6-26-2015

SOURCES AND METHODS OF KNOWLEDGE ACQUISITION BY PUBLIC NETWORK MANAGERS

William Wuestenhagen

William G. Wuestenhagen

Candidate

School of Public Administration

Department

This thesis is approved, and it is acceptable in quality and form for publication:

Approved by the Thesis Committee:

Kun Huang, Chairperson

Mario Rivera

James Jimenez

**SOURCES AND METHODS OF KNOWLEDGE ACQUISITION
BY PUBLIC NETWORK MANAGERS**

by

WILLIAM G. WUESTENHAGEN

**BACHELOR OF ARTS, HISTORY,
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, 2005**

THESIS

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Public Administration

The University of New Mexico
Albuquerque, New Mexico

May, 2015

Sources and Methods of Knowledge Acquisition by Public Network Managers

By

William G. Wuestenhagen

B.A., History, University of Wisconsin, 2005

M.P.A., Public Administration, University of New Mexico, 2015

ABSTRACT

Governments use networks of organizations from the public, for-profit, and nonprofit sectors to deliver public services. While the public administration literature on the tasks and responsibilities of network management is extensive, research on the sources and methods of knowledge acquisition by public network managers is underdeveloped. The study adds to this area through original research. A group of state government professionals, who manage a federal grant in their states, was surveyed to determine how they obtain actionable knowledge to perform network activities. The results were generally consistent with prior research in several disciplines, including public administration, with notable exceptions. Significantly, the personal sources used are predominantly staff or colleagues within their state government, rather than the grant managers in other states. Spearman's rho was used to explore relationships between the respondents' characteristics and the use of personal and impersonal sources. The relationships were extremely weak. The thesis concludes with suggestions for future research.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

Chapter 1
Introduction

For more than thirty years, the academic, professional and popular literatures have described the rise and prominence of networks. Scholars have argued that the network is a prominent form of social organization (Castells, 1996; Raab & Kenis, 2009) and economic exchange (Powell, 1990). Professional journals in diverse fields, such as science (Borgatti, Mehra, Brass, & Labianca, 2009), business (Ustuner & Godes, 2006), medicine (Margolis & Halfon, 2009), and music (Hadju & Didkovsky, 2009) have identified the impact of networks. Social network websites such as Facebook, Instagram, and Linked In connect a broad swath of individuals.

The emergence of networks in the study and practice of government has been remarkable. Federal, state, and local governments use multi-sector networks, combinations of public, nonprofit, and for-profit organizations, to provide publicly funded goods and services. Networks can be defined as three or more legally autonomous organizations that work together to achieve their individual goals and a collective goal (Provan & Kenis, 2008). Illustrative examples include the following: the federal government awards block grants to states that in turn contract with nonprofit agencies to provide social services to low-income individuals (Bishop, 2006) ; states contract with for-profit companies to coordinate the provision of mental health services (Huang & Provan, 2007), or provide job training and employment services to recipients of public assistance (Dias & Maynard-Moody, 2007); a county social service agency delivers child and family services through nonprofit and other public agencies (Chen, 2008). In these public service delivery networks, government employees do not directly provide the services. Instead, federal, state, and local government managers provide administrative,

fiscal, and program oversight to the other organizations in the network, and coordinate member actions to achieve the efficient and effective delivery of public goods and services (Salamon & Elliott, 2002). As governments increasingly arrange for other organizations to provide publicly funded services rather than directly provide them, the role of these government network managers is crucial (McGuire, 2002).

In response to their use throughout all levels of government, networks are a central focus of current public administration scholarship (Isett, Mergel, LeRoux, Mischen, & Rethemeyer, 2011). Within this discipline, the term network is variously defined, and is used as metaphor, an analytic technique, and a description of structure or process (Isett et al., 2011; Wachaus, 2009). The literature includes extensive empirical examinations of, and multiple theoretical frameworks for, network origins (Kickert, Klijn & Koppenjan, 1997; Milward & Provan, 2000; Powell, 1990), functioning (Provan & Milward, 1995), management (Provan & Kenis, 2008), and results (Herranz, 2010; Kenis & Provan, 2006; Mandell & Keast, 2007). Of these research streams, the study of network management has obvious relevance to practitioners, the managers of these networks.

A government manager of a public service delivery network, looking for insights and guidance that could be applied to the range of required administrative tasks, would find informative practitioner and academic references. Managers of contract-based networks could use Cooper (2003) to learn a three-stage model of contract management, and Cohen and Eimicke (2010) to understand the importance of skills such as negotiation, conflict resolution, mediation, and feedback loops (Cohen & Eimicke, 2010, p.58). The academic literature is rich with typologies of network managerial functions. Several

scholars have identified tensions, or contradictory pressures, inherent in all networks, which frame managerial activity. Examples of these tensions include the need for both administrative efficiency and an inclusive approach for obtaining members' perspectives on network issues, or the need to maintain both network operational stability and the capacity to respond to new situations and opportunities (Provan & Kenis, 2008; Saz-Carranza & Ospina, 2011).

Another line of study has applied empirical network research to theoretical frameworks from organization studies, and conceptualized three strategies of managerial action— entrepreneurial, community, and bureaucratic (Herranz, 2008, 2009). Other scholars have correlated managerial strategies with network contextual factors, such as the relative power of the participants, their relational history, and the network's goal or problem focus (Mandell & Steelman 2003). Still others (Agranoff & McGuire, 2001; Agranoff, 2007; McGuire, 2002), seeking the network management equivalent to POSDCORB (i.e. planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting), the classic formulation of the activities of public administrators (Gulick, 1937), have identified new network managerial duties, such as activating, framing, mobilizing, and synthesizing (McGuire & Agranoff, 2001, pp. 298-300). Another combination of scholars has identified five network level administrative tasks: the management of legitimacy, conflict, design, commitment, and accountability (Milward & Provan 2006).

This inquisitive government manager would also find useful public administration research on knowledge networks and knowledge transfer within networks (Gerlak & Heikkila, 2011; Moynihan, 2008; Weber & Khademian, 2008; Zhang & Dawes, 2006).

Furthermore, the manager could draw from the literature on communities or networks of practice for mechanisms to obtain ideas and solve problems (Binz-Scharf, Lazer, & Merkel, 2012; Snyder & deSouza Briggs, 2003). But most of the academic research on knowledge sharing would be found in the literatures of other disciplines, including information science, business studies, and organization studies. A review of those literatures would reveal studies that examined the influential attributes of the sources of interpersonal information, such as quality and accessibility (Xu, Tan, &Yang, 2006), or relevance and relational benefit (Xu, Kim, & Kankanhalli, 2010). The attributes of the information seekers, particularly the extent of their knowledge about potential contacts, have also been researched (Borgatti & Cross 2003; Nebus, 2006). Other studies have extended the attribute perspective to documentary, or impersonal, sources (Agarwal, Xu & Poo, 2011; Zimmer, Henry, & Butler, 2008). Cross, Borgatti, Parker, and Prusak (2001) have developed classifications for information content transferred within networks. The impact of network structures on knowledge transfer has also been studied (Reagans & McEvily, 2003; Tsai 2001). This research would be especially relevant to the government network manager.

In summary, there is extensive literature from multiple disciplines on the nature and operational requirements of network management, the attributes of information sources and seekers, and the process of knowledge transfer within networks. But the government manager would find minimal research on *how* and *where* to obtain the knowledge needed for the management of public service delivery networks. What are the sources and methods used by government network managers to obtain the actionable knowledge needed to effectively perform government network administrative activities?

This gap has been recognized, and identified as a direction for future research (Bushouse, Jacobson, Lambright, Llorens, Morse, & Poocharen, 2011; Raadschelders & Lee, 2011). But to this author's knowledge, there is no empirical study that addresses the sources and methods of knowledge acquisition for the management of public service delivery networks. .

This thesis begins to fill the gap with original, exploratory research about the sources and methods used by public managers to obtain actionable knowledge, defined as knowledge with direct impact on a specific work task (Cross & Sproull, 2004). The thesis addresses the following research question: What resources do a specific group of state government network managers use to obtain the knowledge they need to perform their network administrative duties? This set of state government employees administers a federal formula grant in their respective states. The Community Services Block Grant (CSBG) provides States with a flexible funding source to alleviate the causes and conditions of poverty in local communities (Office of Community Service, CSBG).These state managers are responsible for providing funding, technical assistance, and oversight to networks of nonprofit and public organizations that provide services to low-income individuals and families. Using a web-based survey, the sources and methods of their knowledge acquisition will be identified.

In addition to addressing a serious gap in the public administration literature, this study will contribute to other areas of inquiry. By describing the knowledge-acquisition methods of public network managers, this research will be useful to scholars and practitioners, and provide common ground—relevant academic research—to bridge the acknowledged differences between the professions (Isett et al. 2011). More generally, by

identifying the sources used by a specific occupation, public network managers, and the reasons for using them, this research will add to the literature on knowledge transfer.

This thesis is organized as follows. Chapter 2 provides a review of the public administration literature on the management of public sector service delivery networks. Identifying the specific tasks of a network manager is an essential prerequisite to research on the sources and methods of knowledge acquisition. The literature review is framed by a discussion of the relevance of academic research to practitioners. Chapter 3 reviews the literature on knowledge transfer and acquisition. Chapter 4 sets out the research setting, design, and methodology. Chapter 5 provides the findings from the survey and analysis using descriptive statistical methods. A concluding chapter returns to the research question in light of the findings, describes the study's limitations, and offers suggestions for future research. An appendix provides the survey.

Chapter 2
Network Management and Practitioner Relevance

Introduction

This chapter reviews the public administration literature concerning the activities of public managers in public service delivery networks. These activities are then contextualized by research on the scholar-practitioner relationship and the relevance of academic scholarship for practitioners. The review of research on public network management establishes the gap the thesis seeks to address, while the importance of relevant academic research for the government network manager underscores the value of the empirical research conducted in this thesis. By identifying how and from where a group of network managers obtains the actionable knowledge needed to manage effectively, the current study adds to the network management literature, and provides what Perry (2012) has described as "usable knowledge"(p.479), knowledge that is valuable both to scholars and practitioners.

The change from direct service provision by government to the coordination of service delivery by government provides the foundation for the review of the literature. From the review, three related themes emerge: (a) the inadequacy of traditional, intra-organizational (i.e. bureaucratic) methods for the tasks of network management; (b) the recognition that network management demands a new set of managerial skills; and (c) the description of these managerial activities that are required for public network management.

Networks in Public Administration Scholarship

Several scholars have maintained that networks have deep roots in American public administration. Koliba, Meek, and Thurmaier (2012) interpreted the U.S. Constitution as the basis for a network form of government. Cooper (2003) described the long history of government participation in network arrangements by tracing the U.S. Government's extensive involvement in contracting relationships, beginning in the Revolutionary War. Nevertheless, the predominant interpretation is that public administration scholarship came late to the study of networks (e.g. Berry & Brower, 2004; Isett et al., 2011). From this perspective, the origin of the study of networks in public administration can be traced to the last quarter of the twentieth century, when it became apparent that a fundamental shift was occurring in the provision of public services. Increasingly, government-financed goods and services were provided not by government agencies, but by third parties, that is, nonprofit and for-profit organizations. Two leading scholars identified this change at the federal government level and described its instrumentalities. Mosher (1980) identified the "…exploding responsibilities of the national government in virtually all functional fields and its carrying out of those responsibilities through, and interdependently with, nonfederal institutions and individuals" (p.541). He described the instruments used to accomplish those responsibilities, including contracts, grants, loans, loan guarantees, regulation, and tax expenditures. Salamon (1981) noted the changing role of the federal government, from provider to purchaser; his later work offered a detailed description of the tools, actors, techniques, and organizations that were used to accomplish government's changed responsibilities (Salamon, 1989, 2002).

This shift in the government's role was described as a change from government to governance (Milward & Provan, 2000). Governance can be defined as "…creating conditions for ordered rule and collective actions, often including agents in the private and nonprofit sector, as well as within the public sector" (Milward &Provan, 2000, p. 360). The changed nature of service provision, by all levels of government, became an area of research in public administration scholarship. Kettl (1981) analyzed the City of Richmond's contracting of federally-funded employment training and housing development services to private non-city agencies. He described this involvement of private organizations as the "…fourth face of federalism…" (p. 366). De Hoog (1984) critically studied contracting for social and employment services by the State of Michigan, and identified the effects of the government agency's administrative structure, personnel, and organizational processes on contracted service delivery (p.135). Saidel (1991) identified mutual resource interdependencies between New York state agencies and contracted nonprofit organizations in four service areas.

Interorganizational networks began to replace *interorganizational systems* as the common term to describe the complex arrangements of agencies and organizations from the public, for-profit, and nonprofit sectors that provided public goods and services (e.g. Mandell, 1988; Milward & Provan, 1993; O'Toole, 1988,). An early definition of interorganizational networks was provided by Mandell (1988): "A number of diverse actions that are connected through a specific type of interaction and within a specific context" (p. 399). In public sector networks, "…the members…represent separate and distinct legal entities (i.e. local, state, federal, private sector organizations and/or agencies)" (Mandell, 1988, p. 399). Networks became an important unit of analysis.

Provan (1983) identified federations as a distinct form of network due to the control of certain network actions by the federation administration. Gage (1984) described Federal Regional Councils, the intergovernmental bodies originally established during the Nixon administration to coordinate federal grant policy and strengthen federal agency relationships with state and local governments, as "policy networking organization[s]" (p.134). Provan and Milward (1995) authored a seminal study of community mental health service networks in four cities. In each city, a core agency provided services and coordinated service delivery among other service providers. The authors operationalized several components of network structure (integration, density, and centralization) and correlated them with a client and family-focused measure of effectiveness.

Antecedents of Public Network Management

As network research emerged in public administration scholarship, the activities of public network managers became a focus of the research. Early in the study of the management of public service delivery networks, also described as policy implementation networks, scholars recognized that the changed role of government required new approaches to administration, as the new managerial activities differed markedly from those in traditional bureaucracies. Mosher (1980) saw a primary challenge for the national government as "…the coordination of public programs and simplification of the means whereby they may be carried out" (p.546), and identified the importance of indirect administration, using collaboration and negotiation, in place of the traditional vertical direct control (p.546). Salamon (1989) noted that the effective use of the "new tools of government action" (p. 4) required techniques and skills different from those previously used in government.

The specific tasks and responsibilities of public managers were explored by Agranoff (1986, 1991), Mandell (1988), and O'Toole (1988, 1997), among others. This early research on government management of service delivery or policy implementation networks drew on previous studies in intergovernmental management, human services integration, and network management in the private sector.

Public administration scholars had focused on the role of public managers as implementers within an intergovernmental setting. Wright (1990) summarized the defining concepts of intergovernmental management as problem solving, coping capabilities, and networking (p.156). Agranoff (1986) operationalized problem solving as a ''systematic and pragmatic search for solutions'' (p.8), deriving from leadership and conflict resolution occurring within a legal, administrative, technical, and joint task-oriented framework. His case studies described the daily flow of managerial activities designed to implement federal and state programs at the city and county government level. Bardach (1998) also used case studies to highlight the actions of "purposive practitioners" (p. 6), operating within a framework of interagency collaborative capacity, to accomplish the creation of public value.

Agranoff (1991) also used research in human services integration, the "…development of systems that are responsive of the multiple needs of persons at-risk…" (Agranoff, 1991, p.533), to develop a conceptual framework for network management. He described service integration as comprised of three public activities: (a) policy development; (b) an operational plan incorporating funding, eligibility, and service delivery; and (c) a local system through which clients receive services (p.535). He called for a new paradigm, which he named "transorganizational management" (p.540) that involved collective goals, shared responsibility and the flow of information. Wise (1990)

11

emphasized that the understanding of other organizations in a given policy field, and their interactions, were factors to be considered when designing the structure of public organizations. He also recognized that public management included "…transorganizational management (management across organizational boundaries)…managing interdependencies among an array of different types of organizations—profit, nonprofit, and governmental" (p.145).

Mandell (1990) modified private sector strategic management concepts to derive a public sector network management model. The model identified the importance of network level constraints—member compatibility, resource mobilization, and organizational conflict. Managers could adapt to these constraints by adopting a range of brokerage roles to manage the interdependencies that comprised the network. Lawless and Moore (1989) applied the dynamic network model of Miles and Snow (1986) to six public sector examples of intergovernmental organizations. The case studies highlighted the role of an individual or organization acting as a "strategy networking leader" (p.1176) within the network.

These early studies from public administration and business studies provided the foundational components of public network management scholarship: its interorganizational, multiple sector nature; and the incompatibility of traditional administrative techniques with the nature of network management.

Management of Networks by Public Managers

 Research on the tasks and responsibilities of public network managers grew significantly during the final decade of the twentieth century and the first decade of the twenty-first. Most of the studies were done by a small group of scholars, in some cases

the same scholars who had worked in the antecedent research fields. Much of the research was based on the empirical study of specific governmental areas, such as local economic development and human services (e.g. Agranoff & McGuire 2003; Agranoff, 2007).

Scholars have synthesized this expansion of the literature in various ways. Some have offered typologies or dimensions for the differing sets of network actions. For example, Herranz (2008) positioned the various approaches to network managerial tasks along a passive to active continuum (p.4). Four network managerial approaches or perspectives were described, ranging from an exclusive focus on the interactions among network members, to the direct administration of the network using hierarchically-based techniques. Other scholars have organized the research by categories of management tasks. Rethemeyer and Hatmaker (2008) identified four perspectives of network management based on the management of goals, service implementation, governance, and information management. McGuire (2010) organized the varieties of network management into three distinct approaches: strategies, ethnographic analyses, or actual structures. The present review organizes the public network management literature by task and context.

The management of interactions.

From this perspective, the primary task for the network manager is relational: monitoring, facilitating, and directing the interactions between and among members of the network. Several Dutch scholars are associated with this perspective (Kickert et al., 1997). Networks are conceptualized as relationships among actors; thus, network management is concerned with "facilitating the interactive process" (Kickert et al., 1997,

p.11), so that network members can achieve consensus and cooperate to solve problems. To do this, managers operate at two levels. At the level of the interactive process, they facilitate, mediate, broker, and catalyze interactions. At the level of the structure of the interactions, they reshape relationships by changing the rules and norms of interactions (Kickert et al., 1997).

The management of internal network tasks.

Another research approach centers on the instrumental tasks the manager must perform within the network in order for the network to accomplish a defined objective. Tasks are described both as general categories and as specific activities. Agranoff and McGuire (Agranoff & McGuire, 2001; McGuire, 2002) developed a well-known and widely-cited set of categories of managerial action: activating, framing, mobilizing, and synthesizing. Activating tasks are network level actions that identify and assemble the specific human and material resources needed to accomplish the network's goals. Framing activities structure the interactions of the network by articulating rules, roles and norms. Mobilizing activities seek to obtain the members' commitment to the network as an entity. Finally, managers synthesize: they act to create a network environment in which productive relationships can occur (McGuire, 2002).

Mandell and Steelman (2003) identified differently named, but conceptually similar, management strategies: influencing members to participate in the network, securing commitment from members, and creating an environment for productive interaction (p.214). Agranoff and McGuire (2003) also empirically identified a different set of vertical and horizontal task categories of collaborative managerial network activities: (a) information seeking; (b) adjustment seeking, by which they mean the use of

14

discretion in areas such as regulatory waivers or statutory relief; (c) policymaking; (d)

resource exchange; and (e) project specific activities, such as providing technical

assistance.

Other authors have also described internal network managerial tasks. Goldsmith

and Eggers (2004) stated that managers of public networks must: (a) align goals in

mission, outcomes, and organizational interests; (b) provide oversight; (c) maintain

effective communication; (d) manage relationships; and (e) surmount the challenges of

inadequate data and managerial capacity.

The management of governance.

Another set of scholars (Kenis & Provan, 2006; Provan & Kenis 2008; Saz-

Carranza & Ospina 2011) focused on mechanisms of network control, and more broadly,

on network governance, "…the use of institutions and structures of authority and

collaboration to allocate resources and to coordinate and control joint action across the

network as a whole" (Provan & Kenis, 2008, p. 231). From this perspective, the network

itself becomes the unit of analysis. The tasks are related to the management of the

network as an entity, and are comprised of actions both within the network and external

to it.

Provan and Kenis (2008) identified varieties of governance across two

dimensions: whether or not the network is brokered; and if it is brokered, whether the

broker is an internal participant or an external entity. They introduced the concept of the

Network Administrative Organization (NAO), an external network broker, whose

purpose is to administer the network rather than to provide services. They identified

overarching network governance challenges, which they designated as tensions, or

contradictions (p.242), which network managers must manage. There are tensions: (a) between administrative efficiency and member inclusiveness in decision making; (b) between the need to build the legitimacy of the interactions among competitive members of the network, and the need to build the external, or outward facing, legitimacy of the network itself; and (c) between the need for network structures that are both flexible in the short term and demonstrate stability over time. Based on their research of nonprofit immigrant rights networks, Saz-Carranza and Ospina (2011) identified an additional tension, between the unity of network purpose and the diversity of the organizational characteristics of its members.

Milward and Provan (2006) described a set of five tasks for managers of networks: (a) the management of accountability, by determining responsibility for specific network activities and enforcing compliance with network goals; (b) the management of legitimacy, both within the network among its members, and externally, by attracting resources and new members; (c) the management of conflict as an honest broker from a whole network perspective; (d) the management of the network governance structure; and (e) the management of member organizations' commitment to the network, by ensuring effective communications and a fair distribution of resources (p.19).

Agranoff (2007) identified seven network level managerial duties: (a) identifying the focal problem and exchange of information, (b) identifying the extent technology that can be brought to bear on the problem, (c) developing or adapting emergent technology that can be directed to the problem, (d) assuring adequate knowledge infrastructure, (e)

building network capacity, (f) developing network strategy, and (g) nurturing joint policy making.

Still other scholars have looked at network management through a strategic lens. Herranz (2008, 2009) proposed that managers rely on a sector-based —public, for-profit, or voluntary/nonprofit— strategic orientation to coordinate key network managerial activities such as: (a) establishing strategic priorities, (b) determining operational mechanisms, (c) using information, (d) specifying the method of service delivery, and (e) managing interorganizational relationships (2008, p.2). Rethemeyer and Hatmaker (2008) combined the work of McGuire and Agranoff, and Kickert and colleagues, and argued that network management involves the manipulation of material and social resources, and the relationships and perceptions that result (p.636).

Summary

Researchers have studied the tasks and duties of public network managers from different perspectives. Taken together, their results have reinforced the foundational components of network management scholarship. Because networks consist of multiple autonomous organizations, often from different sectors, the management of networks involves different tasks than those previously performed by managers in a hierarchical, government administrative setting. The research has identified a wide variety of specific network management tasks, as public administration scholarship pursues a POSDCORB for public network managers. General categories of public network management and specific network tasks have been identified. Fundamentally, managers must concentrate on actions at the network level. They must pay close attention to the relationships between and among network members, and develop, maintain, or repair interactions

between individuals or organizations. They must be concerned with the overall functioning of the network as an entity in its own right, not simply a collection of member organizations. Finally, managers are responsible for the movement of resources, including information, throughout the network.

The Relevance of Academic Research to Practitioners

Since much of the public administration literature reviewed above was based on empirical research, its relevance to practitioners, the government managers of public service implementation networks, might be presumed. Yet the existence of a disconnect or separation between academic research and practitioner relevance, and prescriptions for bridging or narrowing the differences, are prominent themes in both the public administration and general management literature.

Raadschelders and Lee (2011), in their analysis of articles published between 2000 and 2009 in *Public Administration Review*, identified the academic–practitioner relationship as one of three major themes. Conversely, they also described the decline in the number of practitioner-authored articles during the period. They recommended the relationship as a focus of future research, particularly the extent to which scholarly articles reach, and are relevant to, the practitioner audience. Bushouse et al. (2011) also emphasized the importance of knowing whether academic articles are relevant for practitioners, and, more generally, knowing the sources of practitioner knowledge. Isett et al. (2011) argued that scholars should study practical problems, rather than theoretical issues, in order to engage practitioners (p.169).

There are studies that dispute a separation between academics and practitioners. Englehart (2001) found complementarity between theory and the administrative practice

of managers. Handley (2005) identified common skills and activities, including data analysis and information synthesis. Graffy (2008) described a case study from the U.S. Geological Service in which she developed a conceptual framework to connect the science of water contaminants with the public policy of establishing standards for drinking water. Gibson and Deadrick (2010) compared the topics of articles in two academic and two practitioner journals, and found more convergence than divergence. Hassett and Watson (2002) found congruity between the reasons given by city managers for their long tenure and the findings from the relevant academic literature.

Scholars that identify a separation propose several causes. The issue can be framed as a tradeoff between rigor and relevance, and the resulting separation attributed to the requirements of academic research (Bolton & Stolcis, 2003; Hummel, 1991). Differences may exist as to which administrative actions merit study. Streib, Slotkin, and Rivera (2001) reviewed articles published in *Public Administration Review* between 1984 and 1998 for activities that the International City/County Management Association had independently identified as essential practices for effective government. The results were uneven, with some practices receiving considerable coverage in *PAR* while others were only infrequently studied. Posner (2009) attributed the reasons for disengagement to the differing incentives, traditions, and philosophies of academics and practitioners. Wang, Bunch and Stream (2014) found limited representation of practitioners on the editorial boards of major academic journals. Their interviews with a panel of city and county managers identified access to the academic journals, as well as concerns about relevance, as barriers to utilizing scholarly research.

Public administration is not the only discipline with a perceived academic-practitioner divide. The existence of the separation and the importance of connecting academics and practitioners are also prominent themes in the field of management studies. The rigor versus relevance conflict has been identified in business administration (Vermeulen. 2005) and management studies (McGahan, 2007). Shapiro, Kirkman, and Courtney (2007) described problems related to the transfer and production of knowledge as sources of the disconnect.

 Vermeulen (2005, 2007) and McGahan (2007) offered solutions to the separation. They seek to bridge the gap by showing how academic research can be made relevant to professional managers. Posner (2009) stressed the need for "pracademics" (p.16), individuals who have experience in both academia and professional practice, and can act as boundary spanners. Shapiro, Kirkman, and Courtney (2007) suggested increased collaboration across the professions. Other scholars have focused on refinement of the academic curriculum in order to promote a closer relationship between practitioners and scholars (e.g. Bolton & Stolcis, 2003; Bushouse et al., 2011).

Conclusion

The widely acknowledged distance between scholars and practitioners, and the prospect of narrowing the divide through academic research that is relevant to the practicing manager, underscore the importance of exploring knowledge acquisition by network managers. The tasks and roles identified from the literature review in this chapter can be used to examine the managers' sources and methods. How and from where do they obtain the actionable knowledge to accomplish those roles and tasks?   The literature on information sharing and knowledge transfer is reviewed in the next chapter.

The two chapters will provide the basis for the analysis of the original data obtained

through the survey.

Chapter 3
Knowledge Transfer

Introduction

This chapter continues to build the analytical framework for the study's original research through a literature review of information and knowledge transfer. Chapter 2 provided scholarly perspectives on the tasks and responsibilities of managers of public service networks, and on the importance of relevant scholarship for the practicing public manager. This chapter surveys the richly detailed, if heterogeneous, multidisciplinary literature on information and knowledge transfer. Together, the two chapters provide the foundation for the analysis of the research. This chapter is organized as follows. The components of knowledge or information transfer are introduced, followed by a review of the literatures in public administration, information science, organizational studies, and social network analysis.

The Components of Knowledge Transfer

Several disciplines have contributed to the empirical foundations of knowledge transfer, including information science, organizational studies, and social network analysis. Knowledge transfer can be defined as the acquisition of knowledge by a recipient from a source (Reagans & McEvily, 2003). From differing perspectives and using various methodologies, the principal components have been identified: (a) the knowledge seeker; (b) the knowledge source; (c) the nature of the task, situation or knowledge needed; and (d) the relationship between the source and seeker (see, for example, Agarwal, Xu & Poo, 2011; Xu, Tan &Yang, 2006). Each of these components is briefly summarized.

Source.

An enduring theme in the knowledge transfer literature concerns the attributes of the source that lead to its selection by the seeker. Most research has focused on the accessibility of the source and the quality of the information possessed by the source (for a summary, see Woudstra, Van den Hoof, & Schouten, 2012). The early studies (e.g. Gerstberger & Allen, 1968; O'Reilly, 1982) emphasized the primacy of accessibility. Later studies found source quality to be paramount (e.g. Woudstra & Van den Hooff, 2008; Xu et al., 2006). Another line of research has framed the accessibility versus quality debate as the result of differences in the operationalization of the quality and accessibility constructs (Woudstra et al., 2012), or as the result of contingency factors, including the attributes of the seeker's task and the nature of the information (Xu et al., 2006). While human sources are preferred to impersonal sources (Xu et al., 2006), studies of impersonal sources have found the same quality versus accessibility trade-off (e.g. Zimmer, Henry, & Butler, 2008). And, while quality and accessibility have been the most commonly researched attributes, other source attributes have also been studied, including the motivation for sharing possessed knowledge (Binz-Scharf, Lazer, & Merkel, 2008; Constant, Sproull, & Kiesler, 1996).

Seeker.

The demographic and occupational factors—age, education, job tenure—of the knowledge seeker are considered to be the most relevant to knowledge transfer (Xu et al., 2006). But other attributes have also been researched, including background knowledge, learning orientation, the need for achievement (Agarwal et al., 2011; Gray & Meister, 2004; Xu et al., 2006), and motivation (O'Reilly, 1982; Xu et al., 2011). Furthermore, the

significant attributes of the source, as described above, are based on the seeker's

perceptions (Borgatti & Cross, 2003; Xu et al., 2011).

Nature of the task, situation, or knowledge needed.

While conceptually distinct, the nature of the seeker's task and the type of

knowledge or information needed are often combined in the literature, with the nature of

the task determining the type of information needed (Bystrom & Jarvelin 1995; Xu et al.,

2006). Multiple attributes of the task situation have been studied. Agarwal et al. (2011)

examined the impact of three task attributes—complexity, urgency, and importance—on

the seeker's information need and source selection. They found that only task importance

significantly affected the relative weights the seeker assigned to the quality and

accessibility attributes of a source, with source quality receiving more weight as task

importance increased.

Research from social network analysis has made significant contributions to this

component of knowledge transfer, particularly to the understanding of the nature of the

knowledge needed. In a series of studies (Borgatti, Cross, & Parker, 2001; Cross &

Borgatti, 2003; Cross, et al., 2001; Cross & Sproull, 2004), a group of scholars

developed a five-part typology of the actionable knowledge provided by sources: (a)

information that provides a solution, (b) information that provides referral to personal or

documentary resources,(c) information that facilitates problem reformulation, (d)

information that validates the seeker's proposed solution, and (e) information that

legitimizes, i.e. adds authority to, the proposed solution (Cross et al., 2001).

Relationship between source and seeker.

Social network analysis has also added substantially to the relationship component of the knowledge transfer framework, particularly through research into relationships between two individuals (i.e. dyads), and relationships among multiple individuals (i.e. networks). At both levels, the strength (Granovetter, 1973), number (Kilduff & Tsai, 2003), relational or instrumental nature (Provan, Beagles, Mercken, & Leischow, 2013) of the relationships, as well as the level of trust (Gulati, 1995), have been shown to influence knowledge transfer.

Networks and Knowledge in Public Administration Literature

Knowledge transfer within networks has been studied in the public administration literature. However, most studies have focused on collective learning and knowledge acquisition among the actors of the network (e.g. Gerlak & Heikkila, 2012; Leach, Weibel, Vince, Siddiki, & Calanni, 2014). While the sources of information used by managers for government agency operations have been researched (Jennings & Hall, 2012), few studies have addressed the sources and methods of knowledge acquisition by public network managers.

Knowledge transmission among members of a network has been a research focus for several authors. Moynihan described the embedding of practices and behaviors in a crisis management network through a variety of modalities, including forums, training, and shared experiences (2008, p.351). In several studies, Dawes and colleagues (Dawes, Creswell, & Pardo, 2009; Eglene, Dawes, & Schneider, 2007; Zhang & Dawes, 2006) provided case studies of knowledge networks, defined as voluntary interorganizational groups that share information, processes, and policies for a specific purpose (Zhang & Dawes, 2006, p. 434). This stream of research adds to our understanding of knowledge

and information sharing within a network context, but does not address how managers of public service delivery networks obtain actionable knowledge or information.

In an important study, Weber and Khademian (2008) also focused on knowledge or information transfer at the network level. They identified the key actor for this purpose as the "collaborative capacity builder" (p. 335). The authors described the role of this individual, typically the network manager, as providing the impetus for knowledge transfer through a series of commitments, such as a commitment to collaboration, and a commitment to think creatively (pp. 340-341). While this study focused on the role of the network manager in knowledge transfer within the network, it made assumption that the manager had the knowledge to actualize the commitments.

One recent study does address the sources and methods of knowledge acquisition by managers in a network setting. Through interviews and direct observation, Binz-Scharf et al., (2012) described the knowledge-seeking strategies of a group of government administrators of federal forensic laboratories. The authors found an informal network that operated across the organizational hierarchies of the laboratories. Through this network, the administrators sought advice on complicated or unique laboratory procedures not captured in manuals or other documents, and selected their sources based on laboratory size, source reputation, and the existence of prior relationships. This seminal research begins to identify where and how network managers obtain actionable knowledge, but the network is not designed for public service delivery.

Conclusion

Knowledge or information transfer has been studied by several disciplines at the interpersonal, intra- organizational, and network levels. While research in organizational

studies and information science has focused on the attributes of the seeker, source, and task or information need, network analysis has contributed importantly to understanding the relationship between the seeker and the source.

Although multidisciplinary and heterogeneous, there are areas of consensus in the literature on knowledge transfer. Knowledge seekers prefer personal over impersonal sources. Quality of information and accessibility are the main factors considered when selecting a source. Demographic attributes of the knowledge seeker are highly relevant in the determination of how knowledge is sought. The nature of the transmitted knowledge is critical.

Despite the extensive public administration literature on the tasks and responsibilities of public network managers, the methods and sources used by managers to obtain the information and knowledge they need are understudied. The present study is designed to shed light on this topic, by describing and analyzing the sources and methods used by a specific group of government managers of publicly funded service delivery networks. The research design, methodology, and context are described in the next chapter.

Chapter 4
Research Setting, Design, and Methodology

Introduction

The preceding chapters surveyed the literature in several academic disciplines to provide the framework for this research. Chapter 2 described the tasks of managers of public networks from multiple perspectives, and identified an underdeveloped area of research: how and from where do these public managers obtain the knowledge they need to accomplish network management tasks. In addition, the chapter reviewed the public administration and general management literature and identified the distance between academics and practitioners and the ways to bridge the divide. The research question that drives this thesis was stated, and its importance to the public administration literature was proposed, both in addressing an underdeveloped area of research and as academic research with direct relevance to practitioners.

Chapter 3 described research from public administration, information science, organizational studies, and social network analysis concerning the transfer of knowledge from source to seeker. This research showed the seeker uses several criteria to select a source: (a) the type of knowledge needed, (b) ease of access to the source, and (c) an assessment of whether the source has the knowledge needed.

Drawing on the research discussed in those chapters, this chapter describes the setting, design, data collection methodology, and analytical approach used to answer the research question.

Research Setting

Community Services Block Grant.

The origins of the current Community Services Block Grant (CSBG) are found in the grants made to selected cities in 1961 and 1962 by the Ford Foundation and President Kennedy's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency (Mariss & Rein, 1970; Moynihan, 1969). These grants, intended to combat urban decline and juvenile delinquency, were designed to involve a broad range of participants, including government officials, community leaders, and local residents, in collective community action (Moynihan, 1969). This focus on community action became an integral part the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, the foundation for President Johnson's War on Poverty (Moynihan, 1969).

The program became controversial and was dramatically scaled back during President Nixon's administration (Rumsfeld, 2011). The Community Action Program was among those converted to a formula-based block grant under President Reagan in 1981. CSBG was most recently reauthorized in 1998. The expressed purpose of the grant in its current form is to "…provide assistance to States and local communities, working through a network of community action agencies and other neighborhood-based organizations, for the reduction of poverty, the revitalization of low-income communities, and the empowerment of low-income families and individuals in rural and urban areas to become fully self-sufficient…" (CSBG Act, 1998).

Grant funds are awarded by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (HHS) to the states, seasonal farmworkers' agencies, recognized tribal entities, the District of Columbia, the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, and U.S. territories. A total of $667.9 million was awarded in Federal Fiscal Year 2014, "To support services and

activities for low-income individuals that alleviate the causes and conditions of poverty in communities" (Office of Community Services, CSBG Fact Sheet, 2014). This is accomplished through:

> …services and activities addressing employment, education, household income management, housing, nutrition, emergency services and healthcare. Services most often provided include employment training and placement, income management, education, emergency services, health, nutrition, transportation, and housing assistance, and providing linkages among anti-poverty programs. (Office of Community Services, CSBG Fact Sheet, 2014, Uses Section para, 2).

CSBG State Lead Agencies and Community Action Agencies.

Federal law requires that a state receiving CSBG must designate a state government agency to administer the grant (CSBG Act, 1998). These state offices are commonly identified as CSBG State Lead Agencies (SLAs). These lead agencies are located in various executive departments of state government. HHS annually awards formula-based grants to each state whose application for funding (the State Plan) has been accepted by HHS's Office of Community Services (OCS). OCS provides national oversight and monitoring of CSBG. Federal law defines the public and private organizations, identified as eligible entities, which can receive CSBG funds (CSBG Act, 1998). In every state, nonprofit Community Actions Agencies (CAAs) are the predominant type of eligible entity (National Association of State Community Services Programs, 2013). In most states, the CAAs form a professional association, which may also receive CSBG funds from the SLA or OCS to provide training, technical assistance, or capacity building to the CAAs. The SLAs also have a national professional

association, the National Association of State Community Services Programs (NASCSP), which provides training, technical assistance, and capacity building to the SLAs.

The SLAs must pass through at least 90% of the state's total grant to the eligible entities (CSBG Act, 1998). The federal statute also describes the oversight and monitoring responsibilities of the SLAs with regard to the CAAs (CSBG Act, 1998). The SLAs award grants or sign contracts with the CAAs to provide CSBG-funded services and activities to low-income individuals. Each CAA determines the type and level of services it provides, based on its mission, resources, and local conditions. Five percent of the grant can be used, at the discretion of the SLA, for any of eight purposes identified in the federal statute. Five percent can be used by the state for administration costs (CSBG Act, 1998).

Thus, the SLA in each state has financial and administrative oversight relationships with multiple nonprofit organizations, as well as their association. These relationships can be considered networks (Johnston & Romzek, 2008). The state government managers in these lead agencies are responsible for directing the network in each state. As such, SLAs fit the criteria of Network Administrative Organizations (NAOs) as described by Provan and Kenis (2008): an externally governed organization, which does not itself provide services, but is responsible for network governance (p. 236). Each state network, in turn, is nested in the national intergovernmental network, with OCS serving as that network's NAO. Figure 1 depicts this multi-sectoral and multilayered network.

These state government employees, the program managers in the SLAs, are key actors in multiple vertical and horizontal relationships (Cooper, 2003). They must be

responsive to the directives of the federal oversight agency, OCS. They are part of their

state's administrative structure and processes, and must follow those regulations and

requirements. Through agreements or contracts, they also administer the network of

CAAs and their association, by providing financial, administrative and program

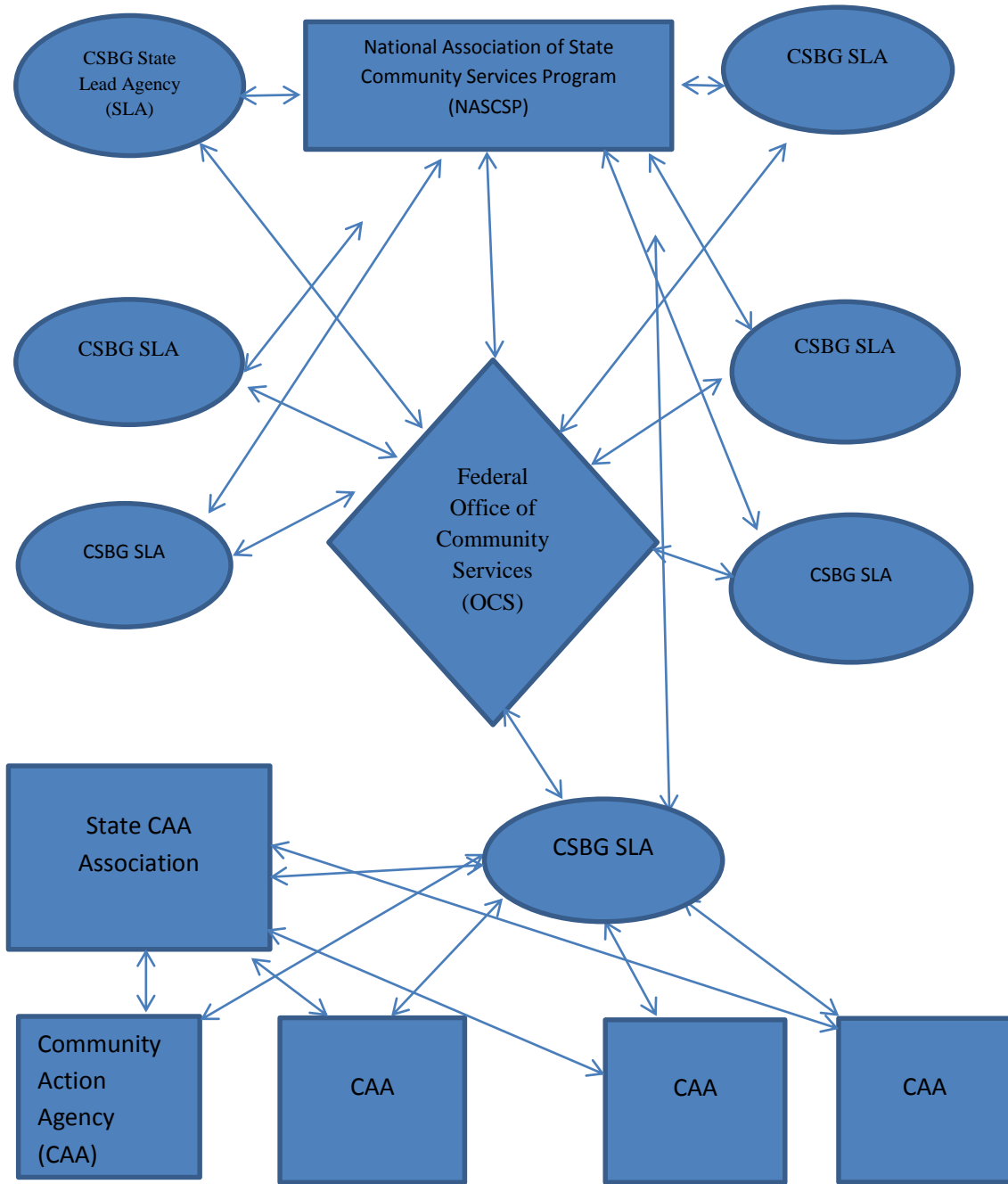oversight.

Figure 1. The CSBG National Network

Figure 1. Schematic Diagram of National CSBG Network and Relationships. The federal Office of Community Services (OCS) provides national level oversight to the CSBG State Lead Agencies (SLA), and supports NASCSP, the Association of SLAs. Each SLA provides state level oversight to the Community Action Agencies (CAAs) and Association in the State.

Research Design and Methodology

Using a specific group of public network managers, the study is designed to derive data on the sources and methods of knowledge acquisition. Quantitative data was collected by a survey questionnaire sent to the study population. The research focus is exploratory. As such, there is no overarching theoretical perspective. Future research may use the findings to build theory.

Survey.

Study population.

The study population was identified using a publicly available list of CSBG State Contacts maintained by the National Association of State Community Services Programs (NASCSP), the professional organization that represents the CSBG SLAs. Many states identified multiple individuals; in these cases, the individual whose title included or most closely approximated the term *Program Manager* was contacted.

An email containing a link to the survey was sent to fifty CSBG Contacts in April 2013[1]. A follow up email, including the original consent letter and survey link, was sent in May, 2013. The second wave of surveys was sent in February, 2014 to 10 CSBG individuals who had not previously been contacted. Nearly all of these second-wave recipients were new CSBG program managers. A follow-up notice, again including the consent letter and link to the survey, was sent to the second wave in March 2014.

---

[1] The email was not sent to the two state managers that participated in the pilot study. The CSBG contact for the District of Columbia was included in the study population. The initial email to one state contact was returned as undeliverable, so an email was sent to another CSBG contact from that state.

Type.

Access to the digital survey (Sue & Ritter, 2012) was sent by email to each member of the study population. The email identified the author, purpose, research question, and included the consent language approved by the University of New Mexico Institutional Review Board. A hyperlink to the survey followed the consent language. Survey design, format, and follow-up drew from Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2009), and Sue and Ritter (2012). Each respondent electronically submitted the completed survey to a password protected server.

Content.

Most of the survey questions were drawn from the literature or were developed by the author, who works in the New Mexico CSBG SLA and has knowledge of CSBG and experience in state-level program administration. The survey was piloted with two CSBG State program managers, and their comments were considered in developing the final version. The survey was comprised of 24 questions. Seven captured occupational and demographic information, including current job title and administrative duties, gender, age, level of education, years of experience in the CSBG program and in the current position, and the number of CAAs in the state network. Respondents were then provided with a list of CSBG network management tasks and asked to describe the frequency with which they performed each task. The list, devised by the author, included program-specific examples of the network management tasks and roles identified from the literature review in Chapter 2. Respondents could add tasks that were not listed. Task frequency was measured by an ordinal scale of *never, rarely, occasionally and*

frequently. Percentage–based definitions were provided for the scale, e.g. *frequently* was described as more than 33% of the time. The survey is provided in the Appendix.

Next, the respondents were asked to identify the most frequently performed and the most complex task from the list. Again, respondents could add tasks that did not appear on the list. For the most frequently performed and most complex task, the survey identified a range of personal and impersonal sources of information and asked the respondents to describe the frequency with which they used those sources, using the same ordinal scale. Personal sources included colleagues or staff members within their state administration, and individuals in the national CSBG network, such as a CSBG program manager in another state, a member of NASCSP, a CAA, or the CAA association. Impersonal sources included internal procedural manuals, federal documents, the Internet, and practitioner or academic journals. Several titles of academic and practitioner journals were provided as examples. Respondents could also identify a personal or impersonal that was not listed.

Respondents who selected a personal source of information for either task were asked to identify up to five individuals, using the free recall method. The reasons for the selection were solicited, with the choices derived from the quality and accessibility perspectives for knowledge sources described in Chapter 3. The respondents were also asked to describe the nature of the information provided by the person(s), using the typology developed by Cross and others (Borgatti et al., 2001; Cross et al., 2001; Cross & Borgatti, 2003; Cross & Sproull, 2004), also discussed in Chapter 3.

Respondents who selected the Internet or a journal as an impersonal source of knowledge for either the most frequently performed or most complex network managerial task, were asked to identify the specific website or journal title.

Near the end of the survey, the respondents were given the opportunity to provide free-form comments regarding the resources they use to obtain the information and knowledge needed to perform their jobs.

Data Analysis.

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the demographic data of the respondents. Spearman's rho, a measure of association appropriate for ordinal data, was used explore relationships between selected demographic variables and the use of personal and impersonal sources of information.

Chapter 5
Survey Results and Analysis

Introduction

This chapter describes and analyzes the survey responses of the State CSBG

program managers to determine the sources and methods they use to obtain the

knowledge they need to manage their CSBG service delivery networks. The chapter is

organized as follows. First, the demographic factors of the survey respondents are

described. Next, the types of activities they perform are catalogued. The most frequently

performed and most complex tasks, as identified by the respondents, are listed, as are the

sources used to obtain actionable knowledge about those tasks. Then, additional detail

about the personal sources of knowledge is provided, specifically, the reasons for

selecting the source and the type of knowledge received. Spearman's rho, a statistical

operation appropriate for ordinal level variables, is used to calculate measures of

association between selected demographic factors or network size, and the choice of

personal and impersonal sources of knowledge. The survey is provided in the Appendix.

Survey Results

As described in chapter 4, a total of 60 emails with survey links were sent in two

waves. Eighteen surveys were received for a response rate of 30 %.

Table 1 describes the demographic and occupational characteristics of the

respondents. Fifteen of the respondents, or 83%, were directly responsible for managing

the CSBG service delivery network. Fourteen of the respondents, almost 78%, were

women. Nearly 67% had taken postgraduate courses or had postgraduate degrees. More

than 60% had been in their current position for five years or less. Table 2 shows the

number of Community Action Agencies (CAAs) in respondents' State networks. The

CSBG State Lead Agencies (SLAs) of 44 % of the respondents provided funding to 10 or fewer CAAs, while nearly 39% provided funding to more than 20 CAAs.

The extent to which the demographic profile of the survey respondents is representative of the population of CSBG program managers is uncertain given the low response rate (Fowler, 2009). However, the present author is unaware of any source that aggregates the demographic data of CSBG managers. Nonetheless, the gender and experience levels of the CSBG contacts in the second wave provide some support for the representativeness of the profile. Of the ten new CSBG contacts that received emails, eight, or 80%, were women. Furthermore, the number of new CSBG contacts was approximately 20 % of the total number of contacts for all 50 states and the District of Columbia. These percentages are consistent with the percentage of survey respondents new to their current position, and the percentage who were women.

Data on the number of CAAs in each state's CSBG network is available and can be compared to the survey results in Table 2. The survey underrepresents the percentage of states whose CAA total is within four of the five survey intervals. In the 21 to 30 CAA interval, the survey results approximate nationally aggregated data.[2]

---

[2] The national percentages for the intervals in the survey are as follows: 1-5 (17.6%), 6-10(19.6%), 11-20(31.4%), and 21-30 (15.7%), 31 or more (15.7%). NASCSP 2013 Annual Survey, Appendix 4

Table 1
Demographic and Occupational Profile of Survey Respondents
(N=18)

Category	No.	%	Mean	Range
Gender				
Women	14	77.8		
Men	4	22.2		
Age[a]	14		52.6	34-69
Position				
CSBG Manager	9	50		
Manager of CSBG and other programs	6	33.3		
Bureau, Section, or Division Chief to whom CSBG Manager reports	2	11.1		
CSBG Specialist	1	5.5		
Years worked current position				
Less than 1	4	22.2		
1 to 5	7	38.8		
6 to 10	2	11.1		
More than 10	5	27.7		
Years worked CSBG Program				
Less than 1	2	11.1		
1 to 5	7	38.8		
6 to 10	2	11.1		
More than 10	7	38.8		
Education level completed				
Some College	2	11.1		
College degree	4	22.2		
Some Graduate course work	2	11.1		
Master's degree	9	50.0		
PhD	1	5.5		

[a] Four women did not provide their ages

Table 2
Size of State CSBG Networks

No. of CAAs in the State CSBG Network	No. of SLAs (N=18)	% of Respondents
1to 5	2	11.1%
6 to 10	6	33.3%
11 to 20	3	16.6%
21 to 30	3	16.6%
31 or more	4	22.2%

Note. CAAs = Community Action Agencies. SLAs= State Lead Agencies.

Survey respondents rated the frequency with which they performed common

CSBG network managerial tasks. Respondents were asked to add and rate tasks that

were not listed. Table 3 identifies the tasks and performance frequencies. Review of the

task frequencies shows that CSBG managers spend most of their time in activities with

CAAs. Contract negotiations, performance monitoring, administrative reviews, and

training or technical assistance comprise the most frequently performed tasks. By

contrast, program managers spend very little time in administrative review with the

federal funding source, or in monitoring the State's CAA Association. They also spend

limited time preparing reports for their state administration offices. Interestingly, more

than 80% of the responding managers reported that resolving conflict among CAAs was

never or only rarely performed. As described in Chapter 2, the importance of managing

network interactions is a prominent theme in the public administration literature (Kickert

et al., 1997). There may be several explanations for this survey result. The SLA may

unaware of conflict between CAAs. Or, network relationships among CAAs may not be

conflictual. This could occur if resource allocation was not the result of competitive

processes. The respondents also reported that monitoring of Corrective Action Plans, was

infrequently performed.

Table 3
Performance Frequency (%) of Selected Tasks by Respondents
(N=18)

Task	Never	Rarely (Up to 10%)	Occasionally (11% to 33%)	Frequently (More than 33%)
Prepare reports for the state administration office	11.1%	33.3%	38.9%	16.7%
Reviewing/Negotiating contract issues with CAAs	0.0%	27.8%	33.3%	38.9%
Monitoring CAA financial or program performance	0.0%	5.6%	44.4%	50.0%
Resolving administrative issues with the federal oversight agency	5.6%	77.8%	5.6%	11%
Monitoring the financial or programmatic performance of the CAA Association	11.1%	50.0%	27.8%	11.1%
Reviewing administrative issues with a CAA or the Association	0.0%	16.7%	50.0%	33.3%
Providing state or federal executive or legislative branch updates to CAAs/Association	5.6%	27.8%	50.0%	16.6%
Implementing or Monitoring a Corrective Action Plan for a CAA	5.6%	55.5%	38.9%	0.0%
Resolving conflict between or among CAAs	50.0%	38.9%	11.1%	0.0%
Providing technical assistance to the Association	5.6%	44.4%	33.3%	16.7%
Enhancing relationships among CAAs	5.6%	50.0%	16.7%	27.8%
Providing CAAs training or technical assistance	5.6%	11.1%	44.4%	38.9%
Providing staff oversight[a]	0	0	0	100%

[a] Respondents were asked to identify any tasks that were not listed and the frequency of performance. Two respondents identified this task and described identical frequency of performance.

No respondent performed this task frequently, while slightly more than 60% never or only rarely performed it.

Having described the frequencies with which a range of managerial tasks were performed, respondents were then asked to select the most frequently performed and most complex tasks from the list, or from any additional tasks they had identified. As described below, these tasks were used to determine the sources of actionable knowledge for the respondents. Table 4 displays the results for both task types. Two tasks, evaluating the financial and programmatic performance of the CAAs, and providing training and technical assistance, were selected as the most frequently performed and the most complex. These responses corroborate the results displayed in Table 3 and provide further support that CSBG managers spend most of their time in activities within the service delivery network. Chapter 4 described the State Lead Agencies, the units of state government in which the CSBG program managers are located, as Network Administrative Organizations (Provan & Kenis, 2008). The tasks and task frequencies identified by the CSBG managers appear to be consistent with the expected roles of members of the NAO, i.e., the development of task specific network competencies (Provan & Kenis, 2008).

For the most frequently performed and most complex tasks that they selected, the respondents were provided with lists of personal and impersonal sources and asked to rate the frequency with which they obtained information from each source. The lists were developed by the author. Respondents could identify additional sources. Two tables depict the personal and impersonal sources that respondents used frequently (that is, more than 33% of the time) to obtain the knowledge necessary to perform the selected tasks.

Table 5 describes the personal sources for the tasks. Table 6 identifies the impersonal

sources.

Table 4
Most Frequently Performed and Most Complex Tasks

Most frequently performed tasks	% of Respondents selecting task (N=17)
Monitoring CAA financial or program performance	41%
Providing training or technical assistance to CAAs	24%
Reviewing or negotiating CAA contractual issues	18%
Other[a]	17%
Most complex tasks	**% of Respondents selecting task (N=14)**
Monitoring CAA financial or program performance	50%
Providing training or technical assistance to CAAs	14%
Understanding the CSBG Statute and program	14%
Other[b]	22%

Note. One respondent did not identify the most frequently performed task. Four respondents did not identify the most complex task.

[a] Analyzing and tracking payment data, and updating documents and plans for CAAs, were each selected by one respondent.

[b] Reviewing or negotiating CAA contractual issues, reviewing administrative issues with the CAAs or Association, and providing funding during Continuing Resolutions were each selected by one respondent.

Review of the personal sources for both types of tasks shows that staff members

are the predominant choice for actionable knowledge or information. Other personal

sources, including professional colleagues not affiliated with CSBG, are used more

regularly for the most frequently performed tasks than for the most complex. Particularly

noteworthy is that CSBG managers in other states are infrequently used. Unlike the

federal forensic laboratory managers studied by Binz-Scharf et al. (2012) and the

extensive research on Communities of Practice (Snyder & de Souza Briggs, 2003), which

depict informal networks of professional colleagues sharing knowledge across

organizational boundaries, the survey respondents prefer to use sources within their state

government agencies. The infrequent use of individuals from the federal office

responsible for funding and program oversight, the Office of Community Services

(OCS), a component of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, is also

noteworthy. Possible explanations could include difficulty contacting the federal official

assigned to the state's program, reluctance by state CSBG managers to reveal their

knowledge deficits to the federal oversight agency, or a lack of confidence by the

managers in the quality of federal office information.

Table 5
Personal Sources for most frequently performed and complex tasks

	# of times respondents identified source as frequently used (more than 33%)					
Task	**Staff Member**	**Professional Colleague**	**Someone in another CSBG Office**	**Someone in the federal office**	**Someone from NASCSP**	**Someone from a CAA or the Association**
Most frequent						
Evaluating the performance of CAAs	4	1	1		1	1
Providing Training and technical assistance	4	2		1	1	1
Reviewing Contractual Issues	2					
Most complex						
Evaluating the performance of CAAs	4					1
Providing Training and technical assistance	1		1			
Understanding the CSBG Statute and program					1	

Table 6
Impersonal Sources used for most frequently performed and most complex tasks

# of times respondents identified source as frequently used (more than 33% of the time)				
Task	State Policy and Procedure manual	Websites of professional organizations, such as NASCSP	Federal documents, such as the statute, Memoranda	Practitioner journals
Most frequent				
Evaluating the performance of CAAs	3	1	4	1
Providing Training and technical assistance	4	1	3	
Reviewing Contractual Issues	1	2	2	
Most complex				
Evaluating the performance of CAAs	4		3	
Providing Training and technical assistance	1	2	1	
Understanding the CSBG Program, and Statute	1	1	2	

Table 6 describes the impersonal sources frequently used for actionable

knowledge. While state policy and procedural manuals are commonly used, federal

documents, such as the authorizing CSBG statute and OCS Informational Memoranda,

which provide operational guidance, are also consulted regularly. Internet sources,

including the website of NASCSP, the professional organization of State Lead Agencies,

are used infrequently. Practitioner journals are rarely used. Academic journals do not

appear in the table because they were not identified as a frequently used source for either the most frequently performed or most complex task.

Considering the personal and impersonal sources identified by the respondents, it appears that they favor sources from within their state government's administrative offices. The personal sources are most often staff members or state professional colleagues. State-specific impersonal sources, i.e. internal policy and procedure manuals, are also prominent sources, as are federal documents, such as the CSBG authorizing statute and operational guidance. Since these managers administer a federal block grant, the use of federal documents is understandable. Yet federal personal sources are infrequently used. Possible explanations for the infrequent use of federal personal sources have been described above. This contrasting frequency of use between federal documents and federal agency staff may have several explanations. The federal documents may be perceived as accessible, comprehensive, and understandable references. The extra time and effort required for personal contact may not be necessary. Alternatively, federal personal sources may be perceived as difficult to reach or not authoritative, as suggested above. Or, the CSBG managers may be reluctant to reveal their knowledge deficits to the managers in the federal oversight agency. Neither practitioner nor academic journals are used to any significant extent by the responding state managers.

Only one respondent identified a practitioner journal as a frequently used source for evaluating the performance of CAAs. No respondent frequently used an academic journal. This may be attributable to the respondents, who may be unaware of these sources, or attributable to the journals, if these resources are perceived as unhelpful or

irrelevant. The relevance of academic research to practicing public administrators and managers was discussed in Chapter 1.   Several studies have mentioned the importance of knowing the information sources used by practitioners and, in particular, whether public administration scholarship is used (Bushouse et al., 2011; Raadschelders and Lee, 2011). The state managers of the CSBG networks who participated in this survey do not regularly utilize academic research.

Personal sources.

As described in Chapter 3, although personal sources are preferred to impersonal sources (Xu et al., 2006) accessibility and information quality are the major reasons for selecting both personal and impersonal sources (e.g. Gerstberger & Allen, 1968; O'Reilly, 1982; Woudstra & Van den Hooff, 2008; Xu et al., 2006;Zimmer, Henry, & Butler, 2008). The survey asked respondents that identified a personal source for either the most frequently performed or most complex task to describe the reasons for the selection. The survey included reasons drawn from the literature discussed in Chapter 3, (Borgatti et al., 2001; Cross et al., 2001; Cross & Borgatti, 2003; Cross and Sproull, 2004).   Respondents could select multiple reasons, and could identify other reasons that were not listed. Table 7 displays the results.

The survey results are consistent with the research cited in Chapter 3. Sources are selected for the quality of their knowledge, their accessibility, and the comfort level of the seeker in asking the source. For this small group of public managers, it appears that the selection of a personal source is based on several factors, with the quality of the information ranked as slightly more important than the accessibility of the source.

Table 7
Respondent Reasons for Personal Source Use
(N=14)

Reason	# of times mentioned
The respondent believes the source has the information needed	14
The respondent can reach the source quickly and easily	12
The respondent feels comfortable asking the source	10
Other	0

Note. Four respondents did not answer this survey question. Respondents were permitted to select multiple reasons.

The same group of scholars who studied the reasons for personal source selection also developed a typology of the actionable knowledge provided by those sources (Borgatti et al., 2001; Cross et al., 2001; Cross & Borgatti, 2003; Cross and Sproull, 2004). Drawing on that research, survey respondents were asked to identify the type of information received from the personal source. Respondents could select multiple types from the list provided, and could enter a type that was not listed. Those results appear in Table 8. The results demonstrate that the personal sources provided several types of information. Fourteen of the fifteen respondents received the type of information needed from the personal sources they used. Less frequently, the sources provided context about the information needed or referred the respondents to another source.

The results described in Tables 7 and 8 indicate that CSBG state network managers select personal sources primarily for the specific actionable knowledge needed to perform the task. Access to and comfort with the source are cited less frequently as reasons for personal source selection. In nearly all cases, the type of information received from the source is the specific information needed for the task. An understanding of the

type of information needed or a referral to another source, are also provided by the

selected personal source.

Table 8
Types of Information Obtained from Personal Sources
(N=15)

Type	# of times mentioned
The specific information needed for the task	14
A referral to another person, document, or source that will have the information	8
An understanding of the kind of information needed	10
Other	0

Note. Three respondents did not answer this survey question. Respondents were permitted to select multiple reasons.

Impersonal sources.

Respondents were also asked to identify the websites, practitioner journals, and

academic journals they used to obtain information for the most frequent or most complex

task they identified. Table 9 shows the survey results for Internet sites. The website of the

association representing State Lead Agencies, NASCSP, was the most frequently

accessed, followed by the federal oversight agency's website and that of a nonprofit

organization that provides legal services and information to State Lead Agencies and

Community Action Agencies (CAPLAW).

Only one respondent identified practitioner or academic journals as sources of

actionable knowledge for their network administrative duties. This respondent mentioned

Governing, *Government Technology, Nonprofit Quarterly,* and *Public Management*

Review. As previously mentioned, the very infrequent use of journals is a significant

finding, even for this small N survey. It may be that these CSBG managers are unaware

of the academic resources. But, as Table 1 described, more than 50 % of the survey

respondents had advanced degrees. It is reasonable to presume that these managers would

be aware of available practitioner and academic resources. Alternatively, it may be that

these resources are not viewed as sources of actionable knowledge for network

administrative duties; that is, the resources are not perceived as relevant.

Table 9
Internet sites used for most frequent or most complex task
  (N=10)

Internet Site	# times identified
NASCSP (National Association of State Community Services Programs), representing State Lead Agencies	7
CAPLAW (Community Action Legal Services)	3
OCS (Office of Community Services), the federal oversight office	3
Other[a]	3

Note. Eight respondents did not answer this survey question.
[a] The websites of the National Community Action Foundation, the State of Nebraska, and Google were identified by one respondent.

Measures of Association

The survey captured nominal and ordinal level data from the respondents.

Spearman's rho was used to calculate ordinal measures of association. This operation

creates a correlation coefficient for two rank ordered variables (Jacobson, 1976). The

associations between selected demographic factors and the choice of personal and

impersonal sources of knowledge were calculated, as were associations between network

size and personal and impersonal source selection.

The ordinal scales for the following demographic and occupational variables were

transformed into numeric values: (a) respondent education, (b) number of years in the

current position, (c) years of experience in the CSBG program, (d) number of CAAs in the state network, For example, for level of education, the response *Some College* was transformed to a 1, *College Degree* became a 2, *Some graduate-level course work* became a 3, and so on. For the number of years in the current position, *Less than 1 year* was transformed to 1, *From one to five years* became 2, and so on. For the personal and impersonal knowledge sources, an index was created for each category. The survey had asked the respondents to describe the frequency with which they sought information from specific personal or impersonal sources. Six personal sources and five impersonal sources were identified. (See Tables 8 and 9 above.) The frequency of use responses (i.e. never, rarely, occasionally, or frequently) were transformed into numeric values (i.e. 0, 1, 2, or 3). The transformed values were summed to create an index for the personal and impersonal sources. Since the impersonal category was comprised of only five specific sources, a score for a sixth impersonal source was created. The average of the total numeric score for the impersonal sources was divided by five, yielding 1.472. This result was them rounded to 1.5 and added to each of the respondent's numeric scores for impersonal source. As a result, the index for each knowledge source category was comprised of six sources.

The associations between these possible explanatory variables and the personal and impersonal source indices were calculated using Spearman's rho. Table 10 shows the results. Extremely weak relationships are described, none of which are significant, even at the p=.10 level (Kenny, 1987, p.370). These very weak relationships between respondent demographic factors and the use of personal sources are negative, while the relationships between respondents' level of education and time in current CSBG position

with impersonal sources are positive. Network size is positively, albeit very weakly, related to the use of both personal and impersonal sources. Despite the weakness of the relationships and small sample size, these are intriguing findings. They suggest that this group of network managers may not develop knowledge sharing relationships as a result of their years of experience in the CSBG program, but rather that ties are the related to the relative size of the state's CSBG network.

Table 10

Measures of Association using Spearman's rho

	Personal source index	**Impersonal source index**
Level of Education	-0.0614	0.0887
# yrs. in current CSBG position	-0.1656	0.0283
# yrs. working in CSBG program	-0.1124	-0.0485
# of CAAs in the State CSBG network	0.1346	0.1351

Discussion

The survey results provide a demographic, occupational, and knowledge acquisition profile of a small group of state government employees who manage public service delivery networks. Most of these CSBG managers have advanced degrees. Although the size of the networks vary, the managers spend most of their time providing training and assistance, and programmatic, and financial oversight, activities consistent with a Network Administrative Organization (NAO). Perhaps most significantly, the personal sources used by the managers to obtain actionable knowledge are predominantly staff or professional colleagues within their state government. CSBG managers in other

states are sought out far less frequently. This finding is in contrast to other studies (Binz-Scharf et al., 2012; Snyder & deSouza Briggs, 2003) that found informal networks of professionals spanning organizational hierarchies. Among impersonal sources, state policy and procedure manuals and authoritative federal documents, such as the authorizing statute and operational memoranda, are used most often. Significantly, academic journals are rarely consulted**.** Statistical measures of association appropriate for ordinal data indicate extremely weak, generally negative, relationships between selected occupational and demographic data and source use. Although weak, a consistent positive relationship was found between the number of funded agencies in a state's network, and the use of personal and impersonal sources.

Chapter 6
Conclusion, Limitations, Future Research

Public administration scholarship has identified the importance of knowing the resources used by practitioners, the individuals that staff government agencies, implement policies, and are responsible for the management of public service delivery networks. This knowledge equips academics to be responsive to the needs of practitioners, and providing what Bushouse et al. (2011) have described as Engaged Scholarship (i101).

The research described in this study was designed to add to the emerging literature on the sources and methods of knowledge acquisition by public service delivery network managers. The surveyed state managers are responsible for providing financial and programmatic oversight of networks of public and nonprofit agencies that provide federally-funded services to low-income individuals. Each state network is embedded in a national network comprised of the federal administrative agency, states, U.S territories, federally recognized tribes, local service providers, and national associations. These networks are the pathways for the federal block grant funding and services that comprise this study's research setting, the Community Services Block Grant (CSBG).

The survey provided new information on the sources and methods of knowledge acquisition by a small group of network managers. Many of the survey results were consistent with the literatures from several disciplines, including public administration. Other results were at variance with prior research.

Given their governance position in Network Administrative Organizations (Provan & Milward, 2008), the managers spent most of their time in network activities, engaged in oversight of the nonprofit agencies that receive CSBG funding. They provide

oversight, training and technical assistance, administrative review, and information to the Community Action Agencies that receive CSBG funds. These activities can be considered the horizontal management tasks required to manage service delivery networks (Milward & Provan, 2006).

In their search for actionable knowledge, these managers prefer personal sources, especially those individuals who are perceived to have the knowledge or information needed for the task at hand. However, the accessibility of, and comfort level with, the source are also important considerations. The information or knowledge received is most often specific and actionable, although referrals to another source and contextual information are also communicated. These survey results—the type of source preferred, the reasons a source is used, and the nature of the information provided—follow the established literature in social network analysis and information studies (Borgatti et al., 2001; Cross et al., 2001; Cross & Borgatti, 2003; Cross and Sproull, 2004; Xu et al., 2006; Xu et al., 2011).

But these public network managers prefer to look within their respective state administrative organizations for the actionable knowledge. Personal sources are predominantly staff members or professional colleagues within the state bureaucracy. CSBG network managers in other states are infrequently sought out. These are significant findings, contrary to the extensive literature on Communities of Practice (Snyder & de Souza Briggs, 2003) and the developing literature on informal knowledge networks in public administration (Binz-Scharf et al., 2012). There are at least two possible explanations for this preference for sources within the state administrative structure. The network managers' organizational relationships may be stronger that their functional,

CSBG network relationships. Alternatively, the mechanisms of state oversight of the CSBG network, that is, the regulations, administrative codes, or operating procedures, may be highly specific and complex, such that only personal sources that are familiar with them are considered to be useful.

Personal sources at the federal oversight agency are also rarely used. Possible reasons for this infrequent contact include lack of access, low comfort level, and concerns about the accuracy or quality of the information provided.

Impersonal sources, consisting of procedural manuals, legal documents, and authoritative operational guidance from both state and federal sources were frequently used. Significantly, practitioner and academic journals were rarely used. Only one respondent identified several journals as sources of information. Considering the education level of the survey respondents, journals may not be used because they are not perceived as relevant or productive sources of actionable knowledge for network management tasks. Regardless of the reason, the near absence of academic journals from the list of knowledge sources for these respondents sources is concerning.

Finally, quantitative analysis of the survey results, using statistical techniques appropriate for nominal and ordinal level data, found very weak, statistically insignificant relationships between demographic and occupational factors (level of education, length of time in current position, and length of time working in the CSBG program) and the use of personal or impersonal sources. Interestingly, weak, but positive correlations were found between the number of agencies in the state network and use of both personal and impersonal sources.

Limitations

The research conducted for this thesis has significant limitations. The size of the sample, the related concern regarding representativeness, and the problem of common method bias will be discussed briefly.

The survey results are drawn from a small sample of managers. The survey was sent to a designated CSBG contact in each state and the District of Columbia, with the exception of the two CSBG managers who participated in the pilot study. Eighteen individuals submitted responses, for a response rate of 30%. Furthermore, some respondents did not fully complete the survey, and did not provide responses to several key questions. While response rate is not a consistently reliable indicator of survey quality (Fowler, 2009; Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014), a low response rate can lead to concern regarding the impact of nonresponse error. Yet nonresponse error can be difficult to determine, and can vary within a specific survey (Fowler, 2009). As mentioned in Chapter 5, the gender and CSBG tenure of the 10 CSBG contacts who received the second wave of surveys in February 2014 were consistent with those characteristics of the respondents.

This research is also vulnerable to error due to common method bias, a form of measurement error that can occur when variances in the constructs are the result of a common measurement process rather than intrinsic differences (Meier & O'Toole, 2013; Podsakoff et al., 2003). In the present study, all the results derived from a single internet survey. A mixed-method approach, utilizing semi-structured interviews to provide qualitative data, could have addressed the bias problem, and would have added nuance and richness. Resource and time constraints prohibited a mixed-method research design.

Despite these limitations, this study contributes to the scholarship regarding public network management. It begins to address an acknowledged gap in public administration research: the resources used by government practitioners to obtain the knowledge needed to perform network administrative tasks. It provides important insights on the perceived relevance of academic journal articles to the management of a specific public service delivery network. It expands existing research on knowledge transfer to an occupation not previously studied.

Future Research

Mixed-method research of public service delivery network managers would add to the public administration literature in a way that could increase its relevance to government practitioners. The results of these case studies could lead to new research streams. While the current study focused on one type of nonprofit agency, the Community Action Agency, there are other types of agencies, including units of local government, which receive funding from CSBG State Lead Agencies. Do different network actors result in different network management tasks and different sources and methods of knowledge?

Comparative studies could investigate the similarities and differences across different service delivery networks to determine the impact of program or policy factors on network management and task-based knowledge. For example, how do the knowledge sources and methods of state administrators of networks of private and nonprofit job training agencies compare to those of managers of public food distribution networks?

Finally, future studies could use social network analysis to describe the multiplex relationships state managers have within state organizational structures and across the

national network and the state networks. This research could provide insights into the

dissemination of best practices.

Appendix

Sources and Methods**:** Survey of Knowledge Acquisition by CSBG State Staff

Sources and Methods: Survey of Knowledge Acquisition by CSBG State Staff

Thank you for your willingness to complete this survey. There are 24 questions. No question requires an answer, but please consider answering each question. The questions attempt to capture demographic information about you and how you seek out the information or knowledge you need to manage a network of CSBG funded organizations. Please submit only one completed survey. Completing more than one survey will adversely affect the validity of the results.

1. Please select the radio button corresponding to the job title that best describes your position in the program. If you select 'Other', please provide a description.

○ CSBG Program manager
○ Program manager for CSBG and other programs
○ Bureau, Section, or Division Chief to whom the CSBG program manager reports
○ Other: _____

2. Please select the radio button corresponding to the number of years you have held your current position.

○ Less than 1 year
○ From 1 to 5 years
○ From 6 to 10 years
○ More than 10 years

3. Please select the radio button corresponding to the number of years you have worked in the CSBG program.

○ Less than 1 year
○ From 1 to 5 years
○ From 6 to 10 years
○ More than 10 years

4. Please select the radio button corresponding to your educational level.

○ High School graduate
○ Some College
○ College Degree
○ Some graduate-level course work

○ Master's degree
○ PhD Degree

5. Please identify your gender by selecting the corresponding radio button.
○ Male
○ Female

6. Please identify the year you were born.

[   ]

7. Please select the radio button corresponding to the number of Community Action Agencies (CAAs) that receive CSBG funding through your CSBG State Office.
○ Five or fewer
○ six to ten
○ eleven to twenty
○ twenty-one to thirty
○ More than thirty-one

8. Of the time you spend working on CSBG program issues, how often do you perform the following tasks? Please select the corresponding radio button for each task. If you perform a task that is not listed, please also answer Question #9.

	Frequently (More than 33% of the time)	Occasionally (From 11% to 33% of the time)	Rarely (Up to 10% of the time)	Never
Preparing financial or program reports for your state administrative office	○	○	○	○
Reviewing or negotiating contractual issues with CAAs	○	○	○	○
Evaluating the financial or program performance of CAAs through monitoring activities or report reviews	○	○	○	○
Resolving CSBG administrative issues with the federal Office of Community Services	○	○	○	○
Evaluating the financial and program performance of the CAA Association through	○	○	○	○

	Frequently (More than 33% of the time)	Occasionally (From 11% to 33% of the time)	Rarely (Up to 10% of the time)	Never
monitoring activities or report reviews				
Reviewing administrative issues with CAAs or their association	○	○	○	○
Providing state or federal legislative or executive branch updates to CAAs or their association	○	○	○	○
Implementing and monitoring a Corrective Action Plan for a CAA	○	○	○	○
Resolving Conflict between or among CAAs	○	○	○	○
Providing technical assistance to the CAA Association	○	○	○	○
Developing or Enhancing relationships between or among CAAs	○	○	○	○
Providing training or technical assistance to CAAs	○	○	○	○
Implementing and monitoring a plan to improve the operational capacity of the CAA Association	○	○	○	○

9. Please use the space below to describe any CSBG task that was not identified above. Please also describe how often you perform the task.

For example: I provide program briefings to state legislators or their staffs on an occasional basis

10. From the CSBG tasks identified in Question #8 and Question #9, please enter in the space below the task you perform most frequently.

11. For this most frequently performed CSBG task, please describe how often you use the following sources to obtain the information or knowledge you need to perform the task. If you obtain information or knowledge from a source that is not listed, please also answer Question #12.

	Frequently (More than 33% of the time)	Occasionally (From 11% to 33% of the time)	Rarely (Up to 10% of the time)	Never
Someone on your staff	O	O	O	O
A professional colleague who does not report to you	O	O	O	O
Someone in another CSBG State Office	O	O	O	O
Someone from the federal Office of Community Services	O	O	O	O
Someone from NASCSP	O	O	O	O
Someone from a CAA or the CAA Association	O	O	O	O
Your state's Program or Procedures Manual	O	O	O	O
The Internet websites of professional organizations, including NASCSP	O	O	O	O
Federal documents , such as the CSBG Statute, Information Memoranda, Model State Plan,etc	O	O	O	O
Practitioner journals, such as Public Manager,Governing, Harvard Business Review	O	O	O	O
Academic journals, such as Public Administration Review , Public Management Review, Academy of Management Journal	O	O	O	O

12. Please use the space below to describe any source of Information you use that was not mentioned in Question #11. Please also describe how often you use this source.

For example: My neighbor is a retired state administrator. I frequently ask his advice about the best way to provide program information to state legislators.

13. From the CSBG tasks identified in Question #8, and Question # 9 above, please enter in the space below the task you believe to be the most complex.

14. For this most complex CSBG task, please describe how often you use the following sources to obtain the information or knowledge you need to perform the task. If you obtain information or knowledge from a source that is not listed, please also answer Question #15.

	Frequently (More than 33% of the time)	Occasionally (From 11% to 33% of the time)	Rarely (Up to 10% of the time)	Never
Someone on your staff	○	○	○	○
A professional colleague who does not report to you	○	○	○	○
Someone in another State's CSBG Office	○	○	○	○
Someone from the federal Office of Community Services	○	○	○	○
Someone from NASCSP	○	○	○	○
Someone from a CAA or the CAA Association	○	○	○	○
Your State's Program or Procedures Manual	○	○	○	○
The Internet websites of professional organizations, including NASCSP	○	○	○	○
Federal documents, such as the CSBG Statute,	○	○	○	○

	Frequently (More than 33% of the time)	Occasionally (From 11% to 33% of the time)	Rarely (Up to 10% of the time)	Never
Information Memoranda, Model State Plan, etc				
Practitioner journals, such as Public Manager, Governing, Harvard Business Review	○	○	○	○
Academic journals, such as Public Administration Review , Public Management Review, Academy of Management Journal	○	○	○	○

15. Please use the space below to identify any source of information or knowledge you use that was not mentioned in Question #14. Please also describe how often you use the source.

⌃

⌄

16. If you obtain information or knowledge from a person for the most frequently performed or the most complex task, please answer this Question and Questions #17 and #18. Please provide the names of up to five persons, and describe the person's position, using the descriptions provided in Question #14, and whether you use the person for the most frequently performed or most complex task. (These names will be kept confidential.) If you never obtain information or knowledge from a person for either task, skip this question and Questions #17 and #18 and go to Question # 19

For example: John Jones, from my staff for the most complex; Sally Smith, from the Office of the Dept Secretary for the most complex; Steve Reed, from the Ontario CSBG office for the most frequenly performed.

⌃

⌄

17. Please check the boxes corresponding to the reasons you use the person(s) you identified in Question #16. You can select all the reasons that apply. If a reason is not identified, please check 'Other ' and describe the reason.

☐ This person usually has the information I need

☐ I can usually reach this person quickly and easily

☐ I feel comfortable asking this person for Information

☐ Other:

18. Please identify the type of information or knowledge you receive from the person(s) you identified in Question #16. Check all that apply. If the type of information or knowledge is not identified,please check 'Other' and describe the type.

☐ The specifc information I need to perform the task

☐ A referral to another person , document or other source that will have the information I need

☐ An understanding of the the kind of information I need to complete the task.

☐ Other:

19. If you obtain information or knowledge for the most frequently performed or most complex task from Internet research, including the websites of professional organizations such as NASCSP, please use the space below to identify the website(s) you use, and whether you use it for the most frequently performed or most complex task. You can identify up to five Internet sites.If you do not use Internet research, skip this question and go to Question #20.

For example, State Attorney General's Office , most complex task;

20. If you obtain information or knowledge for the most frequently performed or most complex task from a practitioner journal,such as Public Manager, Governing, or Harvard Business Review, please use the space below to identify the journal(s) , and whether you use it for the most frequently performed or most complex task. Up to five journals can be identified.If you never use practitioner journals, skip this question and go to Question #21.

21. If you obtain information or knowledge for the most frequently performed or most complex task from an academic journal, such as Public Administration Review or Public Management Review , please use the space below to identify the journal(s), and whether you use it for the most frequently performed or most complex task. Up to five journals can be identified.If you never use an academic journal, skip this question and go to Question #22.

22. If you identified a source of information or knowledge other than a person, the internet, state manual, federal document, practitioner or scholarly journal, for the most frequently used or most complex task, please describe that source in the space below. Up to five sources can be described.

23. Please feel free to provide any additional comments regarding the resources you use to obtain the information and knowledge needed to perform your job in the CSBG program.

24. Thank you for your time and effort in completing this survey. Would you be willing to provide additional information via a telephone interview lasting approximately 15 minutes? If so, please provide your name, telephone number and the best time to reach you.This information will be kept confidential.

Submit

Never submit passwords through Google Forms.

Powered by Google Docs

Report Abuse - Terms of Service - Additional Terms

List of References

Agarwal, N., Xu, Y. & Poo, D. (2011). A context based investigation into source use by information seekers. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology*. 62 (6) 1087-1104.DOI;10.1002/asi.21513.

Agranoff, R. (1986). Intergovernmental management. State University of New York Press: Albany.

Agranoff, R. (1991). Human services integration:past and present challenges in public administration.*Public Administration Review* 51(6) 533-542.

Agranoff, R. & McGuire, M. (2003). *Collaborative public management*. Georgetown University Press: Washington.

Agranoff, R. (2007). *Managing within networks: Adding value to public organizations*. Washington, D.C. Georgetown University Press.

Agranoff, R. & McGuire, M. (2001). Big Questions in Public network management.
Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory 11 (3) 295-326.

Bardach, E.(1998). *Getting agencies to work together*. Brookings Institution Press: Washington.

Berry, F. & Brower, R.(2005). Intergovernmental and intersectoral management. *Public Performance and Management Review* 29 (1) 7-17

Binz-Scharf, M., Lazer, D., & Merkel, I. (2008). Lending a helping hand:voluntary engagement in knowledge sharing. *International Journal of Learning and Change* 3(1) 5-22

Binz-Scharf, M., Lazer, D., & Merkel, I. (2012). Searching for answers:networks of practice among public administrators. *The American Review of Public Administration* 42(2) 202-225 DOI: 10.1177/0275074011398956.

Bishop, S. (2006).Nonprofit federalism and the CSBG program. *Administration & Society* 37 (6) 695-718 DOI 10.1177/0095399705283091.

Bolton, M. & Stolcis,G.(2003). Ties that do not bind:musings on the specious relevance of academic research. *Public Administration Review* 63(5) 626-630

Borgatti, S., Cross, R. & Parker, A. (2001). Beyond answers: dimensions of the advice network. *Social Networks*. (23) 215-235.

Borgatti, S., Mehra, A., Brass, D. & Labianca, G. (2009). Network analysis in the social sciences. *Science* 323 892-895. DOI 10.1126/science.1165821.

Borgatti, S. & Cross, R. (2003). A relational view of informational seeking and learning in social networks. *Management Science* 49 (4) 432-445.=

Bystrom, K. & Jarvelin, K. (1995). Task complexity affects information seeking and use. *Information Processing and Management* 31(2) 191-213.

Bushouse, B.,Jacobson, W., Lambright, K., Llorens, J., Morse, R. & Poocharen,O. (2011). Crossing the divide:building bridges between public administrators practitioners and scholars. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* 21 (suppl_1) i99-i122.

Castells, M.(1996). *The rise of the network society*. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Chen, B. (2008). Assessing interorganizational networks for public service delivery.*Public Performance and Management Review* 31(3) 348-363 DOI 10.2753/PMR1530-9576310302.

Cohen, S. & Eimicke,W.(2008).*The responsible contract manager*. Washington:Georgetown University Press

Constant, D., Sproull, L. & Kiesler, S. (1996). The kindness of strangers: The usefulness of electronic weak ties for technical advice. *Organization Science* 7 (2) 119-135.

Cooper, P. (2003).*Governing by contract*. Congresional Quarterly Press: Washongton

Cross, R., Borgatti, S., Parker, A.,Prusak, L. (2001). Knowing what we know:supporting knowledge creation and sharing in social networks. *Organizational Dynamics* 30(2) 100-120.

Cross, R. & Sproull, L. (2004). More than an answer: information relationships for actionable knowledge. *Organization Science* 15 (4) 446-462 DOI 10.1287/orsc.1040.0075.

CSBG Act of 1998, 42 U.S.C § 9901 et seq.

Dawes, S., Creswell, A., & Pardo, T. (2009). From need to know to need to share: tangled problems, information boundaries, and the building of public sector knowledge networks. *Public Administration Review* 69 (3) 392-402 DOI: 10.1111/j.1540-6210.2009.01987_2.x.

Dias, J. & Maynard-Moody, S.(2007). For-profit welfare: contracts,conflicts, and the performance paradox. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* 17:189-211 DOI 10.1093/jopart/mul002.

Dillman, D., Smyth, J., Christian, L. (2009). *Internet,mail,and mixed mode surveys,the tailored design approach* (3rd edition). Hoboken,NJ: John Wiley.

Dillman, D., Smyth, J., Christian, L. (2014). *Internet,mail,and mixed mode surveys,the tailored design approach* (4th edition).Hoboken,NJ: John Wiley. Retrieved from http://unm.worldcat.org/title/internet-phone-mail-and-mixed-mode-surveys-the-tailored-design-method/oclc/878301194&referer=brief_results

Eglene, O., Dawes, S., & Schneider, C. (2007). Authority and leadership patterns in public sector knowledge networks. *The American Review of Public Administration* 37 (1) 95-113 DOI: 10.1177/0275074006290799

Englehart, J. (2001).The marriage between theory and practice. *Public Administration Review* 61 (3) 371-373.

Fowler, F. (2009). *Survey research methods*. Washington, D.C.:Sage Publications

Gage, R. (1984).Federal regional councils:netwroking organizations for policy management in the intergovernmental system. *Public Administration Review* 44(2) 134-145.

Gerlak, A. & Heikkila, T. (2011). Building a theory of learning in collaboratives. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* 21 619-644 DOI:10.1093/jopart/muqo89.

Gerstberger,P.& Allen,T.(1968). Criteria used by research and development engineers in the selection of an information source. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 52(4) 272-279.

Gibson, P. & Deadrick, D. (2010). Public administration research and practice: are academician and practitioner interests different? *Public Administration Quarterly* 34(1) 145-168

Goldsmith, S. & Eggers, W. (2004). *Governing by network*. Washington,D.C.: Brookings Institution Press.

Graffy, E. (2008).Meeting the challenges of policy relevant science: bridging theory and practice. *Public Administration Review* 68 (6) 1087-1100 DOI: 10.1111/j.1540-6210.2008.00957.x

Granovetter, M. (1973). The strength of weak ties. *American Journal of Sociology* 78 (6) 1360-1380.

Gray, P. & Meister, D. (2004). Knowledge sourcing effectiveness. *Management Science* 50 (6) 821-834.

Gulati, R. (1995). Does familiarity breed trust? *Academy of Management Journal* 38(1) 85-112.

Gulick, L. (1937). Notes on the theory of organization. In *Papers on the science of administration.* Gulick,L.& Urwick, L. (Eds.) Institute of Public Administration: New York.

Hadju,G. & Didkovsky, N. (2009). On the evolution of music notation in network music environments. (2009). *Contemporary Music Review* 28 (4) 395-407 DOI 10.1080/07494460903422313.

Handley, D. (2005).The best of both worlds: a former practitioner transitions to life as a full time academic. *Public Administration Review* 65 (5) 624-627.

Hassett, W. & Watson, D. (2002).Long serving city managers: practical application of the academic literature. *Public Administration Review* 62(5) 622-629.

Herranz, J. (2008). The multisectoral trilemma of network management. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 18 (1), 1-31 DOI 10. 1093/jopart/mum004.

Herranz, J. (2009). Endogenous development dynamics of multisectoral network management. *International Journal of Public Management*, 12 (3), 370-397.

Herranz, J. (2010).Network performance and coordination. *Public Performance and Management Review* 33 (3), 311-341 DOI 10.2753/PMR1530-9576330301.

deHoog. R.H. (1984).*Contracting out for human services*. Stae University of New York Press: Albany.

Huang, K. & Provan, K. (2007).Structural embeddedness and organizational social outcomes in a centrally governed mental health services network. *Public Management Review* 9 (2) 169-189 DOI 10.1080/14719030701340218

Hummel, R. (1991). Stories managers tell: why they are as valid as science. *Public Administration Review* 51(1) 31-41

Isett, K., Mergel, I., LeRoux, K., Mischen, P., & Rethemeyer, R. (2011) Networks in public administration scholarship: Understanding where we are and where we need to go. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* 21 (suppl_1) i157-i173.

Jacobson, P. (1976).*Introduction to statistical measures for the social and behavioral sciences*. Hinsdal,IL: Dryden Press.

Jennings, E. & Hall, J.(2012).Evidence based practice and the use of information in state agency decision making. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* 22:245-266 DOI:10.1093/jopart/mur040

Johnston, J., & Romzek, B. (2008). Social contracts as networks. *Administration & Society.* 42 (2) 115-146 DOI: 10.1177/0095399707312826.

Kenis, P. & Provan, K. (2006). Control of public networks. *International Journal of Public Management* 9 (3) 229-247 DOI: 10.1080/10967490600899515.

Kenny, D. (1987). *Statistics for the social and behavioral Sciences.*Boston,MA: Little, Brown and Company. Appendix J, Two-tailed critical values for Spearman's rho.

Kettl, D. (1981).The fourth face of federalism. *Public Administration Review* 41(3) 366-371.

Kickert, W., Klijn, E., & Koppenjan, J. (Eds.). (1997). *Managing complex networks.*
Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Kilduff, M. & Tsai, W. (2003). *Social networks and organizations*. Thousand Oaks,CA: Sage Publications.

Koliba,C.,Meek,J. & Zia, A, (2012).*Governance networks in public administration and policy*. CRC Press:New York

Lawless, M. & Moore, R. (1989).Interorganizational systems in public service delivery. *Human Relations* 42(12) 1167-1184.

Leach,W., Weibel, C., Vince, S., Siddiki, S., & Calanni, J.(2014). Fostering learning through collaboration: knowledge acquisition and belief change in marien aquaculture partnerships. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* 24: 591-622 DOI:10.1093/jopart/mut011.

Mandell, M. (1988). Intergovernmental management in interorganizational networks: a revised perspective. *International Journal of Public Administration* 11 (4) 393-416
Mandell, M. (1990). Network management: strategic behavior in the public sector. In R. Gage & M. Mandell (Eds.), *Strategies for intergovernmental policies and networks* (pp. 29-53). New York : Praeger.

Mandell, M. & Steelman, T.(2003). Understanding what can be accomplished through interorganizational innovations. *Public Management Review* 5 (2), 197-224 DOI 10.1080/1461667032000066417.

Mandell, M. & Keast, R. (2007). Evaluating netwrok arrangements. *Public Performance and Management Review* 30 (4), 574-597 DOI 10.2753/PMR1530-9576300406.

Margolis, P. & Halfon, N.(2009). Innovation networks,a strategy to transform health care. *Journal of the American Medical Association* 302 (13) 1461-1462.

Marris, P. & Rein, M. (2007). *Dilemmas of social reform:poverty and community action in the United States* (2nd edition). New Brunswick, CT:Aldine Publishers

McGahan, A. (2007). Academic reseacrh that matters to managers: on zebras, dogs, lemmings,hammers, and turnips. *Academy of Management Journal* 50 (4) 748-753.

McGuire, M. (2002). What managers do and why they do it. *Public Administration Review* 62 (5) 599-609.

McGuire, M. (2010). Network Management. In M.Bevir (Ed.) *Sage Handbook of Governance* (pp 436-450).   Sage Publications:London

Meier, K., & O'Toole, L. (2013). Subjective organizational performance and measurement error: common source bias and spurious relationships. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* 23: 439-456 DOI:10.1093/jopart/mus057

Miles, R. & Snow,C. (1986). Organizations:new concepts for new forms. *California Management Review* 28 (3) 62-73.

Milward, H. & Provan, K. (1993).The hollow state: private provision of public services. In H.Ingram & S.Smith (Eds.) *Public policy for democracy* (pp 222-237) Washington,D.C,: Brookings Institution Press

Milward, H. & Provan, K. (2000). Governing the hollow state. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* 10(2) 359-379.

Mosher, F. (1980). The changing responsibilities and tactics of the federal government. *Public Administration Review* 40 (6) 541-548.

Moynihan, D.[Daniel].(1969). *Maximum feasible misunderstanding*.New Yory, NY:The Free Press

Moynihan, D. [Donald].(2008). Learning under uncertainty. *Public Administration Review* 68 (2) 350-365 DOI: 10.1111/j.1540-6210.2007.00867.x.

National Association of State Community Services Programs. *2013 Annual Report,* Appendix Table 4. Retrieved from http://nascsp.org/data/files/csbg_publications/annual_reports/reports/2013report-appendixtables-grey-final.pdf

Nebus, J. (2006). Building collegial information networks. *Academy of Management Review* 31(3) 615-637.

Office of Community Services, *CSBG Fact* Sheet 2014. Retrieved from http://www.acf.hhs.gov/programs/ocs/resource/community-service-block-grant-csgg-fact-sheet

O'Reilly, C. (1982). Variations in decisions makers' use of information sources. *Academy of Management Journal* 25(4) 756-771.

O'Toole, L. (1988). Strategies for intergovernmental management: implementing programs in interorganizational networks. *International Journal of Public Administration* 11 (4) 417-441.

O'Toole. L. (1997). Treating networks seriously. *Public Administration Review* 57 (1) 45-52.

Perry, J. (2012). How can we improve our science to generate more usable knowledge for public professionals. *Public Administration Review* 72(4) 479-482 DOI: 10.111/j.1540-6210.2012.02607.

Podsakoff, P., MacKenzie, S., Lee, J., & Podsakoff, N. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 88 (5) 879-903 DOI: 10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879.

Posner, P. (2009). The pracademic: an agenda for re-engaging practitioners and academics. *Public Budgeting and Finance* 29 (1) 12-26 DOI: 10.1111/j.1540-5850.2009.00921.

Powell, W. (1990). Neither market nor hierarchy: network forms of organization. In B. Straw & L. Cummings (Eds*.) Research in organizational behavior* (pp.295-329) Greenwich, CT: Jai Press.

Provan, K. (1983). The federation as interorganizational linkage network. *Academy of Management Review* 8 (1) 79-89.

Provan, K., & Milward, H. (1995). Preliminary theory of interorganizational network effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 40 (1) 1-33.

Provan, K. & Kenis, P. (2008). Modes of network governance:structure,management, and effectiveness. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* 18: 229-252 DOI 10.1093/jopart/mum015.

Provan, K., Beagles, J., Mercken, L., & Leischow, S.(2013*). Awareness of evidence-based practices by organizations in a publicly funded smoking cessation network.*
Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory 23:133-153 DOI 10.1093/jopart/mus011

Raab, J. & Kenis, P. (2009). Heading toward a society of network:empirical developments and theoretical challenges. *Journal of Management Inquiry* 18(3) 198-210

Raadschelders, J. & Lee, K. (2011). Trends in the study of public administration. *Public Administration Review* 71 (1) 19-33 DOI 10.1111/j.1540-6210.2010.02303.x.

Reagans, R, & McEvily, B. (2003). Network structure and knowledge transfer: The effect of cohesion and range. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 48, 240-267.

Rethemeyer, R.& Hatmaker, D.(2008). Network management reconsidered. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* 18:617-646 DOI:10.1093/jopart/mum027.

Rumsfeld, D. (2011). *Known and unknown: a memoir*. Sentinel: New York.

Saidel, J. (1991). Resource interdependence:the relationship between state agencies and nonprofit organizations. *Public Administration Review* 51(6) 542-553.

Salamon, L. (1981). Rethinking public management: Third party government and the changing forms of government action. *Public Policy* 29 255-275.

Salamon, L. (1989). *Beyond privatization:the tools of government action*.Urban Institute Press: Washington.

Salamon, L. & Elliott, O.(Eds.) (2002). *The tools of government: a guide to the new governance*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Saz-Carranza, A., & Ospina, S.M. (2011). The behavioral dimension of governing interorganizational goal-directed networks-managing the unity-diversity tension. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory,* 21: 327-365.

Shapiro,D., Kirkman, B. & Courtney, H. (2007). Perceived causes and solutionsof the translation problem in management research. *Academy of Management Journal* 50 (2) 249-266.

Snyder,W.& de Souza Briggs, X.(2003). Communities of practice : a new tool for government managers. *IBM Center for Business Government* Collaboration Series, November 2003.

Streib, G., Slotkin, B. & Rivera, M.(2001). Public administration research from a practitioner perspective. *Public Administration Review* 61 (5) 515-524.

Sue, V. & Ritter, L (2012). *Conducting on-line surveys*. Thousand Oaks, C: Sage Publications.

Tsai, W. (2001). Knowledge transfer in interorganizational networks: effects of network position and absorptive capacity on business unit innovation and performance. *Academy of Management Journa*l 44(5) 996-1004.

Ustuner, T. & Godes, D. (2006). Better Sales Networks. *Harvard Business Review* July-August 2006 102-112.

Vermeulen, F. (2005) On rigor and relevance:fostering dialectic progress in management research. *Academy of Management Journal* 48(6) 978-982.

Wachhaus, A. (2009). Networks in contemporary public administration: a discoruse analysis. *Administrative Theory & Praxis* 31(1) 59-77 DOI 10.2753/ATP1084-1806310104

Wang, J., Bunch, B. & Stream,C.(2013).Increasing the usefulness of academic scholarship for local government practitioners. *State and Local Government Review* 45 (3) 197-213 DOI: 10.1177/0160323X13500771

Weber, E. & Khademian, A. (2008). Wicked Problems, Knowledge Challenges, and Collaborative Capacity Builders in Network Settings. *Public Administration Review*. 68 (2) 334-349.

Wise,C.(1990). Public service configuarions and public service organizations. *Public Administration Review* 50 (2) 129-141.

Wright, D.(1990). Federalism, intergovernmental relations, and intergovernmental management—conceptual reflections, comparisons, and interpretations. In R. Gage & M. Mandell (Eds.), *Strategies for intergovernmental policies and networks* (pp. 156-175). New York : Praeger.

Woudstra, L. & Van den Hoof, B. (2008). Inside the source selection process: selection criteria for human information sources. *Information Processing and Management* 44:1267-1278 DOI:10.1016/j.ipm.2007.07.004

Woudstra, L. & Van den Hoof, B. & Schouten, A.(2012). Dimensions of quality and accessibility:selection of human information sources from a social capital perspective.
Information Processing and Management 48: 618-630
DOI:10.1016/j.ipm.2012.02.002

Xu, Y., Tan, C. & Yang, L. (2006). Who will you ask? An empirical study of interpersonal task information seeking. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology* 57 (12) 1666-1677.

Xu, Y. Kim, HK. & Kankanhalli, A. (2011).Task and social information seeking. *Journal of Management Information System.* 27(3) 211-240.

Zhang, J. & Dawes, S.(2006).Expectations and perceptions of benefits, barriers and success in public sector knowledge networks. *Public Performance and Management Review* 29 (4), 433-466

Zimmer, J., Henry, R. & Butler, B. (2008). Determinants of the use of relational and non-relational information sources. *Journal of Management Information Systems* 24 (3) 297-331 DOI: 10.2753/MIS0742-122240310.