The C.A.L.L. to Action Model of Community Engagement:

Examining How Communication, Alliance, Leadership and Leverage Combined to End Chronic Homelessness Among Veterans in Maricopa County, Arizona

by

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation sought to understand how leaders in a public-private strategic alliance collaboratively address complex community problems. The study responded to the gap in academic research of leadership and public relations in alliances to solve complex social issues, as well as the scant scholarly attention to alliance leaders' communications with stakeholders. Its findings corresponded to framing theory, stakeholder theory, SWOT (strengths/weaknesses/opportunities/threats) theory, complexity theory, and the subtopic of complex leadership — all through the lens of public relations. This investigation culminated in the introduction of the C.A.L.L. to Action Model of Community Engagement, which demonstrates the confluence of factors that were integral to the alliance's success in eliminating chronic homelessness among veterans in Maricopa County, Arizona -- Communication, Alliance, Leadership, and Leverage. This qualitative case study used the method of elite or in-depth interviews and grounded theory to investigate the factors present in a community engagement that achieved its purpose. It served as a foundation for future inquiry and contributions to the base of knowledge, including 1) additional qualitative case studies of homeless alliances in other communities or of other social issues addressed by a similar public-private alliance; 2) quantitative methods, such as a survey of the participants in this alliance to provide triangulation of the results and establish a platform for generalization of the results to a larger population.

DEDICATION

To everyone who attempts the absurd and achieves the impossible — together.

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My deepest thanks to my chair, muse, sounding board and incandescent spirit, Fran Matera, Ph.D. She is that one person who believes in me and who sparked a glorious chain of faith and support in my life that has sustained, nurtured and inspired me.

If just one person believes in you, deep enough and strong enough believes in you. Hard enough and long enough, before you knew it, someone else would think if she can do it, I can do it. And if one person, how about two? Why not three, or four, or more and more? If all these people believe in you, then maybe even you could believe in you, too.

— The Muppets

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INTRODUCTION

The C.A.L.L. to Action Model of Community Engagement:

Examining How Communication, Alliance, Leadership and Leverage Combined to End Chronic Homelessness Among Veterans in Maricopa County, Arizona

There is nothing so powerful as an idea whose time has come
— Victor Hugo

Introduction

> Gabe is a veteran who for eight years lived on the streets before moving into the Tempe Permanent Supportive Housing Pilot program. There, he received the medical attention he needed to get healthy, rebuild relationships with his family and achieve his dream of working in the restaurant industry. Today, Gabe lives in his own apartment where his family gathers for meals. He's a doting grandfather and works in a Tempe eatery. Three years ago none of this seemed possible for the downtrodden veteran. Today, honor has been restored to a man willing to risk it all for our freedom — (A Path to End Homelessness, n.d.)

Eliminating homelessness is a complex social goal requiring extensive resources, collaborative strategies and effective leadership (Chrislip & Larson, 1994). A group of community and business leaders in Maricopa County, Arizona embraced this challenge through an alliance initiated by the Valley of the Sun United Way (VSUW), with 10 leaders identified by the VSUW as key players in the success of the collaboration. The alliance has harnessed the commitment and resources of public and private leaders to solve the critical social problem of homelessness among veterans. Maricopa County was recognized as the first community in the United States to end chronic homelessness among veterans and establish a strong platform to aid other homeless individuals and families (*How Phoenix ended chronic homelessness among our veterans*, Jan. 28, 2014).

What led to this groundbreaking success? Examining a situation where leaders from a range of public and private organizations work together to achieve an important community goal offers an opportunity to analyze the attributes leading to that accomplishment. Moreover, it provides new scholarly knowledge in the primary areas of leadership, strategic alliances, stakeholder communications and funding considerations. The principles of collaborative leadership (Rubin, 2002), strategic alliances (Wheelan & Hunger, 2000), leadership styles such as transformational (Bass & Riggio, 2006) and servant (Greenleaf, 2002), along with economic theories of social exchange (Homans, 1958) are examined to learn how they all can come together to effect social change and to set the foundation for a new model of community engagement.

This dissertation focused on a group of leaders who participated in an alliance to provide housing for all identified chronically homeless veterans in Maricopa County. This initiative meets the criteria of an appropriate case for investigation (Chrislip & Larson, 1994). A case study is "the in-depth examination of a single instance of some social phenomenon…a particular instance of something is the essential characteristic" (Babbie, 2005, p. 326). Through an inductive approach, general principles are developed from specific observations (Babbie, 2008, p. 517), to take data apart, conceptualize it, then develop those concepts…to determine what the parts tell us about the whole (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 64). Understanding the dynamics of alliances is critical to the investigation.

The Age of Alliances

"The twenty-first century will be the age of alliances…Collaborations between nonprofit organizations and corporations will increasingly migrate from the traditionally philanthropic…toward deeper, strategic alliances" (Austin, 2010, p. 1). The study of leadership in a public-private environment including nonprofit entities affects many individuals and issues. There are more than 70 million volunteers and employees in the nonprofit sector, representing the third-largest workforce among U.S. industries. Total revenue exceeds $1.9 million annually (*Center for Civil Societies Study*, 2012).

When leaders from nonprofit and for-profit organizations are brought together to collaborate on solutions for complex social issues, such as homelessness, there are several potential benefits including a broad set of new knowledge and perspectives, high level of creativity, strengthened communities and increased capacity to effect social change (Chrislip & Larson, 1994). These cooperative relationships can also help companies gain new competencies, save resources, share risks, move more quickly to new markets, and create future opportunities (Hamel, Doz, & Pralahad, 1989). Other benefits include market access, program or product development, and specialized knowledge that could contribute to higher quality outcomes for both, if shared (Arsenault, 1998). Challenges may also arise, such as a lack of prevailing hierarchy that may slow decision-making and conflicting objectives causing fragmentation of power (Chrislip & Larson, 1994). Mistakes made by either partner could trigger bad publicity, criticism or jeopardize the entities continuing to work together (Austin, 2000).

Qualitative Case Study

Scholarly analysis leads to better understanding of the behaviors and viewpoints that support or detract from the success of these alliances and add to the body of knowledge about leadership, public relations, and leaders' communication with stakeholders, or those people affected by the alliance (Freeman, 1984). This dissertation described a qualitative case study (Babbie, 2005), using the method of elite or in-depth interviews (Hochschild, 2009) to investigate the factors present in a community engagement that achieved its purpose. "Qualitative research is fairly open and nondirectional initially and centers on exploration and meaning rather than explanation or search for cause and effect" (Holloway & Brown, 2012, p. 28).

A grounded theory method was used to collect the data and organize the responses into meaningful insights (Glaser & Strauss, 2012). The interview responses were coded with themes identified to enhance understanding of the leadership attributes and stakeholder communications behaviors of the participating leaders and explore theoretical connections (Eisenhardt, 1989; Babbie, 2005). The interviews also included the leaders' assessments of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats of the alliance, which have proven effective in examining internal and external influences on the results of a public relations program (see Kim's (2008) analysis of the stakeholder environment and Carlsen & Andersson's (2011) comparison of nonprofit and for-profit festival organizations.

A Case for Transformation

The selected focus for this dissertation was the strategic alliance developed by the Valley of the Sun United Way with ten local nonprofit and for-profit organizations to end chronic homelessness among veterans in Maricopa County, Arizona (also known as the homeless alliance). Homelessness is a “condition of disengagement from ordinary society…being disconnected from all of the support systems that usually provide help in times of crisis” (Baum & Burnes, 1993, p. 23). According to The Arizona Department of Housing, homelessness is “lacking a fixed, regular, and adequate night-time residence” (*azdes.gov*, 2012). The federal definition of chronic homelessness from the United States Department of Housing and Urban Development is "an unaccompanied homeless individual with a disabling condition who has either been continuously homeless for a year or more, or has had at least four episodes of homelessness in the past three years" (Questions and answers about the “chronic homeless initiative,” n.d).

Chronic veteran homelessness in Arizona. Based on actual counts in the streets and shelters and other data sources, over 28,000 individuals in Arizona experienced homelessness in 2012. Slightly more than 50 percent were located in Phoenix and the surrounding area--which comprise the majority of the region designated as Maricopa County (Homelessness in Arizona Annual Report, 2012, p. 3). Eighty percent of the adult homeless population is single; chronically homeless individuals account for nearly 21 percent of single homeless adults ((Homelessness in Arizona Annual Report, 2012, p. 6.). Approximately 92 percent of homeless veterans overall are male (military.com, n.d.).

Eliminating chronic homelessness for veterans was the first priority for the homeless alliance. In 2012, veterans accounted for 13 percent of the 22,350 adults experiencing homelessness (Homelessness in Arizona Annual Report, 2012, p. 5.) With support from federal, state, and local funding the alliance implemented a “housing first” strategy, which recognizes that the stability of housing significantly improves the success of other services provided for the homeless. This “housing first” strategy requires commitment from several different organizations (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 11, 2014).

An exemplary collaboration. A strategic alliance is “an agreement between firms to do business together in ways that go beyond normal company-to-company dealings, but fall short of a merger or full partnership” (Wheelen & Hunger, 2000, p. 125) and a “long-term relationship where participants cooperate and willingly modify their business practices to improve joint performance” (Whipple & Frankel, 2000, p. 22). The case with the United Way and its homeless alliance participants was chosen for analysis because it aligns with criteria advanced by Chrislip (2002) for identifying exemplary cases of collaborative leadership: 1) tangible results; 2) a sufficiently complex problem, requiring cooperation throughout the community to address it; 3) obstacles that needed to be overcome to solve the social issue; 4) many, diverse stakeholders; 5) acknowledgement of the collaboration’s success in addressing the issue (p. 40). This case was also selected because of the groundbreaking nature of the alliance, its impressive early results, the diversity and personal commitment of the participants and the economic factors.

The homeless alliance has achieved its short-term objectives and has progressed toward its long-term goals to “reduce homelessness in Maricopa County by 75 percent by 2020” (*vsuw.org*). Success is “the degree to which both partners achieve their alliance objectives” (Douma, Bilderbeek, Idenburg & Looise, 2000, p. 581). The alliance also contributed to a lower rate of homelessness since the program began in 2010. One particular achievement drew national attention: “Phoenix last month was credited as the first city to end chronic homelessness among military veterans” (Page, 2014). As of February 2014, all chronically homeless veterans were provided permanent housing with a few veterans in bridge or temporary housing (How Phoenix ended chronic homelessness among our veterans, 2014).

The researcher has confirmed access to the VSUW homeless alliance director and to the other executives participating in this alliance, which encompass community leaders, government officials, organization managers, and service providers for the homeless. This access offered an opportunity to complete an in-depth analysis of the alliance, including, but not limited to: roles of leaders, alignment of objectives, alignment of mission, length of relationship, leadership style, communication with stakeholders, and the leaders’ assessments of the homeless alliance’s strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT) (Carlsen & Andersson, 2011). The SWOT tool organized the interview subjects’ responses in regard to the positive and negative aspects of the homeless alliance by assessing its internal strengths and weaknesses as well as the external opportunities and threats it faces (Walsh, 1991).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to understand how leaders in a public-private strategic alliance collaboratively address complex community problems. An analysis was conducted to answer the research question and sub-questions and gain insight into the collaborative and transformational leadership process. The study responded to the gap in research of leadership and public relations in alliances to solve complex social issues, as well as the scant scholarly attention to alliance leaders' communications with stakeholders. It added new understanding to the widely researched area of SWOT analyses (see Helms & Nixon's (2010) overview of scholarly research on SWOT analyses and Ip & Koo's (2004) assessment of SWOT analyses toward establishing strategic formulation frameworks and their use in public relations studies, such as Kim's (2008) research on SWOT analyses and stakeholders).

Strategic alliances have been researched extensively. Examples include Whipple & Frankel's (2000) overview of the success factors of strategic alliances; an examination of the dynamics of *fit i*n strategic alliances by Douma, M.U., Bilderbeek, J., Idenburg, P.J., & Looise, J.K. (2000); and Austin's (2000, 2010) analyses of strategic alliances between businesses and nonprofits. Nevertheless, little attention has been paid to the attributes of leaders from nonprofit and for-profit organizations collaborating to address a common social goal.

Communication with the public has been studied in many different contexts, including Werder's (2006) analysis of communication with publics related to activism, DiStaso, McCorkindale, and Wright's (2011) assessment of the impact of an organization's social media on its publics, and Hon and Grunig's (1999) guidelines for measuring relationships between organizations and their publics, but there is minimal research about public communication through strategic alliances. "There is a relative paucity of field-based studies and conceptualization on alliances between businesses and nonprofits" (Austin, 2000, p. 70). The opportunity to analyze an alliance with multiple leaders and investigate their communication strategies with one another in conjunction with their stakeholders offers new knowledge regarding strategic alliances, stakeholder communications, and SWOT analyses. A research question with related sub-questions (Bryman, 2010) were formulated to provide structure for the dissertation's scholarly inquiry.

Research Question

A research question "provides an explicit statement of what the researcher wants to know about" (Bryman, 2010, p. 9). Articulating this question is the foundation of a "research plan," or "strategy for gathering data to help address a particular research issue" (Gibson & Brown, 2009, p. 53). This plan includes a sense of the type of data that is needed to answer the question and a plan for securing that data. It is also critical to ensure that the appropriate methodology is used to amass the data that will respond effectively to the research question (Gibson & Brown, 2009). "Research questions may be stated as simple questions about the relationship between two or more variables or about the components of a phenomenon" (Wimmer & Dominick, 2011, p. 290).

The dissertation was undertaken to answer the following research question: How do leaders in a public-private strategic alliance collaboratively address complex community problems? The following sub-questions help focused the study:

1. How are the elements of role, mission and objective involved in the homeless alliance?
2. What leadership styles are reported within the alliance?
3. How do the leaders in the alliance communicate with stakeholders?

4. What are the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the homeless alliance?

Justification

Leadership, strategic alliances, stakeholder communications, organizational structure and economic factors have all received scholarly attention as identified below, yet there are gaps that require additional analyses. The phenomenon of leadership has been studied extensively, including: Horner's (1997) broad-range analysis of leadership theories and Hernandez, Eberly, Avolio & Johnson's, (2011) focus on theories related to mechanism of leadership; Stogdill's (1948) review of literature regarding personal factors and leadership; and Van Seters & Field's (1988) exploration of how leadership theories evolve. Transformational leadership, wherein leaders motivate others to reach beyond their potential, set challenging expectations and typically achieve high performance, has also been investigated thoroughly (see for example Bass & Riggio, 2006; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Yukl, 1989). However, there is little research in the area of collaborative leadership or "a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both" (Pearce & Conger, 2003, p. 1).

Grunig's (1976) two-way symmetrical model of communication led to the investigation of the link between leadership and organizational effectiveness in Grunig's (2000) excellence theory, highlighting the values of collaboration, compromise, and negotiation. Meng, Berger, Gower and Heyman (2012) tested excellent leadership; Meng and Berger (2013) provided an integrated model of excellent leadership in public relations and reviewed cultural influence considerations on excellent leadership.

Notwithstanding these studies, there is an opportunity to analyze this intersection of public relations and leadership. “Despite the importance of leadership to the study and practice of public relations, it is an area of scholarship that has received little attention” (Werder & Holtzhausen, 2009, p. 404). Berger and Meng (2014) also pointed out this gap. “Leadership in public relations is little researched, often overlooked, or is simply taken for granted” (p. 3).

Alliances between for-profit organizations have been researched substantially (Austin, 2010; Douma, Bilderbeek, Idenburg, & Looise, 2000; Wheelen & Hunger, 2000; Whipple & Frankel, 2000); but “strategic alliances,” in which business and community leaders from nonprofit and for-profit organizations collaborate to address a common social goal” (Pearce & Conger, 2003) have garnered less attention.

Public relations and stakeholders have been studied in many different contexts (Edelman, 2009; Schoch-Spana, 2007; Nelson, Raskind-Hood, Galvink, Essein, & Levine, 1999), yet again there is little research of stakeholder communication *within* strategic alliances. A stakeholder is “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the firm’s objectives” (Freeman, 1984, p. 25). Strategic alliances have demonstrated tangible success in resolving complex social issues (Chrislip, 2002; *usmayors.org*., 2008), including the alliance that is the foundation for this dissertation.

A complex alliance. The underlying structure of the alliance as an organization was also considered. Based on the tenets of complexity theory or “the study of the dynamic behaviors of complexly interacting, interdependent and adaptive agents under conditions of internal and external pressures" (Marion, 2008, p. 3), complex leadership is a fluid, "emergent, interactive dynamic" (Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2008, p. 299). This type of leadership is often linked with adaptive challenges, or "problems that require new learning, innovation, and new patterns of behavior" (p. 300). The homeless alliance analyzed in this dissertation illustrated several adaptive challenges and a fluid structure.

Financial considerations. Finally, the effects of funding support were evaluated. Efficiency and effectiveness of nonprofits have been reviewed (Moxham & Boaden, 2007; Crittenden, 2000). Selsky & Parker (2005) discussed a platform of resource dependence instigating collaborative ventures and noted the lack of research in consideration of social issues in these alliances. Analyzing the elements of leadership, alliance, stakeholder communications, organizational structure and economic effects that contribute to the success of strategic alliances provides new insight for nonprofit and for-profit organizations to develop effective alliances in order to solve complex social issues.

Significance of the Study

Strategic alliances in the context of their connections to public relations have been researched extensively (Austin, 2010; Douma, Bilderbeek, Idenburg, & Looise, 2000; Wheelen & Hunger, 2000; Whipple & Frankel, 2000). However, little scholarly attention has been paid to leadership attributes when a nonprofit enters into an alliance with for-profit business and community leaders to address a common social goal. Furthermore, public communication also has been studied in a range of contexts, but there is little research investigating the dimension of public interaction within strategic alliances. "The relationships uncovered during data collection and analyses add to the body of knowledge by extending our understanding of complex organizational phenomenon and provide empirical evidence that will be of value to both practitioners and researchers" (Worley & Doolen, 2006, p. 229). This dissertation was developed to understand how leaders in a public-private strategic alliance collaboratively address complex community problems. The study responded to the gap in research of leadership and public relations in alliances to solve complex social issues, as well as the scant scholarly literature regarding alliance leaders' communications with stakeholders.

In order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the impact of collaborative leadership on the homeless alliance, the researcher defined the purpose and significance of the research, reviewed previous scholarly investigation, detailed the methodology for the study and supporting theoretical framework, then synthesized the data into findings, summary remarks and opportunities for future research. This dissertation comprises five chapters: 1) Introduction; 2) Literature Review; 3) Methodology and Theoretical Framework; 4) Findings; 5) Discussion/Conclusions. References are also provided along with appendices of supporting materials, including the list of interview participants and biographies, interview schedule, coding data, and transcripts of the elite interviews (Dexter, 1964; Dexter, 1970).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

A literature review positions the dissertation within the context of existing research, that is "to refine and define the topic…to review what is already known and provide the foundation for the collection of new evidence" (Godfrey, 2007, p. 9). This analysis is "central to scholarly work — a critical requirement in knowledge and skill-building for understanding" (Holbrook, Bourke, Fairbairn, & Lovat, 2007, p. 337). Literature reviews also provide context for opportunities to add new knowledge to areas with little scholarly attention. The literature review for this investigation focused on how leaders in public-private strategic alliances collaboratively solve complex community problems through communication, alliances, leadership and leverage (C.A.L.L.). This acronym (C.A.L.L.) formed the foundation of a model to understand how collaborative leadership is implemented to solve complex community problems.

The examination included reviewing scholarly research in areas relating to the case study of the alliance of public and private organization leaders who collaborated with the goal to end chronic homelessness among veterans in Maricopa County, Arizona. (This is referred to as the homeless alliance throughout this dissertation.) The literature review encompasses: 1) communication, including public relations, stakeholder communication/public engagement and issues management (Freeman, 1984; Botan & Taylor, 1994); 2) strategic alliances (Wheelen & Hunger, 2000); 3) leadership, with focus on complexity leadership (Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007) and collaborative leadership (Pearce & Conger, 2003) along with the dynamics of transactional leadership (Burns,1978) and transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006); 4) leverage, or the economic influences on alliances (Hamel, Doz, & Pralahad, 1989). The impact of organizational structure are also reviewed, including the elements of role (Jacobson, Charters, and Lieberman, 1951); mission (Furlong & Burns, 1996), and objective (Grunig, 2013). The analysis begins with an overview of public relations and the tools of communication, stakeholder relations, and public engagement within this arena.

Public Relations

One of the "oldest concepts used to describe the communication activities of organizations" (Grunig, 2013, p. 4), the term public relations has undergone much scrutiny and debate (Botan & Taylor, 2004). Public relations research is "rapidly developing as an academic discipline and as a profession" (Johannson, 2007, p. 275). With broad coverage in a multitude of journals, texts and other analyses for several decades, public relations has been researched extensively (Botan & Taylor, 1994).

Key insights into the definition and function of public relations in professional application and scholarly attention include Cutlip & Broom's 1994 in-depth examination of the effectiveness of public relations along with Grunig's extensive analyses of public relations relationships and communication attributes as related to organizational effectiveness. For example, Grunig (1976) investigated communication theory with fatalistic or closed organizations versus problem-solving or more open systems that encourage information seeking and innovation as well as the link between excellent communication and organizational effectiveness, referring to three spheres of excellence: knowledge base, clear expectations, and organizational culture (Dozier, Grunig, & Grunig, 2013, p. viii).

Vasquez and Taylor (2000) positioned public relations as a field of study in social science and a professional practice. Grunig (2013) countered with the definition of public relations as the "management of communication between an organization and its publics" (p. 4). This process includes "overall planning, execution and evaluation of an organization's communication with both external and internal publics — groups that affect the ability of an organization to meet its goals" (p. 4). Johansson (2007) shared this relational aspect, defining public relations as "the process of establishing and maintaining mutually beneficial relationships between an organization and publics on whom it depends" (p. 276).

To Cutlip, Center and Broom (1994), public relations was "the management function that establishes and maintains mutually beneficial relationships between an organization and the publics on whom its success or failure depends" (p. 1). Other interpretations of public relations include Kent and Taylor's (2002) emphasis on two-way communication in public relations theory; Gordon's (1997) symbolic interpretation of public relations; Lamme and Russell's (2009) historical overview; and Hon's (1995) feminist theory of public relations. Lee (2012) perceived public relations as flow, more than organizational function toward facilitating greater dialogue in public relations scholarship. Heide (2009) viewed public relations in a crisis communication setting through a social constructionist perspective, or the construction of reality. Hon (1998) investigated effectiveness through goals and measures of public relations and Kim (2013) reviewed evaluative research of public relations problems. Kruckeberg and Starck examined public relations from a global viewpoint (2000) and explored the link between public relations and community interests (Kruckeberg & Starck, 1998). Collaboration has been identified as a core value of public relations (Grunig, 2000). Recent research has explored an expansion in public relations to a broader collaborative context of public engagement (Edelman, 2009).

Public engagement. Community engagement is the concept of joint problem solving, engaged dialogue and collaboration among government authorities, citizens and local community and business leaders around a significant public issue (Schoch-Spana, 2007). This extends to public interaction, or strategic outreach to a "sphere of cross-influence," encompassing communication and collaboration (Edelman, 2009). Other tenets of this meaningful connection with key stakeholders in the community include: a democratic, decentralized style, engaging with a wide variety of stakeholders and addressing policy and communication issues (Edelman, 2009). Agencies "must assess their organizational readiness, as well as their internal capacities, in order to begin the process of transformation and the facilitation of communication and collaboration with the external environment" (Nelson, Raskind-Hood, Galvink, Essein, & Levine, 1999, p. 103.)

"The quality of public life and the performance of social institutions are indeed powerfully influenced by norms and networks of civic engagement" (Putnam, 1995, p. 65). The evolution of public relations to public engagement encompasses a shift from promoting to informing; from control to credibility; from campaigns to continuing conversation; and from influencing to establishing a community of influences (Vandermolen, 2011, p. 6). Building this community of influences often relies on the development of strategic alliances or "active partnerships for common good" (Vandermolen, 2011, p. 8).

Public relations and the community. Public relations has been linked with public interest. “Public relations should be practiced to serve the public interest, to develop mutual understanding between organizations and their publics, and to contribute to informed debate about issues in society” (Grunig, 2013, p. 9). “Public, or social, responsibility has become a major reason for an organization to have a public relations function” (Grunig & Hunt, 1984, p. 48). Edelman (2009) expanded the view of public relations to greater public involvement and persuasion. Public relations was also related to the achievement of social goals (Kitchen, 1997).

Lee (2012) reinforced the interactive aspect of public relations: “A flow of purposive communication produced on behalf of individuals, formally constituted and informally constituted groups, through their continuous transactions with each other (p. 21). Lee also positioned public relations on a broader community scale, with “social, cultural, political and economic effects at local, national and global levels” (p. 21). Finally, Ledingham (2001) found that public relations contributes to community building in his study of government-community relations, which supported Kruckeberg and Starck’s (1998) view of public relations as, “best defined and practiced as the active attempt to restore and maintain a sense of community” (p. 52). Clark (2000) examined the links between public relations and an organization’s connection to the community through corporate social responsibility. Public relations related to public interest relies on communication to and from involved audiences, or stakeholders (Freeman, 1984).

Stakeholders

The individuals to whom messages are tailored along with the people who influence them are known cumulatively as stakeholders, representing several key audiences reached through mass and discrete communication channels (Freeman, 1984). In setting the framework for the stakeholder theory, Freeman (1984) defined stakeholders as “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the firm’s objectives” (p. 25). Miles (2012) noted multiple definitions of the term and lack of consensus surrounding the concept of stakeholders and discussed how this plethora of interpretations of stakeholders affects the ability to build theory in this key concept, especially as related to the link between business and stakeholders (p. 285). In a political context, deBussy and Kelly (2010) referred to stakeholders as the “sub-set of citizens to be consulted on any issue” (p. 290). These include employees, donors, government officials, community representatives and myriad others, depending on the organization or initiative at stake (Freeman, 1984, p. 25).

Gilpin and Miller (2013a) positioned stakeholders as a component of complex organizational communities, that is “a more or less formally constituted heterogeneous system of entities that may include any combination of individuals, groups, institutions, and other organizational forms” (p. 150). Maak (2007) tied stakeholder engagement to social capital, whereby business leaders deal with the moral complexity generated by many stakeholder claims and build lasting relationships with all relevant stakeholders (p. 329). Coombs (2010) noted the complexity of these relationships in his definition of public relations: “the management of mutually influential relationships within a web of stakeholder and organizational relationships” (p. 26). This dynamic interchange is explored in the area of issues management, a core function of public relations and communication overall (Botan & Taylor, 1994) that is discussed below.

Issues Management

"Issues management is the capacity to understand, mobilize, coordinate, and direct all strategic and policy planning functions, and all public affairs/public relations skills, toward the achievement of one objective" (Chase, 1982, p. 1), similar to the singular focus of the homeless alliance to eliminate chronic homelessness among veterans in Maricopa County, Arizona. Dutton and Ottensmeyer (1987) reviewed strategic issues as developments, activities, or trends emerging from an organization's internal or external environments (p. 355). Issues are created when at least one person attaches significance to the perceived problem (Crable & Vibbert, 1985, p. 5). Issues management is a powerful strategic planning tool in public relations and public affairs (Gaunt & Ollenberger, 1995). Botan and Taylor (1994) expanded the term beyond a business setting to other types of organizations, arguing for the widespread acceptance of issues management as a component of strategic public relations in settings throughout the world, "corporate, agency, or nonprofit" (p. 654). Issues management is a tool of communication. "Applied communication efforts can be understood as attempts to manage issues" (Botan & Taylor, 1994, p. 654).

Communication

Lasswell (1948) outlined the essential components of communication with the aphorism, "Who Says What In Which Channel To Whom With What Effect" (p. 216).

Dance (1970) analyzed dozens of definitions from the 1950s and 1960s to distill 15 elements related to the term communication, including verbal interchange; process of understanding and being understood; and creating connection or linkage. Another term with multiple interpretations is interpersonal communication, demonstrating the role of communication in initiating, negotiating, maintaining, and ending relationships (Knapp, Daly, Albada & Miller, 2002). One of the many types of communication is mass communication (Caplan, 2001), a tool that is applied in the homeless alliance case study.

Mass communication. Mass communication relates to "the organized means of communicating openly, at a distance, and to many, in a short space of time" (McQuail, 2010, p. 4). Mass communication channels include the Internet, TV, radio, and newspapers (Zenko & Melej, 2011). Mass is simply "large-scale" (Lorimer, 2002). McLeod, Sheufele and Moy (1999) explored the impact of mass communication on political participation, noting the combination of information and motivation to inspire political action. Mass communication is a component of effective issues management and an important strategic planning tool (Gaunt & Ollenburger, 1995). Strategic communication with key publics is an integral element of effective strategic alliances (Steyn, 2009).

Strategic Alliances

"Public relations influences organizational leaders to state the organization's position on, and practice two-way communication with external and internal stakeholders about issues of strategic importance" (Steyn, 2009, p. 129). Strategic alliances can be manifestations of this two-way communication with involvement that can range from a single functional area to encompassing all functional areas (Adler, 1996). A strategic alliance is “an agreement between firms to do business together in ways that go beyond normal company-to-company dealings, but fall short of a merger or full partnership” (Wheelen & Hunger, 2000, p. 125). The primary aim of strategic alliances is to pursue mutual strategic goals (Judge & Dooley, 2006). An alliance can involve a “long-term relationship where participants cooperate and willingly modify their business practices to improve joint performance” (Whipple & Frankel, 2000, p. 22) or restore and sustain a sense of community (Starck & Kruckeberg, 2001, p. 58) or shared purpose. Such mutual rethinking has opened the door to “a much richer set of relationship options which poses the challenge of how to pursue most effectively these collaboration opportunities. These cross-sector collaborations are undergoing significant transformation and hold considerable potential” (Arsenault, 1998, p. 50).

Community alliances. Alliances have been positioned as a “relatively enduring interfirm cooperative arrangement, involving flows and linkages that use resources and/or governance structures from autonomous organizations for the joint accomplishment of individual goals linked to the corporate mission of each sponsoring firm” (Varadarajan & Cunningham, 1995, p. 283). This holds true for organizations brought together to solve community problems, such as Zakocs’ (2006) analysis of strategic alliance effectiveness in a healthcare setting; Wang and Pizam’s (2011) overview of collaborations in tourism promotion; and Austin’s (2000) investigation of 15 cases of cross-sector collaboration between nonprofits and for-profit organizations. Communication with stakeholders, managing issues, and building alliances are behaviors associated with leadership (Ford, 2005).

Leadership

An examination of research on leadership reveals multiple conflicting perspectives and applications in myriad fields of study. "Leadership is the most studied and least understood topic of any in the social sciences" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 20). The concept of leadership has been investigated in many contexts and theoretical constructs, spanning cultures, timeframes and theories (Horner, 1997). Lewin and Lippitt's (1938) experiments with autocratic (determination of policy by the leader) and democratic (determination of policy by the group, encouraged by the leader) styles set the stage for multiple investigations including Stogdill's (1948) comprehensive review of leadership theories, with focus on the attributes of great leaders, what makes leaders successful, and the situation or environment in which the leader operates; Lord, De Vader and Alliger's (1986) meta-analysis of the linkage between leadership perceptions and personality traits; and Hernandez, Eberly, Avolio and Johnson's (2011) analysis of the source (or loci) of leadership and the means by which leadership is put into place.

Defining leadership. "Leadership is typically defined by the traits, qualities, and behaviours of a leader" (Horner, 1997, p. 270). To Stogdill (1950), leadership was the "process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement" (p. 3, as cited in Bryman, 1999, p. 26). Burns (1978) emphasized the interactive nature of leadership in his interpretation: "Leadership is the reciprocal process of mobilizing, by persons with certain motives and values, various economic, political, and other resources, in a context of competition and conflict, in order to realize goals independently or mutually held by both leaders and followers" (p. 425). Acknowledging a wide array of interpretations, Yukl (1989) focused on the impact or outcome of leadership: “[Leadership is] influencing task objectives and strategies, influencing commitment and compliance in task behavior to achieve these objectives, influencing group maintenance and identification, and influencing the culture of an organization” (p. 253). Not defining the term is also prevalent in leadership research (Barker, 1997). Rost’s (1991) analysis of 587 works with the word leadership in their titles revealed that 366 of them did not offer a definition of leadership.

Leadership and public relations. The intersection of leadership and public relations has received limited scholarly attention (Meng, Berger, Gower & Heyman, 2012; see Werner and Holtzhausen’s (2009) examination of leadership style on strategy in public relations). Cutlip, Center and Broom (1985) described public relations as “an important role of leadership in organizational communication,” through the leader’s interest in employees’ needs and desires, commitment to respond to employees/ concerns, and mutual participation of employees and leaders (p. 322-324). Grunig and Hunt (1984) identified four models of public relations, including 1) press agentry or the seeking of media attention; 2) public information, whereby truthful information is provided about an organization, although negative information is not volunteered; 3) two-way asymmetrical model, wherein organizations engage stakeholders in decision making to obtain external endorsement through such elements as surveys and polls, and, finally, 4) two-way symmetrical communication, that is, organizations building relationships with stakeholders to achieve dialogue.

This two-way symmetrical model is linked with organizational effectiveness and “characteristic of excellent communication” (Grunig & Hunt, 1984, p. 303). Grunig (2001) also identified aspects of leadership within an excellent organization and the dynamic nature of leaders empowering followers. "Excellent leaders provide a vision and direction for the organization, creating order out of the chaos that empowerment of people can create" (p. 233). Meng, Berger, Gower and Heyman (2012) surveyed public relations executives regarding the important qualities and dimensions of excellent leadership in their industry; Berger and Meng (2014) provided an integrated model of excellent leadership in public relations and reviewed the influence of cultural considerations, such as patterns for exchanging ideas, trust in the communication functions, and diversity among the communication staff.

Leadership relationships. "Participation of community members, agencies, assemblies, and organizations is usually based on a voluntary premise and principles" (El Ansari, 2001, p. 352). Since participation is often, therefore, not required, building connections with potential alliance participants is critical (Rubin, 2002). As collaborative leaders…, our behaviors, and the impressions we make, affect both the perceptions and behaviors of those around us (including their willingness to join in our collaboration)" (Rubin, 2002, p. 93).

Relationships are also an integral element of public relations in the relationship management theory, as explicated by Ledingham (2003). "The relationship management perspective of public relations is the focus of a substantial body of scholarship" (p. 181). Public relations weighs the interests of organizations with various publics through the management of organization-public relationships (Ledingham, 2003). Ferguson (1984) saw relationships as the "unifying concept of public relations" (Ledingham, 2003, p. 182). Ledingham and Bruning (2000) further explored the linkage between public relations and relationship management. Bruning and Ledingham (1999) developed a multi-dimensional organization-public relationship scale, and Cutlip, Center and Broom (1994) assessed the responsibility of public relations to "establish and maintain mutually beneficial relationships between organizations and the publics on whom its success or failure depends" (p. 2). In an organizational framework, "communication represents the connective tissue of organizations, serving to establish and maintain the relationship networks of which they are constituted, making it a fertile terrain for exploration via a theoretical framework that emphasizes relationality" (Gilpin & Miller, 2013a, p. 149). This relational perspective has been explored in numerous settings including community relations (Ledingham & Bruning, 2001), crisis management (Coombs, 2000), and issues management (Bridges & Nelson, 2000).

Reputation and ethics. Leadership has been analyzed as a component of organizational reputation (Men & Stacks, 2013) and internal communication (Investigating the Influence, 2005). Marsh (2012) discussed public relations leadership as fostering social harmony. "Public relations is best defined and practiced as the active attempt to restore and maintain a sense of community" (Kruckeberg, 2000, p. 145). Edwards (2012) defined public relations "the flow of purposive communication produced on behalf of individuals, formally constituted and informally constituted groups, through their continuous transactions with other social entities. It has social, cultural, political and economic effects at local, national and global levels" (p. 21). El Ansari (2009) reinforced the values of inclusion and participation in public-private partnerships. "Partnership leadership represents a central challenge in any collective undertaking" (p. 29). The ethical implications of leadership in public relations have also been investigated (see for example Lee and Cheng's (2011) focus on personal ethics, interpersonal behaviors, and the articulation of ethical standards). Finally, leadership and public relations have been assessed together in the education field (see Lipham's (1981) review of the role of principal, including leadership and interaction with the public in interviews with public relations practitioners and Hess & Kelly's (2007) focus on school leadership as a driver of school improvement through investigation of principal-preparation programs).

Leadership Styles and Attributes

An integral theme in this dissertation regarding the homeless alliance is the understanding of what makes leaders successful. Leadership is typically described by qualities, behaviors and traits of a leader that are assessed and developed to make leaders more effective (Horner, 1997). For example, Hogan, Curphy and Hogan (1994) used a "big-five model of personality structure" of the personality factors related to leadership, which comprises: "surgency, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and intellect" (p. 494). Other research determining what makes leaders successful is scarce, because measures of effectiveness are difficult to identify (Hogan, Curphy and Hogan, 1994). Bryman (1999) called effectiveness the "holy grail of leadership theory and research…that which accomplishes the group's goal(s)" (p. 26).

While definitions of leadership are widely debated and thinly researched, leadership style has received extensive scholarly attention (Faulkner, 2013). There are "dozens and dozens of leadership styles that have been written about, discussed, taught, and bantered about" (p. 22). From an education perspective Howard (2005) explored four leadership styles with differing foundations: 1) fact-based, emphasizing bottom line results; 2) control-based, with no tolerance for deviation from a plan; 3) creativity-based, with opportunity for innovation and suggestions; 4) feelings-based, built on feelings about an issue (p. 386). Goleman (2014) divided leadership into six styles in his study of the connection between leadership style and organizational climate, or an organization's working environment. These include: 1) affiliative, or relationship-based; 2) democratic, or consensus-based; 3) pacesetting, or performance-based; 4) coaching, or development-based; 5) coercive, or compliance-based; 6) authoritative, or directive. Dulewicz and Higgs (2005) considered three broad categories of leadership styles: goal-oriented; involving, or participative; and engaging, with emphasis on facilitating others.

Transactional leadership. Styles of leadership may be expressed in relation to motivation from an internal or external perspective (Burns, 1978). Burns defined transactional leadership as the ability required to manage operational, daily transactions of daily life, such as overseeing budgets, providing project status updates, and completing performance assessments of subordinates. Transactional leadership is based on a cost-benefit exchange between leaders and employees, focusing on extrinsic motivation to increase productivity (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The concept of transactional evolved to transformational as Burns introduced a "revolutionary new paradigm he called transforming leadership" (Barker, 1997, p. 343), with a shift to internal motivation.

Transformational leadership. Bass (1985) expanded on Burns' research through military training studies, analyzing how leaders transfer knowledge to followers and stimulate performance. To Bass, the leader's ability to engage their followers in true involvement and commitment to the activity at hand was how transformational leadership added to the transactional exchange. Transformational leadership moves beyond the simple exchange model of transactional to inspiring employees and transforming attitudes, identified by the characteristics of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Transformational leadership is an interaction between leader and follower marked by inspiration and aspiration, raising both to higher levels of motivation and morality. Transformational leaders motivate others to reach beyond their potential, set challenging expectations and typically achieve high performance. There are four defining characteristics of transformational leadership: 1) idealized influence, which relates to the personal values and ethics of transformational leaders; 2) inspirational motivation, described as the leader's ability to inspire and rally teams; 3) intellectual stimulation, the demonstration of innovative problem solving; and, finally, 4) individualized consideration, whereby transformational leaders build strong, dynamic relationships with their followers (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 4). Transformational leadership has been researched extensively with a high level of validity demonstrated in an in-depth meta-analytic test of numerous studies (Judge & Piccolo, 2004, p. 756.)

Transformational leadership has been linked with innovative practices in nonprofit organizations (Jaskyte, 2004). Taylor, Casey and Colvin (2014) noted alternate descriptions of transformational leadership as "charismatic" or "visionary" and found a significant relationship between visionary leadership and organizational effectiveness (p. 566). Aronson (2001) explored the relationship between leadership styles and ethical principles, outlining moral distinctions among transformational, transactional and directive, or autocratic styles (p. 245). Another leadership style with moral underpinnings is servant leadership.

Servant leadership. Both transformational and servant leadership emphasize the importance of valuing people, mentoring, and empowering followers (Stone, Russell & Patterson, 2004, p. 354). Servant leadership was introduced by Greenleaf (2002) as a style wherein leaders see themselves first as servants, aspiring to achieve major visionary goals, usually with a benefit to the community. “Behind every great achievement is a dreamer of great dreams” (Greenleaf, 2002, p. 30). Noting that servant leaders provide vision, influence others, and foster trust with followers, Farling, Stone and Winston (1999) also reported a lack of systematic research about servant leadership. Stone, Russell and Patterson (2004) investigated leader focus, drawing the distinction that transformational leaders are likely to focus more on organizational objectives while servant leaders focus more on their followers. Another theory that emphasized the role of followers is Hersey and Blanchard’s (1969) situational or life-cycle theory of leadership.

Situational leadership. Acknowledging that there likely is no “best style of leadership,” Hersey and Blanchard (1996) posited that “successful leaders can adapt their behavior to meet followers’ needs and the particular situation” (p. 4). The authors developed the “Life-cycle Theory of Leadership” in 1969, based on a relationship between the dimensions of task/relationships and the maturity of followers, or the follower’s degree of independence, sense of responsibility and achievement orientation (p. 45). Revisiting this theory nearly 30 years later, Hersey and Blanchard emphasized that situational leadership is less about leadership and more about meeting followers’ needs. Focusing on the followers portends improved leadership skills more than trying to articulate a specific leadership style (p. 46). “Responding to followers’ needs is the surest way to achieve effectiveness and success” (p. 47).

Leadership and gender. Distinctions between men and women in terms of leadership style has been investigated, including a meta-analysis from Eagly and Johnson (1990) on gender and leader effectiveness; this study found that women gravitated toward a more participative or democratic style and a less directive or autocratic style than men. In Eagly and Karau's (1995) in-depth review of gender and leader emergence, men were more likely to emerge as leaders than women. Burke and Collins (2001) reviewed self-reported leadership styles of female and male accountants and found that females were more likely to identify themselves as having a transformational leadership style, which correlated with management skills associated with success. Another trait linked with leadership skills is the phenomena of emotional intelligence (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003).

Leadership and emotional intelligence. "Truly effective leaders are distinguished by a high degree of emotional intelligence" (Goleman, 2004, p. 1). Goleman (2000) revisited the model he outlined of emotional intelligence 30 years prior —-"the ability to manage ourselves and our relationships effectively." This concept encompassed: 1) *self-awareness*, or the ability to read and understand your emotions and the impact they have on work and relationships; 2) *self-management* that keeps disruptive emotions under control; 3) *social awareness*, including empathy, or skill at sensing other people's emotions ; 4) *social skill*, with focus on communication and managing conflicts and a commitment to developing others' abilities (paragraphs 75-80). Goleman (2004) named the concept "emotional intelligence" in 1995 and completed research at nearly 200 companies to refine his theory and identify the capabilities of outstanding leaders. Bradberry and Greaves (2009) used a similar four-pronged model, but reimagined the quadrant of “social skill” as “relationship management” (p. 24). Self awareness and self management relate primarily to the individual, whereas social awareness and relationship management are more about how the individual interacts with other people (p. 24). Emotional intelligence has been expressed as two models, one focused on “abilities — related to leaders’ reasoning abstractly, and the other as a “mixed model,” with focus on a leader’s social behaviors, traits and competencies (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; p. 389). Goleman (2004) found that emotional intelligence “proved to be twice as important” as technical skills and intelligence quotient (IQ) in driving outstanding performance (p. 1). In addition to studies related to individual factors of leadership style and behaviors, the added complexity of multiple leaders working together has also been investigated. For example, Pearce and Conger (2003) explored shared leadership and Rubin (2002) analyzed collaborative leadership in community and school environments.

Collaborative Leadership

A related perspective in the study of public relations and leadership is the dynamic of multiple leaders — that is collaborative or shared leadership (Pearce & Conger, 2003). “Collaborative leadership is the skillful and mission-oriented management of relevant relationships. It is the juncture of organizing and management” (Rubin, 2002, p. 18). This concept reflects the aspect of leaders working together toward a common purpose (Rubin, 2002). Collaborative partnerships are “entities comprised of three or more legally autonomous organizations who work together to achieve what no single organization could (easily) achieve on its own” (Nowell & Harrison, 2011, p. 20).

"Leadership is exercised when ideas expressed in talk or action are recognized by others as capable of progressing tasks or problems which are important to them" (Robinson, 2001, p. 93). This interpretation leads to a perception of leadership as influence performed not just by one person but shifting and distributing itself among several actors or leadership actors (Gronn, 2002). Acknowledging the role of leadership in achieving group objectives, Gardner (1990) defined leadership as "the accomplishment of a group purpose, which is furthered not only by effective leaders but also by innovators, entrepreneurs, and thinkers" (p. 38). Another distinguishing factor of collaborative leaders is their ability to build bridges connecting personal needs with a shared public purpose, understanding they can achieve this purpose "better, faster, more easily, more enduringly, more efficiently, with bigger impact, with broader ownership, or with higher meaning" (p. 14). This category of leadership is "a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both" (Pearce & Conger, 2003, p. 1).

Collaboration is "a process through which parties who see different aspects of a problem can constructively explore their differences and search for solutions that go beyond their own limited vision of what is possible" (Gray, 1989, p. 5). Collaboration also reflects "a purposeful relationship in which all parties strategically choose to cooperate in order to accomplish a shared outcome" (Rubin, 2002, p. 17). Crosby and Bryson's (2007) "Leadership for the Common Good" framework indicated that more research is needed for best ways to pursue leadership in cross-sector, shared-power settings. "There is a need for systematic research on the antecedents of collaboration, the processes through which it occurs, and the outcomes it produces" (Bingham, O'Leary & Carlson, 2008, p. 8). Below are some examples of studies to date of initiatives demonstrating collaborative leadership.

Collaborative leadership in action. A study of the Southern California Environmental Justice Collaborative (Peterson, Minkler & Vasquez, 2006) explored community-based participatory research and the role of leadership in community partnerships to conduct research and develop policies leading to legislative action. Leadership was also assessed in Alexander, Comfort, Weiner and Bogue's (2001) examination of participants in four community partnerships and the impact of voluntary, egalitarian participation and cooperation among organizations with differing cultures and agendas (p. 159) as well as Kezar and Eckel's (2002) analysis of the role of strong leadership and a collaborative process in managing change at educational institutions. Leadership played a role in helping South Korean immigrants assimilate into U.S. culture, raising questions of how managers provide a work environment that addresses changing views of work in terms of age and gender (Han & McPherson, 2009). Collaborative leadership has also been investigated as a tool for enhancing school performance in Hallinger and Heck's (2010) analysis of the effects of collaborative learning on improving student learning in primary schools.

Collaborations in healthcare. Within the healthcare industry, Alexander, Comfort, Weiner and Bogue's 2001 investigation of the impact of leadership training from the National Public Health Leadership Institute in developing collaborative public health initiatives found that completing the training increased collaborative leadership and enhanced knowledge sharing and problem solving. Shared leadership attributes were included in a case study of leadership amidst corporate change in a hospital setting (Denis, 1996). Nowell and Harrison (2011) linked leadership with capacity building in the public health sector, highlighting the importance of shared leadership and need for more investigation of emergent leaders in a field of leaders. There is “limited knowledge of those key individuals and the roles that they play in non-hierarchical voluntary partnerships” (p. 19).

Sustained collaboration. Rubin (2002) distinguished between itinerant or short-term collaborations and a “sustained” structure, which is a more “planned and managed system of ongoing interaction involving individuals and institutional representatives for whom participation in the collaboration is, essentially, part of their job description” (p. 19). These more complex, strategic interactions often evolve from a series of itinerant initiatives (Rubin, 2002). This extended timeframe requires “strategic planning, flexibility and management systems that require formality and structure” (p. 20). Leadership development is an integral part of ongoing collaborative ventures, especially within the nonprofit sector. “No single individual or organization can tackle persistent social issues…alone. We need a new way of working together and a new kind of leadership” (Leadership Learning Community, 2012, p. 3). Rubin (2002) noted the lack of a common vision of what is needed to be an effective collaborative leader and a call for a model or curriculum on teaching someone how to step into this role.

Civic engagement. Collaborative leadership has also been studied widely in the realm of civic engagement and community action (see Rosenthal’s 1998 analysis of the impact of gender and volunteer service on leadership of state legislative committees; Brown’s 1996 exploration of participative problem solving in African and Asian communities; Pigg's 1999 perspective of leadership emerging from relationships among actors in the community; and Komives & Wagner's 2009 text on the social change model of leadership, or the opportunity to direct change toward a desired future). This focus on relationships in a community setting is closely tied to the purpose of public relations as evident in Edward's (2012) definition: "This societal role of public relations would most likely be accepted without question from many professionals in business, government agencies, and the nonprofit community" (Taylor, 2010, p.6). What contributes to the success of these partnerships?

Building successful collaborations. A successful collaboration is one that "achieves its goals, has longevity, gains recognition, and meets the needs of its members" (El Ansari, 2001, p. 353). Chrislip (2002) investigated the concept of collaborative leadership in a variety of settings including educational. To Chrislip, launching a successful collaboration encompassed several interrelated concepts in a single phrase: "bring the appropriate people together in constructive ways with good information" (p. 14). *Appropriate* includes a diverse set of voices to join advocates on all sides. *Constructive ways* recognize that traditional (or transactional) methods may not be effective in a collaborative model with diverse viewpoints, leading to a need for a carefully designed process that builds trust, shared understanding and a clear vision for the outcome. *Good information* relates to the need to keep stakeholders well informed and aware of key issues.

Chrislip and Larsen (1994) investigated six exemplary cases of community collaboration with the following criteria: 1) concrete, tangible results from the collaboration; 2) a sufficiently complex problem that required collaboration among different sectors of the community; 3) an issue that included significant barriers to be overcome; 4) many and diverse stakeholders participating in the collaboration; 5) acknowledgement of the collaboration's success that was widespread (p. 40). This evaluation generated a summary of elements present in successful collaborations: 1) a clear need and fortunate timing for addressing that need — a sense of urgency; 2) strong stakeholder presence; 3) involvement of participants from many, diverse sectors of the community; 4) an open, credible process; 5) high-level, visible leaders; 6) support, or at least noninterference by government authorities, such as city councils; 7) overcoming skepticism or mistrust; 8) strong leadership keeping stakeholders engaged and assisting with negotiation throughout the process; 9) celebrating successes along the way helped build credibility and momentum; 10) expansion of concerns from narrow specific interests to broader interests of the community (pp. 52-54). Demonstrating the breadth of attributes involved in cooperative ventures, Rubin (2002) outlined two-dozen "dimensions of effective collaborations," including integrity, strategic thinking, asset-based perspective, credibility, communication skills, data-driven decision making, diversity and empathy (pp. 55-65). One of the key elements of strategic alliances is the gathering and distribution of resources (Hamel, Doz & Pralahad, 1989).

Economic Considerations

Resource allocation. To deal more effectively with major issues, organizations seek additional resources and shared solutions. In the "commercial" stage, there is a two-way benefit flow that seeks mutual benefit through specific value transactions between the two alliance participants. This stage may also become a foundation for building richer collaborations with overlapping missions and compatible values (Hamel, Doz & Pralahad, p. 74). These cooperative relationships can help companies acquire new competencies, save resources, share risks, move more quickly to new markets, and create future opportunities (Hamel, Doz & Pralahad, 1989). The most common reasons to create partnerships include market access, program or product development, and knowledge sharing; organizations recognize that each has a distinctive competency, innovative method, or specialized knowledge that could contribute to higher quality outcomes for both, if shared (Arsenault, 1998).

Risks and drawbacks of alliances. Alliances are forged to generate results, but they also face problems that can derail those outcomes. Jolin, Schmitz and Seldon's 2012 review of more than 80 collaborations across the United States examined when these initiatives "moved the needle" or demonstrated a significant and measurable impact on an entire community through cross-sector community collaboratives (p. 2). Their measure of success was at least 10 percent progress on a key community-wide indicator, such as a 30 percent decrease in teen birth rates in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, as of 2010 following a massive public awareness campaign (p. 3).

The potential benefits of alliance are numerous, but there are also risks in developing relationships between organizations (Austin, 2000). Either partner can make mistakes that could trigger bad publicity, criticism or jeopardize the partners continuing to work together. Austin (2000) outlined three tests to assess potential risks of strategic alliances. First the mission incompatibility test ensures the missions of both organizations are in alignment. Next, the impropriety test assesses the extent a potential alliance will affect an organization's level of trust with its other stakeholders. Finally, the press test relates to the power of perception, assessing how the media might perceive the alliance (pp. 52-53).

Efficient use of resources. There is a demand for efficiency in collective efforts. "Collaborations cannot be a waste of time. They must produce . . . in a timely [or expedient] manner; otherwise, partners will quickly see that it makes a great deal more sense to pull back (individually] into their home organizations" (Rubin, 2002, p. 55). Strategic use of resources is imperative: "Collaborative leaders see assets to be aligned where others see disjointed resources and players" (p. 56). The focus must be on "identifying, engaging, integrating and amplifying the assets that each partner offers to the work of the collaboration" (p. 57). This assessment is frank and analytical, evaluating assets needed to complete the job, hidden assets to tap later, and missing assets that must be gathered to accomplish the goals (Rubin, 2002). Pigg (1999) noted the "power resources" related to influence and the enduring challenge faced by community organizations to deliver quality with continued decrease in resources. Economics played a key role in this case study of leaders of public and private organizations in collaboration to end chronic homelessness among veterans in Maricopa County, Arizona; therefore, it is important to understand the foundation of economic effects on the alliance.

Economic Implications

Social Exchange. One framework for investigating the economic implications of the homeless alliance is the social exchange theory, a long-standing paradigm for understanding workplace behavior, which developed from a sociology perspective (Befu, 1977). Social exchange has been described as "one of the oldest theories of social behavior, and one that we still use every day" (Homans, 1958, p. 597). In-depth study of social exchange dates to the 1920s, including French anthropologist Marcel Mauss' analysis of the meaning behind gifts and the power of reciprocity (Mauss, 1925, as cited in Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). There are many interpretations of this model, with the basic tenet that social exchange involves interactions that generate obligations (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Another integral element is that relationships evolve over time with trust when the parties abide by certain "rules of exchange" (p. 875).

Ekeh (1974) outlined "univocal reciprocity" or exchange among at least three individuals in indirect exchange. This means that there is no assurance of reciprocity, leading exchange theory to "such high-order conceptions as citizenship" (Ekeh, 1974, as cited in Befu, 1977, p. 264). Linking social exchange to group interaction is the concept of "group gain," whereby benefits are put into a common "pot" and individuals can take what they need from the shared pool regardless of their specific contribution (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 879).

From a public relations perspective, "relationships consist of the transactions that involve the exchange of resources between organizations…and lead to mutual benefit, as well as mutual achievement" (Broom, Casey & Ritchey, 2000, p. 91). Blau explored social exchange relationships and the degree of ambiguity and unspecified obligations (1964). The degree of satisfaction with the exchange by the participating members varies (Lambe, Jay, Wittman & Spekman, 2001). Konovsky and Pugh (1994) explored the link between social exchange and citizenship behavior in a healthcare setting. Along with economic factors, organizational characteristics of strategic alliances, including role, mission, and objectives, have also been examined (Nowell & Harrison, 2011).

Complexity theory helps simplify and explicate complex organizational systems (Manson, 2001).

Complexity

Suh (2005) defined complexity as “a measure of uncertainty in achieving a set of design goals that a system must satisfy” (p. viii). Complexity theory and its central idea of simplifying complex systems have been used as a framework for a wide array of applications in an organizational setting (Manson, 2001). Described as an outgrowth of systems theory in its “holistic appreciation of system interconnectedness” (von Bertalanffy, 1968, as cited in Manson, 2001, p. 406), complexity theory considers nontraditional relationships between constantly changing entities and explores how complex behavior emerges from interactions over time (Manson, 2001). Scholars from different disciplines including engineering, natural science, social science, business and others deal with *complexity* all the time and have different meanings for the concept from each specific field (Suh, 2005, p. vii). From a social science perspective, complexity offers a framework for explicating organizational processes and social interaction. Gilpin and Miller (2013a) described this “complex organizational community” as a combination of individuals, groups, and other business entities with shared communication and shared identification (p. 150). Identification is the “shared construction of identity that also fosters a sense of belonging and emotional attachment” (p. 160).

Complexity and communication. Communication is integral to building and maintaining relationships within organizations, “making it a fertile terrain for exploration via a theoretical framework [complexity theory] that emphasizes relationality” (Gilpin &

Miller, 2013a, p. 149). The fluidity of how functions adapt toward achieving goals is reflected in Long and Hazelton's (1987) definition of public relations as "a communication function of management through which organizations adapt to, alter, or maintain their environment for the purpose of achieving organizational goals" (p. 3). With a wide array of stakeholders and relationships that are complex, nonprofit organizations may have especially fluid boundaries (Gilpin & Miller, 2013b). Complexity theory has been applied to the study of leadership, also known as "complexity leadership" (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2008, p. 5).

Complexity leadership. Leadership in complexity theory is "embedded in a complex interplay of numerous interacting forces" (Uhl-Bien, Marion & McKelvey, 2007, p. 302). The authors proposed three leadership functions within this model: 1) administrative, or grounded in traditional bureaucracy; 2) adaptive with focus on innovation and change; 3) enabling, that is the ability to create an environment that fosters innovation (Uhl-Bien, Marion & McKelvey, 2007, 299-312). Brown and Eisenhardt (1997) researched innovation in the computer industry, maintaining that "continuous innovation is necessary for survival" (Baum & Burnes, 2005, p. 81). Nooteboom and Termeer (2013) set the stage for complex leadership within a collaborative venture like the homeless alliance in this dissertation: "Since complex innovations cross the boundaries of organizations, a single enabling leader does not suffice. Complex innovation requires the development of co-sponsorship for innovations in several contrasting organizations, perhaps even with the competitive relationships" (p. 27). Gilpin and Miller (2013a) identified indistinct, fluid boundaries as a "central characteristic of complex systems" (p. 162). Avolio (2009) noted a lack of research in the arena of complexity leadership possibly because of challenges in identifying and analyzing constructs that are evolving and adapting. “Substantive research is needed if this area of leadership is to advance beyond conceptual discussions” (p. 422.)

Investigation in this arena has grown since 2009. For example, Weberg (2012) analyzed the distinctions between traditional leadership and complex leadership, nothing that better patient outcomes emerged when decision-making was dispersed throughout the organization instead of limited to a central power structure and when innovation and rapid adaptation to new practices were encouraged. Nooteboom and Termeer (2013) explored complex leadership strategies that support the emergence of innovations in an agricultural development project and urban revitalization initiative. Within the financial sector, holistic implementation of complex leadership was reviewed, that is covering all levels, functions and geographies, integrating individual values and organizational levers or internal and external systems or processes (Raghavendran & Rajagopalan, 2011, p. 19). The link between leadership and organizational culture has been explored in relation to innovation in nonprofit organizations. For example, Jaskyte (2004) studied the relationship between leadership and innovation in a case study of a human services organization. In addition to an organization’s structure, the elements of role, mission, objectives, and goals have been examined. Levine and Moreland (1998) suggested a link between the effectiveness of small group functioning and the operations of community coalitions, after exploring organizational factors including group size, leadership, and roles, or shared expectations (p. 416).

Organizational Considerations.

Organizational elements that can affect the operation of collaborative ventures like the homeless alliance in this dissertation include role (Jacobson, Charters & Lieberman, 1951), mission (Furlong & Burns, 1996), goals (Sidhu, 2003), and objectives (Keeny, 1999).

Role. Jacobson, Charters and Lieberman (1951) defined role as “a set of expectations that others share of the behavior an individual will exhibit as an occupant of a position, or status category” (p. 19). Expectations of roles in complex organizations may vary, whereby a “range” of behaviors assigned to a role may help to gain agreement among the organization members on the definition of a specific role (p. 21). Everett (1985) evaluated the similarity of roles within orbits of social networks. Goh and Baldwin (1998) analyzed role hierarchy in organizational settings. Collaboration is often a role, or defined job responsibility, especially in sustained or longer-term cooperative initiatives (Rubin, 2002). Another role that may contribute to the performance of an alliance is that of outside expert, or “facilitator,” brought into the collaboration to “bridge differences, help strategize operations, or facilitate the group’s process” (Rubin, 2002, p. 23). Bivins (1989) interpreted role in a broader sense as job description or function (p. 66) in the arena of public relations. Broom (1982) identified a number of different public relations roles, such as “communication manager, expert prescriber, communication technician, communication facilitator, and problem-solving process facilitator” (p. 18) that relate to the purpose, or mission, of the organization.

Mission. The term “mission” has myriad definitions and interpretations, including Furlong and Burns’ (1996) description: [Mission is] “an organization’s reason for existence — and is relatively unchanging over time" (p. 17). This describes what an organization (or alliance) does for whom and for what purpose, often articulated through a mission statement (p. 17). Sidhu (2003) investigated the link between performance and mission statement, finding a clear relationship, albeit with a small sample. To accomplish an organization's mission, goals and objectives are identified through a strategic communication planning process (Wilson & Ogden, 2008).

Goals. Organizational goals are "mutual understandings, which establish the operational parameters, driving mission fulfillment" (Sidhu, 2003, p. 42). Wilson and Ogden (2008) described a goal as "the result or desired outcome that solves a problem, takes advantage of an opportunity, or meets a challenge" (p. 72). Goals are generally not required to be articulated through quantifiable measures (Wilson & Ogden, 2008). Objective and goal are often used interchangeably, but Kaplan (1973) drew a distinction between the two, "A goal demarcates an attainable end, but not with the complete specificity of a particular objective" (p. 57). Common goals can help unify disparate stakeholder groups (Berg, Csikszentmihalyi & Nakamura, 2003).

Objectives. An objective is "something one wants to strive towards" (Keeney, 1999, p. 535). Objectives are specific end states to be achieved (Grunig, 2013). Within public relations planning, an objective must specify (a) target public to be affected, (b) the nature of the intended change, (c) the specific knowledge, attitude or behavior to be achieved, (d) the amount of change desired, and (e) a target date for achieving the objective (Broom & Dozier, 1990, p. 44). Wilson and Ogden (2008) outlined eight characteristics of well-formulated objectives: expressed in writing, clear and specific, measurable, credible, acceptable, attainable, time-specific, and bound by budgetary constraints (pp. 79-80).

Conclusion

This analysis of the research related to leadership, strategic alliances, stakeholder relations, economic factors and organizational elements highlights topics of great scholarly interest and other areas with little research attention to date, presenting an opportunity to expand knowledge and add to the data. For example, while leadership and strategic alliances overall have been widely researched in a number of settings, the arena of collaborative leadership, especially within public-private partnerships has not been explored in-depth, as well as the little-studied connection between public relations and leadership and lack of investigation related to leaders' communication with stakeholders. This dissertation regarding the homeless alliance addresses these gaps by analyzing the intersection of public relations and leadership, adding new knowledge to the fields of strategic alliances among public and private partner organizations and communication with their stakeholders.

This review of the scholarly investigations of concepts offers a broad perspective on collaborative leadership that reinforce the C.A.L.L. model, encompassing elements of communication, strategic alliances, leadership and the leveraging of economic resources that all affect a leadership group's likelihood of solving complex social problems. The analysis sets the stage for an in-depth qualitative study of the homeless alliance case to answer the research question and sub-questions:

How do leaders in a public-private strategic alliance collaboratively address complex community problems. The following sub-questions help focus the study:

1. How are the elements of role, mission and objective involved in the homeless alliance?
2. What leadership styles are reported within the alliance?
3. How do the leaders in the alliance communicate with stakeholders?
4. What are the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the homeless alliance?

The homeless alliance were examined from the perspectives of the participating leaders using elite or focused interviews (Dexter, 1970) through a grounded theory method that compiled the data and organized the interview subjects' responses into meaningful insights (Glaser & Strauss, 2012).

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The case under investigation in this dissertation is an alliance of public, private and nonprofit organization leaders who have collaborated to end chronic homelessness among veterans in Maricopa County, Arizona, also referred to here as the homeless alliance. This chapter details the research process or description of how to design the study that establishes the platform overall (Babbie, 2013). The process includes: 1) a detailed procedure and comprehensive research approach and method for data collection and analysis (Babbie, 2013); 2) steps taken to improve reliability, that is the confidence that the "same data would have been collected each in repeated observations of the same phenomenon" (Babbie, 2013, p. 152); 3) tests for validity or ensuring that "we are actually measuring what we say we are measuring" (Babbie, 2013, p. xlix); 4) limitations, which are potential weaknesses or restrictions of the study (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012); the role of the researcher ("[A role is a] set of expectations which others share of the behavior an individual will exhibit as an occupant of a position, or status category" (Jacobson, Charters & Lieberman, 1951, p. 19), and, finally, 5) definitions of terms, both conceptual — to provide context and clarity on the study elements — and operational to clarify the specific application of the terms to this study (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012, p. 6).

Qualitative Investigation

The aim of the homeless alliance study was to understand how leaders in a public-private strategic alliance collaboratively address complex community problems. This analysis applied a qualitative or humanistic, interpretive approach (Jackson, Drummond & Camara, 2007) within an inductive framework, "using the known to predict the unknown" (Heit, 2000, p. 569) to understand how leaders in a public-private strategic alliance collaboratively address complex community problems. The investigation was *qualitative*, using "examination and interpretation of observations for the purpose of discovering underlying meanings and patterns of relationships" (p. 520). The study used the *induction* mode of inquiry, wherein the reasoning moves from the specific to the general, from a set of "specific observations to the discovery of a pattern that represents some degree of order among all the given events" (Babbie, 2013, p. 24).

The primary method for gathering data was *elite interviews*, defined by Dexter (1970) as a specific type of focused interview, whereby participants are given "special, nonstandardized treatment" (p. 5), characterized by the opportunity to gather specialized knowledge possessed by the interviewee through in-depth discussions with individuals selected because of who they are or what position they occupy (Hochschild, 2009). Interviews allow respondents to "move back and forth in time" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 273).

Interviews were conducted with specified leaders from the homeless alliance, including a SWOT analysis to provide a framework and mechanism for evaluating all of the organizations participating in the homeless alliance (Carlsen & Andersson, 2011). For the purposes of this dissertation, SWOT is defined as strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (Carlson & Andersson, 2011).

Case study. The dissertation was structured as a case study, or "in-depth examination of a single instance of some social phenomenon" (Babbie, 2013, p. 326) and an “intensive study of a single unit with an aim to generalize across a larger set of units” (Gerring, 2004, p. 341). The goal was to achieve transference when the context of this study fits with the context of another study based on the finding of significant and salient factors between the two (Lincoln & Guba, 1990, p. 57). Case studies may also add knowledge as a tool for learning, identifying metaphors to “illuminate the subject term,” or function as a basis for re-examining “one’s own construction of a given phenomenon” (p. 58). The case study format sets the stage for the research process to be followed.

Before interviewing human subjects, the researcher confirmed approval from Arizona State University’s Institutional Review Board and obtained an agreement from the Valley of the Sun United Way alliance leader to provide background information on the homeless alliance, participate as an interview subject, and facilitate scheduling interviews for the researcher with the other project leaders (see Appendix A). The purpose of the study was shared with the 10 interview subjects along with a description of each step of the process and their right to ask any questions and discontinue their involvement at any time (see Appendix B for a list of the homeless alliance leaders/interview subjects) All of the participating leaders agreed to be interviewed and to have their responses identified in this dissertation. This agreement was signified by each interview subject stating his or her name and title when the recording of each interview began.

Scope of the study. To determine the list of topics to be investigated, the researcher reviewed the websites of the VSUW and homeless alliance leaders, minutes from meetings of the alliance, and news coverage of the alliance. An interview schedule was developed to provide “pattern of interaction where the roles of interviewer and respondent can become highly specialized. The features vary, depending on the purpose and character of the interviews involved" (Bannon, 2004. p. 29). The interview schedule establishes rapport between the interviewer and the alliance participants, defines the interview process and roles for each subject, gathers background information, and directs the conversation (Kennedy, 2006). The schedule provides a list of generally open-ended questions for the interview, with the understanding that additional questions may be asked based on the subjects' responses. The interview needs to be "sufficiently detailed to allow for the identification of themes, while flexible enough to accommodate unpredictable responses" (Bannon, 2004, p. 30).

Protocol. A protocol is the "specific, concrete ways in which your research strategy will be implemented" (Lindlof & Taylor, 2011, p. 130). Accepting that some elements may shift in the context of the research environment, the protocol helps anticipate problems and develops solutions for them (Lindlof & Taylor, 2011). The researcher interviewed 10 leaders participating in the homeless alliance — the homeless alliance director from the VSUW and nine leaders form corporate, government and community organizations. The researcher met one-on-one with each subject in an effort to put the participants at ease and create an environment conducive to information gathering. Therefore, the interviews took place primarily in the offices of the interview respondents (Dexter, 1970). Three of the interviews were conducted at restaurants, at the respondents' request. The noise level at these businesses was low enough that the researcher was able to hear the subjects' responses (see Appendix D for the interview transcripts.

The researcher digitally recorded each interview, audio only, for the purpose of transcription and to help increase interpretive validity, that is, accurately capture the participants' responses (Pyrczak, 2008). "Audio taping is a preferred method for accurate recording of conversations" (Riley, 2010, p. 30). The researcher explained the role of recording equipment to each subject and attempted to make the technology unobtrusive to minimize distraction and any sense of self-consciousness from the interview subject (Dexter, 1970). The researcher also took notes with a paper and pen regarding important points during the interview to reinforce the informants' comments. Finally, the researcher remained aware of the personal biases, orientations and experiences that may affect data collection and interpretation and attempted to view the alliance from the participants' perspective, striving for objectivity to limit this personal bias effect (Pyrczak, 2008).

SWOT Method

The interviews included the subjects' perceptions of the alliance -- what they believe is going well and what they believe could be done better. Used widely in many industries, including public relations (Kim, 2008; Wehmeier, 2006), a SWOT analysis helps provide a structure for these opinions. SWOT is an acronym for strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (Carlsen & Andersson, 2011). Strengths and weaknesses are assessed through internal appraisal, evaluating elements such as staffing, facilities, location and product mix, while an external scan of economic, social and political factors and other environmental influences is used to define threats and identify opportunities (Dyson, 2004). Listing favorable and unfavorable internal and external issues in four quadrants of a SWOT analysis grid helps planners better understand how strengths can be leveraged and weaknesses can pose challenges (Helms & Nixon, 2010). Glaister and Falshaw (1999) referred to SWOT analysis as "one of the most prevalent and respected tools of strategic planning" (p. 111).

Houben (1999) noted the popularity of the SWOT analysis in the quest to identify an organization's competitive strengths and weaknesses, stating that it is not easy to achieve this because "companies only have vague ideas of the source of certain competencies and the extent to which they possess them" (p. 127). Drew's (1999) analysis of knowledge management discussed SWOT analyses in the context of complex organizations, through the "butterfly effect," that is, when "small and apparently insignificant events lead to momentous effects" (p. 134).

Figure 1: SWOT Analysis

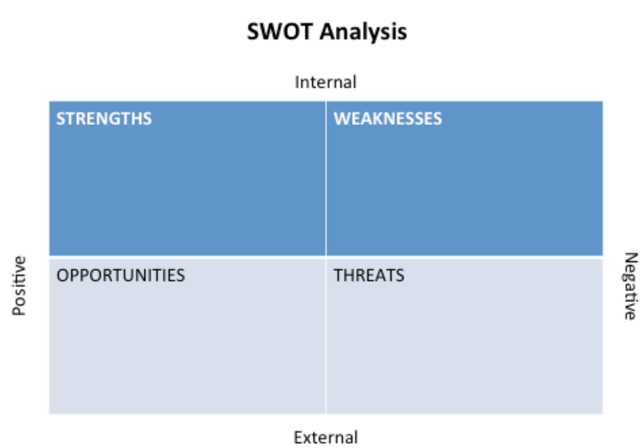

Figure 1. SWOT Analysis elements

SWOT in public relations. The SWOT tool has been used many times in a number of environments, including public relations (see an analysis of 10 years of academic research related to SWOT by Helms & Nixon, 2010 and Ip & Koo's (2004) discussion of

SWOT and quality assessments). Kim (2008) identified SWOT as part of the solution-building stage of solving a public relations problem (p. 251). Wehmeier (2006) defined SWOT as part of the "typical public relations process…identifying the critical segments in an organization's environment that are affected by the problem and that can facilitate or prevent the problem-solving process" (p. 251). Johnson, Scholes and Sexty (1989) discussed the value of group assessment of SWOT attributes in providing clarity and focus for developing strategic plans, which is a central public relations function (see, for example Grunig's 2006 view of public relations as a function of strategic management and Smith's 2013 description of strategy as a key component of public relations campaigns).

The Researcher's Role

A critical consideration in the dissertation is the researcher's background and its potential to affect the investigation, the findings, and the framing of the conclusions, also known as reflexivity (Malterud, 2001). The researcher in the homeless alliance study has 15-plus years' experience in strategic alliances stakeholder communications, and public relations, in leadership roles for nonprofit, for-profit and government organizations and supporting agencies. She also taught public relations and community courses at the university level and led strategic planning and research for a variety of stakeholders, facilitating and interpreting SWOT analyses in a number of industries. Finally, she has contributed to several community initiatives, including serving as Treasurer and Board Member for a statewide arts advocacy organization and Director of Marketing

Communications for a nonprofit theatre company. She brings this perspective to the analysis of the interview responses in the homeless alliance study.

"Objectivity in qualitative research is a myth. Researchers bring to the research situation their particular paradigms, including perspectives, training, knowledge, and biases" (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 32). Another key element is sensitivity, or contrast to objectivity (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). "During all steps of the research process, the effect of the researcher should be assessed" (Malterud, 2001, p. 484). Rubin and Rubin (2005) also noted the potential advantage of empathy adding depth to the interview when the researcher has a level of personal involvement in the topic, while cautioning the researcher to watch vigilantly for potential bias and influence on the subjects' responses resulting from this personal involvement.

Research Method: Elite Interviews

Gathering information directly from the alliance participants was critical to this inductive case study. "If you anticipate that you may need to ask people to explain their answers or give examples or describe their experiences, then you rely on in-depth interviews… to shed new light on old problems" (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 3). Elite interviews are in-depth discussions with people who are chosen because of who they are or what position they occupy (Hochschild, 2009). The interviews with the leaders in this case study are considered elite because each interview subject played a key role in the performance of the alliance (Hochschild, 2009). The interviews included: a subject who has participated in a specific situation; a researcher who reviews information to complete an analysis and develops an interview schedule based on the analysis; and the results of the interview reflect the subject's definition of the situation (Kezar, 2003). These interviews are also investigative (Rubin & Rubin, 2005) in that they are focused on a single initiative; they also look at language and emotions expressed during the interviews, and seek metaphors and similes to describe events and convey emotion.

The study applied elements of a responsive interviewing approach, wherein: 1) the researcher and the interview subject form a relationship during the interview process that results in ethical responsibilities for the researcher; 2) the goal of the study is focused on depth of understanding more than breadth; 3) a flexible design is maintained throughout the study (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 30). The interview subjects are offered "special, nonstandardized treatment," which includes: "stressing the interviewee's definition of the situation; encouraging the interviewer to structure the account of the situation; letting the interviewee introduce to a considerable extent his notions of what he regards as relevant" (Dexter, 1970, p. 5). (See Appendix B for the names of the study participants, also known as subjects and interview respondents (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Interview schedule. The interview schedule, or list of topics to be discussed during the interview included main questions, follow-up questions, and probes (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 129). This created a balance of pre-planned questions that address the research question with individual explanations, clarifications or expansions on responses. Main questions developed beforehand provide the foundation for the interview, ensuring that the research problem is analyzed thoroughly and translating the topic into terms to which the subject can relate. The questions encompass both depth (gaining more insight through distinct points of view and explanations) and detail, or specific descriptions (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, pp. 129-131). See Appendix C for interview schedule.

Units of analysis. The units of communication analyzed in this study comprised factors from previous investigations of strategic alliances, as detailed in Chapter 2: Literature Review. These included: roles of leaders, alignment of objectives, alignment of mission, leadership style, communication with stakeholders, and the leaders' assessments of the homeless alliance's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT) (Carlsen & Andersson, 2011). Each of these elements was included in the interview schedule, or detailed list of questions, and then coded and analyzed, allowing data to emerge (Bannon, 2004). The method for analyzing data was grounded theory.

Grounded Theory

A grounded theory method was used to compile the data and organize the responses into meaningful insights (Glaser & Strauss, 2012). Originally devised by Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss in the medical field, the grounded theory approach was developed to build and offer rationale for theory and to incorporate both quantitative and qualitative data (Strauss & Corbin, 1994). Grounded theory is "the discovery of theory from data" toward the aim of determining how "accurate facts can be obtained and how theory can thereby be more rigorously tested" (Glaser & Strauss, 2012, p. 1). This inductive approach is a "template for all kinds of qualitative research" because of its applicability to many topics in social science, including communication (Lindlof & Taylor, 2011, p. 250). Grounded theory has been used more frequently than any other method of analyzing qualitative data (Bryant & Charmaz, 2011).

Grounded theory and social construction of reality. With such intensive scholarly scrutiny of grounded theory, "as both the originators and their students worked with the method, changes emerged and debates ensued" (Charmaz, 2008, p. 399). For example, Charmaz (2008) and others placed grounded theory in a social constructionist framework: "Grounded theory not only is a method for understanding research participants' social constructions but also is a method that researchers construct throughout inquiry…allows us to address *why* questions while preserving the complexity of social life" (p. 397). "Glaser and Strauss laid the foundation for constructing sound methods, as well as analyses" (Charmaz, 2008, p. 398).

Social construction of reality as defined by Berger and Luckmann (1966) describes the process of how individuals internalize events that surround them, and the idea that individual consciousness is determined by what that society deems relevant. This socialization was described as primary, when individuals acquire knowledge that is common to many others, and secondary, which relates to particular instances of obtaining knowledge that is experienced by individuals within particular situations (Berger & Luckmann, 1966), including mass media settings (Adoni & Mane, 1984).

Grounded theory and communication. This "far-reaching redefinition of the sociology of knowledge has direct implications for the study of culture and mass communication" (Adoni & Mane, 1984, p. 325). Grounded theory offers flexibility in the systematic analysis of data forms, such as observations, written documents and interviews (Riley, 2010). Mass media also play a role in shaping individual and collective consciousness (McQuail, 1992). Mass media are "any form of communication that simultaneously reaches a large number of people, including but not limited to radio, TV, newspapers, magazines, billboards, films, recordings, books, and the Internet" (Wimmer & Dominick, 2011, p. 5). "Individuals and groups actively create their own social order out of materials made available from mass media" (McQuail, 1992, p. 237). Mills, Bonner and Francis (2006) used a constructionist perspective regarding grounded theory research about communication in the nursing industry: "[Grounded theory] seeks to inductively distill issues of importance for specific groups of people, creating meaning about those issues through analysis and the modeling of theory" (p. 8).

Grounded theory and interviews. Interview subjects or respondents should lead the discussion in qualitative interviews, in a constructionist context: "The greater the structure imposed by the interviewer, the less respondents can offer their constructed knowledge" (Riley, 2010, p. 27). Questions are designed to "cover a wide range of experiences and narrow enough to elicit and explore the participant's specific experience" (Charmaz & Belgrave, 2012, p. 351). Employing good sampling techniques, developing trust with subjects and using "unobtrusive prompting for deeper discussions" are also important considerations (Charmaz & Belgrave, 2012).

Building grounded theory. Grounded theory is a methodology for generating theories on the basis of data (Titscher, Meyer, Wodak & Vetter, 2000, p. 78). It is used more for developing theory than testing it (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Babbie (2013) defined grounded theory as "an inductive approach to the study of social life that attempts to generate a theory from the constant comparing of unfolding observations" (p. 324). Babbie (2013) specified five attributes: "1) think comparatively; 2) obtain multiple viewpoints; 3) step back periodically to check data against evolving interpretations; 4) maintain sense of skepticism; 5) follow procedures, especially systematic coding of responses" (pp. 324-5). Acknowledging intensive debates on the attributes of the grounded theory method, Lindlof and Taylor (2011) focused on three features of the original interpretation of grounded theory: 1) the relationship between data and their coding categories may lead to emergent theory; 2) coding categories are developed by comparing units of data with each other; 3) data alter the scope and terms of the analytic framework with dynamic shifts in codes, categories, and category definitions (p. 250). Through this inductive process to seek patterns within data, "with each analytical contribution, conceptual categories emerge" (Riley, 2010, p. 22).

Coding and Categories

The data for this dissertation were analyzed through an iterative process to identify theories or concepts (Strauss & Corbin, 1994), beginning with the familiarization stage to become acquainted with the informant's environment and worldview (Riley, 2010). Next, the interview transcripts are coded, that is synthesized and dissected meaningfully, keeping the relations between the concepts intact (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Codes are the linkages between data and categories, which are created when the researcher gathers general phenomena to be sorted by properties each piece of data shares with another (Lindlof & Taylor, 2011, p. 246). The first phase of coding is open, or unrestricted, to help build the categories (Lindlof & Taylor, 2011). Preliminary coding breaks the data into manageable segments (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Axial coding is the next phase, relating isolated concepts into broader level ideas and building possible themes and categories that remain unverified (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). This is followed by interpretation, or translating an object of analysis from one frame of meaning to another (Lindlof & Taylor, 2011) toward finding patterns to "paint conceptual pictures that add to the understanding of the experience" (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 262). Integration and setting a platform for building theory is the final phase of coding analysis (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). With grounded theory analysis, the goal is to keep seeking data until a category is saturated, to the point where no new information can be found about the properties of this category (Bowen, 2006).

Reliability and Validity

Key to the research process is reliability, or the confidence that the "same data would have been collected each in repeated observations of the same phenomenon" (Babbie, 2013, p. 152), and validity, that is "the empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration (Babbie, 2013, p. 154). It is important to consider these elements carefully with the understanding that there can never be complete certainty that a study has achieved validity or reliability because there are so many variables and differing perceptions of the elements of the study, especially within qualitative research (Babbie, 2013). To Lindlof and Taylor (2011), "reliability is not as great a consideration in qualitative research" because there are a great many nonrepeated operations in qualitative studies (p. 272). This is particularly true with interviews because the questions may vary across the study's subjects. A more philosophical reason for the inability to attain reliability is the "assumption of multiple, changing realities…If meanings are contingent and continually changing — and the investigator's own understandings also change in relation to the scene under study — then replication of results via independent assessments is neither practical nor possible" (p. 272). Nevertheless, steps are inserted into the process to maximize reliability, with the aim to develop a strong foundation for the study's validity; reliability is a precondition for validity (Titscher, Meyer, Wodak & Vetter, p. 65). The process of testing for reliability by evaluating the stability of the coding process in the homeless alliance study is outlined below.

Intra-coder reliability. Stability of coding may be assessed by determining to what extent different coders agree on the coding of a text, a process called inter-coder reliability. Or, the stability of the coding may be tested by the same coder, known as intra-coder reliability (Babbie, 2013). In the homeless alliance case study, intra-coder reliability was used because the researcher has the most experience with the interview responses as she developed the interview schedule, conducted the interviews, transcribed the subjects' responses, and coded the data (Babbie, 2013). The researcher used the same process and the same main categories to analyze each of the 10 interview transcripts. Also, the researcher checked and rechecked all transcripts to improve the likelihood that the same data are gathered through repeated observations (Olson & Given, 2003). Another test for reliability was to evaluate the data against Given and Olson's (2001) Knowledge Organization Model, which defines four attributes of relevant information: 1) high precision, whereby data gathered is relevant; 2) high recall or the gathering of all relevant data; 3) high specificity or developing a "finely-grained" set of themes; 4) high exhaustivity, evaluating that all pieces of data on a theme are considered (p. 194). Finally, two of the 10 transcripts were recoded by the researcher, applying the "nth unit" sampling approach that selects every nth unit to reflect the variation in responses and maintain a representative sample (Azar, White, et al., 2013). For the recoding, two sets of interview responses were coded using the same procedure as the remaining interview responses then set aside for three weeks. The responses were coded again after this three-week hold. The recoding of one of the sample interviews resulted in 95 percent of the same coding results to the initial coding. The percentage for the second sample was 85 percent. The next step of the analysis was to define the parameters or limitations of the study (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012).

Limitations

In addition to the possibility of researcher bias, this dissertation included other limitations or "potential weaknesses…, external conditions that restrict or constrain the study's scope or may affect the outcome" (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012, p. 8). The following limitations apply to this study:

1. The scope of the investigation is limited to the homeless alliance led by the Valley of the Sun United Way (VSUW) working with leaders from organizations participating in the alliance that have been identified by the VSUW.
2. The elite interviews are limited to Amy Schwabenlender, Vice President of Community Giving, VSUW, who serves as director of the homeless alliance and leaders identified by Schwabenlender who participate in the alliance, also defined as interview respondents or subjects (see Appendix B).
3. The data from the interviews are limited by the interview subjects' memory. Interview comments are all about human memory — subjective, emotional, and incomplete (Murry, 2006).

Definition of Terms

Identifying the research process, procedure and limitations helped define the scope of the dissertation and provided a basis for comparison with similar case studies (Lincoln & Guba, 1990). Furthermore, precise, clear definitions aided the researcher in clarifying the meaning and method of the study, especially with terms that may be interpreted in a multitude of ways; therefore, key elements are defined both conceptually and operationally. Conceptual definitions describe the meaning of a word and specify the different aspects of a construct (Wimmer & Dominick, 2011). Through conceptual definitions, abstract concepts are refined and specified (Babbie, 2013, p. 147). Operationalization, on the other hand, is the process of specifying the exact operations involved in measuring a term (p. 520) to result in empirical observations of concepts in a real-world setting (p. 147). Operational definitions describe the procedures used to observe or measure the topics for the research questions and other key elements of the study (Rubin, Rubin, Haridakis & Piele, 2010).

Conceptual Definitions

The following conceptual definitions describe the meaning of a word and specify the different aspects of a construct (Wimmer & Dominick, 2011) applied to this dissertation.

Alignment

Alignment is “the condition where appropriate project participants are working within acceptable tolerances to develop and meet a uniformly defined and understood set of project objectives” (Griffith & Gibson, 2001).

Case Study

A case study is “the in-depth examination of a single instance of some social phenomenon” (Babbie, 2013, p. 326).

Chronic Homelessness

The federal definition of chronic homelessness from the United States Department of Housing and Urban Development is "an unaccompanied homeless individual with a disabling condition who has either been continuously homeless for a year or more, or has had at least four episodes of homelessness in the past three years" (Questions and answers about the “chronic homeless initiative,” n.d).

Collaboration

Collaboration is a “process through which parties who see different aspects of a problem can constructively explore their differences and search for solutions that go beyond their own limited vision of what is possible” (Gray, 1989, p. 5)

Collaborative Leadership

Collaborative or shared leadership is “a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both” (Pearce & Conger, 2003, p. 1).

Collective Impact

Collective impact is “the commitment of a group of important actors from different sectors to a common agenda for solving a specific social problem” (Kania & Kramer, 2011, paragraph 6).

Community Engagement

Community engagement is the concept of joint problem solving, dialogue and collaboration among government authorities, citizens and local community and business leaders around a significant public issue (Schoch-Spana, Franco, Nuzzo & Usenza, 2007).

Complexity Theory

Complexity theory considers non-linear relationships as a fluid dynamic and explores how complex behavior emerges from interactions over time (Manson, 2001).

Complexity Leadership

Complexity theory as applied to the study of leadership (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2008, p. 5; Avolio, 2009). Leadership reflects an individual's actions, but more as "embedded in a complex interplay of numerous interacting forces" (Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007, p. 302).

Elite Interviews

Elite interviews are a specific type of focused interview whereby participants are given "special, nonstandardized treatment" (Dexter, 1970, p. 5), characterized by the opportunity to gather specialized knowledge possessed by the interviewee through in-depth discussions with individuals selected because of who they are or what position they occupy (Hochschild, 2009). Elite interviews are discussions with people who are chosen because of who they are or what position they occupy (Hochschild, 2009). The interviews in this case study are considered elite because each interview subject played a key role in the performance of the alliance (Hochschild, 2009).

Emotional Intelligence

Grounded in early psychology, emotional intelligence is a leadership trait that includes: “self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skill” (Goleman, 2004, p. 1). Bradberry and Greaves (2009) used a similar four-pronged model, but reimagined the quadrant of “social skill” as “relationship management” (p. 24). Self-awareness and self-management relate primarily to the individual, whereas social awareness and relationship management are more about how the individual interacts with other people (p. 24).

Goal

“Goals are generalized end states that programs are designed to achieve, typically too abstract to be directly measured” (Dozier & Ehling, 2013, p. 163).

Grounded Theory

Grounded theory is “the discovery of theory from data” toward the aim of determining how “accurate facts can be obtained and how theory can thereby be more rigorously tested” (Glaser & Strauss, 2012, p. 1). Lindlof & Taylor (2011) focused on three features of the original interpretation of grounded theory: 1) the relationship between data and their coding categories may lead to emergent theory; 2) coding categories are developed by comparing units of data with each other; 3) data alter the scope and terms of the analytic framework with dynamic shifts in codes, categories, and category definitions (p. 250). Through this inductive process to seek patterns within data, “with each analytical contribution, conceptual categories emerge” (Riley, 2010, p. 22).

Homeless Alliance

An alliance of public, private and nonprofit organization leaders who collaborated to end chronic homelessness among veterans in Maricopa County, Arizona, also referred to here as the homeless alliance.

Homelessness

Homelessness is a "condition of disengagement from ordinary society…being disconnected from all of the support systems that usually provide help in times of crisis" (Baum & Burnes, 1993, p. 23). The Arizona Department of Housing defines homelessness as "lacking a fixed, regular, and adequate night-time residence" (*azdes.gov*, 2012).

Induction

A mode of inquiry in which reasoning moves from the specific to the general, from a set of "specific observations to the discovery of a pattern that represents some degree of order among all the given events" (Babbie, 2013, p. 24).

Interview Protocol

Lindlof and Taylor (2011) defined protocol as the "specific, concrete ways in which your research strategy will be implemented" (p. 130).

Interview Schedule

An interview schedule provides a "pattern of interaction where the roles of interviewer and respondent can become highly specialized. The features vary, depending on the purpose and character of the interviews involved" (Bannon, 2004. p. 29). The interview schedule establishes rapport between the interviewer and the alliance participants, defines the interview process and roles for each subject, gathers background information, and directs the conversation (Kennedy, 2006).

Intra-coder Reliability

A process of testing the reliability, or confidence that the "same data would have been collected each in repeated observations of the same phenomenon" (Babbie, 2013, p. 152).

Leadership

Leadership is typically described through qualities, behaviors and traits of a leader (Horner, 1997). Northouse (2007) defined leadership as a "process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 3) Gardner (1990) saw leadership as "the accomplishment of a group purpose, which is furthered not only by effective leaders but also by innovators, entrepreneurs, and thinkers" (p. 38).

Leadership Role

Leadership roles include "achieving the tasks, building and maintaining the group, and developing the individuals" (Favre, 2010, p. 577).

Leadership Style

Leadership style is the "underlying need-structure of the individual that motivates his behavior in certain leadership situations" (Graen, Alvares & Orris, 1970, p. 286).

Mass Media

Mass media are "any form of communication that simultaneously reaches a large number of people, including but not limited to radio, TV, newspapers, magazines, billboards, films, recordings, books, and the Internet" (Wimmer & Dominick, 2011, p. 5).

Mission

"The corporate vision or mission — the company's reason for being" (Webster, 1990, p. 18). Includes broad statements about a company's purpose, philosophy and goals (Pearce & Robinson, 1982).

Objective

Objectives are specific end states to be achieved (Grunig, 2013). Within public relations planning, an objective must specify (a) target public to be affected, (b) the nature of the intended change, (c) the specific knowledge, attitude or behavior to be achieved, (d) the amount of change desired, and (e) a target date for achieving the objective (Broom & Dozier, 1990, p. 44).

Public Engagement

Community (or public) engagement is the concept of joint problem solving, engaged dialogue and collaboration among government authorities, citizens and local community and business leaders around a significant public issue (Schoch-Spana, 2007). This extends to public interaction, or strategic outreach to a "sphere of cross-influence," encompassing communication and collaboration (Edelman, 2009).

Public Relations

Public relations is the "management of communication between an organization and its publics" (Grunig, 2013, p. 4). This process includes "overall planning, execution and evaluation of an organization's communication with both external and internal publics — groups that affect the ability of an organization to meet its goals" (p. 4). Johansson (2007) shared this relational aspect, defining public relations as "the process of establishing and maintaining mutually beneficial relationships between an organization and publics on whom it depends" (p. 276). To Cutlip, Center and Broom (1994), public relations was "the management function that establishes and maintains mutually beneficial relationships between an organization and the publics on whom its success or failure depends" (p. 1).

Reflexivity

The researcher's background and its potential to affect the investigation, the findings, and the framing of the conclusions (Malterud, 2001).

Reliability

Reliability is the confidence that the "same data would have been collected each in repeated observations of the same phenomenon" (Babbie, 2013, p. 152) Intra-coder reliability means testing the stability of the coding by the same coder, in contrast to inter-coder reliability, where stability of the coding is tested by other coders (Babbie, 2013).

Role

Biddle (1979) interpreted roles as "behaviors characteristic of one or more persons in a context" (p. 5). Jacobson, Charters and Lieberman (1951) defined role as "a set of expectations which others share of the behavior an individual will exhibit as an occupant of a position, or status category" (p. 19).

Servant Leadership

A style wherein leaders see themselves first as servants, aspiring to achieve major visionary goals, usually with a benefit to the community (Greenleaf, 2002).

Social Exchange

Social exchange is “one of the oldest theories of social behavior” (Homans, 1958, p. 597), with the basic tenet that social exchange involves interactions that generate obligations (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Stakeholder

A stakeholder is “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the firm’s objectives” (Freeman, 1984, p. 25). These may include employees, donors, government officials, community representatives and myriad others, depending on the organization or initiative at stake (Freeman, 1984).

Strategic Alliance

A strategic alliance is “an agreement between firms to do business together in ways that go beyond normal company-to-company dealings, but fall short of a merger or full partnership” (Wheelen & Hunger, 2000, p. 125) and a “long-term relationship where participants cooperate and willingly modify their business practices to improve joint performance” (Whipple & Frankel, 2000, p. 22).

Subjects

The individuals to be interviewed (Dexter, 1970) also referred to as respondents (Rubin & Rubin, 2006). “The respondent is a partner in developing the research information” (Weiss, 1995, p. 134)

SWOT

SWOT is an acronym for strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (Carlsen & Andersson, 2011). Strengths and weaknesses are internal attributes, while threats and opportunities are external influences (Walsh, 1991). Listing favorable and unfavorable internal and external issues in four quadrants of a SWOT analysis grid helps planners better understand how strengths can be leveraged and weaknesses can pose challenges (Helms & Nixon, 2010).

Transactional Leadership

Burns (1978) defined transactional leadership as the ability required to manage operational, daily transactions of daily life, such as overseeing budgets, providing project status updates, and completing performance assessments of subordinates. Transactional leadership is based on a cost-benefit exchange between leaders and employees, focusing on extrinsic motivation to increase productivity (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is a style of interaction between leader and follower marked by inspiration and aspiration, raising both to higher levels of motivation and morality. Transformational leaders motivate others to reach beyond their potential, set challenging expectations and typically achieve high performance (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Validity

Validity occurs when "the empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration" (Babbie, 2013, p. 154).

Word-of-Mouth

Goyette's (2010) interpretation of multiple definitions of word-of-mouth describes the term as "an exchange, or flow of information, communication, or conversation between two individuals…informal and noncommercial conversation" (p. 5).

Operational Definitions

Operational definitions describe the procedures used to observe or measure the topics for the research questions and other key elements of the study (Rubin, Rubin, Haridakis & Piele, 2010). The following operational definitions apply to this study:

Case Study

The study of the strategic alliance between the Valley of the Sun United Way and designated leaders to end chronic homelessness among veterans in Maricopa County, Arizona from 2007 to 2014.

Collaboration

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 3) When did you become involved with this homeless alliance? How would you characterize your role in the alliance? Has your participation changed over time? Is this role similar to your role with the organization you lead full-time?

Collaborative Leadership

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 2) How would you describe your leadership style? What principles guide you as a leader?

Community Engagement

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 10) As you understand it, who are the stakeholders for the alliance (such as clients/customers, board members, media, and so forth)? How do you, as an alliance leader, communicate with your stakeholders about the alliance? What media do you use most frequently with each audience (for example, face-to-face, email, social media)?

Complexity Leadership

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 2) How would you describe your leadership style? What principles guide you as a leader?

Elite Interviews

Interviews conducted with 10 leaders from the homeless alliance, as identified on Appendix B, Homeless Alliance Leaders and Interview Subjects.

Grounded Theory

A grounded theory method is used in this dissertation to compile the data and organize the responses into meaningful insights (Glaser & Strauss, 2012), including the five attributes specified by Babbie (2013): "1) think comparatively; 2) obtain multiple viewpoints; 3) step back periodically to check data against evolving interpretations; 4) maintain sense of skepticism; 5) follow procedures, especially systematic coding of responses" (pp. 324-5).

Homeless Alliance

The term for the strategic alliance between the VSUW and nine designated leaders to end chronic homelessness among veterans in Maricopa County, Arizona, from 2007 to 2011. See Appendix B for the list of Homeless Alliance Leaders and Interview Subjects.

Induction

The research protocol for this dissertation using the *induction* mode of inquiry, wherein the reasoning moves from the specific to the general, from a set of "specific observations to the discovery of a pattern that represents some degree of order among all the given events" (Babbie, 2013, p. 24).

Intra-coder Reliability

Two of the 10 transcripts were recoded by the researcher, applying the “nth unit” sampling approach that selects every nth unit to reflect the variation in responses and maintain a representative sample (Azar, White, et al., 2013). For the recoding, two sets of interview responses were coded using the same procedure as the remaining interview responses then set aside for three weeks. The responses were coded again after this three-week hold.

Interview Schedule

The list of questions used in the elite interviews in response to the research questions in the study (see Appendix C).

Leadership

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 2) How would you describe your leadership style? What principles guide you as a leader?

Leadership Role

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 3) When did you become involved with this homeless alliance? How would you characterize your role in the alliance? Has your participation changed over time? Is this role similar to your role with the organization you lead full-time?

Leadership Style

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 2) How would you describe your leadership style? What principles guide you as a leader?

Leaders of the Homeless Alliance

The interview respondents/subjects, detailed in Appendix B.

Mass Media

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 10) As you understand it, who are the stakeholders for the alliance (such as clients/customers, board members, media, and so forth)? How do you, as an alliance leader, communicate with your stakeholders about the alliance? What media do you use most frequently with each audience (for example, face-to-face, email, social media)?

Mission

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 5) As you understand it, what is the mission of the alliance? Is your organization's mission in alignment, or related to the mission of the alliance? and Question 8) What is your organization's mission?

Objective

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 6) What are the objectives of the organization you lead? and Question 7) What are the objectives of the alliance, as you understand them? Are your organization's objectives in alignment, or related to the objectives of the alliance?

Public Engagement

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 10) As you understand it, who are the stakeholders for the alliance (such as clients/customers, board members, media, and so forth)? How do you, as an alliance leader, communicate with your stakeholders about the alliance? What media do you use most frequently with each audience (for example, face-to-face, email, social media)?

Public Relations

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 10) As you understand it, who are the stakeholders for the alliance (such as clients/customers, board members, media, and so forth)? How do you, as an alliance leader, communicate with your stakeholders about the alliance? What media do you use most frequently with each audience (for example, face-to-face, email, social media)?

Reliability

The process of testing the reliability, or confidence that the "same data would have been collected each in repeated observations of the same phenomenon" (Babbie, 2013, p. 152). The researcher used the same process and the same main categories to analyze each of the 10 interview transcripts. Also, the researcher checked and rechecked all transcripts to improve the likelihood that the same data is gathered through repeated observations (Olson & Given, 2003).

Role

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 3) When did you become involved with this homeless alliance? How would you characterize your role in the alliance? Has your participation changed over time? Is this role similar to your role with the organization you lead full-time?

Reflexivity

The researcher in the homeless alliance study has 15-plus years' experience in strategic alliances stakeholder communications, and public relations, in leadership roles for nonprofit, for-profit and government organizations and supporting agencies. She also taught public relations and community courses at the university level and led strategic planning and research for a wide variety of stakeholders, facilitating and interpreting SWOT analyses in a number of industries. Finally, she has contributed to several community initiatives, including serving as Treasurer and Board Member for a statewide arts advocacy organization and as Director of Marketing Communications for a nonprofit theatre company.

Servant Leadership

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 2) How would you describe your leadership style? What principles guide you as a leader?

Stakeholder

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 10) As you understand it, who are the stakeholders for the alliance (such as clients/customers, board members, media, and so forth)? How do you, as an alliance leader, communicate with your stakeholders about the alliance? What media do you use most frequently with each audience (for example, face-to-face, email, social media)?

Strategic Alliance

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 10) As you understand it, who are the stakeholders for the alliance (such as clients/customers, board members, media, and so forth)? How do you, as an alliance leader, communicate with your stakeholders about the alliance? What media do you use most frequently with each audience (for example, face-to-face, email, social media)?

Subjects

The interview respondents/subjects, detailed in Appendix B.

Success

The homeless alliance has achieved its short-term objectives and has progressed toward its long-term goals to "reduce homelessness in Maricopa County by 75 percent by 2020" (*vsuw.org*). The alliance also contributed to a lower rate of homelessness since the program began in 2010. As of February 2014, all chronically homeless veterans were provided permanent housing with a few veterans in bridge or temporary housing (How Phoenix ended chronic homelessness among our veterans, 2014).

SWOT

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 11) From your perspective, what are the strengths of this homeless alliance? Advantages? Competitive advantage?; Question 12) From your perspective, what are the weaknesses of the alliance? Obstacles? Stumbling blocks? Criticisms?; Question 13) What would seem to be opportunities related to the alliance from your perspective? Are there opportunities to reach new audience segments/market segments, such as changes in funding, shifts in job market, etc.)? Which external factors could have a positive influence?; Question 14) Which external factors could have a negative influence on the alliance? What could derail or threaten the alliance?

Transformational Leadership

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 2) How would you describe your leadership style? What principles guide you as a leader?

Validity

The validity of the dissertation is operationalized through the Research Process and Protocol detailed in Chapter 3 of this dissertation, pages 13 and 14.

Word-of-Mouth

Measured through responses to Interview Schedule Question 10) As you understand it, who are the stakeholders for the alliance (such as clients/customers, board members, media, and so forth)? How do you, as an alliance leader, communicate with your stakeholders about the alliance? What media do you use most frequently with each audience (for example, face-to-face, email, social media)?

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

No one entity can do everything to end and prevent homelessness.

— A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014

Background

The purpose of this dissertation was to understand how leaders in a public-private strategic alliance collaboratively address complex community problems. A qualitative case study was conducted through in-depth interviews with leaders from ten local nonprofit and for-profit organizations who were identified by the Valley of the Sun United Way (VSUW) as members of a strategic alliance to end chronically homelessness among veterans in Maricopa County, Arizona (also called the homeless alliance). This chapter provides a summary of the case analysis including the results of the homeless alliance's performance measures and an overview of the alliance leaders' responses to the queries outlined in the interview schedule (see Appendix C) along with other insights that emerged from the interviews. The findings were used to respond to the research question and sub-questions and provide new knowledge in scholarly research regarding leadership, strategic alliances, stakeholder communications, and SWOT analyses. These insights coalesce around four key attributes: Communication, Alliance, Leadership and Leverage, to form a C.A.L.L. to Action model of community engagement (see Figure 2 below).

Figure 2: Call to Action Model of Community Engagement

CALL

to Action

Model of Community

Engagement

The research question and sub-questions are outlined below.

Research Questions

How do leaders in a public-private strategic alliance collaboratively address complex community problems?

The following sub-questions helped focus the study:

1. How are the elements of role, mission, and objective involved in the homeless alliance?
2. What leadership styles are reported within the alliance?
3. How do the leaders in the alliance communicate with stakeholders?
4. What are the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats of the homeless alliance?

Alliance Results: The End of Chronically Veteran Homelessness in Maricopa County, Arizona

Chronic veteran homelessness has been eradicated in Maricopa County, Arizona, as of October 2014, according to a state coalition assembled to address the critical social issue. This means housing has been provided for all 222 homeless veterans identified in 2011 as living in Phoenix and meeting the definition of chronically homelessness as defined by United States Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD): “an unaccompanied homeless individual with a disabling condition who has either been continuously homeless for a year or more, or has had at least four episodes of homelessness in the past three years" (Questions and answers about the “chronically homeless initiative," n.d). "Phoenix can take its place as role model city for gratitude and care towards veterans," said Phoenix Mayor Greg Stanton. This success was supported by a broader national campaign with President Obama pushing to end chronic homelessness among veterans by 2015, a goal that Federal officials say they are on their way to accomplishing. Since 2010, veteran homelessness has declined by 24 percent nationally (U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs, n.d.). The primary objective of the homeless alliance set in 2009 was to provide 1,000 units of permanent supportive housing for the chronically homeless by 2015. Five years later, 790 units are online or in development; 25 percent dedicated to veterans (Countdown to zero, 2014).

The individuals who have contributed to these impressive results include an array of citizens, officials, business representatives and others who are committed to solving the problem of chronically veteran homelessness in Maricopa County, Arizona (Countdown to zero, 2014). Within this broad group are the leaders identified by The VSUW as members of the homeless alliance.

Homeless Alliance Leaders

The leaders who participated in the interviews for this dissertation include:

- David Bridge — Managing Director, Human Services Campus
- Dede Yazzie Devine —C EO, Native American Connections
- Charlene Flaherty — Associate Director, Corporation for Supportive Housing
- Theresa James — Homeless Coordinator, City of Tempe Housing Department
- Tom Manos — Maricopa County Manager
- Mike McQuaid — Director, Human Services Campus

- Sean Price — Homeless Veterans Services Coordinator, Arizona Department of Veteran Services
- Tom Simplot — Phoenix City Councilman and President/CEO of the Arizona Multihousing Association
- Amy Schwabenlender — Vice President, Community Impact, Valley of the Sun United Way
- Michael Trailor — Director, Arizona Department of Housing

Elite, or in-depth, interviews (Dexter, 1970) were conducted with these homeless alliance leaders in Spring 2014 for the purpose of understanding how leaders in a public-private strategic alliance collaboratively address complex community problems. Their comments are summarized below as responses to the research question and sub-questions.

Sub-question 1:
How are the elements of role, mission and objective
involved in the homeless alliance?

Role

Role has been defined as a "set of expectations which others share of the behavior an individual will exhibit as an occupant of a position, or status category" (Jacobson, Charters and Lieberman, 1951, p. 19), also referred to as a function or responsibility (Webster, 1992). As the initiator of the homeless alliance, Amy Schwabenlender and the VSUW have specific responsibilities along with roles shared with the homeless alliance leaders.

Role of the VSUW

The VSUW has invested in emergency shelters and other programs serving the homeless for 80+ years and has served on several community boards. In 2007, Amy Schwabenlender, Vice President, Community Impact for the VSUW, attended the national United Way conference that touted a successful initiative to end chronic veteran homelessness in Denver; she thought Maricopa County should have a similar goal (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). Around this time, the U.S. Interagency Council on Homelessness (USICH) launched *Opening Doors*, a nationwide comprehensive strategy to prevent and end homelessness (Opening Doors, 2010).

As a regional entity, VSUW brought together various cities to address homelessness collaboratively, as the problem is not constrained by city limits. In 2009, the homeless alliance launched a pilot supportive housing project in Tempe, Arizona; this city had previously developed a quarterly outreach program called Project Homeless Connect that "brings together diverse community resources and services for one day, under one roof to provide immediate services to homeless individuals and families" (Project connect, 2014). VSUW has since expanded the Project Connect program to additional communities, with more than 17,000 individuals served in six years (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). A series of these "one-stop" events has been hosted specifically for homeless veterans throughout the state, called Arizona StandDown; the largest served around 1,500 veterans (Arizona StandDown, 2014).

Schwabenlender also supported the chronically homeless through her professional responsibilities with the homeless alliance and VSUW and her personal commitment to understanding the plight of the homeless, including volunteering at many Project Connect events and even living on the streets for a few days to get a glimpse into what homeless individuals face. “That experience really propelled her to take on a greater role” (T. James, personal conversation, March 11, 2014).

Funding responsibility. The VSUW developed a council called the Ending Homelessness Advisory Committee with a multi-disciplinary team of community leaders co-chaired by City Councilman Tom Simplot. “This group is handpicked by the United Way to be able to move the agenda forward” (C. Flaherty, personal conversation, March 20, 2014). The VSUW is also long-standing member of a national funding consortium of United Ways, government funding sources, foundations, etc. called Funders Together to End Homelessness (Our Members, n.d.). Additional roles of the VSUW included setting a vision for funders in the community, gaining commitment to work together to achieve that vision and educating elected officials and public funders. “That was a transformative moment I think in showing the providers we could convene them, we could get them collaborating, we could get them to share resources” (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014).

Facilitation. “There is a need to be a strong facilitator and listen carefully to all sides of the issue. It is also important to delegate and know when to bring in outside experts” (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). The VSUW also helped build capacity for providers who served the homeless directly and indirectly. Schwabenlender noted the important role of United Way affiliates throughout the United

States: “A United Way can get people to come together. There is tremendous power in that” (Countdown to zero, 2014).

The VSUW’s Role from the Alliance Leaders’ Perspective

The alliance leaders provided their perceptions of the integral role of the VSUW in the homeless alliance. Councilman Simplot compared the VSUW of the last few years to the VSUW 20 years ago:

> Everybody would go through the United Way campaign and say, “I’ll give a little money.” “Where does that money go to?” “Oh, they give money out to organizations all over the state.” “Okay, all right; well can we do that any other way?” “Why is that the best way?” And this United Way realized that they could be much more impactful by actually doing this sort of activity than simply passing through dollars. And that’s why it is the new United Way.
> —T. Simplot, personal conversation, March 4, 2014.

“They [the VSUW] provide technical expertise, serve as facilitator and establish common performance measures” (T. Manos, personal conversation, February 25, 2014). The VSUW also sponsored research, including surveys canvassing local neighborhoods to identify the number of homeless individuals in different areas. This helped engender neighborhood representatives’ support of the homeless alliance (T. Simplot, personal conversation, March 4, 2014).

The VSUW looked at the issue from a macro level and acted as “an honest broker between these various partners” (D. Bridge, personal conversation, March 12, 2014). “Getting that public support as well as private support from the downtown business community was huge. The United Way helped a lot in that because of their ties to the business community” (M. McQuaid, personal conversation, March 4, 2014). Finally, it was the VSUW that “chartered a plane and took 50 people to Salt Lake City, Utah to learn about their Housing First initiative. The presidents of two neighborhood organizations participated and converted from opponents to advocates of the permanent supportive housing plan once they saw the results" (T. Simplot, personal conversation, March 4, 2014).

Roles of the Homeless Alliance Leaders.

The alliance leaders were selected by the VSUW not only for their formal roles as leaders of the organizations they represent, but also for their personal commitment to ending chronically homelessness among veterans and innovative ideas for reaching this ambitious goal. For example, Schwabenlender noted that Charlene Shanahan was brought in as technical expert on permanent supportive housing and suggested the use of peer visits to learn about best practices in other regions. This resulted in the VSUW inviting a number of alliance leaders to visit a successful program in Salt Lake City. Also, Trailor served on the Ending Homelessness Coalition and co-chaired the Arizona Commission on Homelessness and Housing with the director of the Arizona Department of Economic Security (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 10, 2014).

Native Connections. A primary role for Native American Connections has been to provide housing for the homeless for 30 years (D. Devine, personal conversation, March 13, 2014). "In fact, Native Connections serves as liaison among the Veterans Administration healthcare system, the Federal government and community partners, seeking state funding to reduce homeless" (T. Price, personal conversation, March 13, 2014).

Veterans Services. In 2009, the director of the Arizona Department of Veterans Services created a homeless division and the position of homeless coordinator, now occupied by Sean Price. Price contributed to writing the department's plan to end veteran homelessness in Arizona, including two major summits of community partners from across the state, not just veteran partners (S. Price, personal conversation, March 13, 2014).

Data management. Another role is gathering and sharing information. Bridge discussed how reports are standardized at the Human Services Campus to give helpful information to the providers of homeless services that are part of the campus, so he offered to collect and report for the homeless alliance (D. Bridge, personal conversation, March 12, 2014). Bridge also cited a pilot program led by the Human Services Campus with the VSUW called Heart, or housing eligibility assessment and referral tool (D. Bridge, personal conversation, March 12, 2014). Training within the alliance was also a key role to help the leaders use the tracking tools effectively (D. Bridge, personal conversation, March 12, 2014. Most of the homeless alliance leaders noted that role tends to fluctuate with the needs of the alliance: "You assume different roles depending on what your goals are" (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 10, 2014).

Expanding the alliance. The homeless alliance participants broadened the impact of the initiative by bringing in other partners. For example, Native Connections brought in BMO Harris Bank and Target Corporation, which provided furniture, coffee pots, mops, linens and the like—as well as volunteers to set up each unit and meet some of the new residents. "The homeless persons moved into a home, not an empty apartment. One woman asked how long she would be allowed to stay. She was told ‘forever’ and she started to cry” (D. Devine, personal conversation, March 13, 2014).

The alliance leaders also served as a bridge between traditional and progressive mindsets. One example is David Bridge helping several providers of services for the homeless support the alliance. “David has helped the providers shift their paradigm . . . helping them see themselves as part of the solution. He is a great voice for that because he worked with that provider perspective for so long that gave him credibility” (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014).

Nonprofit and for-profit roles. Roles overlapped as many of the homeless alliance leaders served as volunteers at Project Connect community events in addition to their formal professional roles on the alliance. For example, McQuaid helped secure housing for the homeless as a real estate developer and led the Andre House of Hospitality nonprofit organization that ministers to the homeless and poor (Andre House mission statement, n.d.). “Mike walks in nonprofit and for-profit worlds” (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). Native American Connections also served a dual role as owner and developer of property and as beneficiary of tax credits that support its wide array of programming for Native Americans (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). A major community initiative that was a precursor to the permanent supportive housing program was the creation of a centralized resource of housing and services for the homeless, called the Human Services Campus (Human Services Campus, n.d).

Human Services Campus

Several of the homeless alliance leaders, including Tom Simplot, Michael Trailor, David Bridge, and Sean Price were involved in the creation of a human services campus in downtown Phoenix, Arizona that opened in 2005 and now offers more than 60 social services agencies for the homeless and other support, workshops and resources. Every day, this "one-stop gateway to self-sufficiency" helps more than 1,100 individuals find refuge, meeting basic needs and seeking to end homelessness. (Human Services Campus, n.d.). McQuaid related the challenges of communicating as a campus, rather than each individual service agency promoting itself. "I just pounded on, trust me, if we do it together, the whole pie will get bigger…We had our first really combined fund raising breakfast in December…We more than doubled our attendance and we more than doubled our proceeds so that helps" (M. McQuaid, personal conversation, March 4, 2014).

The campus is managed by Bridge, with leadership from Manos, who noted how his experience in county and state government leadership gave him the contacts and relationships to be successful at the Human Services Campus. Demonstrating how his professional and volunteer roles converged, Manos said: "The Human Services Campus kind of mirrors what I'm trying to accomplish here [as County Manager]. Good business decisions that serve the community well" (T. Manos, personal conversation, February 25, 2014). McQuaid saw the Campus as the impetus for the homeless alliance: "Once the Campus got built and people started to recognize this is a better way to do it, I think the United Way and other recognized what else we can do to take the downtown Human Services Campus to more of a regional and countrywide effort" (M. McQuaid, personal conversation, March 4, 2014). Along with role, the mission or purpose (Pearce & Robinson, 1982) of the homeless alliance was explored.

Mission

The mission —o r broad statements about a company's purpose, philosophy and goals (Pearce & Robinson, 1982) — is to end homelessness. This is articulated for the VSUW through community objectives: "Together with our donors, volunteers and partners, we are building a caring community where each person has the opportunity to achieve the aspirations we all share: a good education for our kids, a roof over our heads, food on the table and the security that comes with financial stability" (Community objectives, n.d.). To County Manager Manos, public service blended with community service in serving the mission of the homeless alliance: "This is honored work that we do in the public sector" (T. Manos, personal conversation, February 25, 2014). Bridge echoed this sentiment: "We all have an interest in a cleaner community" (D. Bridge, personal conversation, March 12, 2014).

Director Trailor commented on how the mission is shared by all housing departments in Arizona. The mission of the Human Services Campus echoes the mission of the homeless alliance: "Using the power of collaboration to create solutions to end homelessness" (Welcome to the Human Services Campus, n.d.). Theresa James, homeless coordinator for the City of Tempe Housing Department defined the mission of the homeless alliance as "getting people off the street who should never have to live on the street in the first place." She shared the mission through the eyes of a beneficiary: "Chris never wanted any help…. After he was discovered sleeping at the library, we found housing for him. He now volunteers. He's reconnected with his family…If I didn't accomplish anything else in my career, the day I retire I'm going to remember that we helped Chris change his life." (T. James, personal conversation, March 11, 2014). After the roles were defined and the mission articulated, the goals or desired outcomes (Ogden, 2008) and specific, measurable objectives (Grunig, 2013) were investigated.

Goals

The goal, or desired outcome (Ogden, 2008), for the homeless alliance was to end homelessness, starting with the most vulnerable population (the chronically homeless) to make the greatest impact, and giving specific focus to chronically homeless veterans. "We are committed to ending — not just managing — chronic homelessness" (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). Articulating clear, shared goals and objectives is critical to the alliance's success as it evolves, according to Trailor. "Sometimes as the people leave and it does evolve and it will change, but the things that would remain constant are the objectives and the goals. So as long as we can fill those positions with people that support the objectives and the goals, they should continue. That momentum should continue" (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014).

After surveying providers of care for the homeless and reviewing benchmarks from other efforts, the homeless alliance leaders decided to focus on housing first. "Let's move people into housing regardless of their personal situation and offer them supportive services to stabilize them and give them what they need to deal with other issues like mental illness or substance abuse" (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014). Bridge highlighted how focusing on housing first helps the chronically homeless resolve other related issues: "The goal now with this housing first model is rather than trying to use services to get you ready for housing, we're going to assign you housing right away; then once you're in the housing, we'll start working on behavior modification, change, sobriety, income, etc" (D. Bridge, personal conversation, March 12, 2014).

So, the VSUW partnered with Charlene Flaherty, associate director for the Corporation for Supportive Housing for their expertise in housing (ASC) and started forming the homeless alliance with the organizations identified for this dissertation. "Our goal, at CSH, is to work with local communities to use housing as a platform for services to address very specific needs of high cost, very vulnerable populations" (C. Flaherty, personal conversation, March 20, 2014). This is in line with the Federal 10-year plan that calls for the end of chronically homelessness and veteran homeless by 2015, family and youth homeless by 2020 (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014).

Objectives

The primary objective, or specific end point (Grunig, 2013), for the homeless alliance was developing 1,000 units of permanent supportive housing for the chronically homeless by 2015 with 25 percent of those units reserved for veterans. Corresponding to this was an objective to ensure the units were maintained, addressing any problems or repairs (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). A related objective was to reduce homelessness in Maricopa County by 75 percent by 2020. The objective of the homeless alliance's pilot program in Tempe was to "create 35 units of permanent supportive housing…and "to get some people off the street who should never have to live on the street in the first place" (T. James, personal conversation, March 11, 2014). Once the foundation of the homeless alliance was established through defining role, mission, goals, and objectives, the leadership style, that is the “underlying need-structure of the individual that motivates his behavior in certain leadership situations” (Graen, Alvares & Orris, 1970, p. 286), of the participants was discussed.

Sub-question 2

What leadership styles are reported within the alliance?

Leadership Style

The leaders in the homeless alliance shared their philosophy about leadership and its connection to their personal values. To Schwabenlender, leadership style “…comes from the environment. You have to seek first to understand.” She described frustration at first that gave way to figuring out how to align the goals of all the partners no matter how each individual leader approached it (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). To Trailor, “Leaders find ways to take away people's fear, to help them understand how to achieve the goal in a way that it won't affect them negatively… The other piece of the leadership thing is documenting those facts so that you can prove your case. Leadership is understanding what are the obstacles, how do we overcome those obstacles and then ending homelessness. It’s getting people to understand” (M. Trailor, March 7, 2014). James highlighted the importance of relationships and learning from those who have opposing viewpoints. “Find whatever shred of commonality you can and work off of that…It’s about building consensus, listening to everyone, and being honest” (T. James, personal conversation, March 11, 2014).

Manos commented on how the alliance leaders assess situations from a broad perspective. “The leadership in this team, we’re system-level thinkers. You think as a big picture, as a whole, you think when you implement something how it affects the whole.” Flaherty cautioned about making sure leaders don’t get so far ahead of the group in his or her personal commitment to the mission. “I think part of a leadership role is being able to set that vision, and see the bigger picture, and figure out where we can go with all of this. So, another challenge of a leader, by the way, is to turn around and make sure there are people still behind you and you haven’t lost them…. Because a leader can be so far out in front that they’re no longer leading” (C. Flaherty, personal conversation, March 20, 2014). The homeless alliance participants mentioned two particular styles of leadership: transformative or inspirational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006) and servant leadership with focus on leading social good (Greenleaf, 2002).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is a style of interaction between leader and follower marked by inspiration and aspiration, raising both to higher levels of motivation and morality. Transformational leaders motivate others to reach beyond their potential, set challenging expectations and typically achieve high performance (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Trailor commented on the inspirational aspect of leadership: “Whether you're running a company or trying to end homelessness, hopefully you do it in a way that inspires people to do their best. You provide an opportunity for them to achieve their goal while achieving the overall goal of the company or the mission or the organization” (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014). “Leadership is about bringing together the best and brightest, bringing together people who are proactive about bringing others to the table. It is about empowering individuals to share their ideas and their visions about how we can improve what we have to work with" (T. Simplot, personal conversation, March 4, 2014). "When you think about leadership, you think about how do we develop leaders for the future. I missed the name of, but it's the American Jewish and Israeli Organization in Washington, 14,000 strong and a large amount of young people and I was so impressed with that. Because what they're doing is they're teaching their younger people how to have a voice and how to use that voice to help affect change at that level" (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014).

Servant Leadership

Servant leadership is a style wherein leaders see themselves first as servants, aspiring to achieve major visionary goals, usually with a benefit to the community (Greenleaf, 2002). Manos emphasized "integrity and honesty and never forgetting that this is all about community service and doing the public's work (T. Manos, personal conversation, February 25, 2014). "It's about service, so servant leadership is an easy thing to overlay on this" (D. Devine, personal conversation, March 14, 2014). Flaherty reinforced this perspective. "It's kind of a servant-leadership kind of model and really trying to recognize who best plays what role, and that changes sometimes" (C. Flaherty, March 20, 2014). Along with leadership style, the alliance leaders' communication style was also examined in relation to a variety of audiences or stakeholders (Freeman, 1984).

Sub-question 3

How do the leaders in the alliance communicate with stakeholders?

Alliance Stakeholders

There are a number of stakeholders that collaborated with the organizations represented in the homeless alliance, such as government officials, other funders, service providers, and others (Freeman, 1984). These included: Arizona Coalition to End Homelessness, Funders Together to End Homelessness, Maricopa Association of Governments (MAG) Continuum of Care Regional Committee on Homelessness and the U.S. Interagency Council on Homelessness. “It does need to start with bringing everybody to the table, and maybe in the chronically homeless situation maybe that is an ongoing process to ensure that we do have everybody at the table” (T. Simplot, personal conversation, March 4, 2014). “There's a lot of intentionality in who do we invite to what” (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014).

In addition to the organizations represented by the homeless alliance leaders. Trailor noted the alliance’s strategy to focus on aspects of the problem of chronically homelessness that were receiving Federal attention and funding: “We have synched our community and state plan with the Federal plan to end homelessness and that has helped us to bring together all those resources” (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014). McQuaid described the multiple organizations collaborating to build the human services campus, including business, government and community representatives. “We kind of fought and fought and fought and finally we convinced them. Getting those political leaders to come around was huge (M. McQuaid, personal conversation, March 4, 2014).

Manos discussed the challenges of communication with members of the Arizona legislature, who were not aware of key milestones like the completion of the Human Services Campus (T. Manos, personal conversation, February 25, 2014). To Price this responsibility to educate the legislators rests with multiple entities in the alliance. “It’s also the role of our community partners and our veteran service organizations in making sure the message is getting to the legislature or Congress that we need to continue to develop programs and funding sources and things for our veterans.” Price commented that this challenge extended to the community overall. “We have a real difficult time I think in the community as whole in the homeless world is conveying our message, putting a message out to the standard public and trying to get them to understand what’s going on and where we’re at and what we’ve done” (S. Price, personal conversation, March 13, 2014).

Manos also noted the conflicts that arose with neighborhoods that resisted offering homeless housing in their areas. “The one thing I've learned in my career is it doesn't do you any good to postpone the difficult meeting.” Manos suggested that “exposure” or simple awareness of the issue makes stakeholders want more involvement or connection with the community (T. Manos, personal conversation, February 25, 2014).

Strategic Communication

The homeless alliance leaders developed thoughtful, strategic communication with the people impacted by the initiative. A stakeholder is “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the firm’s objectives” (Freeman, 1984, p. 25). These may include employees, donors, government officials, community representatives and myriad others, depending on the organization or initiative at stake (Freeman, 1984). Part of the success of the homeless alliance has been attributed to the leaders' commitment to eliminating homelessness. "When we started to talk about *ending* [emphasis James'] as opposed to addressing homelessness —t hat was a big shift" (T. James, personal conversation, March 11, 2014). The homeless alliance also used a strategic communication approach customized for the primary audiences the leaders were trying to reach: the homeless individuals, other constituents, and the alliance participants themselves.

Communicating with the Homeless

Reaching homeless individuals requires a variety of approaches. "You'll find something very interesting in the homeless community that word of mouth is unbelievable and some people think well you're homeless how do you call somebody or how do you email them?" (S. Price, personal conversation, March 13, 2014). Price also described connecting with the homeless through public agencies, such as "the police, the fire, the transit, the parks, the jail systems, your attorneys — anything and everybody that touches somebody that's homeless or even a nonprofit community provider or a business owner" (S. Price, personal conversation, March 13, 2014). That's where we're working right now to get our message out is we have one phone number, you call that phone number and we'll send an outreach team. Furthermore, service providers offer a valuable channel for reaching homeless individuals who may be elusive. "Most homeless people come in to contact with the shelter services, the food services and that's probably the best way to communicate is through the places that they frequent the most" (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014).

One example of crafting messages carefully for the primary audience of homeless individuals was the homeless alliance's decision to rename Project Homeless Connect simply Project Connect because 1) people don't always identify themselves as homeless; 2) the alliance didn't want to exclude organizations who didn't consider their primary focus to be the homeless, even though their services affected this population; 3) most important, the alliance hoped to reach and help people before they became homeless (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). This careful consideration of the audience's response to the alliance communication extended to the group's communication with key participants.

Communicating with Constituents

The homeless alliance leaders carefully developed the strategies for communicating effectively about the initiative with groups and individuals involved in the program, including crafting messaging that was clear, honest, and conveyed through appropriate channels (Danahar & Rossiter, 2011). This also helped the alliance participants battle an attitude of skepticism or doubt (Ditlevsen, 2010) that was encountered by several of the leaders. Fostering and nurturing relationships with the constituents was also critical (Cutlip, Center & Broome, 1994; Grunig, 2013).

Relationship-building. James emphasized the importance of forging and nurturing connections. "That's part of why I'm out and involved in as many things as I am because I want to be at that table. I want to be able to build those relationships and those partnerships" (T. James, personal conversation, March 11, 2014). Flaherty emphasized meeting with and getting to know the constituents as well as the value of staying abreast of industry trends and news. "It's being able to communicate, and relate, and get folks excited, and see how they fit into the picture…It's tailoring your message to the need of the person, and then using language that connects to what their understanding is" (C. Flaherty, personal conversation, March 20, 2014). James also noted the importance of gaining local support and heading off opposition. "There's a lot of naysayers everywhere, 'Not in my backyard' kind of people, so we quieted them down right away, We met with the landlords, and from the get go if there were problems with the people that we housed, they could call me and we addressed it right away" (T. James, personal conversation, March 11, 2014). James described a combination of communication strategies that were connected to the mission of the alliance. "Be honest. Talk through the possible challenges. Take responsibility for what you say you're going to do. Do it. A lot of communication. A lot of checking in with each other. Having a written memorandum of understanding really helps" (T. James, personal conversation, March 11, 2014).

Transparency. Bridge emphasized the need for honest, clear communication with all audiences. "We try to share, we try to bring the providers into these processes as best we can" (D. Bridge, personal conversation, March 12, 2014). Bridge also emphasized the value of finding common ground and striving toward a shared goal. Schwabenlender noted the value Bridge brings to the alliance with the credibility he offers as an experienced service provider. "David Bridge has helped some of the providers see we're not just here on the campus to be an emergency response, we are here to help people get placed into housing. It doesn't mean totally going out of business, it means shifting your paradigm to be part of the solution. He is a great voice for that because he worked so long with that provider perspective" (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). Schwabenlender also pointed out the effectiveness of consistent messages. "We spent a lot of time on messaging so that internally with our advisory council and stakeholders they were hearing the same thing over and over and over again so knowing your numbers, knowing your goals and just being able to share it over and over again and now other people say it" (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). The alliance further demonstrates this commitment to honest communication in measuring results and sharing the outcomes of what the program is achieving: "We better start telling our donors what we are actually doing, what is actually changing" (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014).

James discussed the delicate communication between the alliance and a stakeholder who may not be truthful or may shift their allegiance during the initiative. "You may think that someone who agrees with you or is on your side, you find out through the process they're not. How do you deal with that?…You just have to be honest and say, 'This is what I'm perceiving. Tell me,' and you have to learn to agree to disagree on some things" (T. James, personal conversation, March 11, 2014). This inconsistency of position also was revealed as several alliance leaders faced skepticism from stakeholders.

Skepticism. "When consumers think that the company acts out of self-interest, and not for the good of society, skepticism will be the result" (Elving, 2010). Several homeless alliance leaders noted that their communications strategies included allaying skepticism and fear among stakeholders. James noted for the Tempe pilot "there was a lot of skepticism. There was a lot of pushback" (T. James, personal conversation, March 11, 2014). James said they responded to this skepticism by holding open meetings and anticipating pushback (T. James, personal conversation, March 11, 2014). Another tool for overcoming skepticism is demonstrating success "Overcoming skepticism, it helps when people see the success…Optimism, new approaches to collaborate and co-locate services helps you actually find new money and reprioritize existing money" (D. Bridge, personal conversation, March 12, 2014). Another way to alleviate skepticism is through trust and credibility. "You have to build trust and relationship…We've opened up a lot of doors" (D. Bridge, personal conversation, March 12, 2014). "I think to be a leader in this field, people have to believe you. You have to be credible. For me…it's been years of doing this. I've done homeless and government work for 20 years" (C. Flaherty, personal conversation, March 20, 2014).

> Tom [Simplot] had the foresight to invite the presidents of the two homeowners associations to come on the trip [to Salt Lake City]. That was leadership. I talked to both of them when we were Sky Harbor Airport and they were pretty skeptical. "I'm not sure really why I'm doing this, but what the hell."…By the time we were downloading that night…both of the presidents from the homeowners associations were suggesting locations for this project in their neighborhoods. That's how impactful seeing it was and how that took away the fear" (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014).

Simplot commented that Trailor had been uncertain about the permanent supportive housing program. "Mike Trailor, director of Department Housing, also went on this tour. He started the tour skeptical. He came back a true believer" (T. Simplot, personal conversation, March 4, 2014).

Focus. Choosing the focal point of the communication was also critical. Simplicity is key for educating various constituents about the homeless population. "You really have to put it in layman's terms and make it very easy to understand" (D. Bridge, personal conversation, March 12, 2014). Devine pointed out the use of a “different way of approaching different audiences…how the strategy fits into their lives and their thought…If you're talking with maybe more conservative, physically conservative legislature, you're going to approach them from the financial cost to the community and the savings” (D. Devine, personal conversation, March 13, 2014).

Focusing on a shared solution is another tool for overcoming objections. “You can spend a lot of time trying to change someone’s mindset about why they think people are homeless or you can spend your time talking about the solution and getting them to work on the solution with you” (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). Flaherty described a phenomenon that can be a barrier to effective communication called homeless fatigue “for folks who are not educated in sort of all of this. I know the best practices. You might not. I think that’s really true on the funders’ side is needing to educate the funders as to what works, and how we know it works, and to touch it and feel it and see it” (C. Flaherty, personal conversation, March 20, 2014).

Communication Among Alliance Leaders.

Simplot emphasized the value of seeing communication as peer-to-peer, not top-down or directive (T. Simplot, personal conversation, March 4, 2014). The regular meetings of the diverse alliance leaders helped build trust among the participants and foster a sense of creativity. “When you have representatives from all those agency staffing and they met every two weeks. . . . You started getting people being much more creative. You’ve got people being much more offering of their services“ (D. Bridge, personal conversation, March 12, 2014). Flaherty discussed the close bonds that formed as the alliance came together and the shifts in communication style throughout the alliance. “We got to know each other. We met. We brainstormed. You name it, we did it together. It’s interesting, over time, we’ve become more independent…How do we maintain that level of communication when we’re still all managing to the goal, but doing it a little bit more independently” (C. Flaherty, March 20, 2014).

Schwabenlender described a process of in-depth preparation and one-to-one sessions with the alliance leaders and other key decision makers before and after meetings. She also noted an informal tone that appears to be effective in her communication with the alliance leaders: “I do use humor and try to be easy going, so it doesn’t feel like overbearing formality.” Schwabenlender also said that strategic repetition is key, “It’s a lot of reminding” (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). Schwabenlender commented on the value of a charter document to provide history and background information to new participants. “When they come to the meeting, they feel prepared and ready to engage” (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). Simplot referred to himself as a stakeholder in the alliance, “I discovered once this process began was *I’m simply a stakeholder in this* [emphasis Simplot’s]. I don’t have to be or should be the sole answer to this issue; no person can be. It was a collective impact that made the difference” (T. Simplot, personal conversation, March 4, 2014).

Communication Channels

The homeless alliance leaders determined “who says what in which channel…” (Lasswell, 1948, p. 216) to find the most effective medium for each audience and message (Danahar & Rossiter, 2011). For example the homeless alliance leaders met quarterly, encouraging face-to-face communication among the group. The alliance sought opportunities to communicate with other community leaders by inviting them to participate in the Project Connect community events. “Director Trailor has been really good about helping to get elected officials or business leaders to these events” (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014).

Other communication channels included email and “…conference calls when appropriate around a specific thing that we're brainstorming, problem solving not with the whole council but again with specific people as it makes sense” (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). Mass media, or communication to large audiences (Wimmer & Dominick, 2011), included information on websites (for example Usmayors,org, va.gov, and VSUW.org) and news sites, such as azcentral.org, myglendale11, and cityofphoenixaz. Direct communication was very effective, especially when interacting with the homeless veterans — “going in, sitting on their beds, and talking with them” (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014).

Finally, it’s important to consider how to communicate bad news or any crises faced by the alliance. James emphasized the need for “communicating with the other partners right away” (T. James, personal conversation, March 11, 2014). James also mentioned the influence of the media’s coverage of any bad news associated with the alliance, such as if the people that have been housed are disruptive. “I’m always concerned about what if this story ends up on the front page of the newspaper” (T. James, personal conversation, March 11, 2014). The responses from the interview subjects to the research question and sub-questions have been summarized in a SWOT analysis to help identify the potential strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the alliance (Carlsen & Andersson, 2011).

Sub-question 4:
What are the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the homeless alliance?

A SWOT analysis was constructed as a framework for evaluating the homeless alliance (Carlsen & Andersson, 2011). SWOT is an acronym for strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (Carlsen & Andersson, 2011). Strengths and weaknesses are internal attributes, while threats and opportunities are external influences (Walsh, 1991). Listing favorable and unfavorable internal and external issues in four quadrants of a SWOT analysis grid helps planners better understand how strengths can be leveraged and weaknesses can pose challenges (Helms & Nixon, 2010). This SWOT analysis also formed the foundation of the C.A.L.L. to Action Model of Community Engagement that was developed in this dissertation, as the elements of communication, alliance, leadership and leverage were noted by the alliance leaders among the strengths of the homeless alliance.

Figure 3: SWOT ANALYSIS: HOMELESS ALLIANCE

STRENGTHS

- Shared dedication to ending homelessness, not just addressing it.
- Shared vision/common purpose.
- Similar goals—objectives may vary.
- Best practices—evidence-based examples.
- Housing First—proven model in other communities.
- Collaboration within the alliance and attraction of other partners.
- Leveraged people and resources.
- Accountability/measured results.
- Diverse viewpoints (private/public, for-profit/nonprofit).
- Leaders who walk the walk, no egos.
- Innovative approach.
- Overcame skepticism.
- Economic impact—housing saves on public services, frees resources.
- Aligned resources—local, state, federal.
- Support of constituents and opponents (neighborhood associations).
- Practical business practices.
- Worked through the bugs together.
- Ongoing, open communication.

WEAKNESSES

- Providers can lose sight of shared purpose and focus only on their own sub-population.
- Meeting HUD federal definition of chronic homelessness is difficult.
- Challenging to get an accurate count of the homeless/those at risk of homelessness.
- Unclear roles for alliance participants.
- Confirming rental assistance from HUD is a complex process.
- The complexity of each project means every step takes longer than anticipated.
- A collaborative project requires long-range planning and resources.
- Neighborhood opposition.
- Challenging to get funding support for single issue with several providers.
- Struggle with bringing things to scale.
- Sometimes issues get watered down because of a fear of being offensive.

OPPORTUNITIES

- Eliminating chronic homelessness frees resources to help other homeless individuals (e.g., first-time homeless, homeless families).
- Increase housing in Phoenix and Tempe. Expand homeless alliance to nearby cities (Glendale, Mesa, Goodyear, Avondale).
- Use new data for development of local case study. Evaluation of Tempe pilot program and Frequent Users of Systems Engagement (FUSE).
- Expand focus from chronic homeless to homeless families and homeless youth discharged from the foster care system.
- VSUW received grant from national organization called The Siemer Institute for Family Stability—using funding to start a pilot in Avondale for 50 families who are at risk for homelessness.
- Strengthen funders collaborative. Include more participants.
- After showing that the permanent supportive housing model is effective, apply it to different issues, e.g., solving hunger in Maricopa County.
- Another goal with the chronically homeless population is prevention.
- Leverage policy maker interest in healthcare reform.

THREATS

- Complacency. Need to keep pushing for new goals.
- Cuts in funding—new guidelines for HUD and other funders can have major impact.
- Changes in participants in the alliance—bring opportunities but can disrupt progress.
- Flat structure of the alliance makes planning succession difficult.
- New Governor or other govt. officials may have different priorities.
- Concern about securing additional housing beyond the initial goal of 1,000 units.
- Concern about paying for permanent supportive housing if federal and state funds are no longer available.
- Shift in focus—public attention may move to a new cause.

The responses from the interview subjects for the research question and sub-questions in addition to insights drawn from other interview comments were analyzed. The investigation applied the grounded theory method whereby new avenues of exploration may emerge during the interview process (Glaser & Strauss, 2012). One element that appeared in the interview comments of several of the alliance leaders was financing.

Leverage (Economic Implications)

"Getting homes for chronically homeless people saves money and improves neighborhoods" (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). Economic support was a critical component of the homeless alliance, according to many of the alliance leaders, as they discussed the economic impact of homelessness, the financial benefits of providing housing for the chronically homeless and the ability to attract resources to support the permanent supportive housing initiative.

The impact of funding also raises issues of power, defined by Mintzberg (1983) as the ability to impact outcomes or decisions, and by Cutlip, Center and Broom (2006) as "to cause something to be accomplished" (p. 227). Pfeffer (1981) analyzed how power is used in an environment with scarce resources. Mintzberg (1983) argued that economic power was becoming highly concentrated, with enormous influence in the hands of a small number of corporations. This led to a public expectation that businesses must be socially responsible. The implications of leverage or power were not included in the interview schedule or research questions of this dissertation, but the effect of financial considerations emerged from the grounded theory method used (Glaser & Strauss, 2012) as “the relationship between data and their coding categories may lead to emergent data…Data alters the scope and terms of the analytic framework” (Lindlof & Taylor, 2011, p. 250).

The Price of Homelessness

“The other thing that we worked long and hard on is just understanding the different costs… When you start accurately documenting hospital costs, jail costs and all of the costs that are racked up by a homeless person especially a chronically homeless person. We've documented what we call the frequent fliers to the emergency room and we have documented people that have cost the hospitals as much as $350,000 in a year” (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014). “One of those guys was worth $400,000 in medical bills…He’d been admitted in the emergency room 280 times in a two-year period” (D. Bridge, personal conversation, March 12, 2014). According to Schwabenlender, “in our community, on average the cost for one homeless individual to access public services, such as shelter, case management, public safety, and hospital emergency rooms is around $40,000, compared to approximately $20,000 for permanent supportive housing… The chronically homeless represent less than 20 percent of the homeless population, yet use 50percent of the resources” (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014).

The efficiency of permanent supportive housing is supported by a report from the ASU Morrison Institute called “Richard’s Reality,” that looked at the cost of systems used by the homeless versus the cost of housing. The report stated: “A resident who is chronically homeless in metro Phoenix could easily reach the $40,500 annual per person cost that Dennis Culhane recorded in his landmark study of New York City's chronically homeless population. Considering the number of "Richards" in metro Phoenix, the costs for these extreme cases could range from approximately $48 million to far more than that amount" (Artibise, Hart, Welch & Whitsett, 2008).

Successful outcomes. "By helping the chronically homeless, we free resources to help other homeless individuals" (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). It's been a huge success and I think my peers in the business community have really started to recognize how that's a much better way to go about treating the homeless than just providing the shelters and keeping people warehoused. It's a much less costly way" (M. McQuaid, personal conversation, March 4, 2014). "There's very abundant resources in the community for this issue and so before we start asking for more money, shouldn't we be using every single dollar that we have as effectively and efficiently as possible with the maximum intake?" (D. Bridge, personal conversation, March 12, 2014). "Basically 85 to 90 percent of the people go to the current supportive housing nationally never go back to the street. They permanently end their homelessness, even for the most chronic of individuals. If you're truly using the Housing First model, they've all been demonstrated to have that 85 to 90 percent success rates across the country" (D.Bridge, personal conversation, March 12, 2014). "There are multiple benefits. It not only will cost less for the community to provide housing for that individual, but we think probably two-thirds of those folks will eventually recover to the point to go and they will be reengaged to the work force and become productive members of the community" (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014).

Attracting Resources

"So much of it comes down to funding. Every nonprofit always has got that as kind of a core challenge is how do I pay for all the good works I want to do?" (M. McQuaid, personal conversation, March 4, 2014). Aligning the plans of the homeless alliance with the Federal plan to end homelessness has helped add resources to the alliance's mission. The Department of Housing and Urban Development and the Veterans Administration (VA) have awarded millions of dollars in grants to local groups involved with the cause through the Federal Housing and Urban Development-Veterans Affairs Supportive Housing (HUD-VASH) program; Phoenix was awarded $6.5 million in Federal grants to fight homelessness in 2013 along with $1.8 million in funding from the Phoenix City Council (O'Haver, 2013). As director of the Arizona Housing Department, Trailor allocated a special set-aside for permanent supportive housing, creating attractive tax credits for its developers (Azhousing.gov).

As part of the Federal initiative to end chronic homelessness by 2015, the city of Tempe received an allocation of stimulus money called Homeless Prevention and Rapid Re-housing Money in 2009. Part of this money was used to develop a pilot program for permanent supportive housing in Tempe that has shown dramatic results and cost efficiencies. Of the 35 individuals enrolled, 89 percent remained successfully in the program; 31 percent completely eliminated costly visits to hospital emergency rooms (ER) while others reduced ER usage by 68 percent; "the average cost of emergency and outpatient services were reduced by nearly 80 percent" (A path to end homelessness, n.d.).

The focus has shifted. Price discussed how another social issue, domestic violence, received national attention and funding support in the 1990s.

> The domestic violence partners did a very good job of capturing those funds, developing the programs and putting everything in place so they run on top of that wave and once that wave crashed and the next hot topic came on board and they were forgotten about in a sense they had built the infrastructure needed to sustain their programs and to move forward… That's the same thing that we're working on within the veterans' world, is this is our time… We continue to be effective, we continue to educate ourselves, we continue, we don't get complacent. – S. Price, personal conversation, March 14, 2014.

Funders' Perspective

The alliance leaders discussed the power of several funders in the permanent supportive housing initiative, their expectations for results from their investments and the innovative approach of combining resources toward one objective. "…The funders notice these best practice models out there, they want to see data and outcomes… They pull all the funding in and then reallocate it based on who is going to commit to these outcomes" (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014).

An example of this shift in funder expectations is HUD, which provides the biggest block of money for housing and services in our community (C. Flaherty, personal conversation, March 20, 2014).

> HUD has restated its goals, and we're all managing to those. 'Here are the three outcomes we're looking for. You have to reduce homelessness. You have to move people through shelter in 30 days, and you have to reduce recidivism. We don't care how you get there'…We could lose our money if other communities are meeting these goals and we're not. This is real. — C. Flaherty, personal conversation, March 20, 2014.

Funders collaborate. Funders Together to End Homelessness is a national network of funders for addressing homelessness with advice for local communities to build funders networks "bringing together grantmakers within a community and forging commitments to a systems approach — that is, aligning resources and strategies in a way that can improve the lives of those you are trying to serve" (funderstogether.org). "One of the things that we're working on is what we call a funders collaborative. That's a very different way for government and philanthropic organizations to work together to solve community problems" (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014). Trailor noted that "you have to leave your ego at the door" with this approach because there is not as much individual recognition when pooling resources, but "it gives me a lot more tools in my tool belt to attack these issues" (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014). "But, getting the funders really to see that if they acted collectively, the power that they have as a collective is huge" (C. Flaherty, personal conversation, March 20, 2014).

The leaders from the homeless alliance shared their insights on a number of factors that led to the success of the team to eradicate chronic homelessness among veterans in Maricopa County, Arizona. Their responses were analyzed toward answering the research question, "How do leaders in a public-private strategic alliance collaboratively address complex community problems?" along with sub-questions relating to role, mission, goals, objectives, leadership style, communication with stakeholders, and the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats faced by the alliance. These responses informed a set of four attributes that appear to be integral to the success of the alliance: Communication, Alliance, Leadership and Leverage — as the leaders illustrated strategic communication skills, experience building meaningful alliances, effective leadership style and economic savvy as they answered the *C.A.L.L.* of profound community service.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION/CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this dissertation was to understand how leaders in a public-private strategic alliance collaboratively address complex community problems. The study responded to the gap in research of leadership and public relations in alliances to solve complex social issues, as well as the scant scholarly attention to alliance leaders' communications with stakeholders. It added new understanding to the widely researched area of SWOT analyses (Helms & Nixon, 2010; Ip & Koo, 2004) and their use in public relations studies (Kim, 2008). It also established the foundation of the C.A.L.L. to Action model of community engagement, which demonstrates the confluence of factors that were integral to the alliance's success in eliminating chronic homelessness among veterans in Maricopa County, Arizona — Communication, Alliance, Leadership and Leverage.

Previous models of engagement. Other models of community action have been developed and researched. Yet, the researcher did not find models that addressed public-private collaborations. Arnstein (2011) described a "Ladder of Citizen Participation" in the context of health issues. This "ladder" detailed gradations of citizens' participation in issues that affected them, evolving from nonparticipation through informing to partnership in a setting that fosters a "redistribution of power from haves to have-nots by empowering the poor and powerless" (p. 238). In a university learning environment, Brown and Isaacs (1994) outlined "Six C's of community engagement, encompassing: capability, commitment, contribution, conscience, collaboration and continuity" (p. 509). Ball's (2005) model related community engagement to politics in a "community-based research model… designed to ’communitize’ [sic] political behavior” (p. 290). Quinn (2008) studied models of engagement within crisis communication, focusing on the actions of minority communities in a health crisis.

Previous investigation of model elements. While the combined attributes of communication, alliance, leadership and leverage have not been researched extensively in a public-private setting, other scholarly studies have stressed the importance of the components discretely and have found links between them. Torres (2001) evaluated networks among craftspeople and noted that “for networks to be considered a form of strategic alliance, not only must there be cooperation between two or more companies to share some resources, so as to increase organizational competences, the network must also serve a clear strategic purpose” (p. 231).

Torres (2001) identified drawbacks to alliances that included: 1) the need to focus on ‘management of group dynamics [alliance]; 2) the propensity to drift from the network’s main focus [communication]; 3) unrealistic expectations of what it costs to run a concentrated advertising and public relations campaign [leverage]” (p. 234-5). Torres (2001) also noted that the extent of resources available affects the priorities of the alliance. “The limitation of resources means that the [alliance] typically prioritises initiatives that facilitate substantial groupings of craftspeople” (p. 234). Koza and Lewin (2000) considered the root case of alliance failure to be “inadequate articulation of strategic intent of an alliance, lack of recognition of an alliance’s role in organisational strategy, and/or insufficient attention given to the evolving nature of alliances” (p. 233).

After defining the purpose and value of the study, previous scholarly investigation was reviewed in the areas of public relations, stakeholder communication, public engagement, issues management, strategic alliances, leadership (with focus on complexity leadership, collaborative leadership, transactional leadership, and transformational leadership), economic influence on alliances and the impact of role, mission and objective. The recommended methodology of elite interviews (Dexter, 1970) was applied and the responses of the interview participants to each research question and sub-question were summarized to form a foundation for the conclusions of the dissertation and set the stage for additional inquiry. The homeless alliance leaders were welcoming and generous with their time and insights. They all expressed their commitment to the mission of the alliance and to sharing their experience.

Results of the Alliance

Eliminating homelessness is a complex social goal; social goals require extensive resources, collaborative strategies and effective leadership (Chrislip & Larson, 1994). A group of community and business leaders in Maricopa County, Arizona embraced this mission through an alliance initiated by the Valley of the Sun United Way (VSUW), with 10 leaders identified by the VSUW as key players in the success of the collaboration (referred to as the homeless alliance). A strategic alliance is "an agreement between firms to do business together in ways that go beyond normal company-to-company dealings, but fall short of a merger or full partnership" (Wheelen & Hunger, 2000, p. 125) and a "long-term relationship where participants cooperate and willingly modify their business practices to improve joint performance" (Whipple & Frankel, 2000, p. 22). Strategic alliances have demonstrated tangible success in resolving complex social issues (Chrislip, 2002; *usmayors.org*, 2008), including the alliance that is the foundation for this dissertation.

The homeless alliance harnessed the commitment and resources of public and private leaders to solve the critical social problem of homelessness: Maricopa County was recognized as the first community in the United States to end chronic homelessness among veterans and establish a strong platform to aid other homeless individuals and families (*How Phoenix ended chronic homelessness among our veterans*, Jan. 28, 2014). This achievement also reflected the commitment of the public relations industry to focus on measurable shifts in awareness and behaviors (outcomes) rather than tasks or activities (outputs) (Grupp, 2010, p. 1). These are outlined in the Barcelona Declaration of Measurement Principles, which include: 1) the importance of goal setting and measurement; 2) the need for both quantitative and qualitative measures in media; 3) moving beyond simple measurements of media space to more meaningful metrics; 4) measurement of social media; 5) preference to measure outcomes versus measuring media results; 6) goal to achieve business results wherever possible; 7) value of transparency and reliability for sound measurements" (Grupp, 2010, p. 1).

What led to this groundbreaking success? How do these effective practices relate to scholarly investigation of the areas of interest? Chapter 5 presents the conclusions of the dissertation by summarizing the results of the data analysis and limitations of the case study (Babbie, 2013) and setting a foundation for future research.

Implications and Discussion

Future of the Homeless Alliance

Now that chronic homelessness for veterans has been eliminated in Maricopa County, Arizona, what comes next? Amy Schwabenlender of the Valley of the Sun United Way has it mapped out already. “We get to zero for one subpopulation. Then we target getting to zero for all chronic homeless individuals. After that, we look at vulnerable families and youths leaving foster care” (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). This dovetails with the goal to reduce homelessness by 75 percent in Maricopa County by 2020 (A Path to End Homelessness) as well as a 10-year plan that prioritizes the end of chronic homelessness and veteran homelessness by 2015, and family and youth homeless by 2020 (U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs, n.d.). As the homeless alliance leaders look ahead to the next social problem to be conquered together or in a different configuration, the focus shifts to developing conclusions drawn from the homeless alliance case study to identify opportunities for expanded scholarly investigation. The insights drawn from the investigation revealed four key attributes that are reflected in the C.A.L.L. to Action Model of Community Engagement developed in this dissertation: Communication, Alliance, Leadership and Leverage.

Communication and Public Relations

Grunig (2013) defined public relations as “overall planning, execution and evaluation of an organization’s communication with both external and internal publics —

groups that affect the ability of an organization to meet its goals" (p. 4). Johansson (2007) emphasized a relational aspect, describing public relations as "the process of establishing and maintaining mutually beneficial relationships between an organization and publics on whom it depends" (p. 276). Several homeless alliance leaders mentioned the importance of ongoing, two-way communication with key organizations throughout the alliance. For example, homeless alliance leader Tom Manos, Maricopa County Manager, described the group's commitment to building successful relationships with the neighborhood associations who were impacted by the alliance's mission to develop permanent supportive housing for the chronically homeless veterans in several communities. Manos suggested that "exposure" or simple awareness of the issue makes stakeholders want more involvement or connection with the community (T. Manos, personal conversation, February 25, 2014). This was reinforced by another homeless alliance leader, Phoenix City Councilman Tom Simplot. "Working closely with neighborhood associations on surveys to identify the number of homeless individuals in different areas helped engender neighborhood representatives' support of the homeless alliance" (T. Simplot, personal conversation, March 4, 2014).

Representing the veteran point of view in the homeless alliance, Homeless Alliance Leader Sean Price, mentioned the challenge of clarifying the message of the alliance to multiple audiences. "It's also the role of our community partners and our veteran service organizations in making sure the message is getting to the legislature or congress that we need to continue to develop programs and funding sources and things for our veterans. "These strategies are foundational to all others, because the absence of a strong policy-legislative approach to homelessness will seriously limit and undermine efforts in other areas" (Frankish, Hwang, & Quantz, 2005, p. S27). This need for communication extends to the community overall, "We have a real difficult time I think in the community as whole in the homeless world is conveying our message, putting a message out to the standard public and trying to get them to understand what's going on and where we're at and what we've done" (S. Price, personal conversation, March 13, 2014).

Communication Channels

Freeman (1984) discussed using myriad channels to connect with stakeholders. Communication that took place during the homeless alliance ranged from emails to conferences calls among the alliance leaders to widely distributed information on websites (for example *az.gov, military.com, usmayors.org, va.gov*, and *VSUW.org*) and news sites (such as *azcentral.org, myglendale11*, *cityofphoenixaz,* and *USA Today*) for larger audiences and stakeholders through mass communication or "the organized means of communicating openly, at a distance, and to many, in a short space of time" (McQuail, 2010, p. 4). Direct communication was very effective, especially when interacting with the homeless veterans — "going in, sitting on their beds, and talking with them" (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014).

Conveying bad news. It is important to consider how to communicate bad news faced by the homeless alliance. Locker (1999) advised organizational leaders to "present the negative as positively as possible, and offer an alternative or compromise if one is available" (p. 31). In the homeless alliance, Theresa James emphasized the need for "communicating with the other partners right away" (T. James, personal conversation, March 11, 2014). James mentioned the influence of the media's coverage of any bad news associated with the alliance, such as if the people that have been housed are disruptive. "I'm always concerned about what if this story ends up on the front page of the newspaper" (T. James, personal conversation, March 11, 2014). One "way to describe the power of a communicating text" (Entman, 1993, p. 51) is the device of framing (Chong & Druckman, 2007).

Framing

A major premise of framing theory is that an issue can be viewed from a variety of perspectives and be construed as having implications for multiple values or considerations. "Framing is the process by which people develop a particular conceptualization of an issue or reorient their thinking about an issue" (Chong & Druckman, 2007, p. 104). Within this arena, a phenomenon called "framing effects" occurs when "(often small) changes in the presentation of an issue or an event produce (sometimes large) changes of opinions" (Chong & Druckman, 2007, p. 104). Entman (1993) referred to a concept of "salience" or "making a piece of information more noticeable, meaningful, or memorable to audiences" (p. 53).

Salience was demonstrated within the language chosen thoughtfully by the homeless alliance leaders. "When we started to talk about *ending* [emphasis James'] as opposed to addressing homelessness — that was a big shift" (T. James, personal conversation, March 11, 2014). Another example of crafting messages carefully was the homeless alliance's decision to rename Project Homeless Connect simply Project Connect because 1) people don't always identify themselves as homeless; 2) the alliance didn't want to exclude organizations who didn't consider their primary focus to be the homeless, even though their services affected this population; 3) most important, the alliance hoped to reach and help people before they became homeless (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014).

The focal point of the communication also illustrated principles of framing. According to the homeless alliance leaders, simplicity is key for educating various constituents about the homeless population. “You really have to put it in layman’s terms and make it very easy to understand” (D. Bridge, personal conversation, March 12, 2014). Devine pointed out the use of a “different way of approaching different audiences…how the strategy fits into their lives and their thought…If you're talking with maybe more conservative, physically conservative legislature, you're going to approach them from the financial cost to the community and the savings” (D. Devine, personal conversation, March 13, 2014).

Stakeholder Communication

Freeman’s stakeholder theory. In *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach*, Freeman’s (1984) concept of the stakeholder theory provided an argument for why organizational leaders needed to consider stakeholders, or “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the firm’s objectives” (p. 25). Revisiting his own text 20 years later, Freeman (2004) noted the reasoning behind the theory, that “if a group or individual could affect the firm (or be affected by it, and reciprocate) then managers should worry about that group in the sense that it needed an explicit strategy for dealing with the stakeholder” (p. 229). In his assessment of Freeman’s concept, Stieb (2009) argued that Freeman’s perspective “seems to appeal to self-interest, rather than altruism" and that Freeman's theory does not clearly address which group of stakeholders should have more decision-making power (p. 405). Stakeholders in the context of public relations have been studied in different settings. For example, Edelman (2009) explored the evolution of public relations to public engagement and motivating stakeholders to action. Schoch-Spana (2007) investigated community engagement and leadership during catastrophic health events, and Nelson, Raskind-Hood, Galvink, Essein and Levine's (1999) assessed public health agency readiness and public-private partnerships.

Stakeholder communication within strategic alliances. Narrowing the focus, this dissertation adds to the data for research of stakeholder communication within strategic alliances. Previous studies in this area have included Maak's (2007) network analysis of responsible leadership and stakeholder engagement in corporate crises and Dietz and Whaley's 2004 book about community collaborations in schools, as well as Crane and Livesay's 2003 review of the role of dialogue by stakeholders and stakeholder relationships characterized by ambiguous, fluid interactions. Homeless alliance leader McQuaid described the multiple organizations collaborating to build the human services campus, including business, government and community representatives. "We kind of fought and fought and fought and finally we convinced them. Getting those political leaders to come around was huge" (M. McQuaid, personal conversation, March 4, 2014).

Methods of stakeholder communication. In their review of consumer responses to corporate social initiatives, Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) noted the heterogeneity of consumer reaction to corporate social responsibility programs. "What works for one consumer segment does not work for another" (p. 2). "The key to quality communication with [these] audiences is to vary the method" (Dietz & Whaley, 2004, p. 41). This diversity of perspective is reinforced in Young's (2013) study of entrepreneurial aspects of the nonprofit sector, such as elements of risk-taking, innovation and leadership, among others (Hébert & Link, 1989, p. 41). "The more different, the more difficult the discussion, but also the greater potential to become fruitful, when each participant is forced to develop his arguments and take into account the points of views of the others" (Young, 2013, p. 2). Homeless alliance leader Price noted the challenges in reaching constituents. "We have a real difficult time I think in the community as whole in the homeless world is conveying our message, putting a message out to the standard public and trying to get them to understand what's going on and where we're at and what we've done" (S. Price, personal conversation, March 13, 2014). The homeless alliance used both direct and indirect methods to communicate with constituents and with each other.

Direct Communication. Goyette's (2010) interpretation of multiple definitions of word-of-mouth describes the term as "an exchange, or flow of information, communication, or conversation between two individuals…informal and noncommercial conversation" (p. 6). Silverman (2001) highlighted the media used for word-of-mouth interactions, including face-to-face, phone, email, mail, or other means of communication. A decade later, that list is expanded to include the Internet (Steyer, Garcia-Bardidia & Quester, 2010).

Allsop (2007) described word-of-mouth as "one of the most influential channels of communication in the marketplace" (p. 398). This was true in the homeless alliance. Homeless individuals are a vulnerable population that is challenging to reach (Little, Gorman, Dzendoletas & Moravac (2007), often requiring direct one-to-one contact.

“You’ll find something very interesting in the homeless community that word-of-mouth is unbelievable and some people think well you’re homeless how do you call somebody or how do you email them?” (S. Price, personal conversation, March 13, 2014). This was similar to the approach described by Little, Gorman, Dzendoletas and Moravac (2007) to reach pregnant homeless youth in Toronto, Canada. “To engage youth and engender trust, they often meet young women at coffee shops and provide meals for them” (p. 462).

Communication through others. Using third parties that already have a relationship with homeless individuals offers powerful access for the homeless alliance to reach this key constituency. “Agencies are trusted sources of information and know best how to communicate with the populations they serve” (Klaiman, Knorr, Fitzgerald, DeMara, Thomas, Heake & Hausman, 2010, p. 248). Cheng and Seeger (2012) also noted the value of third-party intermediaries as “strong and more credible sources of supporting information that a company [or alliance] speaking on its own behalf ”(p. 124). In the homeless alliance, Price described connecting with the homeless through public agencies, such as “the police, the fire, the transit, the parks, the jail systems, your attorneys — anything and everybody that touches somebody that’s homeless or even a nonprofit community provider or a business owner. That’s where we’re working right now to get our message out is we have one phone number, you call that phone number and we’ll send an outreach team” (S. Price, personal conversation, March 13, 2014).

Along with strategic messaging and selection of communication channels, other important considerations for the homeless alliance leaders in developing a successful collaboration included role (Jacobson, Charters & Lieberman, 1951), mission (Furlong & Burns, 1996), goals (Sidhu, 2003), and objective (Keeny, 1999) — and how these are reflected in what Gilpin and Miller (2013a) described as a *complex organizational community* — that is “a more or less formally constituted heterogeneous system of entities that may include any combination of individuals, groups, institutions, and other organizational forms, characterized by enacted communicative interdependency and shared identification” (p. 150). This perspective “explicitly incorporates the multiple roles and identities of system members” (p. 153).

Complexity. Complexity theory is the “study of the dynamic behaviors of complexly interacting, interdependent, and adaptive agents under conditions of internal and external pressure” (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2008, p. 3). This “new science” of complexity theory demonstrated a shift in worldview from a focus on physical and social causes and effects to a nonlinear perspective, characterized by unpredictability (Regine & Lewin, 2000). Within a complex organization framework, organizational identity is defined as “a dynamic, emergent, multilevel process of negotiation that encompasses reflexivity, boundary setting and relationship building” (Gilpin & Miller, 2013a, p. 148). Identification refers to the “extent to which actors perceive themselves and/or are perceived by others as belonging to the organizational community” (Gilpin & Miller, 2013a, p. 157).

Gilpin and Murphy (2010) distinguished between an organization’s (or alliance’s) attempts to “increase control and predictability in a struggle to contain the perceived complexity” — known as complexity reduction and another approach wherein organizations “embrace the nature of complexity in an attempt to adapt — through ‘complexity absorption’” (p. 337). Uhl-Bien (2001) noted that the size of the aggregate or “small groups of directly interacting actors who have a sense of common identity” (p.

400) is a factor, ensuring that this group is not so unwieldy that more time is spent on working out "conflicting constraints" within the group than on the mission or purpose of the group.

Anatomy of the Homeless Alliance: Role, Mission, and Objective in a Complex Organizational Community

Role

Jacobson, Charters and Lieberman (1951) defined role as "a set of expectations that others share of the behavior an individual will exhibit as an occupant of a position, or status category" (p. 19). Amy Schwabenlender of the VSUW noted its key role as facilitator in the homeless alliance. "A United Way can get people to come together. There is tremendous power in that" (Countdown to zero, 2014). Homeless alliance leader Tom Manos reinforced the VSUW's responsibility for facilitation. "They [the VSUW] provide technical expertise, serve as facilitator and establish common performance measures" (T. Manos, personal conversation, February 25, 2014). As "an actor who is strongly identified and interdependent with the organizational community of interest," the VSUW also served as a "gatekeeper" or "representative" (Gilpin & Miller, 2013a, p. 164). Additional roles of the VSUW included setting a vision for funders in the community, gaining commitment to work together to achieve that vision and educating elected officials and public funders. "That was a transformative moment I think in showing the providers we could convene them, we could get them collaborating, we could get them to share resources" (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February

17, 2014). Demonstrating the innovative, entrepreneurial spirit investigated by Hébert and Link (1989), the VSUW also made the bold move to charter a plane and take 50 people to Salt Lake City, Utah, to learn about their Housing First initiative. “The presidents of two neighborhood organizations participated and converted from opponents to advocates of the permanent supportive housing plan once they saw the results” (T. Simplot, personal conversation, March 4, 2014).

Another role shared by many of the homeless alliance leaders is helping constituents manage the high-impact changes resulting from the alliance, again reinforcing the fluid nature of complex organizations (Gilpin & Miller, 2013a). One example is David Bridge helping several providers of services for the homeless support the alliance. “David has helped the providers shift their paradigm . . . helping them see themselves as part of the solution. He is a great voice for that because he worked with that provider perspective for so long that gave him credibility” (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014).

An additional example of the flexible nature of the homeless alliance leaders’ responsibilities within the alliance is the combination of personal volunteerism in addition to formal professional roles. For instance, homeless alliance leader Mike McQuaid helped secure housing for the homeless as a real estate developer and led the Andre House of Hospitality nonprofit organization that ministers to the homeless and poor (Andre House mission statement, n.d.). “Mike walks in nonprofit and for-profit worlds” (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014).

Mission

Related to role is the concept of mission, or broad statement about a company's purpose, philosophy and goals (Pearce & Robinson, 1982). In the case of the homeless alliance, the mission was articulated clearly by Schwabenlender as she brought together the leaders to forge an alliance toward a single purpose: to end homelessness. The first step was to eliminate chronic homelessness among veterans in Maricopa County, Arizona. Homeless alliance leader and Arizona Department of Housing Director Trailor commented on how the mission is shared by all housing departments in Arizona. The mission of the Human Services Campus also echoes this mission: "Using the power of collaboration to create solutions to end homelessness" (Welcome to the Human Services Campus, n.d.). This shared purpose is reflected in the concept of a collaboratively produced "interactional frame" outlined by Sawyer (2005). This comprised "the socially recognized roles and practices enacted by each participant, the publicly shared and perceived motives of those individuals, the relationships among them, and the collective definition of the joint activity they are engaged in" (p. 182).

Goals and Objectives

In complex organizations, "interdependent actors develop collective plans and strategic goals." This includes "joint recognition of roles and practices, as well as collective definition of shared endeavors" (Gilpin & Miller, 2013a, p. 155). The goal, or desired outcome (Ogden, 2008), for the homeless alliance was to end homelessness, starting with the most vulnerable population (the chronically homeless) to make the greatest impact, and giving specific focus to chronically homeless veterans. "We are committed to ending — not just managing — chronic homelessness" (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). In an analysis of goals in complex organizations, Perrow (1961) noted that goals are "shaped by the particular problem or tasks an organization must emphasize, since those tasks determine the characteristics of those who will dominate the organization" (p. 854). Ehtiraj and Levinthal (2009) reviewed the pursuit and achievement of multiple performance goals in complex organizations, finding that the clear defining of goals by participating leaders helps provide some clarity and focus (p. 274).

Articulating clear, shared goals and objectives is critical to the alliance's success as it evolves, according to homeless alliance leader Trailor. "Sometimes as the people leave and it does evolve and it will change, but the things that would remain constant are the objectives and the goals. So as long as we can fill those positions with people that support the objectives and the goals, they should continue. That momentum should continue" (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014). The primary objective, or specific end point (Grunig, 2013), for the homeless alliance was developing 1,000 units of permanent supportive housing for the chronically homeless by 2015 with 25 percent of those units reserved for veterans. Corresponding to this was an objective to ensure the units were maintained, addressing any problems or repairs (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). A related objective was to reduce homelessness in Maricopa County by 75 percent by 2020. Achieving these goals and objectives and fulfilling the alliance's mission required effective leadership (Northouse, 2007).

Leadership

Northouse (2007) defined leadership as a "process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 3). To Berger and Meng (2014) leadership was "the relationship between leaders and followers, the importance of context, the use of influence, and goal achievement" (p. 5). The homeless alliance leaders were asked "How would you describe your leadership style? What principles guide you as a leader?" (Appendix C Interview Schedule, Question 2). Leadership style is the "underlying need-structure of the individual that motivates his behavior in certain leadership situations" (Graen, Alvares & Orris, 1970, p. 286).

Leadership Style

The leaders in the homeless alliance shared their philosophy about leadership and its connection to their personal principles. To Schwabenlender, leadership style "…comes from the environment. You have to seek first to understand." She described frustration at first that gave way to figuring out how to align the goals of all the partners no matter how each individual leader approached it (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). To Trailor, "leaders find ways to take away people's fear, to help them understand how to achieve the goal in a way that it won't affect them negatively… Leadership is understanding what are the obstacles, how do we overcome those obstacles and then ending homelessness. It's getting people to understand" (M. Trailor, March 7, 2014). James highlighted the importance of relationships and learning from those who have opposing viewpoints. "Find whatever shred of commonality you can and work off of that…It's about building consensus, listening to everyone and being honest" (T. James, personal conversation, March 11, 2014).

Manos commented on how the alliance leaders assess situations from a broad perspective. "The leadership in this team, we're system-level thinkers. You think as a big picture, as a whole, you think when you implement something how it affects the whole." Flaherty cautioned about making sure leaders don't get so far ahead of the group in his or her personal commitment to the mission. "I think part of a leadership role is being able to set that vision, and see the bigger picture, and figure out where we can go with all of this. So, another challenge of a leader, by the way, is to turn around and make sure there are people still behind you and you haven't lost them…. Because a leader can be so far out in front that they're no longer leading" (C. Flaherty, personal conversation, March 20, 2014). Two particular styles of leadership were mentioned by the homeless alliance participants: transformative or inspirational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006) and servant leadership with focus on leading social good (Greenleaf, 2002).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is a style of interaction between leader and follower marked by inspiration and aspiration, raising both to higher levels of motivation and morality. Transformational leaders motivate others to reach beyond their potential, set challenging expectations and typically achieve high performance (Bass & Riggio, 2006). There are four defining characteristics of transformational leadership: 1) idealized influence, which relates to the personal values and ethics of transformational leaders; 2) inspirational motivation, described as the leader's ability to inspire and rally teams; 3) intellectual stimulation, the demonstration of innovative problem solving; and, finally, 4) individualized consideration, whereby transformational leaders build strong, dynamic relationships with their followers (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 4).

Trailor commented on the inspirational aspect of leadership in the homeless alliance: “Whether you're running a company or trying to end homelessness, hopefully you do it in a way that inspires people to do their best. You provide an opportunity for them to achieve their goal while achieving the overall goal of the company or the mission or the organization” (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014). Leadership is about bringing together the best and brightest, bringing together people who are proactive about bringing others to the table. It is about empowering individuals to share their ideas and their visions about how we can improve what we have to work with” (T. Simplot, personal conversation, March 4, 2014). “When you think about leadership, you think about how do we develop leaders for the future. I missed the name of, but it's the American Jewish and Israeli Organization in Washington, 14,000 strong and a large amount of young people and I was so impressed with that. Because what they're doing is they're teaching their younger people how to have a voice and how to use that voice to help affect change at that level” (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014).

Servant Leadership

Both transformational and servant leadership emphasize the importance of valuing people, mentoring, and empowering followers (Stone, Russell & Patterson, 2004, p. 354). Servant leadership is a style wherein leaders see themselves first as servants, aspiring to achieve major visionary goals, usually with a benefit to the community (Greenleaf, 2002). Manos emphasized “integrity and honesty and never forgetting that this is all about community service and doing the public’s work” (T. Manos, personal conversation, February 25, 2014). “It's about service, so servant leadership is an easy thing to overlay on this” (D. Devine, personal conversation, March 14, 2014). Flaherty reinforced this perspective. “It’s kind of a servant-leadership kind of model and really trying to recognize who best plays what role, and that changes sometimes” (C. Flaherty, March 20, 2014).

Complexity Leadership

Leadership theories may provide an understanding of what makes leaders successful, but they are limited in that “they assume that leaders directly control and determine future events with their actions” (Uhl-Bien, 2001, p. 403). Within a complex setting, leadership styles and traits must be supported by an environment that sets the stage for success without knowing exactly what that will entail. “The success or failure of leadership actions is attributable to the capacity of the organization that supports them. Their strategies and charismatic appeals are useless if they fail to foster *conditions that enable* [sic] productive, but largely unspecified, future states” (Uhl-Bien, 2001, p. 403).

In their *Complexity Leadership* text, Uhl-Bien and Marion (2008) redefine leadership in the context of an ever-shifting environment. “We tend to assume that leadership is centered in personalities and based on authority. Complexity does not deny these realities; rather it extends them . . . Complexity provides different perceptions and tools by which to understand and evaluate organizational behaviors” (p. 2).

Leverage: Economic Considerations

> A new kind of economy is emerging—the connected economy…They [organizations] are interdependent players in a fluid and vacillating economic web, where their fate, more than ever, is affected by the behavior of other members — (Regine & Lewin, 2000, p. 1).

In their investigation of how leaders influence complex systems, Regine and Lewin (2000) reinforced the theme of complexity offering solutions beyond linear thinking and predictability (see Gilpin & Murphy, 2010; Gilpin & Miller, 2013a; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2008). "If companies are to survive in a fast-changing business environment, they need to be able to produce ongoing innovation, to be continually adapting and anticipating, and to be engaged in continual evolution" (Regine & Lewin, 2000, p. 1). Another key element in Regine and Lewin's (2001) study was the leader's ability to "forge new connections where none existed..and to identify the disconnections…that constricted the organization's ability to change and adapt, and then systematically and simultaneously to address them" (p. 1). This was evidenced in the homeless alliance leader's interactions and ability to attract funding for their shared purpose to end chronic homelessness among veterans in their community, especially in the nonprofit sector where resources are often scarce and the issues faced are complex. In his text on the relationship between entrepreneurship and nonprofits, Young (2013) noted, "An advantage of the multisector framework over narrower and more monolithic approaches to modeling of nonprofits is that it seems more capable of considering the potential effects of changes in ground rules and opportunity structures that alter the position of nonprofits in an industry relative to organizations in other sectors" (p. 3). In his discussion of the "interesting science of nonprofit entrepreneurship in Young's book, Shockley (2013) reinforces the complexity of nonprofits collaborating to address social ills. "The demands on the nonprofit sector have increased in a society that seeks to provide a larger and more complicated set of services to its citizenry" (p. ix).

Economic Factors in the Homeless Alliance

Economic support was a critical component of the homeless alliance, according to many of the alliance leaders, as they discussed the economic impact of homelessness, the financial benefits of providing housing for the chronically homeless and the ability to attract resources to support the permanent supportive housing initiative. This aspect was not included in the interview schedule or research questions of this dissertation, but the effect of financial considerations emerged from the grounded theory method used (Glaser & Strauss, 2012) as "the relationship between data and their coding categories may lead to emergent data…Data alters the scope and terms of the analytic framework" (Lindlof & Taylor, 2011, p. 250).

Resource allocation. To deal more effectively with major issues in complex environments, organizations seek additional resources and shared solutions. In the "commercial" stage, there is a two-way benefit flow that seeks mutual benefit through specific value transactions between the two alliance participants. This stage may also become a foundation for building richer collaborations with overlapping missions and compatible values (Hamel, Doz & Pralahad, p. 74). These cooperative relationships can help companies acquire new competencies, save resources, share risks, move more quickly to new markets, and create future opportunities (Hamel, Doz & Pralahad, 1989). This supports the principles outlined in the venerable social exchange theory.

Social exchange. The social exchange theory is a long-standing paradigm for understanding workplace behavior, which developed from a sociology perspective (Befu, 1977). Social exchange has been described as "one of the oldest theories of social behavior, and one that we still use every day" (Homans, 1958, p. 597). There are many interpretations of this model, with the basic tenet that social exchange involves interactions that generate obligations (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Another integral element is that relationships evolve over time with trust when the parties abide by certain "rules of exchange" (p. 875). From a public relations perspective, "relationships consist of the transactions that involve the exchange of resources between organizations…and lead to mutual benefit, as well as mutual achievement" (Broom, Casey & Ritchey, 2000, p. 91). Blau (1964) explored social exchange relationships and the degree of ambiguity and unspecified obligations.

Ekeh (1974) outlined "univocal reciprocity" or exchange among at least three individuals in indirect exchange. This means that there is no assurance of reciprocity, leading exchange theory to "such high-order conceptions as citizenship" (Ekeh, 1974, as cited in Befu, 1977, p. 264). Linking social exchange to group interaction is the concept of "group gain," whereby benefits are put into a common "pot" and individuals can take what they need from the shared pool regardless of their specific contribution (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 879). This concept was illustrated in Homeless Alliance Leader Mike McQuaid's description of the development of the Human Services Campus.

Multiple providers — multiple benefits. Several of the homeless alliance leaders, including Tom Simplot, Michael Trailor, David Bridge, and Sean Price were involved in the creation of a human services campus in downtown Phoenix, Arizona that opened in

2005 and now offers more than 60 social services agencies for the homeless and other support, workshops and resources. Every day, this “one-stop gateway to self-sufficiency” helps more than 1,100 individuals find refuge, meeting basic needs and seeking to end homelessness (Human Services Campus, n.d.). McQuaid related the challenges of communicating as a campus, rather than each individual service agency promoting itself. “I just pounded on, trust me, if we do it together, the whole pie will get bigger…We had our first really combined fund raising breakfast in December…We more than doubled our attendance and we more than doubled our proceeds so that helps” (M. McQuaid, personal conversation, March 4, 2014).

Successful outcomes. As related to the homeless alliance, Schwabenlender observed that “by helping the chronically homeless, we free resources to help other homeless individuals” (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014). “It’s been a huge success and I think my peers in the business community have really started to recognize how that’s a much better way to go about treating the homeless than just providing the shelters and keeping people warehoused. It’s a much less costly way” (M. McQuaid, personal conversation, March 4, 2014). “Basically 85 to 90 percent of the people go to the current supportive housing nationally never go back to the street. They permanently end their homelessness, even for the most chronic of individuals” (D. Bridge, personal conversation, March 12, 2014). “There are multiple benefits. It not only will cost less for the community to provide housing for that individual, but we think probably two-thirds of those folks will eventually recover to the point to go and they will be reengaged to the work force and become productive members of the community” (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014).

Attracting Resources

"So much of it comes down to funding. Every nonprofit always has got that as kind of a core challenge is how do I pay for all the good works I want to do?" (M. McQuaid, personal conversation, March 4, 2014). Aligning the plans of the homeless alliance with the Federal plan to end homelessness has helped add resources to the alliance's mission. The Department of Housing and Urban Development and the Veterans Administration (VA) have awarded millions of dollars in grants to local groups involved with the cause through the Federal Housing and Urban Development-Veterans Affairs Supportive Housing (HUD-VASH) program; Phoenix was awarded $6.5 million in Federal grants to fight homelessness in 2013 along with $1.8 million in funding from the Phoenix City Council (O'Haver, 2013).

Preparing for when the focus shifts. Homeless alliance leader Price discussed how another social issue, domestic violence, received national attention and funding support in the 1990s.

> The domestic violence partners did a very good job of capturing those funds, developing the programs and putting everything in place so they run on top of that wave and once that wave crashed and the next hot topic came on board and they were forgotten about in a sense they had built the infrastructure needed to sustain their programs and to move forward… That's the same thing that we're working on within the veterans' world, is this is our time… We continue to be effective, we continue to educate ourselves, we continue, we don't get complacent — S. Price, personal conversation, March 14, 2014.

Funders' Perspective

The alliance leaders discussed the power of several funders in the permanent supportive housing initiative, their expectations for results from their investments and the innovative approach of combining resources toward one objective. "…The funders notice these best practice models out there, they want to see data and outcomes… They pull all the funding in and then reallocate it based on who is going to commit to these outcomes" (A. Schwabenlender, personal conversation, February 17, 2014).

An example of this shift in funder expectations for the homeless alliance is HUD, which provides the biggest block of money for housing and services in our community (C. Flaherty, personal conversation, March 20, 2014). "HUD has restated its goals, and we're all managing to those. Here are the three outcomes we're looking for. You have to reduce homelessness. You have to move people through shelter in 30 days, and you have to reduce recidivism. We don't care how you get there…We could lose our money if other communities are meeting these goals and we're not. This is real" (C. Flaherty, personal conversation, March 20, 2014.)

Funders collaborate. In the homeless alliance, Funders Together to end Homelessness is a national network of funders for addressing homelessness with advice for local communities to build funders networks "bringing together grantmakers within a community and forging commitments to a systems approach — that is, aligning resources and strategies in a way that can improve the lives of those you are trying to serve" (funderstogether.org). "One of the things that we're working on is what we call a funders collaborative. That's a very different way for government and philanthropic organizations to work together to solve community problems" (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014). Trailor noted that "you have to leave your ego at the door" with this approach because there is not as much individual recognition when pooling resources, but "it gives me a lot more tools in my tool belt to attack these issues" (M. Trailor, personal conversation, March 7, 2014). In their study of leaders in complex systems, Regine and Lewin (2001) discussed this paradox that "their [the subjects'] leadership style was that they were leaders by not leading…They didn't just toss aside their command-and-control tendencies, but their power rested not so much in control but in their capacity to allow…not in asserting their autonomy, but rather in honing their ability to be attuned" (p. 1).

The leaders from the homeless alliance shared their insights on a number of factors that led to the success of the team to eradicate chronic homelessness among veterans in Maricopa County, Arizona. Using a flexible grounded theory method (Glaser & Strauss, 2012), the alliance leaders' responses from elite interviews (Dexter, 1970) were analyzed toward answering the research question, "How do leaders in a public-private strategic alliance collaboratively address complex community problems?" along with sub-questions relating to role, mission, goals, objectives, leadership style, communication with stakeholders, and the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats faced by the alliance. These responses informed a set of four attributes that appear to be integral to the success of the alliance and define the C.A.L.L. to Action Model of Community Engagement: Communication, Alliance, Leadership and Leverage. The leaders illustrated strategic communication skills, extensive experience building meaningful alliances, effective leadership styles and economic savvy as they answered the *C.A.L.L.* of profound community service, achieved their goal to eliminate chronic homelessness among veterans in Maricopa County, Arizona and laid a successful foundation to solve other social problems.

Future Research

To understand the nature of a research initiative fully, the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods, called triangulation, is often utilized (Wimmer & Dominick, 2011). To add to the knowledge base established by this case study of the homeless alliance, a quantitative approach using standardized questions (such as a survey) could be administered to the leaders who participated in the interviews, providing triangulation. This could also be the foundation of a longitudinal study with the homeless alliance leaders to see how their use of the C.A.L.L. to Action Model of Engagement evolves in different situations. Longitudinal research includes the same measures taken repeatedly over time (Dabholkar, Shepard & Thorpe, 2000). The survey results may identify additional areas to be investigated and could provide the opportunity to generalize the results to a larger population than the homeless alliance case under investigation for the dissertation (Wimmer & Dominick, 2011, p. 14).

Co-creation of social value. The C.A.L.L. to Action model could also be studied in context of a collaboration tool called value co-creation toward creating social value. Co-creation is "the act of collective creativity that is experienced jointly by two or more people…It is a special case of collaboration where the intent is to create something that is not known in advance" (Sanders & Simon, 2009). Many types of value emerge from co-creation including social value. "The social value of co-creation is fueled by aspirations for longer term, humanistic, and more sustainable ways of living…Co-creation of this type involves the integration of experts and everyday people working closely together" (Sanders & Simon, 2009, p. 1). Relating co-creation to the roles of stakeholders, Pedrosa (2009) noted that "taking into consideration and successfully managing the value contributions by all relevant stakeholders is becoming highly important" (p. 1). This reflects an opportunity to position the C.A.L.L. model within the environment of stakeholder co-creation of social value.

Value of theoretical exploration. Finally, in his argument for testing theories empirically to demonstrate if they are "falsifiable," Popper (2014) acknowledged value for all types of theoretical exploration. "If we cannot test our theories empirically, i.e., they are not falsifiable, they are not scientific. This, however, does not mean than they are meaningless or without value. They can nevertheless be inspirational" (p. 8). Thus, meaningful data could be obtained through additional qualitative case studies. For example, interviews could be conducted with leaders in a public-private strategic alliance who are collaboratively addressing complex community problems within different circumstances than the case in this dissertation, such as a homeless alliance in another community or a similar group focusing on a different social issue. Can we erase homelessness? As Albert Einstein said, "Only those who attempt the absurd will achieve the impossible" (Renesch, 2010, p.1).

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APPENDIX A

LETTER OF AGREEMENT WITH VALLEY OF THE SUN UNITED WAY

United Way
Valley of the Sun United Way

Letter of Agreement with Valley of the Sun United Way

November 8, 2013

Fran Matera, Ph.D.
Chair, Dissertation Committee for Janice Sweeter
Associate Professor
Walter Cronkite School of Journalism & Mass Communication
555 N. Central Ave., Phoenix, AZ 85004

Dear Professor Matera:

The purpose of this letter is to confirm the agreement of the Valley of the Sun United Way (VSUW) to participate in the doctoral study proposed by Janice Sweeter, Ph.D., ABD. It is our understanding that Ms. Sweeter wishes to conduct interviews with me and the group of business and community leaders working with our team in a strategic alliance to reduce homelessness in Maricopa County.

We will provide the following services to help complete the project:

1. Meet with Ms. Sweeter to provide background on the initiatives and the roles of the strategic alliance participants from the VSUW's perspective.
2. Participate as an interview subject.
3. Provide recommendations for interview subjects representing a diverse group among the alliance participants. Contact the subjects to facilitate scheduling interviews.

Please let me know if you have any questions.

Sincerely,

Amy Schwabenlender
Vice President, Community Impact
Valley of the Sun United Way

1515 E. Osborn Road | Phoenix, Arizona 85014-5386 | tel 602.631.4800 | fax 602.631.4809 | www.vsuw.org
Improving lives by mobilizing the caring power of our community

APPENDIX B

HOMELESS ALLIANCE LEADERS

HOMELESS ALLIANCE LEADERS (INTERVIEW RESPONDENTS)

Name	Title	Organization
David Bridge	Managing Director	Human Services Campus
Dede Yazzie Devine	CEO	Native American Connections
Charlene Flaherty	Associate Director	Corporation for Supportive Housing
Theresa James	Homeless Coordinator	City of Tempe Housing Department
Tom Manos	Maricopa County Manager	Maricopa County
Mike McQuaid	Director	Human Services Campus
Sean Price	Homeless Veterans Services Coordinator	Arizona Department of Veteran Services
Tom Simplot	Phoenix City Councilman	President/CEO of the Arizona Multihousing Association
Amy Schwabenlender	Vice President, Community Impact	Valley of the Sun United Way
Michael Trailor	Director	Arizona Department of Housing

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Introduction

Thank you for agreeing to meet with me today. My name is Janice Sweeter and I am a doctoral student at ASU. The purpose of my research is to understand how leaders are working together to address homelessness in Maricopa County through a public-private partnership between the Valley of the Sun United Way and select local organizations (called the homeless alliance).

- *First, I would like to ask you some background questions.*
- *Then, we will discuss your role in the alliance, the relationship between your organization's mission and that of the alliance, and your opinions regarding the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats involved in the alliance.*
- *We will end with any other opinions or insights that you'd like to share.*

Your participation is completely voluntary. You can stop at any time. I will record and transcribe our session for clarity and accuracy. The recordings will not be copied. Are you ready to begin? [Record date, location, and interview respondent name]

1. Please state your name and title.
2. How would you describe your leadership style? What principles guide you as a leader?
3. When did you become involved with this homeless alliance? How would you characterize your role in the alliance? Has your participation changed over time? Is this role similar to your role with the organization you lead full-time?
4. How would you characterize the role of the Valley of the Sun United Way in this alliance? Has UW's role changed over time?

5. As you understand it, what is the mission of the alliance? Is your organization's mission in alignment, or related to the mission of the alliance?
6. What are the objectives of the organization you lead?
7. What are the objectives of the alliance, as you understand them? Are your organization's objectives in alignment, or related to the objectives of the alliance?
8. What is your organization's mission?
9. How do you communicate with the UW and the other leaders participating in the alliance? How often do you communicate? How are decisions made? How are results shared?
10. As you understand it, who are the stakeholders for the alliance (such as clients/customers, board members, media, and so forth)? How do you, as an alliance leader, communicate with your stakeholders about the alliance? What media do you use most frequently with each audience (for example, face-to-face, email, social media)?
11. From your perspective, what are the strengths of this homeless alliance? Advantages? Competitive advantage?
12. From your perspective, what are the weaknesses of the alliance? Obstacles? Stumbling blocks? Criticisms?
13. What would seem to be opportunities related to the alliance from your perspective? Are there opportunities to reach new audience segments/market segments, such as changes in funding, shifts in job market, etc.)? Which external factors could have a positive influence?

14. Which external factors could have a negative influence on the alliance? What could derail or threaten the alliance?
15. Is there anything you would like to share that we have not covered?

Thank you for your time!