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The summer 2014 issue of the *International Journal of Interdisciplinary Research (IJIR)* has been the result of a rigorous process in two stages:

- Stage 1: all papers that were submitted to the International Academy of Business Disciplines (IABD) 2014 Conference went through blind reviews, and high quality papers were accepted for presentation at the conference.
- Stage 2: approximately ten percent of the accepted papers and one invited article were selected for possible publication in *IJIR.* These manuscripts went through a blind review process by the editorial board members and external reviewers. In the end, five articles were recommended for publication in the winter issue of *IJIR*.

IJIR is listed in *Cabell's* Directory of peer-reviewed publications. The Editorial Board members are committed to maintaining high standards of quality in all manuscripts published in *International Journal of Interdisciplinary Research*.

Ahmad Tootoonchi, Chief Editor

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INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION AS PUBLIC DIPLOMACY

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ABSTRACT

As he addressed the craft of diplomacy, Powell (2004) characterized diplomacy as "persuasion in the shadow of power" (p. 63). Specifically, diplomacy seeks to influence without the use of conflict. Throughout the world, American university professors deliver business education in a manner that has the opportunity to influence students world-wide that is consistent with this characterization. The practices of the international, American-led, business classroom and business conventions are grounded in American ideals. However, many international business instructors have no grounding in diplomacy; faculty members lacking the necessary training to avoid problems in other countries may be at risk. This paper posits that visiting international faculty members are engaged in diplomatic behaviors without adequate preparation and that this needs to change. By developing an approach to more effectively support faculty in international teaching, universities may develop a stronger understanding of the public face that is portrayed by international business educators.

INTRODUCTION

Former diplomat R. Nicholas Burns sees American diplomatic strength as supported by the government to be a primary contributor to national strength (Moynihan & Safdar, 2011). His thoughts echo those of Rice (2008) who introduced the concept of transformational diplomacy – diplomacy that works "in new ways, in new places, with new partners, and for new purposes." (p. 83) Burns (2011) notes, however, that funding for diplomatic efforts has been gutted. He considers the rise in the volume of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) within the last two decades to be a significant move away from state supported diplomacy and into a democratization of diplomacy. This democratization is seen as a move away from the diplomacy between nation-states through interventions that are undertaken by private actors, such as Bill and Melissa Gates or visiting university professors.

Through this democratization of diplomacy, American university professors are presenting business values, business history, and business culture as well as national culture to international student audiences around the globe. For example, in cultures where women are less likely to

share equal rights with men, American classrooms have provided opportunities for female business students to experience equal opportunity by providing common content in coeducational settings. Such opportunities demonstrate how the world might work if women are given equal work assignments as well as employment development. For some women, their first opportunity to lead anything outside of a household may occur in an American classroom. For many international women, socialization into leadership might only be possible through classroom experience in business disciplines (Bandow, Matuszek & Self, 2012).

This paper approaches international teaching, or sending American university professors to international locations for the purposes of teaching classes, as democratizing diplomacy. The background on public diplomacy and key strategies of America's public diplomacy are noted, followed by issues which have been identified in the literature as relevant to international teaching. Implications for education through diplomacy, diplomatic relations, faculty development and the future of international teaching in institutions of higher learning are discussed. Recommendations for institutions and faculty members are presented, followed by conclusions.

DIPLOMACY

The research literature that informs international teaching is sparse and disparate. Regrettably, much of the literature focuses on student experiences and does not adequately address or inform the issues encountered by visiting international faculty members (Pritchard, 2006; Horton and Stratford, 2006; Vielba and Edelshain, 1995). This paper reviews literature from a variety of fields to support the purpose of developing a foundation that enhances understanding of international teaching as public diplomacy.

Coined by Edmund Gullion, the phrase "public diplomacy" (Cull, 2010), refers to a set of organizational behaviors that are part of statecraft, including listening and advocating, as well as cultural exchange programs. Cull (2010) identifies public policy as a two-way street whereby an international player engages with a foreign public as an active participant. He shares seven lessons that have been learned from public policy that are germane to this paper, including:

> (1) public diplomacy begins with listening; (2) public diplomacy must be connected to policy; (3) public diplomacy is not a performance for domestic consumption; (4) effective public diplomacy requires credibility, but this has implications for the bureaucratic structure around the activity; (5) sometimes the most credible voice in public diplomacy is not one's own; (6) public diplomacy is not 'always about you'; and (7) public diplomacy is everyone's business. (p. 11)

Visiting professors fulfill virtually all of Cull's (2010) lessons throughout their time in the international classroom. International educational exchange studies frequently focus on the

impact on the students who travel across borders rather than instructors who cross borders. de Lima (2007) cites Eide's (1970) theory of the student as disseminator of culture to explain how international experiences bring clarity about culture and language. de Lima (2007) distinguishes between international educational exchange and international education, and characterizes international educational exchange as the giving and receiving by students and scholars in a manner that creates a system of reciprocity between the parties. This mutually advantageous relationship underscores the very soul of public diplomacy as visiting international scholars share their own cultures while they participate in and learn from new cultures.

Hughes (2007) identifies three strategic imperatives that guide America's public policy today. These include

> 1) America must continue to offer people across the world a positive vision of hope that is rooted in our deepest values, our belief in liberty, in justice, in opportunity, in respect for all…2) to isolate and marginalize the violent extremists that threaten the civilized world and to confront their ideology of tyranny and hate…3) to foster a sense of common interests and common values between Americans and people of different countries and cultures across the world. (pp. 19-20)

Hughes (2007) indicates that few people ever hear about the outreach efforts made by the United States to countries and to peoples throughout the world. She discusses the shift from government-to-government diplomacy that was characteristic of times prior to World War II to a government-to- people relationship to the current people-to-people relationship that Americans see as outreach to the world. This paper posits that diplomacy has evolved from reliance on government intervention to a system of people-to-people relationships that are unrecognized as diplomatic efforts. Nonetheless, visiting international scholars are actively involved in diplomatic behaviors that contribute to the positive vision that is the root of hope, that confront the extremists ideologies often in their own countries, and that seek out and foster a sense of common interests and, especially, values.

Within this set of behaviors, international scholars work to fulfill the strategic imperatives identified by Hughes (2007) that guide America's public policy. She goes on to describe the strong impact of the exchange experience on anyone who participates and describes it as a life-changing experience. However, like Eide (1970) her focus is on the impact of bringing students to the U.S. rather than sending American scholars into countries throughout the world. Her discussions of public diplomacy include training teachers in other countries without acknowledging other efforts that serve as diplomatic efforts. For example, numerous American universities teach at sites throughout the world while American accrediting bodies oversee the substance of university education by sending "site visit" teams to universities throughout the world.

Canning (2011) captures the idea of cultural diplomacy, as delivered through theater, to address the impact of live performance as participation in state-to-state geopolitics. She posits that the narrative of American foreign policy during the Cold War was evident in live performance that was disseminated throughout the world by live performances of Shakespeare that showed not only mastery of Shakespearean work, but also insight into a new world order. She contends that four important outcomes were achieved through cultural diplomacy: 1) the U.S. was associated with artistic innovation and the development of cultural capital, 2) performing arts are representative of foreign policy engagement, 3) success fosters a need, and 4) mutual needs between theater and government allowed theater to decentralize and become less dependent on few funding agents.

Canning's (2011) description of cultural diplomacy is congruent with the practice of international business education. Business faculty members carry the messages of free enterprise, human rights through responsible human resource management, and the importance of learning to deal with a highly educated competitor into international classrooms. Borrowing from Eide's (1970) work, the scholar becomes a disseminator of culture through sharing the home culture and by sharing the international culture at home.

Paradise (2012) introduces the idea of education diplomacy whereby students are sent abroad to achieve policy objectives. A case in point is China. The objectives of Chinese education diplomacy include transforming China into a world power through knowledge acquisition and innovation. The outcome of education diplomacy is reciprocal in that the world will be changed by China's ability to participate with growing importance in the development of the world economy while China will be changed by its students' activities as learned in other cultures. Paradise (2012) points to Chinese policy to become more innovation-driven as evidence that education diplomacy is an integral component of foreign policy. Similarly, the development of hundreds of Confucius Institutes relies on diplomatic soft power influence by teaching Chinese language and culture throughout the world, thus mitigating communication barriers that have been in place for thousands of years.

When La Roche (2011) explains the differences between U.S. and Chinese students as well as participating faculty in an American study abroad program, she acknowledges that in many cases the faculty is inadequately prepared to deal with cultural differences not limited to but including manners, connections in the Chinese culture, dining, the varying concepts of time, rank and seniority and their importance in the Chinese culture, and even significant differences between the U.S. and the Chinese college experience. La Roche (2011) goes on to explain differences in academics, social life, intellectual property, names and dormitory life to name a few areas. This work highlights the importance of adequate preparation prior to entering an international classroom.

Taken together, the literature indicates that international education as public diplomacy is an effort to present the home culture and values in a manner that foster the extension of positive

image for a country while providing growth and innovation opportunities for the home country. By definition, such educational opportunities are grounded in soft power influence that strives to shape the preferences of others through attraction rather than coercion, threats, or inducements. (Nye, 2006)

ISSUES IN INTERNATIONAL TEACHING THAT IMPACT PUBLIC DIPLOMACY

Waller (2007) describes public diplomacy as communication between public people from foreign countries rather than the traditional diplomacy that is undertaken between governments. With this simple approach of public diplomacy in mind, little information is available on the types of issues often found in international teaching that impact public diplomacy. While a limited number of studies discuss issues facing visiting professors, there are several that help us find direction about the impact of poor public diplomacy if we can extrapolate a likely outcome from a few studies. The impact of poor public policy is not likely to be public at all.

Typically, such issues are discussed behind closed doors at educational institutions and not publicly acknowledged for fear of image, reputation, and perception concerns. For example, Garson (2005) offers an example of offering positive suggestions yet the implicit assumption may suggest past experiences that were less than positive, thus generating the suggestions. Garson (2005) also reviews her experiences with culture shock, living in Cairo, the need to understand culture and her repatriation along with recommendations for others who want to teach overseas. Beyond expected challenges related but not limited to facilities, location, schedules and delivery, overarching issues must also be addressed. Bird, Osland, Mendenhall and Schneider (1999) began their discussion by interviewing four people who have worked in national organizations consulting with North American, European and Japanese multinational companies. Interviews with experienced employees of multinational firms offer an excellent opportunity to learn what will be expected of business students. Key concerns addressed in these interviews also apply when teaching business in other countries and cultures. For example, Bird et al. (1999) concur that pre-departure training is necessary, and providing people with information on cultural dimensions is a good beginning; however, information about country conditions and adjustments needed are also beneficial. Problems arise when instructors who will travel to these countries lack a frame of reference, so the material provided may be lacking in relevance, thus demonstrating the complexity and paradoxes confronting people teaching in other cultures. Bird et al. (1999) note that adaption goes beyond identifying cultural values and must include an understanding behind the logic of the culture. This again emphasizes the need for training before faculty leave on overseas assignments.

Rajdev (2011) offers a case that explicates the need for well-prepared visiting professors. Graduate students and professors from Marymount University conducted a service learning project in India in 2010 to focus on teaching kindergarten through seventh grade. This effort intended to demonstrate the concept of U.S. teaching methods and different approaches for learning science and mathematics without regard for the Indian system. She emphasizes the need

for faculty to be broadly educated culturally to enable success in a global society. As noted by Vielba and Edelshain (1995), these examples demonstrate an outward focus, and they failed to demonstrate any serious attempt to obtain a greater understanding of the context in terms of politics, policy, diplomacy and understanding of what may benefit the host country based on what they need rather than what can be provided or what can "fit." Attempts to learn the culture and what is appropriate conduct and behavior are not the same considerations as approaching the host country from a diplomatic perspective, and without using a diplomatic perspective, one cannot predict the likely impact of these attempts.

INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION AS PUBLIC DIPLOMACY

The lessons provided by Cull (2010) mirror the tenants of strong teachership. In the international, student-centered classroom the teacher is other-focused, listening to students, is present because of credibility that has been vetted, and the professor is not engaged as a performer. Conversely, in an international venue, the teacher often becomes a student as s/he learns to work with students from culturally diverse backgrounds. For example, because citizenship is not shared with expatriates in United Arab Emirates, expatriates represent approximately 85-90% of the total population for the country. Students from expatriate families often represent a wide variety of cultures and citizenship that might include Sudanese, Pakistani, Indian, Lebanese, Syrian, and Bahrainian, among others, who all share a common classroom as well as a professor who is also an expatriate from none of the represented countries. As the professor works through the course, public diplomacy takes place through the relationship building that happens in the classroom. The function of the teacher is to guide and provide instruction to this unique group of students rather than garner support from the public of his/her home country. By definition, the teacher is engaged in public diplomacy. As such, the international teacher has joined the ranks of professional diplomats whose jobs build relationships across borders.

Nye (2008) indicates that the use of soft power is an important component of public diplomacy. He describes soft power as the ability to create attraction rather than relying on persuasion or coercion. He suggests that those who do not understand the power to create attraction as those who do not understand the power of seduction. As active instructors, scholars fully understand the power of seduction in delivering material in a manner that is, at once, attractive as well as informative. There is little doubt that entertaining information is more easily consumed than that which is simply presented in its more concrete form. Nye's (2008) work suggests that one of the mechanisms used by international scholars to extend their work into new geographic and cultural areas is soft power. Indeed, numerous instructors report that students as well as community members in international sites are often intrigued by the promise of America, particularly as they understand it from teachers. Unlike earlier forms of diplomacy, sometimes seen as propaganda, soft power that guides information delivery by scholars is less threatening and more hopeful for many international communities.

Rice (2008) emphasizes that globalization empowers some countries, while it displays the weaknesses of others who cannot or will not govern themselves effectively. To address the issues of the latter, she posits that the challenge for U.S. foreign policy is, "to work with our many international partners to build and sustain a world of democratic, well-governed states that respond to the needs of their people, that reduce widespread poverty, and that conduct themselves responsibly in the international system" (p. 85). Toward meeting this challenge, international business educators work directly with allied universities to deliver programs that meet the needs of student constituencies, thus working to improve lives and reduce poverty. Further, grounding business education in American business culture helps students learn how to conduct themselves in the international business system.

However, there is little evidence that international business educators receive training or support that will enhance diplomatic impact. Conversely, anecdotes, coupled with a paucity of evidence from the literature, suggest that there is little support outside of an individual professor's willingness to study culture and language to support these traveling professionals. For example, Bird, Osland, Mendenhall and Schneider (1999) deal with cultural differences, most of which are related to Hofstede's (1980) value dimensions, and some examples include how one should or should not assert oneself, the development of identity issues when living overseas, the way to teach cultural paradoxes or culturally specific behavior, getting into awkward situations, and the need to study the language before going overseas. Another key topic was culture shock. Tips about teaching were included and note that the cultural dimensions, while necessary, are not sufficient.

Throughout the studies used to support this paper, the focus for international endeavors tended to be on students and field professionals. Only a single conference was located that focused on diplomatic training. There is a gap in faculty development as well as diplomat development, and closing this gap has the potential to extend the reach of professional diplomats in a manner that touches people who will otherwise go untouched. Further, failure to develop these traveling professors opens them to increased opportunities to make mistakes that can be avoided, and, perhaps, puts them at risk. Further, as the face of the United States that is seen by hundreds of people in their local settings, these educators can share the challenge of relationship building while delivering programs that are appropriate for the location in a manner that is appropriate for the location. For example, many countries have differing modesty standards that are often misunderstood. Finally, students are more likely to internalize lessons that are culturally appropriate; that is, if no relevance is determined, students will discard lessons perceived as irrelevant and inappropriate in their situation.

IMPLICATIONS

Peace education, the nomenclature for education in diplomacy and diplomatic relations, is a natural progression of faculty development for those faculty members who serve on the internationally certified faculty. Campbell and Campbell (2012) contend that the andragogy of

peace education requires development of critical thinking skills as well as conflict resolution skills. Of special note here is that business faculty members have, typically, developed strong critical thinking skills and passable conflict resolution skills as a consequence of international field and course work. This strong skill set positions international business faculty members at the forefront of public diplomacy and drives one-on-one relationship building at the very root of society.

Of particular emphasis for faculty development is the impact of globalization where relationships are increasingly interdependent. If societies are characterized as organizations that are interdependent, the lessons of organizational interdependence now become foundation for public diplomacy. Pooled interdependence typifies international relations such that each country contributes a part of the same overall system of partnerships and each member of the system is almost blindly accepting of the actions of others. While there is commonality in the shared outcome, this is the least connected type of interdependence. This type of interdependence is more likely to be seen in societies with high individuality or where each partner in the system works independently of others. Sequential interdependence requires that one partner receive the output of another before progress can continue. This is necessarily a tighter relationship than the pooled system of partners. Sequential interdependence is most likely to be seen in partnerships where development is central to the partnership. Finally, reciprocal interdependence is the tightest of the relationships in that it is cyclical, thus requiring output to move continuously back and forth between partners. These partnerships can be seen in trade agreements where resources are acquired from one partner and a finished product, the output of resources, is delivered to the first partner. Business professors are uniquely prepared to understand the nuances of these complex relationships, because these are in-field topics for many professors.

The nature of interdependence has long been taught in business classrooms. However, a theoretical and applied understanding of interdependence has little direct application to creating peaceful societies that foster mutual capitalization, the ultimate goal of diplomacy. Toward developing faculty members that are capable of extending the work of a hyper-extended diplomatic corps, training or mentoring faculty members about the preservation of a peaceful system is good business for both universities and governments. While the idea appears to be intuitive, the work of a business professor is not likely to deal directly with task of creating and keeping peace on a society level. Conversely, peace is considered a standard for economic development that fosters business and innovation.

RECOMMENDATIONS

There are several ways to support visiting international professors. Helping faculty members understand how their impact in the classroom extends the work of professional diplomats supports efforts at the national level to maintain peace and resolve conflicts. This can be achieved through diplomatic workshops or simple visits with others who are familiar with the international site and its eccentricities. Creating awareness within the visiting professor of his/her

position as the face of the country is an important position for any visiting professor. Not only does this give the professor status at home, awareness sets the stage for the professor to view the work of the faculty at the international site with added importance. Workshops in conflict resolution that are sensitive to local international practices are an overlooked piece of faculty development. Professors are often sent into systems that they do not understand, and students are subjected to professors with a resolution system that they do not understand, thus setting the stage for experiences that are less than optimal for either party. This is bad business. Workshops in negotiation and other conflict resolution tactics for international business faculty members sets the stage for the professor to exercise control at a local level that can contribute to an overall outcome for the nation. Preparing the professor to address a plethora of competing interests and complexity improves personal interactions such that a major barrier to change, complexity, is mitigated. Scheduling classes in a way that allows the professor to put a "best foot forward" builds trust with partner universities as well as international communities, thus building the reputation of the visiting university. This includes a move away from treating international classes as cash cows. Anecdotes are readily available about courses being taught in limited time frames, sometimes as little as two days, and students are given full college credit. This requires that universities monitor their international practices, at least, as ardently as they do their domestic practices. The professorate is generally unsupportive of courses that lack academic rigor as well as sufficient time to support student achievement.

CONCLUSION

For faculty and institutions of higher learning, developing an approach to address more effective delivery of classes outside of the U.S. would be highly beneficial. By reviewing the mission of the institution, the context and location of the classes and programs being delivered in locations outside of the U.S. and then defining specific skill sets, universities may provide higher satisfaction for faculty as well as students. For example, faculty members should be prepared for travel by learning about the culture from those who have already been in country in addition to research on customs, practices and any visitor information available. Faculty members should also be prepared to listen to the students, because the faculty member is also a student of the culture and the environment and may well learn lessons while teaching. Those lessons need to be recorded within a sense-making framework that fosters learning. Faculty members also need to remember that building relationships across borders is one of the unspoken but necessary outcomes; these relationships may support continuity of the program as well as assist in establishing good diplomatic relationships. Soft power should be recognized as an important component of teaching and used to guide the delivery of content in a supportive environment.

Using Rice's (2008) concept of transformational diplomacy as a springboard, international business education quickly fulfills her expectation of "new ways, new places, new partners, and for new purposes" (p. 83) as diplomacy at work. International business instructors are well positioned to contribute to two of Hughes' (2007) cited strategic imperatives – that of sharing a hopeful vision that is grounded in our values throughout the world and that of fostering a sense of commonality between cultures. Through international business education, the United States is

supporting a person-to-person, collaborative system that accomplishes the goals of diplomacy while providing an education to students who, often, will never have the opportunity to work directly in the U.S.

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PUBLIC SECTOR STRATEGIC ADAPTATION: TRANSITIONING SHELTERS TO END HOMELESSNESS

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ABSTRACT

In 2000, the National Alliance to End Homelessness put out a call for the country to end homelessness in ten years. In 2002, under President Bush the program to end homelessness began. At that time the homeless were living in shelters and on the streets. The shift in federal policy was implemented by the Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD). HUD's "best practice" was to address a minimal stay in the shelter and a swift transition to self-sufficient living in permanent housing. In 2009 the Homeless Emergency Assistance Act and Rapid Transition to Housing (HEARTH) Act was signed into law including the change in funding to ensure the best practice strategy. During this decade the impact of the economic decline had new entrants to homelessness. As funding declines for the homeless it changes the nature of strategic differentiation and opens a new competitive arena – being a low cost provider as noted by Porter.

OVERVIEW

In 2011, more than 1.1 million homeless people were assisted through the Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) grant programs. Prior to 2012, Homeless Assistance Grants were available through either competitive or formula based programs. The competitive based programs included Supportive Housing Program (SHP), Shelter Plus Care (S+C) and Section 8 Single Room Occupancy (SRO). The recipients of these awards varied from non-profit organizations to public entities to state and local governments. The formula-based program, known as Emergency Shelter Grants, awarded eligible cities' and towns' monies based upon a specific formula. All funding was made possible through the McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Act (MVHAA) of 1987.

In 2009, the Homeless Emergency Assistance and Rapid Transition to Housing (HEARTH) Act were signed into law with substantial changes to MVHAA. This law signaled a new shift in homelessness policy and funding away from a continuum of shelter and on-site supportive services to a crisis response system of homelessness prevention and rapid re-housing. HEARTH also created financial incentives for communities to reduce the length of stay in shelter (by 10 percent per year or to less than 20 days on average) and implement rapid re-housing strategies for families. During the past forty years shelters were the primary source of residence for many homeless individuals or families. The original social services paradigm, which continues to be championed by some reformers today, is a holistic approach to evaluate and improve the physical, medical, social, and vocational aspects of a homeless person's life, arguing that if the root causes of homelessness are ameliorated, the individual will transition back into regular society (Schneider, 2009).

FEDERAL POLICY, HOMELESSNESS AND PORTER'S STRATEGY MODEL

In this context, homeless providers differentiated themselves by the comprehensiveness and quality of their service offerings. However, this remediation approach has fallen out of favor. The Ward Family Foundation (2002) noted that the only objective measure of long term effectiveness of homeless programs is the success rate of its graduates in the years subsequent to their departure from the program. Only a limited number of the homeless programs studied maintained contact with graduates of their programs for a period of at least six months to one year, primarily due to a lack of available resources that could be committed to this effort. Consequently accountability is problematic, and opened government homeless shelter programs to a firestorm of criticism. To understand the shift in homeless policy and using Porter's Generic Strategy Model as a way of categorizing low cost and differentiation for profit and nonprofit citation, this model was adapted for one segment of the social services – homelessness. These relationships can be modeled in Figure 1:

Centralized

For-profit / Non-profit Contractors (specific basic services)	Department of Social Services DSS Programs (i.e. Medicare, Medicaid)
Non-profit/private/government providers focused on service niche due to funding cuts (limited scope of basic services)	Non-profit, private, government providers focused on a sub-population niche (i.e. families, singles)

Low cost — **Differentiation**

Decentralized Local

FIGURE 1: HOMELESS PROVIDER STRATEGIC MODEL

In applying the model of Porter's we see the dynamic change in providing housing for the homeless. For the past forty years the homeless needs were met with the holistic approach that received funding from the government agencies and donors to nonprofit agencies. As the homeless population grew and became more obvious it is apparent that the strategy required is changing. The current strategy addresses the need for permanent housing. This change in strategy will create a differentiation of inputs and substitute providers who will enter this new business that will be funded by HUD. The cost advantages will move the homeless more quickly into permanent housing. The competition will motivate nonprofit agencies to become more enterprising. Business looks at increasing its product or service while success in this business will reduce the number of homeless and improve quality of life in the community.

This strategic evolution in providing social services can be understood using two continua. The traditional, long-standing continuum profiles the centralization of the homeless services, ranging from state efforts run by the Department of Social Services (DSS) to local efforts, including private non-profits (Daly, 2013; Jensen & Lolle, 2013). An emerging strategic continuum contrasts the nature of these service strategies. One end of the continuum is anchored by the traditional holistic approach differentiated by the quality and comprehensiveness of the service offerings. The other end is anchored in a low cost approach which offers a more limited slate of services meeting HUD effectiveness criteria. (Daly, 2013; Page, Beatty & Pavlik, 2008). This limited slate of targeted services has attracted the interest of increasing numbers of contractors: "groups of human services for-profits but also several large, well-financed and diversified corporations" (Frumkin & Clark, 2000, p. 145; see also Smith, & Lipsky, 2009).

Aspects of a more holistic approach, unless they could demonstrate clear contributions using the new prevention criteria of effectiveness, are increasingly starved of government funding (Daly, 2013. This changes the nature of strategic differentiation, and opens a new competitive arena-being a low cost provider. This is an opportunity for new entrants to provide the change in needs as HUD has defined creating competitive suppliers as noted in Porter's Five Forces.

IMPLEMENTING STRATEGY FOR CHANGE

The HEARTH Act introduced a cap on the amount of funding that communities can use for traditional shelter and street outreach services in favor of prevention assistance. Such policies pressure homeless service providers to move away from transitional housing programming for families—a program option that provides important services such as vocational training, employment counseling, and parenting classes that address the underlying causes of homelessness—and instead focus on emergency shelter and rapid re-housing.

Contractors

Contractors provide these services faster and cheaper than their government agency counterparts. In order to maintain lower costs, however, these larger for-profit corporate contractors provide a limited set of high margin services to as many homeless people at the state and local levels as possible to maximize profit (Daly, 2013; Smith, & Lipsky, 2009). This skimming strategy focuses on clients relatively easy to service, and has been accused of neglecting individuals requiring more comprehensive and lower margin services (Daly, 2013). Therefore, they often screen for and service those homeless people who have acute, not chronic problems (Frumkin & Clark, 2000).

Department of Social Services (DSS) Programs

These federal and state programs provide services for all homeless people including both chronic and acute. As discussed previously, the DSS programs differentiate themselves from their for-profit competition by offering comprehensive services to any homeless person such as food and nutrition services, basic medical care, independent living skills, employment counseling and job training (Daly, 2013; National Alliance to End Homelessness, 2009).

Focused Service Providers

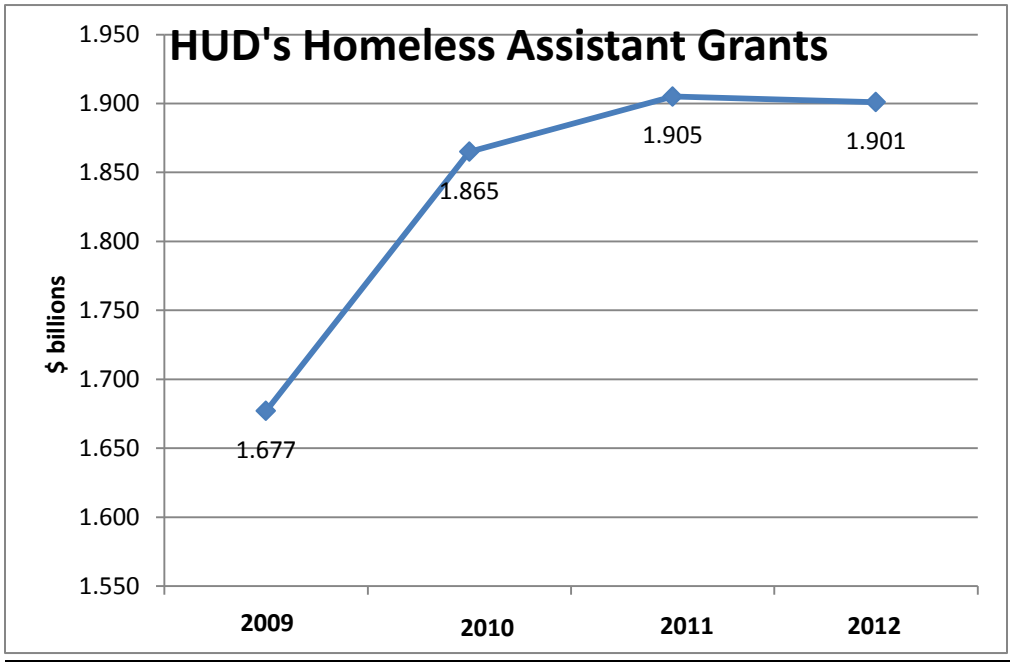
This group (i.e. local programs and charities) provides services for a service niche. They offer the best value proposition by combining effectiveness and low cost (doing more with less) through a restricted scope of programs to service the homeless (Schneider, 2009). These restrictions on services are typically involuntary constraints imposed by declines in funding (Daly, 2013). For example, they may offer non-basic services such as comprehensive evaluation and counseling for new members. This for-profit group can also provide resources sooner with better paid and qualified workers.

Targeted Service Providers

These programs cannot afford to provide services for all homeless people, so they target a specific homeless sub-population as focus differentiators. They customize their comprehensive services such as food and nutrition services, basic medical care, independent living skills, employment counseling and job training on the basis of a specific root cause, such as substance abuse, domestic violence, women and children, disabilities, etc. (Daly, 2013; Jensen & Lolle, 2013).

One amendment consolidated funding for the Supportive Housing Program (SHP), Shelter Plus Care (S+C) and Section 8 Single Room Occupancy (SRO) programs. The funding for a fourth program, Emergency Shelter Grants, was renamed Emergency Solutions Grants (ESG), whose funds were included in the Homeless Assistance Grants program (Table 1).

TABLE 1: HUD'S HOMELESS ASSISTANCE GRANTS (INCLUDES FUNDING OF LEGACY PROGRAMS: ESG, SHP, S+C, SECTION 8 SRO)



DIMENSIONS OF HOMELESSNESS

Definition of Homelessness

Federal law (for purposes of funding for state homelessness assistance programs) defines a homeless person as one who "lacks a fixed, regular, and adequate night-time residence and… has a primary night time residency that is (a) a supervised publicly or privately operated shelter designed to provide temporary living accommodations (b) an institution that provides a temporary residence for individuals intended to be institutionalized, or (c) a public or private place not designed for, or ordinarily used as a regular sleeping accommodation for human beings" (42 U.S.C. 11302 (a). This definition is shared by the National Coalition for the Homeless and the Stewart B. McKinney Act, 42 U. S. C. 11301, et seq. (1994).

Who and How Many People are Homeless

Given the nature of the population being studied, estimates vary, and most of the statistics are limited to the number of homeless people in a specified region. In a recent approximation *USA Today* estimated 1.6 million people (unduplicated persons) used transitional housing or emergency shelters. Of these people, approximately one-third were members of households with children, a nine percent increase since 2007 (Bello, 2010). Another approximation is from the study done by the National Law Center on Homelessness and Poverty (NLCHP) which states that approximately 3.5 million people, 1.35 million of them children, are likely to experience homelessness in a given year (NLCHP, 2007). At the 2008 U.S. Conference of Mayors an increase in homelessness was reported, attributed to rising foreclosure rates (2008 Status Report on Hunger & Homelessness).

In an effort to have a more accurate count of the homeless population the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) developed a data collection system (HUD's Annual Homeless Assessment Report [AHAR], 2009). Based on the Homelessness Management Information Systems (HMIS) data provided by the national AHAR sample, more than 1,150,000 total persons used emergency shelter and/or transitional housing nationwide from January through June 2006. Later AHARs included persons who were served only in domestic violence shelters due to identity protection laws, and those in the U.S. Territories or the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico. Since tracking began, the total numbers of homeless people have declined slightly. On a single night, there were 643,067 sheltered and unsheltered homeless people nationwide in 2009 (HUD, 2009), as compared to 610,042 people in January 2013 (HUD, 2013). The relative ratio of homeless people unsheltered versus sheltered has also declined slightly, with a rule of thumb of approximately 65 percent of homeless staying in some kind of shelter fit for human habitation.

Trends in Sheltered Population of Homeless

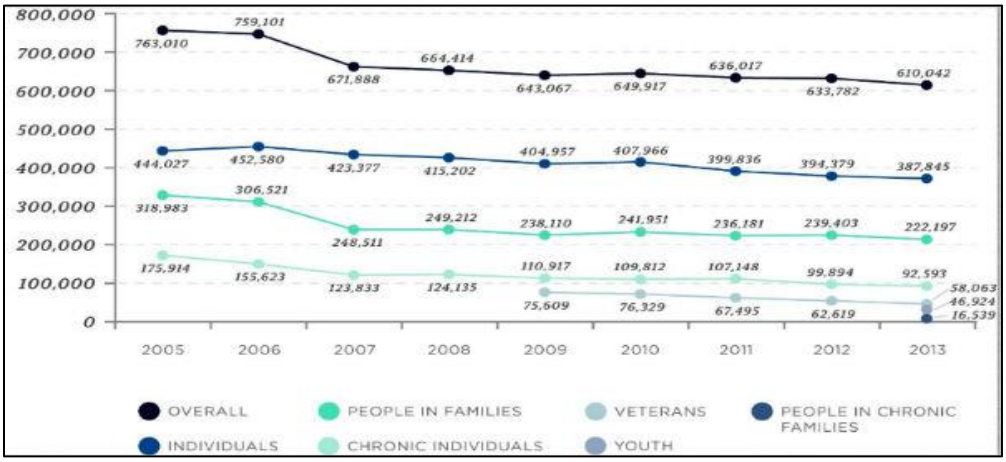
These patterns continue, with a few exceptions. In 2010 the statistics show family use of shelters has increased (Institute for Children, Poverty and Homelessness, 2011). In a January 2013 point-in-time estimate, there were 222,197 homeless people in families—36 percent of all homeless people (and 50 percent of people living in sheltered locations) (HUD, 2013).

Potential Causes of Homelessness

While there are many potential causes of homelessness, most fall into four subpopulations: domestic violence and poverty/unemployment (acute) and substance abuse and injury/illness (chronic) (Table 2). This model focuses on the root causes of homelessness, meaning that while there may be many contributing factors, there tends to be one predominant driver - either

overwhelming economic problems or overwhelming personal problems. The problems are either acute (if remediated, they can be temporary) or chronic (disability or repeated use, often difficult to resolve) (National Alliance to End Homelessness, 2013).

TABLE 2: TRENDS IN SHELTERED HOMELESS SUBPOPULATIONS 2005-2013



Source: 2005-2013 Continuum of Care Applications

Acute Conditions

Unemployment and poverty

One of the most direct causes of unemployment is the lack of a stable job. According to the Committee to End Homelessness, half of homeless adults make less than $300 per month. Unemployment can itself be caused by a number of factors, including a lack of jobs, a lack of marketable job skills and a lack of the resources necessary to secure and maintain steady work. When a homeless adult loses a job this may lead to poverty for a family.

Domestic violence

Domestic violence is one of the main contributors to homelessness, with many homeless people turning to the streets to flee a violent home life. According to the homeless services agency, Camillus House (2008), domestic violence is the second leading cause of homelessness among women. However, domestic violence can also contribute to homelessness among children who suffer from physical, psychological or sexual abuse, as well as among abused elderly and handicapped (Homeless Resource Center, 2006).

Chronic Conditions

A significant proportion of the sheltered homeless population is disabled. Sheltered homeless adults are more than twice as likely to have a disability when compared to the general U.S. population. Approximately 38 percent of adults who used a shelter between January 1 and June 30, 2006 had a disabling condition compared to 30 percent of the poverty population and 17 percent of the total U.S. population (U.S. Department of HUD, 2007).

Mental illnesses often prevent individuals from taking the steps necessary to secure appropriate housing, including holding a steady job. According to a survey by the U.S. Conference of Mayors, approximately 22 percent of single homeless adults suffer from a severe and persistent mental illness (U.S. Conference of Mayors, 2008).

Substance abuse

While statistics about addiction as a cause of homelessness are less certain, according to the Seattle-based Committee to End Homelessness, addiction plays a role in the status of many chronically homeless individuals ("Causes", para 4). For example, in Connecticut almost one out of five (18 percent) of the 423 homeless parents participating in a point-in-time survey in 2009 were chronically homeless, defined as disabled and either continuously homeless for over one year or having experienced at least four episodes of homelessness in the past three years. Seventeen percent of all homeless parents have been hospitalized for mental health issue, 17 percent have received treatment for substance abuse and 18 percent currently experience health conditions that limit their ability to work or achieve self-sufficiency. Parents have been diagnosed with HIV/AIDS at a much lower rate (5 percent). Data on co-occurring health conditions are not available (Hartford Commission to End Homelessness, 2007).

TRENDS IN HOMELESS REMEDIATION

Over the last decade, federal homelessness policy shifted its focus to ending chronic homelessness. With newly earmarked federal funding, states were encouraged to develop ten-year plans to address the needs of this population. These new priorities reflect research that many individuals and families become homeless because they simply lack the money to afford a suitable residence. According to Camillus House (2008), in 1995, there were 4.4 million fewer available units of low-income housing than households in need of such residences. In a survey of 25 major U.S. cities, the cities surveyed cited unaffordable housing as the leading cause of homeless among families (U.S. Conference of Mayors, 2008). For example, in Connecticut, three-quarters (74 percent) of the homeless adults lost their homes in 2010 due to economic factors, such as rent difficulties, eviction, or foreclosure, and three-quarters (75 percent) were unemployed at the time of the count. Nearly half (46 percent) had never previously experienced

homelessness, two-thirds (68percent) had completed at least high school, and over half (61 percent) reported no mental health, substance abuse or long-term medical issues (Connecticut Coalition to End Homelessness, 2010*).* Prioritizing rapid rehousing heads off a host of ills that accompany long-term homelessness. Making housing stability the center of a homelessness system helps bring other mainstream resources to bear, including benefits and cash assistance, supportive services, housing assistance, health care, job training, and food and nutrition services (National Alliance to End Homelessness, 2009). For example, in Connecticut public assistance is essential. Connecticut is the sixth most expensive state for rental housing in the country and the fourth most expensive state for rental housing in non-metropolitan areas, (National Low Income Housing Coalition, 2011).

In an effort to accomplish the goal of reducing homelessness HUD's Homelessness Prevention and Rapid Re-Housing Program (HPRP) provides assistance to facilitate this transformation. HPRP has developed "best practice" strategies for current shelter providers: to (a) prevent the imminent loss of housing and (b) minimize shelter time in favor of, rapid re-housing, and quickly transition to self-sufficient living including:

1. Create a uniform process for targeting assistance.
2. Create a common set of performance measures for programs.
3. Create a system of oversight that encourages better individual and system wide program outcomes.
4. Coordinate homelessness assistance with mainstream resources from other programs and agencies (National Alliance to End Homelessness, 2009).

These new priorities have seriously impacted certain subpopulations. While long-term homeless single adults with a mental illness or substance abuse received unprecedented attention, homeless families with children were overlooked. Not surprisingly, the number of sheltered and unsheltered chronically homeless singles dropped between 2008 and 2010 (by 11.5 percent to 109,920), while that of sheltered persons in homeless families continued to increase (by 5.2 percent to 190,995) (ICPH, 2011).

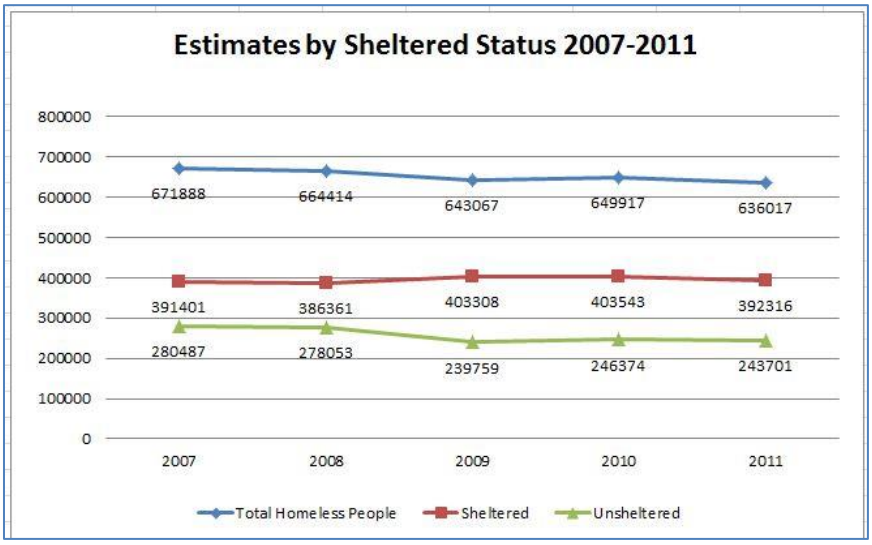
Recently released U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD, 2010) data show that this transformation of the homelessness services structure is already underway. The nation's year-round bed inventory for homeless families grew by 9.3percent (from 286,257 beds in 2008 to 312,815 in 2010), mainly due to a 24.5 percent expansion (of 18,772) in the number of permanent supportive housing beds. Meanwhile, 1,461 transitional housing beds were eliminated, representing a 1.3 percent decrease. In 2008, the largest share of the nation's bed capacity for families consisted of transitional housing beds (38.8 percent), followed by emergency shelter (34.5 percent) and permanent supportive housing beds (26.8 percent). In 2010, 30.5 percent (95,353) of beds fell into the permanent supportive housing category, while the share of transitional housing beds (35.0 percent or 109,512 total beds) declined.

Between 2008 and 2010, the largest number of states (20), primarily located in parts of the Midwest and across the Southwest, reduced their inventory of transitional housing beds and increased the number of permanent supportive housing beds available for families. Only five states went against the overall trend and enlarged their transitional housing bed capacity, while decreasing or not changing their permanent supportive housing bed stock. Seventeen states expanded their bed count in both categories, eight states eliminated beds of both types, and one state did not alter the number of beds for either group (U.S. Department of HUD Report to Congress, 2010).

Implications for Repositioning Homeless Shelters

Federal policy strongly influences which service models and homeless populations' communities focus on, primarily because of targeted funding for specific types of programs and projects (Table 3). The 2009 HEARTH Act significantly redirected available funding towards prevention and rapid re-housing. This focus moves to quickly stabilizing people in housing diminishes the chaos in their lives and enables programs to address their clients' longer-term service needs. Focusing on housing stability affords greater opportunity for the homelessness assistance and mainstream systems to succeed. Since its inception in 2009, approximately 900,000 people have been helped with the prevention services offered through the program. Of those people who have exited the program, "89 percent left to permanent housing" (U.S. Department of HUD Annual Report to Congress 2011). In time, this paradigm shift is intended to continue to produce a decline in homelessness individuals.

TABLE 3: ESTIMATES BY SHELTERED STATUS SOURCE: HUD



Declines in homeless families are more problematic. Due to the economic recession of 2008, there was an increase in acute homelessness representation of families with children. As a result,

the Homelessness Prevention and Repaid Re-Housing Program (HPRP) was put into place to provide homeless people into temporary housing until such time that they could relocate to permanent housing. As a result, the number of transitional housing beds available for families can be expected to decline even further. HUD's best practice of minimal stays in shelter and a swift transition to self-sufficient living in permanent housing overlooks a majority of families that require more time and supportive services to overcome barriers to financial independence, such as low educational attainment and lack of sufficient employment skills. Only time will tell if this policy shift away from transitional housing will ultimately benefit and reduce the number of homeless families (U.S. Department of HUD 2008, & HUD 2011*)*.

Given the shifts in resource allocation, strategic evolution is inevitable. ***Contractors*** with their low cost offerings will be in ascendance, provided the quality of their offerings does not slip to the point where they become ineffective. Given their focus on clientele with acute problems, particularly the newly homeless, who are relatively easy to service, this should not be difficult. ***Holistic, comprehensive state programs*** will remain in decline, unless they can empirically document how this more expensive differentiation approach is more effective. This case can be made for homeless with chronic problems, who are underserviced by contractors, but only if that sub-population makes real, measurable improvements due to those programs. Failing this, strategic drift towards another strategic focus or dissolution is inevitable. ***Focused service providers*** inhabit a reactive strategic niche which is difficult to sustain.

Their best value mantra rings true only so long as they are demonstrably more effective than low-cost contractors. This is difficult to do "on the cheap." However, as providers of token efforts for the chronic homeless, whose plight will be noticed, this strategic niche can be viable - providing external validation to government agencies in the interests of placating guilt and who need to maintain a positive public image. ***Targeted service providers*** have a viable and sustainable strategic focus, provided they select the right sub-population of the homeless to service. This sub-population must be in favor with HUD and/or with resource rich private funders. This strategy lives and dies on the basis of public perceptions of what type of homeless aid is perceived as popular and trendy.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Given that meaningful metrics of service effectiveness and quality are barely developing, this provider market is in a state of flux, which is likely to continue. Regardless of the emergent criteria, they will be controversial and subject to change, either from further financial exigencies or from shifts in public perception and support. Further research is clearly needed.

CONCLUSION

The federal government passed the HEARTH ACT that was signed into law in 2009. The U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) is the responsible government agency. The HUD business model is implemented nationally. It changed the paradigm for care for the homeless. HUD has deemed minimal stays in a shelter and a swift transition to self-sufficient living a "best practice". The current strategy for reducing homelessness is implementing homelessness prevention and rapid re-housing with funding away from the traditional concept. Although the commitment to end homelessness began in 2000 operational procedures needed to be developed and implemented in order to be effective.

In reviewing why one becomes homeless we have narrowed the business reason for homelessness to be either an acute or a chronic condition. The individual with the chronic condition may need several services. These services have typically been given by the Department of Social Services in the former business model. The individual with an acute condition may be a family needing housing and rental assistance because their home was foreclosed.

Housing availability is central to the success of this law. Cost of housing is an impediment that will require cities and towns to build additional permanent low cost housing units. If funding is cut for HUD's program to end homelessness the homeless will be at greater risk. In addition to serving the homeless by the established non-profit social service businesses, there are for profit competitors as well. The services that were provided by the non-profit providers from the Department of Social Services may be provided to the first time homeless persons by a for profit contractor. The for-profit competitor may reduce additional services however, provide housing meeting the overall objective of HUD's "best practice" to end homelessness. This changes the nature of strategic differentiation, and opens a new competitive arena being a low cost provider of the limited number of services deemed best practices by HUD. The first time homeless people who have acute, not chronic problems may be the market selected by the competition. The competitive for profit contractors will increase as government funding continues. The research for reducing homelessness in ten years needs to be documented for several years to track the results of the strategies that HUD has implemented to end homelessness and the resources needed to accomplish this business endeavor with positive social values for people and their community.

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SMS USAGE PATTERNS AND RELATIONSHIP INTIMACY

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ABSTRACT

This study explores the relationship between the usage patterns of Short Message Service (SMS) and the level of perceived interpersonal intimacy. Prior research in computer mediated communication (CMC) suggests that CMC can be impersonal or hyperpersonal depending on the media characteristics, communication goals, and how individuals use the media for communication. Being semi-synchronous and text-based, SMS is capable of relational communication to develop intimate interpersonal relationships. SMS usage patterns are closely related to SMS usage behaviors, communication content, and involvement in SMS experience, and hence may influence relationship intimacy among SMS users. An online survey targeted to the SMS users was conducted to investigate which usage patterns of SMS can enhance relationship intimacy. The study results showed the use of SMS for ubiquitous communication and social communication are significant predictors of relationship intimacy. The study also revealed a positive relationship between the amount of SMS use and relationship intimacy.

INTRODUCTION

Short Messaging Service (SMS) is commonly referred to as "text messaging". It is a service for sending and receiving short messages of up to 160 characters using mobile devices. In recent years, SMS has emerged as one of the most widespread and important forms of asynchronous communication that wireless carriers provide. The mobile trade group of the Cellular Telecommunications Industry Association (CTIA) reported in June 2012 that 184.3 billion text messages were sent a month in the US, up from 28.9 billion messages a month in 2007 (Stern, 2012). The tremendous spike in the usage of SMS is attributable to the prevalent accessibility of SMS at low cost and the increased use of smartphones. Text messaging is cheap, fast and simple. It is an inexpensive cell phone function accessible to almost all cell phone users. Most cell phones are capable of handling SMS without the need for additional applications, as long as the users have a plan that enables SMS. SMS runs on a lower bandwidth than voice communication, requires minimal skills in its use, and offers automated delivery. The availability and increased usage of smartphones have also made text messaging easier to use.

Teenagers adopted text messaging more quickly than other groups. About 54% of teenagers text daily (Lenhart, Ling & Campbell, 2010). Text messaging has become their preferred method of communication over calling, e-mailing, and face-to-face communication (Bielskas & Dreyer, 2012). Half of all American teenagers send 50 or more text messages a day, and one in three

sends more than 100 text messages a day (Lenhart et al., 2010). Most research has focused on the use of SMS by teenagers and young adults. Recently, as SMS becomes pervasive in our daily lives, older people also recognize the convenience of using SMS. It has been reported that 72 percent of cell phone owners rated text messaging as one of the most frequently used features on their cell phones (Pew Research Center, 2011). Adults send an average of 10 text messages per day (Lenhart, 2010). Despite the widespread use of SMS, very few studies have investigated the impact of SMS on social interaction among regular users. Little is known about the long-term consequences of SMS on the development and maintenance of interpersonal relationships.

SMS has become one of the most widespread forms of communication (Saxena & Chaudhari, 2011). Does SMS contribute to the closeness of interpersonal relationship? Although it is a form of asynchronous communication, SMS is imbued with a sense of immediacy to which other means of asynchronous communication (e.g., email) cannot compare, as most people have cell phones with them almost 24 hours a day. SMS supports a variety of informal, spontaneous, and opportunistic communications that are suitable for nurturing close relationships. This study explores the relationship between the usage patterns of SMS and relationship intimacy. SMS usage patterns are closely related to SMS usage behaviors, communication content, and involvement in SMS experience. This study investigates which usage patterns of SMS are most conducive to the enhancement of relationship intimacy.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Computer Mediated Communication

In the literature of computer medicated communication (CMC), there are two competing research streams concerning the influence of CMC on interpersonal communication and relationship. One research stream suggests that CMC is impersonal, task oriented rather than relational-focused, because it lacks many aspects of traditional face-to-face communication important for relationship development, such as physical presence, social, nonverbal, and contextual cues. The other research stream, on the contrary, points out that some key characteristics of CMC, such as attenuation of physical distance, greater control over the time and pace of interactions, and reduced importance of physical appearance (McKenna & Bargh, 2000; Mckenna, Green & Gleason, 2002), liberate relationships from spatial and temporal confines, allow greater freedom of self-expression, and thus create opportunities for interpersonal relationships that otherwise may not have had the chance to develop in face-to-face communication (Pool, 1983; Rheingold, 1993).

Daft and Lengel's Media Richness Theory (MRT) (Daft & Lengel, 1984) provides a framework that ranks communication media in terms of their richness. Media richness is defined as the ability of a medium to transmit information that can change understanding within a time interval (Daft & Lengel, 1984), which varies according to the medium's capacity for immediate

feedback, the number of cues and channels utilized, personalization, and language variety (Daft & Lengel, 1986). MTR indicates that CMC has a narrower bandwidth and less information richness than face-to-face communication. MTR further argues that effective communication depends on the extent to which the information richness requirement of the communication task matches the media richness of the communication medium. For example, media with higher richness (e.g., face-to-face communication) are better suited for building and developing relationships than those with less richness, such as CMC. In line with MRT, social presence theory (Short, Williams & Christie, 1976) and social context cues theory (Sproull & Kiesler, 1986) argue that reduced social context cues in CMC could decrease awareness and sensitivity, making CMC more impersonal than face-to-face communication. Furthermore, the presence of feedback delays and lack of social cues in CMC may lead to higher uncertainty about the other party's behaviors, which will in turn impede the development of interpersonal relationships (Berger & Calabrese, 1975). Although these theoretical perspectives suggest that CMC is not appropriate for interpersonal relationship development, however, some empirical studies have shown disconfirmation (Kerr & Hiltz, 1982; Hiltz & Turoff, 1978).

Media synchronicity theory (MST) (Dennis & Valacich, 1999) extends MRT by incorporating the effects of social influence and communication context on media richness, which are ignored by MRT. It posits that media richness is related not only to the social presence conveyed by the media, but also to their information processing capabilities. MST proposes five media capabilities that can affect communication: immediacy of feedback – the ability to support rapid bidirectional communication, symbol variety – the number of ways or channels in which information can be communicated, parallelism – the number of simultaneous conversations that can co-exist effectively, rehearsability – the extent to which the media allows the sender to rehearse or fine tune the messages before sending, and reprocessability – the extent to which message can be reexamined or processed again in the context of the communication event (Dennis & Valacich, 1999).

After examining the richness of several communication media (face-to-face meeting, email, phone, and etc.) based on the five capabilities, Dennis and Valacich (1999) found that no one medium can be classified as the richest on all the five dimensions. For example, face-to-face communication has the highest values on immediacy of feedback and symbol variety, but it is low on parallelism, rehearsability and reprocessability; while email and other asynchronous communication media are rated very high on rehearsability and reprocessability, but can be low on immediacy of feedback and symbol variety.

They also note that it is possible for one medium to possess different levels of a communication capability depending on how it is configured and used. For instance, electronic mail can have a limited symbol variety by being totally text-based, but it can include graphics, pictures and video in a message as well. Therefore, Dennis and Valacich (1999) further argue that it is not practical to rank media in order of their richness and that the best medium is dependent on whether it possesses a high level of the media capability that is most important to a given communication context.

Walther's (1992) Social Information Processing (SIP) theory suggests that CMC can serve as an effective communication channel for relationship building and maintenance if communicating parties are given enough time and opportunity to interact. CMC lacks social cues, but, overtime, it can provide the same level of opportunities for developing positive personal relationships as face-to-face communication. After sufficient time passes and users exchange numerous messages, the levels of relational development in CMC will begin to equal those experienced in face-to-face interactions. The lack of social context cues can also be advantageous because it can help the communicating parties to equally participate in the conversation. Therefore, CMC allows individuals to develop social relationships, but it takes longer than face-to-face communication.

According to SIP theory, interpersonal relationships in CMC develop from three factors – communicators' need for affiliation, their adaptation to the lack of nonverbal cues, and accrued knowledge of their communicating parties. First, communicators are naturally motivated to develop interpersonal impressions and affinity regardless of medium. Second, when nonverbal cues are not available, communicators adapt their interpersonal communication behaviors to whatever cues that are available through the communication medium they are using. Thus, in text-based CMC that does not carry visual and aural cues, communicators will adapt the textual cues to meet their needs to manage uncertainty and develop relationships. For example, communicators may use emoticons to substitute for nonverbal cues that are missing from CMC, such as using :-) to indicate a smile. Over time, CMC users develop the skills to communicate in a way that compensates for the absence of nonverbal cues. Finally, individuals in CMC adapt their strategies (e.g., interrogation, self-disclosure, deception detection, and etc.) for attaining psychological-level knowledge of their communicating parties without contextual or nonverbal cues. Based on these three factors, communicators are able to form impressions, gain interpersonal knowledge, and develop close interpersonal relationships solely through CMC.

Walther (1996) later developed the Hyperpersonal Model of CMC, which proposes that CMC is sometimes even more socially desirable than face-to-face communication. The lack of nonverbal cues in CMC can actually enhance interpersonal communication so that social goals can be more effectively pursued than in face-to-face communication. Since the verbal content that dominates CMC exchanges is easier to control and manipulate than non-verbal behaviors, CMC affords communicators the ability of selective self-presentation, transmitting only the cues that one desires others to have. In CMC, communicators can disguise or edit undesirable cues while magnifying preferred cues (Walther, 1996).

Therefore, individuals engaging in CMC are likely to form idealized impressions of one another based on strategically filtered personal information (Walther, 1996). In fact, due to the reduced social cues in CMC, information receivers often over-attribute the selectively presented social information transmitted via CMC (Walther, 1997). These over-attributions then result in idealized perceptions by the receivers (Walther, 1996). Thus, self-presentation and idealized impression in hyperpersonal CMC facilitate the development of interpersonal relationships. The hyperpersonal model also explains why people with social anxiety prefer CMC, indicating that they perceive CMC to be safer, easier, and more effective than face-to-face meeting. For

example, McKenna et al. (2002) found that the lonely and socially anxious individuals were better able to express themselves and develop close friendships in CMC than in face-to-face communication.

SMS Usage

SMS has emerged as the media for sending short, conversational messages. While SMS is asynchronous, it lends itself better than email to ongoing communication because SMS messages are usually received and answered rather soon (Deng, 2010). Therefore, SMS is semi-synchronous, located between the synchronous and the asynchronous communication media (Tjora, 2011). While SMS messages are transmitted as stand-alone text only messages, in comparison to other CMC (e.g., email), SMS is more personal and conversation-like (Deng, 2010; Kasesniemi & Rautiainen, 2002). Individuals tend to use SMS to chat with people they have personal relationships with, while use email for non-personal communication with colleagues and superiors. Therefore, the use of SMS is more related to interpersonal than to instrumental gratifications when compared to email. Since SMS is semi-synchronous in that the prompt attention of the communication partner is expected, SMS is often used to deal with immediate issues, such as coordination (Deng, 2010). SMS is also seen as suitable for conveying short, straightforward messages under situations involving unidirectional communication and information conveyance (Deng, 2010).

While SMS encompasses instrumental communications, such as transmitting useful information and coordinating the time and place of meetings, most SMS communications have a social tone (Deng, 2010; Thurlow, 2003). Expressive socio-emotional communications, e. g. greetings, congratulations, and jokes, are important in the daily use of SMS. Individuals consider SMS communications as enjoyable and pleasant because it is high in connectedness and sociability (Deng, 2010). SMS is also particularly important in maintaining contact with a wide social network (Deng, 2010). SMS allows people to maintain social bonds without committing much time and energy compared to other communication media (e.g., phone call).

People also use SMS to avoid a spoken conversation and have private communication without interrupting any ongoing events, such as attending meetings or classes (Barkhuus, 2006; Deng, Sun, Turner & Prince, 2009). Non-intrusive communication has emerged as a unique usage pattern of SMS, which suggests the motivation of using SMS to avoid talking (Deng et al., 2009). By eliminating the need to talk on the phone, SMS is discreet and does not intrude on the privacy of user when sending and receiving messages. SMS is so non-intrusive that it greatly enhances highly informal contacts that would not take place otherwise, such as by phone calls. SMS is frequently employed to send out messages (e.g., goodnight kiss) that do not need replies. People would never have called to deliver the same message. The frequent communication of such brief, informal SMS messages can significantly improve the social closeness between the communicators.

The review of CMC literature suggests that CMC can be impersonal or hyperpersonal depending on the media characteristics/richness, communication goals, and how individuals use the media for communication. On the one hand, due to the immediacy, mobility, and perpetual accessibility afforded by the mobile phone, SMS allows near-conversational levels of synchronous texting and resembles online chat in turn taking and discourse structure (Kasesniemi & Rautiainen, 2002). On the other hand, like other text-based asynchronous media, such as email, SMS allows time for message composition and reflection, and the opportunity for users to control the way they present themselves in their messages (Chenault, 1998; Danet, 1995; Ling & Yttri, 2002). Being semi-synchronous and text-based, SMS is therefore capable of relational communication to develop intimate interpersonal relationships. People use SMS for a variety of purposes, such as ubiquitous communication, information seeking, social communication, and non-intrusive communication (Deng et al., 2009). SMS usage patterns are closely related to SMS usage behaviors, communication content, and involvement in SMS experience, and hence may influence relationship intimacy among SMS users. Studying the relationship between SMS usage patterns and relationship intimacy can provide valuable insights into the ways whereby SMS promotes interpersonal intimacy. This study attempts to investigate which usage patterns of SMS are most conducive to the enhancement of relationship intimacy.

RESEARCH METHOD

Data Collection and Sample

The data was collected with an online survey questionnaire targeted to users of SMS. A screening question was included at the beginning of survey to determine whether the respondent is using SMS at the time of the survey. The survey website was designed in such a way that only the existing SMS users who use SMS at least once per day will be able to proceed with the survey. An email invitation with a link to the survey was sent to an online consumer survey panel. Cash incentive was provided to encourage participation in the survey. A total of 197 useable responses were received. All the respondents used SMS at least once a day. There were 121 female respondents (61.42%) and 76 male respondents (38.58%). The respondents' ages ranged from 18 to 67. A total of 119 respondents were between 18 and 29 years (60.41%), and the remaining 78 respondents were between 30 and 67 years old (39.59%). Most respondents (n=179, 90.86%) have used SMS for more than one year. 44.16% of the respondents (n = 87) sent at least one and maximally five SMS-messages a day, and 55.84% of the respondents (n = 110) sent more than five SMS-messages a day.

Measures

The survey instrument was developed by incorporating and adapting existing valid and reliable scales where appropriate. The item scales measuring SMS usage patterns were adapted from prior work on SMS usage patterns and motivations (Deng et al., 2009). The measurement items

for relationship intimacy were adapted from Parks and Floyd's Levels of Development in On-Line Relationships Scale (Parks & Floyd, 1996). Table 1 shows the measurement items for the survey. Survey participants were asked to respond to each item statement on a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored by "1=strongly disagree" and "7=strongly agree." I also measured the amount of SMS use by asking the respondents to report the average number of SMS messages sent per day. Respondents were also asked about their age, education, gender, occupation, and length of SMS use.

TABLE 1. MEASUREMENT ITEMS FOR THE SURVEY

Factor	Item	Content
Ubiquitous Communication	UQC1	To have the convenience of contacting others anytime anywhere
	UQC2	To contact people easily whenever I need to
	UQC3	To have the ease of contacting people anytime anywhere
Social Communication	SCC1	To coordinate time/places for social events
	SCC2	To organize social events
	SCC3	To coordinate activities with others
	SCC4	To plan logistics for social events
Information Seeking	INS1	To receive information or notifications, such as weather/traffic condition, appointment reminder, and etc.
	INS2	To keep up-to-date with everyday occurrences
	INS3	To receive information on topics I am interested in such as news
Non-intrusive communication	NIS1	To communicate with no commitment required
	NIS2	To communicate with people without interrupting currently ongoing events
	NIS3	To communicate without having to commit to a spoken conversation
Relationship Intimacy	REI1	Feel close to them most of the time
	REI2	Feel my relationship with them is satisfying
	REI3	Feel my relationship with them is important in my life
	REI4	Feel a close relationship with them

DATA ANALYSIS

Partial least square (PLS) – a component-based SEM technique is used for data analysis. PLS is considered suitable for this study due to its superior prediction capability and minimal demands on sample size and residual distributions (Chin, 1998a; Chin, 1998b; Fornell & Bookstein, 1982). In addition, PLS allows us to test the psychometric properties of the measurement scales (the measurement model) and the relationships among the variables (the structural model) simultaneously. All the four constructs of SMS usage patterns and the perceived relationship intimacy were modeled using multiple reflective indicators.

Measurement Model

The psychometric properties of the measurement scales for the variables were assessed in terms of convergent validity, discriminant validity, and reliability. The measurement scales have good convergent validity if each item's loading on its corresponding construct exceeds 0.70 (Garver & Mentzer, 1999). All the factor loadings of the measurement items on their corresponding constructs exceeded 0.70, indicating adequate convergent validity. To establish the discriminant validity, the measurement items should load higher on their respective constructs than the remaining constructs. Results show all the items' loadings on their own constructs were higher than the cross-loadings on other constructs (See Table 2). Another criterion for evaluating discriminant validity suggests that the average variance shared between the constructs and its indicators should be larger than the variance shared between the construct and other constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In other words, the square root of average variance extracted (AVE) of the constructs should exceed the inter-correlations among the constructs in the model (Chin, 1998b; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The correlation matrix presented in Table 3 indicates that the square roots of AVE on the diagonal are greater than the corresponding off diagonal inter-construct correlations. The discriminant validity of all factors is supported. The reliability of the measurement items was examined using the statistics of Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1971), composite reliability (Chin, 1998a), and AVE (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). It is suggested that Cronbach's alpha should exceed 0.70 (Cronbach, 1971), AVE should be 0.5 or greater (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), and composite reliability should be above 0.70 (Chin, 1998a) to indicate adequate reliability. Table 3 shows all values of composite reliability, AVE, and Cronbach's alpha are well above the 0.70, 0.50, and 0.70 thresholds. Results indicate high reliability of items.

TABLE 2. RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS – CROSS LOADING

	UQC	SCC	INS	NIS	REI
UQC1	0.917	0.422	0.297	0.490	0.481
UQC2	0.919	0.458	0.343	0.563	0.507
UQC3	0.912	0.435	0.391	0.569	0.451
SCC1	0.536	0.910	0.540	0.542	0.583
SCC2	0.412	0.945	0.570	0.514	0.570
SCC3	0.330	0.880	0.575	0.441	0.489
SCC4	0.463	0.926	0.561	0.510	0.485
INS1	0.113	0.366	0.774	0.288	0.171
INS2	0.454	0.558	0.890	0.457	0.501
INS3	0.237	0.555	0.855	0.347	0.369
NIS1	0.582	0.433	0.374	0.806	0.405
NIS2	0.354	0.445	0.295	0.827	0.274
NIS3	0.505	0.498	0.440	0.878	0.468
REI1	0.519	0.517	0.442	0.443	0.938
REI2	0.487	0.597	0.467	0.475	0.972
REI3	0.503	0.540	0.414	0.424	0.953
REI4	0.506	0.585	0.463	0.479	0.973

UQC = Ubiquitous Communication, SCC = Social Communication, INS = Information Seeking, NIC = Non-Intrusive Communication, REI = Relationship Intimacy

TABLE 3. COMPOSITE RELIABILITY, CRONBACH'S ALPHA, INTER-CONSTRUCT CORRELATION AND SQUARE ROOT OF AVE OF VARIABLES

	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha	UQC	SCC	INS	NIC	REI
UQC	0.940	0.904	0.916				
SCC	0.954	0.936	0.479	0.916			
INS	0.879	0.813	0.374	0.612	0.841		
NIC	0.876	0.792	0.590	0.550	0.454	0.838	
REI	0.979	0.971	0.525	0.585	0.466	0.475	0.959

UQC = Ubiquitous Communication, SCC = Social Communication, INS = Information Seeking, NIC = Non-Intrusive Communication, REI = Relationship Intimacy

Structural Model

The path coefficients and explained variances for the structural model are shown in Figure 1. PLS model does not generate the model fit statistics, but uses the R square values (explained variance) in the dependent construct to assess the explanatory power of a structural model. Figure 1 shows that the four usage patterns of SMS and the amount of SMS usage accounted for 44.6% of the variance in perceived relationship intimacy.

As indicated by the path coefficients in Figure 1, the usage of SMS for ubiquitous communication and social communication were found to be significant predictors of perceived interpersonal intimacy, while using SMS for information seeking and non-intrusive communication did not influence relationship intimacy. In addition, the amount of SMS usage seemed to affect relationship intimacy, although its path coefficient was significant at the 0.1 level, not significant at the 0.05 level.

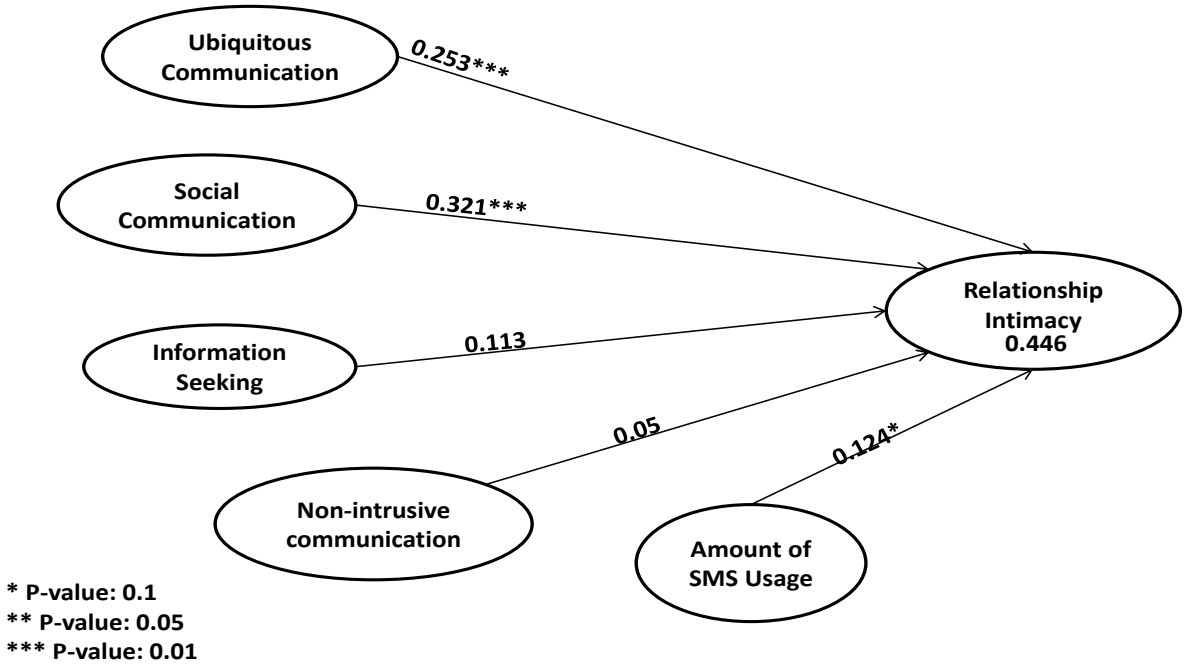

FIGURE 1. PLS STRUCTURAL MODEL RESULTS

DISCUSSION

The study drew on the theories and findings from prior CMC research (e.g., the hyperpersonal model of CMC), and provided empirical support for the positive effects of SMS usage on interpersonal relationship intimacy. The results revealed that respondents enhanced their relationships with others through ubiquitous communication and social communication via SMS. Those who reported heavier SMS usage developed closer relationships with others. Being semi-synchronous, text-based and conversation-like, SMS affords people a greater frequency of interpersonal communication anytime anywhere, the time for message construction and reflection, and the opportunity to manage self-presentation and involvement in their messages, which in turn encourage intimate interpersonal relationships.

Several limitations of this study need to be noted when interpreting the results. One limitation is related to the sample for this study. The sample showed some bias toward female respondents, with 61.42% female and 38.58% male. To investigate whether gender has a moderating effect on the relationships between SMS usage patterns and relationship intimacy, I conducted PLS analysis on the female sample and male sample respectively. The results indicate the PLS models are not different by gender. Since the PLS model operates similarly for both female and male respondents, I believe the sample does not pose a serious threat to the validity of results of this study. Other limitations of this study include those often considered to be the disadvantages of survey research, such as self-reported data and difficulty to infer causality from the observed cross-sectional associations.

This study will benefit from future research that could provide further support for the causal relationship between SMS usage and interpersonal intimacy. Longitudinal studies and experimental studies are useful for establishing causation. Controlling potential confounding variables (such as gender, age, type of relationship, and etc.) and measuring relationship intimacy before and after SMS usage should be considered in future research. In addition, a content analysis of SMS messages could also provide future insights into SMS usage patterns and their effects on relational intimacy.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper was motivated by an interest in understanding of the effect of SMS usage on interpersonal intimacy. It investigated whether and how the use of SMS influences the relational intimacy of SMS users. The findings of this study suggest that individuals who use SMS for ubiquitous communication and social communication with others are likely to develop more close relationships with others. The study also indicates a positive relationship between the amount of SMS use and relationship intimacy. These findings are consistent with the hyperpersonal model of CMC (Walther, 1996). They not only suggest that the use of SMS can promote relationship intimacy, but also provide a better understanding of how people utilize SMS to enhance interpersonal intimacy.

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ACADEMIC ADVISING AND STUDENT LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT

This article explores the means whereby academic advising may strengthen its role in higher education by doing what H/R has done in the management world: become a strategic partner in the pursuit of the core mission of an organization. Specific emphasis is placed on the role advising can play in the development of students as leaders in society, which has become a major component of many university mission statements. More specifically, the authors discuss the relationship between advising and leadership development and propose specific educational processes related to coaching, mentoring, and teaching that may be implemented to facilitate student development via academic advising.

INTRODUCTION

In spite of the significant strides that have been made in academic advising over the past two decades, advising as a process in higher education is still working to achieve a universal sense of clarity regarding its role and purpose. In order to address this need, advising practitioners, scholars, and proponents have argued that advising is teaching and have proposed models and processes that restructure it to fit this philosophy (Hurt, 2007; Lowenstein, 2005; Morris, 2009; Ryan, 1992). This has led to the use of some similar educational processes in the delivery methods of advising, which include the use of advising syllabi (Trabant, 2006) and student learning outcomes (Campbell & Nutt, 2008; McClellan, 2011). These efforts and practices have strengthened the perceived importance of advising and allowed for some significant gains regarding how the function is perceived.

In spite of these gains, academic advising remains a difficult concept to define (Schulenberg & Lindhorst, 2008). Indeed, what it means to advise and how advising is practiced varies from institution to institution (Drake & Jordan, 2013). In addition, the value of academic advising as an educational practice as opposed to a clerical function is still not universally accepted.

To further address this need, academic advising could take a lesson from the field of human resource management. Like academic advising, human resource management has historically played an important role within the realm of business. However, human resource offices are typically identified as a staff, even clerical, function as opposed to a line function. Tragically, this perception has delimited both the acceptance of and the importance that was placed upon HR in the world of business.

Faced with the realities of how HR was perceived, human resource management scholars and practitioners sought to re-conceptualize the role of HR in the 1990s by offering a vision of HR as a critical strategic partner in achieving the core work of the businesses of which they were a part (Ulrich, Losey, & Lake, 1997). This perspective was well articulated by Rucci's (1997), who suggested that HR needed to spend "far less time worrying about how to strengthen itself instead of how to strengthen organizational effectiveness" (p. 197). This approach, arguably, proved an essential contributor to the reemergence of the HR field and helped HR maintain its legitimacy over the past decade. This article suggests that academic advising may further strengthen its position in higher education by linking its educational processes and outcomes to one of the core objectives of modern universities and colleges: the development of future leaders.

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

One of the emerging trends in higher education is the growing emphasis on leadership development and education. Universities across the country are establishing and expanding leadership minors, majors, centers, programs, and other similar development efforts (Komives et al., 2011; Longo & Gibson, 2011). Leadership studies is emerging as a potentially new academic discipline (Riggio & Harvey, 2011). At the same time, employers are expressing a desire for improvement in leadership development and leadership related competencies (Associates., 2013; The Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills, 2000). These parallel trends have led many universities to incorporate leadership as part of the core missions of their institutions, as evidenced by its inclusion in many mission statements (Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education, 2011). This, of course, begs the question: what is meant by leadership.

DEFINING LEADERSHIP

In the literature on leadership it is common to discuss the abundance of divergent definitions that exist for the terms "leader" and "leadership." As Antonakis, Cianciolo, and Sternberg (2004) wrote, "Leadership is easy to define in situ; however, it is hard to define precisely. Given the complex nature of leadership, a specific and widely accepted definition of leadership does not exist and might never be found" (p. 5). This explains why so many different philosophies (leadership as trait, style, behavior, process, relationship) and models of leadership exist (transformational, charismatic, servant, authentic, etc.) (Northouse, 2012). It is also part of the

reason that many institutions develop their own leadership competency models to suit their specific environments and organizational contexts (Hollenbeck, McCall Jr., & Silzer, 2006). While a review of the various models and approaches to leadership is well beyond the scope for this paper, a brief summary of the most significant models used in higher education is provided in Figure 1.

Model	Description and Outcomes	Processes
Servant Leadership (Greenleaf, 2002; Spears, 1998)	Leadership should be focused on serving followers to grow as persons and achieve success	Listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community
The Leadership Challenge (Kouzes & Posner, 1995)	Identifies the practices behind extraordinary leadership experiences	Inspiring a shared vision, Challenging the process, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart.
Transformational Leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006)	Encourages followers to transcend self-interest in the pursuit of morally-worthy, transformational change	Idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.
Adaptive Leadership (Heifetz, 1994; Heifetz & Linsky, 2002; Parks, 2005)	Focuses on how leaders facilitate change by helping followers examine their fundamental mental models and values and accept responsibility for promoting truly evolutionary social change through	"Getting on the balcony," being present, managing relationships with allies and opponents, carefully managing conflict by regulating emotional intensity, giving the work back by shifting responsibility to those involved in the work, and holding steady to the end.
The Social Change Model of Leadership	Suggests that leadership is a collaborative and inclusive, values based, shared group process that is focused on promoting positive social change	Processes are based on values at three levels: Individual values: Consciousness of self, congruence, and commitment; Group values—Collaboration, common purpose, and controversy with civility; Social/community value—Citizenship
For a more in-depth summary of these models and how they relate to academic advising see (McClellan, 2013b)		

FIGURE 1: POPULAR MODELS OF LEADERSHIP IN HIGHER EDUCATION

While addressing all of these multiple models is not viable in this article, it is possible and necessary to offer a definition of leadership as a foundation for what follows. By focusing on what many definitions and models have in common, as opposed to what differentiates them, leadership can be defined as a process of social influence that is directed towards the achievement of some goal or end. To influence others to engage in goal oriented behaviors, leaders possess, demonstrate, and or use the characteristics, skills, relationships, processes, and roles they possess. As a result, leaders are those within any discipline or field who influence others within that discipline or field. This ability to practice leadership across a variety of domains is what makes it a viable institutional priority within universities.

It is not just this flexibility; however, that makes leadership development a viable outcome. It is also the alignment that exists between the competencies of leadership, the desired outcomes of higher education, and the needs of employers. To illustrate this alignment, consider the three models summarized in Figure 2. The first represents the agreed upon outcomes of a liberal education via AAC&U. The second is a research based leadership competency model that is well aligned with the various models outlined previously. The third is a statement on essential skills in the modern workforce, though dated, it is still relevant and widely used (Associates., 2013).

Desired Outcomes of Higher Education: AAC&U Leap Report (2007)	Essential Leadership Competencies: Zenger and Folkman (2002)	Critical Workplace Skills: SCANS Report (2000)
Knowledge of Human Culture and the Physical World		
Intellectual and Practical Skills	Demonstrate Technical and professional expertise	Works with a variety of technologies Reading & Writing
• Inquiry and Analysis	Solve problems and analyze issues	Decision Making
• Critical & Creative Thinking	Innovate	Reasoning Creative Thinking
• Written and Oral Communication	Communicate powerfully and prolifically	Listening and Speaking
• Quantitative Literacy		Mathematics Problem Solving
• Information Literacy		Acquires and uses information
Teamwork and Problem Solving	Develop strategic perspectives Engage in collaboration and teamwork; Establish Stretch goals; Focus on results Inspire and motivate others	Identifies, organizes, plans and allocates resources
• Personal and Social Responsibility	Take responsibility	
• Civic knowledge and engagement	Champion Change	
• Intercultural knowledge and competence	Build relationships	Works with others [interpersonal and team]
• Ethical reasoning and action	Display high integrity and honesty	
Foundation and skills for lifelong learning	Practice self-development Develop others	Knowing how to learn
Integrative learning	Connect Internal Groups with the outside world	Understands complex inter-relationships within systems

FIGURE 2: ALIGNMENT ACROSS OUTCOME MODELS

These models demonstrate the strong intersection among the competencies associated with the desired outcomes of higher education, the practices of effective leadership, and the needs of employers. This alignment suggests that a focus on leadership in higher education is valuable because most academic disciplines can both contribute to and benefit from its development. Furthermore, leadership ability is one of the major outcomes employers expect graduating college students to possess. This relationship between the goals of liberal education and the needs of the workforce offers a potential resolution to the conundrum of career oriented vs. liberal arts oriented education (Longo & Gibson, 2011). It does so by allowing educators to focus on competencies at the institutional level that transcend discipline based differences, avoid sacrificing discipline specific education, and align educational outcomes with the needs of the modern workforce. While this by no means suggests that leadership should be the focal outcome of higher education in general, it does offer a rationale and justification for why it is an area of emphasis at a growing number of institutions across the country.

ADVISING AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

If leadership development is emerging as an essential element of the work of universities and colleges, academic advising may benefit as a potential strategic partner by identifying how the advising process can contribute to the development of leaders. This is particularly relevant given that the CAS standards list academic advising as one of the potential outcomes of academic advising. See Figure 3 for an overview of these outcomes and an analysis of how they relate to the leadership competencies identified by Zenger and Folkman (2002).

Domain	Outcomes	Leadership Competencies
Knowledge Acquisition, integration, construction, and application	Understanding knowledge from a range of disciplines; connecting knowledge to other knowledge, ideas, and experiences, constructing knowledge, and relating knowledge to daily life	Demonstrate Technical and professional expertise
Cognitive Complexity:	Critical thinking, reflective thinking, effective reasoning, and creativity	Solve problems and analyze issues Innovate Develop strategic perspectives
Interpersonal development:	Realistic self-appraisal, self-understanding, and self-respect; identity development, commitment to ethics and integrity; and spiritual awareness	Display high integrity and honesty Practice self-development
Interpersonal Competence:	Meaningful relationships, interdependence, collaboration, and effective leadership	Inspire and motivate others Build relationships Engage in collaboration and teamwork
Humanitarianism and civic engagement:	Understanding and appreciation of cultural and human differences, social responsibility, global perspective, and sense of civic responsibility	Take responsibility
Practical competence:	Pursuing goals, communicating effectively, technical competence, managing personal affairs, managing career development, demonstrating professionalism, maintaining health and wellness, and living a purposeful and satisfying life	Establish Stretch goals Focus on results Communicate powerfully and prolifically Champion Change

(Council for the Advancement of Standards, 2005)

FIGURE 3: ADVISING OUTCOME DOMAINS

As this chart suggests, the outcomes of advising are well aligned with leadership competencies. Consequently, it is not a stretch to argue that advising has a lot to offer in relation to leadership development. In particular, there are two ways in which advising can be organized to focus on these outcomes: first, by supporting the educational work of the university in relation to leadership development and, second, by directly contributing in its own unique way to the development of leaders.

SUPPORTING STUDENTS LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

One of the major roles of academic advisors is to assist students in their development throughout the college experience. Indeed, much of the early literature on academic advising focused on this developmental role (Crookston, 1972; O'Banion, 1972; Winston, Miller, Ender, Grites, & Associates, 1984). More recently, Grites (2013) explained that this approach "encourages academic advisors to use their own skills to identify each students skills, abilities, and expectations; to know the resources and opportunities available to the student; and to support maximum growth (development) in academic, personal, and career goals" (p. 45). This approach is ideally suited to supporting the institution in its efforts to develop students as leaders based on the role of advisors in relation to promoting personal and career growth. However, to facilitate leadership development, advisors need to understand the leadership development process and their role within it.

In much of the literature, leadership development is framed as an intentional process that requires an individual leader to assess his or her characteristics, skills, styles, approaches, etc. and their relevance within the contexts in which he or she leads. This is often achieved through 360 feedback processes or other mechanisms that acquire feedback from those one leads, self-analysis, and personal or facilitated reflection. Such feedback can focus on strengths or on areas that require improvement (Buckingham & Clifton, 2001; Lawson, 2008; Zenger & Folkman, 2002). The end goal is to establish goals for improving as a leader.

Academic advising is ideally suited to this function within higher education. Through the use of assessment tools, academic advisors can assist students to identify where they stand in relation to any competencies or elements of leadership models deemed essential within their respective institutions or fields. By then supporting students in the acquisition of feedback and facilitating the reflection process, advisors can help students identify leadership development goals. In contrast, a student who is going into business might select goals that focus on conducting effective meetings, negotiating, and coaching followers. For example, a student who is interested in going into politics might establish goals for improving his or her public speaking, impression management, networking, and writing skills. The advisor could then guide and support the student as he or she determines how best to assess and monitor growth in relation to the relevant competencies.

Once goals are established, the next step in the leadership development process is to identify means and methods of promoting development (Lawson, 2008). This involves identifying appropriate people, resources, and programs that can help leaders to improve in accordance with their goals, and then focusing on developing a plan for using these resources to achieve the goals outlined. Once the plan is developed and implemented, feedback is sought to assure that the plan is contributing to the leader's development as intended.

Once again academic advisors are ideally suited to contribute to this process in higher education. Once students articulate their goals in relation to leadership, advisors can engage in conversation with them about how best to achieve these goals during their university experience. In many cases, this involves simply refocusing conversations that advisors already have with students, about participation in campus clubs and organizations, internships, study abroad experiences, etc., on how these activities will helps students to achieve their leadership goals. For example, a student interested in developing his or her public speaking's skills, might recommend involvement in toastmasters or other public speaking club. This approach also provides a way of reflecting upon such participation to see if it contributed to a student's development as he or she intended.

An additional, essential component of the leadership development processes is the recruitment of others as supporters of the leader's efforts to improve (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). This is one of the major reasons that leadership coaching has become a major force in the world of leadership development (Goldsmith, Lyons, & Freas, 2000). Advisors are an excellent source of support for students in this capacity, as evidenced by the emphasis on advising as a coaching process (McClellan, 2013a; McClellan & Moser, 2011). In fact, coaching represents not only a means of facilitating student leadership development; it also provides an opportunity to contribute directly to leadership growth through advising.

DIRECTLY CONTRIBUTING TO LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Richard Light's (2001) now famous quote, which is used abundantly in the advising literature suggests that "good advising may be the single most underestimated characteristic of a successful college experience" (p. 81). The importance of this statement in relation to the potential role of advising as a leadership development process cannot be understated. Advising is essential and important because it provides a service that no other institutional program or office can provide: one-on-one interaction with all students that helps them to make critical educational, career, and life decisions. This role provides unique opportunities for teaching and mentoring. Indeed, it is the uniqueness of this role and its inherently educational nature that validates the argument that advising is an instructional endeavor (Hurt, 2007; Lowenstein, 2005; Ryan, 1992).

Due to its educational role, the National Academic Advising Association (2006) has conceptualized advising as, integral to fulfilling the teaching and learning mission of higher

education. Through academic advising, students learn to become members of their higher education community, to think critically about their roles and responsibilities as students, and to prepare to be educated citizens of a democratic society and a global community. Academic advising engages students beyond their own world views, while acknowledging their individual characteristics, values, and motivations as they enter, move through, and exit the institution. Regardless of the diversity of our institutions, our students, our advisors, and our organizational structures, academic advising has three components: curriculum (what advising deals with), pedagogy (how advising does what it does), and student learning outcomes (the result of academic advising). Thus advising is outcomes oriented and involves pedagogical processes and curricular components. As mentioned previously, the CAS standards for academic advising programs (Council for the Advancement of Standards, 2005) include leadership as a specific outcome as well as many of the same outcomes identified by Zenger and Folkman (2002).

The pedagogy and curriculum of advising are likely to be institution and role specific, but will typically still involve one-on-one, repetitive instructional processes that incorporate teaching, coaching and mentoring wherein advisors and students mutually influence each other to achieve goals and discuss and make decisions regarding the student's plans. Academic advising, therefore, provides a laboratory in which students can both observe leadership (goal oriented social influence processes that occur between the advisor and the student) and practice it with immediate feedback. As multiple authors have explained and demonstrated, advising is a leadership process (Barbuto, Story, Fritz, & Schinstock, 2009; Lerstrom, 2008; McClellan, 2013b; Paul, Smith, & Dochney, 2012) that can contribute to the development of the student as leader (McClellan, 2013b). This educational role of advising in relation to leadership development can, therefore, be achieved through intentional coaching, effective mentoring, and purposefully instructing students to help them understand leadership and grow as leaders.

INTENTIONAL COACHING

Executive coaching, at its simplest, is "a short- to medium-term relationship between an executive and a consultant with the purpose of improving an executive's work effectiveness." (Feldman & Lankau, 2005, p. 829). While this definition applies primarily to a specific type of coaching, with mild adjustments, it can be adapted to apply to most coaching processes, including academic coaching.

Effective coaching involves processes at three levels (McClellan, 2013a). The first level is the long term developmental level, which extends across the length of the relationship and focuses on assessing the individual's developmental needs, providing coaching to meet these needs across multiple sessions, adapting the focus of coaching to respond to changing needs, and measuring growth and progress. Advising programs that are focused on leadership development at this level would need to identify leadership oriented student learning outcomes and then structure the advising program to assess student needs, coach students regarding their development in relation to these needs, and measure their progress. One of the best ways to do

this is to simply use the leadership models adopted by the institution, division, or program. For example, if a university uses servant leadership as a guiding model, then outcomes would include increased self-awareness, service-orientation, listening, empathy, foresight, etc. Specific instrument that measure servant-leadership or facilitate reflection could be used to assess student growth. Coaching would then focus on helping student make decisions regarding courses, extra-curricular activities, and other forms of involvement that are aligned with their goals, as well as providing feedback and helping student process their efforts regarding how their growth as a servant-leader. This could be as simple as regularly asking the student, "as one who is striving to be a servant-leader, how could you approach this situation in a way that is consistent with that approach to leadership?" Much of this type of interaction would take place within the individual sessions and decision-making processes that occur between the advisor and the student.

The second level of coaching occurs in each individual session (McClellan, 2013a). It relates to the way in which the coaching session is structured. Typically, such sessions begin with greeting and rapport building and then move through focused inquiry regarding the goals of the session to the facilitation of decision making and planning. They then conclude with a review of decisions made in the session and discussion of future sessions. This process is similar in many ways to the one-to-one advising process (Nutt, 2000). The key difference is that advising typically focuses more on academic, career, and life related issues; whereas coaching traditionally focuses on professional success and leadership development. In addition, there are aspects of the advising process that are prescriptive as well as developmental (Brown & Rivas, 1994; Fielstein, 1994). Advisors need to provide information regarding policies, procedures, degree requirements, etc. in addition to coaching students in relation to managing their own educational experience.

In order to focus this level of advising as coaching on leadership development, advisors could include discussions of student leadership development as part of the agenda for individual sessions. Thus in addition to addressing immediate prescriptive challenges and reviewing academic progress, advisors can also review student's progress towards the achievement of their leadership development goals. This may involve prescriptive advising about programs and processes available to help the student, as well as developmental advising/coaching that supports the student as he or she decides how to incorporate these resources into his or her development plan.

The final level of coaching involves a coach facilitating the decision-making process of a client in relation to a specific issue (McClellan, 2013a). This process may occur multiple times within an individual session or it may occur only once. As would be the case in academic advising where no set definition or approach to advising has been established, this process is structured differently depending on the model and approach to coaching that is used by a specific coach. However, it generally involves identifying a topic or issue for discussion, discussing the nature of the topic or issue, identifying goals, reflecting on actions already taken, brainstorming possible actions to achieve goals, developing a plan for proceeding, and discussing how to measure and assess progress.

Advisors can promote leadership development at this level, once again, by simply ensuring that it is a topic or issue that is focused upon in a given session. This may involve helping student reframe the situations and decisions they face as leadership development opportunities. For example, as student who is concerned about meeting with a teacher to discuss a grade might be asked to think about the situation as an opportunity to practice his or her negotiation skills. A discussion could then follow about how to do this effectively. The results of the faculty–student conversation and what the student learned from it could then be discussed briefly in a later session. No further alterations of the process would be necessary. Thus coaching is a natural way whereby advisors can contribute directly to the development of students as leaders by drawing upon the unique contributions that the advising relationship has to offer within the educational process. The same is true of mentoring and instruction.

EFFECTIVE MENTORING

A second way in which advisors can directly contribute to the development of students as leaders is through effective leadership mentoring. While similar in some respects to coaching, mentoring is nonetheless a unique development oriented process. In the realm of business, Russell & Adams (In Payne & Huffman, 2005) defined mentorship as "an intense interpersonal exchange between a senior experienced colleague (mentor) and a less experienced junior colleague (protégé) in which the mentor provides support, direction, and feedback regarding career plans and personal development" (p. 158). Personal development can include, of course, leadership development (Friday & Friday, 2002). This definition can be applied to the advisor student relationship simply by introducing the advisor in the mentor role and the student in the role of the protégé. It can be differentiated from the coaching relationship in that whereas coaching focuses on facilitating student decision making, mentoring focuses on providing advice guidance and feedback students to support growth. As a result of the type of interactions advisors have with students, they are ideally suited to serve as mentor in relation to academic success, as well as leadership development.

The mentor relationship is not a new one for academic advisors, even though it is a distinct role with distinct characteristics and practice (Baker & Griffin, 2010). Advisors have always been individuals who, having successfully completed their own academic training and are, therefore, able to mentor students in the completion of their own. This is something students also expect to receive from an advisor (Baker & Griffin). While, the mentoring provided often relates to effective study strategies, time management, and other academic success practices, advisors have provided guidance on developing effective relationships with faculty, influencing peers, and communicating effectively. These represent leadership competencies around which leadership mentoring can occur. Additional competencies include decision-making, team formation and leadership, planning, etc.

To engage in leadership mentoring, advisors would first need to identify the leadership competencies and skills that students need and which they have the opportunity to apply in the roles they possess at the university. Skills such as public speaking, negotiating, networking, conducting meetings, planning, etc., could all be relevant here. Advisors would then need to develop an understanding of and skill in these areas; though in many cases they could and probably should simply select those skills sets wherein they are already proficient. Having done so, advisors can then proceed to assist students to identify areas for improvement in relation to these competencies and skills and offer feedback and guidance as to how to do so. Mentoring a student can be as simple as keeping in touch with the student and giving them advice or offering suggestions regarding a leadership position that the student holds on campus or the way in which the student organizes his or her time, a commonly mentioned foundational skill of effective leaders (Covey, 1989; Roberts, 2007).

A word of caution is merited here. Universities should exercise care when mandating the task of mentoring to advisors as formal mentoring programs that mandate involvement and assign mentor-mentee relationships often fail (Baker & Griffin, 2010; Payne & Huffman, 2005). The key is to insure that student interest and developmental needs are aligned with advisor skills and abilities and that a positive, educational relationship develops between them. Intentional training of advisors as mentors and follow up with advisees to see if they are happy with their arrangements may be an effective way to offset mentorship failure (Payne & Huffman, 2005).

PURPOSEFUL INSTRUCTION

Advisors are teachers. In their role, they teach students both content and process. They teach them about the world of higher education and what it takes to be successful in that world. As part of this curriculum, they educate students in interdisciplinary thinking, critical reflection, understanding of and meaning making in relation to the curriculum, transference of knowledge, and application of what is learned in the classroom (Lowenstein, 2005). This is a complex and varied curriculum and requires that advisors possess a breadth of knowledge and instructional skill.

While it may be a lot to ask advisors to also acquire some basic knowledge of leadership theories and developmental processes so they can directly instruct students regarding leadership, if they are to become educational partners at institutions where leadership is a core developmental outcome, a basic understanding of leadership development, theory, and practice would be of value. This would not require an extensive amount of training as a basic knowledge of leadership development in college can be acquired from a few select materials (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 1998; Roberts, 2007).

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, academic advising is an instructional endeavor that has the potential to serve as a strategic partner in the educational process. As university and college leaders identify core learning outcomes for their institutions, including an emphasis on leadership development, they should not overlook the tremendous contributions that academic advising can make to these educational outcomes. Its one-on-one relational nature makes advising an ideal and unique contributor, both directly and indirectly, to leadership development through processes such as coaching, mentoring, and instruction. As these practices are leveraged toward leadership development, academic advising programs can do what HR has done to strengthen its own legitimacy in the world of business. That is, they can become a critical strategic partner in pursuing the goals of the institution and the development of its students.

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FOSTERING MINDFULNESS IN MANAGEMENT THROUGH MOVEMENT: THE VALUE OF CONTACT IMPROVISATION

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ABSTRACT

As innovation and organizational learning have moved into center stage managers are called on to develop two crucial capabilities: improvisation and mindfulness. In attempting to understand organizational and individual improvisation, scholars have turned to artistic forms in which improvisation is foregrounded and organizations have brought in artists to run workshops on improvisation. Mindfulness has similarly attracted attention from both scholars and practitioners. In this article, I discuss a form of improvisational partner dance that ties these two practices together. In doing so, Contact Improvisation also helps bridge the gap between the solitary practice of mindfulness meditation and the interpersonal improvisation of organizational life.

INTRODUCTION

In today's dynamic business environment (Bettis & Hitt, 1995), organizational learning and adaptability have come to take center stage (Senge, 2006). The tools of analytic planning are passé (Mintzberg, 1994). Strategy is more emergent and requires fast and creative response. One must make a quick decision; try out provisional solutions with an eye towards modifying them. While those provisional attempts might be subsequently perfected, by the time that perfection occurs, the environment has changed again, so the result is no longer optimized (Dunne & Martin, 2006; Huff, 2006). Associated with this focus comes a heightened interest in practices that can support/foster such learning and adaptability.

IMPROVISATION

The tension between flexibility and dependability has been a mainstay of organizational analysis since the early days of the field. Routines, rules, roles, operating procedures, and the like help participants coordinate activity and meet outsider's expectations of reliability and accountability (Cyert & March, 1963; Hannan & Freeman, 1977; Nelson & Winter, 1982). At the same time, firms need to respond to changing circumstances (Bettis & Hitt, 1995). One reflection of this is that management scholars have become interested in *improvisation* as both an individual and a group phenomenon (Moorman & Miner, 1998; Vera & Crossan, 2005; Weick, 1998).

Not surprisingly, in attempting to understand organizational and individual improvisation, scholars have turned to those artistic forms in which improvisation is foregrounded. Of the contexts examined, Jazz musical improvisation has received the most attention. Not only have there been a series of individual articles on Jazz improvisation (Barrett, 1998; Kamoche & Cunha, 2001; Zack, 2000), but an entire issue of Organization Science was devoted to the topic (Lewin, 1998). However even though Jazz has received the most attention, other kinds of artistic improvisation have also been investigated (Nissley, 2002).

Not only have there been articles *about* artistic improvisation as a metaphor for individual and organizational innovation, but various companies and schools have brought the *practice* of artistic improvisation into managerial education and organization development (Cowan, 2007; Gold & Hirshfeld, 2005; Johansson, 2012; Katz, 1999; Lask, 2007; Nissley, 2002, 2002; Vera & Crossan, 2005). In addition to solitary forms of artistic expression, such as painting business students and practicing managers have engaged in such collective and public activities as group drumming (Katz, 1999) and improvisational theater (Vera & Crossan, 2005).

However one particular form of artistic improvisation has up to now received little attention: dance. Certainly dance appears as a broad metaphor in a wide range of articles such as, "The Dance of Change: The Challenges of Sustaining Momentum in Learning Organizations" (Senge et al., 1999) and "The Negotiation Dance: Time, Culture, and Behavioral Sequences in Negotiation" (Adair & Brett, 2005), and it is not unheard of for dance to be integrated into organization development (see, for example, Lask, 2007; Johansson, 2012). However compared to other forms of artistic improvisation it is underrepresented. This gap is unfortunate, because dance improvisation, and in particular Contact Improvisation, a form of partnered dance improvisation that I will describe below, can provide not just a metaphor but a grounded practice for developing important skills.

REFLECTION AND MINDFULNESS

In addition to responding quickly and creatively to a changing environment, managers also need to reflect and learn from the stream of chaotic experiences and responses. Such learning depends on the ability to reflect on experience to extract the relevant lessons and this reflection is particularly important in learning that goes beyond minor or piecemeal adjustment to deeply question established ways of thinking and acting (Argyris & Schon, 1978; Senge, 2006). This reflection is thought to be more accurate, nuanced, and revealing when approached "mindfully" (Weick & Putnam, 2006).

At its core, mindfulness is a moment-by-moment receptive awareness of present experience that is perceptual and non-evaluative (Brown & Ryan, 2003). Individuals are believed to differ in the ease with which they can enter this state and their ability to maintain it and across time the same individual may find it more or less difficult to enter and maintain that state (Brown & Ryan,

2003). Fortunately there are various meditation practices that can help develop an increased capacity for mindfulness (Kabat-Zinn, 1990). The following instructions for sitting mediation are representative:

> The client … attempts to maintain attention on a particular focus, most commonly the somatic sensations of his or her own breathing. Whenever attention wanders from the breach to inevitable thoughts and feelings that arise, the client will simply take notice of them and then let them go as attention is returned to the breath. This process is repeated every time attention wanders away from the breath. As sitting meditation is practiced, there is an emphasis on simply taking notice of whatever the mind happens to wander to and accepting each object without making judgments about it or elaborating on its implications, additional meanings, or need for action. (Bishop, 2004)

Over the last 20 years mindfulness-based practices have been introduced into hospitals, schools, and businesses (Cullen, 2011), and researchers have associated mindfulness with a various desirable outcomes. On the individual level, mindfulness has been associated with a range of outcomes including greater resilience in the face of stress (Garland, Tamagawa, Todd, Speca, & Carlson, 2013; Kabat-Zinn, 1990), higher emotional intelligence (Baer, Smith, & Allen, 2004; Baer, Smith, Hopkins, Krietemeyer, & Tony, 2006; Brown & Ryan, 2003), more sensitivity to cues in one's environment (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Jordan, Messner & Becker, 2009), more flexible, adaptive responses to events, fewer automatic, habitual, or impulsive reactions (Bishop et al., 2004), successful task completion (Leary, Adams, & Tate, 2006), more accurate judgment of risk (Lakey, Campbell, Brown, & Goodie, 2007), better goal-attainment, more skillful handling of conflict (Brown, Ryan, & Creswell, 2007), and more ethical decision–making (Ruedy & Schweitzer, 2010). At the organizational level, mindfulness has been associated with range of outcomes including organizational innovation and performance (Ho, 2011).

Bishop, et. al. (2004) have proposed a two-component model of mindfulness that helps explain how it might be associated with such a wide range of desirable outcomes. The first component consists of the self-management of attention so that one maintains focus on immediate present experience (sensations, thoughts, and feelings), while the second component consists of maintaining an orientation of openness, curiosity, and acceptance towards one's immediate present experience. The first component involves three distinct skills. The skill of *sustaining attention* is the ability to sustain watchfulness over an extended period of time. The skill of *switching* involves the ability to intentionally shift the focus of one's attention from one thing to another. This skill is used when one recognizes a thought, feeling or sensation, and then deliberately moves awareness back to one's breathing. Finally the ability to *inhibit secondary processing* means that one can refrain from getting caught up in *thinking about* one's experience. One instead merely notices one's immediate experience and then returns attention to the breath rather than elaborating upon the contents of one's experience. It is theorized that improving these three skills may lead to a more vivid and accurate perception of one's environment and one's interior states. Noticing things more accurately is aided by: (1) the ability to sustain attention on them long enough to take in the details; (2) the ability to switch one's attention away from distractions onto the desired object of attention; and (3) since attention has a limited capacity

(Schneider & Shiffrin, 1977) inhibiting secondary processing allows more attention to be directed towards noticing otherwise overlooked aspects of one's primary experience.

The second component of mindfulness is an attitude of acceptance and curiosity towards the contents of one's experience. One notices thoughts, sensations, and feelings, but without the intention of consciously changing them. Just as one can stop consciously controlling one's breathing and instead just observe the automatic and self-regulating process of breathing, so one observes one's own immediate experience without the need to make anything in particular happen. Developing this second component of mindfulness can help one examine unpleasant aspects of experience without repression and thus foster more clear-eyed understanding of oneself. It should also allow one to deal with interpersonal conflict and unpleasant situations in a more levelheaded manner. Taken together, these two components allow one to more clearly notice what is happening within oneself and in one's surroundings without the distortions induced by reactivity, biases, and habitual thought and to permit, "more flexible, more objectively informed psychological and behavioral responses" (Brown et al., 2007).

Yet while mindfulness mediation can develop skills that translate into desirable interpersonal and organizational outcomes (Ho, 2011), the successful deployment of those skills when "off the mediation cushion" can be challenging. Even when practiced in a group setting, meditation is essentially a solitary activity, yet some of its organizationally relevant effects are social. For example, mindfulness can lead to more skillful handling of conflict, but much of this depends on a manager being able to access that state of mindfulness during a conflict.

While there is an expectation that the quality and steadiness of attention cultivated in solitary meditation practice will become easier to access in the midst of interpersonal interactions, a skill developed in one context does not automatically translate into another (Perkins & Salomon, 1989; Singley & Anderson, 1989). Especially since the domain of organizational learning, innovation, and improvisation is fundamentally social (Eisenhardt & Tabrizi, 1995; Vera & Crossan, 2005; Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 1999), it can be advantageous to have a practice more social than solitary meditation but still conducive to cultivating mindfulness. In the next section, I describe Contact Improvisation, a form of partner dance that holds promise for developing mindfulness directly in a dynamic and interactive setting.

CONTACT IMPROVISATION

Contact Improvisation (CI) is a contemporary form of partner dance first developed in the modern dance world in the early 1970s. In this section I draw not only on published accounts of Contact Improvisation, but also my own direct experience as a participant in Contact Improvisation "jams" and classes. Though Contact Improvisation it is rarely danced as a performance piece, it is often part of the training of professional modern dancers and the techniques of Contact Improvisation have been incorporated into many improvised or partly

improvised performances (Novack, 1990). More importantly for our present purposes, Contact Improvisation has also developed a network of informal open settings, or "jams" in which non-professionals (sometimes along with professionals) dance not as a performance, but as a way to experience the dance from the inside out. Whether professionally or not, one dances Contact Improvisation with one or more partners and improvises moment-by-moment:

> Two dancers move from separate areas of the dance floor to occupy the same space…. One's elbow grazes the other's belly. The belly expands, prompting the elbow to straighten and the arm to thrust outward. This movement provokes another as both bodies roll on available surfaces – the back, a shoulder, a thigh – playing with resistance, pliancy, momentum, gravity, the pressure of flesh against flesh. At any moment the dance may slow or speed up, reveal athletic prowess or tenderness. So begins a duet of Contact Improvisation, every dance a fresh combination of chance and openness to motion, a partnered improvisational dance that relies on bodies moving together with no set moves other than an awareness of their dynamic exchange of touch. (Pallant, 2006, p. 9)

The one thing the dancers have to do is to establish some point of contact between them. It can be feathery-light or a heavy lean that supports a significant amount of one or both partner's weight. Social couple dances as diverse as Jitterbug, Waltz, Tango, and Contra Dance are also organized around "giving weight" or establishing a dynamic connection between the partners. What is unique about Contact Improvisation is that the point of contact can be almost any part of the body and that the connection is not organized around the stable and differentiated roles of leader and follower. In a Contact Improvisation duet, **both** partners are lead and follow. Occasionally they trade roles, with one clearly leading and the other following, but more commonly they perform both roles simultaneously.

> Contact improvisation is most frequently performed as a duet, in silence, with dancers supporting each other's weight while in motion. Unlike wrestlers, who exert their strength to control a partner, contact improvisers use momentum to move in concert with a partner's weight, rolling, suspending, [and] lurching together. They often yield rather than resist, using their arms to assist and support but seldom to manipulate. Interest lies in the ongoing flow of energy rather than on producing still pictures, as in ballet; consequently dancers doing contact improvisation would just as soon fall as balance. Although many contact improvisers demonstrate gymnastic ability, their movement, unlike that of gymnastic routines, does not emphasize the body's line or shape. Even more important, they improvise their movement, inventing or choosing it at the moment of performance. (Novack, 1990, p. 8)

How is it possible to improvise a duet in which neither partner is in control? Who actually is in control? Dancers speak of "surrendering to the point of contact" as if both dancers collectively create a single overarching system that has its own identity and dynamics. One does not so much dance with a particular partner but rather both dancers enthusiastically follow the lead of an "emergent" partner that is created by the combined dynamics of their two bodies. This is possible only because the dancers' bodies are not inert mechanisms dependent on conscious and explicit

decisions for the impetus to motion. Instead the body is experienced as inherently intelligent and responsive, so that the dance emerges out of the blending of two somatic intelligences:

> Contact Improvisation defines the self as the responsive body and also as the responsive body listening to another responsive body, the two together spontaneously creating a third force that directs the dance. (Novack, 1990, p. 189)

> Properties often associated with mind in American culture – intelligence, judgment, communication – and with the emotions – tenderness, expression, spontaneity – are attributed to the body, thereby blurring commonly accepted categorizations of aspects of persons.... In sum, the image of the responsive body, which is not a mere reflex action but a mode of being in which the person is most in accord with natural law constitutes a central symbol of contact improvisation. (Novack, 1990, pp. 185-6)

In Contact Improvisation movement often happens too quickly for the conscious mind to formulate a response, yet one's body has already responded with an appropriate and precise sequence of moves that continuously tracks the continuously improvised moves of one's partner. The effect is magical as one is "taken for a ride" and continuously surprised by the speed and inventiveness of this somatic intelligence. It is here, also, that the deep connection between Contact Improvisation and mindfulness is evident. Cultivating mindful attention is a prerequisite a successful dance and a fundamental state evoked and deepened by many Contact Improvisation teachers.

Just as a meditator (in the two-component model of mindfulness) uses the skills of *sustaining attention*, *switching*, and *inhibiting secondary processing* to manage attention to focus on immediate present experience, a Contact Improvisation dancer uses the same skills to resist the tendency to tell themselves a story *about* what is happening in the dance and instead to attend to what is spontaneously unfolding within the present moment. At the same time by cultivating an attitude of acceptance and curiosity (the second component of mindfulness) the dancer is able to track and "lean into" (sometimes literally so) the emerging movement, sensing its nascent direction and quality moment by moment. Dancers, often refer to this using the metaphor of "listening," and in dancing one receives immediate feedback on the quality of one's listening, as if the dance itself were a variety of biofeedback machine:

> In listening, partners pay attention to the ongoing fluctuations of their bodies, from the obvious to the subtle…all spilling into movement sequences. Both the gross motor awareness of kinesthesia and the less conscious sensory feedback mechanism of proprioception form the basis of the physical dialogue which is so pivotal to creating the dance. To partially listen stifles the dance; to not listen at all impedes the dance altogether. A dance of poor listening may manifest as a series of unintended bumps, uncontrolled slips, both bodies repeatedly breaking contact and restoring it with difficulty….[In contrast, when one is listening the] body can relax into the momentum of the dance and more readily acclimate to the onslaught of activity of which it is part. (Pallant, 2006, pp. 32–33)

While the resulting dance is spontaneous and dependent on deep listening (or mindfulness), like Jazz improvisation it is not entirely without structure. This is one way in which Contact Improvisation bridges or combines mindfulness with improvisation. The focus on a shared point of physical contact and mutual weight bearing, when combined with the structure of the human body imposes a set of constraints that lead to a set of movement routines or patterns. In the early stages of learning Contact Improvisation one must discover and practice different ways in which one can safely support a partner's weight and various ways in which one can move through space while maintaining physical contact with one's partner.

Contact improvisation dancers both respond to fully novel and emergent movement impulses and also draw on movement patterns that have worked in the past with this partner or that fit one's own body. This is similar to, for instance, salsa or swing dancers who improvise from a vocabulary of dance moves (which collectively define the dance form), though in Contact Improvisation moves are not codified by the dance form, but rather discovered or elaborated by each dancer at the intersection of common human anatomy and individual differences. So the deep listening that is crucial to successful Contact Improvisation includes mindful awareness of and engagement with routines and patterns that emerge on multiple levels: the evolving Contact Improvisation dance form itself, an individual's increasing personal mastery of that dance form, and the vocabulary is created as specific partners dance with each other on multiple occasions.

PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS

It might seem strange to be advocating a practice that makes a corporate drumming or theater improvisation workshop seem tame by comparison. After all, in Contact Improvisation, one actually comes in physical contact with another person. Many people would be extremely uncomfortable with this, so it cannot be mandated. However, as with meditation (and yoga), which is often practiced by managers off-site and outside of company time, managers can seek out a local Contact Improvisation jam as a potential addition to their existing portfolio of self-development practices. And while Contact Improvisation may never fit with the culture of some companies, the proliferation of corporate yoga and meditation classes (Casey, 2004; Gelles, 2012) adventure courses (Goldman & Priest, 1992; McEvoy & Cragunm, 1997; Steinfeld, 1997), corporate drumming (Katz, 1999) and improvisational theater classes (Vera & Crossan, 2005) suggest that some firms or schools may be willing to more directly sponsor a Contact Improvisation class or jam.

Some of the benefits of Contact improvisation may be accessed short of a full commitment and immersion in the dance form. Remember that Contact Improvisation dancers are often amateurs dancing in informal open settings, or "jams." Beginning dancers must come to terms with the same social and physical awkwardness as the general public. Consequently, Contact Improvisation teachers and the wider community have developed a variety of exercises to help beginners move past initial shyness and to safely begin experimenting with different aspect of the dance. Some of these exercises involve only small or subtle movement or limited contact

with one's partner (e.g. touching only a fingertip). A few can be modified for smaller spaces or rooms with fixed seating. Each exercise not only provides a way for individuals to become more comfortable and proficient in Contact Improvisation, but is in its own way a microcosm of the dance, offering a way to practice the combination of mindful listening and interactive improvisation. Such exercises can make some of the underlying practice of Contact Improvisation accessible to a wider audience.

CONCLUSION

As innovation and organizational learning have moved into center stage managers and management scholars have become interested in the process of improvisation. The interplay between preexisting structure and emergent novelty that characterizes improvisation (Berliner, 1994) finds an echo in the recombination and reconfiguration of organizational routines (Moorman & Miner, 1998; Weick, 1998) as well as in the processes of product and service innovation (Vera & Crossan, 2005). Organizational scholars have looked to artistic improvisation to build better theories about this domain, while some organizations and managers have experimented with the actual artistic practices. Many have also experimented with various mindfulness practices, chief among them mindfulness meditation.

In this context, Contact Improvisation is practice that has several desirable characteristics. First, it simultaneously develops capacity for mindfulness and improvisation; in fact both capacities are developed in an interdependent way. Second, while sitting meditation cultivates individual mindfulness, the maintenance and application of that mindfulness to a dynamic interpersonal context is a separate and distinct step. In contrast, Contact Improvisation develops mindfulness directly in a dynamic and interactive context. Thus, Contact Improvisation is a bridge between the completely solitary mindfulness practices and the realm of application. Some people also find the cultivation of mindfulness in motion more congenial than the stasis of sitting meditation (Keogh, 2002).

In conclusion, Contact Improvisation is a contemporary form of partner dance that is accessible to amateurs and combines the cultivation of mindfulness with real time responsiveness. It deserves to be included in the developmental practices recommended to managers (Waddock & McIntosh, 2009).

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