organizational readiness to meet partner expectations. It then focused on enlisting the indigenous expertise needed to develop and implement Phase II. Questions of criteria for effective engagement included in the qualitative instrumentation have been adapted from the Creighton (2008) research, and included in the on-going work with faith-based and community-based organizations in North Carolina (Toms et al., 2008). The CEQ

addressed four areas of inquiry, allowing leaders to contribute information freely.

Leaders were asked to describe:

1. How the partnership was helpful to the community organization
2. Levels of preparedness on the part of the university for engagement
3. Expectations of the university partners
4. Recommendations for improving the reliability and validity of the quantitative surveys.

These items were used in face to face interviews with eight leaders of partnering community organizations.

Quantitative Inquiry

Phase II of the research used paper and electronic survey instrumentation for participant responses. Participants were asked to rate their perceptions by selecting one of five options on a Likert scale ranging from “strongly agree to strongly disagree,” and in the next sections from “very often to never.” Survey questions were phrased from a positive perspective with “strongly agree” or “very often” being the first option available. The data were collected in two instruments: The “Organizational Readiness Survey” (ORS) and the “Community Engagement Survey” (CES). Both instruments collected demographic data from university A and B partners that included: (a) gender, (b) race/ethnicity, (c) organizational role, (d) education, (e) physical location in the state, and (e) tenure of affiliation with organization. These data were coded in the following manner: gender (1=female, 2=male); race (1=African American, 2=White, 3=Latino,

4=American Indian, 5=Asian, 6=others); organizational role (1=Director, 2=Board Member, 3=Staff, 4=Volunteer, 5=others); Education level (1=High school completion, 2=some college, 3=Bachelors of Science, Bachelors of Art, 4=graduate school); and County of residence (1=Craven, 2=Durham, 3=Edgecombe, 4=Granville, 5=Greene, 6=Lee, 7=Lenoir, 8=Pitt, 9=Wake, 10=Other).

The quantitative surveys in Phase II tested reliability and validity of the instruments in predicting readiness for engagement by individuals and organizations. The 29-item Likert scale that made up the CES instrument consisted of seven sections that addressed the following variables on the individual level: community involvement, addressed by questions 1-5; social agency, addressed by questions 6-10; trust, addressed in questions 11-14; neighborhood connection, addressed in 15-17; family and friend connections, addressed in 18-19; and value of life, addressed by questions 20 and 21. The Likert scale offered response options of “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree,” followed by demographics data for the participants. These variables respond to the factors predictive of social capital in the literature. Onyx and Bullen (2000) determined that there were eight measures resulting from the initial civic engagement work of Coleman (1988) and Putnam (2000) that made a significant contribution to the measurement of social capital, to the extent that their reliability has been reported using Cronbach’s alpha as .84 (Onyx & Bullen, 2000). Items in the instrumentation related to these factors were adapted from the Onyx and Bullen (2000) instrument.

The ORS offered data for analysis on organizational readiness. Organizational readiness is reflected in factors of leadership energy, collective efficacy, and trust as with

the CES, demographic data were requested of the respondents. These variables were measured by a 37-item Likert scale adapted from Lott and Chazdon (2008) and Toms et al. (2008). Measures reflect the continuing research on indicators of successful partnerships from the CEN/LEEP assessments for which reliability and validity were being established (Toms et al., 2008). The instrument's first six items assessed community capacity to build bonding and bridging networks, followed by six items that assessed the ability of the organization to develop linking networks that reflect the attitudes towards collective efficacy. Six additional items in this section of the survey assessed the perceptions of leadership energy that existed within the organization. The literature reports these as constructs of community readiness for engagement (Lott & Chazdon, 2008). This survey asked that the participants respond to a 12-item inquiry into participant perspectives on the effectiveness of the partnership with the university. This survey was conducted to provide data to support the data collected in the Phase I face to face interviews with organizational leaders.

Variables. Two sets of independent variables were measured. The first variables measured demographic attributes. These variables included years of involvement in the community organization or institution, the role the individual plays in the organization, gender, and location of the community organization in an urban or rural community. The second set of independent variables reflected the measures of social capital. Factors of social agency, trust, neighborhood connections, family and friend relations and value of life made up the social capital indicators. The researcher selected questions in the Onyx and Bullen (2000) survey that best measure the independent variables of (a) participation

in the local community, (b) social agency, (c) feelings of trust, (d) neighborhood connections, (e) family and friend connections, and (f) value of life for inclusion in the CES (see Appendix D). The CES reflects in more detail, the statements associated with each of the variables.

The dependent variables were measures of perception of readiness for engagement. They are measured in the ORS instrument through a construct of community readiness that includes perceptions of collective efficacy, linking networks, and leadership energy. The perceptions of readiness by the university partner are also measured by this instrument. Appendix E provides the Organizational Readiness Survey that includes the measures from the work of Lott and Chazdon (2008) and Toms et al. (2008). Reliability had not been established for this instrument.

Data Collection Procedures

Prior to data collection, the researcher requested and received permission to proceed from the North Carolina A&T State University Institutional Research Board (IRB). Confirmation of approval is included in Appendix B. The following plan for data collection and analysis was implemented. The plan addresses Phases I through II of this research.

Phase I. Eight organizational leaders served as the sample for this component of the research. Face-to-face interviews with organizational leaders were conducted between March 2010 and April, 2010. Informants were asked by the researcher to consent to scheduled interviews with an anticipated time requirement of 30-45 minutes.

Interviews were conducted in a location determined convenient by the participants. Each participant was sent an explanation of the study that included the benefits to the university and the community, along with a consent form (see Appendix A).

Participants were asked to serve as research partners with the expectation that they would offer ideas and suggestions for ensuring that the quantitative surveys presented in Phase II contained relevant content. All participants in this phase were asked to complete the instrumentation to be piloted in Phase II. This process provided the necessary content validity for the survey by ensuring that the information included would be beneficial to the researcher and partner. Responses were given alphanumeric codes to ensure confidentiality. The responses from the interviews were digitally recorded, then transcribed and analyzed for common themes. Copies of the surveys used in Phases II were presented to the leaders with an opportunity to suggest changes as needed. This member checking enhanced the reliability and validity of the data. All leaders were also asked to assist by identifying and soliciting participation from other leaders in their organization for Phase II of the research.

Phase II. Phase II employed a survey in paper format and available using the online Survey Monkey™ system of survey distribution. Membership in Survey Monkey™ was provided by the research institution to the researcher. The literature maintains that web-based survey tools are less expensive and encourage quicker responses than paper survey distribution (Fink, 2003).

Phase II piloted the instrument developed and refined with the input of the organizational leaders. Approximately 60 surveys were distributed face-to-face by

community leaders between March 22, 2010 and March 26, 2010. Accessing the instrument through Survey Monkey™ was construed as participant informed consent. Prior to the distribution of the paper copy of the survey for those needing such, community leaders provided all participants with an informed consent form and letter of explanation. The survey in Appendix D was entered into Survey Monkey™ by the researcher. Piloting the survey instrument determined the validity and reliability of measures. The pilot was used to determine potential problems and clarify issues in the instrumentation for use in future research. There was also insight gained concerning potential timing and language barriers.

Data Analysis Procedures

The main purpose of this research was to investigate how certain variables intercorrelate and predict readiness for community-university engagement. The use of qualitative and quantitative methods offered opportunities to access community expertise that provided for broadly based participatory narrative that was critical to shaping a pragmatic process for testing hypotheses and theory as a part of the subsequent quantitative investigation (Creswell, 2008). The use of mixed methods required multiple processes for effectively analyzing the data.

Qualitative analysis. The researcher recorded the interviews using a digital voice recorder and then transcribed the interviews in *Microsoft Word*. After carefully reviewing the transcribed data, summary tables were stored, organized, and coded using *Microsoft Excel*, and *Microsoft Word* to identify key descriptive statistics of the Phase I

data, which then were coded by three volunteer coders using both inductive and deductive approaches to look for themes. These findings were used to inform the quantitative designs of Phase II. Member checking provided another form of content validity for this research.

Quantitative analysis. The researcher used SPSSTM to analyze data from Phase II. The data were coded into SPSS and statistical analyses conducted included the following: (a) descriptive statistics to assess the demographic characteristics and the independent variables, (b) Bivariant correlations of independent and dependent variables, and (c) *t*-tests to identify predictors of measures and indicators of engagement and readiness. Cronbach's alpha reliability analyses were conducted to determine the reliability of the instruments, and to determine which of these variables presented more reliable and valid indicators of readiness for each of the sample populations. Cronbach's Alpha was chosen to establish the level of reliability because it assesses consistency estimates among items to produce a reliable assessment of single and multiple constructs within an instrument. The tool can only be used if the following assumptions are true: (a) every item is equivalent to every other item, (b) errors in measurement between parts are unrelated, and (c) an item's scores are the sum of its true and error scores. These assumptions apply to the data collected in the CES and ORS instruments.

Reliability and Validity

Reliability allows separate researchers to come to similar conclusions based on the same empirical design and reflects the consistency of a set of measurements or

instruments. There are several types of reliability including: inter-rater or inter-observer reliability, test-retest reliability, parallel-forms reliability, internal consistency reliability (Cornell University, 2006).

Phase I and Phase II of this research used the inter-rater reliability methodology. While reliability does not guarantee validity it is a precondition for validity. A reliable measure measures something consistently, but does not necessarily measure what it is supposed to measure (Fink, 2003). Cronbach's alpha scores within a range of .65 to .75 are considered indications of reliability. Scores within the .80 to .90 range often indicate replication or duplication. Validity refers to the ability of an instrument to measure what it is supposed to measure. Types of validity include; construct, content and criterion validity. In this research, the instrumentation was developed to produce content validity when used with larger samples (Fink, 2003).

This sequential mixed method research sought to identify indicators and correlations from the community partner perspective as to questions of community expectations of university engagement, individual and community predictors of readiness for engagement and the implications of social capital and demography on these variables.

CHAPTER 4

Findings

This chapter presents the findings from the sequential mixed methods framework used to address three questions unanswered in the literature about community organizations engaged with Land Grant universities.

- What do community organizations expect from land grant universities as engaged partners?
- What do the community leaders of organizations that partner with Land-Grant universities perceive as indicators of readiness for effective engagement with a university for community organizations and universities?
- From community leaders' perspective of organizational engagement, will intervening variables of trust, sense of collective efficacy, leadership energy and a perception of university readiness lead to authentic engagement?

The methodology used to address these questions was described extensively in Chapter 3 and found basis in the literature reviewed in Chapter 2. This chapter first addresses sample descriptive statistics and distribution results. It reviews the findings of the Community Expectations Questionnaire (CEQ) through qualitative analysis of the data obtained through a semi-structured interview instrument. It also reviews the findings and analyzes the quantitative data collected in the Community Engagement Survey (CES) and Organizational Readiness Survey (ORS) instruments.

Sample Demographics

The sample for this research included 43 participants involved in community university partnerships with University A or University B between 2007 and 2009. Each respondent was identified by a university partner as a member of a leadership team for a specific program or project on which they had collaborated. Respondents were listed as partners on grant proposals, or were verbally identified by the faculty member as an engaged partner within the timeframe noted. Individual respondents self-identified their specific leadership role. Respondents included executive directors, board members, volunteer group leaders and staff members of the organizations identified.

Eight community leaders made up the sample for the qualitative investigation using the CEQ. The selected 43 organizational leaders made up the sample for the quantitative investigations that established reliability for the CES and the ORS.

Demographic composition of a sample contributes to the results of investigations. Educational attainment, race and ethnic background, geographical location, gender, and organizational roles were factors observed in this research.

The mean level of educational attainment in the sample exceeded that of the state of North Carolina, and that of the communities in which the organizations were housed. One hundred percent of the Phase I and II sample had completed high school. All of the participants in Phase I completed some education beyond high school, as compared to 70% of the state's population and a national rate of 75.2%. The Phase I sample was comprised of individuals of whom 50% had obtained professional degrees, and 25% of the sample reported completion of a bachelor's degree. The majority (90.7%) of the

sample in Phase II completed some education beyond high school, and four (9.3%) of the participants denoted high school completion as their highest academic achievement. A total of 18.6% ($n=8$) reported some participation in college, and 37.2% ($n=16$) held a bachelor's degree; 20.9% ($n=9$) were the recipients of professional degrees, and 11.6% reported other responses that most frequently included community college or associate degrees. Table 4 reflects the educational attainment of the sample as compared to 2006 for the state of North Carolina.

Table 4. Educational Attainment Distribution of the Sample

Variable	CEQ		CES & ORS		NC
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	%
High School			4	9.3	26.4
Some College	2	25.0	8	18.6	23.5
College Degree	2	25.0	16	37.2	20.5
Professional Degree	4	50.0	9	20.9	5.9
Other			6	11.6	12.0
Total	8	100.0	43	100.0	

The demographic data revealed a highly significant (.01%) correlation between increased levels of education and the number of years of service (.436). The majority of the study sample (72.1%) was African American as noted in Table 5. Caucasians made up 25.6% of the sample and 2.3% were Hispanic, indicative of a proportional representation of the demographic makeup of North Carolina which is 73.7% Caucasian, 21.6% African American, and 7.7% Hispanic (US Government, 2007). African

Americans made up 75% of the CEQ sample and the remaining 25% was Caucasian as noted in Table 5. Males made up 60.5% of the sample and females constituted 39.5%. Male respondents were significantly (.318) at the .05% level more likely to serve in the highest leadership roles defined as directors and board of directors members.

Table 5. Racial and Ethnic Distribution of Sample

Variable	CEQ		CES & ORS		NC
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	%
African American	6	75.0	31	72.1	21.6
Caucasian	2	25.0	11	25.6	73.7
Hispanic			1	2.3	7.7
Total	8	100.0	43	100.0	

Of the respondents who completed the CEQ, 25% lived in urban communities, while the remaining 75% lived in communities defined as rural. For this study, counties classified by the United States government as core communities in a “combined statistical area” were categorized as urban. Rural counties were defined as those not identified as core in a “combined statistical area” although they may have been a part of a “metropolitan statistical area” (U.S. Government, 2007). This distinction in urbanization was made recognizing the impact of North Carolina’s extensive network of interstate highways on population distribution. Urban designations based on population only frequently contradict community perceptions of rural and urban. Participants and research partners agreed with the designations presented.

Data from the Phase II survey sample revealed that 46% of the population ($n=20$) lived in North Carolina counties classified as urban. Fifty-three and one half percent ($n=23$) lived in communities in rural-identified counties.

The sample included individuals in five self-identified roles within the leadership of the community organizations of directors, board members, staff members, volunteers, or otherwise defined positions. Respondents self reported their roles in the organization for which they were being questioned as follows: program directors (18.6%, $n=8$); board members (48.8%, $n=21$); staff (11.6%, $n=5$); volunteers (14%, $n=6$); and other positions (7%, $n=3$). This is reflected in Figure 1. Individuals selecting other positions included titles such as assistant director. The term of involvement with the organization varied for participants from 1 to 15 years. The average period of participation was 5.2 years with a standard deviation of 3.5.



Figure 1. Roles of Respondents in Phases I and II

The demographic data revealed a highly significant (.01) correlation between increased levels of education and the number of years of service (.436). Male respondents were significantly (.318) at the .05 level more likely to serve in the highest leadership roles defined as directors and board of director members.

Analysis of Community Expectations Questionnaire (CEQ)

In response to the first of the primary research questions “What do community organizations expect from land-grant universities?,” the qualitative survey (CEQ) asked respondents to address four questions. The interview script and correspondence are found in Appendices A and C. Face-to-face, semi-structured interviews were scheduled with the respondents. Responses were transcribed by the researcher. Transcriptions were reviewed and coded by two outside researchers and the author. The themes, selected responses, and reflections of the respondents are reported below by interview item.

Engagement benefits to community. The first interview question stated: “Within the past three years, you and your community organization served as a community partners to University A or University B. How was this partnership helpful to your organization?” Respondents described a spectrum of value placed on the partnership. Some leaders described very specific and tangible methods in which the university had been helpful. A sample of the most prominent responses included descriptions of planning and design assistance for community building projects, college students serving as tutors to secondary students after the school day, grant writing, referrals to other parts of the university, leadership development, and civic engagement

training. One of the interviewees described the framework by which the partnership provided different benefits at different levels and in different phases of this relationship. The respondent insisted that the critical component of the partnership has to exist at the faculty member level even though student and administrator support is also needed:

The partnership requires a unique relationship that must occur at the faculty level. Students pass through the campus and the community. They contribute youthful enthusiasm and energy; however, they are passing through.

Students benefit from the relationship and provide some benefit to the community, but all without consistent levels of permanency. Administrators offer less control over the “on the ground” needs of communities. This is perhaps unique to the university.

Administrators have little control over the immediate response to a community need other than through financial resources. All of the respondents identified at least one key faculty member in the subsequent discussions. Some identified students and only one commented on an individual who would be classified as an administrator. A number of the respondents described the importance of a trusting relationship between peers as key to the organizations finding a place for partnering: “Faculty are the key to engagement and sustainability of the relationships.”

Other participants in the interviews described interpersonal outcomes achieved through the partnerships. Examples of activities that contributed to feelings of trust and empowerment included the invitation to participate in presentations to other university faculty members, the willingness of the faculty members to listen to the concerns and interests of the community, and the consistency in which specific individuals followed

through on their commitments to the community. One interviewee described the initial meeting with the university partner as one in which she believed she had neither the experience nor the capacity to be a leader. However hers became a positive experience as the partnership developed, leading to future challenges and opportunities. The person described her attitude at the time of this interview as dramatically different: “I got so much more than I expected. I felt empowered. Able to do far more than I ever dreamed.”

Interviewees reported the partnerships built the confidence of their members, professors and students. Another respondent described the work of a particular faculty member and its impact on the organization: “Dr. _____ connected us to seminars that helped our members to grow. We all grew.” Rural respondents all identified growth and development opportunities for the leader and followers in their organizations as an outcome. One respondent described the opportunity to share in the presentation of the research to another university as transforming and empowering. Discussions of learning and growing as a collaborative process were reflected in a number of interviews. Leaders denoted the realization that faculty and students learned and developed in the partnership as much as community members. This exchange of experiences and knowledge in these partnerships reflect a willingness by community members to articulate their needs and the perception by leaders that faculty and students also better articulated their needs.

A synthesis of the responses to this question from these respondents would suggest that the benefits included a trusting relationship, opportunities to grow and learn technical expertise, the development of individual and collective efficacy, and the

acquisition of technical assistance that met needs beyond the normal means of the organization. Learning as collaborative process is salient to this dialog.

Readiness for engagement. The second interview question explored the university's preparation for engagement. Respondents were asked to respond to the following prompts: "Were the university partners prepared for work in your community?"; "What were the signs of their preparation or lack of preparation?"; and "Are there characteristics that you think are true indicators of preparedness on the part of the university?"

The ability of university faculty to participate as peers in the relationship with the community was noted by a number of interviewees. Consistency and coordination were also noted as descriptors for prepared university partners: "Readiness is dependent on having someone like Dr. _____, who helps to keep everyone focused and then consistently follows through on interest." Several respondents described roles of conveners and coordinators of equal status from the university and community as opposed to the traditional practice of leaders as important to the partnership's success. One respondent noted that the faculty member would commit hours to travel to the community to assist on a regular basis: "This is a real partner."

Respondents noted the importance of the university paying attention to local information and issues. One director noted that successful community projects should be built on community history, and described a community history project that brought the community and university members together. Both recognized the value of an historic school house to all their future work and this common interest developed into trust and

commitment. Another respondent noted that in the strategic planning and community mapping completed for a particular community, neighborhood history was identified as one of the highest priorities for community redevelopment. Community history was then developed as a centerpiece in all their planning and their celebrations.

The leaders interviewed described individuals willing to put themselves in the background to further the cause: “There have to be mature people in both organizations for them to be ready for engagement. That’s a lot to ask in our ‘Me Society.’” The literature describes this as collective efficacy or collective agency. Exploring the authenticity of responses, the researcher asked in one interview if the individual was being polite because of the researcher’s perceived academic connection to the university. The respondent denoted a difference in the relationship that these partners had experienced with the university:

Our partner from the university brought a “spirit of oneness.” He brought himself with a genuine concern about the community. People see that early. There was a sense of genuineness and authenticity.

This led to a more productive relationship that empowered both the faculty member and the community.

One respondent compared the relational preparedness to spirituality. Partnerships are built on unique relationships between individuals in communities and individual faculty members. It was suggested that this exchange could not develop in the macro, organization to organization:

I call this relationship spiritual capital. It's not a religious commodity, but a relational connection that transcends the logical and contractual. It is dependent upon faith in the individuals.

The relationship was described as more than reciprocity, which seemed to this leader the organizational exchange. Individuals create a faith in each other that goes beyond just dependability to perform a task. They trust the others intuitions and they understand each other well enough that they are willing to take risks, accept new relationships and explore opportunities simply on the word of the partner:

If you bring someone or something to me and recommend it, I know that you have my best interest as well as your own in mind and that you would not do anything that would harm me.

Such spiritual capital shared by individuals is critical to building sustainable partnerships between community people and universities. Someone in the university body and the community must create such an interpersonal relationship for sustainable engagement to occur. The respondent insists spiritual capital is critical to readiness. While this respondent articulated the concept as an indicator for readiness succinctly, when it was shared with two other respondents, they agreed emphatically, suggesting that this was true and that the respondent had described the relationship they also felt important to successful engagement. One leader commented:

Yes! Dr. _____ and I can be in our own homes and we think about something at the same time and as soon as we talk we realized we're on the same page and we can move forward.

Passion for the importance of spiritual capital was evident in the comments and body language of these three respondents.

Interviewees also noted the need for commitment and dedicated effort. The university must “pay more than lip service” to the partnerships. Some respondents reflected on past experiences that began with universities making promises to communities that were not brought to fruition because grants or contracts were not realized. One of these respondents noted as a positive difference that in the noted partnership the university partner looked for other ways to complete the plan with the community when one grant was not funded.

The responses to this question can be summarized as identifying five key indicators of preparedness by the University for Community Engagement. The interviewees suggested these as indicators: authentic relationships, attention to local interests and history, mutuality or collaborative intent, and dedicated effort and resource. The construct of spiritual capital represents a key focus in this dialog.

Community expectations of university engagement. The third of the interview questions focused on the expectations of the university: “What were you expecting from the university when you became partners?” and “How were your expectations met?” The complete script of the interview questions can be found in Appendix C.

Leaders suggested that the primary expectation from each of the universities was the involvement of significant numbers of students in their organizations. Many noted that they were pleased to have faculty members as involved as the students. Community members highlighted the enthusiasm and experience of the students who participated in

their projects. Discussions were filled with evidence that community organizations' perceptions of the opportunities available to them from the university were expanded exponentially by their experience in the partnerships.

Leaders reported their organizations needed first to understand what the university had to offer, develop skills, and then begin to identify what was needed. Locating access points or portals for exploration of university resources was noted frequently as a challenge for community leaders. They realized the resource needed existed within the academy, but found it challenging to make the needed contacts for access to that particular resource. Respondents noted that they were not always certain what the university could offer until they became more engaged in the work with specific faculty members and students.

Respondents described the benefit of being a partner to an institution with solvency and name recognition. They expected that the university would bring a reputation that allowed the organization to go to foundations and granting agencies with credible applications. One leader noted:

We expected financial resources that have not come as quickly as we first expected. But we've learned more about planning and we know now that we weren't ready when we started for grants.

Interviewees often described the expectation of technical training and expertise and then noted the importance of program delivery by individuals capable of communicating effectively with lay-people. Leaders denoted the need for the unbiased expertise

provided by the university which allowed them to make better decisions in transactions with private vendors.

Leaders consistently suggested the need for assistance with financial resources. Only one of the leaders did not include finance as an expectation. Notably this respondent represented an organization supported by one of North Carolina's most substantially endowed foundations. Two participants noted that there was an expectation that the university would assist individuals in acquiring continuing education credits and when possible even college course credits in the future. The expectations are summarized as people resources, financial resources, prestige or status, technical expertise, and advice.

Tools for quantitative research. The final question addressed is the development of a reliable and valid tool to assess social capital as a construct impacting community engagement and organizational readiness. The researcher hypothesized that reliable instruments would provide support for the findings of the qualitative instrument, and serve as a foundation for further study of the indicators of organizational readiness for engagement. The question read: "You have reviewed the surveys. Given your experience as a community leader, are the indicators on this survey the best indicators of readiness for community engagement? Are there other ideas or indicators that you believe we need to include in this survey?" Each of the interview respondents agreed that the questions were pertinent to the investigation of readiness. They offered suggestions for wordsmithing that are incorporated in the revised instruments found in Appendices F

and G. The researcher also discovered that all partners preferred the hard copy format of the surveys.

A summary of the themes identified as a result of the CEQ data provided by eight community leaders is shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Themes Identified by Leaders in the CEQ

Question 1	Question 2	Question 3	Question 4
Benefits to Partnering	Indicators of Readiness	Expectations of University	Review of Instruments
Trusting Relationship	Authentic Relationships	Resource And Assistance	Clear Identification of roles
Shared Knowledge	Attention To Local Interest & History	Individual & Collective Education	Expansion of education attainment options
Develop Individual & Collective Efficacy	Mutuality & Collaborative Intent	Human Capital	
	Dedicated Effort & Resource	Prestige And Status	

Quantitative Analysis of CES and ORS

Phase II of the research addressed the reliability and validity of two instruments in measuring readiness and civic engagement from the perspective of community organization leaders. The research questions considered in phase II were: “Is the Community Engagement Survey (CES) a reliable assessment of the social capital needed for civic engagement?” and “From the community leaders’ perspective, are the variables

of trust, collective efficacy, leadership energy, and perceptions of university readiness indicators of readiness for authentic engagement?”

The CES and ORS were constructed and revised by the researcher. The piloted Likert scales were constructed using the findings of Onyx and Bullen (2001), Foster-Fishman et al. (2007), and Toms et al. (2008). Measures of family and friend orientations, social agency, neighborhood connections, trust, and the value of life and community involvement as measures of social capital are hypothesized to have correlations with organizational preparedness for engagement reflected in community and university measures of readiness.

Community Engagement Survey. The CES was administered to 43 individuals described previously in the sample section of this chapter. Six constructs defined by 21 focal items and six demographic items made up the survey. Item analyses were conducted on the items identified as assessing each of the contributing constructs' ability to measure social capital accurately. The construct of community involvement included questions of volunteerism, participation, attendance at local events. The construct of social agency or proactivity in a social context included questions of willingness to engage in activities promoting or producing change and the capacity to identify resources for decision making. The construct of feeling of trust and safety reflected safety and trust perceptions within one's personal space and in outside environments. The neighborhood connections questions engaged participants around communication with neighbors and responses to neighbor needs along with the request of neighbor support for one's personal needs. The family and friend orientation construct asked participants to respond to their

interactions with friends and family members. And finally the construct that measured value of life included questions about one's feelings of value to society and satisfaction with one's accomplishments in life. Thus, measures of trust were combined to create an overall scale, as were the measures of community involvement, social agency, value of life, family and friend orientation, and neighborhood connections.

Initially, each item was correlated with its own scale (with items removed) and with the other items. This prerequisite to the application of Cronbach's alpha analysis allowed the researcher to insure that changes in the instrument for the purpose of increasing reliability would not impact the potential validity and indices of correlation in future use of the instrument.

Highly significant correlations (.01) were found between two specific questions and the combined construct of social agency: Question 4, "In the past 3 years, how often have you taken part in a local community project or working bee?" and question 3, "How often do you attend local organizational meetings or club events?" Both questions are measures of community involvement. Highly significant correlations (.01) were found between question 12, "How often have you in the past six months done a favor for a sick neighbor," and question 21, "If I were to die tomorrow, I would feel satisfied with what I accomplished?" and the combined construct of family and friend orientations.

Significant correlations (.05) were found between other constructs and individual questions (Q). These are reflected in the correlation table found in Appendix H. In support of the measure's validity, items always were more highly correlated with their

own scale than with the other scale. Coefficient alphas were computed to obtain internal consistency estimates of reliability for the scales.

A consistency estimate of reliability was established for the instrument piloted, reflecting a Cronbach's alpha score of .681. Item analysis was conducted multiple (4) times to determine the need to improve the reliability by eliminating specific items. It was determined that removing question number 16: "Do you feel safe when walking down your street after dark?" would potentially increase the reliability as recorded by a Cronbach alpha score of .718. This item did not correlate with any other constructs within the instrument. Therefore, the researcher chose to remove this item from the instrument resulting. Eliminating additional items would not significantly improve the instrument's reliability.

Feedback from the research partners (the eight leaders participating in Phase I) and analysis of the initial correlations suggest the rewording for clarity of six items. Question 26, which denotes educational attainment, will now include an additional choice of "associate degree."

Cronbach's alpha is a psychometric test of internal consistency and reliability. It is most frequently used as a reliability index in social science investigations. Cronbach's alpha coefficients between .60 and .70 are considered acceptable. A Cronbach's alpha score in the highest ranges of reliability .80 and .90 would not be preferable recognizing that it may denote repetition in the assessment of the same construct.

The pilot instrument, while administered to a small sample, offers data for potential investigations using this instrument. The sample responded positively most

frequently to Question 2: “How often have you attended a local community event in the past 6 months?” ($M=4.22$, $SD=.637$); Question 4: “In the past 3 years, how often have you taken part in local community projects or working bees?” ($M=4.06$, $SD=.750$); and Question 6: “When you need information to make a life decision, how often do you know where to find that information?” ($M=4.03$, $SD=.736$). Descriptive statistics for the instruments are found in Appendix J.

Organizational Readiness Survey. The ORS was administered to the same 43 individuals described previously in this chapter. Two constructs made up the Organizational Readiness survey. Items 1 through 19 assessed the leaders’ perception of their organizations readiness for engagement. These items based on the previous research of Lott and Chazdon (2008), and Toms et al. (2008) reflect measures of bonding, bridging and linking capital, and leadership energy, resulting in community perceptions of community readiness. Items 20 through 31 assessed the leaders’ perception of the university’s readiness for the partnership. Item analyses were conducted on the 31 items hypothesized to assess each of the contributing constructs ability to accurately measure readiness. The researcher hypothesized that the ORS was not a reliable and valid instrument for the determination of internal consistency estimates of reliability using Cronbach’s alpha as the tool for analysis. Thus, measures of university readiness for engagement were combined to create an overall scale, as were the measures of community readiness. Initially, each item was correlated with its own scale and with the other scales.

Correlations between benefits from technical assistance and a combined community readiness construct were present at the .05 level. Positive responses to leaders receiving new ideas from outside were significantly (.05) correlated with the construct of perceptions of university readiness.

The estimate of reliability for this instrument as a whole yielded a Cronbach's alpha of .609. After further analysis using bivariate correlations and Cronbach's alpha, the researcher determined that this instrument examined two constructs: university readiness and community readiness such that initial coefficient alphas would be needed to address the reliability of this instrument. Thus, internal consistency estimates of reliability were also established for the two constructs independently.

The coefficient alpha for the community readiness construct was .609. The analysis suggested that removing Question 2, "Members with different backgrounds trust each other" and Question 5, "Community residents are willing to cooperate and work together to solve problems" would increase the reliability as reported by coefficient alpha to .679. Thus the researcher removed items 2 and 5.

The coefficient alpha for the construct of university readiness was .600. Bivariate correlations of individual items and constructs were conducted. There was a highly significant correlation (.465) at the .01 level between Question 26, "The partnership produced applicable research, increasing the knowledge of the partner and university" and Question 29, "community leaders' skills were improved through participation in planning, organizing and implementing activities with partners." Although removing this measure was projected to increase the coefficient alpha to .655, the researcher chose to

leave this item in the survey. The production of useful research is an important concept for both university and community partners. This tenet was reflected in the data analysis of CEQ also. It may provide salient data in future applications for instrument validation. The qualitative data revealed that participation in relevant research with the university was a value to community organizations. Leaders denoted the value of inspiring community members' individual academic aspirations and the perception of organizational prestige resulting from involvement in the research of an institution of higher education as benefits locally and in the grant and contract environments. The researcher removed Question 25, "Students provide labor and expertise that is helpful" from the instrument. The coefficient alpha rose to .655. Item analysis subsequently suggested that removing Question 24, "Office contacts at the university are able to link the needs of your organization and the university" would increase the coefficient alpha to .716. Upon the removal of Question 24, the coefficient alpha moved to .716. Removing Question 30, "Community leaders benefited from the technical assistance, consultation and other skills provided by university partners" would increase the coefficient alpha to .734. However, Question 30, "Benefits from technical assistance" does correlate significantly with other measures of community or university readiness. Thus the researcher retained this item. Correlations are denoted in Appendix I. The Cronbach's alpha was established at .716 and provided an acceptable level of reliability. The proposed construct of university readiness of engagement would be most reliable in addressing this construct with the elimination of Questions 24 and 25 in the university construct while providing for triangulation with CEQ.

Because the same sample was used to conduct the item analysis and assess the coefficient alpha, the reliability estimate is likely to be an overestimation of the population coefficient alpha. The community readiness component of this instrument with revisions has a coefficient alpha of .679, and the university readiness component a coefficient alpha of .716. The instruments with changes are found in appendices F and G.

Cronbach's alpha was established for the complete instrument with the removal of the four questions during the determination of coefficient alphas for the separate constructs (2, 5, 24, and 25). Cronbach's alpha was established at .714 which is an acceptable and reliable level for this instrument. There is no significant correlation at the .01 or .05 level for the items noted as having the greatest potential for improving the coefficient alpha score.

Although the emphasis of the research was to establish reliability for the two instruments, the researcher would be remiss not to identify significant correlations reflected in the data. Given the sample size and intent of this research, it is important to note that the noted correlations offer opportunities for investigation, but are not evidence of valid impacts or causation within this sample or the population. Directors responded significantly more positively to the effectiveness of faculty interaction (.032), and the belief that their leadership skills improved as a result of the university engagement (.002). Directors also responded significantly more positively to the question regarding whether technical assistance was offered by the university in their partnership (.002) than did respondents self identifying as volunteers.

Correlations also exist between individual items within the ORS instrument. Highly significant correlations (.01) exist between Question 30 “Community leaders were offered technical assistance, consultations, and other skills by from the university partner” and two other items: Question 20, “The partnership exists because it serves each respective organization’s mission” (.446), and Question 21, “The partnership added value to the credibility of both organizations” (.405). Three individual items had highly significant correlations with Question 22, “My organization strengthened relationships with other organizations in the community as a result of the affiliation with the university.” Items found to correlate with Question 22 were as follows: Question 27, “University faculty regularly participated in interactions with community leaders through on site visits or conference calls”; Question 28, “Community members had opportunities to talk with an engaged face to face with university members“; and Question 29, “Community leaders’ skills were improved through participation in planning, organizing and implementing activities with partners.”

Significant correlations (.05) exist between the constructs of community engagement measured by the constructs of social capital and the constructs that measure organizational readiness as noted in Table 7. The construct of neighborhood connections was correlated with the construct of community readiness. The construct of community involvement that is an indicator of community engagement is significantly correlated with the construct of university partner readiness.

Demographic implications for consideration were also reflected in the results of bivariate correlation data. Female respondents to the community engagement survey

(CES) responded significantly (.05) more positively on the construct of Feelings of Trust and Safety. African Americans were far more likely (.01) to respond positively to Question 18, “There are issues in this organization that are serious enough to require a community building initiative” (.446). Women were significantly (.05) more likely to respond positively to Question 8, “Leaders encourage members to actively participate in planning and decision making.” There were significant (.05) positive correlations between the years of service to the organization and first, leader perceptions of trust (.318), and then, participation in activities (.375). Appendix J reflects the noted correlations.

Table 7. CES-ORS Construct Correlations

	Participation	Agency	Trust	Neighbors	Family	Community Readiness	University Readiness
Participation	1.00						
Agency	.393**	1.00					
Trust	.199	.334*	1.00				
Neighbors	.185	-.021	.000	1.00			
Family	.196	.245	-.175	.344*	1.00		
Community Readiness	.002	.228	.040	-.010	.000	1.00	
University Readiness	.232	.050	.140	.128	.002	.201	1.00

Note: Participation=CES construct community involvement, Agency=CES construct social agency, Trust=CES construct Feeling of trust and safety, Neighbors=CES construct Neighborhood Connections, Family=CES construct Family and friend orientation, Community=ORS construct community readiness, University=ORS construct University readiness.

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Summary

This chapter described findings of a mixed methods study based on semi-structured interview of Community organization leaders and the surveying of a larger number of community organization members serving in leadership roles. The broad themes identified in all of the responses included the value of, trust, and empowerment and interpersonal relationships. The quantitative data reflects an acceptable level of reliability in the CES and ORS for the measures of social capital needed for community engagement and the measures of organizational readiness.

CHAPTER 5

Conclusions

From inception, this study's purpose was to discover from past community-university partnerships, community leaders' perceptions of prerequisites for the development of community and university engaged partnerships. Face-to-face interviews generated and developed themes that were validated by prior research literature. This data was used to refine instruments designed to assess the implications of leadership, individual and community demographics, and of the construct of social capital on readiness for civic engagement.

Chapter 5 analyzes and draws conclusions based on the data reviewed in the previous chapters and the literature. The chapter, after presenting a summary of findings on the sample demographic, qualitative and quantitative data, frames the discussion and questions for potential investigations. It presents the limitations of the research and further proposes a conceptual framework for collaborative leadership, built on a foundation of spiritual capital, proposed as optimum for the development of sustainable and effective partnerships between land grant universities and their constituent community partners.

There were three fundamental questions addressed in the study of readiness for community-university engagement. First, what do community leaders and organizations perceive as indicators of readiness for an engaged partnership with a land grant university? Secondly, what do community leaders and organizations expect from the

land grant university partners in the relationship? Finally, the research explored and developed reliability for instruments designed to assess indicators of organizational readiness for engagement and the predictors of individual social capital in organizational members. This research created reliable instrumentation to examine to what extent selected variables predict effective engagement between community organizations and land-grant universities.

The study was designed in two phases as a sequential mixed methodology. The first phase used semi structured interviews to address the perceptions of community organizational leaders about readiness and engagement on the part of the university partner and the organization in which they provided leadership. The face-to-face interview data was transcribed by the researcher and coded to identify themes and areas of congruency.

The second phase incorporated the data analyzed in phase one into the development of reliable quantitative instruments presented to organizational leaders in the form of paper documents. The survey data was analyzed using SPSS to determine bivariate correlations, and reliability based on coefficients alphas, and Cronbach's alpha. Revised instruments were developed based on the qualitative findings and the quantitative findings.

Summary of the Findings

Sample demographics. The findings describe the perceptions of community leaders as they relate to civic engagement and community-university partnerships. The

sample ($n=43$), while small, served effectively as a cohort for the inductive examination of the indicators of readiness for engagement. The descriptive analysis of the sample revealed demographic themes for consideration that address educational attainment, race, gender-roles and organizational service time.

Educational attainment within the sample was significantly higher than the population average, with the majority of the sample attaining undergraduate or professional degrees. This finding supports the literature which consistently reports positive correlations between educational attainment and civic participation. Oliver (1984) reports that the higher the educational attainment of an organization's members, the more likely they are to be active members of the organization as opposed to token members. Studies validated that this correlation is consistent across American racial and ethnic lines (Verba, 1993). Respondents with a Bachelor's degree or higher showed the highest average score across all categories of political activity with numerous studies, including the seminal work of Putnam (2001) demonstrating that higher levels of education are strongly associated with civic behaviors. Education by far was the strongest correlate of civic engagement in all its forms, and researchers have suggested a causal effect among education, social networks, and political action as reflected in the work of Emler (1999) and Putnam (2001). See Figure 2 for Emler's (1999) Model of Education-Civic Engagement Relationship.

Educational attainment in this sample presents itself as a potential mediating factor in years of service also. Although the average numbers of years of service to the

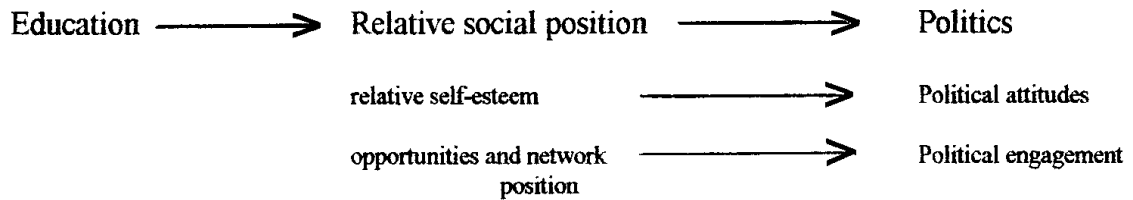


Figure 2. Emler Model of Education-Civic Engagement Relationship

organization discussed by the leaders was 5.2, correlations between years of service and educational attainment were highly significant (.01) in the quantitative analysis.

Education has also been identified as one of the prerequisites to leadership and is most prominently identified in the African American community as an index for leader selection (Bunche & Holloway, 2005). It significantly impacts the individual's ability to communicate effectively, thus potentially increasing the participant responsiveness to the Phase I interviews and subsequently impacting the questions and responses in all components of this research.

The majority of the study sample was African American (72.1%). While disproportionate to the demographic makeup of the population, it does respond to a recognized need for universities to better serve and communicate with minority communities that often make up the communities of place in which the universities are frequently housed. The relationship between minority communities and universities has presented challenges to both institutions (Bringle & Hatcher, 2002; Maurrasse, 2002; White, 2009).

Although the quantitative sample size was not significant for the purpose of establishing the immediate validity of the subsequent quantitative instruments, demographic patterns emerged that warrant further empirical investigation. Males make up the majority of the sample in the most prominent and formal roles as leaders. Females in this research responded significantly more positively on the constructs measuring trust. While Robert Putnam (2000) reported that females are more socially trusting and civically active, Woods' (1981) research on sex differences in leadership reaffirms the propensity for female leaders to excel on tasks requiring social engagement.

CEQ Findings

A synthesis of the qualitative responses would suggest that community leaders found specific benefit to the partnerships with universities, could articulate the tenets of readiness on the part of the university and community for engagement, and portrayed the relationships and partnerships examined as positive, authentic and responsive to community needs. Table 8 summarizes the themes identified in the data. A synopsis of the value placed on the partnerships by community leaders reflected that the benefits included: (a) a trusting relationship, (b) opportunities to grow, learn, and acquire technical expertise, and (c) the development of individual and collective efficacy. Readiness for such a partnership required partners be prepared for: (a) the development of authentic relationships, (b) the appreciation of and attention to local interest and history, (c) mutuality or collaborative intent, and (d) dedicated effort and resources.

Table 8. Summary of Qualitative Themes

Benefits to Partnering	Indicators of Readiness	Expectations of University	Review of Instruments
Trusting Relationship	Authentic Relationships	Resource And Assistance	Identification of roles
Shared Knowledge	Attention To Local Interest & History	Individual & Collective Education	
Develop Individual & Collective Efficacy	Mutuality & Collaborative Intent	Human Capital	
	Dedicated Effort & Resource	Prestige And Status	

A closer look suggests salient conceptualizations that may influence both partners. Discussions of trust and authenticity were reflected in the responses to many of the questions asked of interviewees. The leaders describe a need for “spiritual capital” which is supported by the research of Bringle and Hatcher (2002) who surmised that the nature of campus community partnerships can be analogous to interpersonal relationships illustrating how psychological theories and constructs from both friendships and romantic relationships are useful in understanding the micro and macro aspects of campus-community partnerships. They conclude that the transformation from each party assessing individual outcomes, to interdependency that results in an appraisal of joint outcomes is an important sign of growth and maturity in the individual and the organization.

Leaders identified expectations that the university would provide opportunities to gain (a) financial resource and assistance, (b) education and technical assistance for the individuals and the organization, (c) human capital that included students, faculty, administrators and new partners, and finally (d) a level of prestige and elevated status for

the organization resulting from the relationship with the university. These expectations are similar to those identified by other researchers. Leiderman et al. (2002) report the following expectations: raised expectations and exposure of community residents, increased capacity to address issues as the systemic and structural level, access to administrators, faculty and students, expansion of the community organizations resource base through grants and personnel cost savings.

CES and ORS Findings

An analysis of the quantitative responses to the Community Engagement Survey and Organizational Readiness survey would suggest that both instruments have acceptable levels of reliability as resulting in Cronbach's alpha scores of .718 and .714, respectively. Correlations between measures of neighborhood connectivity on the Community Engagement Survey (CES) and measures of community readiness on the Organizational Readiness Survey (ORS), when viewed with correlations between measures of community involvement on the CES and the construct of university readiness on the ORS, would suggest possible relationships between individual perceptions of social capital and perceptions of organizational readiness for engagement. These initial correlations are supported by the finding that individuals who viewed their relationships with university faculty as responsive and frequent, were significantly more likely to believe their organization's relationship with others to be strengthened by the university partnership. The quantitative findings draw consistent parallels with the qualitative data, suggesting the community leader's preference for and valuing of

interpersonal relationships as the foundation and framework for engaged organizational partnerships.

Implications

The results of this research exhibited a different and perhaps new age perspective of engaged partnerships needed for community and university success. Much has been written of the university perspective on successful engagement and its prerequisites. From the Kellogg Commission's seven-part test began a discussion that has proceeded in the academy for now decades (APLU, 1999). What are the indicators of a successful community university partnership? Scholars would suggest a defined partnership that works two ways, mutually agreed upon goals and expectations, clarity of leadership, decision making and communication, sustained commitment and shared roles for implementation (Holland et al., 2003). Yet, universities consistently struggle with the development of such successful partnerships as noted by Byron White and the Kettering Foundation (2009). Communities continue to believe that in the final assessment, institutional priorities are likely to overshadow the community's priorities even when all of the indicators of engagement are present. Communities view their engagement with institutions in both macro and micro level terms. At the macro level, institutions dominate and appear overwhelming to vulnerable communities. When the community engages the institution at this level, it tends to employ confrontational methods of social power. Yet at the micro level, within the context of a specific relationship, they see opportunities for personal interaction. It is at this level that relational social power offers

opportunities for both partners to employ interpersonal persuasion and influence relationships.

Perhaps we've been asking the wrong questions of the wrong people. This study asks of community leaders their perceptions of the prerequisites to effective partnerships. This emphasis and the resulting discussions framed partnerships by focusing most intently on the relational capacity for leadership, rather than the direction or interest of a "leader." Across the data, discussions of formal leaders were conspicuously absent and the importance of interpersonal relationships consistently permeates the discussion as critical to the development of organizational partnerships.

These findings suggest that community leaders know that the uniquely critical components needed for organizational readiness include interpersonal spiritual capital, and the capacity to learn in public. These components flourish in an environment of generatively dynamic leadership. While technical and financial or resource soundness are necessary, these are insufficient conditions for sustainable engagement. Educational attainment, gender and role perceptions are potential mediating factors in the development of responsive forms of leadership for community-university partnerships.

The nature of these partnerships is grounded in what researchers have described as relational context and relational social power. This relational capacity is based on fostering a positive working climate, developing a shared vision, and promoting power sharing. The characteristics and outcomes of these partnerships for civic engagement depend on a number of factors including: prior relationships, motivation, trust, the ability of the partner to serve as a leader, and even the management of competing institutional

demands. Partnerships that emerge from such an orientation are better equipped to achieve targeted outcomes and sustain community support. Ferman (2004) offers salient words that reflect profoundly on the relationship expectations: “Just as all politics is [sic] local, all partnerships are personal.” These roles are dependent on relational context, rather than disciplinary content, to enhance social capital and thereby foster innovation and intentional engagement. Individual social capital and collective efficacy is required by all involved to support the strongest predictors of engagement: trust, social agency, value of life, neighborhood connections, family and friend connections, tolerance of diversity, work connections, and participation in community (Bullen & Onyx, 2005). The seminal frameworks for outreach and engagement with communities for land grant universities suggest that three critical elements must be in place: purpose, process and outcomes (Driscoll & Lynton, 1999). This research proposes that relationships are the foundation for the frameworks and reaffirms the premise of Fukuyama that trust lowers transactional cost in partnerships between communities and universities.

Perhaps the signature lesson of this study amplifies the need to explore more extensively the importance (tacit power) of individual relationships to organizational partnerships described as spiritual capital. Respondents suggest the initial creation of a shared vision, reciprocity and trust as contributors to engaged partnerships with catalytic effects on organizational effectiveness. This exchange cannot be built organization to organization, but lies in the interpersonal relationships between leaders. Not a religious construct, but a relational connection that transcends the logical and contractual, dependent upon faith in the individuals. It lies in the relational engagement among and

between partners that permits individuals to develop a degree of faith in each other that goes beyond just dependability to perform a task. Leaders in such partnerships mutually allow for the acceptance of risk that accompanies the establishment of new relationships and innovations. Spiritual capital shared by individuals is critical to building sustainable partnerships between community people and universities.

This capital can and does evolve into social capital, which becomes the foundation necessary for effective community partnerships. What makes spiritual capital different from social capital? The intimacy and familial commitment attached to spiritual capital suggest sustained commitment and a willingness to learn and take risks together for the long term. Flora (2007) suggests that social capital involves close ties that build cohesion within a community, and weak, broad ties that create and maintain bridges among organizations and communities. The construct of spiritual capital creates these strong interpersonal ties between members of different communities that allow for organizational partnerships that are sustainable. Different from Cohen and Pursaks' (2001) thesis that social capital is often the result of hierarchical sources of authority, pursuing norms for irrational reasons, spiritual capital is nonhierarchical and creates as it develops rational and mutually supportive outcomes. The research of Weerts and Sandmann (2008) suggests the importance of organizational members they describe as "boundary spanners who link their organization with the external environment" (2008, p. 193). This research would denote that community leaders perceive that readiness for sustained engagement is dependent upon the level of spiritual capital developed between these "boundary spanners."

Bullen and Onyx (2001) denote in their studies of social capital that semi-legal contractual agreements implying immediate reciprocity had little influence on the social networks of communities; yet the expectation of reciprocity in the generic form was significantly correlated with higher levels of social capital. This gives foundation to numerous other scholars' findings suggesting mutuality and collaborative intention as salient to effective engagement (Brukardt, Holland, Percy, & Zimpher, 2004; Foster-Fishman et al., 2001; Lasker, 2001; LeGates, 1998; McDowell, 2003; Weerts & Sandmann, 2008). The seminal work of the Kellogg Foundation on the future of universities identified reciprocity as one of its seven tests of engagement for universities. The finding of this study suggest that spiritual capital, more refined than the "tit for tat" perception of reciprocity, represents a long standing obligatory response built on the micro or individual relationship, not the macro or organizational agreement.

Failure to create this relational capital ultimately impacts resource distribution and quality of life for the community organization and its individual constituents. Fukuyama (1999) suggests that social capital is facilitated by trust, and where high levels of trust exist in a community, new and varied social relationships emerge. In communities that lack trust, relationships and cooperation occur only through rules and regulations. Communities, according to Fukuyama, attract social capital through their capital resources, i.e. funding, staffing and responsiveness to political intuitions and ability to address social problems. This research proposes, based on the findings that successful relationships between university and community partners are due to the authenticity of the interpersonal relationships built. The researcher suggests that another perspective to

be considered in future research would be the venerable “chicken or the egg question.” Do the leaders in these organizations perceive the authentic relationships developed with the university resulted because they first developed external social capital with the university stakeholder, or because they first developed internal social capital within their own community?

Goodman et al. (1998) suggest that by networking the resources and expertise of community organizations, communities also maximize their power and influence with other institutions. The perceived or real imbalance of power and resources often challenge partnering communities and universities in practicing the leadership needed for sustainable relationships. This challenge has implications for interpersonal and inter-organizational partnering in an environment driven by globalization and technology. These authors and others suggest that we live in a new-age economy and society where knowledge, knowledge production, and innovation are highly valued commodities. This new age economy has resulted in communities and universities seldom if ever in possession of all the resources needed, thus partnerships are critical. This environmental reality is the predisposition for the next significant finding resulting from this investigation.

The second significant lesson learned suggests the need to respond to the complex and dynamic environment in which both community organizations and universities must perform. Respondents identified the ability to learn from the university partner, and the perception that the partner also learned from the community, as both enlightening and empowering. The valuing of both university knowledge and community wisdom

provided a catalytic effect on the individual and organizational relationship. This dynamic process of openly acknowledging experiences, expertise and deficiency for the expressed purpose of collaborative learning is described as the capacity to learn in public. Baum recognizes and describes the university role in this learning process as the need to “act to learn” (Baum, 2000, p. 242). Without this commitment to learning in public, the university and the community fail to achieve the developmental logic needed to progress in a dynamic environment to more substantive agendas.

Successfully negotiating the waters of a new knowledge driven economy served as a catalyst for both institutions to develop the capacity to collaboratively create and innovate. This new paradigm for knowledge flow requires that institutions, communities and individuals become far more adept at a process described as “learning in public (LIP)” (Toms, LeMay-Lloyd, Carter-Edwards, & Ellison, 2010). Toms et al. (2008) note that LIP includes the history of engagement, the nature of local protocol (overt/tacit), the psycho-cultural context, types of intentional collaborations, communication skills, understanding metrics of engagement and the capacity to plan, develop and innovate. Learning in public, then, is the evolution towards social learning that is specialized, complex and dynamic, requiring the reciprocal contribution of expertise and experience from every stakeholder. However, in order for this process to occur, there needs to be the common predisposition that each entity is a valuable and equitable source of expertise in the realms of knowledge, skills, and abilities. This construct diverges from the historical and traditional notions of expertise and power located with authority and the professionally educated. It requires that all partners view others as legitimate, capable

and experienced, and be willing to acknowledge both strengths and weaknesses publicly. So, in this new knowledge economy, the university becomes a partner, community member and co-learner, sharing leadership and followership emphasizing a shift away from an expert model of delivering university knowledge to the public and towards a more collaborative model supported by the literature, in which community partners play a significant role in creating and sharing knowledge to the mutual benefit of institutions and society (Bruskardt et al., 2004; Ferman, 2004; Weerts & Sandmann, 2008). Both community and university experience a paradigm shift that reflects the “boundary spanning” framework of Mattessich et al. (1997), moving from enclaves of institutional knowledge and creativity to a cultural habit of institutional and non-institutional knowledge and innovation.

The exploration of readiness for community-university engagement has only been examined in only a limited manner. The Community Engagement Survey and Organizational Readiness Survey were developed in this research with acceptable levels of reliability established. This offers the field a foundation from which to produce empirical evidence of the implications of social capital on engagement with universities. Findings from the initial pilot of the instruments are substantiated by the findings in this study’s community engagement questionnaire and the literature. The data replicates the findings of Putnam (2000), Onyx and Bullen (2005), and Lott and Chazdon (2008). The Organizational Readiness Survey is substantiated as reliable instrumentation for the measure of both community and university readiness for engagement, thus offering a foundation for the further exploration of the foundation of sustainable partnerships and

enhanced civic engagement by community organizations and institutions of higher education.

Limitations

Sample size, selection and time were limitations in this research. The perceptions and strength of the indicators of readiness for engagement and social capital were determined by a purposeful sample reflective of community organizations and leaders reporting primarily successful experiences with land grant universities. Thus, the analysis reflects the positively skewed responses of this population. The sample size offered salient qualitative findings, but limits the assumptions and conclusions that can be drawn from the quantitative findings. The sample of 43 North Carolina community leaders, intentionally selected, limits the conclusions that could be made about organizations partnering with universities other than land grant institutions and further limits the ability to draw conclusions about universities outside of North Carolina. The sample was also not representative of North Carolina's racial makeup or educational achievement.

Direction for Future Study

In as much as this research is a pilot study exploring the indicators of readiness for engagement, the implementation of the CEQ, CES, and ORS to a larger and more diverse sample would achieve statistical validation of the quantitative findings and offer

salient new findings for consideration and further hypothesis. Replication of the qualitative instrument would also increase the validity of the responses and reliability of the instrument in the collection and analysis of leader perceptions of readiness. Expanding the study to include other land grant universities in the United States would also validate instruments and offer additional perspectives on both the leader's perceptions of readiness and engagement and the implications of the demographic dynamics on the findings. Engagement is not the opuses of just land grant universities. Research suggests there are significant differences in the culture and infrastructure of land-grant universities and urban universities that impact the design and outcomes of community engagement on the respective campuses (Weerts & Sandmann, 2008). Expanding this study to include a more diverse set of higher education institutions would offer a broader foundation from which conclusions could be drawn about community leaders, community organizations, and higher education.

Central to these concerns is the question, "In what ways can partnerships between universities and communities be enhanced to empower both parties to learn, grow, and develop innovative processes reflective of a society and world in a 'knowledge' era?" Schon (1995) describes this value added wisdom as "knowing-in-action."

Leaders also described a need for generative dynamic leadership. The clear recognition that partnerships with the university required a collection of participants and that administrative leadership could not address the needs of the community reflects the theoretical postulates of Uih Bien (2007). Community leaders recognized that administrative authority was not capable of producing outcomes alone, but that the

collective agency of all involved is capable of achieving such outcomes. Leaders identified in their organizations individual and collective transformations of agency while also recognizing increased efficacy within the university partners with whom they were engaged. Leaders noted the transition from micro to macro perspectives. This suggests constructs of both emerging and foundational frameworks for leadership.

Retrospectively, Justin Morrill, in his vision of the “land-grant” university, perceived an institution that not only collaboratively created new applicable knowledge, but also built the intellectual capacity of citizens to engage in the new nation’s participatory democracy. Nearly a century later, Ella Baker framed in the young African American community, the application of this theory of participatory democracy through the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC). More recently leadership scholars have proposed integrative and complexity leadership theories that also affirm the need for multiple perspectives, skills, talents, expertise and experiences for successful navigation of twenty-first century community challenges (Drath et al., 2008; Uhl-Bien et al., 2007). There is importance attached to translating such respect into democratic structures such as shared control, procedures, joint communication. This generative process confers leadership authority collectively on all stakeholders to contribute their talents and skills to the process. There is an inference that collaboration is productive, worth the effort, and serves the interest of all involved.

Future examinations conducted in larger population samples offer opportunities for validating these hypotheses for future examination of the impacts of gender, education, race and ethnicity, and years of service on a number of variables including,

roles and community perception of effective engagement and readiness. Although the demographic data offers interesting questions for consideration, the researcher cautions readers that while correlations exist, the researcher is not implying causation. This may have implications for consideration as to the individuals selected by communities to serve as leaders in their organizations, and implications as to the educational level of individuals selected by university partners for collaboration. One would question what impact a more pronounced female perspective or a less formally educated sample might have on first, the creation of validity for each of the instruments, and secondly on the partnerships generally? The research reports consistently the effectiveness of gender defined leadership styles dependent upon a group's task and function. Woods (1981) argues based on her meta-analysis of sex differences in group performance, that women's distinctive style of social interaction facilitates group performance at tasks requiring positive social activity such as cooperation, but lacked the same level of effectiveness in facilitative types of task. The investigation precipitated by the work of Putnam (2000) and validated by numerous other researchers reports that women are more socially trusting and civically active. It further supports the correlations between educational attainment and engagement. Rosenthal (1998) denotes that women cited civic engagement and community involvement as having the greatest impact on their ability to work collaboratively in roles in political leadership. Further research is also needed on the implications of gender, race and ethnicity on perceptions of readiness for engagement.

Leaders highlighted the importance of two constructs to the development of partners who would be prepared for sustainable experiences in civic engagement. They

described these constructs as spiritual capital and the ability to learn in public. The researcher would suggest, as noted in Figure 3, that these attributes of readiness for engagement transcend and infuse the need for community and university partners to possess the most frequently discussed attributes of social, financial and human capital. As newly explored constructs, these provide opportunities for extensive study. The constructs of spiritual capital and learning in public require both definition and the exploration of measurement from multidisciplinary lens.



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Figure 3. Framework for Leader & Organizational Readiness for Engagement

Is this notion of spiritual capital a manifestation of a predominately African American sample? Challenges to the construct of trust in African American populations are evident across the literature and reflected in the empirical data of the Saratoga Institution (Putnam, 2000; Putnam et al., 2004). Would this emphasis on relational capacity be significant in a sample more reflective of Caucasian populations?

Summary

Community leaders would suggest that there are prerequisites to the successful application of theories of community-university engagement. Although extensive research has suggested the importance of such prerequisites as human, financial, and social capital, this research suggests there are implications of the acquisition by both community partners and university partners of spiritual capital and the development of capacity to learn in public for successful engagement. Based on this research, readiness when defined by spiritual capital and the propensity to learn in public for successful engagement, community and university partners is a mediating factor in successful engagement when the necessary capitals are available to support the immediate programs and projects of the two organizations.

The engaged partnership between community organizations and universities is a participatory, developmental process that ameliorates the relational injustices of power and privilege and results in growth and increased capacity in all the partners. Byron White (2009) argues that institutional leaders (political and academic) initiate partnerships with intentions of including community leaders in decision making and

design; however, often times there is difficulty in managing the differences between the academy and community's notions of power and strategies for ameliorating that power. The researcher argues that without citizen input into strategic planning with authentic authority, the process is futile. Depending on the differences among partnering entities and their approach, the imbalance in terms of the power, interest, and agenda results in a coercive or unidirectional course for the partnerships.

Although a number of factors impact institution's engagement, the capacity to develop trusting authentic relationships between university faculty members and community members is critical in communities that have few individual or communal trusting relationships with agencies and institution. This was evidenced in this research. Furthermore, it requires a new paradigm, where the spiritually-centered interpersonal relationships are a primary component of the decision-making in partnerships. The researcher would suggest that although the research as supported correlations between individual leadership capacity and social capital; organizations are more likely to develop sustainable partnerships when spiritual capital has been developed in an environment that facilitates learning in public. Although physical including fiscal capital is important to program and project development; sustainability is more frequently possible in an environment when interpersonal relationships have been the catalyst for organizational partnering.

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APPENDIX A

Letter of Request

ADDRESS

(Date)

Dear _____

Building strong partnerships between our universities and community organizations benefits both the university and the community. This is only possible if both are prepared to be the very best partner possible. This study will result in a community perspective on the characteristics of a community organization that is ready to partner with a land grant university as well as the characteristics of a university that denote readiness for partnering with a community.

I am a graduate student at North Carolina A&T State University and I am conducting this research project as a part of completing the doctorate degree and most importantly to better understand how universities and community organizations can better partner. I would like your help in answering two questions. I am inviting you as an organizational leader to become one of my research partners, helping determine if other questions related to the area are needed.

The research questions being considered:

What do community leaders and organizations perceive as indicators of readiness for an engaged partnerships with a land grant university?

What do community leaders and organizations expect from the land grant university partners in the relationship?

You will be asked to agree to participation in a 30-45 minute interview using the questions and surveys included with this letter. Your transcribed response will be returned to you as a partner for review and checking for accuracy. Your responses will also contribute to the final design of the survey for community members. You will then be asked to distribute 10-15 surveys to others in your organization using email or paper copy. All information collected in this project will be confidential and reported only as group data without individual or organization names.

I will contact you to confirm your participation as a partner in this study, answer any questions you may have, and schedule an interview time if appropriate.

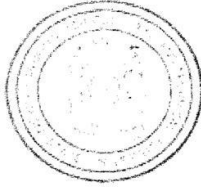
Thank you for considering this partnership.

Cheryl LeMay Lloyd



APPENDIX B

IRB Approval



NC A&T DIVISION OF RESEARCH AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT
1601 East Market Street
Greensboro, NC 27411
(336) 334-7314
Web site: <http://www.ncat.edu/~divofres/compliance/irb/index.php>
Federalwide Assurance (FWA) #00000013

To: Cheryl Lloyd

From: Behavioral IRB

Karen Amith-Gatto
Authorized signature on behalf of IRB

Approval Date: 2/26/2010

Expiration Date of Approval: 2/25/2011

RE: Notice of IRB Approval by Expedited Review (under 45 CFR 46.110)

Submission Type: Initial

Expedited Category: 7.Surveys/interviews/focus groups,6.Voice/image research recordings

Study #: 10-0003

Study Title: Indicators of Community-Land Grant University Readiness for Engagement from the Community Perspective

This submission has been approved by the above IRB for the period indicated. It has been determined that the risk involved in this research is no more than minimal.

Study Description:

Review of the critical components for fostering a new and authentically engaged land-grant institution that is responsive to the needs of disengaged citizenry. This study addresses the need to understand the community partners' perspective by exploring common indicators of community readiness for engagement with universities and community leaders' perception of the partners' role in such relationships.

IRB using the adverse event form at the same web site. **If you are conducting research in a public school, you must provide written approval of the superintendent's office prior to conducting your research.**

This study was reviewed in accordance with federal regulations governing human subjects research, including those found at 45 CFR 46 (Common Rule), 45 CFR 164 (HIPAA), 21 CFR 50 & 56 (FDA), and 40 CFR 26 (EPA), where applicable.

APPENDIX C

Face-to-Face Interview Script

APPENDIX D

Community Engagement Survey

APPENDIX E

Organizational Readiness Survey



Organizational Readiness Survey

For each question below, circle the number to the right that best fits your opinion on the importance of the issue. Use the scale above to match your opinion.

Question	Agree to Disagreement				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	No Opinion	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Members with similar backgrounds trust each other	5	4	3	2	1
Members with different backgrounds trust each other a	5	4	3	2	1
Newcomers are well-received and feel they are a part of the community	5	4	3	2	1
Newcomers have resources to offer the community	5	4	3	2	1
Community residents are willing to cooperate and work together to solve problems	5	4	3	2	1
Members feel a sense of identification with the organization or community	5	4	3	2	1
Members feel comfortable voicing their opinion to leaders	5	4	3	2	1
Leaders encourage members to actively participate in planning and decision making	5	4	3	2	1
Groups and organizations work toward goals that benefit the entire community	5	4	3	2	1
There are strong communication networks that make it easy to become aware of goals and activities	5	4	3	2	1
Community leaders develop trusting relationships with members	5	4	3	2	1
Community members have opportunities to connect with resources outside of this community that help to bring about change	5	4	3	2	1
Community leaders are willing to look outside of this community for new ideas and new ways of doing things	5	4	3	2	1
Community leaders are able to adapt to changing situations	5	4	3	2	1
Community leaders are able to move beyond the					



Community members had opportunities to dialogue with and engage face to face with university members	5	4	3	2	1
Community leader's skills were improved through participation in planning, organizing and implementing activities with partners.	5	4	3	2	1
Community leaders were offered technical assistance, consultation and other skills from university partners	5	4	3	2	1
Community leaders benefited from technical assistance, consultation and other skills from the university partner.	5	4	3	2	1

Background Information - Please circle the appropriate answer.

Gender	(1) M (2) F
Race/Ethnicity	(1) African American (2) White (3) Latino (4) American Indian (5) Asian (6)
Other _____	
Age	(1) Less than 25 (2) 25-32 (3) 33-40 (4) 41-50 (5) 51-60 (6) 60+
Position/Role In organization:	(1) Director (2) Board member (3) staff (4) Volunteer (5) Other _____
Number Years Affiliated with Organization:	# _____
Education Level	(1) Completed High School (2) Some College (3) Community College (4) College (BS, BA) (5) Graduate/Professional Degree
Annual Income (\$) Of organization	Fill in # _____
County of Residence	(1) Craven (2) Durham (3) Edgecombe (4) Granville (5) Greene (5) Lee (6) Lenoir (7) Pitt (8) Wake (Other) _____

APPENDIX F

Revised Community Engagement Survey

Community Engagement Survey

1. Family and Community

For each of the questions that follow, please select the response that best fits your opinion. Please note that there are no right or wrong answers.

1. How often do you help out a local group as a volunteer?

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Not Often	Never
Frequency of Event	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. How often have you attended a local community event in the past 6 months (e.g. church meal, school concert, craft exhibit)?

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Not Often	Never
Frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. How often do you attend local organization or club events (e.g. sport, social, craft)?

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Not Often	Never
frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. In the past 3 years, how often have you taken part in local community projects or working bees?

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Not Often	Never
Frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

5. How often have you helped picked up other people's rubbish in a public place?

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Not Often	Never
Frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. When you need information to make a life decision, how often do you know where to find that information?

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Not Often	Never
Frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. How often do you go outside your local community to visit your family?

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Not Often	Never
Frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

8. If you disagree with what everyone else agreed on, would you feel free to speak out?

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Not Often	Never
Frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

9. If you have a dispute with your neighbors how often are you willing to seek mediation?

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Not Often	Never
Frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Community Engagement Survey

10. If you were caring for a child and needed to go out for a while, how often would you ask a neighbor for help?

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Not Often	Never
Frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

11. How often have you visited a neighbor in the past month?

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Not Often	Never
Frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

12. How often have you in the past 6 months, done a favor for a sick neighbor?

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Not Often	Never
Frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

13. How often do you serve on committees for any local group or organization?

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Not Often	Never
Frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

14. In the past week, how often have you held phone conversations with friends?

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Not Often	Never
Frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

15. Over weekends how often do you have lunch or dinner with other people outside your household?

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Not Often	Never
Frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

16. Do you agree that most people can be trusted?

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

17. The area I live in has a reputation for being a safe place?

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

18. My local community feels like home?

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

19. I feel valued by society?

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Community Engagement Survey

20. If I were to die tomorrow, I would feel satisfied with what my life has meant?

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Frequency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. Background Information

Please select the most appropriate answer to the following questions.

21. Gender

Female

Male

22. Race/ Ethnicity

African American

Latino

Asian

White

American Indian

Other (please specify)

23. Role in Organization

Director

Staff

Board Member

Volunteer

Other (please specify)

24. Number of years affiliated with this organization

25. Education Level

Completed High School

Associate Degree

Professional Degree

Some College

College Degree

Other (please specify)

Community Engagement Survey

26. County of Residence

Craven

Granville

Lenoir

Durham

Greene

Pitt

Edgecombe

Lee

Wake

Other (please specify)

APPENDIX G

Revised Organizational Readiness Survey

Organizational Readiness				
1. Readiness				
For each question below, select the answer that best fits your opinion as it relates to your community organization. There are no right or wrong answers.				
1. Members with similar backgrounds trust each other.				
<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> No Opinion	<input type="checkbox"/> Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree
2. Newcomers are well-received and feel they are a part of the community.				
<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> No Opinion	<input type="checkbox"/> Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree
3. Newcomers have resources to offer the community.				
<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> No Opinion	<input type="checkbox"/> Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree
4. Members feel a sense of identification with the organization or community.				
<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> No Opinion	<input type="checkbox"/> Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree
5. Members feel comfortable voicing their opinion to leaders.				
<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> No Opinion	<input type="checkbox"/> Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree
6. Leaders encourage members to actively participate in planning and decision making.				
<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> No Opinion	<input type="checkbox"/> Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree
7. Groups and organizations work toward goals that benefit the entire community.				
<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> No Opinion	<input type="checkbox"/> Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree
8. There are strong communication networks that make it easy to become aware of goals and activities.				
<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> No Opinion	<input type="checkbox"/> Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree
9. Community leaders develop trusting relationships with members.				
<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> No Opinion	<input type="checkbox"/> Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree
10. Community members have opportunities to connect with resources outside this community that help to bring about change.				
<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Agree	<input type="checkbox"/> No Opinion	<input type="checkbox"/> Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree

Organizational Readiness

11. Community members have opportunities to connect with resources outside of this community for new ideas and new ways of doing things.

Strongly Agree Agree No Opinion Disagree Strongly Disagree

12. Community Leaders are able to adapt to changing situations.

Strongly Agree Agree No Opinion Disagree Strongly Disagree

13. Community leaders are able to move beyond the past and look toward the future for this community.

Strongly Agree Agree No Opinion Disagree Strongly Disagree

14. Elections are often close races with new people running for leadership positions.

Strongly Agree Agree No Opinion Disagree Strongly Disagree

15. Leaders encourage the development and support of future leaders.

Strongly Agree Agree No Opinion Disagree Strongly Disagree

16. There are issues in this organization that are serious enough to require a community building initiative.

Strongly Agree Agree No Opinion Disagree Strongly Disagree

17. The community is ready to become involved with the university for the purpose of creating long term change

Strongly Agree Agree No Opinion Disagree Strongly Disagree

2. Effective Partnerships

Recalling your organization's partnership with the University, respond to these questions about the effectiveness of the partnership.

18. The partnership exists because it served each respective organization's mission

Strongly Agree Agree No Opinion Disagree Strongly Disagree

19. The partnership added value to the credibility of both organizations.

Strongly Agree Agree No Opinion Disagree Strongly Disagree

Organizational Readiness

20. My organization strengthened relationships with other organizations in the community as a result of the affiliation with the university

Strongly Agree Agree No Opinion Disagree Strongly Disagree

21. Forums for conversations between service providers and university members helped establish a clear understanding of the purpose of the partnership

Strongly Agree Agree No Opinion Disagree Strongly Disagree

22. The partnership produced applicable research, increasing the knowledge of the partner and university.

Strongly Agree Agree No Opinion Disagree Strongly Disagree

23. University faculty regularly participated in interactions with community leaders through on site visits or conference calls.

Strongly Agree Agree No Opinion Disagree Strongly Disagree

24. Community members had opportunities to talk with and engage face to face with university members.

Strongly Agree Agree No Opinion Disagree Strongly Disagree

25. Community leader's skills were improved through participation in planning, organizing and implementing activities with partners.

Strongly Agree Agree No Opinion Disagree Strongly Disagree

26. Community leaders were offered technical assistance, consultation and other skills from university partners

Strongly Agree Agree No Opinion Disagree Strongly Disagree

27. Community leaders benefited from the technical assistance, consultation and other skills provided by university partners.

Strongly Agree Agree No Opinion Disagree Strongly Disagree

3. Demographics

Demographic data for participants.

Organizational Readiness

28. Gender

Female

Male

29. Race/ Ethnicity

African American

White

Asian

Latino

American Indian

Other (please specify)

30. Role in Organization

Director

Staff

Board Member

Volunteer

31. Number of years affiliated with this organization

32. Education Level

Completed High School

College Degree

Some College

Professional Degree

Other (please specify)

33. County of Residence

Craven

Granville

Lenoir

Durham

Greene

Pitt

Edgecombe

Lee

Wake

Other (please specify)

APPENDIX H

CES Table of Correlation Coefficients

Correlation of CES Items with Constructs

Focal Item	CES Construct				
	Comm	Trust	Agency	Neighbor	Family
How often do you go outside your comm	.24	.16	.61**	-.11	.06
When you need information to make a life	.29	.33*	.52**	.30*	.29
If you disagree with what everyone else	.26	.33*	.66**	-.01	.18
If you have a dispute with your neighbor	.15	.29	.73	-.17	-.05
I feel safe walking down your street after	-.21	.43**	-.06	.09	-.04
The area I live in has a reputation for being	.04	.63**	.24	-.20	-.22
Do you agree that most people can be trusted	.30	.47**	-.16	-.06	-.17
If you were caring for a child and needed	.39*	.27	.11	.81**	.18
How often have you in the past 6 months done a favor for a sick neighbor	.09	-.35	.03	.59**	.31*
How often have you visited a neighbor in the past month	.05	.02	-.07	.72**	.17
In the past week, how often have you held phone conversations with a friend	-.08	-.08	.13	.31*	.57**
Over weekends how often do you have lunch or dinner with other people	.10	-.24	-.07	.26	.40**
My local community feels like home?	.27	.54**	.37*	.18	.09
I feel valued by society	.10	.01	.20	.38*	.64**
If I were to die tomorrow, I would feel satisfied with what my life has meant?	.31**	-.89	.31*	.16	.67**
How often do you help out a local group as a volunteer		-.11	-.06	.22	-.01
How often have you attended a local community event in the past 6 months?		.20	.44**	-.25	.05
How often do you attend local organization or club events?		.05	.16	.29	.27
How often do you serve on committees for any local group or organization		-.14	-.06	.17	.16
In the past 3 years, how often have you taken part in local community projects or working bees?		.19	.50**	-.07	.15
How often have you helped pick up other people's rubbish in a public place	.33*		.24	.20	.05

Note. Comm=community involvement; Trust=feelings of trust and safety; Agency=Social Agency or proactivity; Neighbor=neighborhood connections; Family=family and friend connections.

* correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

APPENDIX I

ORS Table of Correlation Coefficients

Correlation of ORS Items with Constructs

ORS Items	ORS Constructs	
	Community	University
Members with similar backgrounds trust each other	.66	.57
Members with different backgrounds trust each other	.99	.46
Newcomers are well received and feel they are a part of the comm.	.14	.35
Newcomers have resources to offer the community	.13	.07
Community residents are willing to cooperate and work together	.78	.85
Members feel a sense of identification with the organization /comm.	.05	.90
Members feel comfortable voicing their opinion to leaders	.03*	.97
Leaders encourage members to actively participate in planning00**	.19
Groups and organizations work toward goals that benefit the comm.	.03*	.24
There are strong communication networks that make it easy to become aware of goals and activities	.01**	.66
Community leaders develop trusting relationships with members	.01**	.06
Community members have opportunities to connect with resources outside this community that help to bring about change	.00**	.77
Community member have opportunities to connect with resources outside of this community for new ideas and new ways of doing...	.00**	.04*
Community leaders are able to adapt to changing situations	.01*	.98
Community leaders are able to move beyond the past and look towards the future.	.00**	.82
Elections are often close races with new people running for leadership positions	.01*	.43
Leaders encourage the development and support of future leaders	.00**	.07
There are issues in this organization that are serious enough to require a community building initiative	.00**	.50

ORS Items	ORS Constructs	
	Community	University
The community is ready to become involved with the university for the purpose of creating long term change	.06	.07
The Partnership exists because it served each respective organization's mission.	.58	.00**
The partnership added value to the credibility of both organizations	.10	.04*
My organization strengthened relationships with other organizations in the community as a result of the affiliation with the university	.57	.00**
Forums for conversations between service providers and university members helped establish a clear understanding of purpose	.50	.02*
Forums for conversations between service providers and university members helped establish a clear understanding of the purpose	.50	.01*
Office contacts at the university are able to like the needs of your organization and the university	.32	.14
Students provide labor and expertise that is helpful	.98	.49
University faculty regularly participated in interactions with community leaders through on site visits or conference calls	.51	.00**
Community members had opportunities to talk with and engage face to face with university members	.69	.00**
Community leader's skills were improved through participation in planning, organizing and implementing activities with partners	.32	.00**
Community leaders were offered technical assistance, consultation and other skills from university partners	.07	.00**
Community leaders benefited from the tech. assistance provided	.01*	.11

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

APPENDIX J

CES & ORS Means and Standard Deviations

Question Number	Construct	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
CES 1	Community Involvement	4.02	0.801
CES 2	Community Involvement	4.19	0.732
CES 3	Community Involvement	3.51	0.910
CES 4	Community Involvement	4.02	0.672
CES 5	Social Agency	3.26	0.978
CES 6	Social Agency	3.51	1.203
CES 7	Social Agency	3.88	0.905
CES 8	Social Agency	4.02	0.740
CES 9	Social Agency	3.70	0.773
CES 10	Neighborhood Connections	3.63	1.070
CES 11	Neighborhood Connections	3.74	0.978
CES 12	Neighborhood Connections	3.35	1.089
CES 13	Neighborhood Connections	3.70	0.914
CES 14	Family and Friend Relations	4.00	0.873
CES 15	Family and Friend Relations	3.12	1.131
CES 16	Trust and Safety	2.98	0.987
CES 17	Trust and Safety	3.43	1.039
CES 18	Trust and Safety	3.60	1.014
CES 19	Trust and Safety	3.36	1.032
CES 20	Value of Life	3.66	1.039
CES 21	Value of Life	3.14	1.072

Question Number	Construct	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
ORS 1	Community Readiness	4.12	0.793
ORS 2	Community Readiness	3.26	1.15
ORS 3	Community Readiness	3.81	0.824
ORS 4	Community Readiness	3.88	0.793
ORS 5	Community Readiness	3.60	0.903
ORS 6	Community Readiness	3.88	0.670
ORS 7	Community Readiness	3.63	9.520
ORS 8	Community Readiness	3.60	1.027
ORS 9	Community Readiness	3.30	1.036
ORS 10	Community Readiness	2.98	1.080
ORS 11	Community Readiness	3.28	1.076
ORS 12	Community Readiness	3.56	1.053
ORS 13	Community Readiness	3.65	.997
ORS 14	Community Readiness	3.47	.882
ORS 15	Community Readiness	2.91	1.15
ORS 16	Community Readiness	2.77	.996
ORS 17	Community Readiness	3.09	1.130
ORS 18	Community Readiness	3.23	.868
ORS 19	Community Readiness	3.88	.697
ORS 20	University Readiness	4.23	.480
ORS 21	University Readiness	4.19	.546
ORS 22	University Readiness	4.07	.552
ORS 23	University Readiness	4.14	.516
ORS 24	University Readiness	4.00	.617
ORS 25	University Readiness	3.88	.586
ORS 26	University Readiness	4.02	.636

Question Number	Construct	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
ORS 27	University Readiness	4.09	.570
ORS 28	University Readiness	4.16	.485