NETWORK POSSIBILITIES: USING NETWORK INQUIRY TO INVESTIGATE PROCESSES OF SOCIAL CAPITAL ACQUISITION AND MOBILITY IN AN EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy in the Department of Educational Administration

University of Saskatchewan

Saskatoon, Canada

By

Sandra Svoboda

Permission to Use

Abstract

While service and support delivery for youth and families has been a priority within education in Saskatchewan for the past thirty years, educators and schools struggle to respond to the changing and often complex needs of students and families today.

The primary purpose of this study was to formulate a conceptual framework to explore the construct of social capital and the variables affecting social capital creation, acquisition and mobility. My secondary purpose was to then use network inquiry to investigate how networks of relations in a school community could be invested in and utilized to increase sources of social capital in an educational context for educators, students and families. As both an interpretive qualitative study and a critical qualitative study, this dissertation used focus groups to explore the experiences and sense-making of 16 participants in an educational setting to answer questions regarding social capital.

Having used network inquiry to investigate existing levels of social capital in a school community and the opportunities for social capital growth, the findings affirm the potential of network inquiry to contribute to the discourse on service delivery in schools. Furthermore, by identifying the academic and non-academic variables that contributed to successful collaborative partnerships and the determinants for increased capacity, process is emphasized before outcome, which holds potential for promising practices. Finally, because this study was conducted in an educational context, this may help policy makers to provide a framework to investigate processes for optimum service delivery and to frame educational policies for improved outcomes for youth and families.

Acknowledgements

While pleased to have arrived at this point of completion, I know I could not have done so without the guidance and support of many. I want to begin by thanking Dr. Keith Walker, my instructor and Co-Advisor, who inspired me with the content of his course, who grounded me with his advice and direction, and supported me with his vast knowledge base, patience and kindness. To my remaining Co-Advisor, Dr. Angela Ward, I am also deeply indebted to her for encouraging me to explore possibility while holding on to my words, to my story, at the same time. The many kindnesses she has shown me, the phone calls, emails, office visits, impromptu chats, friendship and unwavering faith in my potential, have not gone unnoticed. My fondness for her and respect of her cannot be measured with words alone.

To my Committee Members, Dr. Terry Wotherspoon and Dr. Sheila Carr-Stewart, I thank them both for their gifts of time, insight, knowledge, and experience. Their combined efforts on my behalf made my dissertation stronger and gave me the necessary confidence in my work to successfully defend it. Likewise, I thank my External, Dr. Eugene Kowch, for the rigour with which he edited my document and challenged me at my defense. I am honoured by both. Lastly, to Dr. Dave Burgess, I am grateful for his assistance with my document but also for his friendship, support, and insights. You are a true educator. And, to Drs. Renihan, Sackney, and Scarfe, my program instructors, your gifts as teachers and scholars are many and I feel so fortunate to have been a student in each of your classes.

To my cohort and friends (Lois Berry, Jackie Kirk and Shelley Spurr), thank you for helping me to arrive at this point of completion. Together we weathered a mother's growing pains over a daughter's first days of kindergarten, the trials of "grand" puppies, the passing of Gilbert and Molly, the stress of course work and Comps, and the craziness of Mike's Beach Bar, Napitak and Alexander's. I could not and would not have wanted for more amazing friends and women to share this with.

Lastly, to my parents and my friends, thank you for your encouragement, enthusiasm and support, and for accepting the demands made of me as a doctoral student. To my husband Robb, my children, Bryce and Ashley, and my future son-in-law Dean, you inspired me with the pride of which you spoke of me and supported me with your

faith and your love. You are my heart, my soul, my haven and a constant reminder of what is truly important.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Figures

List of Tables

CHAPTER ONE: ESTABLISHING A CONTEXT

"In essence, where human capital resides in individuals social capital resides in relationships" (Woolcock, 2001).

The School Community

As erosion of the social infrastructure continues, the bonds of community are lessened and the school may be expected to provide the supports no longer available to children in and from the community. Schools have taken on these "social-service and support functions" (Tourse & Mooney, 1999, p. 43) often without additional resources, additional staff or the professional development to ease the enormity of the burden. Supports in schools such as child-care initiatives, child-hunger programs, re-entry programs for mature students, quarter systems for problem attendees, and others have been added and adaptive curriculum development has been ongoing yet "the side effect of these programmatic additions is to further burden already overburdened schools that are running short of resources and are not making much headway on the real problem of the children" (Tourse & Mooney, 1999, p. 4). Academic difficulties may be further exacerbated by deficiencies in students' home lives, dysfunction in their communities, diminished health and psychological well being and a host of "new morbidities such as violence, abuse, and substance dependency that often accompany school failure and dropout" (Braback, Walsh, & Latta, 2003, p. 1).

It is desirable for the institutional response to shift from treatment to prevention, but we cannot plan for school change without first being attentive to the realities for the students in schools, their families, and their communities. Positive educational change

necessitates innovation and review in the areas of school remediation, prevention programs, school restructuring efforts, and capacity development. Combined, these initiatives need to serve several valuable functions: to clarify the nature of adolescent problems; stimulate interest and hope in the possibility of useful interventions; facilitate the delivery of appropriate services; and offer empowerment processes most likely to facilitate the necessary capacity development to work together as a community "and network beyond [the] community to access new resources" (Atria, Siles, Arriagada, Robison & Whiteford, 2004, p. 19) if need be. In addition, we need education and support services that serve as referral points for school practitioners and are either school-based, where services are delivered directly in the school building, school-linked, where services are provided in a building near a school, or community-based, which are administered by community agencies.

It seems when there is a call for action, be it from special interest groups, the business sector, government agencies, parents, or members of the general public, the school is often seen as the logical centre for innovation. There is pressure on educators to do more (Waddock, 1999); yet the reality is that teachers face daily an increasingly diverse school population with a variety of issues and a deteriorating socio-economic infrastructure. A dramatic economic shift, weakened familial and social infrastructures, and attitude of the public "represent a maelstrom in which schools are caught" (Waddock, 1999, p. 38); combined, these increase the pressure on educators and schools to respond.

Figure 1.1 is a reminder that many of the obstacles to reform are deeply rooted social, economic, and attitudinal factors "that compound the inherent problems of organizational change" (Tourse & Mooney, 1999, p. 38). The overwhelming shift in the competitive

economy places higher expectations on graduates; familial changes and weakened community supports places increased expectations on schools; and "the conflicting attitudinal messages of "My school is ok" and the rhetoric of crisis in schools" (p. 38) creates a public attitude that is not necessarily conducive to efforts for authentic reform. Consequently, in addition to the typical resistance to change, reform efforts are complicated by the complexities inherent of each of these factors and the impact on schools is overwhelming.

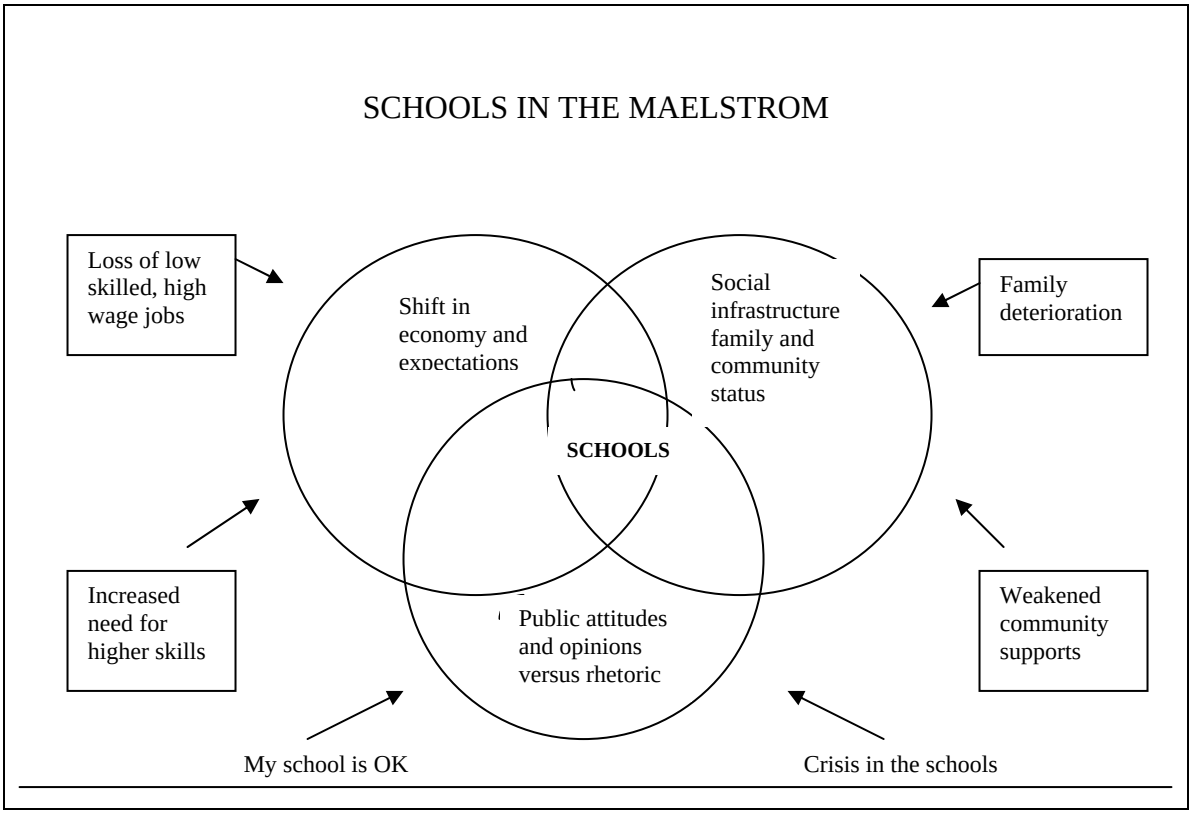

Figure 1.1. The school is caught in the vortex of societal change.

From *Collaborative Practice: School and Human Service Partnerships* (p.39), by R.W.C. Tourse & J.F. Mooney (Eds.), 1999, Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.

While schools are doing an admirable job, the obstacles that compromise their ability to do their jobs successfully are daunting. Based on statistics from the *2006 Report Card on Child and Family Poverty in Canada*, close to 1.2 million children—almost one child

out of every six in Canada—live in poverty. Furthermore, 49% of children in recent immigrant families, 34% of children of racialized families, and 27.7% of children with disabilities are living below the poverty level in Canada. Of those not considered living in poverty, nearly 1,245,700 children were living in low income families in 2000, a 3.5% increase from a decade earlier (Statistics Canada, 2003). To further delimit these statistics, at 20.1%, Saskatchewan has the third highest child poverty rate in Canada (2006 Report Card on Child and Family Poverty in Canada).

More recently, in a report compiled by the Saskatchewan Ministry of Education (2009), the Saskatchewan poverty rate for families of at least two persons was 8.2% in 2007. However, in that same year, the rate for children under the age of eighteen in single mother families in Saskatchewan living in poverty was 34.6%. Comparatively, the average for all of Canada was 36.0%.

Despite strong economic growth in Saskatchewan there is a steady increase in the proportion of children living in families who are living in poverty. Furthermore, after March 31, 2007, federal funding for early learning and child care programs was cut and the resulting 950 million dollar cut in funding meant a further decline in potential services for children and families who were already struggling. In response to such cuts the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) stressed the barriers for children and families caused by poverty:

> The reduction of child and family poverty is a precondition for successful early childhood care and education systems. Early childhood services do much to alleviate the negative effects of disadvantage by educating young children and facilitating the access of families to basic services and social participation. However, a continuing high level of child and family poverty in a country undermines these efforts and greatly impedes the task of raising educational levels. (OECD, 2006)

Moreover, while the cumulative impact of research underscores the importance of home in a child's schooling (Kellaghan, Sloane, Alvarez & Bloom, 1993), "dramatic changes in the structure and function of families has given rise to concern about families' capability to provide the conditions that foster children's school progress" (Christenson, 2002, p. 6). For example, cultural and social capital may be influential (Coleman, 1987; Delgado-Gaitan, 1991) in terms of how parents view the purpose of education and the practices and policies that accompany it. Additionally, more parents are working which possibly limits the amount of time parents can spend at school supporting teacher/school initiatives and at home supporting the individual learning of their children.

As Coleman (1987) observed, this erosion of social capital (student-adult interaction time) negatively affects both school readiness in pre-school children and school performance in those already enrolled. Furthermore, as suggested by the data compiled from Statistics Canada (2001-2003), the structure and function of families is critical for the overall development of children (See Table 1.1). Consequently, while family disruption itself may not be *the sole* detriment to children's well being, the decrease in economic and familial resources that occurs *because of* the disruption is detrimental (Duncan & Brooks-Gunn, 1997; McMunn, Nazroo, Marmot, Boreham & Goodman, 2001; Petterson & Albers, 2001).

Table 1.1

Selected Statistics of Children and Families

Economic Security Indicators

- In 2000 nearly 1,245,700 children in Canada were living in low income, a 3.5% increase from a decade earlier.
- Low income among children was disproportionately concentrated in lone-parent families and in particular, in lone-parent families in which the single parent had no employment earnings.
- 14% of all children lived in one-parent families, in 2000; these families accounted for 39% of all children in low income.
- 4% of all children lived in lone-parent families in 2000 where the single parent had no earnings.
- In 2000, 18% of children lived in households reporting any level of food insecurity.

Familial Indicators

- The number of lone-parent families with children under 18 increased 70% between 1980 and 2000.
- School-age children in 2001 were less likely than children in 1991 to have parents who were married.
- In 2001, the youngest child was likely to be born to a lone-parent and given the increase in the percentage of working parents, was less likely to have a parent at home.
- Children in lone-parent families and youth who have left the parental home were more likely to experience low income and for longer periods of time than those who lived in two-parent families.
- In 2000, the proportion of school-aged population (5-24) in low-income families was: living with 2 parents (6.9%); living with lone parent (25.0%); not living with parents (34.9%).

Health Indicators

- About half of children in low income families are reported to be in less than excellent health
- Children in low income families are over two and one-half times more likely to have low levels of functional health (vision, hearing, speech, mobility, dexterity, cognition, emotion, pain and discomfort) than children from high-income families (Ross, & Roberts, 1999).
- In rural health regions predominantly from the prairie provinces: the obesity rate is second highest (22%) of all groups in Canada; 9 of the 13 regions in this group have obesity rates higher than the Canadian average of 15%.

Behaviour and Social Environment Indicators

- In rural health regions predominantly from the province provinces the smoking rate and the heavy drinking rate are higher than the Canada rates as a whole. The Canadian average for persons 12 years and older smoking daily is 22% while in this region it is 26%; the Canadian average for heaving drinking for persons 18 years and older is 16% and in this region it is 19%)
- Crime rate in Saskatchewan: increased 18% between 1991 and 2001; was the highest in Canada from 1998-2001; among all census metropolitan areas (CMAs) in Canada in 2001, the highest rates were reported in Saskatchewan in Regina and Saskatoon.
- Youth crime rate: rate of youths charged with violent offences has increased 2%; rate of youths charged with drug offences has climbed (6%) and the rate for "other" Criminal Code offences in youth has also increased (6%); lastly, there has been a 35% increase in the rate of youths charged with robbery with a firearm.
- In 2001, Saskatchewan had the highest rate across the country of youths charged, with 11,198 youths charged per 100,000 youths aged 12-17.

Childcare Indicators

- Over half of all Canadian children (54%) aged 6 months to 5 years were in some form of non-parental childcare in 2002-2003, an increase of 12% from 1994-95.
- On average in Saskatchewan, children are spending 27.5 hours per week in childcare situations.

- In 2002-2003, children at the lowest income level and who lived with a lone-parent who worked for pay or studied were in two care arrangements (approximately 30 hours per week) more frequently than other children.
- In 2002-2003, children in two care arrangements were spending (on average) 33 hours per week with their caregiver while children in three or more care arrangements were spending (on average) 40 hours per week with their caregiver.
- In 2002-2003, 52% of children were being cared for in full-time, non-parental, single care arrangements while 62% were being cared for in full-time, non-parental, multiple care arrangements.

Education Indicators

- In 1998-1999, approximately 15% of both 4 and 5 year olds performed poorly on a test of cognitive development, reputable as a predictor of school readiness. Twice as many boys as girls in this age group had speech difficulties.
- Two-thirds of 4 and 5 year olds had an adult who read to them every day. Of those who looked at books daily by themselves while at home, 79% were female and 64% were male.
- 49% of school-age population (ages 5-24) in Saskatchewan live in lone-parent families, where the parent works full time.
- In 1999, the high school leaver rate sat at 12%. Of those who left, they were unemployed or worked 30 or more hours per week. More than one quarter of female leavers had at least one dependent child. Graduation rates were higher for females (83%) than for males (73%).

Sources: Statistics Canada, 2001 Census: Income of Canadian Families; Statistics Canada, 2006 Children and Youth Research Paper Series: Child Care in Canada; 2006 Report Card on Child and Family Poverty in Canada.

In a number of studies, familial resources have been found to be significant to the well being of children (Astone & McLanahan, 1991; Landry, Smith, Swank, & Miller-Loncar, 2000; Simons, Lin, Gordon, Cogner & Lorenz, 1999). Parenting style, marital conflict, lack of involvement in children's school and extra-curricular activities, inconsistency in supervision, control and discipline, are factors considered significant in the academic, behavioural, and emotional difficulties experienced by children of disrupted families (Ram & Hou, 2003, p. 311). This said, if family difficulties are a source of hardship for children while in the home, one could suggest that these issues may also become problems for educators eventually as well. As depicted in Table 1.2, issues that may have originated within the family could potentially impact the family-school relationship as well. Consequently, since children perform better when they have support from the home and the school and opportunities to learn in both contexts (Christenson & Sheridan,

2001), it is necessary to improve conditions for enhanced performance through agencies of support, opportunities to learn, and resources (Pianta & Walsh, 1996).

Table 1.2

Issues for Families, Educators and the Family-School Relationship

Families

Structural Issues

- Lack of resources and knowledge about available supports
- Economic, emotional and time constraints
- Familial erosion
- Childcare

Psychological Issues

- Feelings of hopelessness and inadequacy
- Adopting a passive role to child's education
- Cultural differences resulting in frustration with schools and suspicion of educators
- A perceived lack of responsiveness to parental needs and supports

Educators

Structural Issues

- Lack of funding for family outreach programs and other support services
- Lack of training for educators on how to maintain partnerships with families
- Lack of training re: multi-agency education
- Time constraints

Psychological Issues

- Ambiguous to parental involvement and partnerships
- Frustration over lack of training and time
- Doubts about the abilities of families to address schooling concerns
- Fear of conflict with families
- Resistance to extending title of 'educator' to parents
- Use of stereotypes of families to explain student behaviour

Family-School Relationship

Structural Issues

- Limited time for communication and meaningful dialogue
- Communication typically reactive versus proactive
- Limited time/contact for building trust within relationship
- Limited skills/knowledge re: collaboration
- Limited understanding of constraints/barriers faced by families

Psychological Issues

- Resistance to increasing home/school collaboration
- Lack of belief in partnership orientation to improve student performance and opportunities for success
- Blaming/labelling attitudes that pervade home/school atmosphere
- Deficit attitude versus win-win orientation
- Misunderstanding difference in parent-educator's perspectives about education and child's performance
- Cultural differences that lead to assumptions and create roadblocks
- Limited use of empathy/perspective taking
- Failure to view differences as strength
- Assumptions that home and school must hold identical values and expectations

Source: Adapted from Christenson, S.L. (2002). Families, Educators, and the Family-School Partnership: Issues or Opportunities for Promoting Children's Learning Competence? Paper prepared for 2002 Invitational Conference: The Future of School Psychology, Nov. 14-16, Indianapolis, Indiana.

Christenson (2002) suggested that there is an emerging consensus that family-school connections are essential if we hope to improve student-learning outcomes. In a paper prepared for *The Future of Psychology Conference* (2002), Christenson reflected on comments made by a member of the Home and School Institute in Washington, DC in 1987: "Families and teachers might wish that the school could do the job alone. But today's school needs families and today's families need schools. In many ways, this mutual need may be the greatest hope for change" (p. 5). Further research (Walsh & Park-Taylor, 2003) likewise asserted that the school, home and community environment "temper" the academic outcomes of children and that "most children who succeed academically and develop in healthy ways have benefited from both quality instruction *and* positive family and neighbourhood environments" (p. 11).

In other words, any efforts to improve the academic outcomes for children in the classroom must also consider the circumstances of their out-of-school lives (Maeroff, 1998, p. 5). As depicted in Table 1.3, the circumstances influencing youth in Saskatchewan have influenced their health, social behaviour, and academic pursuits.

Table 1.3

2009 Statistics for Youth in Saskatchewan

Health Indicators

- In 2003 the percentage for females 12-19 reporting "very good" or perfect functional health was 79.7%. In 2008 it dropped 9.8% points to 69.9%.
- In 2003 the percentage for males 12-19 was 69.8. In 2008 it declined 12.5% to 57.3%.
- In 2008-2009 a total of 7,304 students required intensive supports (from school, the division, outside agencies). This is an increase of 8.3% over 2007-2008 and an increase of 46.5% since 2005-2006.

Behaviour and Social Environment Indicators

- In 2005 13.1% of youth 12-19 described themselves as daily smokers. In 2008 that increased to 21.3%, higher than the Canadian average by 10 percentage points.
- Between 2003-2008 youth aged 12-19 reported drinking alcohol frequently at a rate of 6.8 percentage points higher than the rage reported for all of Canada.
- The proportion of youth 12-19 drinking frequently in Saskatchewan in 2008 was 21.1% while the proportion for the same age group in all of Canada in 2008 was 13.6%.
- Saskatchewan has the highest youth incarceration rate of any province in Canada. In 2007, 26.2 per 10,000 youth were incarcerated-more than double the Canadian average of 10.9 per 10,000 youth.
- Saskatchewan also has the highest youth probation rate of any province. In 2007 youth probation rate was 152.1% per 10,000 youth, which is higher than the Canadian average of 93.2 per 10,000 youth.

Education Indicators

- Saskatchewan has consistently had a lower percentage of the population with education at a grade 12 or higher than the Canadian average.
- In 2008-2009 there were 180,280 children/youth (5-17 years of age) attending school in Saskatchewan, a decrease of 1.12% (1804 students) from 2007-2008. However, enrolments have decreased by 6% in urban settings.
- Over the past 5 years the largest enrolment declines have been at the middle level (grades 5-9). In 2009-2010 there were 3,411 fewer students enrolled than in 2005-2006.
- At the secondary level there were 2,287 fewer students enrolled in 2009-2010 than in 2005-2006.
- Grade 12 graduation rates are also declining. In 2003-2004 there were 11,903 graduates; in 2007-2008 there were 11,451 graduates; and in 2008-2009 there were 11,213 graduates for a total decline of 690 graduates.

Source: Saskatchewan Ministry of Education (2009). Saskatchewan Education Indicators Report Prekindergarten to Grade 10.

Referred to as the "other worlds" of children (Ysseldyke & Christenson, 2002), parents and educators need to understand that these influence the learning of the child as does the school environment; however, school reform cannot easily succeed unless students' needs are met holistically, in an integrated fashion. This necessitates a reconceptualization of the quality of schooling and the mobilization of untapped

resources in the community to improve the access of children and families to the supports they need (Dryfoos, 1994, p. 75); relevant "at a time when building social capital (Coleman, 1987) where it does not naturally exist must be a goal" (Christenson, 2002, p. 5).

Initiatives to address youth problems must not be seen primarily as a problem of getting educators and human service agencies to work together. Before we create a process (with families) to enhance student engagement and learning, we need to understand the dramatic changes in the structure and function of families (Kellaghan et al., 1993). We have to accept the fact that: "the decline in the strength of families… is essential to an honest treatment of issues" (Etzioni, 1993, p. 34); secondly, we need to examine how to engage whole communities in the process of increasing linking social capital for families in their own neighbourhoods and communities; finally, we need to explore ways to increase the bridging social capital that will connect families to resources beyond those readily available in their communities (Robison, Siles, & Schmid, 2004, p. 99).

The establishment of partnerships between a child's home and school can contribute useful capital resources in the form of: establishing obligations, expectations, and trustworthiness, creating channels for information getting and disseminating and setting norms (Coleman, 1994). Improving educational outcomes for children and youth necessitates the building of social capital in the following ways:

> through mutual support efforts of families and educators, circumventing blame when children exhibit learning and behavior [*sic*] difficulties in school, enhancing communication and coordination among family members and educational personnel, maintaining home-school continuity in programs and approaches across school years, sharing ownership and commitment to educational goals, increasing understanding and conceptualization of the complexities of a child and

> his/her situation, and pooling of resources across home and school, which increases the range and quality of solutions, diversity in expertise and resources, and integrity of educational programs. (Christenson, 2002, p. 8)

Accordingly, the purposes of this study were: to use network inquiry to examine how networks of relations could be invested in and drawn upon in ways that complemented other social capital assets available to individuals and communities; and to construct a conceptual and analytic framework, using network inquiry, to measure individual and collective social capital, so as to create a more concrete understanding of social capital as a resource that is produced and circulated through relationships (Franke, 2005). Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to create a capacity inventory in the intended research site.

Situating and Framing the Problem

For many years, educators and health service providers have operated from a deficit model and have developed programs to address the perceived risks faced by those they serve. They have functioned as "repair people" (Maeroff, 1998, p. 22) doing their best in their respective roles as professionals to enhance student achievement and improve student well being. A more promising approach is asset based; it focuses instead on community engagement, building of community capacity, and on interprofessional collaboration. "Rather than focusing on the various risk factors associated with communities, [they are seen] as resources to be tapped and enhanced" (Walsh & Park-Taylor, 2003, p. 21).

The resources described above are referred to as social capital, "defined in terms of networks, norms and trust, and the way these allow agents and institutions to be more effective in achieving common objectives" (Schuller, 2001, p. 19). Relationships in these

networks are interdependent and the patterns of communication between actors are also channels for the transfer of social capital (material and nonmaterial resources) (Schuller, Baron & Field, 2002, p. 19). As personal networks become embedded in community networks, the density of networking between the individual and community members results in high levels of community engagement, and a sense of solidarity and cooperation (Campbell, 2002, p. 183).

In school restructuring efforts, social networks are crucial because they facilitate opportunities for people to make collective decisions to change factors affecting them. They likewise provide a process of empowerment for the members of a target group (Bandura, 1996). Similarly, the concept of social capital provides a useful starting point for conceptualizing those features of community that enable and support it and by default, those that don't.

By mobilizing the resources of community, school change can be linked with community change and development, a strategy that could potentially improve outcomes for children by improving school and community life. Furthermore,

> community collaborations provide a vital opportunity for educators and schools to gain influence and share control over the out-of-school factors that contribute to children's learning, healthy development, and success in school, and to gain family and community resources in support of their work. (Lawson, 2003, p. 66)

In other words, while the school may be "the logical host agency within which to situate new systems of support" (Tourse & Mooney, 1991, p. 1), given its contact with children and families, educators cannot be expected to meet public needs or demands on their own. Rather, this requires a collaborative effort where a shared vision and collective will are at the forefront and community systems pull together in an effort to create what Dryfoos (1994) refers to as "full-service communities" (p. 152).

Furthermore, while the US Surgeon General's Report on Children's Mental Health (2000) argued the need for strengthening "the resource capacity of schools to serve as a key link to a comprehensive, seamless system of schools—and community-based identification, assessment and treatment services," it also argued for the provision of "access to services in places where youth and families congregate (e.g. schools, recreation centers [*sic*], churches)" (p. 89). But teachers and school administrators are already overwhelmed by the broader expectations put on them and the "demands…for services they have not been prepared to offer" (Constable & Montgomery, 1985, p. 257).

Strengthening the resource capacity of schools should be a collective effort. The initiative would *include* the school but would not look solely to it and the people in it to provide important services for those in need or to "establish linkages for the purpose of improving outcomes for needy people" (Konrad, 1996, p. 6). Hence, as deduced by Oakes and Hunter (1995), the challenge for all organizations and agencies is,

> to understand the problems and resources that can be mobilized thoroughly; to help raise consciousness about the opportunities in the community, especially among those who are in a position to shape policies; and to provide resources to improve the prospect of success in learning for children and youth in at-risk situations. (p. 267)

None of this can transpire without sensitivity to the true needs of those in the target population, the flexibility to be responsive and the innovation to "[increase] a group's mobilization capacity through the transformation of the existing resources and networks" (Atria et al., 2004, p. 20).

The learning environment of children and youth includes school, home and school, and home and community. As intervention research (August, Anderson, Bloomquist, 1992; Webster-Stratton, 1993) suggests, efforts to improve educational outcomes for

children and youth are more successful when both home and school environments are factored into the process. This study used network inquiry in one high school community to examine how networks of relations were being invested in and drawn upon in ways that complemented other capital assets available to children, youth, and adults in the community. Adapting the Kretzmann-Mcknight (1993) model for whole community mobilization:

- The capacities and assets of individuals, organizations, associations, and institutions were identified in the school community. This lead to an investigation of the relationships in the network and the behaviours of people in that context to determine access to resources and asset-promoting characteristics.
- Network relationships for mutually beneficial problem solving within the school community were determined. Specifically, conditions for the creation, acquisition and mobility of resources of social capital were examined to explore the potential of the networks of relations and to determine the capacity of the community to produce the necessary resources.
- Community assets from within the community were identified for sharing purposes and community networking between the community and the school. Likewise, resources from outside the local community were identified to offer support to asset-based local development within the school. By identifying the resources accessible to actors in these networks of relations and the actions of people in these relations when they were the recipients of the information or the source, I was able to investigate the information exchange and how the resources were being used.

Hence, while the study was asset based, internally focussed and network driven, this was an investigation of the networks of relations and not of the networks themselves. The focus was on the presence of social ties and the significance of these networks of relations in the creation of sources of social capital rather than the presence of social capital and how social capital operates. By inviting members of a school community to participate in my study, I was able to investigate their insights, understandings and sense-making of the networks of relations in their environment and the value of these relations for meeting objectives in school communities. By studying the network size and structural characteristics, I was able to determine collaborative ties, structural holes, closures and potential for boundary spanning which not only revealed process but how people do draw upon these relations for collaborative actions versus how they should behave.

Research Orientation

Lofland and Lofland (1984) argued that it is acceptable to design a study from "where you are," to choose something of interest to you or something that is personal to you. Hence, if personal or professional interest has motivated one to pursue a particular topic of study, then what must also be acknowledged is that the researcher collecting the data, the focus group facilitator, "is a person, historically and contextually located, carrying unavoidable conscious and unconscious motives, desires, feelings, and biases" (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p. 696). Moreover, Kong and colleagues (2002) characterized the interviewer as an advocate or partner in the study and the interview process evolving from an "instrument of pathological diagnosis" (p. 240) to that of "a methodology of friendship" (p. 254).

While neither perspective advocates the researcher “privileges any ways of looking at the world” (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p. 697), they do give pause to more empiricist preoccupations with response quality and measurement only. The ambiguities of the activity of interviewing must also be addressed (Behar, 1996) for the “interviewer, writer, respondent, and interview are not clearly distinct entities; rather, they are intertwined in a deeply problematic way” (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p. 712). In qualitative studies it is not uncommon to view the interview as a form of discourse and the meanings of the questions and responses joint constructions that are contextually ground (Schwandt, 1997, p. 79).

Therefore, while my teacher status may have been helpful in gaining access to the stories and meaning-making of the participants, this subjectivity was not permitted to taint the data. Mindful of this obligation to neutrality, I reflected on my thirty years as an educator and in so doing, I was reminded of the many hours my colleagues invested for the benefit of students, the conversations with others where we acknowledged the limited resources available to us, the decreased personal time outside school, and the increased parental and societal expectations of educators as they pertained to students in our respective schools.

Interestingly, however, as much as these frustrations may exist in the lives of educators, or at least in those with whom I have interacted, it also occurred to me that there was, in many of them, a resistance to communicate these frustrations with others *outside* the profession. Intrigued, I began to speculate about the rationale behind the silence. Was it because the profession systematically impedes the communication process (Wagner, 1992), which is the most basic of networking tools? Consider, for example, that

not all classrooms have a telephone or computer for teacher use; that few divisions or schools provide their teachers with business cards; nor do they provide them with generous opportunities for release time from regular teaching duties to attend professional conferences *outside* their area of specialty or to collaborate with civic organizations.

Similarly, the school day is not structured for school personnel to build any relationships outside their own school. Given the demands on their time throughout the teaching day, "few teachers can leave a school building during the noon hour to attend community meetings; monitoring lunch hour and attending conferences and meetings inside the school are part of most teachers' regular duties" (Wagner, 1992, p. 61). Likewise, the end of the school day is often committed to extra-curricular responsibilities and evenings, as well, may demand time of these professionals for activities such as parent-teacher conferences, Open House night, and athletic competitions.

On the other hand, perhaps they have surpassed their tolerance level for inservicing and they are "experted out." More than a lack of interest in professional growth and opportunities to improve outcomes for children and youth, possibly what I had experienced with my colleagues' insularity was a resistance to inservice training that failed to meet their needs or that "often exacerbates the already strong feeling on the part of many teachers that their own views and voices are not important—those of the "experts" are" (Lieberman & McLaughlin, 1992, p. 674).

Whatever their reasons for closed classroom doors and the lack of exchange with those outside their professional community, I was curious about the experiences of, and opportunities for, educators in other school divisions. Their responses and their origin intrigued me. Were they unique to the buildings I had taught in? Were they quite

commonplace, perhaps even typical throughout the division? Eventually, curiousity would evolve into educational research and after satisfying the processes and protocol of the University of Saskatchewan Behavioural Research Ethics Board, I was given permission by Superintendent Hendry to conduct educational research in a secondary urban school in a division where I had had no teaching experience.

Specifically, I was interested in learning more about the resources available to staff, students and community members and how one might access these resources. Were there mechanisms in place to enhance or impede the productive potential of these resources? Furthermore, were there conditions that restricted or facilitated one's access to these resources? What part, if any, did communication have in the acquisition of these resources? Were these conversations contained or did they extend beyond the community of educators to include community members and members of other professions and local agencies?

Stated more specifically, this study was prompted by my interest in establishing a process for describing and eventually creating constructive family-school-community connections for children's learning. I was interested in the value of using network inquiry as a means of identifying social capital in communities then using the social capital as a tool for community engagement and development from the inside out.

Primary and Secondary Research Questions

Participation in public education can provide meaningful opportunities for parents and their children to build and participate in social capital-rich networks. Schools can facilitate the process by participating in the networks that disseminate relevant information and provide training to the community, helping a community to recognize its

social capital, and turning dormant, into active social capital. This social capital may then be used as a tool for community engagement and development from the inside out. Using the following questions, this study drew on network inquiry to examine how networks could be used in ways that complemented other capital assets available to individuals and communities:

1. To examine the social capital resources accessible to/being used by members of the community. Who had access to the resources?
2. To examine the efficacy of the networks. Were there mechanisms that impeded social capital accumulation or facilitated it? What was the capacity of the network to produce the necessary resources?
3. To examine the partnership intelligence. What was being done with the resources? How were they being used?
4. To examine the structure and dynamics of the networks: Who was networking with whom? (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993). How did individual or collective actors develop their social networks? and What were the conditions that prevented or enabled network development? (Franke, 2005)

Significance of the Findings

To serve children and families, a “deep understanding of the interrelatedness of social problems, employment situations, community needs, and families” (Tourse & Mooney, 1999, p. 48) is needed. Connections with parents and community are important in an intended collaboration yet “we tend to put considerations of family, community, and economy off-limits in education reform” (Barton, 2001, p. 20). Based on a review of 66

studies, Henderson and Berla (1994) concluded that parental inclusion is paramount to emphasizing the value of education to children:

> The most accurate predictors of student success in school are the ability of the family, with the help and support of school personnel, to create a positive home learning environment, communicate high and realistic expectations for their children's school performance and future careers and to become involved in their children's schooling. (Christenson, 2002, pp. 20-21)

Positive outcomes for families mean positive outcomes for children and improved community relations between schools and families. Consequently, if the objective is to design and implement service delivery systems that are truly community-oriented, then parents and community members need to be given a place at the planning table alongside interagency professionals.

School-related collaboration supports schools not only through the provision of support services but also by rekindling hope. By building strong connections among people, we can enhance their capacity as a community and be proactive in attending to the needs of children and youth rather than reactive to their deficiencies (Government of Saskatchewan, 1994, pp. 8-10). Potentially, we can accumulate knowledge, connect information to deepen our understanding, and identify the gaps that need to be closed (Weiss, 2002, p. 3) in order to maximize services and improve both schools and communities.

This study created a capacity inventory by locating the assets, skills and capacities of residents, citizens' associations and local institutions in a particular school community. The data that were collected identified the resources that were accessible to the school community to promote the process of social capital production and the stream of benefits for the community that result from social capital formation. In addition, by using network

inquiry to examine how networks of relations can be invested in and drawn upon in ways that complement other capital assets available to individuals and communities, this study added to the knowledge base on how to provide school-linked service integration that is both feasible and effective.

Furthermore, because my study was an inquiry of what a school community *was* doing versus what it *should* be doing, the findings could further our understanding of how network connections in communities actually work and their potential in efforts to respond to the changing needs of students and families in our communities. This would include, for example, how these relations might be monitored, which aspects of networking promote or hinder the building of social capital communities, and how network connections in communities may be increased in number and in density to enhance levels of community engagement. The following are primary considerations that render this study significant:

1. At the *macro* level, the findings of this study have the potential to contribute to the knowledge on the measurement of social capital by examining the institution (visible aspects) and governance thereof. At the *micro* level, it could potentially contribute further to the research on the measurement of social capital by examining the local (networks) and local norms and values.
2. At the *professional* level, this study has the potential to establish linkages between programs and goals of School^{PLUS}, to foster innovation to enhance capacity to improve both schools and communities, to construct a social capital paradigm to improve practice, and to provide the impetus for policy development. Policy makers may find both usefulness and meaning in the study.

3. At the *theoretical* level, this study of one school and its community has the potential to advance the literature on integrated practice, understanding of ethical issues in multidisciplinary settings, and identifying barriers to integrated service delivery through the study of one community.
4. At the *personal* level, as an educational practitioner in the classroom, I have had the opportunity to broaden my understanding of the academic and non-academic factors that contribute to learning outcomes for children and youth, and to be part of the dialogue around collaborative practice. This enhanced my perspective as an educator and facilitated a reconceptualization of my methods of practice.

Parameters of the Study

This study had a number of assumptions, limitations and delimitations. As well, the definitions used in the study are provided.

Assumptions.

The assumptions of this study were as follows:

1. Every respondent was capable of providing a detailed, thick description of his or her experiences.
2. Every individual had a sense of self that he or she controlled and owned (James [1892], 1961) and this self made it possible for everyone to reflect meaningfully on his or her experiences and to engage in socially relevant discourse about it (p. 6).
3. Surveys made the least demands on participants but as they “do introduce artificiality…findings rest heavily on the presumed validity of self-reports” (Marsden, 2005, p. 10). The researcher assumed participants would be capable of responding to

the communicative processes and would inform the researcher about situational relevancies.

4. Participants made themselves available when necessary in order to accommodate the researcher's timeline for data collection.
5. Participants were not considered vulnerable in terms of mental or emotional capacity of age.
6. If under the age of consent, parental consent was given.

Delimitations.

The delimitations address how a study was narrowed in scope, that is, the boundaries, exceptions, reservations, and qualifications. The delimitations of this study were as follows:

1. The research was delimited to 32 participants and one secondary school. Participants included: 6 high school students in one focus group; 6 teachers in one focus group; 3 administrators in one focus group; and 17 community members completing surveys.
2. Data collection was delimited to persons who had experiences or knowledge that was useful to the study and therefore "information-rich" (Patton, 1990).
3. Data collection for the study was based on the experiences and understandings of a group of participants who volunteered to be a part of the study. Members of the focus groups were all persons who were associated in some capacity with the research site and had something in common that was relevant to the study.
4. Focus group participants were either chosen by the school personnel or volunteered for the study on their own initiative. This helped to minimize researcher bias and maximize authenticity.

5. Data collection was delimited to the period of time between September to December 2008. Furthermore, the analysis of the raw verbatim data was delimited to the coding and thematic analysis processes and methods.

Limitations.

1. This study was limited to transferability as opposed to generalizability. By providing detail other researchers must decide for themselves whether this study would provide an appropriate frame of reference given the context, methods, procedures and audience.
2. This study was limited by sample size. In this study the researcher was more concerned with theoretical saturation than with size of sample.
3. The data collected were limited by degree of interest of research participants. Only seventeen of a possible two hundred and seventy seven surveys were returned to the school for analysis.
4. Data was limited by the quality of interactions in the focus group discussions.
5. The level of comfort limited the data for persons being interviewed or their willingness to respond candidly.
6. The possibility of a perceived power differential between the adult researcher and the participants may have limited the candour and willingness to participate of adolescent respondents.

Definitions of Terms

Terminology relevant to this study was defined as follows:

Secondary school. The research site was a secondary school in Saskatchewan with a co-ed population of grades 9 – 12.

Urban. Referred to a secondary school with a community defined by Saskatchewan as a city.

School-based services. This referred to services delivered directly in the school building.

School-linked services. These were support services offered in partnership with the school. These services were provided by professional personnel but would not be housed on campus. An alternative space for support was provided in a building near a school.

Community-based Services. These were services offered by community agencies on campus, in another space in the school's neighbouring community, or outside their immediate community. These services were offered by volunteers from the community or professional persons with membership in these community organizations.

Capacity enhancement. Referred to an increase in a community's capacity through the transformation of the existing resources and networks, and through the interlinkage of networks with other groups (Atria et al., 2004, p. 20)

Network inquiry. Referred to how, when, and with whom communication occurred within a social system or a community and the function of those relationships.

Social capital. A process that involved the resources and the networks "…that enable[d] participants to act together more effectively to pursue shared objectives" (Putnam, 1996, p. 56). In this study the focus was on the presence of social ties and the significance of the norms of these networks of relations in the process (the creation) of sources of social capital.

Social capital mobilization. This involved a process whereby members created and promoted their network connections within and between organizations and institutions to gain access to other resources and supports.

Asset mapping. The objective of this approach was to "…locate all of the local available assets, to begin connecting them with one another in ways that multiply their power and effectiveness…" (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993, pp. 5 – 6).

Capacity inventory. In this study, this referred to "the sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships" (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998, p. 243) in a particular school community.

Critical systems. These were the relationships between a child, home, school, peers, community or neighbourhood that influenced the growth of the child academically, socially, and emotionally.

Cultural capital. This form of capital was defined as both the belief in the importance of particular kinds of attitude and knowledge to succeed and, something that impressed itself upon one's way of thinking.

Deficit model. Orientation was based on the deficiencies or the gaps as indicated by a needs assessment (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993).

Full-service communities. House a "community-oriented school with a joint governance structure that allow[ed] maximum responses to the community, as well as accessibility and continuity for those most in need of services" (Dryfoos, 1994, p. 12).

Target audience. Referred to persons who were targeted by a program or an intervention.

Target population. The terminology used if a program was intended for an entire population.

Recipient audience. Participants who actually received the program or interventions.

Capacity Inventory. A thorough inventory of the resources in the community and the assets of all individuals, associations, organizations, and institutions in the community.

School^{PLUS} Refers to a program delivery model for the enhancement of learning opportunities and outcomes for all children and youth (Government of Saskatchewan, September, 1994).

The Researcher

Upon my acceptance into the Department of Curriculum at the University of Saskatchewan, I completed a Post Graduate Diploma and then went on to complete a Master of Education Degree in Educational Administration. I also hold a Bachelor of Education Degree and I have been employed as a teacher in secondary schools for more than twenty-six years.

My professional experiences as a high school teacher, involvement with youth and youth groups as a coach, my leadership role in professional development seminars in adolescent usage and addiction, and my experiences with community development as a member of a community executive, contributed to my understanding of the research content. Furthermore, studies in organizational theory and analysis, policy making in education, and community health and program development played a significant role in understanding the research setting and the problem. Lastly, my experiences with the facilitators and barriers to student achievement and well-being within the school culture contributed to a dissertation of experience and study that provide both theory and praxis to support schools in adopting a vision and implementing the services that foster it.

In an earlier study conducted at the Master's level (Svoboda, 2002), I interviewed 16 participants, eight adults and eight adolescents, to better understand their sense-making of dual relationships in education and the conflicts and issues that can arise for different parties. For this study I conducted focus groups. This experience served me well as did

the guidance and constructive feedback I received from my former Advisor and Committee Members and from my present Co-Advisors, Dr. Angela Ward and Dr. Keith Walker. I designed my data collection strategies with the confidence that I would be able to obtain data that would serve both the interests of the study and the interests of the participants equally well.

Organization of the Dissertation

The study consists of six chapters. I began Chapter one by establishing a context for the study, which was a response to the changing needs for students and families through agencies of support, opportunities to learn and resources. To this end, I proposed a reconceptualization of the quality of schooling and the mobilization of resources to improve access to supports.

Furthermore, motivated by this interest to contribute to the literature on service integration, I proposed the use of network inquiry to examine the processes whereby social capital resources are accessed and mobilized and, to examine the relations in networks and how they enhance or impede the production of social capital.

Finally, before I acknowledged the parameters of the study and provided working definitions of terminology, I addressed the significance of this study in raising awareness about opportunities and improving potential for success for youth and families. Included in this section was a discussion of how network inquiry might assist in the identification of capacities and assets of individuals and groups, and the existing relations in networks that enhance and impede the process of enhanced capacity. Combined, this contributed further to an understanding of the feasibility and the pragmatics of school-linked service integration.

Chapter II was restricted to the literature review, the focus of which was educational collaboration and a conceptual framework of the collaborative process. For this purpose, I constructed a literature review that explored the notion of improved service from a social capital perspective. In addition, using network inquiry, I investigated the possibilities for access to resources and support to develop capacity in schools for collaborative educational reform.

Positioning the school as a gateway for community resources, I began my discussion with a conceptual framework that recognized the embeddedness of families and schools in communities. The reader was invited to rethink the role of the schools in capacity building and to see it as part of a developing collaborative partnership to enhance potential for student success. Included was a rationale for increasing opportunities for parental involvement in the lives of their children and for positive relations between the home and school through a shared responsibility for youth. A school reform framework followed this.

While reform tends to be “dependent on the organizational capacity and human capital of that one school” (Wohlstetter & Smith, 2000, p. 509), in most situations, schools do not have the capacity to support the necessary changes to meet the needs of their clientele on their own. Therefore, if we rethink the philosophies of education and adopt a holistic focus, this could provide the impetus for an integrated approach that favours collaborative relationships: “people making connections with one another by sharing ideas, experiences, and strategies and by constructing knowledge together” (Wohlsteteter & Smith, 2000, p.509). Furthermore, as schools collaborate with personnel from other institutions and agencies, they develop a shared commitment to helping schools help

students while at the same time, acquiring more supports and accessibility to them for purposes of increased capacity.

Moreover, this unity of purpose and shared vision can be facilitated by networks, which can invite teamwork, collaboration, creativity and participant diversity. Founded on mutual dependence and partnership, members are consultants to each other, negotiating the best possibilities for students and their families. They bring information with them but also function as brokers to other social capital links so as the group performance is enhanced by social capital, so too will the organization's performance be enhanced. In other words, networks provide the opportunity to embrace a conceptual framework that recognizes the value of collective problem solving and a theoretical framework that creates a discourse community that honours both the person and context of the person's life in matters of educational reform.

Chapter III offered a conceptual framework for the use of network inquiry to explore the construct of social capital. I began the chapter with an examination of the measurable components of networks, emphasizing the importance of an inquiry that identified what social capital is, the productive potential, and the levers that can facilitate or impede social capital production. This theoretical understanding of social capital, when coupled with an exploration of network relations and their characteristics, may contribute to our understanding of the processes inherent in the creation, acquisition and mobilization of social capital.

This was followed by a discussion of network and social capital assessment. For example, I discussed in detail the important characteristics of networks to consider if one were designing a tool to measure structure and distribution. I also examined network

types and how this could affect network density. This would be particularly useful to one who was interested in investigating the type of networks most likely to facilitate information exchanges as well as the types of information that would be exchanged.

Finally, the last section of the chapter was dedicated to the quality of relations as levers that might impede productive potential in a particular site or facilitate it. An awareness of these levers and the motivating forces behind people's behaviour in these relations may provide researchers or other interested persons with important insight regarding community engagement and social capital acquisition and mobilization.

The foci of Chapter IV were methods and methodology. Throughout this chapter I detailed why I used network inquiry in this study, how I used it as a research methodology and how network inquiry, as a methodology, might contribute to the research on how social capital operates.

I began this chapter with a discussion of how the data was obtained and why. Because I conceived of this study as an exploratory study, I designed a works that employed the use of interviews, observations and analysis. However, because I was also interested in the possibility of a correlation between my study and school restructuring strategies, I also saw a need to investigate the experiences of people in a particular context. Consequently, it was context over individuals and the relations over the networks, which were intended to raise critical questions. This led, logically, to a discussion of network inquiry and how by drawing attention to the institutional structures, these experiences "functioned as a critical account" (Shank, 2006, p. 132) of the relations that shaped the participants' experiences in that context.

The next section of my chapter focused on my research design. My goal was to use network inquiry to contribute to our understanding of information exchange opportunities in a school setting, in terms of access and control. To accomplish this I had to design a study capable of establishing first the presence of and then the importance of, underlying relationships among parts of the network. The task that followed was to investigate how, if at all, these relations influenced interactions and shaped the behaviour of the people in the networks. This would then be discussed in terms of the effect on network boundaries and the types of exchanges occurring in the network.

A discussion of research methodology and methods followed. I detailed how I used a network inquiry model that distinguished between the structure of networks, properties of networks, members and relationships and dynamics. As a rationale for this particular approach I investigated how my analysis could then be used to demonstrate the way in which these relations influenced the process of social capital creation, acquisition and mobility. By "identifying "what is" the [data] potentially foreclosed what could be" (Shank, 2006, p. 132) which complemented my research objective.

Chapter V was limited to data analysis. Using the data collected through focus groups at Mason High School, I examined the existing network ties and initiatives in place for increased access to others, both inside and outside the network. To investigate *how* social capital was accessed I examined the relations in the network, the constraints and enabling conditions and levers, the dynamics of the networks and the structural characteristics that created the context in which the networks operated. To examine *what* social capital was accessed, I identified the resources that were and could potentially be accessed and the benefits of those social relations.

The data suggested that elements of the relational context affected individual's and the group's ability to access the resources in a network. Similarly, the conditions of access to resources limited capacity for anticipated support and the actual support received through the relations (Franke, 2005). Therefore, it was necessary in my analysis to determine "whether, beyond positioning within the network structure, conditions [existed] that [would] promote the development of relational skills (the ability to forge ties) or, inversely, if there [were] elements that led to relational vulnerability (difficulty with forging ties)" (Franke, 2005, p. 17).

At the conclusion of my data analysis, using network inquiry and the data obtained in this study, a reference tool to facilitate intergroup relations was created for Mason High school. Through this inquiry operational principles and objectives were identified, communication and decision-making protocols between relations were determined and variables to accommodate the dissemination and exchange of information were addressed (Charbonneau, 2005). The end result was an inquiry that could offer context specific examples to the discourse around the design and implementation of restructuring efforts for optimum service delivery in schools.

Finally, Chapter VI was reserved for reflections and conclusions. In this chapter I reviewed my methodology, my methods, my findings and I provided a brief review of the analysis of my data. I also reflected on the purpose of my study and the implications for research, policy and practice and the questions that may be of interest to future researchers interested in network inquiry.

While this chapter provided a summary of my study it also afforded me the opportunity to emphasize the potential of network inquiry in assisting schools to meet the

needs of students and families. For example, in this particular study, network inquiry examined the process of increasing linking social capital in a school context. The chapter was also used to identify ways to increase the bridging social capital to connect families to resources. Therefore, chapter six was dedicated to a discussion of network inquiry as a potentially promising practice for educational innovation.

CHAPTER TWO: RELATED LITERATURE

"The product of education—learning—is not produced by schools, but by students with the help and support of schools, parents, peers, and other community resources" (David Seeley, 1985, p. 65).

My vision of professional collaboration was based on a social capital perspective "that focuses on the strategic role of social networks that provide access to resources and support" (Franke, 2005, p. 1). By studying the way social relations are structured and the way they function, it is possible to identify the resources that are exchanged between children, youth and families in these networks of relationships and the learning contexts of children and youth. This in turn leads to a focus on the "utility of specific resources and their potential accessibility" (p. 14) for children, youth and families. This chapter begins by positioning the notion of social capital theoretically, followed by a discussion of the school as a gateway for community resources and related literature outlining the process of professional collaboration.

Building Capacity for Children, Youth, and Families

In a policy paper produced for the Anne E. Casey Foundation (2004), Schneider argued that healthy families and communities find resources through networks and organizations that reach beyond their doorstep. In the raising of children these resources would be social capital, "the norms, the social networks, and the relationships between adults and children that are of value for the child's growing up" (Coleman, 1987, p. 36).

These contextual influences, the child's relationships with adults and the child's environmental conditions, are "composed of critical systems (child, home, school, peer, and community or neighborhood [*sic*]) that affect academic, social, and emotional learning for students" (Christenson & Anderson, 2002, p. 379). The degree of support for the child and their efforts, opportunities in place or created for them to learn, and the resources available to the child, are not only academic enablers but likewise influence their ability to adapt to schooling (Pianta & Walsh, 1996).

By recognizing the opportunity for schools to network with other resources, we might also envision the potential of the school to educate children, support families, and influence the community. Moving from the position of 'what to do to get parents involved in their child's education,' versus 'what could schools do to promote positive child and family development' (Phillips Smith, Connell & Wright et al., 1997), we have embraced a conceptual framework (Bronfenbrenner, 1986) that acknowledged the embeddedness of families and schools in communities. For example, "the approach emphasizes the multidirectionality of family, school, and community relationships (i.e., that families influence schools, schools influence families) and both affect and are affected by the communities in which they reside" (Phillips Smith et al., 1997, p. 340).

Factors providing the genesis for this contextual approach to parent involvement include: changing views of the role of schools (Dryfoos, 1994); changing family demographics (Statistics Canada); a growing appreciation of "contextualism" (Bronfenbrenner, 1986); a de-emphasis on deficits and the concomitant focus on competency building (Phillips Smith et al., 1997); and a need to develop multi-setting collaborative partnerships to enhance potential for student success and well-being

(Coleman, 1987; Government of Saskatchewan, 1994; Rimm-Kaufman & Pianta, 2000). Furthermore, it has been suggested that when schools link families with other necessary resources (medical, childcare, parental training, recreation) they endow parents with the freedom to become more attentive to and more involved in the academic endeavours of their child (Carlson, Paavola, & Talley, 1995).

While a child's behaviour is influenced by continuous, reciprocal interaction among environmental, behavioural, and cognitive influences (Bandura, 1978), a child's performance in the classroom will be influenced by the attitudes and actions of the parent(s) in the home environment. For Coleman (1987), the outputs of education are a direct result of the interaction of the qualities the child brings from home with the experiences of school, which necessitates a 'coming together' of home and school for the purpose of promoting the child's success:

> As the social capital in home and neighborhood [*sic*] shrinks, school achievement and other growth will not be increased by replacing these resources with more school-like resources—that is, those that produce opportunities, demands, and rewards—but by replacing them with resources which produce attitudes, efforts, and conception of self—that is, those qualities that interact with the ones provided by the [home]. (p. 38)

Researchers have found community resources were more predictive of educational outcomes than family structure (Dornbusch, Ritter & Steinberg, 1991), which is a reminder for persons interested in educational reform that the home-school-community partnership must recognize the value of the resources within the community that could benefit children and families in the education process. Further, as the familial structure continues to change, new "institutions" are being sought to provide social capital to children and youth. The research would have these new institutions "analogous to the school…yet they cannot be like the school in the kinds of qualities they engender in

children, for the social capital that is now eroding leaves a more fundamental vacuum" (Coleman, 1987, p. 38). Instead, they need to be institutions that embrace the notion that school-family-community together can achieve more than either alone, and work as partners so that children and youth can succeed in school and in life.

Schools, families, and communities could work together around issues of communication, joint problem solving, and mutual support for the purpose of promoting educational opportunities for children and youth. As a form of citizens' participation parental involvement holds potential for influencing the climate of schools (Phillips Smith et al., 1997) if the involvement is based on a solution-oriented focus and a belief in shared responsibility between families and educators for educating and socializing children and youth (Christenson & Sheridan, 2001). It is through such a partnership that families and educators can work together in meaningful ways, with the respect and flexibility to execute their respective roles, to promote the academic and social growth of children and youth (Christenson & Sheridan, 2001).

The School as a Gateway for Community Resources

Interagency services stem from a concern with the increasing fragmentation of services which makes access to necessary services difficult; "philosophical reorientation in human services that regards the family, not the individual, as the unit of service" (Marquart & Konrad, 1996, p. 1), and a desire to reduce the cost of services while improving efficiency in service delivery. Such an initiative is not easily accomplished, however, and requires a paradigm shift at all levels of the educational system. To be specific, Dryfoos (1994) argued that,

> as programs become more comprehensive, school boards must be prepared to deal with difficult issues such as conflicting personnel practices, and union contracts; complying with regulations for dealing with [various] diseases, framing policies about substance abuse and mental health treatment on-site; and improving procedures for working with dysfunctional families. (p. 150)

Similarly, leadership needs to be redefined, interprofessional collaboration needs to be legitimized, extensive professional development needs to be built into the school structure, interagency agreements and contractual arrangements need to be negotiated, and all stakeholders need to be involved in the creation of new educational communities (Tourse & Mooney, 1999, pp. 131-132).

Whereas the approach that has long dominated the professions of education and human services is one that splits the developmental processes into parts or domains (Braback et al., 2003, p. 9), the philosophy of interagency schooling is based on the belief in the need to educate the whole child. Consequently, if practitioners hope to provide optimum benefits to children, they must "provide an integrated approach to program development that favors [*sic*] no single domain of development but instead, values all aspects of development and recognizes that the whole child is more than the sum of his or her parts" (Braback et al., 2003, p. 10).

Rethinking Philosophies in Educational Reform

A theoretical framework that conceptualizes the philosophy of educating the whole child can be found in the assumptions of developmental systems theory. The assumption of person-context interaction focuses on the multi-dimensional contexts of a child's life, family, neighbourhood and school, while at the same time examining development across the life span and considering multiple interacting levels of development (e.g., biological, psychological, social) (Braback et al., 2003, p. 18). Furthermore, developmental systems

theory grounds the practice of professionals who work collaboratively with or in community schools (p. 19). This coordinated effort of professionals who focus on one domain of development promotes “a more comprehensive understanding of the patterns of problems and strengths exhibited by individuals” (p. 21) and provides ongoing guidance and support in every developmental domain. As well, this focus on the individual and the context provides the holistic perspective that is essential in efforts to facilitate the optimal development of children.

School-linked services, provided through collaboration among schools’ health care providers and social service agencies, facilitate this whole-child development. School personnel are among the central participants in the planning and governance, and services are provided at the school (coordinated by school personnel) or at a site near the school. The school team model could include the school social worker, guidance counsellor, nurse, psychologist, administration, and selected teachers. Together, they would review “cases” to ensure that the needs of the students and their families are being met. Conversely, outside agencies could put together teams to be employed in schools. Public Health could contribute a nurse, Social Services a social worker, and Department of Mental Health a psychologist. This team would work with individual children, conduct home visits, follow up on attendance problems, refer students to health agencies for medical care, and work with individual and/or groups of teachers (Dryfoos, 1994, pp. 46-48).

Interagency, collaborative service delivery can fall into one of three categories:

1. School-based health clinic that delivers primary health care, psychosocial counselling and health education operated by health departments, hospitals, or community health

centres. Students can receive physical exams, treatment for minor injuries and illness, screening for STD's, pregnancy tests, and psychological counselling;

2. School-based youth service or family service centre that offers health, mental health, and family counselling, drug and alcohol counselling, recreation, employment services, parenting education, and/or child care on site and/or through linkages with other community agencies; and
3. Youth or family service centres that provide coordination with and referral to community agencies. (pp.141-142)

While decisions about services to include at a school may be driven by a community needs assessment, feasibility, funding and available sources from within and outside the community, optimum service delivery outcome demands the inclusion of strong core instructional programming, enrichment activities to support cognitive, social, emotional, moral and physical development, in addition to social, health and mental health services (Quinn, 1992, p. 168).

Therefore, when designing any model of interagency collaboration, the following questions need to be asked:

1. Does interagency collaboration minimize the duplication of services?
2. Does interagency collaboration increase the identification of resources and creative solutions?
3. Does interagency collaboration expand the availability of services to children and their families?
4. Does interagency collaboration streamline access to needed services?

5. Does interagency collaboration support inclusion education practices and reduce out-of-home placements?
6. Does interagency collaboration reduce overall expenditures per case? (Pfeiffer & Reddy, 1999, p. 120)

Pioneers in this area have asked these particular questions and as a result have improved schools. Ziegler (2001), for example, was the founder of *Schools of the 21st Century*. The objective of his model was to provide quality childcare, year-round child-care to preschoolers and before-and-after programs for school-age children. The results were impressive: there was an increase in parental involvement for school-age children; an increase in parents' attendance at work; improved community relations; and decreased vandalism to school property (Yale University, 2001, p. 25).

Ziegler's initiative created support systems for children but also benefited the parents and the family as a whole. Meeting the needs of the family resulted in improved school climate, increased levels of staff leadership and involvement with students, improved frequency of communication between staff and parents, and more parental engagement with children overall (Yale University, 2001, p. 25). What this perhaps demonstrates is that connections with parents and community are important in any intended collaboration yet, "[we] tend to put considerations of family, community, and economy off-limits in education reform" (Barton, 2001, p. 20). However, Ziegler's model offers an example of how, "if positive conditions are operating together in an integrative way…their collective impact will be significant" (Braback et al., 2003, p. 23). In essence, Ziegler's model promotes social cohesion: "building shared values and communities of interpretation, reducing disparities in wealth and income, and generally enabling people to have a sense

that they are engaged in a common enterprise, facing shared challenges, and that they are members of the same community" (Jenson, 1998, p. 3).

Consequently, it is crucial to acquire a better understanding of integrated school-linked services, what they are and what they are not. As Table 2.1 demonstrates, change of this nature "involves transforming how schools, communities and human service agencies operate, their structures, and also their organizational culture and philosophy" (Government of Saskatchewan, 1994, p. 4).

Table 2.1

Understanding Integrated School-Linked Services

Integrated School-Linked Services *Are* About:	Integrated School-Linked Services *Are Not* About:
• Collaboration and partnership • Broad-based community Involvement	• Single agency focus • Limited community involvement
• Focussing on the client and addressing needs of children at risk • More responsive and effective services	• Focussing on maintenance of structures/systems over client needs
• Shared leadership/ownership, planning, decision making, resources and evaluation	• Single organization leadership
• Community-based (bottom up) change initiative and management with support from the province	• Top down provincially-mandated change and control
• Finding ways to make better use of existing financial and human resources in the community	• New, additional resources
• Building coordination and collaboration into everyone's job	• Hiring additional staff who are responsible for coordination (adding to the infrastructure)
• Revised organizational mandates, roles and job descriptions, empowerment of field level staff	• Implementing a single mandated model
• Finding new ways of structuring organizations and delivering services • Fluid and flexible structures, processes and procedures	• Delivering services as always but with some small modifications aimed at enhanced coordination • Fixed, singular structures and processes
• Fundamental change	• Tinkering at the edges

From *Working Together to Address Barriers to Learning: Integrated School-linked Services for Children and Youth at Risk, Policy Framework*, (p. 4), Government of Saskatchewan, 1994.

An orientation toward integrated school-linked services recognizes that the school need not be the sole source of the education of children and youth. What is preferable is a response to the changing needs of youth and families that fosters strong partnerships and embraces an evolutionary process for service and support delivery. Such was the vision of the Government of Saskatchewan when it established the Community Schools Program in 1980.

Initially established in eleven elementary schools in core areas of Regina, Saskatoon, and Prince Albert, as a way to address the urban Aboriginal poverty in these communities, the Community Schools program has expanded to include rural and

northern areas, more urban sites and secondary and k-12 schools throughout the province. Characterized as being "responsive, inclusive, culturally affirming and academically challenging," Saskatchewan Learning. (2010, February 25). Retrieved from http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/branches/pol_eval/community_ed/commschools.shtml the four key components of this model are: the learning program, family and community partnerships, integrated services and community development.

Where there is the perception of a high number of students and families living in vulnerable circumstances, the Ministry of Education allocates enhanced funding through the Community Schools Program for the schools in these communities. However, before receiving a Community School designation, schools are required to submit evidence of their readiness to implement the Community School model and their need to do so. Evidence of a community's readiness may include:

- A community's understanding of and commitment to the Community School philosophy
- A school staff's understanding of and commitment to the Community School philosophy
- Community empowerment; that is, how all parties were involved in the initiative to seek the Community School designation
- Shared leadership in educational innovation
- Shared responsibility through partnerships and collaboration
- Responsive, integrative services
- Current practices and existing supports to support the philosophy and practices of the Community Schools model (Saskatchewan Learning. (2010,

February 25). Retrieved from http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/branches/pol_eval/community_ed/commschools.shtml).

The collaborative service process is about involving communities of people with shared values and challenges, and about making existing services more flexible and more accessible to children, youth, and families; what it is not is dividing up responsibilities and deciding who will do what, when, how, and for whom. Hence, the collaborative effort requires a fundamental change in the way schools and human service agencies think about their work and do their work (Government of Saskatchewan, 1994, p. 4). Rather than see themselves as individual agencies contributing a specific service, they become members of a team or a cooperative that functions collectively and holds as its vision that "children will grow in environments that support their well-being and enable them to reach their potential" with the resources available (Government of Saskatchewan, 1994, p. 19).

Embracing Community in Child-Centred Collaboration

The collaborative arrangement to deliver services more effectively is best defined by the particular community and the school. Together they will identify their sources of social capital, "the set of resources that inhere in family relations and in community social organization" (Coleman, 1994, p. 300) and then develop a program that is designed holistically so as to support families, to respect differences between persons within the community, to support children, youth, and families in a more centralized location and to support a process that is internally driven rather than externally prescribed. Figure 2.1 provides a conceptual framework for the collaborative process. This framework positions

the child at the centre of the circle in the context of family. Services are selected based on gaps identified by the community and a coordinated service delivery system is developed.

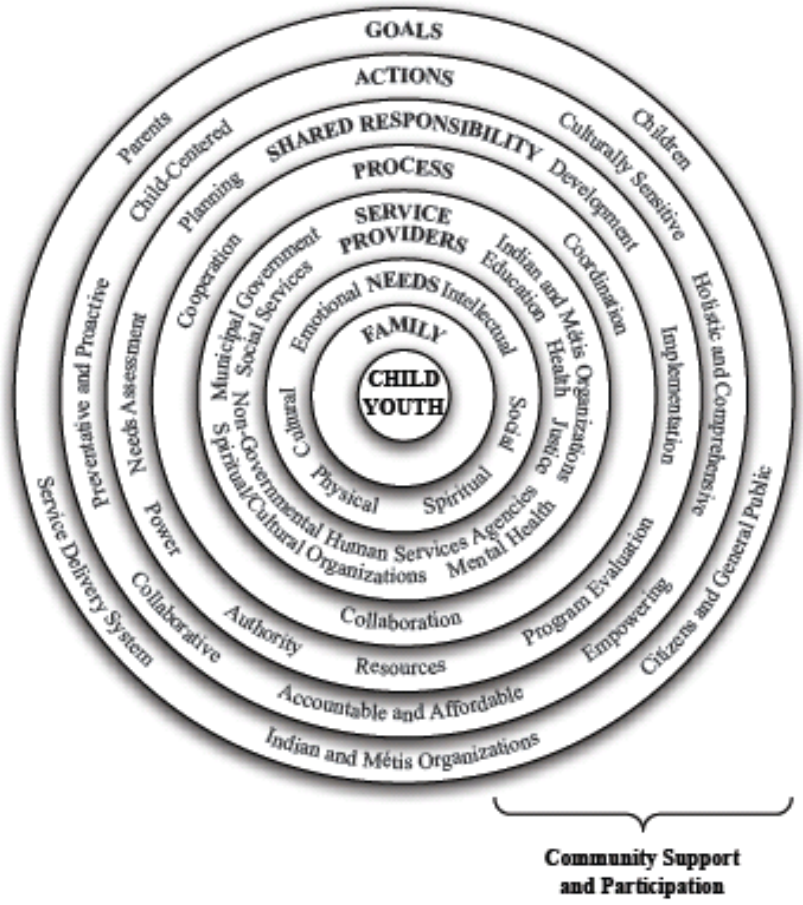

Figure 2.1. A conceptual framework for the collaborative interagency process

From. *Working Together to Address Barriers to Learning: Integrated School-linked Services for Children and Youth at Risk, Policy Framework* (p. 15), Government of Saskatchewan 1994.

All stakeholders are involved in the developmental process at all stages and engage in a collective effort to provide for children and youth while strengthening their surrounding communities. “Hence, through this process…the school is no longer isolated from the community by non-involvement; rather, the school is now part of the community and is a component of a larger organization addressing the needs of the entire community”

(Arthur & Bauman, 1994, p. 664). Furthermore, to ensure that the *actual* needs versus the perceived needs of a community and school are being considered, the variables of a needs assessment such as that required for Community School designation, for example, would facilitate this. This particular assessment includes information on the demographic, socio-economic statistics, justice statistics, health information, transience rates, and school/student profile (Saskatchewan Learning. (2010, February 25). Retrieved from http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/branches/pol_eval/community_ed/commschools.shtml

By following a four-step process, schools can become centres of a host of networks, which can drive the community-development process. This would necessitate:

1. Re-establishing the school as an asset within the community by inventorying the assets that make up the institution and would benefit the community;
2. Mapping the community assets that are potential partners for the institution;
3. Building productive relationships between the school and the other groups, agencies, and individuals in the community; and
4. Building bridges between local resources and institutions outside the community.

(Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993, p. 174).

Community development leaders and school officials need to work together because "healthy communities produce and support educational excellence and…good schools are the best guarantee of a community's future" (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993, p. 209). For this reason, schools need to look to the local community leadership for more than fiscal rescue. Furthermore, these newly formed partnerships,

> must be able to provide a firm foundation for both educational renewal *and* community regeneration…. What this means is that each local school should be seen not only as an "educational institution" but also as a rich collection of specific resources which can be used for strengthening the social and

economic fabric of the entire community. (pp. 209 – 210)

It is a formula that aims to build trust between families and schools, and a climate that fosters hope and optimism for children's learning.

The Collaborative Process to Integrate Services: A Conceptual Framework

By facilitating opportunities for people to make collective decisions, the participatory process also increases the sense of empowerment in the members for whom the community initiative is undertaken. As noted by Parker (1990), vision is more easily shared by people and realized as a group of people when "the desire to act [is an] act of being tuned into values [and] when [people] are aware of [their] values—what [they] care about most" (p. 45). Consequently, in an effort to facilitate this collaborative process, Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) argued that social capital is necessary for innovation and innovation is the product of collective problem solving, which generates and leads to new ideas. Furthermore, they suggested that three dimensions of social capital facilitate this: the structural, that refers to the properties of the social system and network of relations; relational, that refers to the dynamics of the developed relationships and would include trust, norms, obligations and the like. The third dimension, the cognitive, refers to the shared meanings, interpretations, and representations among groups (p. 244).

Social regeneration is necessary if we wish to increase social capital. Powered by a shared commitment and oriented in community development that is asset based, internally focused, and network driven (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993), the model envisioned by the Government of Saskatchewan (see Table 2.1) relinquishes the turf and embraces community in the interest of creating a more effective system of education and care. However, in order for the model to be successful it will be necessary to "locate all

of the available local assets, to begin connecting them with one another in ways that multiply their power and effectiveness, and to begin harnessing those local institutions that are not yet available for local development purposes" (pp. 5-6). Figure 2.2 provides a model that was used in this study for theorizing the activation of social capital.

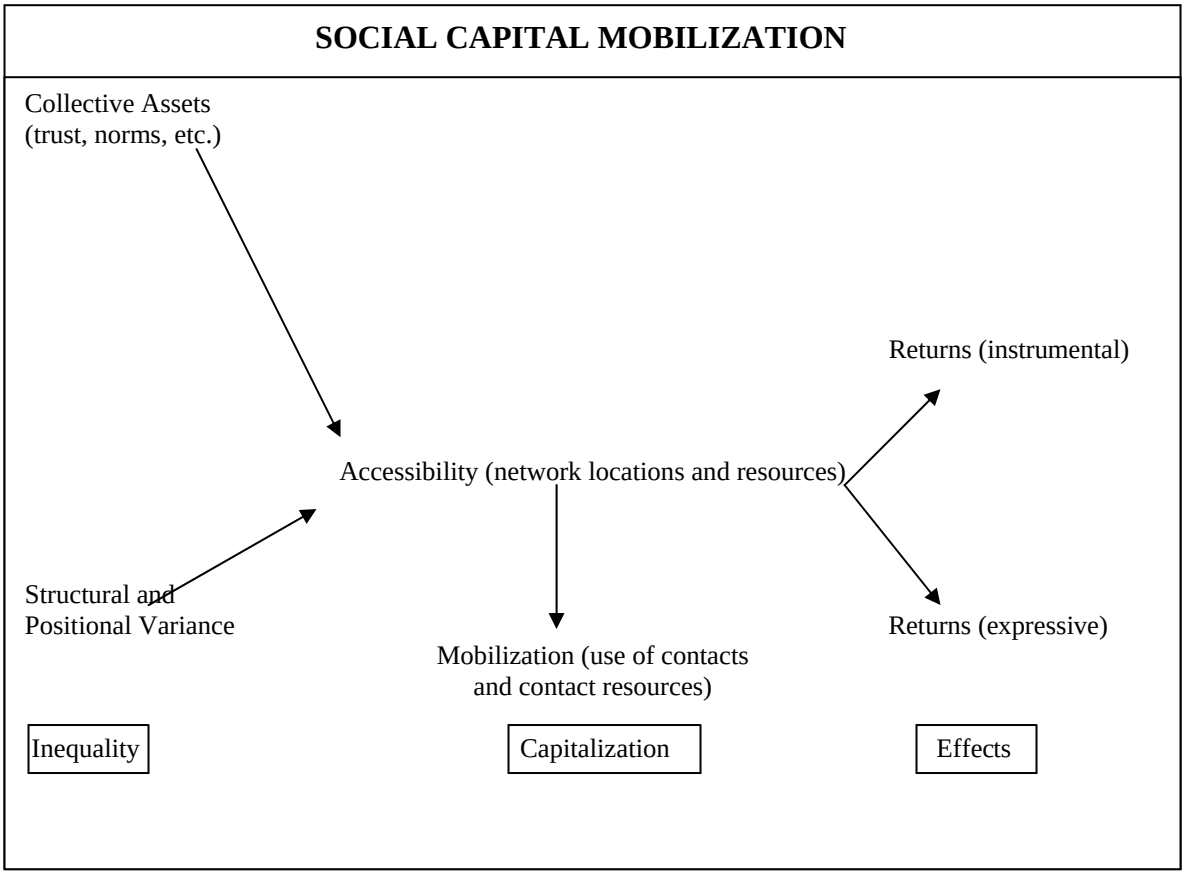

Figure 2.2. Modeling a theory of social capital.

Adapted from Lin, N. (1999) Building a Network Theory of Social Capital. *Connections*, *22* (1), pp. 28-51.

The first block (inequality) identifies the structural and positional elements in the structure that affect opportunities to construct and maintain social capital and "delineates patterns of differential distributions for social resources that are embedded, accessed, or mobilized" (Lin, 1999, p. 41). In the second block (capitalization) there is a process

linking access to social capital and use of social capital. The process that links the two elements "represents the process of social capital mobilization" (p. 42). This is where the model emphasizes possible choice action in mobilization. The third and final block (effects) "represents the process where social capital produces returns or yields" (p. 42).

Lin (1999) was adamant that a theory of social capital acknowledged the significance of *process* in the acquisition of social capital. Specifically he noted, "it is incumbent on a theory of social capital to delineate the patterns and determinants of the three ingredients of social capital…collective assets, accessible social resources and mobilized social resources" (p. 41). His model demonstrated the inter-connectedness of these three ingredients and in so doing, reinforced the importance of understanding the causal sequences that can constrain and enable individual's access to and acquisition of social capital.

Implementation of the Collaborative Process

In 1984, as an acknowledgement of the direction and promise of the Community Schools philosophy and model, The Indian and Metis Education Development (IMED) Program was developed in Saskatchewan to provide "funding and policy support for school divisions to develop innovative, responsive and culturally affirming supports for increasing Aboriginal student success" (Saskatchewan Community Schools Association. (2010, February 25). Retrieved from http://www.communityschools.ca/documents/Feb_05?NewsletterMed.pdf). In 1994 the Government of Saskatchewan developed a policy framework for integrated school-linked services for children and youth at risk and in 1996, a new policy framework for best practices for integrated service delivery. A holistic focus for service and support delivery

in Saskatchewan schools had gained momentum and in February of 2002, the Government of Saskatchewan endorsed the philosophy of SchoolPlus and SchoolPlus became a policy direction (Saskatchewan Community Schools Association (2010, February 25). Retrieved from http://www.communityschools.ca/documents/Feb_05_NewsletterMed.pdf).

Although reason and research may have provided the impetus for interagency schooling, the reality was that "the culture of autonomy is much stronger than the culture of collaboration" (Wasley et al., 1995, p. 215). Boundaries are a part of professionalism and "crossing these boundaries can be especially difficult for professionals who have been trained, licensed, or certified in a profession, and have garnered personal privilege and power by staying well within prescribed boundaries" (McCroskey, 2003, p. 122). Unique ethical codes, professional languages and decision-making models make collaboration difficult. As a result, it was not enough to be committed just to addressing academic and non-academic factors that contributed to learning outcomes for children and youth. All professionals needed to be committed to working together across their disciplinary and professional boundaries (Walsh & Park-Taylor, 2003, p. 16).

If interagency professionals were to work together, they needed to dialogue around collaboration. Engagement in the interactive process, mutual control over decision-making and subsequent action (or lack thereof), common goals and values, shared ownership of responsibilities and outcomes were just a few examples of the specifics that needed to be addressed in the initial stages (p. 16). By connecting and communicating, the partners could have begun the initial stages of collaborative practice where there was a formulation of a shared language and standardized procedure. However, even though

the Government of Saskatchewan (2006) asserted that SchoolPlus would happen in every school and community across the province, the transition was not sustained.

While a framework for integrated service delivery was proposed, strategies for a holistic approach to increased capacity were not. As Regnier (2002) observed, "the project of championing a community schools philosophy…is not merely a matter of providing a theory" (p. 8). Rather, the "implementation of the report's recommendations require approaches that overcome mechanistic perspectives in order to release creative forces, not just at the beginning of the project but on an ongoing basis" (p. 8). Unfortunately, the gap between initiative and implementation proved too great and the "impetus for change" (p. 6) faltered.

The vision that supported the model for community development and integrated service delivery in Saskatchewan schools encouraged a collaborative process and the creation of partnerships. Objectives were defined, governance was considered and the significance of professional development for teachers and others was emphasized (Government of Saskatchewan, 1994, p. 4) but the lack of strategies around sustainability, coordination of services, decision making and competing agendas, to name but a few, may have proved too significant an omission and this strategic integration was slowed considerably.

Creating the Conditions for Collaboration

According to Konrad (1996) the three most important conditions that lead to collaboration are: interdependence, complexity and the combination of novelty and uncertainty (p. 48). Combined, they can foster innovation and their collective voice can become an effective instrument for change and improvement within the institution itself

and in the community. Unity of purpose and shared vision are found in this collective voice which then evolves in the shared language: precise language for describing, implementing, and doing. A necessity, “shared language allows for effective communication focused on essential information” (Lawson, 2003, p. 57) but it does not negate room for diversity, which should be viewed as opportunity for possibility, creativity, and innovation. In other words, “specialization remains when collaboration occurs, but is bracketed by interdependence” (p. 57).

In a collaborative relationship, all agencies need to conceptually redefine their methods of operation and practice (Tourse & Mooney, 1999, p. 26). Similarly, power relations should be equalized and negotiated as much as possible; efforts of specialized people and organizations harmonized and synchronized (Lawson, 2003, p. 47); and legal and social contracts hammered out and mediated. As depicted by Figure 2.3, this system requires the blending of three dimensions: structural, process, and programmatic.

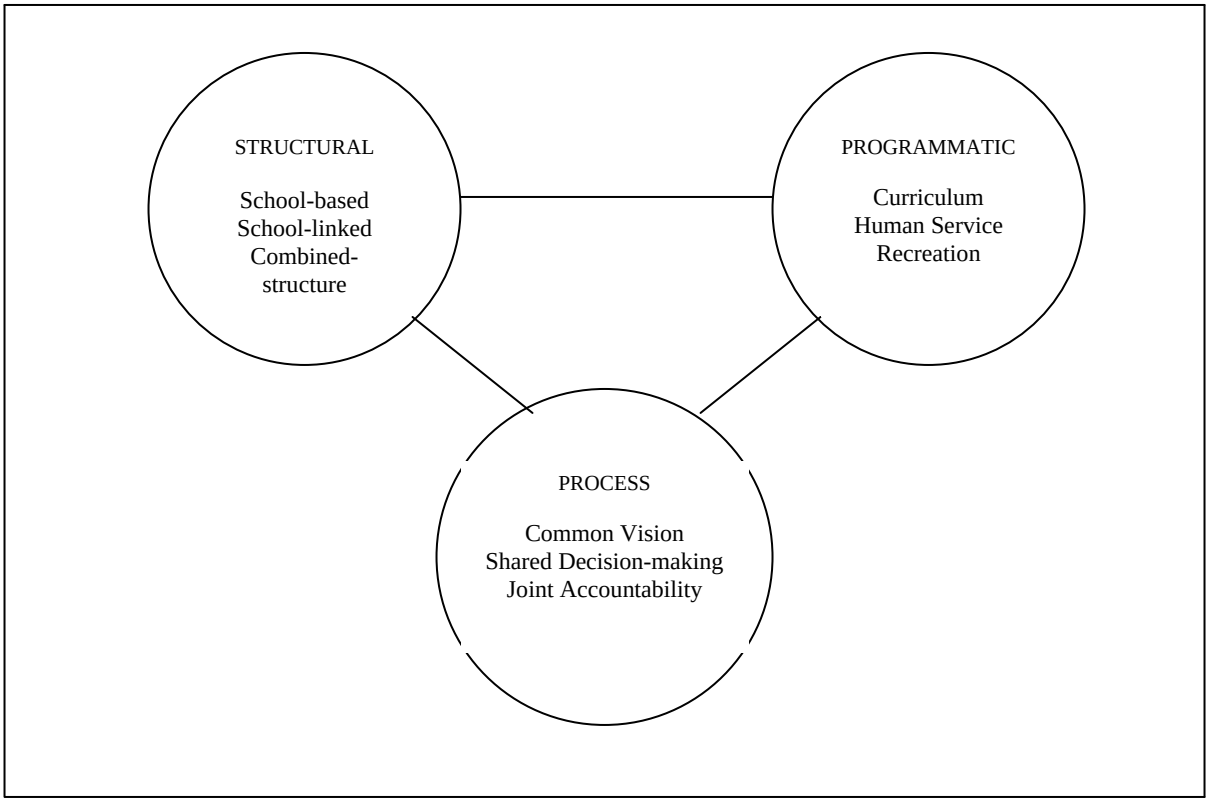

*Figure 2.3***.** Dimensions of interprofessional collaboration

From *Collaborative Practice: School and Human Service Partnerships* (p. 23), by R.W.C. Tourse and J.F. Mooney (Eds.), 1999, Westport, CT: Praeger.

While rationale for interprofessional collaboration can become a catalyst for capacity building for collective action, implementation requires the reframing of professional roles and responsibilities and a carefully defined and developed process (Tourse and Mooney, 1999). Furthermore, while the collective viewpoint is crucial in transdisciplinary work, shared vision cannot happen unless all are prepared to broaden their perspectives and to "see with the eyes of the other participants in a given problem" (Seaburn et al., 1996, p. 20). The potential for this to happen is much improved if the following prerequisites for collaborative practice are initiated and honoured:

1. Develop a common vision as it can help to alleviate misunderstandings and skewed assumptions;

2. Trust other members' contributions. It is fair to question but not if it is motivated by competitiveness;
3. Respect and accept as valid the theoretical perspective and knowledge of each profession;
4. Acknowledge shared responsibility to improve outcomes for children, youth, families and communities;
5. Respect the cultural diversity among professionals as it can inform treatment and intervention strategies;
6. Maintain open communications among disciplines; and
7. Accept professional diversity of orientations. This prevents tensions and creates opportunities for creative innovation. (Tourse & Sulick, 1999, p. 68)

Professional discussion and exchange of opinions, ideas, and suggestions can minimize the risk of professionals espousing too narrow a vision. Furthermore, by focusing on the process of communication, the collective viewpoint is further enriched by the "development of practice wisdom and a sound theoretical framework" (Tourse & Mooney, 1999, p. 27).

Collaborative initiatives may also be accommodated more easily when the professional language holds no ambiguity; however, even the term itself, *collaboration*, has many definitions:

1. *Interprofessional collaboration*: professionals who become part of a team;
2. *Youth-centered* [*sic*] *collaboration*: professionals view youth as partners who share in the responsibility and accountability for results;

3. *Parent-centered* [*sic*] *collaboration*: professionals view parents as partners who share in the accountability and responsibility but whose influences also affect their children;
4. *Family-centered* [*sic*] *collaboration*: professionals view family systems as partners who share responsibility and accountability for results and the future of the family;
5. *Intra-organizational collaboration*: requires the engagement of all parties on site;
6. *Inter-organizational collaboration*: shared responsibility and accountability of a group of organizations. Policies and practices are formalized and aligned in pursuit of the desired results;
7. *Community collaboration*: secures the capacities of all the pertinent stakeholders;
8. *Inter-governmental collaboration*: involvement of government sectors and offices, alignment of policies and practices. (Konrad, 1996, pp. 52-53)

The ambiguity in terminology demonstrates the necessity of clarifying the type(s) of collaboration that will occur and all the parties to be involved in the process. In fact, "one program manager found that rather than necessarily having educational credentials in a specific field, staff had to be smart, flexible, culturally sensitive, creative, highly organized, very dedicated, willing to work hard and tolerate stress, and genuinely care about people" (Dryfoos, 1994, p. 164). Parent involvement and community participation are important in and to the collaborative effort and while some participants may be professionals, others will not be but there is still a place for their participation. All are legitimate stakeholders in school-community improvement planning and while students will benefit from multiple educators, teachers will benefit from the additional support.

Integrated, comprehensive services benefit from the collective energy and experience of all types of people. As participation in public education "represents one of the most

important opportunities for interaction among different groups" (Robison et al., 2004, p. 86) educational administrators "work to provide the place and opportunities for human nurturance and growth" (Renihan & Walker, 2007, p. 18). Parents and their children can build and participate in social capital-rich networks and "a viable public education system can be a means of developing bridging social capital among parents if educational investment is made contingent on the formation of parental support networks" (Robison et al, 2004, p. 87). The expectation is that by assuming responsibility and sharing in the accountability, people can learn to help themselves.

Moving Forward: The Collaborative Alliance

Rather than be deficit-based, collaboration initiatives can be "aspiration based and opportunity-oriented" (Lawson, 2003, p. 55), which could potentially evolve into a shared identity where teams examine the students' school issues and proposed plan of action as brought to the table. As depicted by Table 2.2, perspectives of all parties, student, educators, community members, parents, other professionals, are considered; as a team the group addresses the specific needs/issues of the student; and collaboration proceeds to secure the necessary and appropriate services (Walsh & Park-Taylor, 2003, pp. 15-16).

Table 2.2

Toward a Collaborative Culture—A Continuum of Change

	Fragmented Services	Cooperation	Coordination	Collaboration	Integrated School Linked Services	Integrated Service Delivery
Steps	▪ Each agency provides mandated services and programs for specific client group ▪ Funding provided for mandated single-focus programs and services	▪ Identifies groups providing services and programs ▪ Share information ▪ Acknowledge common 'customers' ▪ Access needs ▪ Identify resources ▪ Make referrals	▪ Work together to identify needs and resources ▪ Work together to plan goals ▪ Identify and eliminate gaps and duplications by shifting resources	▪ Joint planning ▪ Set common goals ▪ Revise and develop protocols and legislation ▪ Job descriptions rewritten ▪ Evaluation of collaborative process and effectiveness of services	▪ Rewrite job descriptions and redirect staff and funding to deliver holistic service ▪ Collaboration to eliminate gaps and barriers and achieve common goals ▪ Ongoing professional development on collaboration ▪ Evaluate effectiveness of service delivery and integration	▪ Establish integrated funding source ▪ Community assesses needs, plans and implements programs
Characteristics	▪ No common philosophy, professional language or perspective ▪ Different service area boundaries ▪ Clients experience confusion ▪ Turfism ▪ Ineffective use of resources ▪ Patchy project funding ▪ Single-focus agencies ▪ Client needs frequently fall "out of jurisdiction" ▪ Centrally-directed	▪ Program information shared among agencies without formal interaction or interdependency ▪ Autonomous organizations functioning independently ▪ May still be competition for resources and effort ▪ Single-focus agencies aware of and supporting others' work	▪ Sharing of leadership planning, decision-making ▪ More collegial relationships among groups and organizations ▪ Additional resources often expected ▪ Movement toward becoming proactive	▪ Equal partnerships ▪ Collaborative culture ▪ Shared goals ▪ Mutual commitments, resources, decision-making and evaluation ▪ Diversity of client needs recognized ▪ Front-line workers empowered to work collaboratively ▪ Families and children empowered through service delivery system ▪ More effective use of resources ▪ Coordination the norm	▪ Equal partnerships ▪ Programs and services focused on client needs ▪ Flexible, responsive and effective services and programs ▪ Common values and philosophies ▪ Community-based with community support and participation ▪ Approaches are interdisciplinary ▪ Non-categorical flexible funding for children and youth ▪ Coordination and collaboration everyone's job	▪ Partners involved as equals ▪ Comprehensive, holistic preventive physical, social and emotional supports ▪ Broad-based community support and participation ▪ Non-categorical, flexible funding for programs and services
Structures	▪ Separate organizations, mandates, policies, procedures, protocols and legislation	▪ Interagency groups with informal structure to share information ▪ Organizations maintain separate procedures, policies, and activities determined without reference to those of other organizations	▪ Interagency groups that work on common projects with common goals ▪ May hire a coordinator to coordinate use of services ▪ Case management ▪ Interdisciplinary management team	▪ Protocols and agreements for collaboration in place ▪ Legislation and protocols revised ▪ Partnerships	▪ Integrated funding source for children and youth ▪ Programs with interdisciplinary service delivery teams	▪ Integrated funding source at community level ▪ Interdisciplinary delivery of service

From *Working Together to Address Barriers to Learning: Integrated School-linked Services for Children and Youth at Risk, Policy Framework* (p. 17), Government of Saskatchewan, 1994.

In an effort to improve upon the outcomes for and the well being of students, and to reflect the will of the community, power is "shared, experienced, and protected under the aegis of community assistance and interprofessional collaboration" (Sarason, 1995, p. 29). Furthermore, the fusion of specific perspectives and the interaction of paradigms creates a "collaborative alliance" (Tourse & Sulick, 1999, p. 65), a relationship built on trust and mutual respect that regulates the cooperative process.

Partnership Dynamics

The "temptation to reduce practitioner's value to a limited and narrow range of quality must be avoided" (Kline & Brabeck, 1999, p. 287). Optimal team functioning requires that team members feel free to express what they know, how they know it and how they feel (Julia & Thompson, 1994, p. 47). Similarly, each involved discipline needs to have a clear sense of their professional selves and understand the boundaries necessary for collaborative and individual work" (Tourse & Sulick, 1999, p. 67). In this "sensitive process of negotiation and engagement" (Neisler et al., 1999, p. 87), all interagency professionals should promote harmony and counteract any and all risk factors that disrupt preventative interventions and threaten team relationships (Coie et al., 1993, p. 1013).

Yet another condition necessary for cooperation and collaboration is dependence. "There has to be a sense of mutual dependence—a community of people each of whom knows that they need the other to be successful" (Kouzes & Posner, 2003, p. 93). Moxley and Alexander (2003) referred to these norms of reciprocity as being inherent of partnerships:

> We like the name *partnership* (original). It suggests the basic idea: men and women coming together to accomplish the leadership tasks—*they* create a shared vision, *they* work together to build commitment to and maintain alignment with the vision, and *they* use the skills and energies of all partners to handle change and deal with the adaptive challenges. (p. 75)

Partners value the knowledge, experience and contributions of others in "appreciative relationships," which leads to insights among the partners and a shared view of opportunities for and within the partnership. Combined, they reinforce the appreciative relationships.

Hence, relationships are dependent on the following behaviours and/or qualities: mutual respect and trust, key learning skills (advocacy, inquiry, listening), commitment to follow through towards goals, willingness and ability to emphasize so as to understand others' points of view, and accountability (Rosenblum & Oates, 2003, pp. 99-100). As is demonstrated in the framework constructed by the researcher in Figure 2.4, common interests draw the members together initially; that is the reason the partnership exits. Then, as the interests and the objectives of the group are clearly established, the partnership potential is optimized and strategic alignment attained. At the point of alignment, partners engage in joint planning and execution (p. 99).

FRAMEWORK OF A SUCCESSFUL PARTNERSHIP

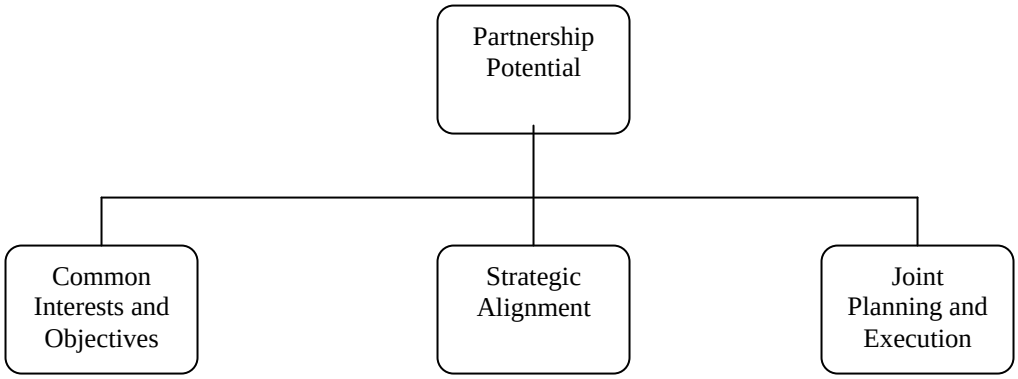

Figure 2.4. Conceptualization of the partnership showing the genesis of collaboration

Likewise, partnerships can mobilize the energies and resources of the group to generate creative, appropriate interventions, as well as links between the school, the home, and the community. If "each participant places a priority on developing and sustaining this spirit of collegiality" (Thomas, 2003, p. 149), entire collaboratives can "do the right things (leadership) in the right ways (management) [thereby] promoting honesty, integrity, and norms of reciprocity" (Tourse & Sulick, 1999, p. 59).

Ethical practice.

While collaboration may develop in non-linear, interactive phases, one thing is certain: collaboration means "doing the right things, at the appropriate times, in the appropriate places, for justifiable reasons, to achieve the desired results" (Lawson, 2003, p. 45). Resolution may be complicated, however, when a number of professionals are involved in the decision-making because "many of the critical ethical issues, particularly in multidisciplinary settings, extend beyond client situations to complex,

interprofessional, and team relationships" (Joseph & Conrad, 1989, p. 22). Still, while moral questions and dilemmas are realities of professional life, "good intentions are not enough to ensure that wrongs will not occur" (Koocher & Keith-Spiegel, 1998, p. 3).

Professions have their own values and standards that are typically reflected in their codes of ethics, codes that are meant to provide practitioners with general guidelines regarding ethical dilemmas, establish norms related to the profession, and to help the profession regulate itself. These "blueprints for professional conduct" (Kline & Brabeck, 1999, p. 291) share some common ethical themes among different professions' codes of conduct.

Using virtue ethics, Jordan and Meara (1990) suggested that the following principles may be seen as those that *ground* professional ethical codes: justice, autonomy, beneficence, and care and utility. On the other hand, Bayles (1989) focused on the *contexts* within which ethical concerns could arise in various professions: making professional services available to all, concern for other's welfare, attention to the professional relationship, concern for effect on others of professional conduct on behalf of client and professionals' status as an employee. Finally, Koocher and Keith-Spiegel (1998) identified *core principles* for psychology: do no harm, respect autonomy, benefit others, be just, be faithful, accord dignity, treat others with care and compassion, pursue excellence and accept accountability.

While these lists suggest that ethical decision making may be a consequence of character and/or context, Brabeck and colleagues (1998) focused the analysis even more and identified six ethical mandates shared by six school-based professional codes of conduct in teaching, school administration, psychology, school counselling, social work

and nursing. The principles are defined as follows: professional competency, integrity, professional and scientific responsibility, respect for others' rights and dignity, concern for others' welfare, and social responsibility. Given the "unanimity of agreement on these principles" (Braback et al., 1998, p. 292) they could potentially help to inform ethical decision making in interprofessional collaborations, which "contributes to better outcomes and satisfaction for all involved" (Tourse & Mooney, 1999, p. 240).

While interprofessional collaboration requires that practitioners be able to view moral issues through multiple lenses, the reality is that "interprofessional relations sometimes manifest themselves in political, economic, and territoriality disputes" (Koocher & Keith-Spiegel, 1998, p. 313). Furthermore,

> disputes over which professional action is "most right" carry with them a powerful moral energy and are often the most difficult to resolve. Many practitioners struggle to explore and consider objectively the ethical reasoning of colleagues who may endorse a course of action that they consider unjust or most undesirable. (Kline & Brabeck, 1999, p. 293).

A powerful intervention emerges when differences are honoured, assumptions are suspended and "the complexities of ethical questions…become an open and public dialogue within the team and one characterized by a spirit of non-defensive interest in each layer of concern" (p. 294). Practitioners need to focus on the intended recipient of their collaborative efforts and determine what is the moral imperative for that person. Team members can serve as consultants to one another; they can negotiate the best solution(s) to the problem(s) and internalize the various codes of ethics. They should value the ethical character of all participants to "generate a sense of being in something together" (Strike, 1999, pp. 47-48).

According to Quinn (2003), there are three principles that guide collaborative interprofessional work: “everything has to be negotiated; it’s all about relationships; to make these partnerships work, you have to have the word “yes” written in your heart” (p. 176). Collective will and compassion will not only result in positive outcomes for children, families, and communities but will benefit also the practitioners from multiple professions as they eliminate mutually and collectively, the barriers that face their clients.

Structural Properties of Networks

Social networks operate within certain structures or institutions that enable a shared vision, an understanding of the issues, and a way to confront them. Franke (2005) acknowledged the work of Reimer (2002) in her understanding that “Institutional arrangements…influence the way in which social capital is put to work in different communities… [and] manifests itself…depending on prevailing institutional arrangements” (p. 20). Noting as well the contributions of Atwood (2003), Franke found that “phenomena such as spatial concentration, neighbourhood stability and residential homogeneity are important determinants in the functioning and creation of certain social networks” (2005, p. 20).

In earlier research on social capital, Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998), hypothesized that social capital is necessary for innovation and further argued that innovation is the product of collective problem solving which will generate and lead to new ideas. Furthermore, they believed that this process was facilitated by three dimensions of social capital: the structural, referring to the overall pattern of connections between the actors in the network; the relational, the assets that are created and leveraged through these relationships (e.g., trust and trustworthiness, norms and sanctions, obligations and

expectations); and the cognitive, of shared meanings and interpretations (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998, p. 244). Participation in networks, trust, reciprocity, social norms and proactivity, develop capacity to work together as a community "to productively mobilize associative resources located in the various social networks to which the members of the group have access" (Atria et al., 2004, p. 20). By connecting capacities in creative combinations (networks) we can activate these same networks to strengthen our communities.

Barriers to Implementation

While service integration makes economic sense and holds great potential for improving the lives of individuals, families, and communities, the solutions "also require negotiation of new forms of cooperation and coordination and new ways of mobilizing energies and resources of communities" (Flaxman & Passow, 1995, pp. 266-267). This includes, but is not limited to: shifting the focus of delivery from services provided to results achieved for the intended target group; "devolving authority" for decision making down the hierarchy; getting the respective helping organizations to function together in a more integrated, collaborative manner; adjusting the relationship between the service providers and the beneficiaries of the services; and creating partnerships where each party has roles and responsibilities (Morrill, 1996, pp. 86-87).Consequently, a major challenge for all practitioners is the establishment of balance between turf issues and effective and efficient service delivery.

Dryfoos (1994) argued, "whatever emerges—a partnership, a cooperative effort, or a collaborative—must be graced with a legal contract or a memorandum of agreement that creates a formal structure and clarifies roles and responsibilities in great detail" (p. 150).

In addition, candid discussions need to address the following specifics which are common to most service integration initiatives: partners, target population, goals, program policy and legislation, governance and authority, service delivery model, stakeholders, planning and budgeting, financing, outcomes and accountability, licensing and contracting, and information systems and data collection (Konrad, 1996, pp. 12-17).

Collaboration does not 'just happen' nor is it above conflict. Therefore, in order for collaboration, cooperation and dialogue to occur among all parties, it is important that the following be established and understood: work they do, mission statements and goals of respective professions, policies, rules, and procedures that will govern the delivery of their services (respective protocols), evaluation strategies, professional language, staffing procedures, and affiliation with other agencies/organizations. A focus on unified procedures and philosophic orientation will aid in the communication process.

Further eschewing the notion that collaboration is without tension, Pfeiffer and Cundari (1999) argued that integrated practices could aptly be described as a "minefield of possible obstacles" (p. 112). For example, frames of reference, personal, professional, organizational or a combination thereof, can influence the position and attitude you bring to the table. These "attitudinal barriers can adversely affect commitment to the collaborative process, and therefore the ultimate success of the team process" (p. 114). Likewise, "awkward realities" (Ball, 1990, p. 74) such as influence, pressure, compromise, resistance, and opposition "compete, overlap and often conflict" (Burch et al., 1992, p. 149), as do policies. The "separate agency agendas" (p. 149) and the sparring over procedural and philosophical differences are detrimental to the collaborative effort and the collegial spirit. Thus, member agencies must be prepared and accountable "for

bringing about changes in policy and practice when called on to do so" (White & Wehlage, 1995, p. 24).

White and Wehlage (1995) suggested that there are three problems inherent in attempts to establish community collaboration, the first being "slippage" between policy and action. Slippage occurs when there is disagreement about how to implement policy, when there is tension between the intent of policy and the realities of implementation, or when professionals attempt to protect their individual interests. For example,

> in dealing directly with the human dimension of policy, front-line workers constantly confront the apparent unfairness of treating people in different situations alike. These experiences teach street level bureaucrats to use their discretion in ways that compromise the uniformity of implementation policy makers intended. Front-line workers acquire a certain kind of expertise through their experiences serving clients that is absent among those not directly involved. At the "street-level," they feel justified in exercising their discretion because they are dealing with a different world than are those who make policy. (p. 25)

Here, different interests are at odds with the "practical demands of collaboration" (p. 28) and this lack of unified procedure demonstrates that "broad agreement does not nullify the particular interests of an individual agency or its professionals and bureaucrats" (p. 27).

Yet another complication identified by White and Wehlage is the discord over reform policies, the consequence of "fundamental disagreements over the definition, causes, and remedies of problems" (p. 28). Practitioners need to reach consensus regarding action on behalf of the youth or child as well as some agreement as to the causes/sources of their troubles. Agreeing that "something" should be done is insufficient—*exactly* what that "something" should be, is the crux. This lack of compliance illustrates the difficulties of agreement when combining competing theories and explanations for youth problems,

with a profusion of competing proposals to remedy the situation (White & Wehlage, 1995, pp. 28-29).

The final barrier, “disjuncture between policy and community conditions” (White & Wehlage, 1995, p. 29), is “usually the result of inadequate and inaccurate knowledge about conditions in the communities being served” (p. 29). This disconnect can also result from not having the right people involved in the policy-making process (p. 30). For these reasons, the broadest range possible is necessary in a collaborative initiative. Those persons at the highest levels of the respective agencies and organizations should be included, as should high-level professionals and bureaucrats. As people with leverage, they are important to and in the collaboration because they are visible, persuasive, and they have connections.

On the other hand, persons with leverage are unlikely to have influences with the recipients of the services. Collaborative initiatives are more likely to be received if there is representation and a voice from the community so it is wise to include members of the target population on the planning committee. Having “representation by those who live it” (p. 31) could definitely legitimize initiatives in the eyes of the community members and could “forge the bonds of community” (Strike, 1999, p. 48) as all members pursue a communal benefit together.

While the focus of collaboration should not be on barriers alone, leaders in the initiative need to be mindful of the dysfunction caused by slippage, discord and disjuncture. When professionals “contribute to the types of institutional and cultural barriers that preclude true collaboration…their interactions are at best superficial, and at worst dishonest” (Braback et al., 2003, p. 63). Not only must they be committed *by* the

legal and professional standards of their profession; they must also be motivated by a commitment *to* their client and *to* the practices that can improve the condition of their clients' lives.

The Future for Interagency Schooling

In an effort to fulfill the aforementioned mandates, the Saskatchewan Government launched a province-wide initiative in June of 1993 "to encourage a concerted effort in the province for the protection and well-being of [their] children" (Government of Saskatchewan, 1994, p. 3). Based on feedback provided by the pilot projects throughout the province, the following barriers to collaboration and integrated services were identified:

1. Unclear agency mandates;
2. Confidentiality legislation provisions and protocols;
3. Lack of concurrent regional boundaries for government departments' lack of resources and services;
4. Differing philosophies and perspectives among agencies;
5. Inconsistency in professional language;
6. Absence of cooperation, collaboration and case management responsibilities in job descriptions;
7. Government bureaucracy and protocols around funding, procedures, programs and the like; and
8. Lack of protocols for interagency collaboration.

Significant obstacles on their own, these structural barriers were further aggravated by human barriers (turfism, lack of skills/training, racism, discrimination) and various

oppositions to change at the community level (readiness, history, tradition, time restraints).

Bureaucrats understood that actions were necessary at the provincial, regional, and community level and responded accordingly. Provincial responsibilities were to include "providing the vision and philosophical direction, supporting policies, promotion and assistance, as well as for systematically identifying and removing structural barriers to integration of services" (Government of Saskatchewan, 1994, p. 39). At the regional level, duties were to include "promoting and creating a collaborative culture and removing barriers to collaboration and service integration at the regional level" (p. 40). That left only the school and community who were responsible for "initiating and developing collaborative relationships and integrated strategies for service delivery" (p. 41).

In addition to the efforts of government personnel, the Saskatchewan School Trustees Association (1992) held a symposium to also discuss the necessity and pragmatism of integrated service delivery. They too came up with a list of suggestions for the future role of schools. They agreed "that action must begin immediately—that the time for talking [was] over and the time for doing [had] begun" (p. 1). Urgency, pragmatism, and a philosophical shift provided the impetus for significant reform yet eighteen years later, discussions of interagency collaboration remain, for the most part, at the "what if" stage.

Perhaps this stagnation can be attributed to a fact of innovation design: that it was influenced by familiarity. If an agency can see successful adoption of an innovation by another agency, they are more likely to adopt it for themselves (Schuller, 2001, p. 19). Consequently, when we speak of community building or whole community mobilization

we tend to do so from a deficiency-oriented approach because deficiency orientation is the pervasive model in our society that sparks the charitable response (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993). For example,

> public, private and non-profit human service systems, often supported by university research and foundation funding, translate the programs into local activities that teach people the nature and extent of their problems, and the value of services as the answer to their problems. As a result, many …urban neighborhoods [*sic*] are now environments of service where behaviors [*sic*] are affected because residents come to believe that their well-being depends upon being a client. They begin to see themselves as people with special needs that can only be met by outsiders. They become consumers of services, with no incentive to be producers. (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993, p. 2)

Individuals, organizations and businesses alike respond to communities based on information provided to them via a needs assessment. Ironically, in an attempt to help, these agencies further incapacitate these neighbourhoods and the persons in them because "they think of themselves and their neighbours as fundamentally deficient, victims incapable of taking charge of their lives and of their community's future" (p. 4). Equally debilitating consequences of this deficit orientation include the fact that: communities do not necessarily see their situation as a breakdown in their own problem solving capacity; allocation of funding based on a needs assessment is often directed at the service providers and not necessarily the intended recipients of the funds; and funding made available based on a needs assessment will continue to focus on the problems and deficiencies in the neighbourhood while ignoring capacities and strengths (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993).

Initiatives aimed at improving life chances for children and their families should focus less on service provision and more on the development of a plan that can utilize the energy and the resources of an entire community. This was the case in the community of

Mason High school, which was the host site for my inquiry. Their response to the changing needs of their students and families was asset based community development, that was capacity-focused. As depicted in Figure 2.5, the key was to involve and mobilize all parties of their community's asset base.

ASSET-BASED COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

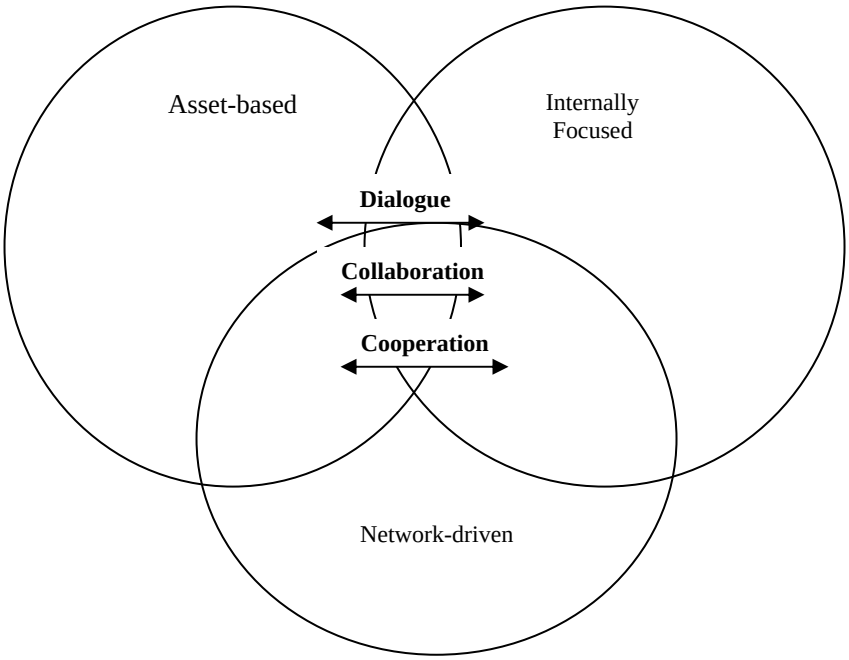

Figure 2.5. Depicts community development as a collaborative process where the abilities and competencies of all members are utilized.

From *Building Communities from the Inside Out: A Path Toward Finding and Mobilizing a Community's Assets* (p. 9), J. Kretzman and J. McKnight, 1993, Chicago, ILL: ACTA Publications.

Assets included the capacities of residents, staff, students as well as the institutional and associational base of the community. Issues within the school community were addressed from the inside out and resolution, where necessary, became a collaborative effort between staff, parents, community residents, institutions and associations in the

community. Important to the entire process was the network. In the spirit of cooperation, a building and rebuilding of relationships occurred between parents, residents, institutions and associations in the community.

Chapter Summary

An asset-based orientation recognizes that the "raw material for community-building is the capacity of its individual members" (Snow, 2004, p. 13) and as such, is committed to locating the assets within the community, honouring all perspectives, and enhancing the existing assets and capacities through networking. My study was an inquiry focused on such an organization in an educational context. By focusing on their half-full realities rather than the half-empty ones (Snow, 2004) the staff and administration at Mason High School put need into action in an attempt to improve the welfare of its members.

A community development strategy that facilitated this capacity building and the fostering of social capital in the Mason High school community, was one that advocated community building and community engagement. As suggested by the data, staff initiatives became a type of "productive catalyst" (Schneider, 2006, p. 37), as school personnel assisted community-based organizations, parents, residents and associations with capacity building and provided a link between community and other resources. While acting in these capacities the school had three social capital related functions:

1. They built *bridging social capital* among community members through social activities, networking activities, fundraising activities and other initiatives that encouraged the creation of social capital links among community members.
2. They enhanced the *closed social capital* development in the respective community through community organizing, asset identification activities,

positive school-community relations and other school-community based initiatives.

3. They fostered and encouraged *linking social capital* between the school, the community and other institutions and agencies that had required resources. (Schneider, 2006, p. 37)

Strengthening home-school-community partnerships "is a process that takes time, is not always interesting, and is one in which mistakes are both inevitable and invaluable" (Christenson & Anderson, 2002, p. 388). However, in order to foster a sense of community and complementary family-school-community roles for children's school success, the community of Mason High school attempted to strengthen itself from the inside, by inviting stakeholders to be a part of the collaborative process. Similarly, to conceptualize educational reform and actualize interagency collaboration, the staff of Mason High school and the professionals and others with whom they were collaborating for the purposes of service and support delivery, were educated about education to see the potential of social capital mobilization and the value of participating in networks of mutually beneficial relationships. *Facilitated* by cooperative, nonblaming relationships between school and home, *guided* by a supportive environment that encouraged problem-solving and negotiation by all members of the community, and *enhanced* by the involvement and commitment of parents in the schooling of their children, options and resources available to children and youth were maximized and so too were their chances of success during their school years.

CHAPTER THREE: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

"Society is not merely an aggregate of individuals; it is the sum of the relations in which these individuals stand to one another" (Marx [1857], 1956, p. 96).

Using Network Inquiry to Explore the Construct of Social Capital

While it is possible to measure social capital and its impact, as noted by Grootaert and van Bastelaer (2002), "methodological diversity is both a strength and a challenge of research on social capital. The analysis cannot be conducted strictly within the economic paradigm, using quantitative methods. Nor can it be investigated solely through anthropological or sociological case studies" (p. 344). Furthermore, for a measurement tool to be useful, it should enable a researcher to: identify what social capital is, explore its productive potential (i.e., how social relations and their dynamics constitute an additional resource for individuals and communities) and identify the levers affecting the ways it's created, accumulated, accessed and utilized (Voyer, 2004, p. 5). Hence, research emphasis needs to be placed on networks, "the core constituent elements of social capital" (p. 5).

The Notion of Social Capital

Social capital consists of networks of social relations and "it is the quality of social relationships between individuals that affect their capacity to address and resolve problems they face in common" (Stewart-Weeks & Richardson, 1998, p. 2). Therefore, social capital lies at the core of this research, not as a single construct but as a composite of different variables that facilitated exchange of knowledge, knowledge sharing and knowledge construction. Furthermore, social capital provided a framework for

conceptualizing “features of community that serve to enable and support the identity and empowerment processes” (Campbell, 2002, p. 186) so that individuals and groups of individuals could actively engage in the communities around them thereby fostering the development of asset-promoting social relations.

Stone (2001) suggested that by linking social capital measurement to theoretical understanding of the concept we are able to: 1) “recognize that social capital is a multidimensional concept comprising social networks, norms of trust, and norms of reciprocity; 2) understand social capital properly as a resource to action; and 3) empirically distinguish between social capital and its outcomes” (p. 6). Once social capital was understood as networks of relations, there was a need to study the morphology of the networks; that is, the structure (properties of networks, members and relationships) and the dynamic (conditions for creation and mobilization). Consequently, “social network methodologies focus upon the contacts, ties, connections, group attachments and meetings which relate one actor to another and which are therefore not able to be reduced to the properties, or attributes, of individual agents” (Scott, 1991, p. 3).

Table 3.1

Measurable Components of Social Capital

Structural Element of Social Capital: Networks (properties of networks, members, and relationships)	Quality of Social Relations: Norms (conditions for creation and mobilization)
Type: Informal, Formal	Norm of Trust: Social trust
Size/Capacity: Limited, Extensive	Norm of Reciprocity: Direct, Indirect
Spatial: Household, Community	
Structural: Open-Closed, Multiplex-Simplex, Homogeneous-Heterogeneous	
Relational: Vertical, Horizontal	

From *Measuring Social Capital: Towards a Theoretically Informed Measurement Framework for Researching Social Capital in Family and Community Life, Research Paper No. 24* (p. 7), W. Stone, 2001. Australian Institute of Family Studies.

As Stone (2001) discovered from her research on network measurement and the measurement of their characteristics:

> the existence of a social network cannot act as a measure of social capital per se, but must be linked to investigation of the norms governing social relations within a given network, and ideally to the characteristics of the network in question. (p. 25)

An inquiry of this nature not only offers insight on the existence of social networks in specific contexts but on the condition of social network functioning and mobilization as well.

Network Types: Formal and Informal

Informal networks include those between family, kin, friends and neighbours while formal networks include ties to voluntary associations and others affiliated with one's civic or institutional life (Putnam, 1998). With networks that are less formal "the key information is the scope of the network and the internal diversity of its membership"

(Grootaert & van Bastelaer, 2002, p. 346) whereas the focus in formal networks is directed more toward measuring aspects of the membership and the institutional functioning thereof (p. 346). Table six depicts a framework of both types of networks as depicted by Stone (2001).

Table 3.2

Types of Formal and Informal Networks

Informal Networks	Formal Networks and Social Relations
o Family household	o Non-group based civic relations (good deeds, individual community action
o Family beyond the household	o Associations/Group based relations (childcare, education, charity, volunteering, etc.
o Friends/Intimates	o Work based (colleagues, professional associations)
o Neighbours	o Institutional

From: Stone, W. (2001). *Measuring social capital: Towards a theoretically informed measurement framework for researching social capital in family and community life.* Research Paper No. 24, p. 9.

Social Capital Measurement

When measuring social capital in family and community life Stone (2001) noted that data are first collected at the level of the individual. Individuals may first "be asked questions about the community, region or nation they are part of [then] the social capital of communities (or regions or areas) is measured by collating information gathered from

individuals within those communities, rather than by examining a particular community more directly" (p. 3). The benefits of this approach are twofold: "it provides an indication of the level and distribution of social capital within an area, as well as a detailed picture of social capital in the lives of individuals and families" (p. 3).

In an effort to determine that social capital exists in families Coleman (1988) focused on the relationships between children and in-residence parents. To substantiate Coleman's claim, a researcher could use the following prompts developed by Majoribanks (1998) to determine whether or not an exchange actually exists:

1. My mother/father supports my learning by reading with me every day.
2. My mother/father supports me emotionally by listening to my concerns and needs.

If this researcher wanted to determine only that a relationship did exist and not the quality of the exchange, data of this nature would suffice. One could establish, with certainty, that there was or was not an exchange between a child and a parent who was physically present; thus the structural element of social capital within the family household would have been identified but not the quality.

Baum, Palmer, Modra, Murray and Bush (2000) identified exchanges that extended beyond the in-residence family unit using questions related to the activities a respondent may have done monthly or more often in the past twelve months. The following Table (3.3) represents the specifics of their queries.

Table 3.3

Networks of Social Participation

Informal Social Participation	Public Social Participation	Group Social Participation
o Visited friends or had friends visit	o Been to a restaurant	o Played sport
o Visited neighbours or had neighbours visit	o Been to social club	o Been to gym, exercise class
	o Been to a theatre	o Involvement in a hobby group
	o Been to a party/dance	o Involvement in a support group

From: Baum, F., Palmer, C., Modra, C., Murray, C., & Bush, R. (2000). *Families, social capital and health*. In I. Winter (Ed.) Social capital and public policy in Australia, (p. 255). Melbourne: Australian Institute of Family Studies.

Collecting this data allowed the researchers to ascertain the types of networks the participants had access to and the activities participated in but nothing in this data relayed specifics of the benefits of the relationships while engaged in these activities nor if any relationships exist at all.

Consequently, while the ‘how’ and the ‘when’ within a given social system may have been established it is essential that we also identify with whom interpersonal communication occurs. As Anirudh and Uphoff (2002) reminded us: “social capital is an attribute that exists and operates within and between individuals [and] is, then, a product of collective thinking and activities that represents more than the sum of individual actions and cognition” (p. 115). While there is value in being able to assess the type and frequency of association, there is still a need to measure the quality of network relations.

For example: What does the individual gain from the association with a particular group? What is it that motivated the involvement in the first place?

If researchers hope to better understand social capital as a construct, the data collected need to focus on two things: “the resources that can be potentially accessed or created through participation in the networks [and] the benefits of [these] social relationships”(Government of Canada, 2005, p. 7). In other words, assessing the number of associations to which an individual belongs is of limited value to our understanding of social capital unless the measurement includes what members actually do as part of that association and how far this relates to public as well as private good (Baron et al., 2002, p. 27). It needs to be understood in terms of relational exchanges and the conditions of those exchanges that help or hinder the creation of capacity.

Measuring Network Structure and Distribution

As the size and capacity of networks may affect the overall stock, in social capital research “measures typically either map networks of significant others around an individual or a family, or are concerned with particular types of exchanges” (Stone, 2001, p. 17). Based on the research findings of Salmenkaita (2004) the following model (Figure 4.1) was constructed to represent the structure of the network.

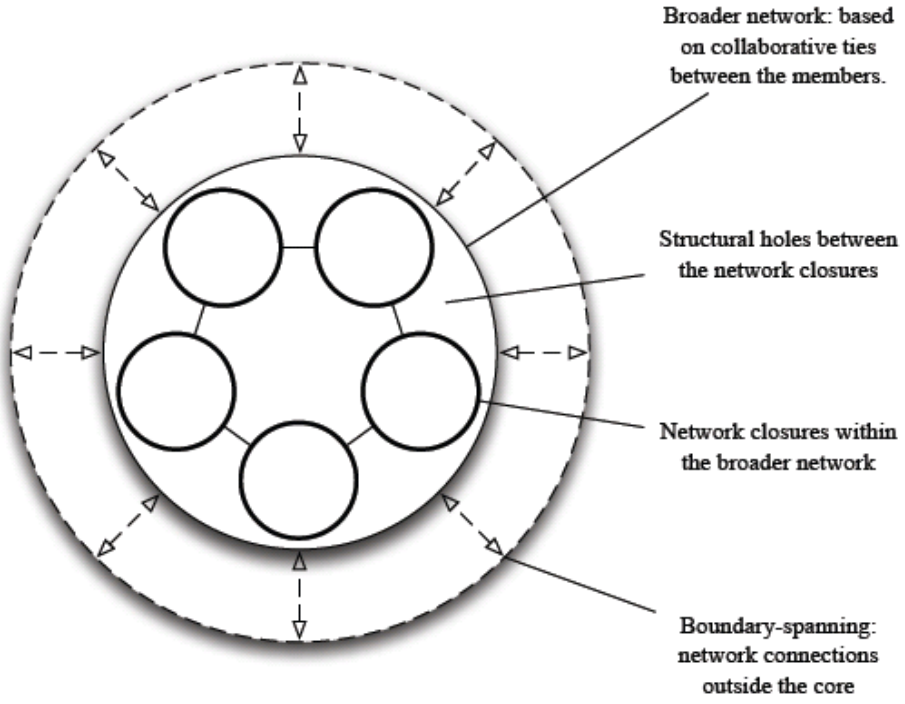

Figure 3.4. Network size and capacity

From: Salmenkaita, J. (2004). *Intangible capital in industrial research: Effects of network position on individual inventive productivity*. In R. Bettis (Ed.), Strategy in transition (pp. 220-248). Blackwell Publishing.

A group of individuals with direct connections tends to form a closure within the broader network. As the group continues to work closely together smaller groups or "network closures" (Salmenkaita, 2004, p. 222) within the broader network can begin to form. Similarly, communication channels are enhanced and "connections between otherwise separate parts of the network (structural holes)" (p. 222) are forged. Direct access to members facilitates the flow of knowledge and collaborative relations, which benefits significantly the inventive productivity of the network by: 1) enabling the transfer of knowledge 2) facilitating trust building that supports the exchange of ideas and cooperative effort necessary to the inventive process and 3) inspiring the production of knowledge and specialized skills (p. 224).

Variables Affecting Social Capital Acquisition

Spatial proximity: Local and global networks.

The ability to access social capital is not necessarily an equitable enterprise. As noted by Hall (1999) we should "be attentive not only to aggregate levels of social capital but also to its distribution" (p. 458). One way to measure distribution would be to focus on a minimal network database consisting of one set of actors (or nodes) linked by one set of relationships observed at one location. Referred to as egocentric network analysis (Marsden, 2005), the researcher would collect "data on relationships involving a focal point (ego) and the objects (alters) to which it is linked" (p. 9). Alters may be those with whom the respondent (ego) discusses matters of importance, confides in, goes to advice for and so on (p. 9). This could likewise be extended to a whole network analysis where the researcher would identify the pockets or the clusters by assembling an egocentric network for each actor.

The following network models were constructed by synthesizing the research findings of Marsden (2005) and Salmenkaita (2004). A group of individuals with direct connections form a closure within the broader network (Figure 3.5 Egocentric Network Analysis). As the group continues to work closely together smaller groups within the broader network can begin to form (Figure 3.6 Whole Network Analysis), which potentially may affect positively "the inventive productivity of the individuals" (Salmenkaita, 2004, p. 224). It should be noted however, that although the network may be benefiting from the internal connections, the members may decide to extend the collaborative relations (Figure 3.7 Boundary spanning) to persons outside the boundary if doing so will further benefit the group.

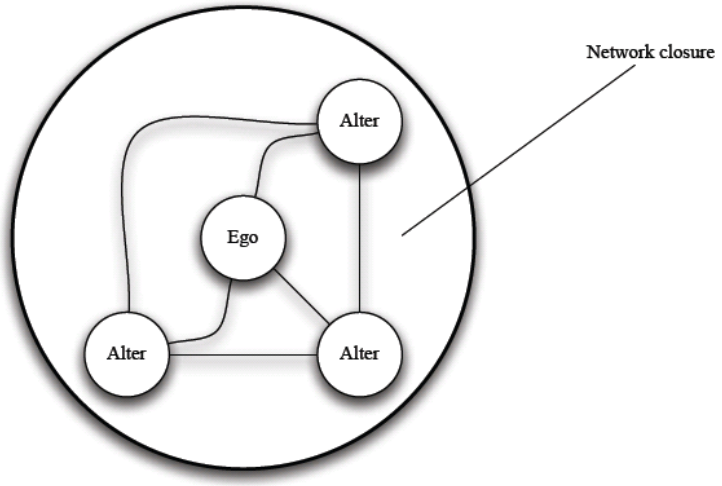

Figure 3.5. Egocentric network analysis would be restricted to one group within the network.

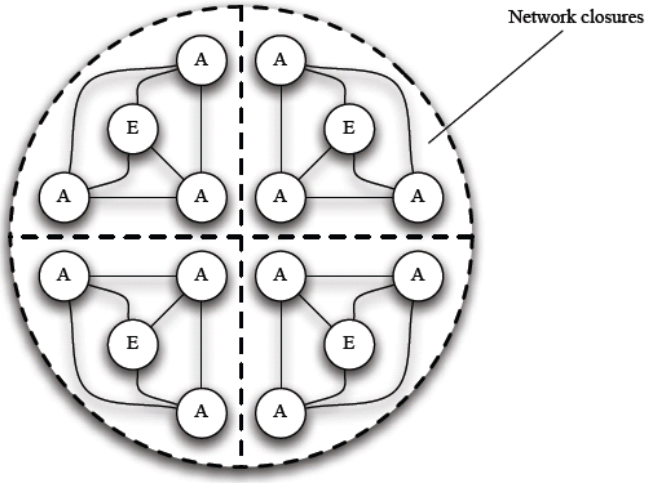

Figure 3.6. Whole network analysis would examine the networking of all groups within the broader network.

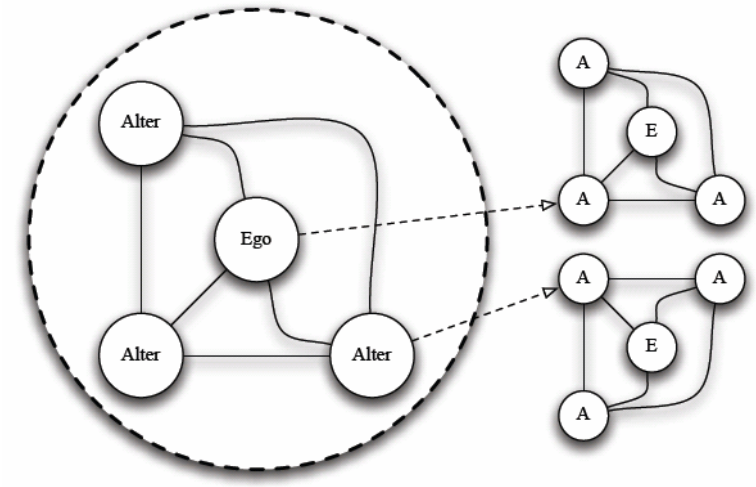

Figure 3.7. In boundary spanning the network range is extended beyond the defined boundaries of the network to increase network capacity

In this network inquiry "the emphasis is on those resources that are useful in a particular situation and that can be mobilized at a given time. Indirectly, then the focus is on the *utility of specific resources and their potential accessibility*" (Franke, 2005, p. 14). Even so, the number of links in the network is not as important as the potential or the value of the resources accessed through the links.

The greater the homogeneity or sameness of a network, the more it is closed unto itself (Franke, 2005); in other words, the fact of similarity of persons in the network breeds fellowship. The ties of attachment are horizontal ties; members are bonded by trust and reciprocity and are content to maintain the status quo within the network. This unfortunately weakens opportunities for sharing resources with others. Weaker social homogeneity, however, creates an opportunity to cut across boundaries making resources and opportunities in one network accessible to members of another. While connections between heterogeneous groups may be more fragile, bridging relations with others allows members of one network to benefit from an "openness to resources that are not generally

accessible in the immediate surroundings" (Franke, 2005, p. 15). This may include linking with others from different social strata (p. 16) that can strengthen the momentum of the initiative and the possibility of making progress. Hence, the importance of bridges in networks in facilitating information cannot be denied and therefore, should not be overlooked.

Structural: Open and closed networks.

The degree to which networks are open or closed has an impact on the quality of the relationships they house (Coleman, 1988). A closed network is "one in which social relations exist between and among all parties" (Stone, 2001, p. 20). Information is quickly and easily disseminated and actor behaviour is sanctioned. In closed networks social capital "helps the development of norms for acceptable behaviour and the diffusion of information about behaviour"(Walker, Kogut & Shan, 1997, p. 111). Conversely, an open network has no social capital on which to rely and members are not connected to each other extensively. Consequently, because "norms regarding cooperation are more difficult to achieve, and information on behaviour in relationships diffuses more slowly" (p. 111), it becomes more difficult to establish an atmosphere of obligation and reciprocity in the network. In other words, cooperative relationships within the network are jeopardized.

Network density.

Boase and Wellman (2004) suggested that the more the members of a network are interconnected, the greater the chance the resources they share among themselves will be similar. Furthermore, the stronger the ties among members of a network the greater the

chance they will be receptive to exchanging resources (Franke, 2005, p. 16) and the exchanges will be better coordinated.

Reproduction of dense networks is powerful "because it is based upon the accumulation of social capital that requires the maintenance of and investment in the structure of prevailing relationships" (Walker, Kogut & Shan, 1997, p. 109). These strong ties accommodate this structural maintenance by contributing useful social capital resources in the form of: establishing obligations, expectations, and trustworthiness (Portes, 1998; Misztal, 1996); creating channels for information getting and disseminating (Burt, 1992); and setting norms (Coleman, 1988; Fukuyama, 1995; Nowak, 2006). That said, access to this social capital is also dependent on the ability of group members within the network to coordinate the resources derived from the many different systems of relations (i.e., bureaucratic relations, associative relations, communal relations) created by their participation (Reimer, 2004, p. 16).

While dense networks "are seen as the means by which collective capital can be maintained and reproduction of the group can be achieved" (Lin, 1999, p. 32), the principle of maintenance is one of the things that generates opportunities for "entrepreneurial actors" (Walker, Kogut & Shan, 1997, p. 109) to exploit the structural holes. These 'brokers' seek out partners with whom they can form unique or "nonredundant [*sic*] relationships that bring new information and the possibility of negotiating between competing groups. Through forming these new and unique relationships, entrepreneurs transform network structure" (p.110). Furthermore, in Burt's (1992) view,

> the higher the proportion of relationships enhanced by structural holes, the more likely and able the entrepreneurial player, and so the more likely it is that the player's investments are in high-yield relationships. The result is a higher aggregate rate of return on investments. (p. 37)

In other words, a closed (dense) network would be more likely to promote the sharing of resources, which in return, maintain group, or individual resources. However, an open (sparse) network would be more likely to "access advantaged positions and resources which in turn enhance the opportunity to obtain additional resources" (Lin, 1999, p. 35).

Homogenous and Heterogeneous Networks

Burt (1992) suggested that it is partner selection rather than social capital that determines effective cooperation between networks. In fact, the common aphorism "It's not what you know, it's who you know" may best sum up the homogenous network. Social relations exist between and among all parties and closure "that allows the proliferation of obligations and expectations [also] creates trustworthiness" (Coleman, 1988, pp. 107-108) within the network structure. Furthermore, as more types of relationships exist between people in the network the more each relation "cumulates to generate greater homophily" (McPherson, Smith-Lovin & Cook, 2001, p. 418) making network ties even denser.

The basic principle behind homophily is that contact between similar people occurs more often than between dissimilar people. "People who are more structurally similar to one another are more likely to have issue-related interpersonal communication and to attend to each other's issue positions, which, in turn leads them to have more influence over each other" (McPherson, Smith-Lovin & Cook, 2001, p. 428). Attitudes, abilities, beliefs and aspirations lead to attraction and interaction, which leads to fellowship and

influences and shapes our orientation to behaviour. Hence, while homogeneity may characterize personal networks, “homophily characterizes network systems” (p. 429).

In contrast, weak ties (heterogeneous) can be a connection with the outside world. “Not only are weak ties potentially important due to their numbers but also because of their diversity, which creates possibilities for access to a variety of sources” (Franke, 2005, p. 16). Burt (1992) considered weak ties to be advantageous to the network for not only would they provide access or bridges to non-redundant sources, they would also serve as bridges between isolated groups and individuals. These ‘brokers’ (Burt, 1992) or ‘boundary-spanners’ (Cohen & Prusak, 2001) “by temperament like to spread news outside the network about who knows what” (p. 75).

Although many of the possible relational lines may be absent in low-density networks, Granovetter (1982) was insistent on their value to the network: “while members of one or two cliques may be efficiently recruited, the problem is that, without weak ties, any momentum generated in this way does not spread *beyond* the clique” (p. 106). Heterogeneity creates opportunities for innovation “which provides access to certain resources that individual or collective actors with power or authority have at their disposal, and which enable them to increase their power” (Franke, 2005, p. 16). Indeed, weak ties extend the network range and consequently, increase social capital potential.

Relational: Horizontal and Vertical

Social ties relate actors to one another, the tie being the property of the pair (Wasserman & Faust, 1994). In a network inquiry you want to understand the relationship between the two actors and the unit of analysis you would use is the dyad. As observed by Wasserman and Faust (1994), “dyad analyses focus on the properties of pairwise [*sic*]

relationships such as whether ties are reciprocated or not, or whether specific types of multiple relationships tend to occur together" (p. 18).

Determining relational frequency, the number and duration of contacts among the members of a network, helps to pinpoint individual's/group's "sociability" and their access to social capital (Franke, 2005). Exchange relations are defined as connected if exchange in one relation is contingent on the exchange or non-exchange in the other relation. Further defined, a connection is considered positive (vertical, tertiary) if it increases the likelihood of exchange in another relation and negative (horizontal, face-to-face) if exchange in one connection decreases the likelihood of exchange in another relation (Cook, 1982, p. 180).

Networks are key and critical components of any group's/individual's stock of social capital. As Woolcock (2001) observed, "the latest equipment and most innovative ideas in the hands or mind of the brightest, fittest person will amount to little unless that person also has access to others to inform, correct, improve, and disseminate his or her work" (p. 69). Hence, when using network inquiry to measure individual and social capital, there is a need to investigate social network characteristics (i.e., the structural properties) explicitly as opposed to the outcomes only. It is through a focus on structure that we can document an individual's or a community's true social capital by analyzing "the potential of opportunities and constraints and differentiated access to resources offered by different network structures" (Charbonneau, 2004, p. 9).

Quality of Social Relations

When using network inquiry to investigate social capital it is important that both a structural analysis and a transactional analysis (Charbonneau, 2004) be conducted. A

focus on the relational properties will “stress the dynamics at play within networks (mechanisms that activate interchange)” and identify “methods that permit social capital to be activated or motivated in specific cases” (p. 9). Furthermore, by treating the structural analysis (actor’s behaviours and interactions) and the transactional analysis (relational capacities) as complementary approaches, there is the potential for the creation of a more informed and effective assessment tool.

To develop a useful tool the researcher needs to be able to identify what social capital is, explore its productive potential and identify the levers affecting the ways it’s created, accumulated, and utilized (Voyer, 2004, p. 5). That is to say, the researcher assesses the capacity to create social capital by examining the conditions for the creation and mobilization of networks; “conditions that can be external to the network (the general context or a more specific context in which the network operates) or internal to the network (norms or rules for the functioning of the network, its evolution)” (Franke, 2005, p. 17). This not only helps the researcher to gauge potential capacity but also to identify variables that affect the process.

Norms of trust.

Reimer (2002) concluded there is almost always a gap between potentially accessible resources and those actually used. Even if a network is built on a solid foundation there is nothing to guarantee that all members will be in a position or willing to contribute their resources or cooperate in creating new resources for the benefit of other members in the community. Coleman (1988) further asserted,

> social capital comes about through changes in the relations among persons that facilitate action. If physical capital is wholly tangible, being embodied in the skills and knowledge acquired by an individual, social capital is less tangible yet, for it exists in the *relations* among persons.

(pp. 100-101)

In other words, the link between community involvement and trust in others is individual behaviour and attitudes (Brehm & Rahn, 1997, p. 999). The more people participate in their community the more they learn to trust others and the more trust they place in others the more they are likely to participate (pp. 1001-1002).

As part of the internal conditions of networks, norms influence the relational exchanges that occur, the resources that are exchanged and the basis for the exchange. “Repeated interaction with others and sustained cooperation” (p.1002) can definitely strengthen the relational dynamic, which in turn, can strengthen the bond of trust between members of the network. Perhaps trust is both the impetus for and the consequence of “the expectation that arises within a community of regular, honest and cooperative behaviour, based on commonly shared norms, on the part of the members of that community” (Fukuyama, 1995, p. 27).

In order to maintain and make possible the acquisition of new resources there must be opportunities for knowledge exchanges but this exchange is dependent on social connection. As Cohen and Prusak (2001) discovered, “without some degree of mutuality and trust, the knowledge conversations will not get started; without some degree of shared understanding, they will not go very far” (p. 86). Norms and social trust facilitate the coordination and cooperation of individuals, provide the basis for trust networks that exist in communities, and the means for the achievement of common objectives.

Norms of reciprocity.

Reciprocity, observed Putnam (2000), is the touchstone of social capital. Fukuyama (1995) added that circumstances favouring success are found “formed not on the basis of

explicit rules and regulation but out of a set of ethical habits and reciprocal moral obligations internalized by each of the community's members" (p. 9).

Direct reciprocity (Nowak, 2006) relies on repeated encounters between the same two individuals and both need to be in a position to help each other (See Figure 3.8A). Based on the immediate exchange of goods, one could imply by this that the interaction is symmetrical with both parties in a position to benefit another (p. 1561). However, "direct reciprocity can lead to the evolution of cooperation only if the probability of another encounter between the same two individuals exceeds the cost benefit ratio of the altruistic act" (p. 1561). Win-stay becomes a form of control in this exchange.

Indirect reciprocity (Nowak, 2006) is as much about reputation as it is about the reciprocal arrangement between parties. Nowak proposed that:

> we often do things or are motivated to do things by taking into account the benefits to our reputation. In the standard framework of indirect reciprocity, there are randomly chosen pairwise [*sic*] encounters of persons who may not meet again. A group removed from the actual encounter observes the exchange and may inform others. (p. 1561)

The reputation of the one performing the good deed (labelled number 1 in diagram) is benefited by word of mouth, which may prompt the evolution of cooperation and benefit the doer of the good deed after all (See Figure 3.8B). Hence, "indirect reciprocity can only promote cooperation if the probability of knowing someone's reputation exceeds the cost-to-benefit ratio of the act" (p. 1561).

Nowak's final type to note is network reciprocity (See Figure 3.8C). Here "a cooperator [*sic*] (labelled number 1 in diagram) pays a cost for each neighbour to receive a benefit. Defectors (labelled number 2 in diagram) have no costs and their neighbours have no benefits" (p. 1561). In this scenario the co-operator can only benefit by forming

clusters, in which case they would all help each other. The benefit-to-cost ratio means that clusters of co-operators must out compete defectors. Figure 3.8 (A, B and C) depicts this progression.

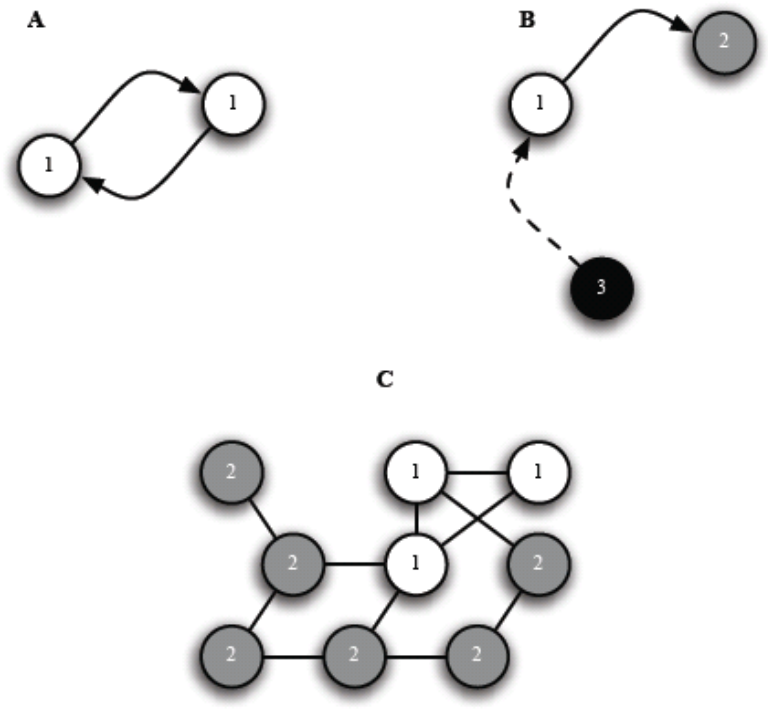

Figure 3.8. Three mechanisms for the evolution of cooperation.

Source: Nowak, M.A. (2006). Five rules for the evolution of cooperation. *Science 8, 314,* (5808), pp. 1560-1563.

Nowak's model of reciprocity complements Misztal's (1996) assertion that "norms of generalized reciprocity and networks of civic engagement encourage social trust and cooperation because they reduce incentives to defect, reduce uncertainty and provide models for future cooperation" (p. 177). However, simply knowing someone and behaving the same way is not necessarily the same as networking. As Cohen and Prusak

(2001) discovered, “network membership is a more active attribute. It requires some investment in time, energy, and emotion. It includes the strong potential for reciprocity” (p. 58). Accepted membership *means* reciprocity; identification with one’s own group is the motivating force.

Portes (1998) referred to this motivating force as being either consummatory or instrumental. To be considered consummatoy, Portes argues that people behave the way they do out of obligation. People come together for a common purpose, begin to identify with each other and thus support each other. In essence, the individual’s sense of obligation is exploited and appropriated by others as a resource (p. 7). Conversely, instrumental motivation is more direct. An individual will provide access to a resource with the expectation that they will be fully repaid for doing so (p. 7). Action is governed by norms, rules and obligations; a social contract has been entered into.

Relational analysis is critical to an understanding of community engagement. From Stone’s (2001) research on social capital in family and community life, she learned that “asking directly about the link between relations and the quality of social relations would add substantially to our understanding of the effect of network structure upon norms of trust and reciprocity governing social relations” (p. 24). The sooner we “unpack the concept” (Coleman, 1988), the closer we will be to understanding the specifics of social relations and how they create useful resources for individuals (p. S102). Once we arrive at that point we can more effectively address the barriers between the equality of opportunities and the equality of conditions.

Chapter Summary

As noted in Chapter two, when discussing social capital mobilization I did so from a network theory of "social capital [being] embedded in interpersonal relations that [could] provide custom-tailored helpful resources that [were] flexible, efficient and effective" (Plickert, Cote & Wellman, 2007, p. 406). In Chapter three I explored the concept of social capital further by focusing on the construct of social capital; that is, the networking of these social relations and how these networks impede or facilitate social capital acquisition in communities. Furthermore, I advocated the necessity of studying social relations rather than personal attributes (Wellman, 1988) and dyadic attributes (attributes of pairs of individuals) rather than monadic attributes (attributes of individuals) (Borgatti & Everett, 1997).

An emphasis on network inquiry was particularly useful in determining the potential for opportunities and constraints to access in a location, which likewise served as an indicator of the social capital levels of the community and in the lives of individuals and families. Furthermore, examining relations and the characteristics of those relations helped me to understand social capital as a process and the variables that were paramount to its creation, acquisition and mobilization.

Once the relations and variables to those relations were determined, attention needed to be directed to the size of the network. Capacity was contingent on both size and the structural characteristics of the network so it was important to determine the collaborative ties in the network, the structural holes, closures and the potential for boundary spanning. By determining these features of a network, I would be positioned to speak to potential for distribution with more certainty.

Furthermore, as access to social capital is dependent on network density, the quality of the relations in the network also needed to be probed. Which relations in the network were maintaining present levels of social capital production? Which relations could potentially lead to a level of exploitation via the structural holes that would not only increase access to more resources but non-redundant resources, which enhances capacity even more?

This chapter reports these particular ties in detail, identifying types of relations and the particular types of resources these relations could potentially contribute to the network. This would be most useful in, for example, an educational context where leaders wanted to stimulate critical reflection on practice among staff members. Collaboration between people in the network would limit growth potential, as sameness is characteristic of networks where a high number of relations already exist. In contrast, if leaders were to bring members from other educational communities into the network for this professional discourse, the potential for critical examination is increased because the orientation to sameness is decreased. Unencumbered by homogeneity, teachers may be more inspired to "construct and try out new ideas" (Lieberman & McLaughlin, 1992, p. 675) and may be more motivated "to challenge existing practices and to grow professionally" (p.675).

The preceding is an example of the potential and value of network inquiry in initiatives to increase capacity and community engagement. By increasing our understanding of network relations, behaviours of individuals in the networks, motivating factors and variables for social capital acquisition and mobilization, we can lever change more effectively and efficiently, which would benefit any restructuring efforts aimed at improved service delivery for youth.

Fullan and Hargreaves (1992) cautioned that there was a price to be paid for ignoring the context of teaching and that price was “failed idealism in efforts at improvement…and erratic leaping from one innovation bandwagon to the next” (p. 35). If we fail to acknowledge the context of the lives of children in our schools and how these contexts restrict or facilitate their access to resources, we may also compromise the potential to implement initiatives to support the learning of children and youth. However, by using network inquiry as an instrument to model the relationships (Wasserman & Faust, 1994) among systems of family, school, and community, this study may help educators to consider with more confidence, how these systems interact and change over time. More importantly, it may provide an impetus for initiatives that demonstrate genuine interest in the success and progress of children and youth; it may help create supportive environments and partnerships for students and their families; and it might influence the degree of academic success experienced by children and youth in our schools and student opportunities for learning.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The first section describes the research design, includes a discussion on methodology and affirms the appropriateness of the design for this particular study. The second section identifies the research methods of this study while the third section includes a discussion of research participants. The final section describes the verification of data, data analysis, display and dissemination, and ethics. Sections one to five inclusive examine the design, methodology and protocol specific to this research project.

Addressing the "How" Question

In inductive research the researcher gathers data to build concepts, hypotheses and theories. In a basic interpretive qualitative study (Merriam, 2002) the researcher is interested in the sense-making of the participants, which is mediated through the researcher as the data collection instrument. Data are collected through document analysis, interviews and observations. As the data collected from the social field of action (Wolff, 2004) uncovers, examines and critiques for the purpose of discovery and ultimately, empowerment, the study could also be considered a critical qualitative study (Merriam, 2002). The focus is more on the context than the individual and is intended to raise critical questions (pp. 9-10). Therefore, as both an interpretive qualitative study and a critical qualitative study, this research focused on a particular educational context to answer questions "regarding whose interests are being served by the way the educational system is organized, who really has access to particular programs, who has the power to make changes, and what are the outcomes of the way is which education is structured" (Merriam, 2002, p. 10). Furthermore, this study was an exploration of what a school *was*

doing versus what it *should* be doing and addresses how professionals and others in the environment view this.

The Research Design

As observed by Slavin (1992), research is "a search for the answers to questions worth asking" (p. 1); yet much of the constant debate over how best to educate children is based on passion rather than facts, on ideology rather than data (p. 2). Furthermore, in the research community the debate of the value and logic of qualitative research versus the value and logic of quantitative research, likewise rages on. However, "if anything is unique about the analysis of social capital, it is perhaps the degree to which it is essential to draw on both methods and multidisciplinary approaches to reach valid conclusions" (Grootaert & van Bastelaer, 2002, p. 345) which is why I chose the survey and focus groups for my data collection.

Network studies favour surveys and questionnaires because they allow the researcher to determine the relationships to measure and the actors to approach for data (Seidman, 1983). In egocentric research, the researcher "asks respondents for data on their own relationships to alters, and also often asks for information on linkages between alters" (p. 11). The surveys and questionnaires will typically include two types of questions: name generators, "free-recall questions that delineate network boundaries" (Hirsch, 1980, p. 11) by identifying the respondent's alters; and name interpreters, intended to obtain information about the alters and their relationships (p. 11). However, as a cautionary note Brewer (2000) reminds structural analysts that during the process of recall, significant numbers of persons are often "forgotten." He concludes, therefore, "name generators elicit only a fraction of those persons having a criterion relationship to a dependent" (p.

14) and therefore suggests the following to reduce levels of forgetting: use recognition rather than recall, and if using recall use non-specific probes for additional alters.

Mason and Bramble (1989) would further submit "there must be place in the study of human behavior [*sic*] for a variety of methodologies and approaches and for consideration of the contexts in which observations were made" (p. 37). For example, correlational designs though quantitative, are common in educational research (Slavin, 1992) "because in making comparisons among existing groups [researchers] attempt to find evidence that it is the treatment that is different in the various groups which causes any differences in outcomes" (p. 13). However, "the qualitative design follows Thomas' (1949) proposition that it is essential in the study of people to know just how people define the situation in which they find themselves" (Marshall & Rossman, 1989, p. 46). Consequently, though quantitative and qualitative studies may employ different methods of presentations and use different means to persuade of their conclusions, they are, perhaps more complementary than they are antithetical in an analysis of social capital.

It was my desire to use tools from both qualitative and quantitative modes of research to conduct an inquiry of networks, the reciprocities that arise from them and the value of these for achieving mutual goals (Baron, Field & Schuller, 2002, p. 2). The challenge, however, was to make the notion of social capital accessible to those for whom it mattered most: "[to] become a tool that communities [could] use to improve their quality of life" (MacGillivray & Walker, 2002, p. 200). This implied the necessity of a research design tailored for exploring networks of relations and resources in a local community, one that could be participated in and used *by* members of the community rather than done *to* the community. Similarly, as there is "growing evidence that the act of measuring,

done right, can itself contribute to community development" (MacGillivray & Walker, 2002, p. 201), the ideal approach to measuring social capital was to conduct a network inquiry at both a macro (quantitative, more visible aspects of the concept) and a micro (qualitative, more abstract manifestations) level.

Grootaert and van Bastelaer (2002) would agree there is not only a place for both approaches in the measurement of social capital but necessity. Furthermore, "the strength of the quantitative studies is their ability to determine a confidence interval within which the results hold…[whereas qualitative] studies excel at investigating the in-depth causal processes that lead to certain outcomes"(p. 34). Necessary then was an inquiry that made a distinction between the structure of networks, the properties of networks, members and relationships, and their dynamic, conditions for creation and mobilization. Furthermore, a model focused on social capital had to be capable of examining the relationships between people in the community as well as the processes for the creation and mobilization of social networks that promote (or deter) access to resources.

Research Methodology

In conducting quantitative research on social capital, "in principle, data are produced that complete other sources and, combined, shed greater light, for analytical purposes, on a particular phenomenon" (Franke, 2005, p. 27). If the researcher viewed social capital as the product, the phenomenon of interest would be the propensity of individuals to participate in collective action. While the numbers could net percentages, means and sums, frequency and the like, it would be the qualitative data that "help to better interpret quantitative data, open up avenues with respect to causal links, or to explore new phenomena or concepts that are difficult to translate into quantitative indicators" (Franke,

2005, p. 31). Qualitative inquiry could, for example, offer more in-depth understanding of informal rules within the network, obstacles, why individuals activate their networks, and so forth.

In preparing a *Reference Document for Public Policy Research, Development, and Evaluation* (September, 2005), Franke commented on the state of social capital research noting " at best, current data provide an idea of the presence and manifestations of social capital within population sub-groups, but offer little notion of how social capital operates…interest must move beyond social capital as a heuristic tool" (p. 37). There is a need for a re-orientation, one where thinking structurally means seeing the "phenomena involved as the systematic result of structural forces" (Wellman & Berkowitz, 2003, p. 7). Wellman (2003) suggested structural analysis could satisfy this mandate:

> structural analysis does not derive its power from the partial application of this concept or that measure. It is a comprehensive paradigmatic way of taking social structure seriously by studying directly how patterns of ties allocate resources in a social system. Thus, its strength lies in its integrated application of theoretical concepts, ways of collecting and analyzing data, and a growing, cumulating body of substantive findings. (p. 20)

The work of structural analysts has coalesced and advanced to the point where structural analysis is a distinctive form of social inquiry with five paradigmatic characteristics that give it "intellectual unity":

1. "Behavior *[sic*] is interpreted in terms of structural constraints on activity, rather than in terms of inner forces within units that impel behavior *[sic]* toward a goal" Wellman and Berkowitz, 2003, p. 20). My study investigated the structural restraints

within the educational context that were impediments to social capital creation, mobilization and acquisition in the school community.

2. “Analyses focus on the relations between units, instead of trying to sort units into categories defined by inner attributes of these units” (p. 20). This was a study of the networks of relations rather than the units themselves.
3. “A central focus is how the relationship among multiple alters affect network members’ behavior [*sic*]” (p. 20). In this inquiry I was particularly interested in the dynamics of the relations and how they facilitated or impeded network transformation.
4. “Structure is treated as a network of networks that may or may not be partitioned into discrete groups” (p. 20). My inquiry investigated the possible presence of networks of relations and if these relations acted with or independently of other relations for the advancement of objectives within the organization.
5. “Analytic methods deal directly with the patterned, relational nature of social structure in order to supplement—and sometimes supplant—mainstream statistical methods that demand independent units of analysis.” (Wellman & Berkowitz, 2003, p. 20)

Structural analysts would imply this approach could provide sociological explanation, by examining the ways in which networks facilitated the flow of resources to those persons within the network systems thereby determining opportunities and constraints for behaviour.

Erickson (2003) further endorsed the necessity of treating norms of behaviour as effects of structural location and not as causes. Specifically, she proposed:

a) natural units of analysis for attitudes are *not* isolated individuals but social networks and

b) viable subjects for explanation are not individual attitudes but degrees of attitude agreement among individuals in given structural situations. (p. 99)

She maintained that attitudes are developed through interpersonal processes and these processes "occur largely within the boundaries of social networks" (p. 99).

Structural analysts recognize the presence and the importance of the underlying relationships among the parts of a social system that constrain interactions and shape the behaviour of the people in them (Berkowitz, 2003). Hence, the morphology of the relationships is of interest to structural sociologists:

> The central tenet of the structural analytic approach is that the form of a set of relationships will broadly determine or condition the effective boundaries between sets of actors, the range of action they will deem appropriate under various circumstances, and the regular or recurrent types of exchanges or other behavior [*sic]* in which they are most likely to engage. (Berkowitz, 2003, p. 481)

Structural analysts understand that social capital includes much more than connections; it also depends on the quality of relationships among families, communities, and organizations (Schneider, 2004). A network-based approach makes the distinction between what social capital is and what it does and can give us better insight into information opportunities for individuals and groups in terms of access to and control of information flow (Haythornthwaite, 1996).

The social network analyst sees "the world is composed of networks, not groups" (Wellman, 2003, p. 37). Therefore, in my study it was necessary to observe the relationships first while labelling them as a group or category was secondary. After being observed, the group was used as a predictor of behaviour (Haythornthwaite, 1996, p. 325)

of others in the same group. Emphasis, again, was not on the group; rather, it was on the relationships within the respective groups as they pertained to information access and exchange. By examining the type of information being exchanged and between whom, I was able to investigate both network composition (structural properties) and dynamic (conditions for creation and mobilization).

Consequently, for structural analysts the orientation has shifted from regularities in beliefs of how people *should* behave, to the study of regularities of how people *do* behave and their individual motives for action (Wellman, 1983). “Social capital, unlike physical or human capital, is not the ‘property’ of individuals or institutions: it inheres in the relations between actors and is drawn upon to facilitate collaborative action” (Maloney, Smith, & Stoker, 2002, p. 213). These relations, or the associational capacity provide channels for the flow of information, “support the development and application of norms and sanctions” (p. 213), and promote feelings of trust and reciprocity, which leads to individual and collective growth.

It was with this particular orientation foremost in my mind that I decided to use network inquiry to investigate group membership in an educational context. By examining the relations and the characteristics of those relations in specific networks, I was able to identify asset-promoting relations and the conditions of those exchanges. Furthermore, by identifying the relations and the dynamics of those relations, I was then able to explore the productive potential for the creation of social capital and the acquisition and mobility of those same resources.

In network inquiry you want to understand the relationships between actors (Wasserman & Faust, 1994). I designed my inquiry to allow me to observe the dynamics

of the relationships and the exchange structure. This would reveal which of these relations maintained levels of social capital and which increased the levels. It was also important to observe how patterns of ties (Wellman & Berkowitz, 2003) influenced the allocation of resources. By studying the network size and structural characteristics, I determined collaborative ties, structural holes, closures and potential for boundary spanning behaviour. Finally, an examination of the process of social capital (Haythornthwaite, 1996), what it is and what it does, was also built into my design. By observing persons in networks of relations in an educational context, I not only revealed the process but provided findings, as well, of how people do draw upon these relations for collaborative action versus how they should behave.

As a result, network inquiry facilitated my interest in educational collaboration and may inspire further discussions around improved service delivery in schools. By using this particular method of investigation I was able to identify asset-promoting characteristics of networks of relations, the resources accessible to those in the network, and how to create conditions for the creation, acquisition and mobilization of resources and supports. Perhaps most significant, however, is the fact that this network inquiry, albeit focused on one school community, provided insight into the feasibility and the "how" of school-linked service integration which could potentially inform effective school restructuring strategies in other school communities.

Consequently, by using network inquiry to study the correlations between associational vitality and levels of social capital, we can identify the existing assets and resources that are not being fully utilized in communities. At the level of the individual, this can assist relevant agencies in reaching specific households in school communities

while at the same time, increasing the effectiveness of programs intended for children and families by mobilizing community social capital. In fact, social capital theory suggests, “as social capital increases within networks of transacting partners, the disparity of benefits goes down and the average level of benefits goes up” (Robison, Siles, & Schmid, 2004, p. 51).

An awareness of structural connections and their significance in the development of social capital in communities can provide a clearer understanding of the resources that exist in local communities. Network inquiry does satisfy this mandate and as a method for examining the exchange of supportive information and resource sharing in communities, it has the potential to contribute to initiatives aimed at strengthening family-school connections and improving service and support delivery for students and families.

Research Procedures

Concern for the contribution of research to practice and the need to integrate theory with the social realities of schools, connects this chapter to the purpose of this dissertation, informs the research process and provides justification for the attention of this study to context and the dynamics of the relationships within these contexts. In particular, data collection instruments included focus groups, the participants all of whom were unknown to the researcher and part of a particular school community in some capacity. A survey was distributed as well and invited participants were likewise a part of this school community in that they were the parents of students who were enrolled in the school. Furthermore, it is important to note that the data collected focused on the attributes of the relation and not on the actual relation itself. By treating these social

systems as “networks of dependency relationships” (Wellman, 1983, p. 157), I was able to concentrate on how these ties restricted or facilitated access to resources and social change.

Moreover, essential in this study of individuals was an understanding of how *participants* understood their situation (Thomas, 1949). Their sense-making of their experiences, their perceptions of the context they found themselves in and the relations they shared with others in that same context, provided significant insight for the researcher on how social capital operates. Their observations, their experiences, their musings became the basis for a structural analysis showing patterns of ties in a particular network. These ties became the key to understanding the creation and allocation of resources in a social system. Furthermore, by using network inquiry to investigate the relational nature of these social structures, I was also able to examine the ways networks of relations facilitated the flow of information to persons in the network, thereby determining opportunities and constraints for actors’ behaviour.

Finally, by focusing more on context than individuals, I conducted an inquiry of networks, examining more specifically the relations in the network in a particular context and the reciprocities that arose from them. In addition, by critiquing the effect of these relations for achieving mutual goals, I was able to demonstrate through examples, the process of social capital, including, in this particular context, the significant levers for the creation, acquisition and mobilization of resources. Subsequently, this form of social inquiry not only addressed the five paradigmatic characteristics that give it intellectual unity (Wellman & Berkowitz, 2003), it contributed to research on how social capital

operates by distinguishing what social capital *is* and what it *does* (Haythornthwaite, 1996).

Research Issues

There are three basic assumptions about research: a) that it is substantive; that is, an issue that is of interest; b) that it is conceptual; has ideas that give meaning to the content; and c) has methodological domains; has some techniques or procedures by means of which those ideas and content can be studied (Brinberg & McGrath, 1985, p. 14).

In some research communities the latter can become a source of contention, particularly if employing the use of qualitative research methodology. In this study the research questions determined the level of detail to be collected, by identifying the most revealing aspects of the network. While surveys and questions would provide mass data in itself, quantitative data would not provide the depth crucial to a thorough understanding of the issues in the specific research site. Necessary were the voices of those being educated in that site and significant others in their lives who likewise experienced the situational reality in question on some level. Therefore, seen less as a tool for collecting data, the qualitative methods used in this study were viewed more as "sites for discourse and social analysis, for gathering data about educational practices and identities, and for the production of these practices and identities" (Tierney & Dilley, 2002, p. 454).

My methodology facilitated observation, listening, reflection, documentation and discourse and as such, communicated perceptions of real persons in a specific setting, which was more pertinent to my study than control (Krueger & Casey, 2000). As I was committed to a study that addressed resource capacity and acquisition in an educational

context, I deliberately chose a school community and participants from the same school to encourage an exchange of experiences among members in that context. This assured me that member accounts of their reality would inform my data collection thereby enhancing the pragmatism of what I observed. Although I would like to have had a broader perspective, as advocated by Aquinaldo (2004), this study advanced "the notion of validity from the task of making sure the research is true, toward the task of making sure the research [was] useful" (Shank, 2006, p. 112).

Furthermore, systematic procedures were in place for data collection, handling and analysis. Notes and electronic recordings were used for the focus groups and where necessary, I asked for participant clarification if uncertainties arose. In addition, I invited all participants in the focus groups into the discussion thereby establishing neutrality while creating spaces for all voices and opinions (Patton, 1990). Finally, a verbatim transcript for each focus group was prepared and verified by participants. Before any analysis of the data occurred I assigned pseudonyms to the participants and to any other specific references to persons or places to safeguard against the identification of my research site or my participants. These pseudonyms were used in my analysis of the data and were accompanied by page numbers as per the transcripts of the verbatim data. Member checks, peer review and an audit trail completed the process.

The Researcher's Role: Criteria for Entry

Mason High School had an enrolment of 1230 students, grades 9 to 12, and the student demographic would be described as "culturally diverse" and "mainly middle-class." It offered a comprehensive program for students, post-secondary preparation and

an extensive extra-curricular program that enabled students to develop their artistic, athletic and leadership skills.

Although Mason High School was not designated as a Community School as per provincial guidelines (2010, February, 25). Retrieved from http://www.education.gov.sk.ca/FNM-Community-Education) nor had it applied for such designation, it offered integrated services for students and families on site or through partnerships between parents, school staff, and outside agencies' personnel. Other resources for service and support delivery included counsellors, a social worker, learning assistance personnel and individualized programming options for students.

Before I conducted research of any kind in Mason High School, I met with the principal a second time to review the objectives of my research, my needs, the needs of his particular staff (with respect to the data collection) and the type and frequency of disruptions for staff and students. When I assured him there would be no disruptions to class time and drew his attention to this fact in the executive summary of my research proposal, he definitely felt he could help facilitate the study. We briefly discussed my specific needs for data collection and he informed me that it would be useful for his administrative team and his staff to have feedback from the parents and guardians of the grade ten students attending Mason High School. We agreed to a start date for the household survey, to be followed shortly thereafter by 3 focus groups.

Household survey.

On September 15 of the new school year I brought a sample survey to the principal and three weeks later I was back in the school sorting 277 surveys into grade 10 homerooms. The principal chose this grade as the target group because he wanted

feedback from them and their families. He felt that there had been significant interaction with the new grade 9 group and their families and with the senior students in grades 11 and 12 over the years so the group he most wanted to hear from was this one. Consequently, every grade 10 student was to be given a survey to take home for a parent or guardian to complete. A letter from the researcher was included with the survey explaining the research purpose, benefits to the school community, and contact numbers. The focus of the survey reflected the areas of interest to the researcher and included: household characteristics, household-institutional relationships and community-household access to social capital, structural social capital, and cognitive social capital (See Appendix 3). I also requested that the surveys be returned to the school within two weeks and invited those students who returned the completed surveys to enter their name into a draw for one of three pair of movie passes; a reciprocal arrangement that I had hoped would enable data collection (Marshall & Rossman, 1989, p. 70).

Unfortunately, the movie passes, an extended return time, and announcements home from the school could not secure a higher return rate. One month later only 17 of the 277 household surveys had been returned, which was an insufficient return rate for my study. Furthermore, although Principal Lawrence had initially expressed interest in the value of this feedback and I suggested a second survey using an alternative approach, I was unable to move this beyond mere possibility. I had to now rely on my focus groups for my data collection.

Organizational profile.

To complete the organizational profile I conducted focus groups with students, teachers, and the administrators. The focus of the interviews with the school

administrators was community context and organizational sustainability, and linkages and partnerships (See Appendix 4). For the student focus group I intimated to the principal that I would prefer a varied group composition, one that would most accurately represent the student demographic in its entirety, and I would also leave it up to him or another staff member to select the students for the focus group. The discussion of this group was centred on the quality of their student experiences at Mason High School. My final focus group was the staff group. With this group the discussion focussed mainly on organizational capacity.

Although not a conventional measurement tool for social capital this profile (Appendix 4) attempted to delineate the relationships and networks that promoted or hindered the building of social capital communities. The data obtained from the leaders within the organization allowed me to assess whether a particular organization helped or hindered characteristics associated with social capital accumulation, and provided a broad picture of the ways structural social capital operated in a community. For this particular research project the model was altered considerably to make it more specific to the research site and participants within that site. School administrators replaced the "leaders" from the original model and students and teachers occupied the "members" position.

The View From Inside: Focus Group Participants

My first focus group was comprised of three female staff members (teachers) and three male staff members (also teachers). All had experience teaching in different subject areas and with the exception of one participant, new both to the school and the division, had been teaching in Mason High School for more than two years.

For this focus group, all staff members (teachers, educational assistants, guidance counsellors) at Mason High School were invited to participate in the focus group. There were no restrictions placed on participants such as years of experience, subject taught, gender or staff position. I wanted the group to encompass diversity as much as possible and to be drawn together by their interest in the research questions I would be asking and the ensuing conversation rather than the group composition.

Information packages outlining the specifics of the project, contact information and the questions that would serve as the focus group prompts were left with the principal for him to distribute to volunteer participants. Those persons willing to be a part of the focus group discussion indicated as much to the principal and he informed them of the time and the date for the focus group.

As the participants entered the conference room in the school, I greeted each of them individually and invited them to help themselves to the lunch I had catered in. Although in an earlier memo inviting participation I had promised lunch, they seemed surprised, pleasantly so, and I believe this helped to establish a more relaxed atmosphere in the room. Immediately, there was more casual chatter amongst the participants but so too was there a willingness to draw me into their conversations. I was both reassured by the generosity of this gesture and optimistic that our conversation would possibly be richer than that afforded to “an inquisitive stranger about whose mission they have only the vaguest notion” (Srinvas, Shah, & Ramaswamy, 2004, p. 4).

Anticipating the arrival of four more participants (I had been told that 10 staff members would be participating), I waited a few more minutes, which gave me more time to check the audio/recording equipment one last time, hand out consent forms and

name badges, and to make sure everyone was comfortable. Finally, after ten minutes had passed the Assistant Principal, Mrs. Ross, informed me the remaining four participants were unavailable so I proceeded with the six staff teachers present.

I began the discussion by clarifying the purpose of my study and the specifics of the conversation I hoped to have with all of them. In particular, I wanted to emphasize to all of them that the focus was on capacity and not deficiencies in their school. More specifically, I told them I hoped to better understand the resources available in the building for staff and students and how they were accessed; the different organizations, agencies, and civic groups they might network with in their immediate community or outside their neighbouring community; and how they might go about accessing those supports.

I likewise stressed the value of the data in helping educators to better support the students and families who were a part of their school community and I invited each of them to contribute to the conversations when and where they felt comfortable to do so. I then reviewed the consent form, ethical considerations regarding anonymity and asked if there were any question or concerns. None were raised.

The conversations began and continued for 70 minutes. Topics for consideration were organizational structure, organizational capacity and institutional linkages and although participants did have access to the focus group questions ahead of time, I posted the questions again on flipchart paper and hung them on the walls of the conference room. Participants were encouraged to speak to areas of interest, which was more easily accommodated by the visual display of the questions and a less structured approach, which allowed the participants to talk to each other.

Five days later I was at the school again, this time for a 90-minute focus group session with a group of students who were chosen by one of the school counsellors. Of the group of 7, 4 participants were female, 3 male, all were in grade 12, and had attended Mason High School all four years. Senior students were chosen by the school counsellors as they reasoned these students may have experienced more at Mason High School given the fact that they had been students there for four years and would therefore be able to contribute more perspectives for consideration than would grade 9 or grade 10 students.

Mark was the first to arrive. He introduced himself, extended his hand to me, prompting me to do likewise and after this exchange of formalities, I invited him to help himself to the lunch I had catered in for the students. This was met with a *very* enthusiastic "Wow, this is amazing!" and he seemed even more pleased when I told him I would appreciate it if I did not have to pack up any leftovers.

As Mark was about to be seated, the remaining participants came to the door but stopped short of entering. Gesturing with a free hand in the direction of the back wall, while at the same time directing the others to "Help yourselves guys! There's lots!" the others immediately looked at me to gauge my response. When I laughed and asked, "Did that sound just like a mom voice to you?" they all laughed as well, and the tone for the remainder of the session had been set.

Although seemingly insignificant, Mark's invitation to his peers, coupled with my reaction, was a catalyst to the rapport I would need to facilitate access to their world and their understandings of happenings in that context. Each of the students filled a plate with food, settled in around the table, and took turns asking me questions. Was I a professor? What did I teach? How many degrees did I have? Did I ever teach high school? Where?

For how long? How long had I been in university? Was it hard doing research? What did I like best about teaching? What did I like least?

After twenty minutes of this informal conversation with the students, I jokingly chastised them and observed that they could probably get their teachers off topic for an entire hour if they put their minds to it. They all laughed and admitted that this “may” have happened “once or twice.” I then told them as much as I was enjoying this time and the conversation, I very much wanted to hear from them and about their experiences during their four years at Mason High School and so their session began.

As with the teacher focus group I explained the purpose of my research, what I meant by capacity and resources and how I believed this research could benefit the staff and students of Mason High School. I also spoke to them about the importance of being able to speak freely, about my obligation to protect their anonymity so they could do so, and their obligations as participants to respect the right to privacy and anonymity of the others. I reviewed the consent form, asked if there were any questions or concerns and when there were none, we began.

Because the students had not been privy to the discussion questions ahead of time, I printed out the questions on flipchart paper and posted them on two walls in the conference room. The questions were divided into five categories, student population, student leadership, student groups/activities, school culture and student services, and I told the students we could start our discussion from any point of their choosing. I invited them all to feel free to join the conversation as they felt comfortable doing so and I reminded them that they would have the opportunity to review the transcribed data and remove anything they might have said at a later date.

My final focus group nine days later was also a 90-minute session but this time, with the administrative team. There were 3 participants in total: the principal, Mr. Brian Lawrence and two assistant principals, Mrs. Nancy Ross and Mr. Paul Martin. Mr. Lawrence had been at Mason High School for three years, Mrs. Ross for two years, and Mr. Martin for four years.

Mr. Lawrence met me at the Main Office in the school and informed me that we would have our discussion in his office. As the other participants had been, he too was delighted by the lunch I had catered in and happily helped me clear space in his office to set everything out. As we were doing so, Mr. Martin joined us; some good-humoured comments were exchanged between the two colleagues regarding the preparation of the lunch and then Mr. Lawrence introduced me to Mr. Martin. I then invited the two gentlemen to help themselves to the lunch, which they did, and the three of us visited casually in the office as we waited for Mrs. Ross.

After ten minutes had passed Mr. Lawrence suggested, “It was not like Nancy to be late” so he decided to call her office. When there was no answer he got up from his desk, shut his door, returned to his desk, and suggested “in the interests of time it might be best if we got started.” No sooner had he suggested as much, his phone rang and Mrs. Ross informed him that she was just finishing up “with a situation” and would join us shortly.

After we learned of Mrs. Ross’ whereabouts, I proceeded by asking Mr. Lawrence and Mr. Martin to sign the consent forms and explaining the processes with the verbatim data. I then reiterated what I hoped would be the focus of our discussion, capacity as opposed to deficiency, and the potential benefits of this data for their school community.

Each administrator had been given a copy of the interview guide ahead of time and all three had their copy with them during the focus group discussion so the questions were not posted, as they had been for the students and teachers. Just as they were for students and teachers, however, the questions were divided into categories: origins and development, membership, organizational capacity and institutional linkages. And, as with the participants from the other focus groups, I invited Brian, Nancy and Paul to begin the discussion at a starting point of their choosing and to participate or defer commentary as comfortable.

Data Sources*:* Interviews and Focus Groups

Silverman (1997) suggested we have become an "interview society" and "no method of research can stand outside the cultural and material world" (p. 249). Talk show hosts have become the norm in many cultures and it would appear "interviews seem central to making sense of our lives" (p. 248). Similarly, "education has utilized the interview as a central tool in its research efforts for more than a century and has experienced a quantum leap in the use of its qualitative versions in the past few decades" (Tierney & Dilley, 2002, p. 454). The interview has become "the tool of education reform" (p. 454) and as such has forced researchers to rethink the purposes of their research efforts and how the study is conducted (Hudak, 1993).

Lincoln and Guba (1985) considered qualitative research not at the level of method but more at the level of paradigm with epistemologies quite distinct from quantitative research (p. 8). Increased preoccupation with and concern for the experiences of individuals must out of necessity prompt a heightened epistemological awareness. Queries such as '*What does it mean to be an interviewer? What does it mean to be a*

respondent? What do participants presume about one another, and the interview process itself? And, from *where does knowledge emerge, and whose knowledge is it anyway* (pp. 11-12) are significant to the research process and our understanding of the validity we place on the information being received (p. 12).

Epistemological challenges also arise concerning the dynamics of interviewing. The standardized view of the interview process would have the participant remain the passive "vessel of answers" (p. 13) and the interviewer the mechanism by which the floodgates magically open. Reconceptualized, however, the interview is seen as an opportunity for participants to construct versions of reality through their interaction with one another as opposed to a stimulus-response exercise (Holstein & Gubrium, 2003). The researcher is actively engaged in creating meanings with the participant and for the participant (Mishler, 1986; Silverman, 1993) and in creating knowledge.

This challenges positions of the first part of the 20th century when researchers believed they could better understand the reality of others through their own observations and analysis. Now, however, there is greater appreciation for and less resistance to the idea of including the voices of those experiencing the phenomenon in the study. Rather than believe that parents or administrators can define the educational context, researchers concede the relevance of student interviews and their interpretations of that reality as those persons who actually experience the education process (Dilley, 2002. p. 459)

Participants offered substantial intellectual and emotional depth to my understanding of the issues but at the same time "simultaneously and continuously monitor[ed] who they [were] in relation to themselves and to the person questioning them" (Holstein & Gubrium, 2003, p. 15). Faced now with an ontological shift, a researcher may be forced

to reconceptualize the standard of measurement for the “truth” value of the participant responses. What was true may perhaps be found as much in the construction of meaning as in the meaning itself.

For this reason, Mishler (1986) suggested interviews be regarded as “discourse between speakers” (pp. 35-36) where meaning is “jointly constructed” (p. 52) by the researcher and the participant rather than the standard stimulus-response activity. Increased sensitivity to the participants and the roles their various selves played in the construction of knowledge was crucial if I was genuinely interested in understanding others and their experiences of place or events. Interviewing “mediates contemporary life” (Weiss, 1994, p. 10) and I needed to be receptive to enjoining the *process* of interviewing and the *product* of talk if I hoped to hear the “true” stories as they were told.

The same principle holds for focus groups, which are very much about process and product. Granted, the researcher will oversee the participant criteria and will write the questions that will guide the discussion (Gubrium & Holstein, 2002) but participants are encouraged to interact freely and to voice their perspectives at will. Therefore, the objective of the focus group was not to control and predict; rather, it was to provide further understanding and insight (Krueger & Casey, 2000, p. 198) and so it was for this reason that I employed the use of the group interview.

Similarly, I chose the focus group because I reasoned that another data collection tool, for example, a questionnaire, would be no more than an information-getting exercise. I was interested in the meanings and the understanding my participants attached to their experiences in a school context and the opportunity for my participants to talk was also an “occasion for producing knowledge” (Holstein & Gubrium, 2003, p.4) through their

replies and in the active and socially assembled encounter of the interview itself (p. 4). Besides, I wanted my participants to genuinely feel as though they had a role to play in the outcome of my research, whatever that might have been. The group interview provided for that empowerment for not only could they speak in their own voices and tell their own stories, they could apply their understanding to action (Mishler, 1986, p. 119).

In both types of interviews the researcher and the participant work together to create their conversation but in a focus group, if moderated effectively, the group provides the genesis for the discussion and not the prompts of the researcher. In addition, choosing carefully one's participants and writing questions to capture the participants' interest are also essential to the success of the focus group. As observed by Morgan (2002):

> [a] less structured approach works best when the participants themselves are just as interested in the topic as the researcher is, so the first step is a recruitment process that carefully matches the participants to the research topic. Then the moderator has to write a guide in which the first question not only gets the discussion flowing but opens up a number of other topics that the participants will be eager to explore. (p. 149)

The focus group was not an "anything goes" process. On the contrary, there was structure (see Table 4.1) and it was my job to balance the demands of keeping the discussion on topic while facilitating free expression by the participants (p. 146). Hence, I needed to be clear on their goals and needs, as both informed the process.

Table 4.1

Comparison of More and Less Structured Approaches to Focus Groups

More Structured Approaches	Less Structured Approaches
Goal: Answer researcher's questions.	Goal: Understand participants' thinking.
Researchers' interests are dominant.	Participants' interests are dominant.
Questions set the agenda for discussion.	Questions guide discussion.
Larger number of more specific questions.	Fewer, more general questions.
Specific amounts of time per question.	Flexible allocation of time.
Moderator direct discussion.	Moderator facilitates interaction.
Moderator "refocuses" off-topic remarks.	Moderator can explore new directions.
Participants address the moderator.	Participants talk to each other.

From J.F. Gubrium & J.A. Holstein (eds.) (2002). *Handbook of interview research: Content & method*, p. 47. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

The characteristics of each approach as depicted in Table 4.1, reiterate previous assertions; the construction of knowledge was as much about *how* the stories were told as the stories themselves. This may have meant that the discussion became a foray into the unfamiliar for the participants but by thinking in unfamiliar terms participants may become more actively involved in reform (Freire, 1997).

Different from the broader category of the group interview, the focus group is distinguished by the interaction of the group to generate data (Barbour & Kitzinger, 1999). Moreover,

> instead of asking questions of each person in turn, focus group researchers encourage participants to talk to one another: asking, exchanging anecdotes, and commenting on each others' experiences and points of view. At the very least, research participants create an audience for one another. (p. 4)

Favouring conversation over question and answer, I encouraged group exploration of experiences, opinions, needs, and concerns.

The focus group also differs from the nominal group, which favours convened rather than naturally occurring groups and may often involve ranking exercises to establish priorities; the Delphi group, a selected panel of experts who would respond to the results of some complementary research; or the consensus panel, designed to develop professional protocol (p. 4). Whereas the objective with these group discussions is "facilitat[ing] an *outcome* of an agreed response," (p. 4) the focus group, in contrast, can have a varied composition of participants and the purpose is to observe the processes whereby group members express their "experiences, opinions, wishes and concerns" (p. 5).

Because I was interested in creating a capacity inventory for a *particular* high school in a *specific* community, it was essential that participants were given opportunities to ask their own questions and form their own frames as they identified what they believed to be the resources available to them and the productive potential of those same resources. Similarly, respondents needed to tease out in their own words their experiences with networking and how those ties facilitated or restricted access of persons to resources. Hence, it was the "focus group [that] yield[ed] data on the *meanings* that lie behind those group assessments…[and] relatedly, [threw] light on the *normative understandings* that [the] group [drew] upon to reach their collective judgements" (Bloor, Frankland, Thomas & Robson, 2001, p. 4). Not only could this bring richness to the data but access to the meanings, norms and processes of the group (p. 4), which are components of networks and therefore, relevant to an understanding of these dependency relationships.

Survey and Questionnaire Methods

By using questions that measured the resources accessed by actors, I was able to satisfy a part of the research objective, which was to identify difficulties related to resource mobilization within the community (Charbonneau & Turcotte, 2002). And, while this type of question can determine the exact resources members can access within their extended networks (Franke, 2005), Van der Gaag & Snijders (2005) counter this assertion regarding access by suggesting that while the resource generator established *knowing* a person it does not establish a *tie* to a person. Consequently, I needed to choose a context-based generator (Franke, 2005) as an alternative to identify the real-life contexts within which relationships were forged and the support capacity that evolved as a consequence. To access this information I began the questioning process by applying a name generator to identify most significant persons in the network followed by questions that characterized the duration and the quality of the ties.

Wellman (1983) viewed network investigation as "a broad intellectual approach and not as a set of methods…a fundamental approach to the study of social structure and not as a bag of terms and techniques" (p. 156). Contemporary research links several network concepts: the end result is a combination of the emphasis on the pattern of ties affecting social behaviour (Simmel [1908], 1971), quantitative measurement of network properties (Freeman, 1979), resource diffusion processes (Coleman, Katz & Mendel, 1966; Rogers, 1979) and structured connectivity (Wellman, 1983).

Network investigation tends to avoid normative explanations of social behaviour because "normative explanations overlook the ways in which structured access to resources determines opportunities and constraints for behavior [*sic*]" (Wellman, 1983, p.

162). Instead, norms are treated as effects and examine normative motivation in four ways:

1. They exclude questions of motivation and instead concentrate on describing and explaining social systems.
2. They treat social structures as providing both opportunities and constraints for behaviour.
3. They suggest that structural opportunities and constraints explain social behaviour more clearly than does normative motivation.
4. They explain the uneven distribution of norms as structural phenomena arguing that people acquire norms "as they do other pieces of information: through their ties structured in social networks" (Wellman, 1983, pp. 164-165).

Network inquiry of this type is interested not only in what kind of information is exchanged but between whom. Also of interest are the specific characteristics of the interactions and relations for the quality of the associations is often more important than the quantity when assessing social capital. As explained by Blau (1982), "[Network analysis] assumes that social life…is rooted in the structure of social positions and relations and must be explained by analyzing these patterns or distributions of positions and these networks or rates of relations in groups and societies" (p. 275). Complemented by "narratives and stories fundamental to an understanding of networks" (White, 1992, p. 67), this network inquiry attempted to conceptualize more clearly the origins of social structures, their composition and their dynamic.

Trustworthiness and Field Access

In his analysis of field access for the purpose of data collection Wolff (2004) reminded his readers "it is not wise either to invoke the illusion that everything can be planned or to complain about the unpredictability of the situation"(p. 196). Likewise, although the 'ideal' is seldom achieved or perhaps even attainable, it is important the researcher plan for the following:

1. Entry is possible;
2. There is a high probability that there will be present a mix of people, processes, programs, interactions and the like that may be specific to the study;
3. The researcher will be able to remain on site for as long as necessary;
4. Data quality and study credibility are reasonably assured by avoiding poor sampling choices. (Marshall & Rossman, 1989, p. 54)

For my particular study the research site was determined by the topic of interest to the researcher and by the research questions. For example, while I was interested in the social capital capacity of communities, I was equally interested in how increased capacity could help educators to better meet the vision of advocates of interagency schooling and more importantly, to better meet the needs of children and youth. Therefore, it was critical that data specific to the neighbouring community of the school and those affected by the processes of schooling be included in the data generation and collection processes where possible. Consequently, I chose to conduct my research in a secondary school setting where I felt I could potentially access feedback and input from all stakeholders.

That said, time, patience and sensitivity to the culture and the norms of the site were required of me. Having conducted qualitative research prior to this study (Svoboda, 2002)

I was aware of the culture of schools and how a researcher was often required to “acquire multiple roles in order to develop research relationships with different people” (Marshall & Rossman, 1989, p. 65). My presence was noticed and care had to be taken to anticipate the effect on all members within the research site and to minimize the disruption caused by my presence and the needs of my research.

By working initially with the administration, I needed to obtain permission from the Superintendent of the division (Appendix 8A) to conduct the research in a school under his jurisdiction. The Superintendent suggested I contact two principals from his division who might be interested in the particular type of research I was interested in conducting. In April I contacted the first principal on the list and he offered to contact the other principal on my behalf and arrange a time when the three of us could all meet. This gave me the opportunity to discuss my presence in their building, my research interests, their community/school needs as related to my research, and to formalize a timeline and a list of prospective participants. I also used this opportunity to emphasize that I was asking for their support, but I was not asking them to compel any party to participate in the study.

Both principals expressed interest in my research but were unsure at this first meeting how this study might be useful for their respective schools or how they might facilitate the study so as to make it beneficial for both the researcher and the host school. They asked for some time to discuss the proposal and then told me they would contact me to let me know which of the two principals would agree to host the educational research I was proposing. After several weeks it was determined that I would begin my research at Mason Secondary High school in the fall of the next school year.

When I did finally meet with my focus group participants, I took the time necessary to acquaint them "with the activities that the role involved, with the sorts of information that fall within the purview of the study, with the possible uses of the information, and with the manner in which participants could aid in the research" (Marshall & Rossman, 1989, p. 65). Not to mistake tolerance for inclusion, I wanted to give my participants the opportunity to ask questions of me, to express concerns, to query my knowledge of schools, the presentation of my findings and so forth. I gave them the time they needed to assure them that this research was as much *for* them as it was about the context. Rather than be done *to* them I invited them to be a part of the process so that together we could complete a study that had the potential to be beneficial to their school, their families, and their community.

Assessment and Verification of the Data

Denzin (1978) initially conceptualized triangulation as a validation strategy, "a complex process of playing each method off against the other so as to maximize the validity of field efforts" (p. 304). Fielding and Fielding (1986) took exception to his stance and argued, "[researchers] should combine theories and methods carefully and purposefully with the intention of adding breadth or depth to our analysis but not for the purpose of pursuing "objective" truth" (p. 33). Denzin (1994) has since amended his position and sees triangulation less as a validation strategy within qualitative methodology and more as a catalyst to a deeper understanding of the issue being investigated (p. 5). Flick (2004) pushes the boundaries further yet and ponders the possible connection between theory and triangulation. Specifically he suggests "triangulation…should be less a matter of obtaining convergence in the sense of

confirmation of what has already been discovered. The triangulation of methods and perspectives is particularly useful for theory development, when it can elucidate *divergent perspectives*" (p. 182). If all perspectives are combined then triangulation could be considered a means of extending our knowledge "as a validation strategy, as an approach to the generalization of discoveries, as a route to additional knowledge" (p. 183).

With respect to trustworthiness of results, Lincoln and Guba (2000) contemplated their validity by asking if the findings were "sufficiently authentic…that [the researcher] may trust [her] self in acting on their implications? More to the point, would [she] feel sufficiently secure about these findings to construct social policy or legislation based on them" (p. 178). Smith and Demeer (2000), however, offered a cautionary observation regarding the judgement we make and noted the importance of certain characteristics in assessing quality: appropriateness of issue for qualitative study; theoretical framework anchoring the topic; and significance of the problem (gaps that need to be filled in terms of knowledge) (p. 888).

Consequently, in order to avoid scepticism regarding the scholarly value of one's research, Miles and Huberman (1994) proposed combining quantitative criteria with qualitative credibility (pp. 278 – 280). Challenging this position Steinke (2004) argued, "quantitative criteria cannot be directly transferred to qualitative research because of its comparatively low formalizability [*sic*] or standardizability [*sic*]" (p. 186). Others have doubts about the transferability of quantitative criteria to qualitative research and consider instead the particular theoretical, methodological, and procedural character of qualitative research as a starting point for the formulation of appropriate criteria (Steinke, 2004).

Therefore validity in qualitative research is established by way of the following:

1. Communicative validation (Kvale, 1995b): Otherwise known as ‘member checks,” this was a process where participants review the data alongside the researcher.
2. Triangulation: initially regarded as an instrument of validation (Denzin, 1978) now considered a methodological technique that facilitates deeper understanding of the issue at the centre of the research (Denzin, 2000b).
3. Authenticity of the interview process: concern is with the truthfulness or sincerity of the participant’s response. Giving impetus to this concern is the researcher-participant relationship and whether that dynamic has influenced the responses in any way (Kvale, 1996).
4. Peer review (Merriam, 2002).
5. Researcher’s position: known as reflexivity, “the process of reflecting critically on self as researcher, the ‘human as instrument’ (Lincoln & Guba, 2000, p. 183) in order to purge oneself of any values or assumptions that may affect data collection and analysis.
6. Audit trail: as observed by Lincoln and Guba (1985) for the researcher conducting a qualitative study, the more important question is concerned with dependability or consistency. Rather than expecting others to arrive at the same result(s) others will be able to concede that given the data collected, the results do make sense and are therefore dependable (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 288).
7. External validity: referred to as case-to-case transfer (Firestone, 1993) the researcher has to decide whether or not the findings of previous researchers have any bearing on or are applicable to, the present investigation or interest. Hence, it is left to the reader

to decide what, if anything, in the study holds application for their interests and what clearly does not (Walker, 1980, p. 34).

Briefly stated, the research procedures I chose had to be consistent with my research purpose, which was to investigate the presence of network relations in a high school setting, the possible consequences of those relations on social capital acquisition and mobilization and how the resources were being used. This necessitated a study that could potentially assist in mobilizing resources in communities and strengthening the resource capacity of schools. To this end, the main criteria for establishing the validity for this study included the confirmability of qualitative investigations, dependability, internal validity (authenticity), external validity (transferability), and utilization (practice). Lastly, establishing validity likewise reinforced the relevance of this study at the professional level by fostering innovation to improve schools and communities (authenticity), at the personal level by revealing the benefits of collaborative practice (transferability) and at the theoretical level by demonstrating the potential for integrated service delivery (practice).

Data Analysis

After my participants had the opportunity to review the transcribed data and discuss any concerns they may have had with the contents of the transcripts, consent was given to me by participants to use the data. I then met with my two advisors to discuss my findings and to review concerns I had with the fact that I could not use the survey and my data was now limited to qualitative data only in the form of my 3 focus groups. When I was assured by both of them that this data was sufficient to build hypotheses and theories

regarding what was happening in one specific school community, I proceeded with my analysis of the data.

Because I was curious about the possible correlation between the structural form of the network and the mobilization of resources, I used the results from the focus groups to identify the relations in the network first to determine who was in contact with whom. My coding started out as a descriptive tool to facilitate discovery and investigation of the data but then became analytical. Beginning from a priori ideas, which were the research questions I was investigating, I went through the data looking for relevant responses to answer my research questions. The data were then labelled according to the research questions and then labelled again according to insights, observations, relationships, similarities and differences.

The next step was to sort the data according to themes, categories, relational, structural and contextual, and participants, teachers, students, and administration. This data was contrasted and compared to look for patterns and relationships both within a participant group and across participant groups. This was necessary to tie all of the data together, to answer my research questions and to build toward a theory describing the process of social capital creation in my research site. I also examined behaviours in these relations so I could identify the constraints to potential access and levers to promote it. Wellman (1983) considered this focus critical in network inquiry for not only does it identify ties between individuals, but also “as parts of the social networks in which they are embedded” (p. 168). This embeddedness of relations revealed patterned differences in terms of access to resources, to other members, and ultimately, the exchange of information.

The final step in the analysis was to determine what was being done with the supports and the information being accessed. To discern this last piece of information I had to revisit the part of my analysis that had already revealed who people were making contact with and the information that contact could provide. By evaluating the position of people in the network and the properties (weak ties, strong ties) of the network, this told me whether that information was going to be forwarded to someone else inside or outside the network or, if it would remain between the initial ties only.

Finally, this concluded in a structural analysis of the characteristics of the network (what facilitates or inhibits the flow of information), the relations in the network (network ties), positions held in the network (who controls or facilitates information exchange), and brokerage (how information flows inside the network and beyond). My data were organized in the order I would discuss them, by research questions and the literature was used in the analysis to support my ideas.

Ethical Considerations

While researchers cannot anticipate everything it is incumbent upon them to demonstrate commitment to the ethical principles of research. Researchers need to decide ahead of time what they must do to conform to the ethical standards of the institution they are representing, the department promoting their research and the research site where they will be collecting data. As ignorance is neither an option nor a defence Merriam (2002) cautioned:

> although qualitative researchers can turn to guidelines, others' experiences, and government regulations for dealing with some of the ethical concerns likely to arise, the burden of producing a study that has been conducted and disseminated in an ethical manner lies with the individual investigator. (p. 30)

More than institutional and professional regulations and codes of conduct, research ethics is also about practice that is both ethical and respectful (Smith, 2005). It is "about establishing, maintaining, and nurturing reciprocal and respectful relationships, not just among people as individuals but also with people as individuals, as collectives, and as members of communities" (p. 97). As researchers interact with participants they are positioned somewhere in the middle between cultural protocol and methodological principle. Both demand a modicum of respect but it may be much easier for researchers to gage the level of respect required of them by the institution than by the community.

Safeguards such as informed consent (See Appendices 8C, 8D, and 8E) are put in place to protect the participant's level of involvement. Participation must be voluntary, agreement to participate must be based on full disclosure and participants have the freedom to withdraw from the study at any point without repercussions should they choose to do so. Similarly, the researcher takes measures to protect their anonymity and privacy and to protect them from harm, risk, or danger. The researcher must also safeguard against the findings of the study being used to the detriment of those involved. But how does the researcher measure his or her level of respect as demanded by a cultural protocol?

Using *Decolonizing Methodologies* (Smith, 1999) as a frame of reference, Fiona Cram (2001) translated the value statements offered in Smith's document in a manner that could help researchers to reflect on their own conduct. Smith referred to this reflection as "an exercise of "bottom up" or "community-up" defining of ethical behaviors [*sic*] that create opportunities to discuss and negotiate what is meant by the term "respect"" (Smith,

2005, p. 97). What follows is the researcher guideline as conceptualized by Cram (2001) and cited by Smith (2005):

1. A respect for people—allow people to define their own space and meet on their own terms.
2. It is important to meet people face to face, especially when introducing the idea of the research, “fronting up” to the community before sending out long, complicated letters and materials.
3. Looking and listening (and then maybe speaking). This value emphasizes the importance of looking/observing and listening in order to develop understandings and finding a place from which to speak.
4. Sharing, hosting, being generous. This is a value that underpins a collaborative approach to research; one that enables knowledge to flow both ways and that acknowledges the researcher as a learner and not just a data gatherer or observer. It also facilitates the process of “giving back,” of sharing results and of bringing closure if that is required for a project but not to a relationship.
5. Be cautious. This suggests that researchers need to be politically astute, culturally safe, and reflective about their insider/outsider status. It is also a caution to insiders and outsiders that in community research, things can come undone without the researcher being aware or being told directly.
6. Do not trample on the “mana” (Cram, 2001); in other words the dignity of a person. This is about informing people and guarding against being paternalistic or impatient because people do not know what the researcher may know.

7. Do not flaunt your knowledge. This is about finding ways to share knowledge, to be generous with knowledge without being a “show-off” or being arrogant. Sharing knowledge is about empowering a process, but the community has to empower itself. (Smith, 2005, p. 98)

When researchers choose to conduct research in schools, they *will* find themselves in conversation with various stakeholders about many issues that cross cultural borders and those of various disciplines. And, as respect is a cultural norm, an ethical principle, and a requisite component of the procedural framework of research, it must drive the research from its conception and inform our choices about how we share our findings and with whom. It should anchor the ethic that will “drive our fieldwork conduct, our theory choices for interpretation, and our conscientious attention to self-reflexivity; [to] respond not simply in ethical ways but in ethically situated ways” (Bloom, 2002, p. 313).

Respect for the rights and dignity of others demands the suspension of judgement and recognition of the many adverse factors affecting children, youth, and their families. By focusing on the well being of children and youth and the cultivation of an environment where they can grown and learn, I am confident I conducted myself in a manner that upheld the standards demanded of me as a researcher and will direct the attention of various agencies and governing bodies so as to improve the learning outcomes for children and youth in our schools.

Chapter Summary

For this study I generated some assumptions about what was happening within the networks and between the actors in a school community that allowed some actors better access to social capital than others. Next, I collected and coded data in order to deduce

what was happening in the conceptual domain. By observing connections between the context, the relationships of persons in that context, and the properties of those relationships, aspects of these were related to the research questions and the initial hunch was confirmed or dismissed which ultimately lead to the induction phase where I returned to the data for purposes of theory development.

Furthermore, as the "interpretive act remains mysterious in both qualitative and quantitative data analysis" (Marshall & Rossman, 1989, p. 114) the analytic process demanded heightened sensitivity to the data and to the "ideals, beliefs, and values, and of the actors that strive to realize them" (Emirbayer & Goodwin, 1994, p. 1446). Consequently, after organizing the qualitative data generated from the focus groups, I used thematic analysis to identify and analyze themes within the data set. This not only added depth to the analysis by way of the "stories [that] describe the ties in networks" (White, 1992, p. 65) but also provided opportunity to once again test my notions about the present structure of education. This included revisiting the research questions regarding whose interests were being served by the present organization of the education system, revisiting the conceptual framework, and searching for alternative explanations of the qualitative data.

By using network inquiry as an instrument to model the relationships (Wasserman & Faust, 1994) among systems of family, school, and community, this study may help educators to assess with more confidence how these systems interact and change over time. As a further reminder of the importance of investigating the possibilities of educational reform in a context that holds relevance, Fullan and Hargreaves (1992) observed that the price to be paid for ignoring the context was "failed idealism in efforts

at improvement…and erratic leaping from one innovation bandwagon to the next" (p. 35). Perhaps failure to acknowledge the context of the lives of children in our schools and how these contexts restrict or facilitate their access to resources *has* blurred the initiatives to support the learning of children and youth.

With this in mind, network inquiry may provide an explanation to facilitate effective school restructuring strategies. Perhaps it could provide the impetus for initiatives that demonstrate genuine interest in the success and progress of children and youth. At the very least network inquiry *does* provide the tools to help create supportive environments and partnerships for students and their families, so that children and youth have more opportunities to experience success in our schools.

CHAPTER FIVE: DATA ANALYSIS

After analyzing the data from the focus group discussions it appeared that Mason High School was social capital rich and had systems of networks in place to accumulate even more. Of interest to the researcher, however, were the varying perspectives on what might be considered social capital and the understandings each group had regarding access to those resources. For example, while one focus group may have believed homogeneity and the cognitive dimension to be the keys to network development and mobilization, other groups from the same high school considered heterogeneous networks more important, valuing potential numbers of exchanges over the quality of the network relations.

By focusing on these patterns of resource exchanges and the relationships I was able to identify the type of information being exchanged and by whom. These data were then further refined so I could identify characteristics of the relations in the networks, the defining features of the network structure and the levers that influenced the information flow in the network. An analysis of this nature was significant for not only did it identify *who* facilitated or inhibited the flow of information but *how* information was exchanged in the whole environment (Haythornthwaite, 1996, p. 339).

Furthermore, as an assessment tool that was proactive and asset-based, a structural analysis of this type, that studied the ties between actors in the network, also identified the important information exchanges that were being made. This information facilitated further investigation focused on the identification of “structurally similar actors” (p. 338) who had similar information needs but came from different networks, in terms of context and the persons with whom they exchanged information.

If a service provider had access to this information they could fill in the gaps *before* a need was identified or became problematic. For Mason High school, as an example, this network inquiry provided the necessary data to identify information needs, information exposure (strength of ties in the network), legitimacy of the information (strength of relation plus ties), information routes and information opportunities. As a result, administrators, policy makers and so forth, now have a specific study conducted in an educational context to consider when taking the necessary steps to facilitate the appropriate and necessary flow of information and, to position people in the network so as to realize optimum benefits from and in the network (Haythornthwaite, 1996).

What follows is a detailed account of the data analysis and my understandings of this same data. I would further emphasize that my interpretations were based on the findings in one school community and were not rooted in a paradigm of deficit. Nor were they offered as determinants of student performance for all students in all school communities. Rather, this structural analysis and my interpretations thereof, identified contextual influences in one school setting that were "mediators and moderators of students' success" (Christensen & Anderson, 2002, p. 390) in that particular community.

The Student Focus Group

Social capital resources at Mason High School.

My first focus discussion was with a group of senior students from Mason High School, all of whom were unknown to me before the focus group discussion. They were an articulate group and each participant had been enrolled for three or four years in the research site. All were active participants in the discussion and no one person or persons stood out as being dominant in the group.

I began the discussion with the students with an explanation of social capital and likened it to resources. I asked them to think about the resources they had access to as students, in their school and their community, and to consider sharing their experiences in those contexts over the next ninety minutes (see Table 5.1). I also asked them to think about their peers and how the experiences of their peers may differ from theirs or resemble theirs in terms of access to resources in school and out of school.

Table 5.1

Student Perceptions of Social Capital Sources at Mason High School

Resources	Who Has Access to Them
• Band program	• Open to all students
• Drama program	• Open to all students
• Student services office	• Open to all students
• Community agencies	• Some students: "That depends on what community you come from, what your family situation is" (Tom, p.4).
• Photography and art club	• Open to all students
• Sign language club	• Open to all students
• Yearbook	• Open to all students
• Chess club	• Open to all students
• Youth circle	• Open to all grade nines and a forum group composed of grades ten to twelve students
• Just youth	• Open to all students
• Club fair	• Open to all students
• Cultural fair	• Open to all students
• Wrestling program/Track and Field program	• Open to all students, male and female
• Track and field program	• Open to all students, male and female
• AP classes	• Limited to academically talented
• Athletics program	• Limited to more skilled/elite athletes: "Everybody tries out but as you go up in years fewer kids try out because you know who is going to be on the team" (Jeni, p. 10)
• Special needs program	• Students with special needs

• Cyber courses	• Open to all students
• Teachers	• Accessible to all students
• Student tutorials	• Open to all students
• Administrators	• Accessible to all students
• Coaches	• Accessible to athletes
• Student services bulletin board	• Accessible to all students

The students spoke favourably of extra curricular offerings that would be described as clubs. These data allowed me to identify the types of networks the participants had access to and the activities participated in while their reflections on their experiences while being members of these social networks relayed specific benefits of the relationships:

> Me: So how is membership in these different groups and activities determined? Do I just sign up? Do I just show up?
>
> Tom: Yep.
>
> Cathy: A lot of times for sports and stuff…(Mark interrupts with "it's tryouts and cuts")…it's tryouts and for the plays there's auditions.
>
> Mark: That's life.
>
> Cathy: But for a lot of the other ones if you just show up you can be involved.
>
> Lara: Ya, like for the wrestling if you show up they're like come and join, whatever. But like in basketball it's super competitive.
>
> Mark: All social groups there are no cuts (Tom concurs with a nod of his head). Would kind of be defeating the purpose, wouldn't it? (p. 8)

At this point I pressed the group a bit more because I wanted to know what they understood as the benefits of these informal networks. Was there more to these groups than coming together because of common interest? Mark suggested students joined these

activities “to just get your name out there. It builds character. That’s why you come to high school” (p. 9) while Sarah observed “a lot of people come out with more confidence and they’re just a better person overall” (p. 9) after having been involved in these activities. Interestingly, although a condition of this social network was unrestricted access, which would have allowed for diversity in members, there were common benefits such as character development and a sense of belonging and membership in the school.

The second network relation students spoke positively of was the staff, in particular, Student Services. What the participants appreciated most about this association was the access made possible by the fact that there were counselling services in building and that the staff were so willing to accommodate the needs of students. But as one participant observed, “But you can’t just expect that everything is going to come to you. You have to go to get help. Go talk to someone. We have student services. They’re very good and they will help you with anything” (Jackie, p. 4). In other words, while the existence of a resource does not guarantee it will be fully utilized, the fact that the resource can be accessed through a network suggests that proximity does offer potential utility to more students than a counselling service off campus might.

Who is networking with whom.

The data therefore suggested that the clubs and activities at Mason High School activate exchanges between students and between students and teachers. In these networks of dependency, assets are created and leveraged through the relations in the form of reciprocity. Teachers put time and energy into supervising students before and after school hours so students can take part in healthy activity that is secondary to their academic life in the school. Students voiced their appreciation for the efforts of their

teachers on their behalf and noted as well how this exchange led to a more positive rapport between teacher and student both inside and outside the classroom.

Furthermore, the participants expressed feelings of obligation towards their teachers because of their teachers' willingness to extend themselves to and for their students. This reciprocity, as a condition for these exchanges, would exemplify Nowak's model of reciprocity (See Figure 3.8) where the co-operator (in this case, the teacher) paid a cost for the other (the students) to receive benefits; that cost being appropriation of their time during the school day. However this "norm of generalized reciprocity" (Misztal, 1996, p. 177) also instilled in students greater levels of trust and with a decreased level of uncertainty there would be more potential for cooperation in this "network of engagement" (Misztal, 1996, p. 177) and consequently, more potential for asset-producing opportunities.

Between students there may also be a cognitive component that activates the interchange, that of like-mindedness. While they may be committed to stay with the group for the survival of the group it may have been shared meanings and interpretations that drew them together in the first place, much like the various groups in the school: "Like there's the stairs people, the jocks, the punks, and it's really divided" (Tom, p. 2). This repeated interaction with others who are of the same mind would strengthen the dynamic between members, which in turn, could also sustain cooperation.

In contrast to the interchange between students, the interchange between teacher and student is relational and founded on trust:

> Me: So, it depends on the type of relationship you have with the teacher?
>
> Group: Ya.

Me: And?

Dan: Comfort level.

Me: Comfort level with that particular teacher?

Group: Ya. (p. 17)

Students also suggested an interchange was possible with a vice principal but not “unless it’s bad” (p. 17) and not with a principal “unless it’s really, really bad. Unless it’s awful” (Cathy, p.16). Obligation and expectation appear to be the motivating factors behind these potential exchanges more so than trust, as in those between students and teachers. Because students had more repeated interaction with their teachers, this strengthened the dynamic between the two and the bond of trust.

Students in the group acknowledged that their primary source of information and counsel was Student Services but confided that they would go to “some teachers” on occasion and to administration only in rare situations. They also attributed considerable value to the informal mentorship role senior students took on, on their own initiative. While not a recognized form of leadership in terms of title or position, the participants considered this a valuable resource for students in the building in terms of relationships and values and norms that defined those relationships. Furthermore, although the group of seniors may be considered a dense network due to the homogeneity, in the role it has assumed in the exchange of information between their network and that of the younger students, they would be functioning more like a weak tie. To be specific, they would be providing access to non-redundant resources for a more homogeneous group (the younger students) while providing a bridge to potentially isolated individuals or groups as well.

The focus group participants felt this interchange between grade nines and grade twelves was critical and considered the Youth Circle the perfect method to activate the interaction:

> ‘I think it helps because they feel so much pressure when they get here and if older kids come and tell them it’s okay if you want to say no and all these, these things then they see these older kids, these grade twelves and they think well they’ve done these things and it like boosts up their confidence.’ (Cathy, p. 9)

This social relationship was likewise asset-promoting in terms of school atmosphere and the safety and well-being of students:

> Jackie: A lot of times if you see students arguing and stuff you’ll get students who will say ‘what are you doing?’ and stuff.
>
> Mark: Ya, ya.
>
> Jackie: Lots of seniors will walk by and say ‘just stop it, it’s not worth it’ (others nod in agreement (p. 15).

The seniors are the initial resource and as they extend themselves through these relationships of dependency, they provide the momentum for these exchanges to move beyond the homogeneous groups with which they are exchanging information. This provides the recipients of the exchange with more opportunities for innovation that in turn, increases the potential for social capital in their network.

Using the data I obtained from my focus group discussion, I diagrammed the students’ perceptions of the structural social capital at Mason High school (see Figure 5.1). In the discussion, Jeni acknowledged that “We’re younger and we have more access in school to more people we can talk to” (p. 17) which suggested to me that very little boundary

spanning, accessing resources not immediately accessible in their surrounding environment, was taking place, at least that initiated by students.

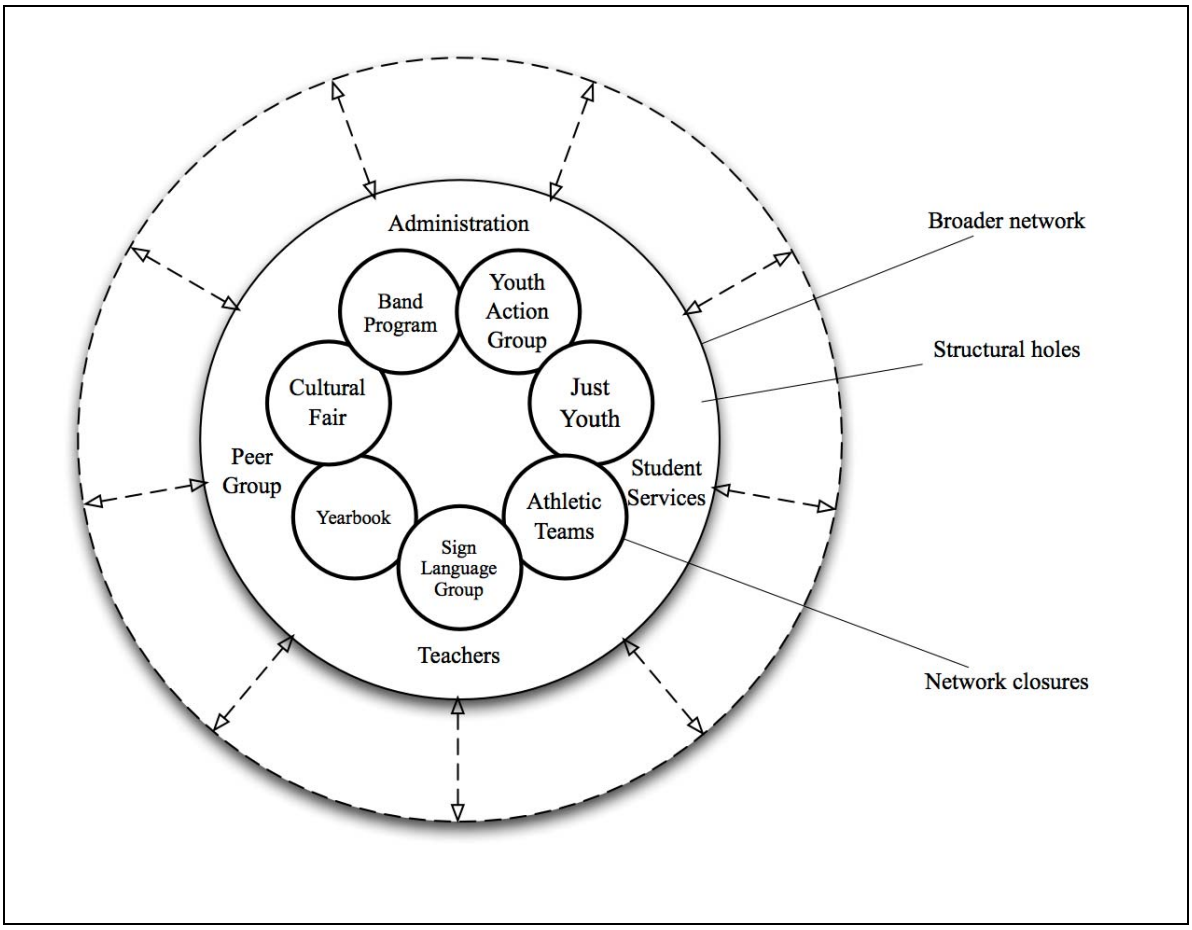

Figure 5.1. Student perceptions of the structural social capital at Mason High School

To summarize, students admitted that their first resource was Student Services. They would go to teachers on occasion, to administration only in rare situations, and the rest of the time was spent with like-minded peers, accessed through the various extra curricular

activities and cliques. As for boundary spanning, “It’s not like [they’d] call Child Help Phone unless [they] need it but once you need it your awareness goes up” (Tom, p. 18).

This closed network implied homogeneity and assumed an interest in maintaining the status quo within the network (see Figure 5.1). As suggested by Burt (1992), in networks that are more homogeneous partner selection takes precedent over social capital and the social relations in the network are conditioned by obligation and expectation, which also creates trustworthiness. As more types of relationships exist between people in the network, as evidenced in Figure 5.1, the network ties would become even denser and the opportunities for connection outside the network would be decreased and so too would access to a variety of sources.

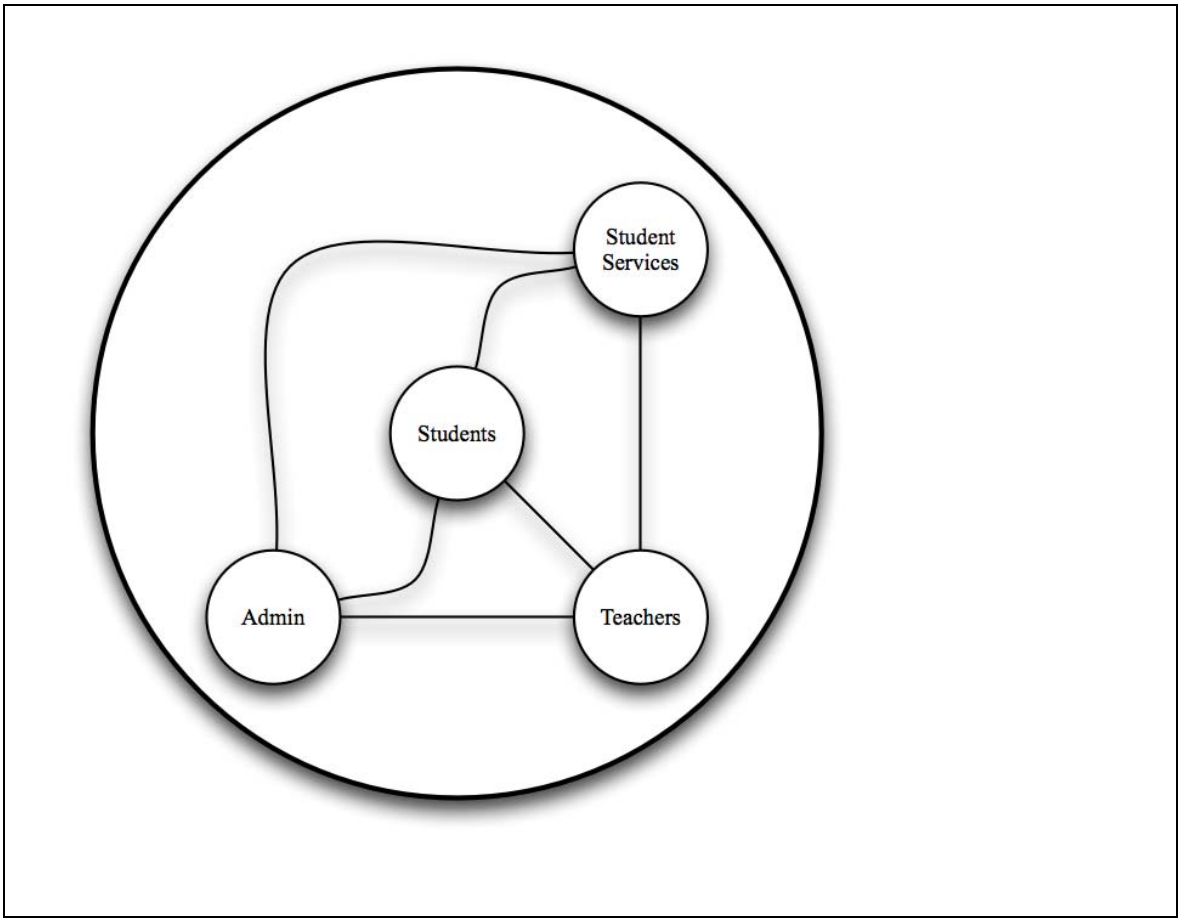

Figure 5.2. Students’ perceptions of the spatial proximity of social capital at Mason High School

The data generated by the conversation with the students suggested this is a closed network. The teachers and student services personnel were considered a positive connection in this network transformation as exchanges between them and the students were more frequent, which was likely to provide opportunities for exchange in another relation. By contrast, the exchange between the students and the administrative personnel would more aptly be described as a negative connection for there was little to suggest that this face-to-face interaction increased the likelihood of an exchange in another relation.

Mechanisms that impede or facilitate asset-promoting social relations.

Mason High School has a large student body, more than 1200 students, and by the students' account, lots of activity and opportunity for interaction (see Table 5.1). Interestingly, however, a serious impediment to supportive relations is enrolment size:

> Dan: It's really in a way quite cliquey.
>
> Group: Oh ya.
>
> Dan: It's not unified. Every grade has their [*sic*] own little group.
>
> Jackie: It's because there's so many of them. Everyone just kind of goes into their own little cliques. (p. 2)

Add to this a negative dynamic and potential relations are compromised even more:

> Dan: I've never seen bullying, at least not violent but there's always gossip. That's considered a kind of bullying, isn't it?
>
> Mark: Ya.
>
> Jeni: But that has to do with all the different cliques…But with cliques, there's got to be gossip too and all that. (p. 15)

Others in the group felt there were more significant factors affecting opportunities for capacity building. These participants felt students chose not to remain at Mason High School (or register in the first place) because of the academic expectations placed on them and the restrictive timetable:

> Cathy: Lots of people don't come here because of how high the academic standards are.
>
> Lara: 'Cause I know compared to a lot of other schools our honour roll is considered their high honour roll.
>
> Me: So, high academic standard, interesting comment that you made (pointing to Tom) about [a class] taking up space in the timetable.
>
> Tom: It takes up one slot per year where you could go to School X and take a shop class if you wanted to go into the trades or something.
>
> Me: So, it's about taking up space?
>
> Tom: Ya, like a lot of people are thinking well, whatever. It's required here. I should have a choice of whether I want to take it or not. (p. 12)

Therefore, if denied their autonomy, and opportunities to demonstrate their diversity, these participants suggested students were likely to choose other collegiates. Of interest as well was the fact that regardless of the density of the students' network, it appeared to have difficulty sustaining trust and cooperation (Putnam, Leonardi & Nanetti, 1993) as evidenced by the participants' commentary about the gossiping that occurred within the network and how they likened this to a form of bullying.

Creation and accumulation of social capital at Mason High School.

When I completed the analysis of the verbatim data obtained from my discussion with the student participants, I was surprised by two of the findings which included the student dependency on the Student Services department in the school and their insular perspective with regard to the supports in place to complement their learning success and healthy development. Student Services was "the" source of information for students, a place where the necessary counsel pertinent to academics, lifestyles or family issues could be found. Supports offered through partnerships may have been available but as Tom admitted, "right now I couldn't tell you five services outside of school" (p. 18). Jeni also added "We're younger and we have more access in school to more people we can talk to" (p. 17). This suggested that networking with supports off campus may have not been a concern for students due to the easy access to sources of support that they enjoyed on campus.

My participants also felt their teachers were significant in the dialogue around collaborative practice. Students interacted with teachers in the extra curricular program and the curricular program and did see the potential for support with some teachers but this was dependent on the dynamic of the relationship, the confidence, trust and connection (Cohen & Prusack, 2001) between student and teacher. While students had spoken to this supportive relation previously, what they had not revealed earlier was their understanding of the causal sequence in which the teacher-counsellor relationship enabled supports for students:

> Me: And so when you were talking about links for students with services outside the school that's where you would go to your guidance counsellor at school

then and they would ‘hook you up’ [*sic*].

Tom: That is the word. (Group members nod in agreement).

Me: Alright. So that would be the channel for me if I need to go to an agency outside the school?

Group: Yes.

Me: What about your teachers? Would your teachers have that information?

Mark: They would probably send you to a guidance counsellor.

Jeni: Or if they were helping YOU (original emphasis) then they would probably go to a guidance counsellor.

Me: To get that information?

Group: Yes. (p. 18)

In other words, students speculated that teachers would turn to their colleague, the Student Counsellor, to access information about supports for students if *they* were advising students. But, if students needed information about services outside the school, they felt their teachers were more apt to refer students to Student Services rather than provide this information themselves. They apparently did not conceive of the possibility that their teachers would have connections with the outside world or that they had the authority to access these resources on their own to create opportunities for social capital innovation for their students.

In essence, these student participants considered their school counsellors to be significant in the creation of supports to their learning outcomes. While admitting their own limited knowledge of and experience with off campus supports, they acknowledged the processes whereby counsellors facilitated the necessary connections and their

appreciation for the “huge role” (p. 19) undertaken on their behalf. They likewise shared their perceptions of the importance of the counsellors in the accumulation of resources when they spoke of teachers and counsellors working together to increase the options available to students.

These assertions by the students emphasized both the value of Student Services in the creation and accumulation of social capital and student dependency on this relation. While extra curricular involvement with peers and curricular involvement with teachers afforded them the exchange relationships necessary for opportunities for growth and development, my participants saw neither of these in the same regard as Student Services in matters of student support.

Productive potential of resources at Mason High School.

Participant response suggested student dependency on the Student Services department at Mason High School was quite high. In most situations this department would be their first choice for counsel or access if they needed services not provided on campus. As well, my focus group participants told me their teachers were a resource, that “you get a lot of help from them. They will meet with you and help you” (Cathy, p. 19), and do their best to accommodate a student’s schedule. Working collaboratively with Student Services if necessary, they were also willing to use a team approach to provide support for students if this would improve learning outcomes for students.

Data from my discussion with the students suggested social capital resources for students were being created primarily through the efforts of Student Services personnel. These participants saw their counsellors as the primary persons providing the necessary supports to their learning and their well-being and saw teachers in supportive or

cooperative roles in the collaborative process. Students understood counsellors to be the brokers to outside agencies and if needed, would go to a counsellor for access to that connection before any other person on campus. Nothing in the data suggested students would initiate the resource producing relations on their own.

The Teacher Focus Group

Social capital resources at Mason High School.

My conversation with the teacher focus group followed one I had had just days before with the students. My teacher participants confirmed there were many social capital assets readily available at Mason High School but the difference in this conversation was that it was extended to include other recipients who would benefit. While the students spoke to resources and network relations pertinent to their in-school lives, the teachers spoke to the benefits of these resources and relations in the lives of their students both in school and out, as well as the benefits in their lives and members of their neighbouring community as well.

When reflecting on resources of benefit to students only, the staff mentioned three: the Open Door Society, an organization not housed in the school, the liaisoning between Mason High school and their feeder elementary schools, and the administrative mentoring of students in grades nine through twelve. The network relation between the students and the Open Door Society provided tutorial services for students after school in building while the relationship with feeder schools provided students with leadership and stewardship opportunities. In both of these network relations the emphasis was on resource capacity so the relations themselves were significant.

On the contrary, in the relation between the students and an administrator mentorship was the connecting variable so in this relation dynamics would have been the focus of the exchange. Each student in the building was partnered with the same administrator for their four-year stint, with the objective to assist them with academic, personal, and character development. This was an example of a network relation where behaviour of the actors (the students) was sanctioned and the specific purpose of the exchange was to help students develop norms for acceptable behaviour and to relay information about behaviour (Walker, Kogut & Shan, 1997).

In addition to the resources these networks provided students with, there were numerous interagency connections that had been made (see Table 5.2), benefiting students and staff. As well, professional connections, of benefit to both students and staff had also been made, as were community connections.

Table 5.2

Teacher Perceptions of Social Capital Sources at Mason High school

Resources	Who Has Access to Them
• Diocese	• Staff and students
• Charitable organizations	• Staff and students
• Business community	• Staff and students
• Trades community	• Staff and students
• Police liaison	• Staff and students
• Addictions counsellor	• Staff, students and families
• Open door society	• Students
• First Nation Liaison Group	• Staff and students
• STA	• Staff
• Elementary schools	• Students
• Health Region	• Staff and students
• Nurse	• Staff and students
• Senior Citizen Home	• Staff and students
• Elders	• Staff and students
• Professional Learning Communities	• Staff
• Administrative Mentoring 9 - 12	• Students
• Minor sports	• Staff and students
• Local hospital	• Staff and students
• Local university	• Staff and students
• Ambulance service	• Staff and students
• Social worker	• Staff and students
• City recreation and facilities department	• Staff
• Parents	• Staff and students
• Opening Doors	• Staff and students

As Table 5.2 illustrates, networks of relationships were formed between Mason High school and the community. These community networks included the diocese, charitable organizations, elementary feeder schools, seniors' homes, minor sports, and the city Recreation and Facilities department. Similarly, when I asked my participants if they worked in partnership with other organizations I was told that they did work in partnership with churches, the business community, the Open Door Society and the First Nation Liaison Group (pp. 3-4). While supportive as asset-promoting ties, nothing in the data attested to the quality of these supports or the actual value accrued from the connection; however, they did facilitate the desire of the school faculty to establish "a bit of a relationship" (Karen, p. 3) and to have students "doing volunteer work in the community…mostly for the development of the student more so than the academic" (Rebecca, p. 4).

The many other supports listed, most of them interagency with the exception of the Saskatchewan Teachers Association, Professional Learning Communities, administrative mentoring and parent partnerships were all forged with student growth in mind. Again, more than academics, these network relations were nurtured in hopes that through them, the student could grow "to become a positive member of society living the gospel values in [their] daily lives" (Karen, p. 4). That an administrator would later commend the students in the school for their "empathy and compassion" that he considered being "a cornerstone of [the] school" (Paul, p. 16) suggested to me that the value of these relations had been observed and were continued because they were significant in the development of these students.

The professional networks for teachers, the administrative relation and the partnerships between the home and the school would be complementary to this goal. Through the STA, as noted by Sean, teachers “have lots of contact” (p. 3) opportunities with teachers from various divisions and through Professional Learning Communities, there is the potential for “collaboration that could happen or having a chance to sit down with [a colleague] and say ‘what kinds of things do you do’” (Linda, p. 5). This professional exchange or boundary spanning enhanced the capital stock of Mason High, thereby increasing both the number and types of supports available to students and staff.

Similarly, the administrative mentorship of students facilitated the building of relationships. An example of a horizontal connection, these had the potential to grow in terms of trust and confidence “so [the administrators] really [had] a connection with students this way” (Linda, p. 7). Couple with this a network of “parents [who] [were] incredibly supportive” (Shawn, p. 15) and willing to work with the school and support the school. This not only facilitated the efforts of school personnel and interagency personnel in educating the students, but also became a symmetrical relation with both parties in positions to benefit the other. Network ties with the home could potentially increase capacity for the initiator of the exchange (the school) while at the same time increasing supports for the recipient (the family).

Who is networking with whom.

When I spoke to the students in their focus group, based on their perceptions of spatial proximity and boundary spanning, I understood their network to be closed, an interpretation initially supported by the teacher participants (see Figure 5.3). Social relations existed between parties in the network and information was easily disseminated

among members. Similarly, the data from the teacher focus group suggested that students were drawn together by the membership in the network and conceded compliance to the group norms for behaviour. This included sharing similar resources and creating opportunities for information exchanges.

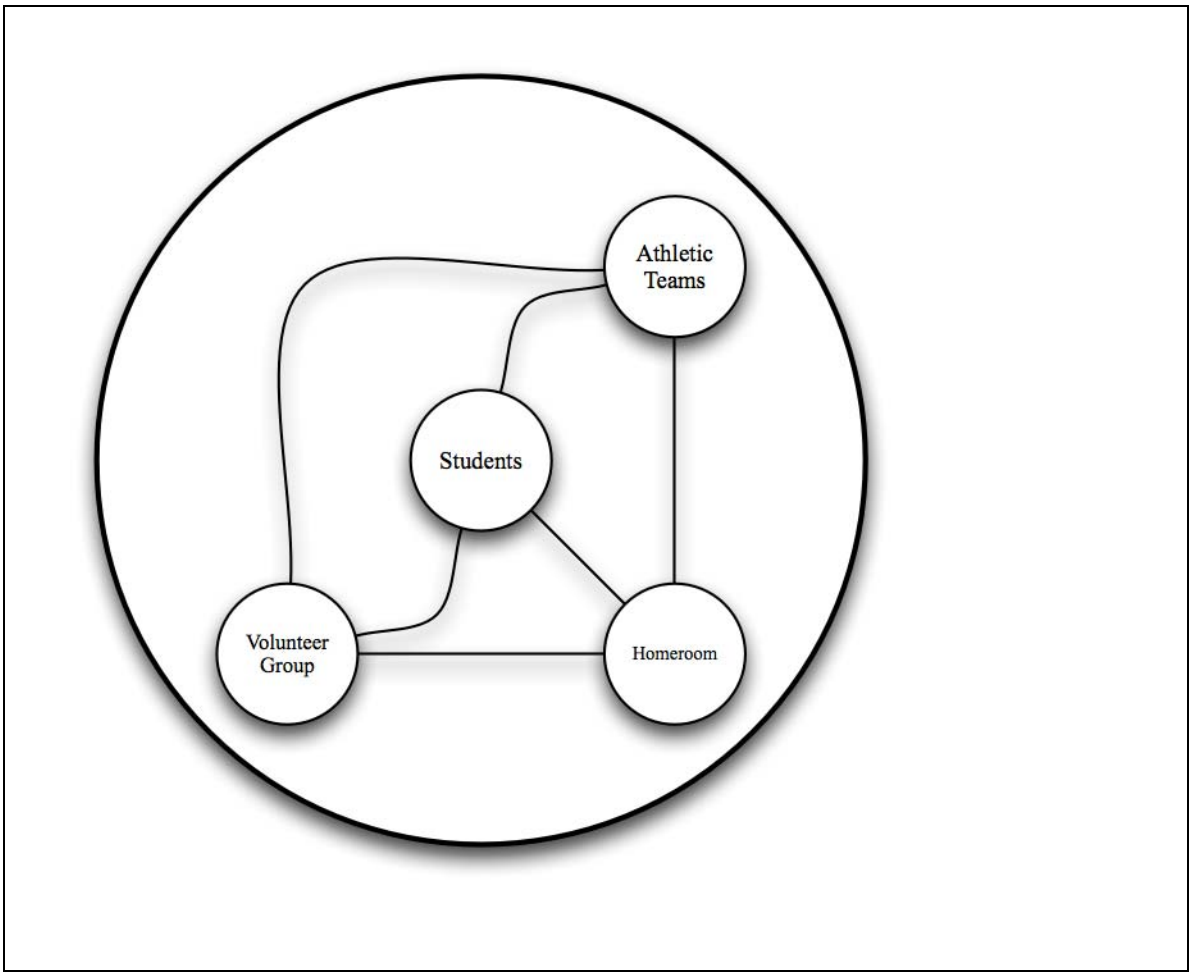

Figure 5.3. Teachers' perceptions of students' spatial proximity at Mason High school

However, given the bridging being done with other agencies and organizations outside the school to support student growth and development (See Figure 5.4), there were increased opportunities for actors (i.e. the students) in the network to demonstrate their uniqueness and their diversity. By exploiting these structural holes in the network the

students, as brokers, had more opportunities to seek out others thereby increasing their opportunities for access to non-redundant resources and increasing social capital capacity.

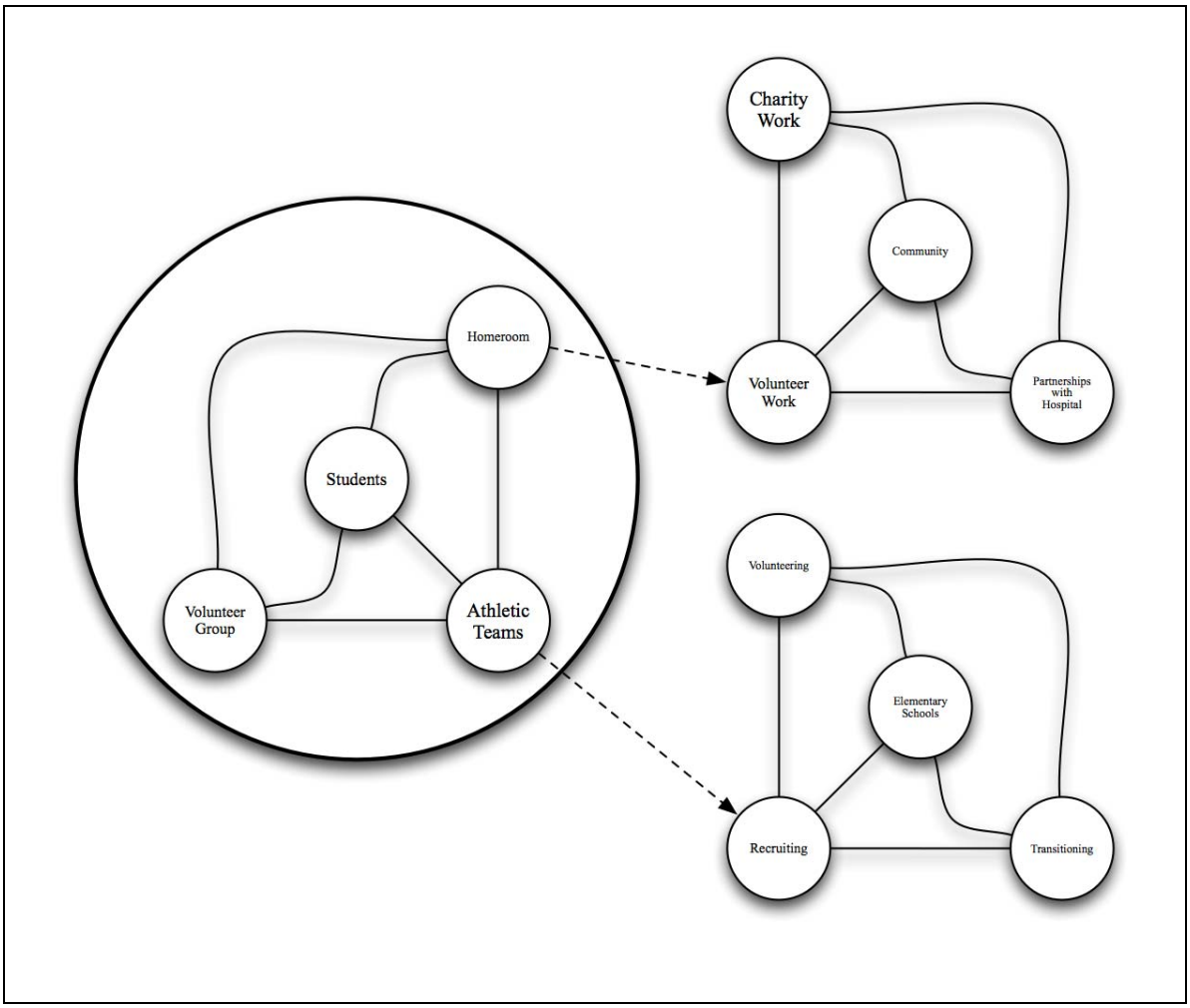

Figure 5.4. Teachers' perceptions of students' boundary spanning at Mason High school

The teacher network, similar to the student network assumed greater fellowship due to the fact of membership in this network. This "implied" homogeneity also suggested norms of reciprocity, such as the exchange of resources, for example, because of this interconnectedness. Data from the focus group supported this as David had shared at

Mason High school they were “grouped by department geographically” (p. 6) and Karen added, “We all have our desks in there for common prep…But definitely at meetings the structure of having us in one area the team work, the comradery, is definitely there” (p. 6), and the “sharing of resources” (David, p. 6).

Comradeship, teamwork and sharing of resources describe the behaviours and attitudes characteristic of the relations in the teacher network. These behaviours not only created opportunities for communication and information exchanges, they increased levels of trust in the relations. Increased trust in others inspired more participation in the network (Brehm & Rahn, 1997). And, as colleagues found more opportunities to work together, this relational dynamic was strengthened and so too were social capital levels in the network increased and the physical capital of individuals in terms of skills and knowledge (Coleman, 1988).

Staff members acting as brokers were characteristic of these relations as they looked for ways to exploit the structural holes and bring in new partners. As per the data given in Table 5.5 this is exactly what happened in Mason High school. As new information and new relationships were brought into the closed network, there was network transformation.

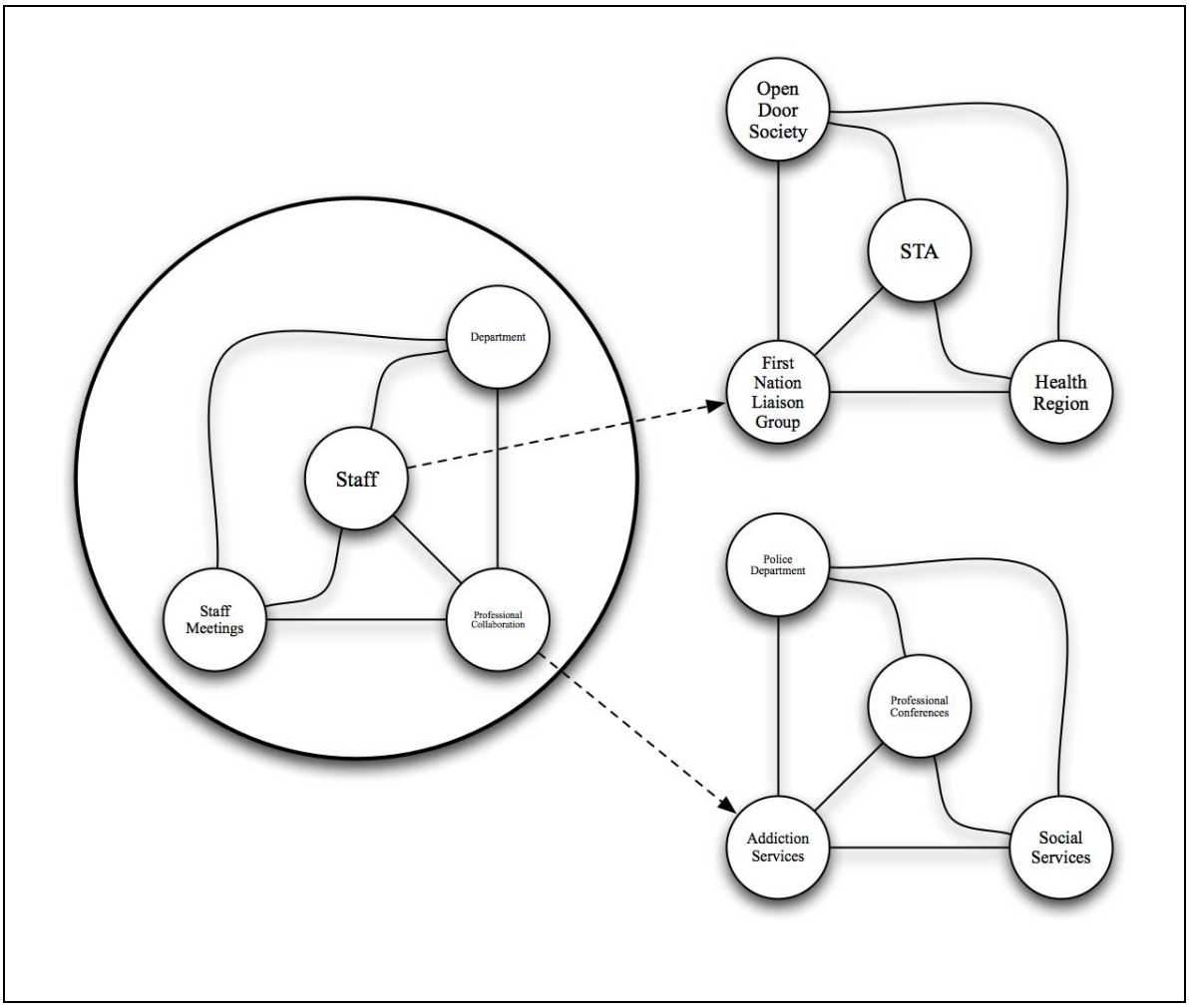

Figure5.5. Boundary spanning and staff network transformation

Reviewing the data obtained from the teacher focus group (see Figure 5.6) there was a complexity/layer to their perception of the structural dimension of social capital that was absent from the students'. The teachers identified many institutional, associative, work-based, bureaucratic and communal systems of relations as being part of the network composition of Mason High school but located outside the school. Access to these sources of social capital was made possible by the boundary spanning behaviour of the teachers. Furthermore, acting as brokers, they created opportunities for new reciprocal exchanges of information and brought new members into the networks of relations.

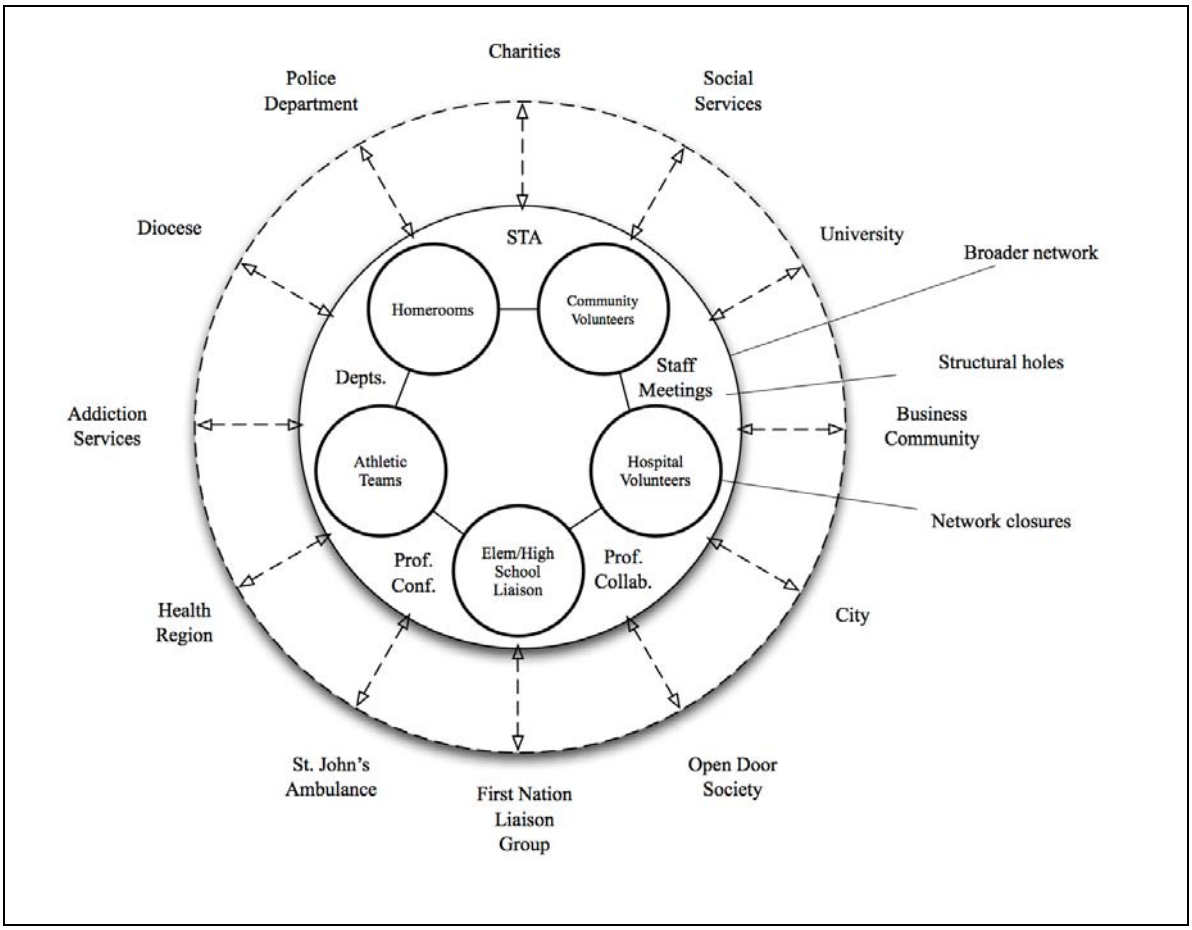

Figure 5.6. Teachers' perceptions of structural social capital at Mason High School

In contrast, students perceived Mason High School to be a closed network where the exchange of resources occurred because of the location of the resources (on campus) and the easy access to individuals who would likewise become a resource or type of support (see Figure 5.1). However, as this figure suggests, the staff had numerous social connections within the network that also provided opportunities for knowledge exchanges. These included knowledge exchanges with other department members, discussions with other colleagues outside their respective departments at staff meetings, conversations with STA representatives on staff and sharing sessions with school colleagues and other professionals during professional development sessions and conferences.

Furthermore, the boundary spanning behaviour of teachers and other staff members at Mason High school, made the resources and opportunities in their network accessible to members of another and vice versa. They created opportunities for reciprocal exchanges and invited new members into the school community for purposes of collaboration.

Mechanisms that impede or facilitate access to asset-promoting social relations.

While my conversation with the teachers suggested many asset-promoting social relations were already in place, the processes of social capital mobilization and acquisition were not without challenges. One of the greatest challenges, observed Shawn, was the rigidity of the school day:

> ‘We’re constrained by the five period class and we’re also constrained by using up that noon hour meeting with organizations and this meeting (focus group) itself. We’re really constrained because we’re bang, bang, bang. So the five period structure we have in this high school has also been the bane of trying to expand into the community or have the community come in. It’s a tough thing to do.’ (p. 5)

Couple this with a curriculum that the teachers felt prevented networking: “It would be nice to have [a] course where you could take students out into the real world where they could have contact with real world situation [*sic*] as opposed to being stuck in school all the time” (David, p. 4). Courses offered for credit over the lunch hour and extra curricular obligations where “teachers would also be dedicated to that and games and stuff” (Kevin, p. 5) after school further impeded social capital production and mobilization. The more teacher time during the day was restricted, so too were their opportunities to access other associations which hindered the creation of capacity.

The focus group participants further acknowledged that while they had many opportunities to form network relations with other organizations who had expressed "their willingness to come into the schools and do things" (Linda, p. 13) to enrich the experiences of the students at Mason High school, an inadequate facility did not allow for this access to outside expertise:

> 'I know there are some things in the science lab I speak to and you may have some of the same issues in the gym and the IA area that I'm speaking to. There's huge safety issues for doing labs and activities and we just have to work within the system and that just might mean that we can't do some of the learning activities that we might be able to do in another facility. It restricts what you can do, so it restricts part of the learning experience for the kids. (Karen, p. 11)

But this problem was not easily solved by taking students out of the building either, at least not as far as "the legal aspect of it" (p. 14). Kevin shared his frustration with trying to respect policy when you have a limited budget and the impact of that on programs and ultimately, learning outcomes for students:

> 'We used to be able to run some programs without asking and going through a bunch of legal consent forms and now our hands are tied. We have strict rules that we have to follow…that has increased the cost of our programs immensely.' (p. 14)

He felt the rigidity of these guidelines not only affected the number of students who could participate but also created a situation of unequal access for students. In his view, policy compromised access to social capital and restricted its distribution as well.

The teacher participants also identified obstacles within the institution that complicated professional growth for them. Non-instructional time was a particular source of contention for the group, specifically staff meeting time and early release time:

> ‘When we talk about organizational time in the school I don’t think we’ve created that structure. I would like to see a different structure than the traditional staff meeting set up, than the traditional use of half days, full days. Rather than sitting there being talked to more, having a structure where you can read over some of those items and then have more of an interaction amongst colleagues both in your department that is subject specific or between departments. (Linda, p. 5)

Others in the group agreed that this meeting structure did little to facilitate professional collaboration for the transfer of knowledge. Furthermore, it challenged the creation of opportunities for Professional Learning Communities:

> Shawn: Content
>
> Diane: Content
>
> Linda: Content. It’s the redundancy of the content.
>
> Shawn: Relevancy. (Linda nods her head in agreement)
>
> Linda: It’s just space fillers—that’s what so many of our meetings are.
>
> Shawn: Department meetings fall under this as well (group agreement, affirmed by nodding of heads).
>
> Diane: A lot of the stuff you could read (again, participants nod their heads in affirmation) and be done with it.
>
> Shawn: Or email it. If it’s a huge concern talk about it.
>
> Linda: I’d say about ¾ of the things we go over in the large staff meeting, in my

> opinion, is something I could go over in an email…and you don't have to talk about it at a staff meeting. Everyone's read it and you just have faith in your professionals that they will have read those items and they will be aware of it and so that will open up time to do other things like meet and just get to know other people but also work on collaborative stuff and…I don't know. We just had a meeting for the first time during an early release time rather than at lunch and there was more participation from the group rather than one or two people discussing so I saw the benefits from it yesterday. People were more engaged and we were more productive in my opinion. (p. 8)

Capacity building among colleagues at Mason High school was being compromised by structure. Staff meetings were for the dissemination of information and not for collegial conversation, department meetings were for the bureaucratic tidbits and other matters within the institution. Colleagues at Mason High school communicated. They were set up by department. They were located in close proximity. The potential was there and they could have collegial professional learning communities, which are very much a form of asset-promoting social relations, but this was not likely to happen without some structural changes within the institution.

These participants in this study wanted and needed more occasions during their school day that would facilitate trust building among colleagues. More direct access to other members in the network would not only build trust, it would support the exchange of information, and potentially increase the levels of cooperation between members in the

network, all of which would benefit significantly the creativity and productivity of the network.

Creation and accumulation of social capital at Mason High School.

As detailed in Table 5.3, there were numerous academic and non-academic factors that contributed to collaborative practice at Mason High school, which facilitated asset-promoting social relations.

Table 5.3

Transactional Analysis of Potential Sources of Social Capital at Mason High School

Social Capital	Created How	Accumulated How
• Diocese	• Faith-based school	• Program offerings, rituals of the institution
• Charitable organizations	• Service and stewardship	• Curricular, extra curricular, staff meetings
• Business Community	• Curricular	• Curricular, staff meetings
• Trades community	• Curricular	• Curricular, staff meetings
• Police liaison	• Division Office	• Curricular, staff meetings
• Addictions counsellor	• Division Office and Addiction Services	• Curricular, staff meetings
• Open Door Society	• Administration and volunteer tutors	• Extra curricular
• First Nation Liaison Group	• Division Office	• Curricular, extra curricular
• STA	• Membership in profession	• Active involvement, staff meetings
• Health Region	• Division Office and Health Region	• Having a nurse on campus
• Food banks	• Homerooms	• Christmas hampers
• Senior Citizen Home	• Staff and students	• Community tea, extra curricular
• Elders	• First Nation Liaison Group and Division Office	• Staff, curricular, extra curricular
• Professional Learning Community	• Staff and Division office	• Collaboration, common prep, structured time for professional exchange
• Administrative mentoring		
• Community members	• Positive relations	• Planned events for, share facility, nurture relations with
• Minor sports	• Shared facilities	• Cooperative attitude
• Local hospital	• Solicit student volunteers	• Annual involvement
• University	• Staff invitation	• Curricular enrichment
• Ambulance service	• Staff/student interest	• Annual opportunity
• Social worker	• Division office and Social Services	• Curricular, extra curricular
• Facilities department	• School and City	• Partnership needs
• Parents	• Student enrolment	• Diverse demographic,

		positive/supportive staff
• Opening Doors	• Division office	• Partnership with community agencies

Particularly noteworthy were the attempts to integrate outside agencies into the school: "We're trying to have more interaction like the Domino Model (reference to another urban high school), right? Where the organizations are part of the school or come into the school rather than sending kids out" (Shawn, p. 2). David also added:

> 'There are always different organizations that come and speak with us and if they have something to give us or if they have something to share by way of a service they can share with the staff, they will come in and introduce themselves.' (p. 9)

This, of course, could not happen if the institution and the administration did not support dialogue around collaborative practice but as my focus participants explained, this was their perception of the direction Mason High school was headed:

> Diane: I came from a division that has distributed leadership and so there was more leadership amongst the staff in controlling where we were going and I think we're starting to maybe move towards that a little bit but I think it—but I think the more you have ownership in the leadership of where the school is going you can invest your time and create things that work for you rather than having somebody that may have been out of the classroom for a while and may not see what's more effective or maybe not see creative new openings to do it.
>
> Shawn: I find the current admin very collegial, very humble, very 'working for you' rather than over top of you…I find that the current administrators are much more willing to take the best of the corporate memory or the

> tradition that [Mason High school] has and then to make it more humane, gentle, kind, both for students and teachers. (p. 7)

This administrative support was crucial. Not only did it facilitate the building of relationships, in essence networking, it also provided opportunities for people to come together to consider creative new ways to do things and to discuss what may be more potentially effective in the educating of children and youth.

While the institutional traditions still influenced significantly the meeting schedules and the structure thereof, these focus group participants felt they had reasonable autonomy in other matters, such as making decisions regarding the education of their students:

> Karen: I think all teachers have (pause), all teachers are able to decide how they will run their classrooms to a degree…but I think when it comes down to it as long as we stay within the parameters that we are given to be responsible people we make our decisions for our children or our students.
>
> Me: Do you find that you are able to make decisions that you need to make for the students that you have? That you have the freedom to do that?
>
> Shawn: As a good parent would.
>
> Karen: …There are some areas that are tight where this is what it is and you can't change it but there's very much freedom and confidence in the teachers…. (p. 2)

In other words, as an example of a network of dependency relationships, the norms between the administrative team and staff that facilitated access to resources were trust,

respect, confidence and expectation. Assets were created and leveraged through this relation, which allowed for network expansion and increased distribution of social capital.

As a further example of this network expansion, the focus group participants talked about their efforts to include community in a more holistic approach to the education of their students. Staff and students planned social events between themselves and community members, elders facilitated connections to the community for students and staff, student athletes did volunteer work in the community and curricular programs encouraged community service and stewardship; the value of these ties being to promote positive student development, “living the gospel values in [their] daily lives” (Karen, p. 4) and citizenship more so than academics.

Similarly, the changing student demographic of Mason High school and the subsequent realities incurred by the change was another factor that influenced this network of dependency relationships to include community. As Shawn explained, “we are trying to become more welcoming and being much more culturally sensitive and things like that. We address it. We’ve been having conversations about it for five years” (p. 11). Programs have been added and modified and program supports have been put in place for students and staff by way of interagency connections.

In addition, concerted efforts to “maintain good relations with their neighbours” (Shawn, p. 9) and “parents [who] are incredibly supportive” (David, p. 15) have helped to create a welcoming culture for all members of the Mason High school community: “They don’t feel unwelcome….There is just the opposite. There is acceptance of them as human beings” (Kevin, p. 11). The quality of the social relations between Mason High school

and its community members have helped it to increase its capacity to address and resolve issues.

Productive potential of resources at Mason High School.

My conversation with my teacher focus group provided a more thorough perspective of the school, its programs, services and people supporting the students being educated there. For instance, through the sense-making of their experiences I was better prepared to identify the many different types of asset-promoting relations already established; the group based (students), work based (staff), and institutional (outside agencies and personnel) ties as well as the barriers to and mechanisms for these exchanges.

My participants also stated they felt informed enough to access a support service if they needed it or to refer a student or family if that were the case (p. 9). However, based on earlier comments regarding their perceived lack of efficiency with scheduled meeting time, I could not help but wonder if staff members were utilizing these resources as effectively as they might. When coupled with Karen's experiences within her department, this question of efficacy grew: "[E]ven though that proximity is there you're still very busy. Like you need the time that's blocked where you're not pulled by a student or you're not pulled 'cause even in our preps we're helping, as you do, students…" (p. 6).

If meetings occupied lunch hours, prep time was devoted to students and after school to extra curricular, I could not help but wonder when the potential for opportunities for conversations about asset-promoting relations would occur in the network during the course of the school day. I likewise wondered about the potential for bridging the relations necessary to access resources that were not generally or easily accessible in their immediate surroundings.

In the final analysis the data suggested structures and procedures at Mason High school were compromising rather than complementing all the social capital staff and students had access to. Because the staff members and students of Mason High school spent so much of their time being interconnected, the opportunities for access to resources unlike those they already shared were decreased. Some links to other network structures did occur because of the boundary-spanning efforts of a few, but these were not easily accommodated because these network transforming relations necessitated flexibility in the existing network structure that simply was not there. For this reason, improved practice for the benefit of students at Mason High was contingent on closer examination of how the potential resources derived from systems of relations outside their immediate surroundings could be coordinated.

Administrative Focus Group

Social capital resources at Mason High School.

My final conversation occurred in a focus group setting, this time with three participants, the administrative team of the high school. The principal, Brian, had been at the school three years, Paul, the assistant principal four years and Nancy, the other assistant principal, two years. Although they were newer administrators in this building, each of them had extensive administrative experience and had been educators in this division for some time.

When I reflected on my conversation with my three administrative participants and the results of my data, I struggled with the “how” of the explanation of this same data. How could I convey the contrast between this conversation and the other two? What was it about my time spent in conversation with Paul and Brian and Nancy that I was struggling

to explain? My queries subsided when it occurred to me that the three of them had introduced another dimension to the discussion of asset-promoting social relations that the other two groups had not. This added dimension, cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1986) not only affirmed their individual commitment to this team of three as a leader, it likewise influenced the decisions they made as a team, the philosophies that motivated their decisions, and the expectations they held for those both teaching in and being schooled at Mason High school.

This form of capital was found in the belief in the importance of particular kinds of attitude to succeed and for that reason, the administrative team tried to create opportunities for all students, no matter what their ability, to achieve to the best of their ability. Likewise, tradition and faith, as ideas that impressed themselves upon the thinking of members of this community, also became forms of capital. Combined, they became mechanisms that the administration used to create networks of dependency relationships that were asset-promoting. They were key in community building and engagement with parents, they provided the impetus to establish links with supports outside the community and they increased the sense of fellowship and cooperation in the teachers' networks of relations because of their sense of working towards common goals. The administration's strategic use of tradition, faith and the philosophy of inclusive education, "came into contact with institutionalized standards of evaluation [and] yield[ed] advantages" (Lareau & Weininger, 2004, p. 107).

For example, the first thing I asked my participants to consider were the structural changes that had occurred at Mason High school during their tenure. Paul was the one who spoke to this in detail:

> ‘Structurally in the building we haven’t changed a whole bunch. We’re still operating on a semestered system and a five day period, one hour for lunch and most of the classes are one hour in length.’ (p. 2)

Brian added “we do run choir over the noon hour” (p. 3) yet somehow, in spite of a fixed schedule that included course offerings over the lunch hour, as Paul noted,

> ‘we’ve introduced 21 new courses for kids to take and we have removed three courses during that time. Introduction of those 21 new courses has been across the board from grade nine to twelve and in most areas of the school.’ (p. 1)

That a variation of cultural capital, the belief in the importance of particular kinds of attitude and knowledge (Bourdieu, 1986) to succeed, was the motivating factor behind program modification, was suggested by Brian:

> ‘But I think the basic guiding principle for our school is that we are a faith-based school and because of that we try to create opportunities for everyone no matter what their ability…we are trying to enhance the learning for everyone in the community so they’ll achieve to the best of their ability with their God given talents.’ (p. 3)

This diversified programming, as a curricular resource, benefited all students of the school including the Special Needs Program, the mainstream students, and Advanced Placement students (Brian, p. 3).

If conceptualized as something that impressed itself upon one’s way of thinking (Bourdieu 1986), then the data suggested that cultural capital as tradition became another resource at Mason High school for administration, staff, students and parents. As Paul explained in our discussion, “tradition is part of the culture of this building and tradition

has had an impact on the culture of this building, there's no question about that" (p. 12). Brian added that the tradition of success was so engrained in this school, it had also outsourced itself to the community and was now an expectation shared by the parents:

> 'When you talk about tradition you can also talk about expectation…parents expect the best of their students in whatever they're doing, so the best in athletics, the best in their music program, the best in their academics so because of that we have very, very high expectations placed on the students from the school and the teachers as well as from the parents.' (p. 12)

As a result, parents were very active in the academic planning for their children and supportive of both the academic and extra curricular components of the school.

Interestingly, the tradition at Mason High appeared to have had a dual purpose: it functioned as a resource itself but also as a mechanism that produced another asset-promoting social relation between the school and the parent community. As a form of capital within the network it helped to develop and maintain the norms for behaviour. At the same time it provided the momentum for an information exchange about behaviour between members in the network and to those outside of it. The end results were norms of obligation and reciprocity in the network and more cooperative links outside of it.

Who Is Networking With Whom

All three administrators felt there was a certain atmosphere that was created by the school culture in Mason High and that this atmosphere was another resource accessible to all:

> 'One of the things that we always try to do in our faith is always supporting those who are in need…when somebody is in need…the other students and staff will

> rally around them to support them because that is the expectation. That everyone takes care of everyone else within this building.' (Brian, p. 15)

Paul suggested that this culture of care extended beyond the walls of the school and in fact, could be felt in the community as well. His praise was directed at students in particular whom he commended for their "empathy and compassion." "I think that really is a cornerstone of this school and I know that his school in particular reaches out to other students and reaches out to the community in a way that I think is quite exceptional" (Paul, p. 16). As a norm of the relations *in* the network, this culture of care also provided a bridge *outside* the network to asset-promoting relations with its surrounding community.

In addition to the resources that had accrued by way of this tradition of expectation and this culture of care, other interagency relations had been established to support staff professional development, their classroom practices and to support students holistically (See Figure 5.7). For example, praise was heaped on their division personnel for providing the necessary funding to modify their programs to reflect their student clientele. Also noted was the provision of funding that made possible more teacher assistants in classrooms and more partnerships with outside agencies; definite assets in a "growing multicultural community [of] about 1230 students" (Paul, p. 5).

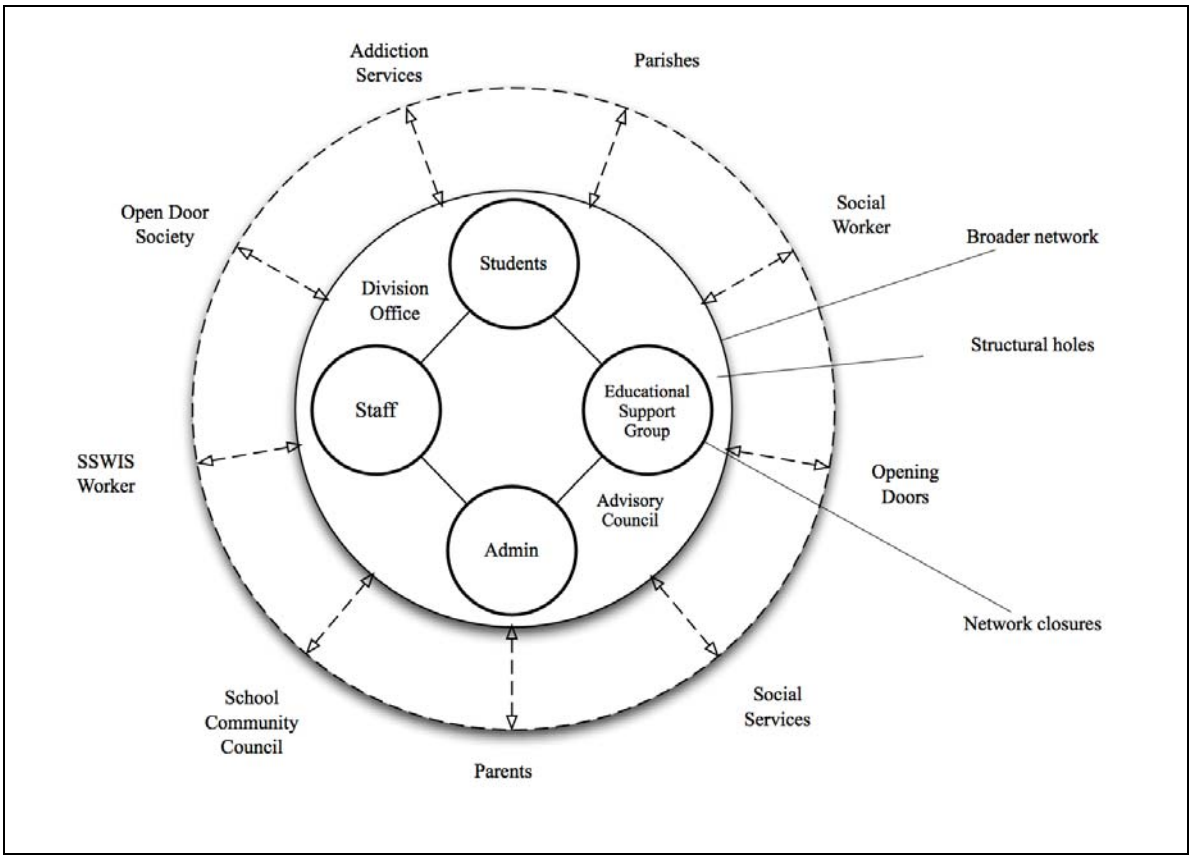

Figure 5.7. Administrators' perceptions of structural social capital at Mason High School

Generally speaking, the students at Mason High School would be described as mainstreamed students from two-parent households. But as that demographic was changing, so too were the realities for the staff and the programs at Mason High school:

> 'Most of our kids come from a two-parent family but that is decreasing as every year that I am here there is [*sic*] more and more single families. So then the needs of the parents grow with that. More counselling is needed, they have higher needs because of the breakdown of their family unit…lots of poverty stricken kids. Lots more getting meal tickets at lunch time and, you know just a lot more kids that need assistance.' (Nancy, p. 6)

The challenges presented by this diversity prompted some boundary spanning. As a result of the efforts to increase not only the number of supports but the quality as well, the resources in place for students and staff were plentiful and reflected both the diversity of the students and the differences in their needs.

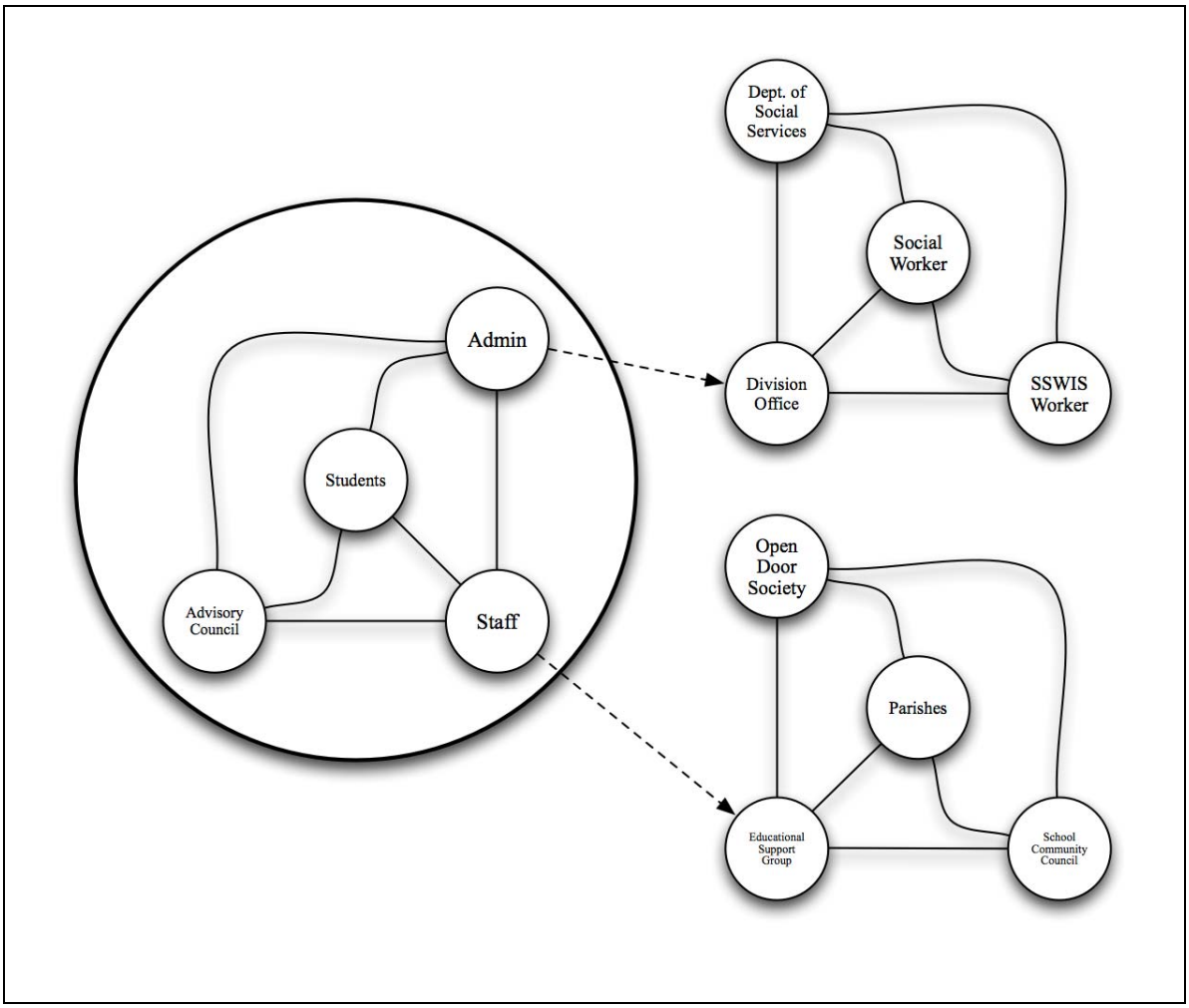

Figure 5.8. Dimensions of spatial proximity and boundary spanning by staff at Mason High School

For example, a Social Worker was partnered with Open Door Society to work with immigrant students; volunteers partnered with Opening Doors to offer academic tutoring to all students; the Educational Support Group partnered with health care professionals to support students in the Alternate Education Program; and an Addiction Services Worker

came into the school once a week to meet with students. Also, personnel from these agencies provided professional development opportunities and support for staff (p. 9) while the Advisory Council and Community Council provided input and direction as well (see Figure 5.8).

While these social networks provided access to resources and support, they also demonstrated the potential of this school, or perhaps any school, to educate children, support families and influence the community. By adopting an approach that promoted healthy youth and family development, Mason High school not only acknowledged the embeddedness of families and schools in communities, they provided an opportunity for collaborative partnerships that enhanced the potential for student success at Mason High.

Mechanisms that Impede or Facilitate Asset-promoting Relations

The data generated from my focus group discussion suggested that Mason High school had a team of leaders with a vision, which was a mechanism that facilitated the process of social capital: "[we're] trying to support the academic needs of the students but we're trying to reach out to assist students in other capacities or other areas….We support a lot of families from that perspective as well" (Paul, p. 5). However, their vision of educating the whole child was not without its difficulties for this team.

Earlier I had acknowledged the changing family dynamic of this community and the fact that the administration felt this may have accounted for the increased need for student support. Speaking even more specifically to family and societal issues, they offered their thoughts on how the school was somehow expected to shoulder the responsibility for counsel in these matters:

> Me: So the issues that may have in the past been issues for the home are perhaps

now issues that are to be dealt with in the school?

Paul: Some examples of that would be drug education, alcohol education, issues in and around the school, bullying if that is a problem.

Nancy: Break and enters.

Paul: B and E's, policing issues, you know, all those kinds of things I think have unfortunately grown over the last number of years and are a part of dealing with the total student in a school. (p. 8)

What Paul referred to as an "evolution to the schools" (p. 8) is a growing trend (Christensen, 2002) in schools that has seen increased demands placed on educators for personal counselling, academic counselling and "solving issues that are in the lives of kids on a day-to-day basis" (Paul, p. 7). Falling more and more on the shoulders of school personnel, this team was no exception. Brian reasoned that greater diversity in student population was often accompanied by more challenges and while Paul and Nancy agreed with his reasoning, Paul had one more perspective to offer:

> 'I think the kids are coming to the school with two different things that I've seen. They're coming to the school with a greater need for support academically or academic preparation but they're also coming with a greater need for support just for being a person. And that impacts inside and outside the school.' (p. 8)

Paul's comments were a reminder that academic engagement is not enough. While schools can provide the networks for the dissemination of valuable information, children's educational advancement needs to be inclusive of the whole community. However, in order to provide useful relationships to include a focus on behavioural engagement and psychological engagement, collaboration becomes a social imperative.

Speaking further to the educational advancement of students, the administrative team voiced some concerns about students being compromised by the facility itself. While earlier comments made by my teacher participants linked student safety and program limitations with the condition of the facility, the assistant principals focused on the implications posed for the students because of the age of the facility. Paul felt "[they needed] upgrades to offer cutting edge opportunities to kids to learn and that's an area where [they] could improve" (p. 15). It also placed the students of Mason High school in a position of disadvantage when one considered provincial opportunities. Nancy acknowledged the inequity for their students and recognized, as an example "the demands that our province and our country are putting on skilled labourers and we don't have THAT (original emphasis) to put out there. Like we don't have welding, we don't have construction and schools need that" (p. 16).

By all accounts there were many supports in place to support students who struggled with or excelled academically and supports to assist with other dimensions of student wellness. However, while a culture of expectation may have prompted one to perform to the best of one's ability, there was nothing in the data to suggest that asset-promoting relations or supports existed to support other high school exit realities other than a professional career.

Creation and Accumulation of Social Capital at Mason High School

Embracing philosophies of inclusive education and success for all students, the administrative team positioned Mason High school to facilitate collaborative practice and asset-promoting relations (see Table 5.4).

Table 5.4

Administrators' Perceptions of Potential Sources of Social Capital Creation and Accumulation at Mason High School

Social Capital	Created How	Accumulated How
• Diversified programming	• Division support	• Division support, diversified staff
• Program supports	• Division support	• Division support, partnering with outside agencies
• Alternate program options	• Division support	• Division support
• Faith based school	• Division support, staff, administration, community	• Curricular, staff expectations, parents, community, rituals of the institution
• Addictions worker	• Division support, Addiction Services	• Curricular, professional development, working with families
• Social worker	• Division support, Social Services	• Partnering with outside agencies, division support
• Open Door Society	• Volunteer tutors	• Extra curricular
• SSWIS	• Division support and Social Services	• Partnering with outside agencies, division support
• Opening Doors	• Volunteers	• Extra curricular
• Inclusive education	• Division office, admin, staff	• Program offerings and supports, diversified staff
• Lunch program	• Division office	• Community partnerships
• Parents	• Parent involvement	• Communication between home and school
• Advisory Council	• Admin and staff	• Staff input
• Parent Community Council	• Division office, admin, parent community	• Communication between admin and PCC
• Professional development	• Division office, admin	• Professional networking and collaboration
• Educational Support Group	• Division office, admin, interagency partnerships	• Program offerings, staff support, program supports, partnerships
• Policy manuals	• Division office, admin, staff	• Revisiting policies and promising practices, data collection, admin and staff collaboration
• Tradition of excellence	• Admin, staff, parental expectations	• Communication among all parties, support of school initiatives/policies, support of staff
• School culture	• Admin, staff, students, community	• Pedagogy, community networking, admin/staff expectations of students, tradition
• Parishes	• Division office	• Interaction between parish personnel, staff and students

However, as Paul suggested, initiatives such as those in place at Mason High school could not have happened without support at the bureaucratic level: "Superintendents and the coordinators are a source of expertise and financial support for sure" (p. 4). Brian agreed and expressed appreciation for the generous support not only in the initial stages

when new programs were being instituted but with “the teacher supports during that period of time with additional programs in the school’ (p. 4). Hence, the division support both facilitated student success “in meeting academic standards, as well as the behavioural and social standards” (Christenson & Anderson, 2002, p. 378) of the school and supported educators whom society looks to, to ensure students meet these same standards.

Moreover, the data obtained from my conversation with the administrative team further suggested the bridging of social capital among staff, the enhancement of closed social capital and social capital linkages (Schneider, 2006, p. 37) facilitated social capital accumulation at Mason High school. For example, Paul acknowledged the support given staff through professional development activities and networking activities:

> ‘Dr. Fred would come in, ABC Family Services, sometimes they have supports in programming that we might be learning about so as part of that PD learning opportunity there’s [*sic*] always people that would be coming in, you know, based on the planning of the school. To provide support for staff and students.’(p. 9)

These opportunities not only provided the necessary educational and professional supports within the network, they encouraged the creation of further social capital links outside the network with members of the school community and interagency personnel.

Similarly, school-community based initiatives enhanced development of closed social capital. For example, inviting families in to the school where they could benefit from supports, regular communication between the school and the home and working with the Parent Community Council, were but a few of the ways the administrative team and teachers could identify potential assets in the community beneficial to both them and their

students. With “a high level of support from parents” (Paul, p. 13), the team ventured beyond the school and the community to other institutions and agencies to provide the resources required by their students.

These social capital related initiatives not only fostered “an opportunity [for students] to be successful when they are [at Mason]” (Paul, p. 5), it helped to “maintain [*sic*] some students that are a lot more at risk more than [they] were able to previously” (Brian, p. 5). The leadership efforts directed at community building and community engagement improved access to supports that had the potential to benefit all members of the school community. Furthermore, as an exemplar of interagency, collaborative service delivery, the inclusion of supports to enhance instructional programming and the social, physical and psychological wellness of students, represented the requisite services for optimum service delivery.

Productive Potential of Resources at Mason High School

My conversation with the administrators lead me to believe their focus was on network resources, supports that were accessible to all persons in the school community and contact resources, resources that could be mobilized through action from within the school or outside of Mason High school. To assist with these outcomes they spoke to the role that faith played, the foundation of inclusive education, and the tradition of excellence. Referred to earlier in my discussion as cultural capital, these were examples of possessed resources (Lin, 1999); supports already in place that were maintained in the institution and in their own unique ways, created opportunities for student success. Coupled with instrumental actions directed at gaining added resources not presently in

place (Lin, 1999), these initiatives were undertaken to increase opportunities for access, to gain eventual access and inevitably, obtain additional resources.

As an example, because inclusive education was the foundation of Mason High school, the administrative team focused much of its efforts on diversified programming for students:

> ‘We have to, to the best of our ability provide support for every student who comes in the door and we try to program to allow each and every student who comes in the door here at Mason High school an opportunity to be successful when they are here.’ (Paul, p. 5)

While the cultural capital provided the impetus for the instrumental actions, the initiatives to expand programs and to put program supports in place appeared to have resulted in valuable relations that supported student success. As Brian noted,

> ‘I think that it has allowed the opportunity for students that might not find Mason High school a place where they want to be, a place where they now will find their niche because of diversified programming.’ (p. 5)

Hence, the objective of opportunity enhancement for everyone in the community, so they could achieve to the best of their ability, was well within reach in this school community. As determined by the data, the initiatives of this leadership team centred around social networks for the creation and provision of access to resources and supports for youth and families in their school community. In the end, finding resources through these networks not only improved opportunities for students to learn, it also influenced positively their ability to adapt to the school environment in which their schooling would take place.

Social Capital Mobilization and Acquisition at Mason High School

Social capital is the product of a process. It is “more than mere social relations and networks; it evokes the resources embedded and accessed” (Lin, 1999, p. 37). An aggregation of resources occurs when knowledge is disseminated, persons who make decisions provide for the acquisition of resources and members interact to make the mobilization possible (Lin, 1999). Based on the data obtained from all three focus groups, the following elements, as depicted in Table 5.5, are relevant to a conceptualization of social capital mobilization and acquisition at Mason High school.

Table 5.5

Social Capital Mobilization at Mason High School

Focus	Measurement	Indicators
Embedded Resources	Network Resources	• Extra curricular programs, community volunteers, Educational Support Group, Addictions Worker, Staff, Admin, Students Services, Inclusive Education, Tradition of Excellence, Faith-based
	Contact Resources	• Health Region, Social Services, Addiction Services, Mental Health, Law Enforcement, Cultural, Post-secondary, Religious, Business, Community
	Contact Statuses	• Teachers, principals, superintendents, medical personnel, mental health professionals, justice workers, addictions counsellors, professors, consultants, business persons, laypersons
Network Locations	Bridge to Access	• Structural Holes: division office, advisory council, STA, departments, staff meetings, professional conferences • Structural Constraints: student cliques, increased student needs, facility limitations, timetable, school-day structure, familial breakdown, stale curriculum, restraints on non-instructional time
	Strength of Tie	• Expressive: health region, social services, addiction services, mental health, law enforcement, cultural, religious • Instrumental: post-secondary, business, community

Adapted from "Building a Network Theory of Social Capital," by N. Lin 1999, *Connections, 22* (1), pp. 28-51.

This table provides a glimpse of capacity *potential* at Mason High school of the group and the conditions of access to resources. However, it is important to emphasize that because it does not include the *value* realized from each of the mobilized resources, the anticipated support and actual support cannot be differentiated. That aside, it *does* permit us to consider how networks of relations operate and certain relations and levers in schools that are necessary conditions of social capital.

Network Composition: Structural Properties

While the status of the contacts at Mason High School varied, so too did the variables that controlled, facilitated or inhibited the flow of information. With students, the data suggested they grouped together in cliques and it was through these groups that they established the relations to access resources. While one might assume this would facilitate most naturally the flow of additional resources, this was not the case.

As Erickson (2004) found, individuals tend to form associations in the same way the students at Mason High school did: they gravitate to those with whom they share the most similarities. Ironically, it was this very relational characteristic, sameness, that impeded connections as the persons most unlike them were more likely to have the non-redundant resources that they did not (Erickson, 2004, p. 11). The more the students saw these like-minded peer groups as a support, the less aware they were of the many linkages to supports in place to support their learning and development.

A further example of this closure of their social structure might be applied to the student-student-counsellor relationship. This closure did allow for the generation of trust and obligation, important qualities in a relationship of this nature (Coleman, 1988); however, this reputation of trustworthiness also increased significantly student dependency on these counsellors. As suggested by the data, students would go to counsellors before others; they would turn to counsellors rather than initiate linkages with other supports on their own. There were so many resources available and so many support persons as well but students spoke mainly to the counsellors as their significant resource.

For the most part, the students appeared to be controlling the flow of information pertaining to them. As the data showed, continued reliance on counsellors impacted significantly the network density, the extent to which students were connected to others (Campbell & Lee, 1991) and network cohesion, the proportion of reciprocal relationships (p. 213). Information was passed from student to student but nothing in their responses suggested tie strength within the network or "patterns of resource exchange relationships" (Haythornthwaite, 1996, p. 336) outside this closed network. In the absence of a connectedness with those in the network and outside of it, the likelihood for information exchange was decreased.

Conversely, data obtained from my teacher group suggested strong ties within the network and to the linkages formed through boundary spanning. These relations, for the most part, resulted in expressive resources for Mason High school: shared interests and resources that tended to be more familiar and reciprocal (Haythornthwaite, 1996).

The staff spoke positively about the communication of information and did not believe it to be asymmetrical only, from one person or party to another. On the contrary, they felt very informed about supports, resources, and resource persons and felt the school administrative team did a good job of apprising them of the available supports for students and for them in their efforts to support their students.

Focus group participants also shared processes by which this information was shared and with whom. Rather than be selective about who should or should not receive information, administrators would communicate with all staff at meetings and they would structure staff meeting time to enable personnel from outside agencies to come in to speak with all staff members as well. The participants did, however, also suggest that this

scheduled meeting time or unscheduled time could, on occasion, be better spent allowing teachers to meet in departments to discuss, network and contact resources among themselves. They felt institutionalized meeting time inhibited discussions they would like to have had with colleagues and placed the control of the type of information flow solely in the hands of the administration.

The administration, on the other hand considered it part of their mandate to help all their students to be successful. To this end, program changes required communication with division personnel; student supports were formed by way of negotiations between administration, division personnel, and agency personnel; and partnerships between the home and school were formed through communication between administration and Parent Community Council or administration and individual families. Control of the information flow was definitely in the hands of the administration but as Brian suggested this was more perhaps consequential of top down bureaucracy than leadership style:

> ‘The greater demands are placed on us by the provincial government with the requirements of the continuous improvement framework or the School Community Councils, with the reports and things that they are requiring…so it’s much more demanding with the paper work at MY (original emphasis) desk rather than the day-to-day activity. The day-to-day activity I think it has changed in terms of some of the needs of the kids but overall it’s not as great as the demands that are coming from outside.’ (pp. 8-9)

In other words, the administrators were not deliberately positioning themselves to control the information flow. As more responsibility was placed in the hands of educators by the Minister of Education, the division and the public, more decisions needed to be

made and the decision making and the communication of those same decisions was a process that began with the administration:

> ‘Well, quite often decisions are made through, ideas are brought forward. They are then passed through Advisory Council and then a group of teachers representing each particular department will sit together and determine the direction. Whether that idea will go forth or not. If it is a major idea that will affect families and the students then we also pass it by the Community Council.’ (Brian, p. 9)

While the flow of information was positioned with the administration in the beginning, there was the potential for others (parents, staff, students) who had similar information needs or uses to access this information. As knowledge flowed from person to person through the relations in the network, information was exchanged, discussions and negotiations occurred and the potential for increased social capital creation and mobility was realized.

Network Composition: Condition for Creation and Mobilization

According to Haythornthwaite (1996), a person’s information opportunities are influenced by four things: who they made contact with, the information that contact provides, the contacts that exist in their network and who the information can be forwarded to for a positive outcome (p. 338). In the case of the students, information needs were being met and exchanges were being made; however, information opportunities were not perhaps maximized as much as they could have been.

As the students continued to favour homogeneity over heterogeneous grouping, as suggested by the formation of cliques among the students, information exposure was

limited. This like-mindedness compromised potential access to information for others because there were no structural holes in the network. Without the structural holes, there was less of a possibility for members of the network to part with information or, to see the need to part with it for that matter.

Student participants in the focus group identified their peers as their first likely source for support and guidance counsellors as their second choice. Neither of these exchanges appeared to be predicated by any condition such as trust, the type of support being sought, or the nature of the relationship. Interestingly, however, these caveats were factors when other potential contacts with teachers, coaches, parents, or administrators, for example, were introduced as potential persons with whom students could exchange information.

What was suggested by this data was that a definite pattern of forwarding and receiving information existed when students were the ones needing the information. They went to their peers because there was the assumption of support, the expectation of trust. Likewise, they went to counsellors because of preconceived notions of trust, support and obligation. Both the sender and the information were legitimized because of student perceptions of who the person they were exchanging information with was supposed to be. Furthermore, because of this perception of legitimacy from these sources, students suggested they would not look further for support. In the case of Student Services in particular, they felt “it’s all available” (p. 19), information that is, which not only limited potential access *to* the many other supports available but access *through* these potential information outlets as well.

In contrast, the staff actively pursued information opportunities on behalf of their students. As my participants suggested in our discussion, Mason High school was attempting to model as much as possible the full service concept, where support organizations were a part of the school or came into the school to offer support services. Teachers welcomed opportunities for information exchanges at staff meetings, in department meetings, through their professional associations, and professional development.

Staff, overall, acknowledged the value of these structural holes in the network. As experts provided teachers with information to support student learning and development, they willingly parted with it, thereby increasing the potential access to this information for others. In fact, they confided they would welcome more opportunities to collaborate, to say to colleagues “what kinds of things do you do, what kinds of things do I do?” (Linda, p. 5). They expressed an interest to have access to these sources of information in building and to have access to other schools and colleagues through these information exchanges. The exchanges of the latter variety were “rare” which one participant considered a “weakness” (p. 3) in terms of professional collaboration.

The administration, comparatively, recognized the importance of collaboration to their vision of inclusive education practices. For example, diversified programming for students required supports for teachers and the tradition of success and a culture of care demanded staff cohesion. If this meant financial assistance from the division to support initiatives they pursued it; if it meant functioning as brokers to form partnerships and develop a collaborative process with off-campus agencies and organizations, they did it; if it meant bridging relations with other teachers, they encouraged it.

Information needs for students, staff and community members could potentially be met because of the linkages being made by administrators. By exploiting structural holes, the administration sought out partners who not only brought new information to the school community but to transform it as well. As more partners were brought into Mason High school, students, staff and community members had more access to information sources. Furthermore, as these information sources increased in number, so too did opportunities to access even more sources through these initial outlets. Not only did this promotion of shared resources help them to maintain the network resources they already had, it increased their likelihood of accessing additional resources to better support students and families.

Summary

To summarize the findings overall, a conditional matrix (see Figure 5.9) was constructed to provide a visual of social capital mobility and acquisition at Mason High school.

Clientele Access	Clientele Availability	**Internal Process**	Bureaucrats	Admin	Staff Members	Students	Community	Outside Agencies
	❑	**Social Capital Capacity**	❑	❑	X	▪	▪	X
❑	❑	**Social Capital Levels**	❑	❑	❑	▪	X	X
❑	X	**Social Capital Mobilization**	X	❑	❑	▪	▪	X

❑ Primary Relationship
X Secondary Relationship
▪ Minor Relationship

Figure 5.9. Conditional matrix of social capital mobility and acquisition at Mason High School

This matrix shows the relationship between the requirements of the clientele, internal processes and the people involved. The symbols indicate the strength of the relationships. The data obtained from my focus group conversations indicated that the bureaucrats and the administration of the school had the primary responsibility for social capital capacity while bureaucrats, administration and staff had the primary responsibility for the levels of social capital. The administrative team and the staff also shared primary responsibility for mobilization of social capital. The abilities and resources of the students and community members were not being fully utilized which shifted the responsibility of support primarily to Mason High school and its staff.

To build community and individual capacity you need ties to relations that can increase, influence and mobilize resources for optimum outcome. “Integrating a more explicit consideration of social capital into the research, design, development, and

evaluation of programs" (Government of Canada, 2005, p. 27) allows for a multi-dimensional study to investigate *if* people come together and *how* people come together.

This study, conducted in an educational context, examined the relationships of school-related networks and the productive potential of these relations as they pertained to service delivery in one school community. However, as important as the findings were for asset promotion, they also provided an opportunity to rethink optimum outcomes for students by identifying variables impeding social capital production at Mason High School. For example, by conducting this inquiry in a school-community context, I was able to answer the questions that guided this study. Furthermore, the answers to my research questions made me ponder the potential of this type of an inquiry to contribute further to our understanding of:

- How interagency collaboration increased the opportunities for the pursuit of resources and creative solutions in response to the changing needs of youth and families
- The necessary variables and processes for expanding the availability of services to youth and families
- The streamlined access to necessary services
- The value of inclusive, collaborative education practices for optimum service and support delivery (Pfeiffer & Reddy, 1999).

Therefore, given the findings of this study, I would submit that network inquiry may assist with the building and support of relations for specific program objectives; the mobilization of existing social networks for improved program delivery; and the identification of favourable conditions for improved access to supports (p. 17). In essence, as an instrument, network inquiry "in complement with other resources," could

assist with program and policy objectives aimed at social capital-related initiatives for improved service delivery for children and youth (p. 7).

The benefits of using network inquiry for the enhancement of social capital levels in a school community are numerous. Consider, for example how it could benefit the home-school-community concept, facilitating the empowerment of all persons in the school community by including their voices in initiatives affecting them. Also, it may increase the possibility that people in the network would realize they already possess the assets and capacities within themselves to support optimum service delivery in their school community; consequently, there would be greater potential to generate capacity for change that is driven internally as people in the network would be motivated to take action (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993).

Network inquiry has potential to contribute to the research community interested in the field of social capital. It demonstrates that "the capacity to take steps is the necessary prelude" (p. 376) to effective social networks that provide access to resources within the network and supports outside of it. It expands our understanding of the connection between social networks, social capital and outcomes for individuals and groups (Voyer, 2004). Perhaps most important is the fact that network inquiry demonstrates how levels of social capital are maintained through ties of relations rather than proximity to the resources themselves.

CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

"We cannot wait for great visions from great people; for they are in short supply at the end of history. It is up to us to light our own small fires in the darkness" (Charles Handy, 1994, p. 271).

Introduction

In this final chapter I presented a summary of the study reviewing my purpose for study, the research problem, which included research questions to guide my investigation of the problem, and the research design and methodology. I ended the chapter with my thoughts on the implication of the study for theory, policy and practice as well as some concluding comments.

How This Study Began

In the early nineties there was a great deal of discussion in Saskatchewan school communities about the School Plus initiative. The vision of interagency partnerships with school communities was a promising one and fostered optimism among educators for improved student success in schools. Not until I actually taught in a designated Community School, however, did I appreciate the potential resources available to students, staff and community members when this model of education was instituted in a school.

As an educator teaching in a Community designated school, I was able to access funds to enrich the classroom experiences for my students, I could access more freely community members to enhance the cultural experiences of my students and I could work collaboratively with professionals and laypersons from other organizations to support my students more holistically. Yet, in spite of the proven benefits for our students and

families, the vision of full-service schools remained just that, a vision and conversations around possibilities for our students and their families seemed to become less urgent and occurred less frequently.

Disappointed but undeterred, I reasoned that one abandoned initiative did not necessarily have to mean an end to interagency collaborative partnerships for schools. I began to read literature on full-service schools, the partnership process, and network relationships and I knew that this was going to somehow be converted into a research project. And so it was in my fourth year at a community-designated school that I applied for and was granted, an educational leave from my teaching duties to pursue a doctoral degree.

Equipped with the luxury of time, complemented by graduate studies and guided by one of my doctoral advisors, this interest in interagency collaboration was narrowed even more when Dr. Walker introduced me to literature specific to networks and something called social capital. These proved to be the areas of research I was interested in all along but did not have the scholarly capacity to speak to until Dr. Walker provided me with these frames of reference.

Hence, this study was borne of a perceived need to ease the burden of school personnel who had taken on social service and support functions often without additional resources, additional staff or the necessary professional development. And so, it was with conviction and hope that I conducted this study on network inquiry and social capital and the importance of both in the initiatives to better educate children and youth. My research purpose was to use network inquiry to examine how networks could be invested in and drawn upon in ways that would complement other social capital assets available to

individuals, educators and communities. My conceptual framework recognized the embeddedness of families and schools in communities and the value of collective asset building and the collaborative process for innovation. Within this framework I investigated three things: 1) a relational analysis to determine asset-promoting characteristics and to answer my research question, 'Who is networking with whom?' 2) structural dimensions to determine the conditions for the creation, acquisition and mobility of resources of social capital and to answer my second research question, 'Were there mechanisms that impeded the process of social capital or facilitated it?' and 3) contextual variables to determine the resources accessible to persons in these networks of relationships and to answer my final research question, 'How were the resources being used?'

Research Design and Methodology

Network inquiry demanded that I study both the dynamics of the relationships of those persons in networks and the information flow. By studying both the relationships and the information exchange structure in the network, I was able to detect patterns of forwarding and receipt; in other words, how information circulated in the environment of interest and how those persons in the network were positioned to facilitate or impede the information flow (Haythornthwaite, 1996). Using data that was gathered through focus groups I focused on the three attributes of these information structures: content, direction and strength.

The methodology I chose for the investigation of optimum service delivery in a particular school resulted in a model for inquiry that was asset-based, internally focused and network driven. For example, the inquiry enabled me to identify the capacities and

assets of individuals, organizations and associations in the network; the dynamics for relations that promoted asset creation; the variables that influenced social capital mobility; and the relations outside the network to support asset-based development (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993, p. 345).

Because I was interested in the types of resources and supports available for students and families, I reasoned that all potential partners in the school community would have to be invited to participate in the study. I also wanted to understand the meaning making of students, teachers, parents and administrators regarding their experiences with access to supports and their perceptions regarding both access to and acquisition of those same supports. I therefore assumed that all of my participants would be able to articulate their understanding and that I, in turn, would be able to convey, with accuracy their meaning. I also assumed that in conveying their conceptualizations of their experiences, I was conveying a reality that may be of interest to other school communities as well.

A community profile in the form of a survey was used to provide the researcher with a broader understanding of what community members regarded as social capital and an organizational profile completed on the research site identified resources and the mechanisms that facilitated or impeded the relationships to sustain them. This data was obtained through focus group discussions with students, teachers and administrators.

The objectives of the community profile were: to familiarize me with the characteristics of the community and to clarify issues relating to social capital access and accumulation. In consultation with the principal of the school, a decision was made to survey the parents of every grade 10 student at Mason High school, as this was the parent group he felt the administrative team would most like to hear from. I was very

comfortable with the principal's decision because it strengthened my position of researcher objectivity. I did not know any of these students or family members, I did not choose the sample participants nor did I see a list of names of potential participants at any time. Instead, I was given a homeroom list, numerical only, no names of students or teachers, and the number of surveys needed for each homeroom. I organized them according to the numbers on the list and when I was through, I left two hundred and seventy seven surveys at Mason High school to be completed by every family who registered a grade 10 student.

Only seventeen of a possible two hundred and seventy seven surveys were returned to the school. Even though I extended the deadline for return, offered prizes as an incentive for return and the school appealed to parents for their participation, the surveys did not come back and so I was left without any usable data from the parent community. Without quantifiable indicators to access individual households' access to social capital (Krishna & Shrader, 1999), I had to rely on the organizational profile to determine the relationships and networks that promoted or hindered the access and accumulation of social capital in this community.

In retrospect, I wish there had been some way to administer the survey a second time but this simply was not an option at Mason High school. I had spoken with the principal about the possibility of sending out another survey while modifying the process. I believed we could have used a different audience and included a statement from the administration in the accompanying letter written by me, to speak to the value of the data to Mason High school. While I had no way of determining with certainty that another age

group would yield a better return rate, I did believe that potential participants might take more ownership of it if a direct appeal came from the administration of the school.

The principal did agree that another survey could likely be accommodated but did not speak to any further specifics of what the process for a second survey might look like. Similarly, when I referenced this survey in another context during my focus group discussion with the two assistant principals, they were very supportive and wanted to see the survey administered again. However, because I had broached the subject with the principal on two previous occasions, I did not feel comfortable pursuing this any further.

Therefore, left with the option of the qualitative data, the organizational profile was completed on campus at Mason High school. The objectives of this profile were: to assess the organization's origins and development (i.e. community context, sustainability), to examine the institutional capacity (i.e. quality of leadership, member participation, organizational culture and organizational capacity) and to identify institutional linkages and partnerships (Krishna & Shrader, 1999). To obtain these data I interviewed three administrators in a focus group setting and I facilitated a focus group of teachers and a focus group of students. In each discussion I relied on respondent recall to identify relationships as they pertained to information access and exchange. Participants were invited to interact freely and to voice their perspectives, as they felt comfortable to do so. Each conversation was audio recorded and lasted sixty to ninety minutes. The volunteer participants had all been selected by the principal and another staff member and, with the exception of the principal, I had had no prior contact with any of them.

Following each session, verbatim transcripts of each conversation were generated from the audio recordings and verified by participants. Each transcript was then analyzed

and coded separately in order to determine each participant group's perceptions of what was happening in this research site. I analyzed the responses of my participants by analyzing the relations, the properties of those relations and the context. Assumptions and interpretations were qualified by reference back to the data and my theory evolved by explaining the relationship of each of these concepts to one another. My last step was to compare the findings between the groups, which is where theory was used to explain the reasons behind the data.

To integrate theory with the social realities of school communities, Oaks and Hunter (1995) addressed the importance of raising awareness and understanding difficulties for educators when we examine the resource capacity of schools to educate children, support families and influence the community. Hence, the value of my study lies in the fact that it did explore actual initiatives in an educational context and setting and my participants' frames of reference (Marshall & Rossman, 1989, p. 46) as they reflected on how these initiatives could be mobilized to points of improvement. By investigating the perceptions, understandings and sense-making of experiences of community members in meeting the objectives of the organization, my data revealed the social realities of one school and its members.

Furthermore, while Franke (2005) observed the strategic role that social networks play in providing access to resources, Schneider (2006) further suggested that healthy families and communities find resources through these networks and organizations that go outside the boundaries to access supports and services. By investigating the networks of relations in an educational context, I was able to explore how these networks of dependency relations (Wellman, 2003) facilitated or restricted access to supports and resources,

influenced opportunities or constraints for member behaviour and facilitated or compromised network transformation.

Moreover, Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) considered social capital a necessity for innovation. Because my inquiry investigated networks of relations in a particular context and the value of these relations for achieving mutual goals, it also revealed significant levers for the creation, acquisition and mobility of sources of social capital.

All of the data collected from the focus group discussions were related to my research questions and initial proposition, which posited the value of network inquiry to the process of social capital production and acquisition in school communities. Based on my interpretation of the data and the meaning I took from the data, this lead to the construction of conceptual tables and figures depicting social capital mobilization and acquisition in a high school setting.

When I did the relational analysis to investigate who was networking with whom, I discovered that students compromised supports, teachers exploited boundaries and the administration bridged relations. Students chose not to exploit the structural holes, which compromised the extent to which they were connected to others and the types of information they could access. Teachers, Student Services personnel and the administration filtered their information and legitimized the majority of it. Teachers, on the other hand, demonstrated boundary spanning behaviour and therefore created access to sources of social capital and mobilized sources. The administrators also bridged relations, which increased the number of linkages and increased opportunities for access to non-redundant sources.

My structural analysis revealed mechanisms that impeded the accumulation of sources of social capital and facilitated it. With the students, homogeneity was a characteristic of their student networks or relations. This compromised community building because there were fewer opportunities for networks of relations to be leveraged. My teacher participants felt the inflexibility of the school structure and procedures compromised potential access to resources because they complicated opportunities for professional development, collaboration with other potential sources of support, trust building with other colleagues and information exchanges between colleagues, between staff and students and between staff and parents.

Conversely, for the administrators the “possessed resources” (Lin, 1999) of faith, the tradition of excellence, and the philosophy of inclusive education, were mechanisms that they used to create networks of dependency relationships that were asset promoting. They were key to the community building and engagement with parents; they provided the impetus to establish links with supports outside the school community; and they increased the sense of fellowship and cooperation in the teachers’ networks of relations because of their sense of working toward common goals.

Finally, my contextual analysis revealed what was being done with the resources in this school community. Student levels of social capital were low because they tended to interact with select persons within their immediate school environment. This restricted the influences in their lives to peers, counsellors and teachers, for the most part, and compromised potential access to non-redundant resources. Teachers, in contrast, often acted as brokers to create opportunities for new reciprocal exchanges of information and to bring new members into the networks of relations. Likewise, the administrators at

Mason High school brought community into the school and connected students and staff with the community from the inside out. This resulted in network expansion and increased distribution of sources of social capital.

Conclusions

The findings of this study were summarized according to the three research questions that focused on the network relations, the properties of those relations and the context in which the relations were interpreted.

Relations

The data generated from the student focus group suggested students tended to form relations with like-minded persons or cliques. Homogeneity appeared to be a condition of this relation. Students would, however, venture outside the peer group for information but they did not venture outside the network boundaries. For example, they would and did seek support from student services personnel and, on occasion, other members of staff but these relations were more guarded and had conditions of trust, obligation and expectation attached.

Proximity was therefore a consideration in the relations students formed and with whom. They acknowledged the convenience of student services and in-school supports and saw little need to pursue supports beyond those readily available to them. Counsellors were both reliable and convenient and a reality of their youth. They suggested that boundary spanning was necessary for older people or for those outside of the school who did not have the support of personnel within their immediate reach. However, because they did have this immediacy as far as supports and resources, relations were forged and maintained within the network. The fact that there may have

been even more possibilities with contact relations outside this closed network seemed to be of little interest to the participants.

That students were highly interconnected with student services and a few other in-school supports was clear from the data. The data also suggested that the positioning of the actors (students and student services personnel) affected the ease of information distribution between them. Information could be disseminated easily and quickly to students but this "closed membership" (Haythornthwaite, 1996) also restricted the amount and type of information accessible to students.

As Wellman (1983) observed:

> The ties between two individuals are important not only in themselves but also as parts of the social networks in which they are embedded. Each tie gives participants potential indirect access to all those with whom other members **are connected. These compound chains transmit and allocate scarce resources,** fitting network members into larger social systems. (p. 168)

The significance of Wellman's observations to my investigation of the network relations between students and student services, and the patterns of their information exchanges, was that it acknowledged the importance and necessity of brokers who take information outside their immediate network. My data suggested students did *not* investigate potential relations. They were content to allow the student services personnel to act as brokers or intermediaries in their network and to filter and legitimize the information they (the brokers) were receiving for them. Consequently, the students' social system did not evolve into a social network with numerous network ties and students therefore were not accessing the widest array of supports possible.

Teachers, in contrast, contributed to network resources on a regular basis but also demonstrated boundary spanning behaviours when opportunities permitted. Their

willingness to be both recipients and agents in the information exchange facilitated collective action for capacity building and the blending of structure, program and process, which according to Tourse and Mooney (1999) are critical dimensions in collaborative practice (See Figure 2.3).

In addition to interprofessional collaboration, the data from this focus group also suggested a commitment to intra-organizational collaboration (Konrad, 1996). Rather than a few forming relations for collaborative initiatives, the teacher participants spoke to efforts to support students and families as a shared responsibility of staff on site. This shared responsibility and accountability were characteristic of these relations as well as those formed between the administrative team and other agents of support.

The administrative team at Mason High put forth a great deal of effort to provide opportunities for staff to access resources for improved practice and for students and families to benefit from these collaborations. Active boundary spanning with division personnel, interagency personnel and community members resulted in reciprocal exchanges of information and network transformation. As a result, partnership potential was optimized as were students' opportunities to access supports to their learning and well being.

The norms of reciprocity that governed the staff relations at Mason High school made resources and opportunities in one network accessible to members of another. Staff members and administration willingly exchanged information in the network and established network connections outside the core to access and mobilize social capital. Their willingness to bridge relations with others increased the number of linkages in the network and enhanced the potential value of the resources being obtained. By accessing

networks unlike their own, they increased their opportunities for the acquisition of non-redundant sources. This not only brought new information into the network, it transformed the network by obtaining additional resources for the benefit of all members of the school community.

Therefore, while the behaviour of the members in the network was significant, it was the *outcome* of their behaviour that bears consideration. Reciprocity was important as it motivated members to forge ties and increased levels of trust and cooperation that were integral to the exchanges. However, it was the information obtained from the environment outside the network that was even more critical than the behaviour that secured it.

As Franke (2005) discovered, these heterogeneous ties (weak ties) are a connection to the outside world and are important not only because of their members, but for their diversity and potential for access to a variety of sources as well. Exploiting network boundaries not only extended the network range, it also provided the momentum for information exchange and innovation to extend beyond the clique of the network (Granovetter, 1982). Therefore, while the behaviour of the staff was significant to the transformation of the network, it was perhaps their choice of relations that increased significantly social capital potential for Mason High school.

Context

Because of the students' resistance to form relations with others beyond the network and, their tendencies to rely on the same relations for support, access to contact resources was limited. They expected the same persons to be sources of support over and over and showed little need or desire to extend the boundaries of their network or go outside them.

In the final analysis they were consumers of information and rarely, senders of and there was no evidence to suggest students would initiate resource-producing relations.

Likewise, teachers in the network were recipients of information but my teacher respondents also acknowledged information exchanges with their colleagues, their administrative team, students, community members and parents. My data were consistent with the findings of Lieberman and McLaughlin (1992) who suggested “teachers choose to become active in collegial networks because they afford occasion for professional development and colleagueship and reward participants with a renewed sense of purpose and efficacy” (p. 673). In other words, while exchanges of information benefited the clientele at Mason High school, the exchanges also offered a way for teachers to experience professional growth. Furthermore, their willingness to resource collaborative initiatives with their time was a key factor in the promotion of conversations directed at partnerships and the necessary creativity to build them.

Comparatively, while the administrative team at Mason High invested their time and energy in the transitioning of the environment and the culture (Dent, 2004), they also accepted that they were “not the only initiators of change” (Loader, 1997, p. 7) and that efforts to enhance partnership intelligence had to be “inclusive of the whole community” (p. 87). For example, while the data from my discussions with the administrative team indicated that they controlled the information flow, it also insinuated their comfort with an interdependent environment. They explored alternatives to programming and the necessary supports as a team but when it came time to initiate change, they worked with the Advisory Council, which was comprised of staff members and they consulted the Parent Council for their input as well.

Described as “collegial, very humble, very ‘working with you’” (p. 7) by my teacher focus group participants, the administration’s openness to change, cooperative resolution and collaborative relations among staff and between the school and community members, encouraged a stronger commitment to partnership initiatives in others. They wanted to “invest [their] time [and] create things that work for [them]” (p. 7) rather than waiting for everything to be top down.

As Loader (1997) observed, “Collegiality can only happen when there is a willingness and ability to tolerate difference” (p. 44), the outcomes of which are dialogue and increased levels of creativity. By supporting each other as colleagues, the staff and administration made a difference in their school. Through their collaborative attitude and willingness to resource initiatives with their time, they made a difference in their community.

Furthermore, the staff took the initiative to create the necessary conditions in the network for relationships to develop between them and students, parents and their community members. Rather than “enter into collaboration with the idea that the need for change reside[d] in the others at the table” (Bolin in Clift et al., 1995, Forward), they embraced opportunities for network transformation. By acknowledging the needs and issues of others in these ties of relations, there was increased possibility for trust, mutual respect, shared meaning and shared purpose. As members in the network became more strongly bonded in their mutual concern for others, they were more committed as well to a collective purpose and working out resolutions cooperatively.

In short, the network members of Mason High school were committed to addressing “the tough and enduring problems of teaching” (Lieberman & McLaughlin, 1992, p.

674). In response, the administrative team in the school “deliberately create[d] a discourse community that encourage[d] exchange among [all its] members” (p. 674). This collaborative approach was critical for it assured staff members “that their knowledge of their students and of schooling [was being] respected” (p. 674) and is assured parents that their needs and voices were being honoured. The result was significant network transformation by members who were “committed to change, willing to take risks” (p. 674) and dedicated to optimum service delivery for youth and their families.

Properties

Bronfenbrenner’s (1994) ecological model focused on the quality and the content of the child’s environment. The microsystem is the layer closest to the child and houses the variables the child would have immediate contact with (family, teachers, peers). The mesosystem provides linkages between the microsystem and structures such as home, school and work, for example, while the exosystem is a social system that interacts with structures in the child’s microsystem. And, while the child does not function in this system directly, it still impacts the development of the child.

When I analyzed the data from my student focus group I was intrigued by the possible parallels between Bronfenbrenner’s model and the student relations at Mason High school. For example, as already mentioned, students tended to form relations with staff and their peers (the microsystem) but there was no evidence to suggest that they would initiate relations outside of this system, with the mesosystem or the exosystem, for example. They may at some time have been *part of* a relation with structures contained within these systems but not on their own initiative.

As a result, the properties or mechanisms that facilitated relations of support and influenced capacity came from within the structure they had the most contact with, which was the microsystem. Homogeneity with peers and the expectation of support from staff, were the mechanisms that influenced with whom they would network. And, while staff and administrators had formed supportive relations with others *outside* this system that both invited and permitted information exchanges, the data indicated students did not see a need to connect with these linkages nor did they appear to be aware of how structures in these outer layers affected them.

The notion that a structure from the exosystem could influence the mesosystem then ultimately impact them, seemed not to occur to the students. It may not have been a case of students not being aware of others; rather, perhaps they were so focused on their own activities that they did not attend to the activities of others in these other systems. The only environmental influence they understood was the one in which they accessed supports through face-to-face relations, with the people in this environment and that was their microsystem. For them, no other social system seemed to exist, at least in terms of potential relations of information, that is.

The data obtained from my staff participants clearly demonstrated that structural holes separated non-redundant sources of information. However, because of the student cohesiveness in their network, members were more likely to have similar information to offer. The redundancy of these information exchanges was an example of network restraint rather than network transformation.

The fact of the students' homogeneity reinforced more so the role of teachers and guidance counsellors as key institutional agents for student success. The closure of the

student network insinuated “gaps” in the resources being accessed by students. In turn, this reinforced the value buried in structural holes and the necessity of teachers and counsellors to initiate brokerage across these structural holes.

Therefore, if not for the efforts of staff members to act as intermediaries in the network, information would have continued to circulate within the student network, among the group members, and not between groups. They were critical to the process of social capital creation and acquisition for students as they were the bridge between the disconnected student network, providing linkages where it was valuable to do so.

By comparison, teachers were more aware of the various social systems (Bronfrenbrenner, 1994) and their influence in and on the lives of their students and their families. Motivated by a shared interest with colleagues to support students and benefited professionally by these relations of information exchange, teachers willingly formed relations with others in the immediate network and outside of it. Resource persons perhaps more typically found in the exosystem (government agencies, division members and community agencies) were sought out (See Figure 5.6) and in effect, provided opportunities for information exchanges between them and others in the mesosystem (home, other members on staff) and the students (microsystem). Their interest in the enhanced capacity of their students and themselves created this sense of interdependence, a “we’re all in this together” (Kouzes & Posner, 2007, p. 233) attitude. This not only became a mechanism to inspire the networking but a key ingredient to the cooperation and collaboration that created the conditions for the successful teamwork at Mason High school.

For the administrative team at Mason High school, accountability was foremost in their efforts to enhance capacity for their students and families. The data obtained through my focus groups with the members of the administrative team and from my teacher participants suggested that initiatives instigated by the administration were focused on a collective purpose which evolved into cooperative efforts from staff.

Furthermore, my sense was that goals were shared and staff and administration were working toward their attainment together. This was a team that created conditions for people to rely on each other. The key variable, if you will, was their leadership skill, which allowed them to "develop cooperative goals and roles, support norms of reciprocity, structure projects to promote joint efforts, and support face-to-face interactions" (Kouzes & Posner, 2007, p. 233). They facilitated capacity enhancing relations and created a climate of trust among staff. This sustained the collaborative spirit that I was privy to in my discussion with the teachers and that was further verified by the data from these same participants.

While the bridging connections of the administration may have given them the advantage with respect to information access, the development of a collaborative culture of care took precedence over control. There was no evidence in the data to suggest they preferred their counsel to the collaborative suggestions of others in the network. Nor was there evidence to suggest tension in the network because the administration had occasions where they had to share their power to influence network transformation with other members in the network.

On the contrary, this was an administrative team that recognized the importance of "dream[ing] for [their] community" (Loader, 1997, p. 125). They understood that

emotion and emotionality were embedded in collaborative inquiry projects. Perhaps most important of all, however, was that they understood the action of placing network members in contact with dissimilar persons as “one of the primary sources of progress” (Mills, 1848, p. 581).

Implications of the Study

The problem I addressed in this study was the increasing pressure and responsibility on schools to take on social service and support functions, often without the additional staff, personnel and professional development necessary to meet the challenge. My goal was to conduct research in a high school setting and, in cooperation with participants from that setting, use network inquiry to examine how network relations could be invested in and utilized in ways that complemented other social capital assets available to students, educators and members of this school community.

This study contributed to the literature on the benefits of these partnerships for students, educators and families. By investigating the initiatives taken by school personnel in one school community, it also provided further evidence of the potential for schools, families and communities to create partnerships and a collaborative culture that increased the likelihood of student success. Briefly, this study has implications for research, theory, practice, policy and leadership.

In terms of future research, this study identified visual aspects of the institution. A study with a focus on the structural aspects of an educational context contributes further to an understanding of the mechanisms that promote or hinder the creation of social capital relations in a school setting. Furthermore, by conducting a study *about* education *in* an educational setting, this study has the potential to prove significant in initiatives to

fill gaps in school communities. A primary question guiding future investigation may be ‘Is the level of activity more important than the number of affiliations’?

At the theoretical level, this study allowed the researcher to view the data from the different perspectives of those experiencing the phenomenon in one community. While I cannot state with certainty that the experiences and perspectives found in one school community would be the same in another, I was able to take meaning from the data and suggest how capacity may influence implementation. Consequently, this study holds promise for further theoretical advancement to support asset-based development and integrated service delivery. A primary question guiding future investigation may be ‘What are the critical variables that influence implementation processes in school communities’?

Furthermore, in the area of promising practice, this study may help interested educators to understand the environments that are conducive to supporting student growth and learning. By identifying the academic and non-academic variables that contributed to community and school collaboration and the determinants for the creation and acquisition of social capital, the shift in emphasis moved from outcome to process. This may prove beneficial in efforts to avoid the ‘we need to make change’ rhetorical rut while at the same time “relating practices and perceptions to procedures and goals” (Clift et al., 1995, p. 150). A primary question guiding future investigation may be ‘How do network members build commitment to common purpose’?

In addition, this study could potentially contribute to the construction of a social capital paradigm to enhance the role of partnerships in schools. Again, because the data were collected in a school context, this may help to identify key relations and their value

to and in the processes of implementation. This could potentially assist policy makers in their efforts to frame educational policies for the purposes of improved service delivery and, provide a framework to investigate asset-promoting initiatives for improved outcomes for youth. A primary question guiding future investigation may be ‘How do policy and programs affect network relations and social capital development’?

Moreover, this inquiry identified resource-producing relations and the varied dynamics of those relations. The significance of this outcome is that it could provide a professional learning community with contextual examples of the multiple networks in a school community and their importance to school administrators to achieve organizational objectives. Furthermore, it could potentially increase awareness regarding collective action in a community and the importance of leadership toward that end. A primary question guiding future investigation may be ‘Does the quality of social capital vary with the kind of leadership in the school community’?

Finally, the data obtained from this inquiry confirmed Christenson’s (2002) observations regarding the changing role of schools. My participants suggested greater student diversity presented more challenges for schools and educators. They also felt there was a greater need for support of students as persons and greater demands to support families. What this perhaps suggests for educational administrators is the importance of a collaborative culture of care in supporting student growth and learning and in the development of initiatives directed at improved service delivery and support services for students and families. While schools can provide the networks of relations for academic engagement, a focus on behavioural and psychological engagement is perhaps better served through the collaborative process.

To conclude, Sergiovanni (1996) stressed the importance of understanding the nature of relationships that characterize communities. My study investigated relationships of school-related networks, their productive potential, and the assets and variables significant to the process of sources of social capital and collaboration. Of significance, however, is the fact that rather than discuss implementation from a "what if" perspective, this inquiry revealed the possibility and feasibility of the process, the "how" of service integration strategies and initiatives for improved support and service delivery in a school community. With increased understanding of the importance of nurturing networks of relationships, creating common ground and building a culture of trust and reciprocity, educational administrators may be better equipped to maintain and create sources of social capital and ultimately, increase organizational effectiveness.

Concluding Comments

Effective community builders have found that healthy communities are built through a process that "begins with the rediscovery and mapping of a community's resources…[and are sustained through] processes that constantly create connections among all these resources and that harness their collective power behind a compelling vision for the future" (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993, Forward *viii*). Essentially, this is a process driven by personal transformation. When we begin to see the assets in ourselves we learn to see the potential rather than the deficits in the relations of our environment and the context of that same environment. As we transform our thinking about our assets rather than our deficiencies, we understand the value of networking, which motivates us to work with others.

It is my belief that while this study can help communities to strengthen their capacity to shape and exchange information the dialogue needs to continue. Questions for continuing dialogue may include: How do policy and programs affect the process of social capital development? Is the total of information exchanges between the linkages more important than the number of actual linkages? What are the tensions and dilemmas for network members in the process of developing and sustaining their network?

Having used network inquiry to investigate existing levels of social capital and the opportunities for social capital growth, I am confident in the potential of network inquiry to contribute to the discourse on service delivery in schools. Because this inquiry was "placed within a context of mutual investment in the collaboration and concern for a continuous search to improve education for [families] and children" (Clift et al., 1995, p. 145), it challenges the existing policy lens through which education is often viewed.

The data I collected from my conversations with my participants reminded me of the many variables in school communities and implications for the members in them. At Mason High School, for example, educational reform was influenced by the embeddedness of the ties of relations in the network. Hence, there was value in the social networks accessed by *all* members of the community. In addition, the structure and the distribution of social capital at Mason High School governed its functioning and its chances of growth. As evidenced by the traditions of excellence and expectation, this is an example at Mason High school where the traditions were constantly reproduced in and through the exchanges that the institution encouraged.

While these variables may be specific to a particular school community, they "can illuminate a fundamental lesson for policy makers: the context in which educational

change is pursued is everything" (Lieberman & McLaughlin, 1992, p. 677). This study provided such a context and revealed the possibilities for collective action in a school community. It emphasized the importance of leadership when collaboration was required. Rather than treat the networks as something to be managed and controlled, the administrative team at Mason High welcomed them as providing the impetus for collaborative relations (Lieberman & McLaughlin, 1992, p. 677). Instead of trying to determine "what works, [which is] framed solely in terms of student outcomes" (p. 677), the concentration shifted to 'what could we become'?

The challenge honours member experience in the process of change and invites discourse. What does it mean to be a teacher in this environment? What are the difficulties? What does it mean to be a student or a family in this school community? What are the frustrations? When the focus is shifted from outcome to meaning as it was at Mason High School, network inquiry can help to reveal the environments that are conducive to support and consequently, student growth and learning. It can identify the existing assets and capacities and assist network members in their efforts to "leverage activities, investments and resources from outside the local community to support asset-based local development" (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993, p. 345).

In the final analysis, I am reminded of Eugene Kowch's (2004) assertion that cooperative relationships, networking and a process oriented approach are necessary for the organization of the future (p. 503). With network inquiry there is an opportunity to focus on the sociology of education. By observing relations of networks and their dynamic we can understand more completely levels and types of assets in a community, productive potential of a community, and the significance of one's positions as it relates

to opportunities and access to resources. Specifically, we can investigate equality of opportunity and adequacy of resources.

Network inquiry also makes sense when you consider the diversity of students in our classrooms and families in our communities. If we want to narrow the statistical gap between persons who have access to program services and those who do not, then we need to understand the bridging and linking relations in a community. This will allow us to link people in meaningful ways across social strata, diverse social boundaries and institutions and governments (Kowch, 2004, 504). Furthermore, if we want to construct strategies to enhance the role of partnerships for optimum service delivery for youth and families, then we need to invest the time to understand how persons in networks of relations in a school community organize and communicate. Network inquiry can provide this information and when we have this insight, we can design for change and construct meaningful discourse around mutual support, collaboration, and common goals.

Finally, we need to expand the table where talk of implementation occurs if we want to capitalize on the potential of having dissimilar people collaborating. This would be a community with a greater collective capacity to maximize levels of service delivery and supports because of the predisposition to cooperation and collaboration in the community.

Perhaps there is a logical partnership between network inquiry and the processes of educational innovation. Maybe, in the processes of educational innovation, network inquiry can help us to understand what members of school communities value most, so we can support them in becoming the communities they would like to be to help students and families to become what they can be. At the very least, if network inquiry can inspire

hope and facilitate possibility, it can help bring communities together so that together they *can* reach beyond their respective grasps to better educate children and youth.

REFERENCES

Anirudh, K. & Uphoff, N. (2002). Mapping and measuring social capital. In C. Grootaert & T. van Bastelaer (Eds.), *The role of social capital in development: An empirical assessment* (pp. 85-124). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Aquinaldo, J.P.(March, 2004). Rethinking validity in qualitative research from a social constructivist perspective: From “Is this valid research?” to “What is this research valid for?” *The Qualitative Report, 9*(1), 127-136.

Arthur, G. & Bauman, P. (November, 1994). School-based community services: A study of public agency partnerships. *Journal of School Leadership, 4,* 649-671.

Astone, N. M., & McLanahan, S. S. (1991). Family structure, parenting practices, and high school completion. *American Sociological Review, 56,* 309-320.

Atria, R., Siles, M., Arriagada, I., Robison, L.J., Whiteford, S. (Eds) (2004). *Social capital and poverty reduction in Latin America and the Caribbean: Towards a new paradigm.* Santiago, Chile: United Nations Publication.

Atwood, C. (2003). *How does the home office citizenship survey contribute to UK understanding of social capital and diversity?"* Presentation to the PRI-OECD-Statistics Canada pre-conference workshop on Measuring Social Capital, Immigration and Ethnic Diversity, Montreal.

August, G. J., Anderson, D., & Bloomquist, M. L. (1992). Competence enhancement training for children: An integrated child, parent, and school approach. In S.L. Christensen & J. C. Conoly (Eds.), *Home-school collaboration: Enhancing children's academic and social competence* (pp. 175 – 192). Silver Spring, MD: National Association of School Psychologists.

Ball, S. J. (1990). *Politics and policy making in education: Explorations in policy sociology.* New Fetter Lane, London: Routledge.

Bandura, A. (1996). *Self-efficacy in changing societies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bandura, A. (1978). The self system in reciprocal determination. *American Psychologist, 33,* 344-358.

Baron, S., Field, J. & Schuller, T. (2002). Social capital: A review and critique. In S. Baron, J. Field, & T. Schuller (eds.), *Critical perspectives* (pp. 1-38). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Barton, P. E. (2001). *Facing the hard facts in education reform: A policy information perspective.* Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

Bates, F.L. & Peacock, W.G. (1989). Conceptualizing social structure: The misuse of classification in structural modelling. *American Sociological Review, 54*, 565-577.

Baum, F., Palmer, C., Modra, C., Murray, C. & Bush, R. (2000). Families, social capital and health. In I. Winter (Ed.), *Social capital and public policy in Australia* (p. 255). Melbourne: Australian Institute of Family Studies.

Bayles, M.D. (1989). *Professional ethics.* Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Behar, R. (1996). *The vulnerable observer: Anthropology that breaks your heart.* Boston, MA: Beacon.

Berkowitz, S.D. (2003). Afterword: Toward a formal structural sociology. In B. Wellman & S.D. Berkowitz (Eds.), *Social structures: A network approach* (pp. 477-497). Toronto, ON: Canadian Scholars' Press Inc.

Blau, P.M. (1982). Structural sociology and network analysis: An overview. In P.V. Marsden & N. Lin (Eds.), *Social structure and network analysis* (pp. 273-280). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Bloom, L.R. (2002). From self to society: Reflections on the power of narrative inquiry. In S.B. Merriam (Ed.), *Qualitative research in practice: Examples for discussion and analysis*, (pp. 310-313). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Bloor, M., Frankland, J., Thomas, M., & Robson, K. (2001). *Focus groups in social research: Introducing qualitative methods*. London: SAGE Publications.

Boase, J. & Wellman, B. (2004). Suggested questions on social networks and social capital. Report to the Policy Research Initiative. Ottawa, Canada.

Borgatti, S.P. & Everett, M.G. (1997). Network analysis of 2-node data. *Social Networks, 19* (3), 243-269.

Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In J. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of theory and research for the sociology of education*, (pp. 241-258). New York: Greenwood.

Braback, M.M., Walsh, M.E., & Latta, R. E. (Eds.) (2003). *Meeting at the hyphen: Schools-universities-communities-professions in collaboration for student achievement and well-being.* Illinois: National Society for the Study of Education.

Braback, M.M., Cawthorne, J., Gaspard, N., Hurd-Green, C., Kenny, M., Krawczyk, R., Lowery, C., Lykes, M.B., Mooney, J., Ross, C., Savage, J., Soifer, A., Smyer, M., Sparks, E., Tourse, R.W.C., Waddock, S., & Zollers, N. (1998) Changing the culture of the university to engage in outreach scholarship. In R.M.Lerner & L.A.K. Simon (Eds.), *University-community collaborations for the twenty-first century: Outreach scholarship for youth and families* (pp. 335-364). New York: Garland.

Brehm, J. & Rahn, W. (1997). Individual-level evidence for the causes and consequences of social capital. *American Journal of Political Science, 41* (3), 999-1023.

Brewer, D.D. (2000). Forgetting in the recall-based elicitation of personal networks. *Social Networks, 22*, 29-43.

Brinberg, D. & McGrath, J.E. (1985). *Validity and the research process*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1993). Ecological models of human development. In M. Gauvain and M. Cole (Eds.), *Readings on the development of children, 2nd edition.* (pp. 37-43). New York: Freeman.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1986). Ecology of the family as a context for human development: Research perspectives. *Developmental Psychology, 22*, 723-742.

Brott, P.E. & Meyers, J.E. (2002). Development of professional school counsellor identity: A grounded theory. In S. B. Merriam (Ed.), *Qualitative research in practice: Examples for discussion and analysis* (pp. 145-159). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

Burch, P., Davies, D. & Palanki, A. (March, 1992). *Mapping the policy landscape, report 7*. Boston: Center on Families, Community, Schools and Children's Learning

Burt, R.S. (1992). *Structural holes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Burt, R. S. (1984). Network items and the general social survey. *Social Networks, 6* (4), pp. 293-339.

Campbell, C. (2002). Social capital and health: Contextualizing health promotion within local community networks. In S. Baron, J. Field & T. Schuller (Eds.), *Social capital: Critical perspectives* (pp. 182-196). Oxford University Press.

Campbell, K. & Lee, B.A. (1991). Name generators in surveys of personal networks. *Social Networks, 13*, 203-221.

Carlson, C., Paavola, J., & Talley, R. (1995). Historical, current, and future models of schools as health care delivery settings. *School Psychology Quarterly, 10*, 184-202.

Charbonneau, J. (2004). Measuring social capital through analysis of relational dynamics. Expert Workshop on the Measurement of Social Capital for Public Policy. Synthesis Report June 8, 2004.

Charbonneau, J. & Turcotte, M. (2002). *Projet d' enquete socioeconomique et de sante Integree et longitudinale (ESSIL).*

Christenson, S.L. (2002). *Families, educators, and the family-school partnership:*

Issues or opportunities for promoting children's learning competence? Paper Prepared for 2002 Invitational conference: The future of school psychology, November 14-16, Indianapolis, Indiana.

Christenson, S.L. & Anderson, A. R. (2002). The centrality of the learning context for students' academic enabler skills. *School Psychology Review, 31* (3), 378-393.

Christenson, S. L. & Sheridan, S. M. (2001). *School and families: Creating essential connections for learning.* NY: Guilford Press.

Clift, R.T., Veal, M.L., Holland, P., Johnson, M. & McCarthy, J. (Eds.) (1995). *Collaborative leadership and shared decision making: Teachers, principals, and university professors.* New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Cohen, D. & Prusak, L. (2001). *In good company: How social capital makes organizations work.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Coie, J. C., Watt, N.F., West, S. G., Hawkins, D., Asarnow, J., Markman, J., Markman, H.J., Ramey, S. L., Shure, M.B., & Long, B. (1993). The science of prevention: A conceptual framework and some directions for a national research program. *American Psychologist, 48* (10), 1013-1022.

Coleman, J.S. (1994). *Foundations of social theory*. Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press.

Coleman, J. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American Journal of Sociology, 94*, pp. S95-120.

Coleman, J. (1987, August - September). Families and schools. *Educational Researcher, 16*, (6), 32-38.

Coleman, J.S. (1964). *Introduction to mathematical sociology*. New York: Free Press.

Coleman, J.S. (1958). Relational analysis. *Human Organization, 17*, pp.28-36.

Coleman, J.S., Katz, E. & Mendel, H. (1966). *Medical innovation: A diffusion study.* Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill.

Constable, R.T. & Montgomery, E. (1985). Perceptions of the school social worker's role. *Social Workers in Education, 7* (4), 244-257.

Cook, K.S. (1982). Network structures from an exchange perspective. In P.V. Marsden & N. Lin (Eds.), *Social structure and network analysis*, (pp. 177-199). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Cram, F. (2001). Rangahau Maori: Tona tika, tona pono—The validity and integrity of Maori research. In M. Tolich (Ed.), *Research ethics in Aotearoa New Zealand* (pp. 35-52). Auckland, New Zealand: Pearson Education.

Delgado-Gaitan, C. (1991). Involving the parents in the schools: A process of empowerment. *American Journal of Education, 100* (1), 20 – 46.

Dent, S.M. (2004) (2nd Edition). *Partnering intelligence: Creating value for your business by building strong alliances.* Mountain View, CA: Davies-Black Publishing.

Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1994). Introduction: Entering the field of qualitative research. In N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 1-17). London: Sage.

Denzin, N.K. (1978). *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods* (2nd Ed.) New York: McGraw Hill.

Dornbusch, S. M., Ritter, P., & Steinberg, L. (1991). Community influences on the relation of family statuses to adolescent school performance: Differences between African Americans and non-Hispanic whites. *American Journal of Education, 99,*

543-567.

Duncan, G. J. & Brooks-Gunn, J. (Eds.) (1997). *Consequences of growing up poor.* New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Dryfoos, J.G. (1994). *A revolution in health and social services for children, youth, and families.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Eder, D. & Fingerson, L. (2003). Interviewing children and adolescents. In J.A. Holstein & J.F. Gubrium (Eds.). *Inside interviewing: New lenses, new concerns* (pp. 33-53). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Emirbayer, M. & Goodwin, J. (1994). Network analysis, culture and agency. *American Journal of Sociology, 99,* 1411-1453.

Erickson, B.H. (2003). The relational basis of attitudes. In B. Wellman & S.D. Berkowitz (Eds.), *Social structures: A network approach* (pp. 99-129). Toronto, ON: Canadian Scholars' Press Inc.

Etzioni, A. (1993). *The spirit of community: Rights, responsibilities and the communitarian agenda.* New York: Crown Publishers.

Fielding, N.G. & Fielding, J.L. (1986). *Linking data.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Firestone, W. A. (1993). Alternative arguments for generalizing from data as applied to qualitative research. *Educational Researcher, 22* (4), 16-23.

Flaxman, E. & Passow, A. H. (Eds.) (1995). *Changing populations/changing schools.* Chicago, ILL: National Society for the Study of Education.

Flick, U., von Kardorff, E., & Steinke, I. (Eds.) (2004). *A companion to qualitative research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Fontana, A. & Frey, J. H. (2005). The interview: From neutral stance to political involvement.

In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed.) (pp. 695-727). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Franke, S. (2005). *Measurement of social capital.* Reference Document for Public Policy, Research, Development, and Evaluation. PRI Project.

Freeman, L.C. (1979). Centrality in social networks: Conceptual clarification. *Social Networks, 1*, 215-239.

Freire, P. (1997). *Pedagogy of the oppressed: Revised 20th anniversary edition*. New York: Continuum.

Fukuyama, F. (1995). *Trust: The social virtues and the creation of prosperity*. London: Penguin.

Fullan, M. & Hargreaves, A. (1992). *What's worth fighting for? Working together for your school.* Toronto: Ontario Public School Teachers' Federation.

Government of Canada (2005, September). *Measurement of social capital*. Reference Document.

Government of Saskatchewan (2009). *Saskatchewan education indicators report prekindergarten to grade 10.* Saskatchewan Ministry of Education.

Government of Saskatchewan (September, 1994). *Working together to address barriers to learning: Integrated school-linked services for children and youth at risk – policy framework.* Planning and Evaluation Branch, Saskatchewan Education, Training and Employment.

Government of Saskatchewan (December, 1994). *Integrated school-linked services for children and youth at risk: Implementation guide.* Planning and Evaluation Branch, Saskatchewan Education, Training and Employment.

Granovetter, M. (1982). The strength of weak ties: A network theory revisited. In P.V. Marsden & N. Lin (Eds.), *Social structure and network analysis*, (pp. 105-130). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Grootaert, C. & van Bastelaer, T. (Eds.) (2002). *The role of social capital in development: An empirical assessment.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Guba, E.G. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1981). *Effective evaluation.* San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Gubrium, J.F. & Holstein, J.A. (Eds.) (2002). *Handbook of interview research: Context and method.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hall, P. (1999). Social capital in Britain. *British Journal of Political Science, 29* (3), 417-461.

Handy, C. (1994). *The empty raincoat—making sense of the future.* London: Hutchinson.

Haythornthwaite, C. (1996). Social network analysis: An approach and technique for the study of information exchange. *Library and Information Science Research, 18*, pp. 323-342.

Henderson, A. T. & Berla, N. (Eds.) (1994). *A new generation of evidence: The family is critical to student achievement.* Washington, D.C.: National Committee for Citizens in Education.

Hildenbrand, B. (2004). Anselm Strauss. In U. Flick, E. von Kardorff & I. Steinke (Eds.), *A companion to qualitative research* (pp. 17-23). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hirsch, B.J. (1980). Natural support systems: Coping with major life changes. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 8*, 159-172.

Holstein, J.A. & Gubrium, J.F. (Eds.) (2003). *Inside interviewing: New lenses, new concerns.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hudak, G.M. (1993). Technologies of marginality: Strategies of stardom and displacement in

adolescent life. In C. McCarthy & W. Crichlow (Eds.), *Race, identity, and representation in education* (pp. 172-187). New York: Routledge.

James, W. ([1892], 1961). *Psychology: The briefer course.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

Jenson, J. (1998). *Mapping social cohesion: The state of Canadian research.* Discussion Paper F-03. Ottawa: Canadian Policy Research Networks.

Jordan, A.E. & Meara, N.M. (1990). Ethics and the professional practice of psychologists: The role of virtues and principles. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 21,* 107-114.

Joseph, M.V. & Conrad, A.P. (1989). Social work influence on interdisciplinary ethical decision making in health care settings. *Health and Social Work, 14* (1), 22-30.

Julia, M.C. & Thompson, A. (1994). Essential elements of interprofessional teamwork. In R.M. Casto, M.C., Julia, L.J. Platt, G.L. Harbaugh, W.R. Waugaman, A. Thompson, T.S. Jost, E.J. Bope, T. Williams, & D.B. Lee (Eds.), *Interprofessional care and collaborative practice* (pp. 43-57). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Kellaghan, T., Sloane, K., Alvarez, B., & Bloom (1993). *The home environment and school learning: Promoting parental involvement in the education of children.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kline, P.M. & Brabeck, M.M. (1999). Ethics and collaborative practice in public schools. In R.W.C. Tourse & J.F. Mooney (Eds.), *Collaborative practice: Schools and human service partnerships* (pp. 285-297). Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.
(pp. 5-20). SanFrancisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Kong, T. S. K., Mahoney, D., & Plummer, K. (2002). Queering the Interview. In J. Gubrium & J. Holstein (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research: Context and method* (pp. 239-

258). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Konrad, E.L. (Spring, 1996). A multidimensional framework for conceptualizing human services integration initiatives. In J.M. Marquart, E.L. Konrad (Eds.), *Evaluating initiatives to integrate human services: A publication of the American Evaluation Association, Number 69* (pp. 5-20). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Koocher, G.P. & Keith-Spiegel, P. (1998). *Ethics in psychology: Professional standards and cases.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Kouzes, J.M. & Posner, B.Z. (2007). *The leadership challenge (4th Edition).* San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Kouzes, J.M. & Posner, B.Z. (2003). Leaders must build cultures of collaboration. In L. Segil, M. Goldsmith, & J. Belasco (Eds.), *The new face of leadership* (pp. 88-95). New York: AMACOM.

Kowch, E.G. (2004). *Appreciating assets: Educational technology leadership and the generation of social capital*. Association for Educational Communications and Technology, 27th, Chicago, ILL. October 19-23, 2004.

Krenske, L. & McKay (2002). Hard and Heavy: Gender and power in a heavy metal music subculture. In S. B. Merriam (Ed.) (2002). *Qualitative research in practice: Examples for discussion and analysis* (pp. 262-288). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Kretzmann, J. & McKnight, J. (1993). *Building communities from the inside out: A path toward finding and mobilizing a community's assets.* Chicago, ILL: ACTA Publications.

Krishna, A. & Shrader, E. (1999). *Social capital assessment tool*. Prepared for the Conference on Social Capital and Poverty Reduction. The World Bank, Washington, D.C.

June 22-24.

Krishna, A. & Uphoff, N. (2002). Mapping and measuring social capital through assessment of collective action to conserve and develop watersheds in Rajasthan, India. In Christiaan Grootaert & Thierry van Bastelaer (Eds.), *The role of social capital in development: An empirical assessment* (pp. 85-124). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Krueger, R.A. & Casey, M.A. (2000). *A practical guide for applied research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Kvale, S. (1995b). The social construction of validity. *Qualitative Inquiry, 1*, 19-40.

Landry, S. H., Smith, K. E., Swank, P. R., & Miller-Loncar, C. L. (2000). Early maternal and child influences on children's later independent cognitive and social functioning. *Child Development, 71*, 358-375.

Lareau, A. & Weininger, E.B. (2004). Cultural capital in educational research: A critical assessment. In David L. Swartz & Vera L. Zolberg (Eds.), *After Bourdieu: Influence, critique, elaboration* (pp. 105-145). AA Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kliewer Academic Publishers.

Levesque, M. (2005). Social capital, reducing poverty, and public policy. In *Social capital in action: Thematic policy studies* (pp. 5-22). Government of Canada: PRI Project, Social Capital as a Public Policy Tool.

Lieberman, A. & McLaughlin, M. W. (1992). Networks for educational change: Powerful and problematic. *Phi Delta Kappan, 73*(9), 673-677.

Lin, N. (1999). Building a network theory of social capital, *Connections, 22* (1), 28-51.

Lincoln, Y.S. & Guba, E.G. (2000). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging

Confluences. In N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed.) (pp. 163-188). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Lincoln, Y.S. & Guba, E.G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Loader, D.M. (1997). *The inner principal.* Bristol, PA: The Falmer Press.

Lofland, J.A. & Lofland, L. (1984). *Analyzing social settings: A guide to qualitative observation and analysis* (2nd ed.). CA: Wadsworth.

Marx, K. ([1857], 1956). *Karl Marx: Selected readings in sociology and social philosophy*. T.B. Bottomore, NY: Mcgraw-Hill.

McCroskey, J.(2003).Challenges and opportunities for higher education. In M. M. Braback, M.E. Walsh & R.E. Latta (Eds.), *Meeting at the hyphen: Schools-universities-communities-professions in collaboration for student achievement and well-being* (pp. 117-139). Illinois: National Society for the Study of Education.

McMunn, A. M., Nazroo, J. Y., Marmot, M. G., Boreham, R., & Goodman, R. (2001). Children's emotional and behavioural well-being and the family environment: Findings from the health survey for England. *Social Science and Medicine, 53*, 423-440.

McPherson, M., Smith-Lovin, L. & Cook, J.M. (2001). Homophily in social networks: *Annual Review of Sociology, 27*, pp. 415-444.

MacGillivray, A. & Walker, P. (2002). Local social capital: Making it work on the ground. In S. Baron, J. Field & T. Schuller (Eds.), *Social capital: Critical perspectives* (pp. 197-211).Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Maeroff, G.I. (1998). *Altered destinies: Making life better for schoolchildren in need.* New

York: St. Martin's.

Majoribanks, K. & Kwok, Y. (1998). Family capital and Hong Kong adolescents' academic achievement. *Psychological Reports, 83*, 99-105.

Maloney, W.A., Smith, G. & Stoker, G. (2002). Social capital and associational life. In S. Baron, J. Field & T. Schuller (Eds.), *Social capital: Critical perspectives* (pp. 212-243). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Marquart, J.M. & Konrad, E.L. (Eds.)(Spring, 1996). *Evaluating initiatives to integrate Human services: A publication of the American Evaluation Association, Number 69.* SanFrancisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Marsden, P.V. (2005). Recent developments in network measurement. In P.J. Carrington, J. Scott & S. Wasserman (Eds.), *Models and methods in social network analysis* (pp. 9-31). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Marshall, C. & Rossman, G.B. (1989). *Designing qualitative research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Mason, E.J. & Bramble, W.J. (1989). *Understanding and conducting research: Applications in education and the behavioural sciences*. USA: McGraw-Hill.

Melaville, A. & Blank, J.J. (1991). *What it takes: Structuring interagency partnerships to connect children and families with comprehensive services.* Washington, D.C.: Educational and Human Services Consortium.

Merriam, S. B. (Ed.) (2002). *Qualitative research in practice: Examples for discussion and analysis.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Miles, M.B. & Huberman, A.M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis-an expanded sourcebook* (2nd Ed.). Chicago, ILL: Aldine.

Mishler, E.G. (1986). *Research interviewing: Context and narrative*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Misztal, B.A. (1996). *Trust in modern societies*. Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.

Morgan, D.L. (2002). Focus group interviewing. In J.E. Gubrium & J.A. Holstein (Eds.), *Handbook of interview research: Context and method* (pp. 141-159). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Morgan, D. (1998). *Planning focus groups*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Morrill, W.A. (Spring, 1996). Implications for the future of service delivery system reform. In J.M. Marquart & E.L. Konrad (Eds.), *Evaluating initiatives to integrate human services: A publication of the American Evaluation Association, Number 69* (pp. 85-95). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Moxley, R.S. & Alexander, J.R. (2003). Leadership-as-partnerships. In L. Segil, M. Goldsmith, & J. Belasco (Eds.), *The new face of leadership* (pp. 73-81). New York: AMACOM.

Nahapiet, J. & Ghoshal, S. (1998). Social capital, intellectual capital, and the organizational advantage. *Academy of Management Review, 23* (2), pp. 242-266.

Neisler, O.J., McInnis-Dittrich, K. & Mooney, J.F. (1999). Interprofessional collaboration in the process of assessment. In R.W.C. Tourse & J.F. Mooney (Eds.), *Collaborative practice: School and human service partnerships* (pp. 79-104). Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.

Nowak, M.A. (2006). Five rules for the evolution of cooperation. *Science 8, 314* (5805), 1560-1563.

Oakes, J. & Hunter Quartz, K. (Eds.)(1995). *Creating new educational communities: Ninety-*

fourth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago, Ill: The National Society for the Study of Education.

Parker, M. (1990). *Creating shared vision.* Illinois: Dialog International Ltd.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Petterson S. M., & Albers, A. B. (2001). Effects of poverty and maternal depression on early child development. *Child Development, 72*, 1794-1813.

Pfeiffer, S.I. & Cundari, L. (1999). Interagency collaboration: Recurring obstacles and some possible solutions. In S.I. Pfeiffer & L.A. Reddy (Eds.), *Inclusion practices with special needs students: Theory, research and application* (pp. 109-124). Binghamton, NY: The Haworth Press, Inc.

Pfeiffer, S.I. & Reddy, L.A. (Eds.) (1999). *Inclusion practices with special needs students: Theory, research and application.* Binghamton, NY: The Haworth Press, Inc.

Phillips Smith, E., Connell, C., Wright, G., Sizer, M., Hurley, A., Walker, S., & Norman, J. (1997). *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 8* (4), 339-360.

Pianta, R. & Walsh, D. B. (1996). *High-risk children in schools: Constructing sustaining relationships.* NY: Routledge.

Plickert, G., Cote, R.R. & Wellman, B. (2007). It's not who you know, it's how you know them: Who exchanges what with whom? *Social Networks 29*, 405-429.

Portes, A. (1998). Social capital: Its origins and application in modern sociology. *Annual Review of Sociology, 24*, 1-24.

Putnam, R.D. (2000). *Bowling alone: The collapse and revival of American community.* New York: Simon Schuster.

Putnam, R.D. (1998). Forward. *Housing Policy Debate, 9* (1), V-*viii*.

Quinn, J. (2003). An interprofessional model and reflections on best collaborative practice. In M.M. Braback, M.E. Walsh & R.E. Latta (Eds.), *Meeting at the hyphen: Schools-universities-communities-professions in collaboration for student achievement and well-being* (pp. 164-178). Illinois: National Society for the Study of Education.

Ram, B. & Hou, F. (2003). Changes in family structure and child outcome: Roles of economic and familial resources. *The Policy Studies Journal, 31* (3), 309-330.

Regnier, R. (2002). *SchoolPlus: Creating leadership through integral development.* Seventh National Congress on Rural Education, Leadership from Within: Alternate.

Reimer, B. (2004). Public Policy Report-Synthesis, June 8, 2004.

Reimer, B. (2002). *Understanding social capital: Its nature and manifestations in rural Canada.* Paper prepared for presentation at the CSAA Annual Conference. Toronto, ON.

Renihan, P. & Walker, K. (2007). What is educational administration? In P.J. Renihan, S. Carr-Stewart & K.D. Walker (Eds.), *Organization of public education: Readings on the legal and institutional contexts* (pp. 15-18). Saskatoon, SK: University of Saskatchewan.

Rimm-Kaufman, S. E. & Pianta, R. C. (2000). An ecological perspective on the transition to kindergarten: A theoretical framework to guide empirical research. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 21*, 491-511.

Robison, L.J. Siles, M.E. & Schmid, A.A. (2004). Social capital and poverty reduction: Towards a mature paradigm. In R. Atria, M. Siles, I. Arriagada, L.J. Robison & S. Whiteford (Eds.), *Social capital and poverty reduction in Latin America and the Caribbean: Towards a new paradigm* (pp. 49-104). Santiago, Chile: United Nations

Publication.

Rogers, E. (1979). Network analysis of the diffusion of innovations. In P. Holland & S. Leinhardt (Eds.), *Perspectives on social network research* (pp.137-164). New York: Academic Press.

Rosenblum, J. & Oates, C. (2003). The learning leader as partner. In L. Segil, M. Goldsmith, & J. Belasco (Eds.), *The new face of leadership* (pp. 96-109). New York, NY: AMACOM.

Salmenkaita, J. (2004). Intangible capital in industrial research: Effects of network position on individual inventive productivity. In R. Bettis (Ed.), *Strategy in transition* (pp. 220-248). Blackwell Publishing.

Sarason, S.B. (1995). *Parental involvement and the political principle.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Schneider, J. (2006). *Social capital, community, and economic development*. The J. McDonald Williams Institute Research Briefs.

Schneider, J. (2004). *The role of social capital in building healthy communities.* Policy paper, American Association for the Advancement of Science.

Schuller, T. (2001). The complimentary roles of human and social capital. *Isuma: Canadian Journal of Policy Research, 2* (1), 18-24.

Schwandt, T. A. (1997). *Qualitative inquiry: A dictionary of terms*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Scott, J. (1991). *Social network analysis: A handbook.* London: Sage.

Seaburn, D.B., Lorenz, A.D., Gunn, W.B., Gawinski, B.A., & Mautsch, L.B. (1996). *Models of Collaboration*. New York: Basic Books.

Seeley, D. (1985). *Education through partnership*. Washington, D.C.: American Enterprise Institute for Public Policy Research.

Seidman, S.B. (1983). Network structure and minimum degree. *Social Networks, 5*, 269-287.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1996). *Leadership for the schoolhouse*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Shank, G.D. (2006). *Qualitative research: A personal skills approach.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.

Silverman, D. (1997). *Qualitative research: Theory, method and practice*. London: Sage.

Silverman, D. (1993). *Interpreting qualitative data: Methods for analyzing talk, text, and interaction*. London: Sage.

Simmel, G. (1971). Group expansion and the development of individuality. In D.N. Levine (Ed.), *George Simmel on individuality and social form* (pp.251-293). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Simons, R. L., Lin, K., Gordon, L. C., Cogner, R. D., & Lorenz , F. O. (1999). Explaining the higher incidence of adjustment problems among children of divorce compared with two-parent families. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 61*, 1020-1033.

Slavin, R.E. (1992). *Research methods in education (2nd Ed.).* Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Smith, L.T. (2005). On tricky ground: Researching the native in the age of uncertainty. In N. K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research (3rd ed.)*, (pp. 85-107). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Smith, L.T. (1999). *Decolonizing methodologies: Research and indigenous peoples.* London: Zed Books.

Smith, J.K. & Demeer, D.K. (2000). The problem of criteria in the age of relativism. In N. K.

Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed.)(pp. 877-896). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Snow, L.K. (2004). *The power of asset mapping: How your congregation can act on its gifts.* Herndon, VA: The Alban Institute.

Srinivas, M. N., Shah, A. M., & Ramaswamy, E. A. (2004). *The fieldworker and the field* (2nd ed.). New Delhi: Oxford University Press.

Statistics Canada (2001).*2001 Census: Income of Canadian Families.* Government of Canada.

Statistics Canada (2006). *Children and Youth Research Paper Series: Child Care in Canada.* Government of Canada.

Statistics Canada (2006). Campaign 2000: *Oh Canada! Too many children in poverty too long: 2006 report on child and family poverty in Canada.* Government of Canada.

Steinke, I. (2004). Quality criteria in quality research. In U. Flick, E. von Kardoff, & I. Steinke (Eds.), *A companion to qualitative research* (pp. 184-190). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Stewart-Weeks, M. & Richardson, C. (Eds.) (1998). *Social capital stories: How 12 Australian households live their lives.* Policy Monograph 42. Australia: The Centre for Independent Studies.

Stone (2001). *Measuring social capital: Towards a theoretically informed measurement framework for researching social capital in family and community life.* Research Paper No. 4. Australian Institute of Family Studies.

Strauss, A. & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Strauss, A. L. (1987). *Qualitative analysis for social scientists*. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge

University Press.

Strike, K.A. (February, 1999). Can schools be communities? The tension between shared values and inclusion. *Education Administration Quarterly, 35* (1), 46-70.

Svoboda, S. (2002). *Dual relationships in education: Issues and dilemmas for students and teachers in a secondary school*. Saskatoon, SK: University of Saskatchewan.

Tierney, W.G. & Dilley, P. (2002). Interviewing in education. In J.F. Gubrium & J.A. Holstein (Eds.), *Handbook of interview research: Context and method.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Thomas, Jr., R.R. (2003). Leadership, management, partnerships, and diversity. In L. Segil, M. Goldsmith, J. Belasco (Eds.), *Partnering: The new face of leadership* (pp. 145-159). New York, NY: AMACOM.

Thomas, W.I. (1949). *Social structure and social theory*. New York: Free Press.

Thompson, L. (1992). The "Roles of Schools" Symposium. Saskatchewan School Trustees Association.

Tourse, R.W.C. & Mooney, J.F. (Eds.)(1991). *Collaborative practice: School and human service partnerships*. Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.

Tourse, R.W.C. and Sulick, J. (1999). The collaborative alliance: Supporting vulnerable children in school. In R.W.C. & J.F. Mooney (Eds.), *Collaborative practice: School human service partnerships* (pp. 59-78). Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.

Van Der Gaag, M., & Snijders, T. (2005). The resource generator: Social capital quantification with concrete items. *Social Networks, 27,* 1-29.

Voyer, J.P. (2004). *Expert workshop on the measurement of social capital for public policy.* Policy Research Initiative. Social Capital as a Public Policy Tool.

Waddock, S. (1999). Socioeconomic forces and educational reform. In R.W.C. Tourse & J.F. Mooney (Eds.), *Collaborative practice: School and human service partnerships* (33-56). Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.

Wagner, P. J. (1992). *Building support networks for schools.* Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-CLIO, Inc.

Walker, G., Kogut, B. & Shan, W. (1997). Social capital, structural holes and the formation of an industry network. *Organization Science, 8* (2), 109-125.

Walker, R. (1980). The conduct of educational case studies: Ethics, theory and procedures. In W. B. Dockerell & D. Hamilton (Eds.), *Rethinking educational research*. London: Hodder & Stoughton.

Wallerstein, I. (1974). *The modern world-system, volume 1*. New York: Academic Press.

Walsh, M.E. & Park-Taylor, J. (2003). Comprehensive schooling and interprofessional collaboration: Theory, research and practice. In M. M. Braback, M.E. Walsh & R. E. Latta (Eds.), *Meeting at the hyphen: Schools-universities-communities-professions in collaboration for student achievement and well-being* (pp. 8-44). Illinois: National Society for the Study of Education.

Wasley, P.A., King, S.P. & Louth, C. (1995). Creating coalition schools through collaborative inquiry. In J. Oakes & E. Flaxman (Eds.), *Creating new educational communities: Ninety-fourth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I* (pp. 202-223). Chicago, ILL: The National Society for the Study of Education.

Wasserman, S. & Faust, K. (1994). *Social network analysis: Methods and applications.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Waterton, C. & Wynne, B. (1999). Can focus groups access community view? In R. S.

Barbour & J. Kitzinger (Eds.), *Developing focus group research: Politics, theory and practice* (pp. 127-143). London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Wax, R. (1971). *Doing fieldwork: Warnings and advice*. Chicago, ILL: University of Chicago Press.

Webster-Stratton, C. (1993). Strategies for helping school-age children with oppositional defiant and conduct disorders: The importance of home-school partnerships. *School Psychology Review, 22*, 437-457.

Weiss, H. (2002). Beyond basic training: Advice from the experts on nurturing strong full-service schools. *The Evaluation Exchange, 8*(2), 1-4.

Weiss, R.S. (1994). *Learning from strangers: The art and method of qualitative interview studies.* New York, NY: The Free Press.

Wellman, B. (2003). Structural analysis: From method and metaphor to theory and substance. In B. Wellman & S.D. Berkowitz (Eds.), *Social structures: A network approach* (pp. 19-61). Toronto, ON: Canadian Scholars' Press Inc.

Wellman, B. (1983). Network analysis: Some basic principles. *Sociological Theory, 1*, pp. 155-200.

Wellman, B. & Berkowitz, S.D. (2003). *Social structures: A network approach.* Toronto, ON: Canadian Scholars' Press Inc.

White, H.C. (1992). *Identity and control: A structural theory of social action*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

White, J.A. & Wehlage, G. (Spring, 1995). Community collaboration: If it is such a good idea, why is it so hard to do? *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 17*(1), 23-38.

Wohlstetter, P. & Smith, A.K. (March, 2000). A different approach to systematic reform: Network structures in Los Angeles. *Phi Delta Kappan, 81*(7), 508-514.

Wolff, S. (2004). Ways into the field and their variants. In U. Flick, E. von Kardoff, & I. Steinke (Eds.), *A companion to qualitative research* (pp. 195-202). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Woolcock, M. (2001). The place of social in understanding social and economic outcomes. *Canadian Journal of Policy Research, 2,* (1), pp. 11-17.

Yale University (2001). *Schools of the 21st C. How do we know that 21C works?* New Haven, CT: Yale University.

Ysseldyke J. E. & Christenson, S. L. (2002). *FAAB: Functional assessment of academic behavior*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

APPENDIX 1: HOUSEHOLD SURVEY

Household Survey

COMMUNITY CHARACTERISTICS

1.0 Approximately how many households are in this community?

Fewer than 25 [ ] 1

Between 25 and 49 [ ] 2

Between 50 and 99 [ ] 3

Between 100 and 249 [ ] 4

More than 250 [ ] 5

1.1 In your opinion, in the last three years, the number of people living in this community has:

Increased [ ] 1

Decreased [ ] 2

Remained the same [ ] 3

1.2 Based on your perceptions, what are the two main reasons for the increase, decrease, or lack of change?

(a) _____

(b) _____

1.3 In our experience, the availability of housing in this community is

Adequate [ ] 1

Deficient [ ] 2

1.4 In the last three years, my experience of the overall quality of life of the people living in this community has: (consider employment, safety, childcare, housing, environment, etc.)

Improved [ ] 1

Worsened [ ] 2

Remained the same [ ] 3

1.5 In your opinion, the two main reasons that the quality of life in the community has improved, worsened, or remained the same during the last three years?

(a) _____

(b) _____

1.6 Overall, the level of living of this community is best characterized as:

Wealthy [ ] 1

Very comfortable [ ] 2

Average [ ] 3

Poor [ ] 4

Very poor [ ] 5

1.7 From your personal experience, do people in this community generally trust one another in matters of lending and borrowing?

Yes [ ] 1

No [ ] 2

1.8 In the last three years has the level of trust improved, worsened, or stayed the same?

Improved [ ] 1

Worsened [ ] 2

Remained the same [ ] 3

1.9 Do you agree or disagree with the following statement: People in this community look out mainly for the welfare of their own families and they are not much concerned with community welfare.

Strongly agree [ ] 1

Agree [ ] 2

Disagree [ ] 3

Strongly disagree [ ] 4

PUBLIC SERVICES

1.0 Does this community have sports fields or recreation areas?

Yes [ ] 1

No [ ] 2

2.1 In my experience, in the last three years the condition of the sports fields and recreational areas has:

Improved [ ] 1

Worsened [ ] 2

Remained the same [ ] 3

2.2 Does this community have separate children's' play areas?

Yes [ ] 1

No [ ] 2

2.3 In my opinion, in the last three years the condition of these children's areas has:

Improved [ ] 1

Worsened [ ] 2

Stayed the same [ ] 3

EDUCATION

3A ***Preschool***

3A.1 Does this community have a preschool within walking distance?

Yes [ ] 1 (go to 3A.2)

No

3A.2 Based on your experience, is the number of preschools in this community sufficient to serve the number of young children in the community?

Yes [ ] 1

No [ ] 2

3A.3 The physical condition of the preschool is:

Very good [ ] 1

Good [ ] 2

Average [ ] 3

Poor [ ] 4

Very poor [ ] 5

3A.4 In your opinion, what percentage of children in your neighbourhood attend preschool?

All pre-school children [ ] 1

Most pre-school children [ ] 2

About half of the children [ ] 3

Less than half [ ] 4

Very few [ ] 5

3A.5 Based on your understanding, what are the two principle reasons that young children from this community do not attend preschool?

(a) _____

(b) _____

3B. ***Primary School***

3B.1 Does this community have a primary school within walking distance?

Yes [ ] 1

No [ ] 2

3B.2 From your experience, is the number of primary schools in this community sufficient to serve the number of school-age children in the community?

Yes [ ] 1

No [ ] 2

3B.3 The physical condition of the primary school is:

Very good [ ] 1

Good [ ] 2

Average [ ] 3

Poor [ ] 4

Very poor [ ] 5

3B.4 In your opinion, what percentage of eligible school-age children attend primary schools?

All school-age children [ ] 1

Most school-age children [ ] 2

About half of the children [ ] 3

Less than half [ ] 4

Very few [ ] 5

3B.5 Based on your understanding, what are the two principle reasons that school-age children from your neighbourhood do not attend primary school?

(a) _____

(b) _____

4C ***Secondary School***

4C.1 In my opinion, the physical condition of the secondary school is:

Very good [ ] 1

Good [ ] 2

Average [ ] 3

Poor [ ] 4

Very poor [ ] 5

4C. 2 From your experience, what percentage of secondary school-age children attend secondary school?

All secondary school-age children [ ] 1

Most secondary school-age children [ ] 2

About half of the children [ ] 3

Less than half [ ] 4

Very few [ ] 5

4C. 3 Based on your understanding, what are the two principle reasons that secondary school-age children from your neighbourhood do not attend secondary school?

(a) _____

(b) _____

5D ***Adult Education***

5D. 1 Is there an adult literacy campaign or program for the community?

Yes [ ] 1

No [ ] 2

5D. 2 Are there job training programs for this community?

Yes [ ] 1

No [ ] 2

5D. 3 Are parenting classes available in this community?

Yes [ ] 1

No [ ] 2

6E ***Health***

6E. 1 Does this community have a health clinic?

Yes [ ] 1

No [ ] 2

6E. 2 In your experience, does the health clinic regularly have sufficient:

	Sufficient	Insufficient
a. Equipment/instruments	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
b. Educational literature	[ ] 1	[ ] 2

c. Hours of operation	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
d. Physicians	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
e. Other staff	[ ] 1	[ ] 2

6E. 3 Does this community have a family planning program?

Yes	[ ] 1
No	[ ] 2

6E. 4 Who offers the program?

Government	[ ] 1
Health clinic	[ ] 2
Private facility	[ ] 3
Other (specify)_____	[ ] 4

7F **COMMUNITY SUPPORT**

7F. 1 Which of the following organizations exist in this community?

	Yes	No
a. community development committee	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
b. community improvement committee	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
c. cooperative (housing, farmer's market, arts, childcare)	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
d. youth group	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
e. cultural group(s)	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
f. community association	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
g. assistance programs	[ ] 1	[ ] 2

h. other (specify)	[ ] 1	[ ] 2

7F.2 Which persons or organizations help or support these community-based organizations?

	Yes	No
a. civic government	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
b. religious organizations	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
c. schools/teachers	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
d. business group(s)	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
e. service club(s)	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
f. prosperous citizens	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
g. community as a whole	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
h. other (specify)	[ ] 1	[ ] 2

7F. 3 What buildings do people in the community regularly use for meetings and gatherings?

	Yes	No
a. community centre	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
b. personal homes	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
c. churches/religious buildings	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
d. health centre	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
e. school	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
f. business/commercial buildings	[ ] 1	[ ] 2
g. other (specify)	[ ] 1	[ ] 2

7F. 4 In your experience, which members of the community participate most in addressing issues facing the community?

a. By gender

- Males [ ] 1
- Females [ ] 2
- Males and females equally [ ] 3
- Neither participate [ ] 4

b. By age

- Youth and adolescents [ ] 1
- Adults [ ] 2
- Older persons [ ] 3
- Youth, adults, and seniors Equally [ ] 4
- None participate [ ] 5

c. By employment status

- Workers [ ] 1
- Unemployed [ ] 2
- Workers and unemployed Equally [ ] 3
- Neither participate [ ] 4

7F. 5 In the last three years, has the community organized to address a need or problem?

Yes [ ] 1

No [ ] 2

7F. 6 Around what issue(s) did the community organize?

a. _____

b. _____

7F. 7 Was/Were the initiative(s) successful?

	Yes	No	Ongoing
a. Initiative #1	[ ] 1	[ ] 2	[ ] 3
b. Initiative #2	[ ] 1	[ ] 2	[ ] 3

7F. 8 Based on your experience, what are the two main problems or needs that community members feel must be addressed or solved?

a._____

b._____

7F. 9 In your experience, Do any of the following problems exist in this community? If yes, who is the most affected or at-risk group (by age (a), by gender (g), ethnic group (e))?

	Yes	No	Most Affected Group
a. robberies			
b. assaults			
c. gangs			
d. vandalism			
e. violent disputes			
f. alcohol abuse			
g. substance (drug) abuse			
h. teen pregnancy			

i. domestic violence

j. child abuse

k. prostitution

l. other problems (specify)_____

APPENDIX 2: ORGANIZATIONAL PROFILE (ADMINISTRATORS)

Organizational Profile: Leadership Interview Guide

A. Origins and Development

1. In what ways has the school changed structurally (programs, timetabling, routines, and so on)?
2. What would you see as the guiding philosophies or principles of this school?
3. As the school has changed what sort of assistance has it received from outside?
   a. Advice/funding/support from government?
   b. Advice/funding/support from non-government agencies?
   c. How did you get this support? Who initiated it?
   d. How was the support given (all at once, incremental, money, product, staff, and so on)?
   e. What benefits has the school realized from this support? What limitations has the school faced given this support?

B. Membership

1. Could you describe for me the demographic of your school community (students and families)?
2. Are families/individuals in your school community involved in/with the school?
3. If not, why are some families/individuals not involved?
4. What kinds of demands does this community (parents, guardians) make on the leadership? The school?

C. Organizational Capacity

1. How would you characterize the quality of *participation* in this school, in terms of:
   a. Attendance at meetings (internal)?
   b. Attendance at meetings (external, i.e. community members, other agencies, groups, etc.)?
   c. Participation in decision making within the organization:
   d. Informal opportunities to discuss decisions?
   e. Consultation process with community members? Support groups/organizations?
   f. More prosperous families in the community? Are they sympathetic? Supportive? Interfering? Adversarial? Negative influences?
   g. Less prosperous families in the community? Are they sympathetic? Supportive? Interfering? Adversarial? Negative influences?
2. How would you characterize the *culture* of this school organization, in terms of:
   a. The existence of and level of knowledge of procedures and policies?
   b. Whether the procedures and policies are carried out?
   c. Conflict resolution mechanism (internal, staff) and (external, community)?
   d. The nature of conflicts between the school and community members?
3. How would you characterize the *organizational capacity* of this school, in terms of:
   a. Carrying out specialized activities?

b. Reacting to changing circumstances (financial, demographic, divisional, provincial)?

c. Developing specific plans for the future (instead of reacting to opportunities as they present themselves)?

d. Reflecting on and learning from previous experiences?

D. Institutional Linkages

1. How would you characterize your organization's relationship with other community organizations? When do you feel the need to establish collaboration with them?

2. a. Do you have links with organizations outside the school community?

b. If so, with whom? What is the nature of those links?

3. a. Do you feel sufficiently informed about other organizations' (i.e. those in a potentially supportive role) programs and activities?

b. What are you sources of information?

4. a. Have you attempted to work with other organizations to achieve a mutually beneficial goal? If so, with whom and for what purpose?

b. Is this a common strategy among schools in the division? Why or why not?

5. a. Is your school linked to any government programs?

b. If so, with whom and why those particular programs?

c. What role does your organization/school play in the program?

d. Are there certain characteristics of these programs that make it easier for your school to work with the programs?

6. a. Have you attempted to offer input to the government regarding educational priorities/needs?
   b. What have been the results?
   c. What kinds of challenges did you have to deal with?
   d. Has your organization been invited to participate in any of the government planning processes?
   e. What are your thoughts on these planning processes?
   f. In general, how would you assess your organization's influence on government decision making at the provincial level?

APPENDIX 3: ORGANIZATIONAL PROFILE (STUDENTS)

Organizational Profile: Student Focus Group

A. Student Population

1. How would you characterize the student population of your school?
2. Do you think the students in your school have equal access to things like education, recreational opportunities, cultural resources, support services (family, friends, school)?

B. Student Leadership

1. Who are the student leaders in this school?
2. How do they become leaders?
3. What kinds of decisions to they make in the school?
4. How do these decisions affect other students?

C. Student Groups/Activities

1. What are the groups/activities for students that function in this school?
2. How is membership in these groups/activities determined?
3. Which groups/activities play the most active role in helping improve the well being of students in the school?
4. Of all the groups/activities, which are the most accessible for students? Least accessible?

D. School Culture

1. What are the reasons students choose to come to this school?
2. What are the reasons students choose not to come to this school?
3. Do any of the following problems exist in this school (Yes or No):
    a. Gangs?

b. Vandalism (to personal property)?

c. Vandalism (to school property)?

d. Substance abuse (alcohol or other drugs)?

e. Domestic violence?

f. Child neglect/abuse?

g. Family dysfunction?

h. Bullying/intimidation?

i. Child hunger?

j. Poverty?

k. Teen depression?

l. Other (specify)?

4. If you were having personal difficulties with any of the above who would you most likely confide in or go to for help?

a. Member of peer group

b. Parent (s)

c. School administrator

d. Teacher at school

e. Coach at school

f. Guidance counsellor at school

g. Clergy at school

h. Clergy outside of school

i. None of the above

j. Other (specify)

E. Student Services

1. What are the support services in the school for students?
2. Does your school have links with support services for students outside the school?
3. Do you feel sufficiently informed about other services and programs (i.e. those in a potentially supportive role for students) outside your school?
4. What are your sources of information?
5. What other support services for students would you like to see in your school?

APPENDIX 4: ORGANIZATIONAL PROFILE (STAFF)

Organizational Profile: Staff Interview Guide

A. Organizational Structure

1. How are decisions made in this school?
2. In your opinion, do the benefits of this particular school spread beyond its members?
3. How do you feel this school complements, replaces, or competes with government initiated activities/programs in this community?
4. What is your view about how the school deals with other organizations that work in the community?
5. What would you do to make this school more effective?

B. Organizational Capacity

1. How would you characterize the quality of *leadership* of this school in terms of:
    a. Stability?
    b. Number of leaders/availability?
    c. Diversity of leadership?
    d. Qualities and skills of leaders?
    e. Relationships of leaders to staff?
    f. Relationship of leaders to community?
2. How would you characterize the quality of *participation* in this school in terms of:
    a. Attendance at meetings (internal)?
    b. Attendance at meetings (external, community members, other agencies, groups, etc)?

c. Participation in decision making within the organization?

d. Informal opportunities to discuss decisions?

e. Consultation process with community members? Support groups, organizations?

f. More prosperous families in the community? Are they sympathetic? Supportive? Interfering? Adversarial? Negative influences?

g. Less prosperous families in the community? Are they sympathetic? Supportive? Interfering? Adversarial? Negative influences?

3. How would you characterize the *culture* of this school organization in terms of:

a. The existence of and level of knowledge of procedures and policies?

b. Whether the procedures and policies are carried out?

c. Conflict resolution mechanisms (internal, staff) and (external, community)?

d. The nature of conflicts between the school and community members?

4. How would you characterize the *organizational capacity* of this school in terms of:

a. Carrying out specialized activities?

b. Reacting to changing circumstances (financial, demographic, divisional, provincial)?

c. Developing specific plans for the future (instead of reacting to opportunities as they present themselves)?

d. Reflecting on and learning from previous experiences?

C. Institutional Linkages

1. How would you characterize your school's relationship with other community organizations?
2. Do you feel sufficiently informed about other organizations' (i.e. those in a potentially supportive role) programs and activities?
3. Have you attempted to offer input to a governing body regarding educational priorities/needs?
    a. If so, what have been the results?
    b. What kinds of challenges did you have to deal with?

APPENDIX 5A: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION TO THE DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION

Appendix 5A: Letter of Introduction to the Director of Education

Date

Ms./Mr. Doe
ABC School Division
ABC, Saskatchewan

Dear Ms./Mr. Doe:

I am writing to request your permission to conduct research with a number of high school staff members and students in your school division to fulfill the requirements for a Doctor of Philosophy degree in Educational Administration at the University of Saskatchewan.

The title of the study is Networks of Hope: Reaching Beyond Our Grasp to Educate Children and Youth. There will be a focus on the resources available to children, youth and families in your division, the conditions that help people to access them and any barriers that are experienced. I anticipate the benefits for your school staff will include support for their efforts to improve the academic outcomes for the youth in their classrooms. This study likewise has the potential to assist with the establishment of family-school-community networks to provide resources to improve the prospect of success for children and youth in your school community.

As a researcher, I would appreciate your consent to conduct four focus groups with staff and students, and interviews with the Administrative personnel. This proposed research project was reviewed and approved on ethical grounds by the Behavioural Research Ethics Board of the University of Saskatchewan on January 11, 2008.I will also provide the Administrative team at the designated research site with a letter of intent and explanation. If you have any questions regarding this research please contact me at (306) 966-7660 or through email at sandi.svoboda@usask.ca. You may also contact my Advisors, Dr. Angela Ward (966-7585) or Dr. Keith Walker (966-7619) for further clarification or information or the University of Saskatchewan Ethics Office (966-2084).

I would appreciate your permission to conduct this research during the months of January 2008 to April 2008. Thank you for your consideration of this request; I look forward to your response.

Sincerely,

Sandra Svoboda, B. Ed., PGD Curr., M. Ed., Ph.D. Candidate

APPENDIX 5B: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION TO THE ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL

Appendix 5B: Letter of Introduction to Administrative Personnel

Date:

Mr./Ms. Smith, Principal
ABC School
ABC, Saskatchewan

Dear Mr./Ms. Smith:

Earlier this month I contacted your Director of Education, Ms./Mr. Doe, regarding the possibility of conducting research in your high school for my Doctor of Philosophy degree in Educational Administration at the University of Saskatchewan. Having received approval from the Director and the University of Saskatchewan Behavioural Research Ethics Board on January 11, 2008, I am now writing to request your support of this research.

My research model will be both quantitative and qualitative and will focus on the resources available to children, youth, and families in your school community. It is my hope that my study, Networks of Hope: Reaching Beyond Our Grasp to Educate Children and Youth, will help us as educators to provide supports for youth so they can succeed in school and in life. It may likewise provide further genesis to home-school-community partnerships for the purpose of promoting their success.

As a researcher, I would appreciate your consent to spend time on site during the months of December 2007 to April 2008 to interview staff members, students, parents of students, and the Administrative personnel. If you have any questions regarding this research, please contact me at (306) 966-7660 or email me at sandi.svoboda@usask.ca. You may also contact either of my Advisors, Dr. Angela Ward (966-7585) or Dr. Keith Walker (966-7619) for further clarification or information or the University of Saskatchewan Ethics Office (966-2084). I sincerely hope you will support my request; I look forward to your response.

Sincerely,

Sandra Svoboda, B. Ed., PGD Curr., M. Ed., Ph.D. Candidate

APPENDIX 5C: LETTER OF CONSENT FOR PARENTS

Appendix 5C: Letter of Consent for Parent Participation

Dear Parents and Guardians:

This is a request for your participation and assistance in the research study that I have undertaken for my Doctor of Philosophy degree in Educational Administration at the University of Saskatchewan. This study will begin at your child's school in the next few weeks and will conclude in April. This study has been approved by the University of Saskatchewan Behavioural Research Ethics Board on January 11, 2008 and by the Director of Education. The results of this study will be shared with the faculties of Educational Administration and Curriculum at the University of Saskatchewan. Results may also be published in journals of research and presented at academic and professional conferences.

The title of the study is Networks of Hope: Reaching Beyond Our Grasp to Educate Children and Youth. There will be a focus on the resources available to children, youth and families in your community, the conditions that help people to access them and any barriers that are experienced. I anticipate the benefits for your school staff will include support for their efforts to improve the academic outcomes for the children and youth in their classrooms. You will also be assisting with the establishment of family-school-community networks to provide resources to support the prospect of success for children in your school.

All parents/guardians are invited to participate in the study. I am asking 20 volunteers to participate in one focus group discussion at the school and another 250 participants to fill out a survey. The focus group will require approximately 90 minutes of your time and the survey, approximately 60 minutes. You may respond to only those questions with which you are comfortable and, should the focus group be tape recorded, you may also request that the recording device be turned off at any time. It is important for you to know that you may choose not to participate at all, or you may withdraw from the study at any time. If you choose to withdraw from the study, this consent form with personal data will be returned to you.

Please be assured that I will take the necessary measures to protect your anonymity. Your name on this form is necessary only for me to make contact with you. In the dissertation, which will be publicly available at the university library, I will use pseudonyms when referring to the participants, the school, and your community. Prior to the data being included in the final report, you will have the opportunity to approve references made in the dissertation if you are a focus group participant. The data will be stored for a minimum of five years by Dr. Angela Ward, Assistant Dean in the College of Education (as required by the University of Saskatchewan guidelines), and will not allow for identification of any persons.

However, as a researcher I cannot guarantee the confidentiality of comments made by participants in the focus group. Therefore, I ask you to indicate, by your signature here,

your agreement that research-related comments and experiences be kept in strictest confidence to protect your own privacy and that of other participants.

A copy of this letter will be provided for your records. A summary of the focus group will be made available to each participant in the focus group for perusal before publishing. A summary of the completed study will be left at the school with the Administration should other participants wish to review it after publication. Please accept, in advance, my appreciation for your interest in this study.

In closing, should you have any concerns regarding this research, I would invite you to contact the Ethics Office at the University of Saskatchewan at (306) 966-2084 regarding your rights as a participant or the researcher (966-7660 or sandi.svoboda@usask.ca).

I have read and understood the explanation provided and I have had an opportunity to ask questions and my questions have been answered. I consent to participate in the research project, understanding that I may withdraw my consent at any time. A copy of this consent form has been given to be for my records.

Signature of the Researcher: Name of Participant:
Sandra Svoboda, B. Ed., PGD Curr., M.Ed., Ph.D. Candidate

_____ _____

Date: _____ _____
Signature of Participant

APPENDIX 5D: LETTER OF CONSENT FOR STUDENTS

Appendix 5D: Letter of Consent for Student Participation

As a requirement of the University of Saskatchewan Behavioural Research Ethics Board, this project was reviewed and approved on ethical grounds on January 11, 2008. However, the following information is provided for you to decide whether or not you wish to participate in this study. You are free to decide not to participate or to withdraw at any time should you agree to participate in the study.

The purpose of this study is to determine the resources available to children, youth, and families in your school and community, the conditions that help people to access them and any barriers that are experienced.

Data will be obtained through student focus groups. You may respond to only those questions with which you are comfortable and, should the focus group discussion be recorded, you may request that the recording device be turned off at any time. Please be assured that I will take the necessary measures to protect your anonymity. Your name on this form is necessary only for me to make contact with you. In the dissertation, which will be publicly available at the university library, I will use pseudonyms when referring to the participants and the school. Prior to the data being included in the final report, you will have the opportunity to edit, without repercussions, comments made by yourself that you consider to be problematic. Do not hesitate to ask any question about the study either before your participation or during the time that you are participating or, to contact the University of Saskatchewan Ethics Office (306-966-2084) if you have any questions regarding your rights as a participant. The data will be stored for a minimum of five years by Dr. Angela Ward, Assistant Dean in the College of Education (as required by the University of Saskatchewan guidelines), and will not allow for identification of any persons.

Having read and understood the preceding information, I agree to participate in the study, which has received prior approval from the Director of Education. I am participating in the focus group voluntarily and I grant permission for the data to be used in the process of completing a Doctor of Philosophy degree in Educational Administration at the University of Saskatchewan. I also understand that in addition to the published dissertation, the data may also be published in journals of research and presented at academic and professional conferences. Lastly, a copy of this Consent Form has been given to me for my records.

Lastly, I am assured the researcher will endeavour to safeguard the confidentiality of the discussion, but cannot guarantee that other members of the group will do so. I will respect the confidentiality of the other members of the group by not disclosing the contents of the discussion outside the group but I am also aware that others may not respect my confidentiality.

Signature of the Researcher: Name of Participant:

Sandra Svoboda, B. Ed., PGD Curr., M. Ed., Ph. D. Candidate

_____ _____

Date: _____ _____

Signature of Participant

APPENDIX 5E: LETTER OF CONSENT FOR STAFF

Appendix 5E: Letter of Consent for Staff Participation

This is a request for your participation and assistance in the research study that I have undertaken for my Doctor of Philosophy degree in Educational Administration at the University of Saskatchewan. This study will begin at your school in the next few weeks and will conclude in April. As required by the University of Saskatchewan's behavioural Research Ethics Board, this research project was reviewed and approved on ethical grounds on January 11, 2008. The results of this study will be shared with the faculties of Educational Administration and Curriculum at the University of Saskatchewan. Results may also be published in journals of research and presented at academic and professional conferences.

The title of the study is Networks of Hope: Reaching Beyond Our Grasp to Educate Children and Youth. There will be a focus on the resources available to children, youth and families in your school community, the conditions that help people to access them and any barriers that are experienced. I anticipate the benefits for your school staff will include support for their efforts to improve the academic outcomes for the children and youth in their classrooms. You will also be assisting with the establishment of family-school-community networks to provide resources to support the prospect of success for youth in your school.

All staff members are invited to participate in the study. I am asking 5-10 volunteers to participate in one focus group discussion at the school. The focus group will require approximately 90 minutes of your time. You may respond to only those questions with which your feel comfortable and, should the focus group discussion be recorded, you may request that the recording device be turned off at any time. It is important for you to know that you may choose not to participate at all, or to withdraw from the study at any time. Should you choose to withdraw, this consent form with personal data will be returned to you.

Please be assured that I will take the necessary measures to protect your anonymity. Your name on this form is necessary only for me to make contact with you. In the dissertation, which will be publicly available at the university library, I will use pseudonyms when referring to the participants, the school, and your division. Prior to the data being included in the final report, you will have the opportunity to approve references made in the dissertation if you are a focus group participant. The data will be stored for a minimum of five years by Dr. Angela Ward, Assistant Dean in the College of Education (as required by the University of Saskatchewan guidelines), and will not allow for identification of any persons.

However, as a researcher I cannot guarantee the confidentiality of comments made by participants in the focus group. Therefore, I ask you to indicate, by your signature here, your agreement that research-related comments and experiences be kept in strictest confidence to protect your own privacy and that of other participants.

A summary of the focus group will be made available to each participant in the focus group for perusal before publishing. A summary of the completed study will be left at the school with the Administration should other participants wish to review it after publication. If you have nay questions concerning the research project, please feel free to ask at any point or contact the researcher at 966-7660 or sandi.svoboda@usask.ca if you have other questions. You may also contact the University of Saskatchewan Ethics Office directly (966-2084) regarding your rights as a participant. Please accept, in advance, my appreciation for your interest in this study.

I have read and understand the explanation provided and I have had an opportunity to ask questions and my questions have been answered. I consent to participate in the research project, understanding that I may withdraw my consent at any time. A copy of this consent form has been given to me for my records.

Signature of the Researcher: Name of Participant:
Sandra Svoboda, B. Ed., PGD Curr., M.Ed., Ph.D. Candidate

_____ _____

Date: _____ _____
Signature of Participant

APPENDIX 6: LETTER OF CONSENT FOR RELEASE OF TRANSCRIPTS/DATA

Appendix 6: Letter of Consent for Release of Transcripts/Data

I appreciate your participation in the research study, Networks of Hope: Reaching Beyond Our Grasp to Educate Children and Youth.

I am returning the transcripts of the focus groups/audio taped interviews for your perusal and the release of confidential information. I will adhere to the following guidelines, which are designed to protect your confidentiality and interests in the study.

1. Would you please read and recheck the transcripts for accuracy of information. You may edit or clarify the transcripts using additional comments. Feel free to write directly on the transcripts. You may also delete any information that you may not want to be quoted in the study.

2. The data from this study will be used in a Doctoral dissertation and perhaps, scholarly journal articles or similar publications and presentations. Except to the researcher in the study, your participation has remained confidential. You will not be identified as a participant nor will your name or school be used in the final document, scholarly articles, or presentations.

3. In accordance with the University of Saskatchewan Guidelines on Behavioural Research Ethics, data collected during the study will be secured and remain so for a minimum of five years as mandated by the university. After this period of time all data will be destroyed.

4. Participation in this study is voluntary and you may withdraw at any time without repercussions. If this happens, the data will not be used.

I _____ have read and understand the guidelines
(Please sign your name)
above and agree to release the data/transcripts as I have indicated.

Date:_____

Researcher's Signature:_____

APPENDIX 7: APPLICATION FOR ETHICS APPROVAL

University of Saskatchewan
Behavioural Research Ethics Board

Application for Approval of Research Protocol

1. **Name of Researcher**

a.	Name of Student	Sandra Svoboda PHD in Educational Administration
b.	Significant Dates	Start date: December, 2007 Expected Completion: April, 2008

2. **Title of Study** Networks of Hope: Reaching Beyond Our Grasp to Educate Children and Youth

3. **Abstract**

The purpose of this study is designed to use network inquiry to foster innovation for capacity enhancement and, by improving both schools, communities, improving opportunities for student success. The research will be guided by the following questions:

1. How can social capital and network connections in communities be recognized?
2. How can social capital and network connections in communities be increased in number and in depth?
3. what is the stream of benefits for the community that result from the various forms of social capital?
4. Which aspects of networking make it more beneficial in certain situations?

4. **Funding**

The researcher will fund the project in its entirety.

5. **Expertise**

A number of participants in this study will be high school students, grades 9-12. The researcher has 26 years experience as a teacher in various secondary schools.

In addition, when developing a study at the Master's level in Educational Administration, six of the twelve participants the researcher worked with were high school aged. The experience gained from the previous study will inform the protocol and practice of this study.

6. <u>Conflict of Interest</u>

Although the researcher plans to collect data in a high school setting, it will be collected in a system in which the researcher has no prior experience as an educator and where all students and families will be unknown to the researcher.

7. <u>Participants</u>

Sixteen people in an urban context will be involved in this study. Selection criteria suggests that the participants be:

- Parents who have children schooled in the research site
- Students in grades 9-12 who attend the school intended as the research site
- Employed in the high school intended as the research site

Permission to contact and work with the student participants and staff will be obtained from:

- The Director of Education of the School Division
- The Administrative personnel at the research site

As the participants are high school aged and protocol is below minimal risk to them, I would ask that parental consent be waived.

Parent participants for the survey will be:

- Chosen from a list generated by the Administrative personnel. The list will include the names of each family who has a child/children schooled in the research

site. The researcher will use a numerical or alphabetical system to delimit the list of participants. This procedure is intended to eliminate bias and enhance the potential for an authentic demographic sampling.

Parent participants for the focus group and community questionnaire will be:

- Volunteers who have children attending school at the research site.

Student participants for the focus group will be:

- Chosen by the staff and representative of the student demographic in the school.

Permission to work with the student participants will be obtained from each student after obtaining the preliminary permission to enter the research site from the Director of Education for the Division and the Administrative personnel in the school.

Staff participants for the interviews will be:

- Teachers and Support Staff who volunteer to participate.

8. <u>Consent Forms</u>

Refer to attached forms:

Appendix 5A: Letter of Introduction to the Director of Education

Appendix 5B: Letter of Introduction to the Administrative Personnel

Appendix 5C: Letter of Consent for Parents

Appendix 5D: Letter of Consent for Students

Appendix 5E: Letter of Consent for Staff

Appendix 6: Letter of Consent for Release of Transcripts/Data

9. <u>Measures/Procedures</u>

The researcher will utilize data collection methodology from both qualitative and quantitative modes of research to conduct a structural analysis of networks and the

value of these in educating children and youth in schools. Focus groups will be audio taped with accompanying field notes, both of which will be transcribed for data purposes (See Appendices 1, 5, 6). The audio taped interviews will follow a set of pre-determined, topic guided interview questions. A survey will be administered to evaluate relationships between actors and the quality of those relationships as they pertain to the acquisition of social capital (See Appendix 3)> Lastly, a community questionnaire (See Appendix 2) will be administered to a group of parent volunteers as a complement to the community profile focus group (See Appendix 1).

10. <u>Storage of Data</u>

All audio records, computer discs, hard copies of verbatim data, surveys, and researchers notes will be stored in accordance with the University of Saskatchewan guidelines during the study (will be kept in a secured place by the researcher) and after the study (minimum of r years by the Advisor, Dr. Angela Ward) and will not allow for identification of any persons. All material will be destroyed after the mandated period of time.

11. <u>Dissemination of Results</u>

The results of this study will be shared with the faculty of Educational Administration and Curriculum Studies at the University of Saskatchewan. The dissertation will be publicly available at the University of Saskatchewan library and the results may also be published in journals of research and presented at academic and professional conferences.

12. Risk, Benefits, Deception

There are no known risks resulting from participation in this study. Although individual interviews will be taped and focus groups may be taped, participants may decline any question or request that the tape recorder be turned off for selected comments.

13. Confidentiality (See Appendices 5A-5E)

In the dissertation pseudonyms will be used when referring to the participants and the school. I will also inform participants that while I cannot guarantee the discretion of other members of the group, I will ask that they respect the confidentiality of the other members of the group by not disclosing the contents of the discussion outside the group. A summary of the focus group discussions will be made available to each participant, as will transcripts of the individual interviews. Where comments made by participants are deemed by the respective participants to be problematic, individuals will have the opportunity to edit, without repercussion, their comments. Furthermore, participants may withdraw at any time from the study

14. Data/Transcript Release

See Appendix 6 Letter of Consent for Release of Transcripts/Data.

15. Debriefing and Feedback

The participants will have an opportunity to review transcripts of the audiotapes and their own reflections as acquired from the interviews. Focus groups participants will likewise have an opportunity to review their comments as referenced in the transcripts. Member checks have been build into the methodology

of this study to establish credibility and ensure availability of the data for use in the final documents.

16. Required Signatures

All documents have been signed by appropriate parties as mandated by the guidelines.

17. Required Contact Information

As required the following contact information has been included:

Researcher Contacts:

Sandra Svoboda
111 Kerr Rd
Saskatoon, SK S7N 3M5
Home: (306) 934-2606
Office: (306) 966-7660
Email: sandi.svoboda@usask.ca

Supervisor Contacts:

Dr. Angela Ward
Office: (306) 966-7585
Email: angela.ward@usask.ca

Dr. Keith Walker
Office: (306) 966-7619
Email: keith.walker@usask.ca

Department Head:

Dr. Sheila Carr-Stewart
Office: (306) 966-7611
Email: Sheila carr-stewart@usask.ca

.