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Citizen Professionals: The Effective Practices of Experts Helping Community Organizations

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CITIZEN PROFESSIONALS: THE EFFECTIVE PRACTICES OF EXPERTS HELPING COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS

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"Rivers know this: there is no hurry. We shall get there someday" (Powers, 1995).

Abstract

Although numerous local, state, and federal laws and policies address water pollution, many problems remain. To address these problems thousands of groups of citizens, who are concerned with their water resources ─ rivers, streams, lakes, ponds, and groundwater ─ organized around the U.S. over the past several decades. To succeed, these community organizations need the resources and capacity to reach their goals. To gain capacity, some community organizations turn to people outside the organization for assistance. Citizen professionals are helpers who work jointly with an organization to help develop an organization's adaptive capacity to deal with challenges and achieve goals. Participatory action research exemplifies a process in which local stakeholders work collaboratively with a citizen professional. This study examines the role of the citizen professional as a combination of the principles of effective participatory action research and a helping relationship. The purpose of this study is to discover whether those characteristics, when utilized by someone who is helping a citizens group, such as a watershed organization, can continue or increase citizen participation and empowerment in community organizations as well as the successful pursuit of organizational goals. This study examines 14 cases of the helper's role in eight community-based watershed organizations; compares the helper's actions with the characteristics of citizen professionalism; examines the helper's actions for their impact on the success of the watershed organizations; and the continued or increased forms of participation and empowerment of the organization's citizen members. This study deals with the critical issues of watershed organizations and their role in the preservation and restoration of water quality. The significance of these issues extends to the role of citizens in policy issues; of citizen professionals in increasing the effectiveness of community organizations to participate in policy issues; and to democratic practice and civil society. The results of this

study suggest: (1) the need for a bridge of shared leadership over the chasm of leaders and followers, and (2) the possibility of an avenue to approaching adaptive work in order to meet challenges such as environmental quality. The electronic version of the dissertation is accessible at the Ohiolink ETD center, http://www.ohiolink.edu/etd/.

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Chapter I: Introduction

This chapter discusses the history of, and framework for, community-based watershed organizations. It places them in the context of citizen participation and empowerment theory. This chapter also introduces the role of the citizen professional in community organizations and the participatory action research process.

Water Quality in the U.S.

Although there are numerous local, state, and federal laws and policies that address water pollution, many problems still remain. For example, the Federal Water Pollution Control Act, commonly called the Clean Water Act, set goals for all rivers and streams to be healthy enough to support fishing and swimming by 1985. According to a recent U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) report, 35 percent of rivers and streams are still not clean enough to support these uses (Cline & Collins, 2003). Historically, pollution that affects water resources is managed by government agencies using a command and control system. A command and control regulatory approach to environmental policy sets standards for a mandated level of performance that is enforceable by law. This approach is proven effective when dealing with point source pollution problems – those problems that originate from a definable point (United States Department of Environmental Protection Agency [USEPA], 1994). The USEPA's Office of Water manages the National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (NPDES), which is a command and control-type program for controlling the direct discharge of water pollution into surface water (rivers, streams, lakes, or ponds). The NPDES system was authorized as part of the Clean Water Act in 1972. It was the first major national program to control the discharge of

effluent from industry or municipal wastewater and is credited for successfully cleaning up many rivers and streams across the United States. The NPDES program requires permits for entities that want to discharge into surface water, which limits the amount of pollutants that can be released.

A command and control approach is successful in reducing point source pollution for several reasons. The entity that discharges the pollution source can easily be identified because the pollution originates from a specific, definable point. The USEPA then creates permits that specify allowable pollutant levels, and takes enforcement action to ensure the permit requirements are met. The effectiveness of the NPDES program is evaluated by tracking the location and nature of the permit holders, the number of permit holders in compliance with their permit, the number of times they were not in compliance, and the ways in which they exceeded their permit requirements. Command and control regulations have reduced the polluting discharges from industry and public wastewater, but other environmental problems are not as "…amenable to central governmental solutions" (Koontz & Thomas, 2006, p. 111). However, this system cannot be used effectively to address all pollution sources that affect water resources (Margerum & Whitall, 2004).

Nonpoint source pollution is the result of diffuse, polluted runoff from the land. When water flows over landscapes to rivers and streams it takes with it many different pollutants. Nonpoint source pollution has diffuse points of origin, such as runoff from urban and agricultural land, and is much harder to control than pollution that originates from a single definable source. These pollutants cause water quality to degrade and can cumulatively cause large impacts. The dead zone in the Gulf of Mexico is one example of a big environmental problem that is the result

of millions of small unregulated sources. The dead zone is an area without sufficient oxygen for fish and other animals to survive. In 2008, the dead zone covered a little over 8000 square miles (National Centers for Coastal Ocean Science [NCCOS], 2009). This problem originates from several sources, including the overuse of fertilizers applied to provide nutrients to urban lawns and agricultural crops. Fertilizer that is applied to the land, but not used by plants, can flow into rivers and streams many miles upstream of the dead zone. Some of these nutrients may travel from smaller streams to larger rivers and eventually into the Gulf of Mexico. The land area that impacts the Gulf of Mexico is approximately 41% of the continental U.S. (NCCOS, 2009). These excess nutrients start a cycle in the water which results in oxygen depletion and dead fish and animals. The dead zone is also not only a problem that affects the natural environment. For instance, in 2008, the economic impact from the fishing industry in the Gulf was $2.8 billion dollars (NCCOS, 2009). As the dead zone increases, the fishing industry declines.

Many nonpoint source pollution challenges originate from landowners who are not obligated to implement water pollution prevention practices on their land, even though their activities may cause harm to the water. The application of fertilizers to urban lawns, and most farm operations, is unregulated thereby making the solution to the problem of the dead zone mainly voluntary. The largest contributing sources of water pollution in most communities are urban and agricultural runoff (Margerum & Whitall, 2004). For example, rainwater flows across urban landscapes and into storm drains that carry the water to rivers and streams. When it flows across lawns, driveways, streets, and parking lots it picks up oil, fertilizer, litter, and soil that can cause water quality to degrade. In a rural landscape where livestock are allowed to enter a stream to drink the water, the livestock contribute pollutants to the stream through their release

of manure and the action of their hooves causing soil to erode into the water. Because these are not regulated activities, landowners may not even be aware of the negative consequences of the livestock.

The Watershed Approach

Over the past several decades an increasing number of groups of citizens who are concerned with their water resources ─ rivers, streams, lakes, ponds, and groundwater ─ have organized around the U.S. to address pollution problems. During these efforts citizens frequently organize geographically ─ within the boundaries of their local watershed. A watershed is an area of land that all drains to a common body of water such as a river, stream, lake, or pond. The citizens form organizations and work to identify solutions to local pollution problems. Typically, the organizations go by names such as watershed partnership, alliance, committee, council, advisory group, and association (Leach, Pelkey, & Sabatier, 2001). This approach is commonly called community-based watershed management, but is also referred to as ecosystem management, collaborative watershed management, grassroots ecosystem management, integrated management, community-based decision making, or civic environmentalism (Conley & Moote, 2003; Fung & Wright, 2003; Margerum, 2006). In 2008 there were more than 6000 community-based watershed organizations nationwide (River Network, personal communication, August 21, 2009).

The diversity and complexity of watersheds and the intricacies of land use, economic priorities, and social history make addressing water resource pollution complicated (Scholz & Wang, 2006). Watershed management is a decentralized approach to solving environmental challenges that takes into account all the interrelated issues that affect water pollution. The

conventional approach is referred to as resource management and became characterized as "… maladaptive, bureaucratic, dysfunctional, and based principally on the economic values associated with natural resources" (Woolley & McGinnis, 1999, p. 579). A resource management approach only considers market values. For example, forests were managed for the value of the wood that each tree produced but not for the negative impact that soil runoff, which results from harvesting the trees, had on rivers and streams.

Adaptive challenges are complex, not well defined, have no easy solution, and require learning to solve them. Technical problems are well defined with a known solution. Nonpoint source pollution is an adaptive challenge because it cannot be fully addressed using technological solutions alone. Because of changing local issues and conditions, nonpoint source pollution is difficult to address using a one-size-fits-all technology-based solution (USEPA, 2005a). A watershed approach considers the many complex, interrelated issues among land use, water quality and quantity, and biological needs (Duram & Brown, 1999).

Watershed management is an adaptive approach to solving water pollution challenges. An adaptive approach involves the community members themselves in the process who help to identify the problems and create the solutions to reduce pollution and best meet the needs of the community. Defining the problem and identifying the solution requires learning new, or different, ways to address local challenges using stakeholder authority (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009).

In this way, watershed management combines both scientific issues and social concerns. Watershed management is a flexible approach so that issues such as jurisdictional boundaries, property ownership, community priorities, and economic considerations can be addressed when

solving environmental challenges (Wooley & McGinnis, 1999). Because nonpoint source pollution often comes from an unregulated activity, social change is necessary for community members to understand and embrace the change needed to implement solutions (Wooley & McGinnis, 1999). To reduce or eliminate a nonpoint source of pollution, a land user has to voluntarily accept and implement the needed changes to the activity. Sometimes, this means changing behaviors and attitudes towards land use.

The Role of Government in Watershed Issues

The protection of water resources is typically the responsibility of government. The Clean Water Act imposes policies and regulations, primarily over point sources, which are enforced by both federal and state government. The Public Trust Doctrine is a common law doctrine that dictates all waters of the state are held in trust for the benefit of the people and is upheld by state government. Local jurisdictions also pass laws, ordinances, and policies to protect water resources. Healthy water resources benefit communities by providing safe drinking water, recreation amenities, and commercial opportunities. Government agencies recognize that it would be impossible to write regulations that address nonpoint source pollution and accurately take into account all of the differences and unique characteristics at the local level.

The number of government agencies that recognize the watershed approach has been on the rise for decades. Originally, the USEPA was organized around a law enforcement strategy (Sirianni, 2006). This began to change when the 1988 amendments to the Clean Water Act set policy that emphasized the need to address nonpoint sources of pollution and began to distribute grants and loans to encourage the creation of voluntary programs. The USEPA's Office of

Water now manages decentralized-type programs such as the Watershed Approach and the National Estuary programs for addressing nonpoint source pollution (USEPA, 1999). However, a watershed approach is not just popular in relation to water resources. The U.S. Forest Service formally adopted a watershed approach in 1992 (Butler & Koontz, 2005). "In 2000, the Secretaries of the Interior and Agriculture announced a watershed-based approach for land and resource management, calling for agencies within their departments to collaborate with state and local governments, citizens, and interest groups" (Koontz & Thomas, 2006, p. 112). At least 18 federal agencies have adopted a watershed, or ecosystem-based, approach in some aspect of their policies on land management (Butler & Koontz, 2005; Koontz & Thomas, 2006; McGinnis, Woolley, & Gamman, 1999). Their commitment to the watershed approach is not just a statement of intent. Many government agencies have committed substantial financial support to this approach. In 2008, the USEPA's Region V office distributed more than $40 million in Clean Water Act funds to local watershed organizations across six states, including Ohio, to develop management plans that emphasize collaboration (USEPA, personal communication, June 25, 2009). Although government agencies and community-based organizations have been cooperating for a long time, the relationship is now evolving to more of a government reliance on the nonprofit sector for service delivery (Smith & Lipsky, 1993).

Despite government attention to watershed management, water pollution still exists and can impact a local community's quality of life. This has led private citizens concerned with their local water resources to organize and form nonprofit organizations to address shortfalls in water policies. One such example is watershed organizations that offer voluntary programs, using financial incentives to incentivize unregulated polluters to change their behavior.

Watershed Organizations

Government support of watershed organizations is substantial. Government offices and programs support organizations by providing training, scientific data, mapping services, professional expertise, and funds. These funds come in different forms including low-interest loans and grants. Since the 1960s, funding from the government to nongovernmental organizations has increased dramatically. Studies indicate that the federal government is now a primary funding source of nongovernmental activities (Cho & Gillespie, 2006). Some organizations contract with the government to provide services that were previously provided by government agencies (Smith & Lipsky, 1993). Some organizations rely on government funds for administrative and programmatic costs. The funds help organizations promote community goals, encourage voluntary action, and provide opportunity for citizen participation (Smith & Lipsky, 1993). Watershed organizations utilize government funds to hire staff, conduct outreach, develop programs, and implement their goals.

Unfortunately, not all watershed organizations reach their goals. There is a growing interest in the success of watershed organizations for several reasons. First, watershed organizations that reach their goals are potentially making a difference in their communities by protecting and restoring water resources. Watershed organizations that are successful can be used as a model for other communities with water pollution concerns. Second, organizations that receive funds from donors or private or governmental sources are accountable for how that money is spent. Because the funds that government agencies provide are public in origin, the agencies are accountable for how the funds are allocated. The agencies need reasonable

assurance that public monies are spent responsibly and the organizations are accomplishing the work the funds were meant to enable.

Watershed Organizations and Civil Society

In addition to their crucial role in addressing water quality concerns, community-based watershed organizations are an example of the uniquely American tradition of citizen participation in public issues. Watershed organizations are part of the nongovernmental sector which encompasses a broad spectrum of organizations that are referred to "…as nonprofit, voluntary, independent, charitable, people's, philanthropic, associational, or third sector" (Najam, 2000, p. 376). Watershed organizations are private organizations that represent diverse interests that are not necessarily the same as government interests (Lipsky & Smith, 1990). These organizations play an indispensable role in promoting community, advocating for citizen interests, influencing watershed policy, and improving the quality of life in a community (Cho & Gillespie, 2006).

In general, nongovernmental organizations form for three different reasons (Najam, 2000). First, an organization may work on goals delegated to them by government. For example, a watershed organization may receive funds to implement an agency's public participation goals in relation to a local pollution clean-up project. Second, an organization may work on goals identified by their members that address issues not being dealt with by government. For example, a watershed organization may form to eliminate water pollution concerns that are not addressed in a local, state, or federal law. Third, an organization may work to influence public policy such as watch dogging over laws to ensure they are enforced properly, strengthening policies, or addressing loopholes in regulations that may allow water pollution to

occur. For example, many watershed organizations try to influence the process that revises local zoning codes and building regulations so that language is incorporated to protect water resources during land development (USEPA, 2005a).

The nongovernmental sector, including watershed organizations, is commonly referred to as the organizational form of civil society (Lane & Morrison, 2006). Civil society is the "social and political power of households, civil associations, and social movements" (Friedmann, 1992, p. 30). Long ago, Alexis de Tocqueville (trans., 2000) promoted an active civil society as a way to ensure government responded to community concerns thereby preserving democracy (Lane & Morrison, 2006). Participatory democratic theory stresses that when citizens are active in community and policy issues they develop a greater sense of empowerment and of ownership and responsibility for local concerns (Sirianni & Friedland, 2001). Although for many years community organizations formed to challenge government action, more recently there is increased collaboration between government and nongovernmental entities (Najam, 2000; Salamon & Anheier, 1996; Smith & Lipsky, 1993). The nongovernmental sector is now supported by social policy that has evolved to favor decentralization through increased public responsibility in many areas including water policy (Smith & Lipsky, 1993). Watershed organizations are part of this increased private/public collaboration by which nongovernmental organizations take on roles that traditionally belonged to the government (Smith & Lipsky, 1993).

Citizen participation, through an active civil society, has long been promoted as the way to enable good, democratic government, the effectiveness of community organizations, and a high quality of life (DeFilippis, 2001; Putnam, 2000; Tocqueville, trans. 2000). Saul Alinsky,

the renowned catalyst of citizen action, said "…citizen participation is the animating spirit and force in a society predicated on voluntarism" (1971, p. xxv). Citizen participation is also defined as the "…active, voluntary involvement of individuals and groups to change problematic conditions in communities and influence the policies and programs that affect the quality of their lives and the lives of other residents" (Ohmer, 2008, p.41).

Citizen participation is a key component of successful watershed management for two reasons (Thomas & Koontz, 2008). First, watershed organizations need participants to help accomplish the organization's goals. The boards of directors provide leadership and set policy, the volunteer members help accomplish the organization's goals, and individuals and businesses pay membership dues and donate funds to help pay for the organization's activities. Second, the participation of local citizens is critical to addressing nonpoint source pollution concerns. The pollution problems that many watershed organizations focus on originate from unregulated sources. Therefore, an effective collaborative effort must involve the people that represent, and have influence over, the pollutant source. The participation of those people increases the likelihood of finding solutions that incentivize the voluntary actions that lead to the reduction of pollution. Citizens may resist efforts to increase regulation, but they are likely to support and participate in local efforts that call for voluntary change of behavior and management practices (Margerum & Whitall, 2004). However, participation alone cannot increase the ability of a community organization to accomplish its goals. The organization must also have the capacity and power to foster leadership, raise funds, and develop strategies to achieve goals. This power can come from empowerment.

Empowerment is a process that increases the power of people or organizations to reach the goals of increased individual and community control, political efficacy, improved quality of life, and social justice. Empowered organizations are able to accomplish their goals. In studies community-based organizations are shown to be both empowered and empowering (Florin & Wandersman, 1990). Empowering organizations facilitate the confidence and competencies of their individual members. Watershed organizations that have opportunities for members to participate can lead to empowerment, which can result in an increase in both the power of the individual and the organization. An empowering process is an action that moves a group or individual from a lower to higher state of empowerment. Examples of empowering processes include organizational or community involvement and shared leadership and decision making (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995). For community-based organizations, an empowering process may be an experience that teaches their volunteer board of directors to be better leaders. Alternatively, an empowering outcome is one in which a group or individual enjoys a state of empowerment (Alsop, Bertelesen, & Holland, 2006). Empowered outcomes refer to the consequences or effects of citizen attempts to gain greater control in their community. These outcomes include skills, proactive behaviors, effective resource acquisition, existence of organizational coalitions, or accessible community resources (Zimmerman, 1995). For example, the empowering process that teaches a volunteer board of directors to be better leaders has an empowering outcome of better leadership.

Community organizations are run many times primarily by volunteers, and ideally the board of directors consists of people with a diverse set of skills so they can assist the organization accomplish its goals. However, most community organizations turn to

professionals outside the organization to help increase their power. These professionals play a critical role in helping community organizations succeed. Professional help may be hired by an organization or may provide their services at no expense. Professionals can fill a variety of roles including facilitator, organizational development consultant, scientist, researcher, fiscal agent, or attorney. For example, a board of directors may need training from an organizational development consultant to be better board members. An organization may hire an environmental scientist to design and construct a wetland. A professor or student from a university may conduct research and provide the research study back to the organization for their use. Regardless of what role they play, when a helper successfully assists the organization to accomplish its goals, they have helped empower the organization. By studying their role in community-based watershed organizations we can examine a crucial aspect of American democratic theory and practice: how do professionals assist community organizations address public issues, while empowering the organizations to participate more effectively in those issue areas.

There are two ways in which helpers may provide assistance to organizations. An outside expert is a helper who identifies and solves a problem for an organization. Outside experts play the role of service provider with the goal of fixing the problems. In contrast, a helper that acts as a citizen professional works in partnership with the organization. Citizen professionals help an organization participate in the identification, design, and implementation of the solution so the members of the organization learn how to address future problems with less outside assistance.

Both of these types of helpers provide a service to an organization, however there are possible drawbacks to using an outside expert. Outside experts could gain control over an organization because the members have blind faith in their expertise (Gaventa, 1993). The outside expert may not utilize the knowledge, experience and practice of the organization and its members. An organization may become dependent on the professional's services. An organization that utilizes the help of an outside expert may only be more successful for the short time it is involved with the helper. As in the old analogy about fishing, if a helper teaches the organization how to do the work themselves, the organization could gain power that lasts a longer period of time. If the outside expert identifies the problems and solutions for the organization, with no input or feedback from the citizen participants, it is possible the participants do not accept or implement the solution.

In contrast, a citizen professional works jointly with a community organization to identify and solve problems (Boyte, 2008). The citizen professional is not solely in charge of the process but instead acts as a catalyst to both help solve problems and build ties to the community (Boyte, 2008). In this role, the helper works to understand the local situation and uses the organization and its participants' experience and knowledge to help address the issues. The citizen professional does not do all the work themselves: instead they help the organization be involved in the process from identification through implementation. In this way of helping, the organization is better prepared to handle challenges in the future. Citizen professionals help develop an organization's adaptability, or adaptive capacity, to deal with challenges and to help them achieve their goals (Heifetz, Grashow, et al., 2009).

In an effective helping relationship the organization is ready for help, there is a trusting relationship between the helper and the organization, the organization is involved in creating the solution, and the organization is able to implement the solution. One example of a professional in an effective helping relationship is the role of the researcher during participatory action research.

Participatory Action Research

Participatory action research is a process where local stakeholders work collaboratively with a citizen professional. The citizen professional is a researcher who guides the group through a cycle of steps to identify and address an issue of concern. There are many different – but similar – cycles used by researchers when working with stakeholders (Argyis, Putnam, & Smith, 1985; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988; Lewin, 1946; Park, Brydon-Miller, Hall & Jackson, 1993; Stoecker, 2005; Wadsworth, 1998). Figure one is an example which takes participants through problem identification; solution creation and implementation; reflection; and improvement of the solution if needed. This process can foster the empowerment of individual members or organizations by providing a situation where they gain confidence and competencies and possibly achieve the goals of the organization.

Not merely a research method, participatory action research is a process that can bring positive social change to communities (Park et al., 1993; Selener, 1997). After an issue of concern is identified and data is collected, the organization uses that information to create and implement a solution. Once the action is taken and the solution is implemented, the organization reflects on the process and looks for improvements and then implements them. In a traditional research process, the research project ends with data interpretation. In a participatory action

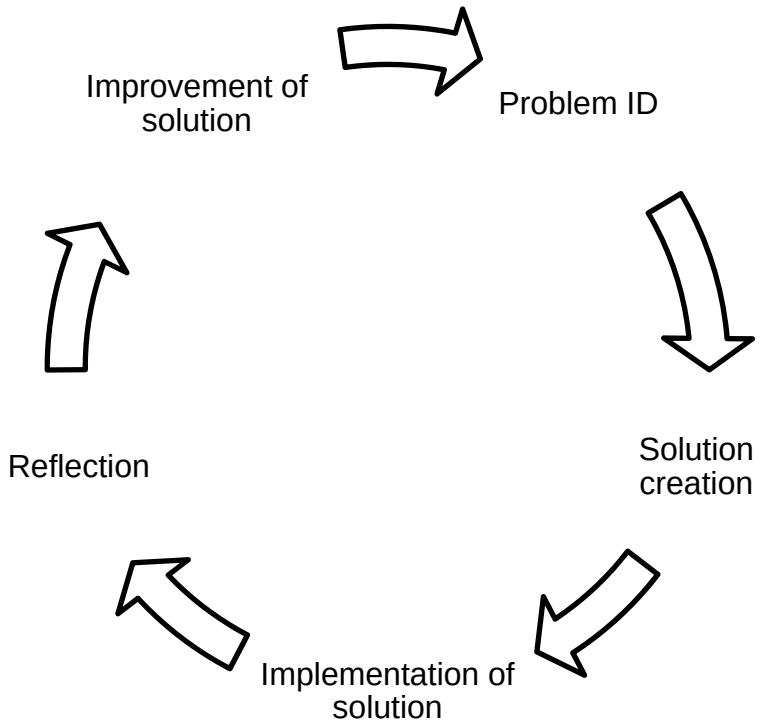

Figure 1-1. Cycle of participatory action research

research process, the participants continually revisit the plan and outcome of the action to help improve the solutions.

If a community organization can successfully use participatory action research as a process to meet goals, then this process has helped increase its power. The primary goals of empowerment and participatory action research are nearly identical. Empowerment is a process that increases the power of people or organizations to reach the goals of increased individual and community control, political efficacy, improved quality of life, and social justice. Participatory action research is a process that increases the degree of power of an organization to undertake social action.

Instead of bringing in outside experts to identify and solve community concerns, participatory action research utilizes the expert local knowledge of the community member (Freire, 1970; Herr & Anderson, 2005; Park et al., 1993). Typically, in participatory action research the role of the researcher is utilized to provide assistance to the community organization on how to most appropriately approach the issue and conduct the research. The participants provide input and feedback during all stages of the research so that the study is designed to best suit their needs. During the process, the participants learn how to identify problems, conduct research, and implement solutions themselves. This is different than traditional forms of research that treat participants as research subjects. In participatory action research, the research subjects are considered participants in the process and treated as equals to the researcher. The researcher guides the community members through a process where together they identify an issue of concern, design the research, and collect and interpret the data. In a traditional research project, the researcher is likely to do the work themselves. There are five principles of the participatory action research method (Selener, 1997). Participatory action research is:

- a collaborative inquiry process;
- an opportunity for participants to identify a local issue of concern;
- an opportunity for participants to develop skills to address future concerns;
- an opportunity to take action to address a local issue of concern;
- a process that allows for reflection how well the process worked and to make adaptations if necessary.

Purpose and Significance of the Study

This study deals with the critical issues of watershed organizations and their role in the preservation and restoration of water quality. The significance of these issues extends to the role of citizens in policy issues and the role of citizen professionals in increasing the effectiveness of community organizations to participate in policy issues. In this study, the principles of an effective helping relationship, along with the principles of participatory action research, are used to define the characteristics of a citizen professional. The purpose of this study is to discover whether the characteristics of citizen professionalism, when utilized by someone who is helping a watershed organization, can continue or increase citizen participation and empowerment in community organizations as well as the successful pursuit of organizational goals.

This study examines the helper's role in community-based watershed organizations; compares the helper's actions with the characteristics of citizen professionalism; examines the helper's actions for their impact on the success of the watershed organizations; and the helper's actions on the continued or increased forms of participation and empowerment of the organization's citizen members. This study will deepen the research on the effectiveness of watershed organizations. This new research will also fill a gap in the scholarship on the role of the citizen professional in community organizations, and on participatory action research as a process to gain genuine empowerment.

This study includes eight chapters. In addition to this introductory chapter, there are seven other chapters, including: 1) literature review; 2) methodology; 3) results; 4) additional results; 5) analysis; 6) recommendations 7) implications for leadership; and 8) conclusions. Chapter II is a summary of, and reflection on, the literature and empirical research related to

watershed organizations, including participation and representation within deliberative democratic decision-making; the citizen professional; participatory action research; and empowerment theory. Chapter II also discusses the need for this study and how it arrives at new knowledge that contributes to the literature. Chapter III summarizes the strategy of inquiry, the rationale used to select a research method, and the techniques employed to implement the research. Chapter III provides the intent, scope, and limitations of this study. Chapter III also describes the data collection procedures, interview questions, data analysis, and the ethical issues of the research. Chapter IV is a report on the research process related to the data collection of the dependent variables. Chapter V is a report on the data collection process related to the independent variables. Chapter VI focuses on the key findings and results of the analysis. In addition, Chapter VI discusses the limitations and transferability of the study. Chapter VII is a discussion of the implications of this study relevant to leadership studies and the importance of future research. Chapter VIII includes the conclusion and lessons for watershed organizations and helpers.

Chapter II: Review of the Literature

Although the protection of water resources is typically the responsibility of government – and there are numerous federal, state, and local laws that address water pollution – many problems still remain. The remaining problems frequently originate from nonpoint source pollution, which is often not covered by regulation. Nonpoint source pollution originates from many diffuse points of origin, such as runoff from urban and agricultural land, and is much harder to control than pollution that originates from a single definable source. This pollution can cause water quality to degrade and cumulatively cause large impacts such as the dead zone in the Gulf of Mexico.

To address these water quality concerns citizens form groups, called watershed organizations, and then work to create and implement voluntary solutions to the problems (USEPA, 1995a). Watershed organizations are part of the nongovernmental sector which is typified by voluntary, nonprofit, and independent organizations. They play an indispensable role in promoting community, advocating for citizen interests, influencing watershed policy, and improving the quality of life in a community (Cho & Gillespie, 2006). Because many watershed organizations rely on a volunteer board of directors and active involvement from community members in order to reach their goals, citizen participation is a key component of those watershed organizations (Duram & Brown, 1999; Koehler & Koontz, 2008). Watershed organizations that rely on volunteers and have strong citizen participation are more likely to have the power to reach their goals. This power can come from the process of empowerment.

Watershed organizations may turn to someone outside the organization to help them increase their power and accomplish their goals. This person may act as either an outside expert

who identifies the problem and prescribes the solution or as a citizen professional who works collaboratively with the organization to help them develop their adaptive capacity to address problems with less outside help. When best applied, the principles of an effective helping relationship guide the citizen professional's actions. The helper can play many roles including organizational consultant, scientific expert, or researcher in a participatory action research process. Participatory action research is a collaborative inquiry process that also promotes action on the part of an organization.

This chapter summarizes the recent empirical and theoretical scholarship on the relationship between government and watershed organizations. It also summarizes research on watershed organizations and the measurement of their success. Because citizen participation is critical to the success of watershed organizations, this chapter also provides a broad overview of participation and empowerment theory in community organizations. Lastly, this chapter reviews the literature on the role of the citizen professional on what characterizes an effective helping relationship and on the use of the participatory action research method in community organizations.

Watershed Group Type

There are three possible types of watershed organizations that can form: citizen-based, agency-based, and mixed (Moore & Koontz, 2003). Citizens that come together to form organizations that question authority and work to ensure their values and needs are recognized and protected are using what most closely resembles an authentic grassroots approach (Landre & Knuth, 1993; Wondolleck & Yaffee, 2000). This type of watershed organization is called citizen-based and is initiated and sustained by volunteers. Historically, as agencies and policies

were created to manage environmental problems, citizens became increasingly interested in government decision-making and authority. Citizen-based watershed organizations form to challenge government policies and to watchdog over program implementation such as ensuring that NPDES permits are properly written and enforced.

The second type of watershed organization is formed by the government and is referred to as an agency-based organization. Agency-based organizations are different from citizen-based organizations in several ways. This type of organization is often formed by the government to gather citizen opinion or to buy-in on a topic and may be externally imposed on the community. They are hierarchical, are primarily accountable to elected officials, and do not use a consensus-based decision making process (Thomas, 1999). Frequently, agency-based organizations form to gather citizen input, but policy level decisions are still made by the government agency. For example, the Clean Water Act's Total Maximum Daily Load (TMDL) program encourages citizen involvement in the watershed planning process (USEPA, 2007). The daily load is the amount of pollution a stream segment can handle and still not be impaired.

A third type of watershed organization that forms is referred to as a mixed watershed organization. This type of watershed organization includes citizen and agency representation in equal representation.

Government and Watershed Organizations

To increase their power and resources, watershed organizations often form relationships with government agencies to assist in their efforts. However, the relationship between the government and nongovernmental entities is not always collaborative. Scholars have identified different kinds of relationships between the government sector and the nongovernmental sector

(Brinkerhoff, 2002; Coston, 1998; Najam, 2000). Four of those relationships are useful in understanding the relationship between government and watershed organizations (Najam, 2000). The nature of the relationship may shift depending on which organization has the power to control the situation, or if circumstances change for either the government or nongovernmental organization.

The first type of relationship occurs when the government and a nongovernmental organization cannot agree on common goals or on the strategies to accomplish goals. This is called an adversarial relationship (Najam, 2000). Adversarial relationships sometimes occur when community organizations are fighting against a government decision.

When both the government and nongovernment organization share similar strategies but have different goals, a second government and nongovernmental relationship is called co-optation. A co-optive relationship can exist when an agency maintains power over a nongovernmental organization (Couto, 1988; Selznick, 1966). For example, a government agency may help form a watershed organization and recruit community members to serve on its board of directors. But if they have agency employees in a majority of the board seats, the agency can still maintain enough power to influence the outcomes of the organization. Alternatively, an agency can be co-opted by a community organization (Couto, 1988; Selznick, 1966; Scholz & Wang, 2006). For example, in situations where a community organization is able to put pressure on an agency to create policies or rules that are polluter-friendly, it is called a captured agency (Mullen, 2007).

The TMDL program focuses on watersheds and is designed to identify pollution problems and solutions. The program is facilitated through federal and state EPA offices and

invites community members to participate on committees. The community's members help identify pollution sources and solutions to cleaning up the problems. The committee is charged with creating an action plan that includes pollution inventories and solutions to environmental problems. However, once the planning phase is complete, TMDL programs may still require permitted dischargers to revise their permit to be more restrictive. Even if there is consensus on a committee to deal with a pollution problem by offering voluntary solutions, an agency may still impose regulations.

A third governmental-nongovernmental relationship is referred to as collaborative. It is a collaborative relationship if a governmental agency and a community organization share both goals and strategies to achieve those goals (Najam, 2000). This relationship reflects a deliberative democracy approach to water policy creation. Deliberative democracy is the concept that policies and decisions are better if those who are affected by them have the opportunity to be involved in the decision-making process. In a deliberative process, the participants must listen to each other's position and carefully consider the options before jointly making a decision (Thomas, 2003). Collaboration has been embraced by government agencies as a partnership approach to address environmental challenges that cannot be solved by government alone (Wondolleck & Yaffee, 2000). The collaborative approach is used by agencies to reduce conflict among stakeholders; build social capital; address environmental, social, and economic issues simultaneously; and produce better results than other approaches (Conley & Moote, 2003). For example, the USEPA recognizes that a participatory approach to reducing pollution is more likely to be accepted than new regulations for private landowners (Schuett, Selin, & Carr, 2001, USEPA, 1993, 1995b). This does not mean that regulations are

necessarily more or less restrictive because of citizen input. A collaborative organization utilizes a process that involves stakeholders with different interests who work together to address natural resource concerns through consensus (Koontz, 2005; Margerum & Whitall, 2004). Depending on what issues are relevant to a watershed, stakeholders could include representatives of government, individual landowners, environmental advocates, agricultural producers, business owners, and land developers.

A fourth government/nongovernmental relationship, complementary, occurs when the different organizations have similar goals but different strategies to accomplish those goals (Coston, 1998; Najam, 2000). For example, a complementary relationship may occur when a government agency provides the funding, but a nongovernmental organization accomplishes the shared goals using their own strategies (Coston, 1998). This is similar to a contractual agreement because the funding agency is not as concerned with the way the organization accomplishes the goals as long as they are met.

Impact of Government Funding

Government-funded community action has long been criticized as potentially damaging. Impacts of government funding include the displacement of voluntarism; a reliance on a single funding source; a reduction in advocacy; and mission co-optation (Sirianni & Friedland, 2001; Smith & Lipsky, 1993). Saul Alinsky said "At best government funding is recognized as potentially ill-conceived and misguided and at worst it would suffocate militant independent leadership and action organizations" (2003, p. 56). According to Cho and Gillespie (2006), the literature suggests that the negative effects on nonprofit organizations from government funding are the dilution of the advocacy role; the loss of locally-driven goals; the nonprofit's loss of

autonomy; an increase in indirect costs; and poor quality services from an overemphasis on fiscal accountability. Accepting government funding can move an organization from a collaborative or complementary relationship to a co-optive relationship, depending on what requirements come with the funds (Najam, 2000; Smith & Lipsky, 1993).

Measuring Watershed Organization Success

Over time, the literature on watershed management has moved from a focus on how the watershed approach could be successful (McGinnis et al., 1999) to a focus on whether collaborative watershed efforts are successful (Kenney, 2001; Lubell, 2004; Moore & Koontz, 2003; Wondolleck & Yaffee, 2000), and then to studies of the common characteristics that exist in the different contexts of successful watershed groups (Koontz & Thomas, 2006). In 2008 there were less than 50 published studies in peer-reviewed publications that focused on the effectiveness of a watershed organization. Most of the studies discuss effectiveness as the achievement of an organization's goals, but there is no consensus on a single definition of success. Authors conclude that the success of watershed organizations is difficult to define (Leach, Pelkey, and Sabatier, 2001; Leach & Pelkey, 2002) and to measure (Bidwell & Ryan, 2006; Koontz & Thomas, 2006). Ideally, the measure of success of a watershed organization is whether water resources are cleaner than before the organization began its work. However, in their 2001 literature review, Leach, Pelkey, and Sabatier define success as either "…1) the adoption and/or implementation of the group's plans, policies, or projects and how those plans impacted the environment or the community or 2) the group's ability to build trust, resolve conflicts, satisfy their stakeholders, or build their long-term organizational capacity" (p. 380). In a later study Leach and Pelkey define success as "…the ultimate success criterion for watershed

partnerships is whether they actually improve water quality, water supply, or other conditions in the watershed" (2002, p. 652).

Unfortunately, measuring the improvement of water quality is difficult and complicated. It is expensive to accurately collect water quality data, it is difficult to isolate the variables that impact the environment, and it takes a long time to implement a rigorous longitudinal study. Studying a change in water quality may take many years to collect enough data to be statistically significant (Hedelin, 2004; Koontz, 2005; Koontz & Johnson, 2004; Sabatier et al., 2005). The literature on watershed management reflects the fact that evaluating the success of watershed organizations is difficult and has so far been limited. During the literature review for this study, no empirical study (published in a peer-reviewed journal) was located that examined whether a community-based watershed organization was successful by directly studying improvements to water quality (Draeger, 2001; Kenney, 2001; Koontz & Thomas, 2006; Lubell & Leach, 2005; Sabatier et al., 2005; Trachtenburg & Focht, 2005).

Although water quality improvement is not frequently studied to track watershed organization success, researchers used other measures. Environmental outcomes are changes to the environment such as the improvement of water quality, the increase of high quality habitat for animals, or the removal of a pollution source. Several studies used the participant's perceptions of environmental improvement to track environmental outcomes (Leach & Pelkey, 2002; Leach & Sabatier, 2005). However, there are validity concerns, such as bias and cognitive dissonance effects, with using perception data in a study (Koontz & Thomas, 2006). People involved in the organization may perceive the environmental outcomes as higher than they actually are because they enjoy being involved in the organization. Cognitive dissonance is

caused by participants who report a more positive environmental outcome to justify why they spend so much time working on the organization's goals (Koontz & Thomas, 2006). Koontz and Thomas suggest that in order to conduct a valid study that uses perception data, the study should also examine direct and objective measures of environmental conditions such as land use or ecological changes where possible.

More commonly, watershed organization success is evaluated by measuring environmental outputs or social outcomes. An output is something tangible that a group produces. For example, a completed action plan, the number of agreements reached, or the number of projects implemented are all environmental outputs. An outcome is the effect of outputs on a condition. As discussed previously, environmental outcomes are changes to environmental conditions. Examples of social outcomes include the change in number of members, the amount of funds raised, and levels of trust, legitimacy, and power (Koontz, 2006). One study used social outcomes to demonstrate that successful collaborative efforts led to increased trust (Leach & Sabatier, 2005).

The Nongovernmental Sector and Civil Society

Civil society is the collective action of citizens separate from the realms of government or business. As discussed earlier, this action can promote community, advocate for citizen interests, influence policy, and improve the quality of life in a community (Cho & Gillespie, 2006). Civil society has long been promoted as a way to ensure good democracy (Tocqueville, trans. 2000). More recent discussions continue to promote the ability of citizens to build social capital, hold government accountable, and address local concerns (Lipsky & Smith, 1990; Putnam, 2000). Participatory democracy is the theory that meaningful citizen participation in

policy issues leads to better decision-making, helps develop a sense of community, increases collective decision-making, promotes respect and acceptance of the governance process, and facilitates social stability (Callahan, 2007). Direct democracy is a theory that suggests citizens own the government and so they should be involved in all decisions made by the government (Callahan, 2007). Civil society includes the work of watershed organizations and citizen involvement in other environmental issues. It has even been said that civil society is comprised of "…heroes whose local knowledge and affinity with nature will save the earth's threatened resources" (Ribot, 1999, p. 28).

Many scholars have examined the role of nongovernmental organizations as an improved approach to governance in environmental management and policy (Cortner & Moote, 1999; Wondolleck & Yaffee, 2000). Over time the social policy of the U.S. has increasingly favored public responsibility; including collaborative watershed management (Chavis & Wandersman, 1990; Smith & Lipsky, 1993). The key to successful watershed efforts is the active involvement of the community members affected by the water resource challenges. The involvement of community organizations in these issues is thought to lead to shared ownership, increased trust between government and community members, and increased community ability to address local problems (Koehler & Koontz, 2008).

Citizen Participation

To help them succeed, organizations recruit members who believe in the goals, and want to help accomplish the work, of the organization. However, recruiting and retaining members and leaders of community organizations of all kinds is one of their biggest challenges (Perkins, Brown, & Taylor, 1996). To understand why some organizations are successful at recruitment

and retention it is helpful to know what motivates an individual to join and to stay actively involved in an organization. A ladder, Table 2.1, illustrates the gradations of citizen participation (Arnstein, 1969). The bottom rungs of the citizen participation ladder are (1) Manipulation and (2) Therapy. These two rungs describe levels of non-participation that substitute for genuine participation (Arnstein, 1969). Manipulation occurs when involving citizens is done merely to convince them to support (or at least not to oppose) an issue. For example, a government agency forms a citizen advisory board but instead of the citizens advising the government, the government uses the board to convince the citizens to support the government's position on an issue. The goal of therapy is to cure the participants of their attitude — so that the power holders do not have to address the real problems. Instead of controlling the pollution, the citizen participants are provided with information that the pollutant is not all that bad, as in the case of the movie Erin Brokovich. In this movie, the citizens living near the pollution source were provided with pamphlets that explained the health benefits of the pollutant, rather than its toxicity.

Table 2.1

Ladder of citizen participation

Rung	Level of citizen participation	Level of participation
1	Citizen Control	
2	Delegated power	Citizen Power
3	Partnership	
4	Placation	
5	Consultation	Tokenism
6	Informing	
7	Therapy	Nonparticipation
8	Manipulation	

Rungs 3, Informing and 4, Consultation progress to levels of participation that allow citizens to both listen and have a voice (Arnstein, 1969). For example, token participation occurs when government agencies hold public hearings to inform communities of their plans for a new landfill in their neighborhood. At the time of the public hearing the plans are already finalized and the hearing is meant to convey the plans to the public. It is a one-way flow of information. Consultation occurs when citizens are asked their opinion, but in a way that the information is not useful to affect change. The public is given an opportunity to speak, but the outcome will not change because of their input.

Rung 5, Placation, is simply a higher level of tokenism. It allows citizens to have an advisory role, but no real power to make decisions. For example, a representative of the powerless may serve on a board of directors, but the majority of the directors represent those with power. The citizens are represented, but not in a way that can influence the outcome. This is also referred to as partial participation because it can result from the indirect representation of an individual or group of citizens (Couto, 1998). For example, when an expert on watershed

pollution speaks on behalf of all watersheds, the citizens in the watersheds they are speaking for are only indirectly represented. The concerns are presented, but the individuals do not have a direct voice. Watershed organizations that are agency-based are examples of this level of participation. Community members are invited to take part in the discussions, but the agency has the power to make the final decisions.

At Rung 6, Partnership, power is redistributed between those without power and those with power (Arnstein, 1969). A partnership allows citizens to share planning and decision-making with traditional power holders. As discussed earlier, mixed-type watershed organizations are an example of a partnership. Both agency and community members are represented and given equal voice in the discussion and outcomes. In a participatory action research process, the researcher and the participants are in a collaborative relationship. They share power and decision-making throughout the research project.

Rungs 7, Delegated Power, and 8, Citizen Control, are at the top of the ladder. In these organizations, citizens have the majority of decision-making seats, or full managerial power (Arnstein, 1969). Organizations that provide citizens with an opportunity to participate at the levels where citizen power is strongest are more likely to retain and recruit members. When members of a watershed organization act for themselves, or as delegates of an organized group for whom they are accountable, they have the potential to fully participate because they have some degree of real power (Couto, 1998). The organization then has the potential for real – not implied – power and the ability to affect change that can result in the organization accomplishing its goals. This is also called direct representation because the participants are those directly affected by the issue of concern (Couto, 1998). Watershed organizations that are citizen-based

are examples of this level of participation and of direct representation. It is possible that if organizations provide opportunities that allow citizens to have some degree of real power, then the organization can improve participation.

It is also possible that even in a watershed organization with citizens in the majority of the decision-making seats; the organization could lose some of their power and fall to a lower level of participation if government is given authority to direct the community organization's efforts. For example, if a community organization that is citizen-controlled accepts government funding with certain requirements for spending, then that organization has to alter its goals, policies, or strategies to comply with those requirements. This could move a government/nongovernmental relationship from collaborative to co-optive. Of course, the reverse is also possible if an entity with power initially involves citizens merely to inform them of an issue or gather information, but then uses that information to build a complementary relationship with genuine citizen participation.

Many studies on citizen participation in community organizations focus on the results of participation and illustrate a wide variety of benefits (Wandersman & Florin, 1990) including improvements to community (Perkins et al., 1996; Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988) and strong interpersonal relationships (Unger & Wandersman, 1983). Based on Arnstein's (1969) Ladder of Citizen Participation the extent to which participation is the shared, or full, planning and decision-making power by the citizen participants has taken place. Studies on citizen participation also demonstrate improved feelings of confidence and competency (Florin & Wandersman, 1984; Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988). These feelings of confidence and competency are what some scholars refer to as empowerment (Florin & Wandersman, 1984).

There are also a few studies specifically on participation in watershed organizations which focused on documenting factors that affect participation including member composition, leader characteristics, demographics, prior social networks, and perceived efficacy (Bowman & Koontz, 2005).

Empowerment

Over the last several decades, empowerment concepts have grown in use and popularity as a means to increase the abilities and effectiveness of community organizations (Yeich & Levin, 1992; Perkins, in press). Empowerment is thought to be a process that helps both the participants and the organizations increase their power to accomplish goals. The idea of empowerment is "…rooted in the "social action" ideology of the 1960s and the "self-help" perspectives of the 1970s" (Kieffer, 1984, p. 9). Some of the more predominant contexts that discuss empowerment theory are the scholarship of political, social work, health, business and management, and organizational development. Despite the term's widespread use, the disciplines and approaches that promote empowerment concepts have fostered many different definitions, and there is no single definition used consistently. This is partly because empowerment theory developed in several different fields of study at about the same time and was used at multiple levels of analysis by different researchers (Speer & Hughey, 1995). It is also partly because empowerment is a model that can be applied effectively in many different situations – it does not have to be a "one-size fits all" approach to social problems (Rappaport, 1987).

In both the community psychology and education fields empowerment is defined as a process by which people, organizations, and communities gain mastery over issues of concern to

them (Kreisberg, 1992; Rappaport, 1987). Discussions on empowerment in the health field take the definition a step further and state that empowerment "…promotes participation of people, organizations, and communities towards the goals of increased individual and community control, political efficacy, improved quality of life, and social justice" (Wallerstein, 1992, p. 198). Definitions from the community psychology field also include a reference to structural change and discuss empowerment as "…collective action to improve the quality of life in a community and to the connections among community organizations" (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995, p. 571).

The differences in the definition of empowerment across disciplines are one reason that empowerment is a difficult concept to measure and predict. The common themes are that empowerment is a process in which citizens (or organizations or communities) gain power (which might be competencies, resources, confidence, access to information, knowledge, skills, etc.) to improve their situation (or their ability to achieve goals). When a term, such as empowerment, is widely used with no single definition, it is likely that the term is interpreted differently in different contexts. There is no consensus in the literature on whether empowerment is a process that results in actual control or achievement, or just a sense of control or achievement.

Empowerment has grown in some fields, such as business and organizational management, to be the "…good that brings about individual happiness" not necessarily something that entails a shift in power (Cuilla, 1996, p. 3). Within the community psychology field, psychological empowerment has been defined in a context where no shift in power is necessary. "Actual power or control is not necessary for empowerment because in some

contexts and for some populations real control or power may not be the desired goal" (Zimmerman, 1995, p. 593).

To help clarify the term empowerment and its use, Couto (1998) defines two types of empowerment. The first type of empowerment is called psychopolitical and results in a change in the action of others or a change in the distribution of resources (Couto, 1998). This is also referred to as authentic empowerment because it occurs when there is a shift in real power from those who have it to those without power. For example, if a watershed organization wants to stop trash from getting into the river, they could take action to influence the entity that is doing the littering to stop dumping the trash.

The second type of empowerment is called psychosymbolic (Couto, 1998). Psychosymbolic is different than psychopolitical because it may only increase people's self-esteem or their ability to cope with an unchanged set of circumstances. "A riverbank trash clean-up, for example, results in a real but only temporary change in the environment, even as it instructs people that human beings can degrade and improve their environments" (Couto, 1998, p. 580). Cognitive dissonance occurs when a person reports a more positive than actual outcome to justify why they spend so much time or effort working on an organization's goals (Koontz & Thomas, 2006). Authentic empowerment, in relation to community organizations, is a process that helps people gain power to improve their situation. This is not the same as a process to improve people's ability to deal with their current quality of life and may alleviate the possibility of cognitive dissonance in a person's discussion about their perceptions of the outcomes. "Psychosymbolic empowerment, by itself, does not alter the conditions of a community or an

individual. It enables people to handle an unchanged situation better" (Couto, 1998, p. 580). Sometimes this type of empowerment is also called bogus empowerment (Cuilla, 1996).

The problem is that sometimes leaders will promise authentic (psychopolitical) empowerment but really only allow bogus (psychosymbolic) empowerment. It is possible to create a process that results in increasing people's sense of control or achievement, without actually increasing their actual control such as in the case of the riverbank trash clean-up. Recalling the ladder of citizen participation, examples citizen participation that result in only bogus empowerment are at the tokenism level (Arnstein, 1969). "The question arises then, whether attempts to enhance a sense of empowerment create the illusion of power without affecting the actual distribution of power" (Riger, 1993, p. 282).

Authentic empowerment occurs when citizens have power and are fully represented. As discussed earlier, direct representatives have the ability to fully participate in an organization because they have some degree of real power. Power gives them the ability to affect change which can result in their organization accomplishing its goals. If empowerment is the ability of an individual or organization to achieve control over their situation and to make it better for themselves and others, then psychosymbolic empowerment will not help them meet those goals. Psychosymbolic empowerment most commonly occurs in a group of people with partial participation and indirect representation (Couto, 1998). The groups are not organized to have power or take their own action. When studying community organizations it is critical to know what type of organization holds the power.

Because citizen participation may lead to empowerment, many researchers have attempted to use participation as a measure of empowerment (Edelstein & Wandersman, 1987;

Rich, Edelstein, Hallman, & Wandersman, 1995; Wandersman & Florin, 1990; Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988). However, research illustrates that participation alone cannot be used as a reliable measurement because so many social, environmental, and physical characteristics influence participation (Le Bosse et al., 1998; Perkins et al., 1996). Therefore, participation does not necessarily lead to empowerment (Gruber & Trickett, 1987; Robertson & Minkler, 1994). Empowerment manifests itself differently in different people, settings, and over time so researchers caution that "…a universal and global measure of empowerment is not an appropriate goal" (Zimmerman, 1995, p. 587). It is possible that just participating in an organization does not mean an individual actually gains control over their situation or can affect any change (Riger, 1993).

Another way that scholars attempt to measure empowerment is by documenting a participant's perceptions of empowerment. Studies demonstrate that citizens often feel more empowered, or have a greater sense of control, as a result of participating in community organizations (Higgins, 1999; Schulz, Israel, Zimmerman, & Checkoway, 1995). These citizens report a greater sense of belief in their personal abilities (Berry, Portney, & Thomson, 1993; Chrislip & Larson, 1994) and a feeling of greater control over their own lives (Arai & Pedlar, 1997; Kieffer, 1984; Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988). As discussed earlier, the validity of perception data can be influenced by bias and cognitive dissonance effects.

Prior research demonstrates that opportunity exists to strengthen the scholarship on both participation and empowerment in community organizations. If empowerment is considered to be the process that increases actual power, then it may be possible to measure empowerment by tracking the actual power that is gained. In this study, the power in community organizations

was tracked by looking at changes to environmental outcomes, access to policy networks and elected officials, access to vertical and horizontal networks, partnerships or memberships in coalitions, and water policies.

Impact of the Helper

Because community organizations are many times run primarily by volunteers, they may turn to a professional outside of their organization to attempt to help increase their power. Professionals assist community organizations by filling a variety of roles including financial officer, facilitator, organizational development consultant, scientist, or researcher. The helping relationship moves things forward, is a complex process, and is an "…essential ingredient of organizational effectiveness" (Schein, 2009, p. 144). For example, studies show that when local food councils worked with agricultural extension personnel, they were more successful at reaching their goals (Smith, 2009).

For some specific roles, such as organizational consultant, researcher, or strategic planning facilitator, a large body of literature exists on how those roles individually impact community organizations (Chrislip & Larson, 1994; Gelatt, 1992; Herman, 2004; Kretzmann & McKnight, 1997; Ladner, 2001). However, there is very little discussion on the impact of helping relationships on participation and empowerment outside of the medical field of study, and there is very little discussion on the development and application of a general theory of helping relationships (Boyte, 2008; Schein, 2009).

As outlined by Schein, a general theory of helping begins with "…someone consciously trying to help someone else accomplish something" (2009, p.xi). A critical component of this relationship is trust. Trust means that no matter what one person says to another, they will not

use that information in a negative way against each other. The ability to trust someone is based on what you believe about their trustworthiness (Davis & Gardner, in press). In a trusting relationship, a person is believed to be trustworthy based on previous interpersonal interaction or knowledge about the entity that person represents, or is gained during the experience of an ongoing interaction. Trust can be established prior to the start of a helping relationship (if there is a previous relationship with the helper) or during the helping relationship (if the helper earns trust based on their trustworthy actions) (Davis & Gardner, in press).

Schein identifies seven principles of an effective helping relationship (2009). They were developed as a general theory based on the premise that social and psychological dynamics of helping are the same in any kind of helping relationship. These principles can provide guidance for someone who is working to assist a community organization reach its goals.

The first principle is that both the helper and the community organization are ready. This means that both parties are ready to face and address the problem together. The second principle is that effective help occurs when both parties have an equitable relationship. In an effective helping relationship the helper is not in charge of the process but that person is able to provide guidance and information throughout the relationship that is helpful. The third principle is that the helper is filling the proper role. The helper should not assume a specific helping role until the issue of concern is fully identified by the community organization. For example, until an issue of concern is defined, the helper does not know whether they should act as a facilitator, or in some other role. The helper should also check throughout the relationship to make sure their assistance is still helpful. The organization should provide feedback to the helper. The fourth principle is that everything the helper, and the community organization, does or says determines

the future of the relationship. The helper is in an influential role and should consider the impact of their actions, including feedback, on the relationship. The fifth principle is that help starts with pure inquiry. Pure inquiry is a process that allows the helper to fully understand the organization and its needs, and allows the organization to express their needs in their own words. Pure inquiry helps build a trusting relationship and maximizes the valid information available to the helper. The sixth principle is that the community organization owns the problem. The helper needs to be aware that the community is the one that has to live with the solution. And finally, the seventh principle is the helper never has all the answers. An effective helping relationship engages the receiver of help in creating the solution to the help needed.

There are two main ways in which people fill a helping role. One way occurs when the helper acts as a citizen professional and focuses on building a mutual relationship that clarifies the help an organization needs (Schein, 2009). In this situation, the helper builds an equitable relationship with the organization and encourages the organization to be active in identifying possible problems and solutions (Schein). The second way occurs when a helper is an outside expert and acts as an expert resource or assists an organization by diagnosing problems and prescribing solutions (Schein, 2009; Boyte, 2008). Outside experts are those professionals that provide a service (Boyte, 2008). They are in charge of the process, act alone to intervene and fix the problem, and provide all of the knowledge (Boyte, 2008).

In contrast to the outside expert, citizen professionals act as a catalyst who, along with the organization, shares the power (Boyte, 2008). Citizen professionals work with an organization to build a relationship and co-create and jointly solve problems. Citizen professionals work to build community ties and utilize local knowledge (Boyte, 2008). In this

way, citizen professionals are engaged in adaptive work because they are utilizing the citizens themselves to help solve the problems. Citizen professionals engage an organization fully in the process and teach the participants how to deal with future problems on their own or with less outside assistance. The "…ultimate function of help is to pass on diagnostic skills and intervene constructively so that clients are more able to continue to improve their situations on their own" (Schein, 2009, p. 64). For example, in a participatory action research process, the participants work side-by-side with the researcher to gain skills, knowledge, and the capacity to address future situations. This study theorizes that when applied fully and effectively, the principles of an effective helping relationship enable the best example of the citizen professional.

Participatory Action Research

Action research evolved from the writings of the social psychologist, Kurt Lewin (1946, 1952), and participatory action research was born out of the work of the adult educator, Paolo Freire (1970, 1982). Lewin developed action research as a flexible and responsive process to address social problems (McTaggart, 1997). In an action research project, the researcher attempts to gather information and then provide that information to powerless citizens who can use the knowledge to take action to change their situation and make it better. Freire involved the citizens directly in the research itself, so that the entire process – from problem identification and data-gathering to initiating the action – was participatory.

Participatory action research is a cyclical process (see Figure 1) in which the researcher and the participants work collaboratively to identify an issue of concern and its solutions. The participants then implement the solutions and reflect on the entire process. Participatory action

research is an adaptive process so that if the participants discover during reflection that changes need to be implemented, they do so (Selener, 1997).

Participatory action research is contingent on authentic participation which occurs when the participants have real ownership of the research theory and practice (McTaggart, 1997). In relation to empowerment, participatory action research is a "…self-conscious way of empowering people to take effective action toward improving conditions in their lives" (Park et al., 1993, p. 1). Authentic empowerment can occur as a result of participating in a participatory action research project, because the participants have the power to set the agenda, participate in the data collection and analysis, and control the use of outcomes and the whole process (McTaggart, 1997).

The literature on participatory action research illustrates four main principles (Hall, 1977; Kekale & Pirttila, 2006; Stoecker, 2005). The first principle is that participatory action research is a cycle involving both research and action. As defined in Figure 1, the most common cycle used in a participatory action research process is planning, acting (implementing plans), observing, reflecting, and then re-planning, further implementing, observing, and reflecting (McTaggart, 1997). The researcher facilitates what participants do during each step of the cycle beginning with the identification of the problem that needs to be addressed. This inquiry process allows the participants to express their issue of concern in their own words instead of the researcher identifying the problem. Instead of a traditional research setting where the researcher makes all the decisions, the knowledge of the participants is crucial to the participatory action research process.

The second principle is that the participants have a significant role in contributing new knowledge. The researcher encourages the participants to reflect upon and analyze their situation and then take action intended to make their community better (Kekale & Pirttila, 2006). Knowledge is generated when people interact (Yeich & Levine, 1992). Throughout the process the researcher plays a critical role as a facilitator in "…guiding and encouraging the process whereby popular knowledge and values are brought to light, collectively studied, and compared to social reality, and whereby the potentials for emancipatory actions are discovered" (Park et al., 1993, p.119). The participants trust how the researcher is using their knowledge in the process. At the heart of participatory action research is the idea that people are knowledgeable about their own reality and are capable of articulating that knowledge (Bhatt & Tandon, 2001). Once knowledge is gained or skills are attained, social change can take place (Couto, Hippensteel Hall, & Goetz; 2009). The process that develops the knowledge (or skills) and increases the power of individuals or the organization during the research, education, and social change activities is the empowerment process (Yeich & Levin, 1992).

The third principle is that communication between the researchers and participants must be open, dialogical, and effective (Hall, 1977). Communication is critical in all stages of the participatory action research process. Effective communication allows the participants to express their issues of concern, their knowledge, and their suggestions for solutions. Effective communication also allows the researcher to provide expert facilitation and guidance on the research process. In an open relationship, the researcher is checking and re-checking that the issue is correctly identified and is being addressed. In a dialogical relationship both the researcher and participants have equal opportunity to provide their knowledge. In an effective

relationship there is trust between the researcher and participants. The researcher is aware that everything they do or say can affect their relationship with the participants.

Finally, the fourth principle of participatory action research is "…the ideal of democracy, enabling the participation of all people" (Kekale & Pirttila, 2006). The goal of participatory action research is to empower people through critical awareness. The people affected by the issue are the ones that participate and are all equal and active in the process. Local citizens and the organizations that they form are the most appropriate to lead social change efforts. When people come together and compare their existing beliefs, values, and understandings with the social reality they experience (the existing popular knowledge), they can then "…discover the contradictions of their experience and find the potentials for creating a more ideal existence" (Park et al., 1993, p. 108). The participants can use their self-awareness to improve their knowledge (or skills) to deal with their findings (Park et al., 1993). All of the arguments are listened to as being potentially legitimate. The dialogue must produce agreements that can be researched and acted upon (Habermas, 1979; Kekale & Pirttila, 2006).

However, just utilizing the principles of participatory action research does not necessarily guarantee that the process is helpful to the participants. This study theorizes that in order to be fully and effectively helpful, the researcher must also utilize the principles of an effective helping relationship. When the principles of participatory action research are combined with the principles of an effective helping relationship, the characteristics of a citizen professional are identified. See Table 2.2 for a summary of which principles of participatory action research relate to which principles of an effective helping relationship to identify the characteristics of a citizen professional. This study theorizes that when a helper provides assistance to a community

organization using the characteristics of a citizen professional, the helper assists the community organization continue or increase participation, empowerment, and the successful pursuit of some organizational goal.

Table 2.2

Characteristics of a citizen professional

Principles of participatory action research	Principles of an effective helping relationship	Characteristics of a citizen professional
A cycle involving both research and action.	The helping relationship starts with pure inquiry. The helper never has all the answers.	The helper guides the community organization through a process of planning, acting, observing, reflecting, and then re-planning, etc. The community organization provides valid information to the helper.
Participants have a significant role in contributing new knowledge to the process.	The community organization owns the problem. The helper is filling the proper role. The helper never has all the answers.	The helper acts as a facilitator. There is a trusting relationship between the helper and the community organization. The community organization helps identify the problem and helps create the solution. The helper encourages the participants to reflect upon and analyze their situation.
Communication between the helper and participants is open, dialogical, and effective.	There is an equitable relationship. Everything the helper does or says determines the future of the relationship.	There are opportunities for the data to be checked and re-checked. The helper is the facilitator. There is opportunity for the community organization to provide their knowledge.
Participants are equal and active participation during the process.	They have an equitable relationship. The helper is filling the proper role.	A trusting relationship. The community organization helps identify the problem and helps create the solution. The helper encourages the participants to

The community organization owns the problem. The helper never has all the answers.	reflect upon and analyze their situation.

Summary

To summarize, there is a lack of research focused on the role of the helper to assist community organizations increase authentic citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success. As a result of this gap, there is an opportunity to create a better understanding of how a general theory of a helping relationship applies to community organizations. This study deepens the scholarship on the role of the helper in community organizations and civil society and on how the principles of participatory action research, along with the principles of an effective helping relationship define the characteristics of a citizen professional.

Chapter III: Research Methods and Procedures

This study examined the role of the helper in eight community-based watershed organizations; compared the helper's actions with the characteristics of a citizen professional; examined those roles for their impact on the success of the watershed organizations; and assessed the impact of the helper's actions on the continued or increased forms of participation and empowerment of the citizen members.

As discussed in Chapter II, a review of the published scholarship provides a background of the roles, actions, and impacts of a helper which leads to an understanding of how that knowledge can be furthered. Using the principles of participatory action research and an effective helping relationship, the characteristics of a citizen professional are defined as:

- The helper guides the community organization through a process of planning, acting, observing, reflecting, and then re-planning, etc.
- The helper acts as a facilitator.
- There is a trusting relationship between the helper and the community organization.
- The community organization helps identify the problem and helps create the solution.
- There is opportunity for the community organization to provide their knowledge.
- The community organization provides valid information to the helper.
- There are opportunities for the data to be checked and re-checked.
- The helper encourages the participants to reflect upon and analyze their situation.

That review further suggests that the success of watershed organizations has the following measures.

- Environmental outcomes are changes to the environment such as the improvement of water quality, the increase of high quality habitat for animals, or the removal of a pollution source.
- Environmental outputs are the items an organization produces and include action plans, the number of agreements reached, the number of projects implemented, or the number of projects implemented.
- Social outcomes are the effect of outputs on a condition and include a participant's perceptions of individual competencies and confidences, access to networks, partnership or memberships in coalitions, and changes to policies.

The review of the literature also suggests that a way to track citizen participation is to examining the extent of change in the number of participants and the amount of funds. Tracking a change to empowerment is examined through both perception data and instances of change to real power. This is done by tracking environmental and social outcomes as discussed above.

A deeper understanding of the impact of the citizen professional is central not only to citizen participation in water policy issues but also to citizen participation in policy issues and more generally to democratic practice and civil society. Given what we know about the role of an effective helper, and the role of the researcher in participatory action research, this study will test the intersection of both sets of principles in relation to community-based organizations. Chapter I established the framework and significance of this study which focuses on watershed organizations, their role in the preservation and restoration of water quality, and the factors that impact their effectiveness. Chapter II discussed the existing body of knowledge about the public and private partnerships of government and watershed organizations; the nongovernmental sector, of which watershed organizations are part, and civil society; the nature of participation

and empowerment; the impact of the helper; participatory action research; and the links of the latter two factors.

The fundamental research question of the study is: Do the characteristics of citizen professionalism, when utilized by someone who is helping a watershed organization, continue or increase citizen participation and empowerment in community organizations as well as the successful pursuit of organizational goals.

This study hypothesizes that the more the helper's actions resemble the characteristics of a citizen professional, the more the participation and empowerment of the organization's members. The study moves beyond perceptions of participation and empowerment by also looking at the success of watershed organizations. This study hypothesizes that the more the helper's actions resemble the characteristics of a citizen professional, the more likely the watershed organization is to positively affect the pursuit of their goals.

Research Design

To examine the role of the helper in community organizations, this study is first rooted in the context of community-based watershed organizations specifically located in the geographic boundaries of the Great Miami River Watershed in southwest Ohio. One advantage of focusing on a single watershed is that the groups all have the commonality of a contiguous ecological area. It may be possible to generalize the results of this study to other watershed organizations and because watershed organizations are part of the tradition of community-based organizing, to generalize the results to community-based organizations with a focus other than water resources.

Twelve watershed organizations exist within the boundaries of the Great Miami River Watershed. To attempt to include all twelve organizations in this study, a case study design and

mixed-methods approach to data collection was utilized. The case study method is an appropriate method for this study because it is an empirical inquiry that tries to illuminate why certain decisions were taken, how they were implemented, and with what result (Yin, 2009). The case study method allows the researcher to bring out the details from the viewpoint of the participants by using multiple sources of data (Creswell, 1998; Yin, 2009).

This research study utilizes a multiple case study design to increase the certainty of the conclusions of the analysis. By using a multiple case study design, it is possible to analyze themes across the common dependent and independent variables of the different cases which are then potentially generalizable to other watershed and community organizations as a whole. These themes then became the hypotheses for the study. The possible hypothesis and sub-hypotheses that emerge from this study include:

- Hypothesis: The more the actions of the helper resemble the characteristics of a citizen professional, the more the participation and empowerment of the organization's members and the more likely the watershed organization is to positively affect the pursuit of their goals.
- Sub-hypothesis: In cases where the helper fills the role of facilitator and guides the watershed organization through a process of planning, action, observing, reflecting, and then re-planning, etc., the organization has increased forms of success, participation, and empowerment.
- Sub-hypothesis: In cases where an organization has a trusting relationship with a helper, the organization has increased forms of success, participation, and empowerment.

- Sub-hypothesis: In cases where an organization helps to identify the problem and create the solution, by providing valid information to the helper, the organization has increased forms of success, participation, and empowerment.
- Sub-hypothesis: In cases where there is opportunity for the members of the community organization to provide their knowledge, the organization has increased forms of success, participation, and empowerment.
- Sub-hypothesis: In cases where there is opportunity for the data to be checked and re-checked, the organization has increased forms of success, participation, and empowerment.
- Sub-hypothesis: In cases where the helper encourages the participants to reflect upon and analyze their situation, the organization has increased forms of success, participation, and empowerment.

Demographics

All 12 watershed organizations in the Great Miami River Watershed were invited to voluntarily participate in this study. A letter of invitation was mailed to the President (or main contact person) of each board of directors. The letter explained the purpose, research design, and ethical considerations of the study, plus it asked for the organization's voluntary participation in the study. The letter also requested the contact information for three to four key representatives of the organization and for permission to contact them. If there was no response within two weeks, a phone call was made to each organization's President (or main contact person). If a watershed organization chose not to participate, or could not be contacted, a public document analysis was still conducted to collect readily available information on the demographics.

Of the 12 watershed organizations originally chosen for the study, eight organizations agreed to participate. Of the organizations that did not participate, two organizations declined to be interviewed because they came into existence so recently that they have not yet worked with a helper outside of their group membership. Two other organizations declined to be interviewed stating they were too busy with projects to participate.

Of the eight organizations that participated in the study, two are citizen-based type organizations, two are agency-based type organizations, and four are mixed-type organizations. Citizen-based organizations are initiated and sustained by volunteers. Agency-based organizations are formed by the government, and mixed-type watershed organizations have both citizens and agency representatives in their membership.

Study Participants

The watershed organizations in the Great Miami River Watershed are different from each other in many ways including their age, number of staff, number of members, budget, geographic size, and funding sources. Table 3.1 summarizes the demographic information for each watershed organization. The oldest group formed so long ago that the participants have no accurate record of a start date, and instead list it only as pre-1975. Many of the organizations formed in the late 1990s when funds for hiring a staff person became available to watershed groups. A majority of the organizations currently have no paid staff. The largest annual budget among the organizations is $235,000 while many groups have no funds at all. The geographic size of the watershed the organizations work within ranges from 40,000 acres to well over three million acres. All three types of watershed organizations, as defined in Chapter II, exist within the Great Miami River Watershed.

The eight watershed organization that agreed to participate in the study range in age from more than 30 years old to less than 5 years old. A majority of them formed in the 1990s. This is possibly due to the increased funding opportunities that became available to watershed organizations during that time period. The annual budget of each of the organizations for 2009 was $45,800 or less, with one organization at a zero budget. That organization is currently inactive. Two of the organizations received substantial funding from the state budget (a line item) in the past and have accumulated savings accounts that are much larger than the others. All eight of the organizations have utilized government funding.

Six of the organizations have, either currently or in the past, utilized government funding (federal funds managed through a state agency) to hire an executive director. Of those six, four currently employ someone full-time in that position using those types of funds. A fifth organization also has a part-time paid staff member in an administrative capacity. Two of the organizations work solely using volunteer labor, and one organization is inactive. Interestingly, the group with the most paid members (1,100) is also the oldest (pre-1975) has never had a paid staff person.

Table 3.1

Watershed Organization demographics

Organization Name	Type	Year formed	Size of watershed	Members (2009)	Paid staff	Funding sources	Total budget (2009)
Group 1	Mixed	1990	63,122 acres	600	1	Govt. and Private	$30,000
Group 2	Citizen-based	Pre-1975	420,480 acres	1,100	0	Govt. and Private	$4,000
Group 3	Citizen-based	1996	19,200 acres	30	.5	Govt. and Private	$50,000
Group 4	Agency-based	1992	40,720 acres	20	1	Govt. and Private	$10,000
Group 5	Mixed	2002	104,000 acres	43	1	Govt. and Private	$45,800
Group 6	Mixed	1999	2,000 acres	30	0	Govt. and Private	$12,000
Group 7	Mixed	2005	202,240 acres	30	1	Govt.	$45,000
Group 8	Agency-based	1999	172,040 acres	0	0	Govt.	$0

The strategies employed by the watershed organizations to meet their goals are also diverse. Each organization employs one of more of these goals: education, stream restoration, land acquisition, litter clean-ups, water quality data collection, and providing funds to landowners to incentivize behavior change. Regardless of the differences, these groups also have similar or identical characteristics. They all formed to address local water resource concerns. They all have a board of directors. Although the role played by the helper may vary,

all eight of the watershed organizations have utilized a helper at some point in time. In order to standardize this element among the watershed organizations, this study only examined those helpers who are external to the organization (not a member, board member or employee) and provided assistance for at least a three-month period.

Research Methods

Two methods of data collection were used to gather the research for this study. First, the written records of each of the watershed organizations were examined. Records include the organization's watershed action plan, strategic plan, work plan, annual reports, meeting minutes, newsletters, and promotional materials. Many of the watershed organizations post this information on their website. If not available on the internet, the information was requested through the organization's main contact person. All of the organizations have some form of mission statement and goals. They all publish an annual summary, or report, of accomplishments. The document analysis was conducted from July through November 2009.

Second, focus group interviews were conducted with representatives from each of the eight participating watershed organizations. The focus group interviews were planned sessions that captured multiple participants' perceptions about this topic in a permissive, non-threatening manner (Casey & Krueger, 1994). An advantage of using a focus group technique is that multiple people are being interviewed at one time instead of doing many individual interviews. This research technique allows the researcher to act as a moderator and encourage group interaction to answer the questions posed (Morgan, 1997). The group interaction is a strength of the focus group technique because the participants can discuss and make comparisons among each other's common experiences (Morgan, 1997). Another advantage of focus group interviews

is that the researcher can ask clarifying or additional probing questions at critical points (Casey & Krueger, 1994).

There are also several weaknesses of this data collection method. First, the interviewer must do a good job facilitating the discussion so that the participants do not steer the discussion to topics that are not relevant to the research, or allow a particular participant to dominate the conversation. Second, because only a small number of participants are interviewed the important knowledge of non-participants may not be captured by the study (Morgan, 1997). Third, because the researcher is present during the interview the answers given by the participants may be influenced by the researcher's presence.

The interviews were between 60 and 90 minutes long and were scheduled at the participants' place and time of convenience. The participants in the focus groups included three to seven key representatives of each watershed organization. The key representatives are the people who were present at the time of the work with the helper and may include board members, watershed coordinators or executive directors, other staff, and regular members of the watershed organization. Key representatives are the people who worked most closely with the helper.

During the interviews, the participants were instructed to answer the interview questions while focusing on one particular person who provided (or was asked to provide) help to their organization for a three month or longer time frame. It was explained that the interview questions were not designed to evaluate a person's ability to help but rather to evaluate the characteristics that the helper used while working with each organization. The participants were asked to discuss a person that provided (or was asked to provide) help regardless of the personal

feelings the participants had for that person. The interviews were designed to capture information about the helper that is much more detailed than just whether the helper was liked or not.

Questions for the focus group interviews had an open-ended structure and allowed for clarifying questions during the interview period. The researcher acted as moderator of the focus group interviews and recorded and took notes during the interviews on a computer. After each focus group was complete, the researcher summarized the information, reflected and journaled on the process, and sent a summary back to the participants to verify its accuracy. Any feedback from the participants was incorporated into the summaries.

After the first focus group interview was complete, the questions and responses were reviewed by a professional interviewer from The Miami Conservancy District. The Miami Conservancy District regularly conducts focus group interviews with community members and organizations. This process helped to field test the interview method and allowed for adjustments if necessary. No changes were made to the questions after the first interview. However, during the rest of the focus groups, the interviewer was careful to explain that it was not necessary to pick a helper that had successfully assisted the organization. The focus group interviews were conducted in September through December of 2009.

Using the data collection methods discussed in Chapter III, information on the background of each watershed organization, along with the independent and dependent variables of the study, was compiled. First, the relevant documents were gathered by searching the organization's websites and/or requesting the documents through the organization's main contact person. All of the requests for documents were answered. Second, focus group interviews were

scheduled, at the interviewees' convenience, with the eight participating watershed organizations.

Four of the interviews were held in the watershed organization's office, two interviews were held in the community room of a public library, one interview was held at a private home, and one interview was conducted on a riverbank. Seven of the focus group interviews were each conducted with three people present. One organization brought seven people to the interview. All eight of the focus group interviews were conducted with a current or former Executive Director or President present. All the other participants were either board members or regular members.

Dependent Variables

This study was designed to primarily collect the dependent variables during the document analysis. However, some of the dependent variables were also discussed during the focus group interviews. The dependent variables of this study are citizen participation, empowerment, and watershed organization success. Table 3.2 summarizes the dependent variables of this study, the criteria used to evaluate the variables, and the techniques employed to collect the data relevant to each variable.

To track watershed organization success this study examined changes to environmental outcomes and outputs during the time period the helper worked with the organization. Environmental outcomes are the documented changes to environmental factors, such as the improvement of water quality or the amount of lands protected from development. This information was found in a watershed organization's annual reports and work plan documents. Although less reliable than tracking actual change to environmental factors, environmental

outcomes were also tracked by inquiring about a participant's perception of the watershed organization's ability to improve the environment. This information was gathered during the focus group interviews.

Environmental outputs were documented in this study to track watershed organization success. Examples of environmental outputs include the number of completed plans, the number of agreements reached, or the number of projects implemented. This information was found in annual reports, work plans, and strategic plans.

Citizen participation was tracked by documenting changes to the number of members, active volunteers, attendance at events, and the amount of funds raised during the time period the helper worked with the organization. This information was found in the watershed organization's work plans, annual reports, and fiscal reports.

In this study, empowerment was tracked in two ways. First, interview questions were designed to inquire about a participant's perceptions of empowerment by asking questions about a person's individual competencies and confidences gained. However, the use of perception data has several concerns. First, perception data may not distinguish between psychopolitical and psychosymbolic empowerment. Second, perception data can be influenced by bias and cognitive dissonance effects, as explained in Chapter II. Therefore, actual power gained by organizations was tracked to look at psychopolitical empowerment. By examining both environmental and social outcomes this study looked for examples of increases in real power. Examples include changes to environmental factors such as water quality, changes in water policies, increased access to information such as policy networks, elected officials, and increases in membership of coalitions and partnerships. This information was found in a watershed organization's annual

reports, meeting minutes, strategic plans, and work plan documents and was also gathered during interviews.

Table 3.2

Dependent variables and data collection techniques

Variable	Evaluation criteria		Definition	Data collection technique
Organizational success	Environmental outcomes	Number of restoration projects completed	# of feet of streambank restored	Document analysis
			# of lowhead dams removed, etc.	
			# of feet of channelized stream restored	
			Stormwater mitigation projects installed, etc.	
		Amount of land (greenspace or agricultural) protected	# of acres in permanent protection, such as conservation easements or deed restrictions	Document analysis
		Documented changes in environmental parameters	Improvements to water quality, quantity, or habitat	Document analysis
		# of pollution sources removed	Underground storage tank removal	Document analysis
			Landfill clean-up	
			Pollutant source mitigated	
		Perceptions of environmental quality	How do participants feel about the organization's effect on environmental outcomes?	After working with the helper, how did you feel that your organization's impact on the environment changed? Did it improve or decrease?

	Environmental outputs	Written plans	Completed action plan, strategic plan, work plan	Document analysis
		# of agreements reached	Contracts, partnerships	Document analysis
		# of projects implemented	Restoration, preservation, education, or outreach projects	Document analysis
Participation	Citizen participation	Increase or decrease in number of members	Someone that pays dues to or contributes financially to the organization	Document analysis
		Increase or decrease in number of active volunteers	Someone that worked for the organization (unpaid)	Document analysis
		Amount of funds raised	Increase in donations	Document analysis
Empowerment	Environmental outcomes	Same as above		
	Social outcomes	Perceptions of individual competencies and confidence	How do participants feel about the organization's effect on their individual power?	After working with the helper, how did you feel that your personal capability/abilities/confidence to help the organization accomplish its goals changed? Did it improve or decrease?
		Increased access to policy networks and elected officials	Political capital	Document analysis
		Access to vertical and horizontal networks		

Increased partnerships or memberships in coalitions	Memorandums of understanding, partner agreements	Document analysis
Changes to water policy	More protective policies or increased funding sources for water resources	Document analysis

Independent Variables

The independent variables are the characteristics of a citizen professional that the helper utilizes while working with each watershed organization. As explained in Chapter II, this study utilizes the intersection of the principles of an effective helping relationship and the principles of participatory action research to identify the characteristics of a citizen professional. To evaluate the independent variables, interview questions were designed to summon answers that focus on a watershed organization's experience with a helper and how they worked together. Table 3.3 summarizes the data collection technique used to identify each characteristic.

Table 3.3

Independent variables and data collection techniques

Characteristics of a citizen professional	Data collection technique
The researcher guides the community organization through a process of planning, acting, observing, reflecting, and then re-planning, etc.	How was the central question that needed the helper's assistance identified? How did the organization participate in the design of the assistance? How was the solution implemented? Who implemented the solution? How was the solution evaluated? How did you reflect upon your work with the helper? How did you know it was addressing your central question?
The community organization provides valid information to the helper.	How did the helper collect information from the organization? What opportunities did the organization have to provide feedback/input/express concerns into the process? How often?
The helper is a facilitator.	What was the role of the helper?
There is a trusting relationship between the helper and the community organization.	How did the helping relationship start? (Who initiated the helping process? Did you have experience with the helper prior to this instance?) How active were the participants (members of the community organization) in the process? Were the participants (members of the community organization) in the process equal to the helper? Why or why not?

The community organization helps identify the problem and helps create the solution.	How was the central question that needed the helper's assistance identified? How did the organization participate in the design of the assistance?
The helper encourages the participants to reflect upon and analyze their situation.	How did you reflect upon your work with the helper? How did you know it was addressing your central question?
There are opportunities for the data to be checked and re-checked.	Did you get new and important information from the helper? Was it accurate?
There is opportunity for the community organization to provide their knowledge.	What opportunities did the organization have to provide feedback/input/express concerns into the process? How often? What opportunities did the organization have to provide their knowledge on the central question to the helper?

Ethical Considerations

The fieldwork study design of this project is generally used in cases where the research is merely collected about people with no intention of social change. However, this particular study invoked the role of a researcher in an applied research method whereby the research was conducted about, and for, people (Couto, Hippensteel Hall, & Goetz, 2009). Effort was made to explain the research question, its significance, and its potential impact on an understanding of the factors that maintain or increase empowerment and citizen participation. By participating in this study, the information collected could have a positive impact on future attempts of watershed organizations to create social and environmental change in their communities. The results of the study are distributed directly to the participating watershed organizations, The Miami Conservancy District's Great Miami River Watershed Network, The Ohio State University Extension Service's statewide Ohio Watershed Network, and other horizontal and vertical networks this study identifies.

The major ethical principles of this study are the voluntary participation of the research subjects, their informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity, and the use of the research results. The participants were invited by the researcher to voluntarily participate. A signed consent form was obtained from the people who were interviewed as part of the focus groups. In consideration of both the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants, no participant's name or the organization's name was used in the data analysis. And although this study is not designed to evaluate the effectiveness of any particular helper or the role they filled, removing the names from the study helps protect the reputations of the watershed organizations, the

helpers, and the individual participants from any data which was collected that may reflect unfavorably upon them.

Limitations

Limitations of this study include transferability, researcher bias, and credibility of the data. To minimize these limitations each one was addressed either prior to or during the study. Transferability is the issue of how well the data can be generalized to other cases. To address transferability this study provides sufficient detail about the context of the study, the research design, and findings so as to be potentially generalizable to other community-based organizations. The research techniques are highly transferable, whereas the findings may be somewhat dependent on the individual characteristics of the community-based watershed organizations themselves. By using a multiple case study approach, it is more likely to discover generalizations while highlighting the unique attributes of each case that are applicable to other organizations.

Researcher bias comes from the "lens" in which the researcher views the research, and includes the values, theories, beliefs, and expectations of the researcher (Bentz & Shapiro, 1998). A strength of case study design is the researcher is deeply involved in the inquiry process which allows for a more rich understanding of the context of the participants. Throughout the study, the researcher contributed writings to a journal, in order to reflect on the inquiry process and any potential bias. The bias cannot be eliminated completely, but with reflection and consideration by the researcher it can be kept to a minimum. A reflective practitioner "…suggests professional maturity and a strong commitment to improving practice" (Cameron, Hayes, & Wren, 2000, p. 218).

There are four tests of credibility in case study research (Yin, 2009). Construct validity is addressed by using multiple sources of data and by having the key informants review the interview notes. Internal validity is addressed through pattern matching. Pattern matching compares the initial theory with the dependent and independent variables of each case to build an explanation about how and why the phenomenon happened. External validity is addressed through the use of replication logic. Each case was chosen because it either predicts similar results or predicts contrasting results for logical reasons (Yin, 2009). Finally, the reliability of the study is addressed by using case study protocol and focus group interview protocol, as well as through the use of a case study database. By using these techniques, the study could be replicated.

When the research results are believable from the perspective of the participants who were part of the study, then the data generated from the study is credible. By providing the summaries of the focus group interviews to the study participants and then by gathering and using their feedback, the data are more credible.

Chapter IV. What Citizen Professionals Do

In this chapter, the results of the dependent variables are discussed along with a narrative of each case. Of the eight watershed organizations that participated in the study, six organizations discussed more than one helper. Therefore, the eight focus group interviews resulted in 14 cases where a helper provided, or was asked to provide, assistance to a watershed organization.

Although this study is not designed to evaluate the effectiveness of any particular helper or the role that person filled, in consideration of both the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants no participant's name or watershed organization name is used in the data reporting or analysis. Removing the names from the study helps protect the reputations of the watershed organizations, the helpers, and the individual participants from any data which was collected that may reflect unfavorably upon them. Instead of their names, each group is denoted by a number, and each helping case is assigned a letter (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1

Summary of participating watershed organizations

Organization Name	Type	# of people interviewed	# of helping cases
Group 1	Mixed	3	2 (a and b)
Group 2	Citizen-based	3	1 (c)
Group 3	Citizen-based	3	2 (d and e)
Group 4	Agency-based	7	2 (f and g)
Group 5	Mixed	3	2 (h and i)
Group 6	Mixed	3	2 (j and k)
Group 7	Mixed	3	1 (l)
Group 8	Agency-based	3	2 (m and n)
TOTAL CASES			14

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables of the study are watershed organization success, participation, and empowerment. These variables are tracked by collecting data on changes to environmental outputs and outcomes, citizen participation, and social outcomes while the helper worked with the watershed organization. The two methods of data collection used to gather the data for this study are examining written records and conducting focus group interviews with representatives of each participating watershed organization. Records to be reviewed, where available, include the organization's watershed action plan, strategic plan, work plan, annual reports, meeting minutes, correspondence, audits, and promotional materials. The interviews were planned sessions that captured multiple participants' perceptions about this topic along with discussions of their experience with the helper.

As discussed in Chapter III, environmental outcomes are tracked by documenting changes to environmental factors, such as improvement of water quality or amount of lands protected from development, and the participants' perceptions of the organization's impact on the environment. Environmental outputs are tracked by searching for documented instances of changes to water policies, increased access to information such as policy networks, elected officials, and increased membership in coalitions and partnerships. Citizen participation is tracked by looking at the change in the number of members, active volunteers, attendance at events, and the amount of funds raised. Social outcomes are tracked using a participant's perceptions by asking about competencies and confidences gained and by looking for documented examples of actual power that is gained. To summarize the findings, the 14 cases of the helper are categorized into five types of similar roles. The roles are categorized by the

position the helper filled. The six roles are watershed plan writer, technical expert, administrative expert, website designer, and executive stakeholder.

Watershed Plan Writer

In two cases, A and M, the organization needed help compiling and publishing their watershed action plan. A watershed action plan is a document that itemizes the problems, priorities, and activities the watershed organization would like to address (Ohio EPA, 1997; USEPA 2005b). Organizations that have completed plans may submit them to the state for endorsement which then may qualify them for additional funding sources. In both cases, the helper assisted the organization by compiling and/or writing the watershed action plan. The helpers used state-provided guidance to organize the plan, assisted the organization by gathering the data needed to complete the plan, provided drafts back to the organization on a regular basis, incorporated the organization's feedback into the plan, and produced a completed watershed action plan.

In both cases, the organizations had an increase in environmental outputs when the watershed action plan itself was completed. At the time the focus interviews were conducted, neither case resulted in a direct impact of environmental conditions. However, the interviewees' perceptions of the organization's ability to impact the environment was positive. For example, the board members interviewed in Case A felt their organization's impact on the environment increased because the watershed action plan outlines new goals for the organization to implement projects that improve water quality in their watershed.

In both cases the participants also reported an increase in their perception of their personal competencies and confidences. The interviewees said that their ability to manage time increased as a result of working with the helper. By having the helper assist the organization the

interviewees said they realized they could "…do better things with our time, because having someone help us with the plan freed us up to do other things." In Case M, the board member interviewed said the helper inspired the rest of the organization's members to work harder and be more enthusiastic. "She gave us the wow factor." Changes to social outcomes such as an increase in access to policy networks, elected officials, vertical and horizontal networks, and an increase in partnerships, coalitions or changes to water policy are not found in the data collected in relation to Case A and M. Having a completed watershed action plan may increase an organization's ability to access policy networks and be respected (and possibly favored) by networks or elected officials. However, there is no data (through either the document analysis or interviews) that reflects an impact on social outcomes other than the perceptions of individual competencies and competences.

There are differences in the two cases. Citizen participation in Case A increased but did not in Case M. In Case A, the watershed organization scheduled a series of board meetings where during each meeting the helper brought the most recent draft of the action plan to the entire board for review. At the meetings, the attendees provided the helper with feedback on the drafts by adding information or making suggestions for improvement. The watershed organization held more frequent meetings to work on the action plan, and those meetings had an increase in attendees over previous board meetings. In Case M, the helper worked primarily with the watershed coordinator and only two board members. The helper in Case M did attend regular board meetings, but only two board members were the most involved in the watershed action plan compilation. The organization did not experience an increase in attendance at meetings. Table 4.2 is a summary of the dependent variables found in Cases A and M.

Table 4.2

Dependent Variables and Cases A and M: Watershed Plan Writer

Dependent Variables	Case A: Watershed Plan Writer	Case M: Watershed Plan Writer
Environmental outcomes	No actual increase.	No actual increase.
Perceptions of environmental quality	Yes. The plan helped the organization qualify for grants for projects that improve water quality.	Yes. The plan guides the organization's work. All projects since are informed by the plan.
Environmental outputs	Watershed Action Plan completed.	Watershed Action Plan completed.
Citizen participation	Increased attendance at meetings.	None
Social outcomes	None	Yes. Having the plan increased the organization's influence over other communities' water resource protection efforts.
Perceptions of individual competencies and confidences	The work helped focus the organization.	The board learned how to manage an intern/volunteer better – they now have increased expectations for volunteer work.

Technical Expert

In six of the cases (B, F, G, H, K, and L), the helper filled the role of technical expert. In Case B, the technical expert is a scientist who implemented a water quality data collection project. The technical expert in Case F was a local community member who helped build community support for the organization and provided help as a technical expert in agricultural practices. In Case G, the technical expert created and managed a manure management project. The technical expert in Case H is an expert in streambank restoration who implemented a restoration project for the watershed organization. The technical expert in Case K was an environmental consultant that managed a data collection and public outreach project. In Case L,

the technical expert provided the organization with knowledge on wetlands and advised them on the availability of federal programs.

In two cases, H (Technical Expert, streambank restoration) and L (Technical Expert, wetlands) there is a documented change to the environment. Case H attributes 524 feet of streambank restoration as a result of working with the technical expert, and this physically reduced the amount of sediment entering the stream. Case L attributes the creation of 16 acres of new wetlands as a result of working with the technical expert. In the other 4 cases where the helper is a technical expert, no increases to environmental outcomes are directly attributable to the helper's involvement with the organization. This is partly due because the watershed organizations did not monitor changes to environmental outcomes, not necessarily because there were no outcomes.

In five cases (F, G, H, K, and L) the interviewees reported an increase in their perception of the watershed organization's ability to positively impact the environment after working with the helper. Case B reported no change in their perception. The interviewees in Case F (Agricultural Practices) said the organization's impact on the environment improved because they had an increased ability to influence landowners to install conservation practices which potentially reduce agricultural runoff. The technical expert assisted the organization by reaching out to landowners in the watershed, with whom he had relationships and was respected, and convinced them to work with the organization and participate in its programs. But, because the organization did not monitor the water quality up- and downstream of the conservation practices that were installed, no measurable environmental outcome can be attributed to the technical expert. Interviewees from Case G (Manure Management) perceived their watershed organization as increasing their ability to improve the environment as a result of the technical expert creating

and managing a system for removing pollutants from the watershed altogether. Even though no water quality monitoring system was in place to show a decrease in pollutants in the stream itself, the interviewees perceived their goal of pollutant reduction was met by virtue that the pollutant no longer existed in their watershed. In Case K (Environmental Consultant) the interviewees perceived an "…incremental increase because of the scientific information the organization now has access to in the reports." In this case, the technical expert was helping the organization gather and compile historic environmental monitoring reports for a specific property in their watershed.

All six of the cases (B, F, G, H, K, and L) where the helper was a technical expert resulted in an increase to environmental outputs. The environmental outputs in Case B (Scientist) are the documented collection of water quality data and the subsequent annual reports created by the technical expert. These reports are used by the watershed organization to communicate with their membership and community members about the positive trends in water quality improvement in the watershed. In Case F (Agricultural Practices) the technical expert organized 16 Field Days and three Conservation Tours. Field Days are public events held at a farm to showcase agriculture and conservation practices for the purpose of educating agricultural producers on new or updated technical issues. The technical expert organized the events, recruited companies to donate the materials to plant the fields, and found sponsorships for donated refreshments for the attendees. Conservation Tours are local or out-of-state trips to multiple agricultural sites. The technical expert helped to organize the tours and found sponsorships to fund a portion of the trips. The technical expert also implemented the conservation practices. The board member interviewed said that the helper was always willing

to help whenever needed, adding "[The helper] is a team player" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 17, 2009).

The environmental output documented in Case G (Technical Expert) manure management is the manure management project itself which was successfully implemented by the helper. The manure management project collects manure generated by agricultural businesses in the watershed and delivers it to landowners outside of the watershed who use the manure as a nutrient source on agricultural crops. A primary problem identified by the watershed organization in their watershed is excess nutrients in waterways, so this project reduces that problem.

In Case H (Streambank Restoration) the environmental output is the streambank restoration project itself. The technical expert also used leftover material from the streambank restoration project for a second streambank area on the property – all as an addition to the original project and at no charge to the organization or the property owner.

In Case K (Environmental Consultant) the documented environmental output is the compilation of historical environmental reports. The compilation of these reports was intended to help local agencies evaluate the need for additional monitoring to fully understand the depth and breadth of a contaminated property. The environmental outputs in Case L (Wetlands) are two completed wetland projects and a partnership agreement with the U.S. Fish and Wildlife to help with those projects.

Both Case B (Scientist) and Case G (Manure Management) showed no increase in citizen participation. In these two cases (B and G) the project was entirely created and managed by the technical expert with little or no involvement by the organization or its members. In Cases H, F and L there is a documented increase in citizen participation. In Case H (Streambank

Restoration) the citizen participation increased as a result of the helper conducting two free workshops on streambank restoration for 30 attendees. The change in citizen participation in Case F (Agriculture Practices) is the documented increase in dozens of agricultural producers who participated in programs, offered by the watershed organization, as a result of the influence of the technical expert. Before the helper was involved, the watershed organization had difficulty recruiting participants. The technical expert also implemented the agricultural practices, and talked to other agricultural producers in the watershed and convinced them to participate in the organization's programs too. In Case L, (Wetlands) citizen participation in the watershed organization increased as a result of the wetlands project. The technical expert assisted the organization by helping them design and install two wetlands. As a result of the projects, more community members visited the wetlands project site.

Case K documented a decrease in citizen participation as a result of the watershed organization's work with the helper. The watershed organization was awarded a federal grant to compile historic environmental reports, propose additional studies, and conduct public outreach on a particular property known to be polluted. The watershed organization hired an environmental consultant to help them conduct the work. Some of the historical data was originally collected by the property owner themselves, but because they did not release all of their data to the consultant by the time the grant was expired, the project was not completed. Because the compilation was incomplete the helper did not propose any additional studies. The federal agency that awarded the funds offered to renew the grant to the watershed organization and to provide additional monies to complete the project. The organization chose not to renew because they were unable to obtain a legal opinion on whether their board members could be liable for alleged libel or slander for verbal or written statements by either the helper or any

organization member communicating on behalf of the organization over the compilation of the report. The watershed organization became concerned when the helper took actions without the organization's approval. Although the helper corrected those actions at the time they occurred, because of this unknown liability, the organization decreased their activity and project work which resulted in less activity by the board members.

There is no documented change in social outcomes as a result of working with the technical expert for the watershed organization in two cases, Case B (Scientist), Case G (Manure Management). There is a documented change in social outcomes for four of the cases (F, H, K, and L). In Case F (Agricultural Practices) the documented increase in social outcomes is the watershed organization's increased ability to access landowners. Dozens of landowners now participate in the watershed organization's programs and projects as a direct result of speaking with the technical expert. "That was the single largest asset initially: [the helper] was not a government person. [The helper] was implementing the practices and understood them thoroughly and because [the helper] was doing it, it was a better sales pitch than any one other person selling it" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 17, 2009).

In Case H (Streambank Restoration) the watershed organization increased their good relationship with a major landowner and partner in the watershed, thereby increasing their political capital. The landowner was pleased with the project because the streambank restoration project was successfully constructed on a prominent area of their property, and the technical expert assisted them with several other problems at no cost.

The interviewees in Case K (Environmental Consultant) reported that an increase in social outcomes came as a result of working with the helper. Their organization had a better relationship with local communities who partnered with them on additional projects. After

hearing that the watershed organization was working on the project and had gained knowledge on the issue, a neighboring community with similar concerns approached them asking for help with their problem.

And in Case L (Wetlands) an increase in social outcomes occurred when the watershed organization created a relationship with a federal agency thereby increasing their access to networks and political capital. One board member said the experience keeps unfolding. "One door just opens another" (Anonymous, personal communication, December 8, 2009).

The interviewees in five of the cases (F, G, H, K, and L) reported a perceived increase in their personal capability, ability, or confidence as a result of working with the technical expert. For example, one interviewee said "I know how to access more resources as a result of working with the helper" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 2, 2009). Another interviewee stated "I have a better understanding of technical issues and increased confidence that the programs can work" (Anonymous, personal communication, December 8, 2009). In the sixth case, B (Scientist) the technical expert did all the work designing and implementing the project, and the interviewees reported no change to their perception of individual competencies and capabilities. Table 4.3 is a summary of the dependent variables found in Cases B, F, G, H, K, and L.

Table 4.3

Dependent Variables and Cases B, F, G, H, K, and L: Technical Experts

Dependent Variables	Case B: Technical Expert, scientist	Case F: Technical Expert, agricultural practices	Case G: Technical Expert, manure management	Case H: Technical Expert, streambank restoration	Case K: Technical Expert, environmental consultant	Case L: Technical Expert, wetlands
Environmental outcomes	No actual increase.	None directly attributable.	None directly attributable.	524 feet of restored streambank.	None	16 acres of new wetlands.
Perceptions of environmental quality	None	Yes. The organization was able to influence landowners to implements BMPs.	Yes. Nutrients are removed from the watershed.	Yes. Restored streambank.	Yes. Increased access to scientific information.	Yes. Two wetland areas.
Environmental outputs	Water quality data to use for trend analysis/publicity purposes.	16 field days and three conservation tours. Demonstration site for agricultural field. USEPA project site.	A nutrient management project.	The helper used leftover material to solve another problem for free.	Collected and summarized environmental reports.	Two wetland creation projects. Partnership with USFWS.
Citizen participation	None	Increase in dozens of participating landowners.	None	Yes. 30 attendees at two free workshops on stream restoration.	Decreased involvement of the organization due to liability concerns.	Increased attendance at meetings; people visit the wetlands.
Social outcomes	None	Creation of landowner group.	None	Better relationship with property owner/major landowner.	Collaborate with other organizations and jurisdictions.	Established a relationship with US Fish and Wildlife Service.
Perceptions of individual competencies	None	Yes. Learned how to better communicate with the public and	Yes. A better understanding of nutrient	Yes. Learned how to manage a contractor, a bid	Yes. Increased understanding of technical issues and	Yes. Know better about state and federal programs.

and confidences	local community members.	management.	process, and learned a lot about stream restoration.	roles of different organizations and agencies.	Understand wetlands.

Administrative Expert

In both the Case N (Finance Manager) and Case I (Public Relations and Communications) the helper filled the role of administrative expert. The helper in Case N provided financial management of the organization's finances, helped the organization obtain grants, and introduced the organization's programs to community members. The helper in Case I am a public relations and communications expert who provides the organization with expertise in those areas and in grant writing.

Neither case monitored changes to environmental outcomes, but the interviewees in both cases reported a perceived increase in the organization's ability to impact the environment. As a result of working with the helper, the interviewees in both cases felt the organization had a greater impact on the environment because they were able to spread information about their projects to more people who then might participate in those projects.

Quite a few environmental outputs were produced in both cases. In Case N (Finance Manager) the organization was awarded two grants that were submitted with the helper's assistance. The helper also assisted the organization in creating financial reports, meeting minutes, and a financial reporting system. The helper connected the organization with community members, who then signed up to participate in the organization's programs, and with other community organizations that the watershed organization partnered with on projects. In Case I (Public Relations and Communications) the environmental outputs included a multi-media presentation, radio spots, press releases, and newsletter articles. "She is really good at working to get you just what you want" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 2, 2009).

Both cases also resulted in a documented change to citizen participation. In Case N (Finance Manager) the helper connected the watershed organization with new participants, thereby increasing citizen participation. The watershed organization in Case I (Public Relations and Communications) reported an increase in their dues-paying members, which is also citizen participation, after prospective members viewed the multi-media presentation created by the helper.

Both cases resulted in an increase to social outcomes through a documented increase in access to elected officials, agencies, or other organizations as a result of working with the helper. ”We increased our capacity to network with professional organizations and community members through [the helper’s] contacts, joint educational events and trainings” (Anonymous, personal communication, November 16, 2009). In Case N (Finance Manager) the organization also gained access to more landowners in the watershed. “Through the helper’s connections, we met people who then implemented our projects” (Anonymous, personal communication, November 16, 2009). The interviewees in both cases also reported an increase in their perception of their individual competencies and confidences. “By working with the helper we all learned how to better work with people. Especially people with a problem. She taught us how to listen” (Anonymous, personal communication, November 16, 2009). Table 4.4 is a summary of the dependent variables for Cases N and I in which the helper is an administrative expert.

Table 4.4

Dependent Variables and Cases N and I: Administrative Expert

Dependent Variables	Case N – Finance Manager	Case I – Public Relations and Communications
Environmental outcomes	No actual increase.	No actual increase.
Perceptions of environmental quality	Yes. As a result of the helper's network, the organization made landowner contacts who then implemented projects.	Yes. The organization increased ability to spread the word about their work.
Environmental outputs	Yes. Two grant applications; multiple financial reports and meeting minutes; a financial reporting system; a storm drain stenciling project; an outreach project; and multiple best management practices.	Yes. Multi-media presentation, radio spots, press releases, and newsletter articles.
Citizen participation	Yes. Increased donations and contacts with local landowners.	Yes. Increased membership.
Social outcomes	Yes. Increase in contacts with local landowners, other community organizations, and elected officials.	Yes. Increased access to agencies and elected officials.
Perceptions of individual competencies and confidences	Yes. The organization learned how to work with people.	Yes. The organization learned how to access more resources as a result of working with [the helper].

Executive Stakeholder

In two of the cases, the helper is an Executive Stakeholder. The helper in Case D is a city official. In Case C the helper is the executive director of a different organization within the same watershed. In Case D (City Official) the watershed organization requested the help of the city official in supporting a project. Without the city official's involvement, the project did not move forward. The city official did meet with the watershed organization several times, discussed the project at length, and was fully aware of the help needed to implement the project. The helper has not outright refused to help the organization, but no help was given. In Case C (Executive

Director) the watershed organization partnered with another watershed organization in order to reach their mutual stream restoration goals. The helper provided the watershed organization with funding assistance to construct the restoration.

Therefore, Case D (City Official) did not result in any environmental outcomes or outputs. The watershed organization in Case C (Executive Director) attributes 2.5 restored miles of in-stream habitat as increases to environmental outcomes, as well as four completed projects as increases to environmental outputs as a result of working with the helper. However, in both cases the interviewees perceived an increase in their organization's impact on the environment. The interviewees in Case C (Executive Director) said their organization's impact on the environment changed since they made actual physical improvements to the stream's habitat potential. An interviewee in Case D (City Official) reported their ability to impact the environment also improved because the experience. "[The helper] helps us understand the potential of what could happen if the project were implemented" (Anonymous, personal communication, December 11, 2009).

The watershed organization in Case C (Executive Director) experienced an increase in citizen participation through an increase in both volunteers and donations as a result of the stream restoration project work. There is no change in levels of citizen participation in Case D (City Official).

There is no increase or decrease in social outcomes in Case D (City Official) but the interviews in Case C (Executive Director) did report a decrease in social outcomes after working with the helper. In Case C while the habitat restoration project was ongoing, there was reportedly some conflict in the helper's organization between the helper and the organization's board of directors. This conflict led to a degradation of the relationship between the helper's

organization and local citizens and landowners. Although the watershed organization was not directly involved in the conflict with the helper's organization, the watershed organization experienced a change in attitude from local landowners towards them as a result of the two organizations being closely associated with each other. Many of the watershed organization's members reside outside the watershed itself but they value the area as a recreation resource and commit their time to ensuring the resource stays healthy. "Once there was controversy, we were just considered outsiders. Even though we have worked here for 20 years, we are not landowners" (Anonymous, personal communication, September 20, 2009). As a result of working with the helper, the watershed organization experienced a decrease in their ability to influence and work with the landowners and local policy decision-makers, thereby decreasing social outcomes.

In both cases, the interviewees reported an increase in their perception of their individual capabilities and confidences. In Case C (Executive Director), a board member interviewed said "I can't stress enough about what we learned about getting the community interested in water resources. We better understand the people's interests. We now understand that community involvement is key" (Anonymous, personal communication, September 20, 2009). An interviewee in Case D (City Official) said "I know how to ask better questions of people in administrative roles" (Anonymous, personal communication, September 20, 2009). Table 4.5 is a summary of Cases C and D and the dependent variables.

Table 4.5

Dependent Variables and Cases C and D: Executive Stakeholders

Dependent Variables	Case C: Executive Director	Case D: City Official
Environmental outcomes	2.5 miles of stream restoration.	None
Perceptions of environmental quality	Yes. Improvements to the stream.	Yes. Understand more fully the potential of the project.
Environmental outputs	Yes. 4 completed projects.	None
Citizen participation	Yes. Increase in volunteers and donations.	None
Social outcomes	Yes. Decrease in access to community members. Decreased partnership with another organization.	None
Perceptions of individual competencies and confidences	Yes. Better understand the local people's interests. We are more sensitive to local political agendas.	Yes. Learned how to interact with administrators.

Website Developer

In both Cases E and J, the helper was hired as a website developer. In Case E, the helper disappeared half way through the job and did not complete the work. In Case J, the helper completed the website to the organization's satisfaction. Neither case resulted in a change to environmental outcomes, but both resulted in the output of a new website. However, the website in Case E was not completed by the helper (it was eventually completed by a board member). The interviewees in Case J reported a perceived increase in their organization's ability to impact the environment by having an outlet to publicize their mission, contact information, and schedule of activities, thereby increasing membership and the organization's ability to raise funds for water quality improvement projects. The interviewees in Case E reported no increase or decrease in the organization's ability to impact the environment. The watershed organization in

Case J documented an increase in citizen participation through the increase in volunteers and donors reaching them through their website, while the organization in Case E did not. The interviewees of both organizations reported an increase in social outcomes through a perceived change to their personal competencies and confidences. A board member interviewed in Case J said "I know more about how to hire a person to create and build a website" (Anonymous, personal communication, October 6, 2009). The interviewee in Case E, where the helper disappeared, said the experience "…was another lesson to remind us of the need for back-up of critical personnel" (Anonymous, personal communication, December 11, 2009). Table 4.6 is a summary of Cases E and the dependent variables.

Table 4.6

Dependent Variables and Cases E and J: Website Developers

Dependent Variables	Case E: Website Developer	Case J: Website Developer
Environmental Outcomes	None	None
Perceptions of environmental quality	None	Yes. Improved the organization's impact by publicizing the mission.
Environmental Outputs	Yes. Partial work completed on a new website.	Yes. Completed new website.
Citizen Participation	None	Increased number of volunteers. Increased donations.
Social Outcomes	None	Increase in access to local citizens.
Perceptions of individual competencies and confidences	Yes. Critical need for back-up personnel.	Yes. Gained experience overseeing a contracted helper.

Summary

Each of the 14 cases was categorized into six roles: watershed plan writer, technical expert, administrative expert, website designer, and executive stakeholder. The cases were examined for the dependent variables of the study by looking at data on environmental outcomes and outputs, citizen participation, social outcomes, and perception data. Case H and L had an increase in six variables. Case F, J, and N had an increase in five variables. Case C had an increase in five variables and a decrease in the sixth variable. Case A, I, and M had an increase in four variables. Case K had an increase in four variables and a decrease in a fifth variable. Case G had an increase in three variables. Case D and E had an increase in two variables, and Case B had an increase in only one variable.

Chapter V: How Citizen Professionals Help

Whereas the dependent variables are the changes to citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success that resulted from working with a helper, the independent variables track the characteristics the helper utilizes to work with each watershed organization. This study utilizes the intersection of the principles of an effective helping relationship and the principles of participatory action research to identify eight main characteristics of a citizen professional. These characteristics are the independent variables of the study.

Independent Variables

- The helper guides the community organization through a cyclical process of planning, action, observing, reflecting, and then re-planning, etc.
- The helper is a facilitator.
- There is a trusting relationship between the helper and the community organization.
- The community organization helps identify the problem and helps create the solution.
- There is opportunity for the community organization's members to provide their knowledge.
- The community organization provides valid information to the helper.
- There are opportunities for the data to be checked and re-checked.
- The helper encourages the participants to reflect upon and analyze their situation.

To gather data on the independent variables, focus group interviews were conducted with key informants of the eight participating watershed organizations. The interview questions were designed to summon answers that focused on a watershed organization's experience with a helper and whether that helper utilized the characteristics of a citizen professional. In seven of the cases (A, F, H, I, J, L, and N) the helper most closely resembled the characteristics of a

citizen professional and utilized six of the eight characteristics. The other seven cases (B, C, D, E, G, K and M) had helpers that utilized fewer characteristics of a citizen professional.

This chapter discusses each case and provides a narrative of how the central question that needed the helper's assistance was identified; what role the helper played; how the helping relationship started; how the solution was designed, implemented, and evaluated; and how information flowed to and from the organization to the helper. In addition, the results of each case are compared to discover if the cases that mostly closely resemble the characteristics of a citizen professional are also the cases that had continued or increased forms of citizen participation, empowerment, and the positive pursuit of organization goals.

Cases in Which the Helper Utilized Six Characteristics of the Citizen Professional

In Case A (Watershed Plan Writer) the board of directors of the watershed organization identified their issue of concern as the need for an updated watershed action plan. The directors recruited the helper to assist them achieve this goal. The helper was the organization's first choice for someone to assist them. There was already a trusting relationship between the helper and the watershed organization because the helper was previously the organization's intern and the organization had a positive experience at that time. The organization provided the helper with a state-agency created guidance document on how to complete the plan. The entire board of directors (20 members) of the watershed organization and the executive director participated in the process of completing the watershed action plan. The board members scheduled more frequent meetings to work on the action plan with the helper. The helper worked on the plan in sections, sent drafts to the board members for review two weeks prior to each board meeting, and then reviewed the board members' comments at each meeting. One board member said the plan was "…reviewed idea by idea" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 18, 2009).

The helper incorporated all of the feedback into the plan. "She was putting our thoughts and ideas into words" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 18, 2009). Between meetings, the helper also worked closely with the Executive Director on elements of the plan. The board members said they knew the help was working because. "….progress towards completing the watershed action plan was evident at each meeting" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 18, 2009).

In Case F (Technical Expert, agricultural practices), the watershed organization wanted to have more respect from community members and more influence over local landowners. The organization wanted landowners to use their recommendations to implement agricultural best management practices that protect and restore water resources. The organization met the helper at a watershed organization meeting.

The helper, an agricultural producer and a respected community member in the watershed, told a board member that he attended the meeting to "…see what the watershed organization was going to do to us" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 17, 2009). The helper and the watershed organization realized they shared similar goals. The board members thought it was a good idea to engage the helper in the watershed organization to utilize the helper's connections in the community as well as the helper's knowledge about science and technical issues related to agriculture.

After hearing what the organization needed, the helper offered to be a liaison between the landowners and the organization and help build support for the organization. The board set the goals and gave the helper specific tasks to accomplish. For example, the helper scheduled events for landowners to learn about agricultural practices. The helper would also "…step up to the plate and volunteer on a task" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 17, 2009). The

helper represented the watershed organization at different meetings in the community and talked to people about the benefits of participating in the watershed organization's programs. "That was the single largest asset initially. Because the [helper] was not a government person" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 17, 2009).

The helper was implementing the agricultural practices as well. "The [helper] was implementing the practices and understood them thoroughly. Because the [helper] was doing it, it was a better sales pitch than any one other person selling it" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 17, 2009).

The helper also set up field days and conservation tours for the watershed organization. "The board let [the helper] run with it" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 17, 2009). The helper came to all the board meetings. If the helper could not attend he would send a letter or a phone call to report on progress. The helper had "…great follow-up skills (Anonymous, personal communication, November 17, 2009). The [helper] always made sure the board knew what was going on" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 17, 2009). The board trusted the helper. "The [helper] was a team player. The [helper] would give you thoughts on a subject but would not bully anyone into something" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 17, 2009).

In Case H (Technical Expert, stream restoration) the watershed organization wanted to restore a section of streambank. The organization had applied for and received a grant to pay for the project but did not have the ability to conduct the restoration work themselves. To find someone to help, the organization released a bid with project specifications which was accepted by the helper.

The relationship began with phone calls between the helper, the watershed coordinator, and the executive committee and progressed to on-site face-to-face meetings. Even though the watershed organization had provided a design and specifications for the project, the helper suggested a different and more cost-effective design. "[The helper] patiently explained the reasoning, and took the time to bring us up to speed" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 2, 2009). The watershed organization reviewed the plans and approved the re-design. All decisions were made with board approval.

The organization reported that the helper took time to understand the requirements of the grant to help the watershed organization fully comply with them. The organization reported they had an "…open channel of communication" with the helper (Anonymous, personal communication, November 2, 2009). "[The helper] offered more than was necessary in regards to communication" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 2, 2009). The helper would regularly report progress on the project to the watershed coordinator, who kept the rest of the organization informed. The helper did more work than the contract specified. "[The helper] did a favor to the landowner. [The helper] used leftover material to solve a problem area at no cost" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 2, 2009). The helper also held two free trainings for local professionals on stream restoration that were co-sponsored by the watershed organization.

In Case I (Technical Expert, public relations and communications expert) the watershed organization needed help with public outreach. They wanted to build additional community support for their mission and goals. The organization was aware of the helper's background in public relations, the helper had previously served on the watershed organization board, and there was a positive relationship between the helper and the current board members.

The helping relationship started when the organization asked the helper to assist them with a radio announcement and PowerPoint presentation. "Whenever the watershed organization needs something related to public outreach, we pick up the phone and call the helper" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 2, 2009). The organization tells the helper what kind of help they need, and the helper suggests the solutions. The organization reviews, contributes to, and approves all the content.

The progress of the projects was discussed at board meetings and among the executive committee in-between meetings. The helper sent information to the board through the watershed coordinator. "All of us interact with [the helper], but mostly the watershed coordinator" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 2, 2009). The helper worked with the watershed organization nearly every day. "[The helper] brings opportunities directly to the watershed organization, such as grant applications" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 2, 2009). "[The helper] provides honest and open feedback and is very diplomatic about suggestions and ideas" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 2, 2009). The watershed organization "…calls the shots. We direct [the helper's] efforts, but we trust [the helper's] judgment and knowledge and value [the helper's] input" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 2, 2009).

In Case J (Website Developer) the watershed organization needed someone to help them design and populate a website for their organization. The organization's website was out of date. The organization contracted with a small business website developer who was recommended by a board member. The organization had no prior relationship with the helper. The helper attended a board meeting where the website content was discussed, and all the board members gave input on what they wanted in a website. "The helper was an expert in website mechanics,

but the content came straight from the board" (Anonymous, personal communication, October 6, 2009).

After the initial planning meeting, a single board member was assigned to be the helper's main liaison with the watershed organization. The liaison was experienced in website development and was able to monitor the accuracy of the work. "The board counted on the liaison" (Anonymous, personal communication, October 6, 2009).

The organization provided the helper with a flat rate budget and goals. As the helper created the website, the liaison and the board of directors monitored the progress. At each board meeting, the board members reviewed the draft content and provided feedback to the liaison to give to the helper. There were also "…quite a few detailed e-mail messages between the board and all parties on content for the website" (Anonymous, personal communication, October 6, 2009).

The helper was paid partial payments as progress was made on the website. Once the project was complete a final payment was made to the helper. "Holding the money was important" (Anonymous, personal communication, October 6, 2009).

In Case L (Technical Expert), wetlands the watershed organization needed someone to help them educate community members on what agency resources were available to their watershed to help the community protect and restore water resources. In this particular watershed organization, the group works in the form of a network or as a coalition without a formal governance structure. Rather, it operates as a number of individual organizations that meet regularly to discuss issues of mutual concern but that conduct no actual business as a whole group. They come together to share ideas and set goals for the watershed as a whole, but work in their own organizations individually to achieve those goals.

The helper was invited to a watershed organization meeting to provide information on their organization and its programs. There was no prior relationship between the helper and the organization as a whole. However, some individual group members had worked with the helper on other projects. "I trust the [helper's agency]. We trust [the helper] because other people knew and respected [the helper]" (Anonymous, personal communication, December 8, 2009).

After the initial meeting, the helper made suggestions on what kind of help he could provide. "[The helper] was very easy to work with. [The helper] was always available to meet with us. We had open communication with [the helper]. [The helper] always returned my calls. I had [the helper's] cell phone number" (Anonymous, personal communication, December 8, 2009).

One of the member organizations needed help with designing and creating a wetland. With the member organization's direction, the helper designed the wetland. The design was then reviewed and commented on by members of the watershed organization, and was finally approved and constructed by the member organization.

"[The helper] encouraged us to do different things but didn't insist. If we had an idea and [the helper] had a different suggestion, [the helper] would say 'Here is a different way you can do it, but if you want to do it your way then I would suggest that you…,' so that it was always our choice on what decision to make and [the helper] would help us either way" (Anonymous, personal communication, December 8, 2009).

In Case N (Finance Manager), the watershed organization needed someone to help them manage their finances and to assist with grant-reporting requirements. The helper worked for the agency that started the watershed organization. The helper "…was an integral part of helping to get the grant." The watershed organization "…begged [the helper] for help" (Anonymous,

personal communication, November 16, 2009). The board of directors informed the helper of what help was needed, and the helper created the solution (a financial reporting system) within the parameters (the grant requirements).

The organization asked the helper to manage the finance records, but the helper also offered to take notes at the watershed organization meetings and manage mailings to organization members. The watershed coordinator completed the financial reports with information and the helper double-checked the information in the reports for accuracy. The helper also attended all the watershed organization meetings and had daily contact with the watershed coordinator. "Even though [the helper] had so much information on the issue, [the helper] never conveyed knowledge as a way that came across as superior" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 16, 2009). "[The helper] gave us the opportunity to communicate on an equal basis" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 16, 2009).

The helper also had contacts with critical landowners in the watershed. "[The helper] gave us suggestions on who to talk to" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 16, 2009). Upon request of the watershed organization, [the helper] made contact with landowners and helped convince them to participate in the watershed organization's programs. The helper had "…extraordinary knowledge about the area and people that was important to the success of the watershed organization's efforts" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 16, 2009).

To summarize, seven of the cases (A, F, H, I, J, L, and N) utilized six of the eight characteristics of a citizen professional. There are two characteristics that were not used in any of these cases. None of the helpers acted as a facilitator during their work with the watershed organizations, and none of cases included a cyclical process of planning, acting, observing,

reflecting, and re-planning. Table 5.1 is a summary of the seven cases (A, F, H, I, L, J, and N) where the helper utilized six characteristics of a citizen professional and which characteristics were utilized in each case.

Table 5.1

Cases where the helper utilized 6 characteristics of citizen professionalism

Characteristics of a citizen professional	Case A	Case F	Case H	Case I	Case L	Case J	Case N
The helper guides the watershed organization through a process of planning, acting, observing, reflecting, and then re-planning, etc.	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
The watershed organization provides valid information to the helper.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
The helper is a facilitator.	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
There is a trusting relationship between the helper and the watershed organization.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
The watershed organization helps identify the problem and helps create the solution.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
The helper encourages the participants to reflect upon and analyze their situation.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
There are opportunities for the data to be checked and re-checked.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
There is opportunity for the community organization to provide their knowledge.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

- In all seven cases there was a trusting relationship between the helper and the watershed organization. In four cases (A, I, L, and N) the trust was established prior to the helping relationship, and in three cases (F, H, and J) the trust came as a result of the helping relationship.

- In all seven of the cases, the watershed organization helped identify the problem. In three cases (A, F, H, and J) the watershed organization created the solution and then looked for a helper to assist implementing the solution, and in three cases (I, N, and L) the helper and watershed organization created the solution together.
- In all seven cases there was opportunity for the watershed organization to provide their knowledge to the helper, and that knowledge was critical to the solution.
- In all seven cases the work of the helper was checked or verified by one or more members of the watershed organization at face-to-face meetings.
- In all seven cases, the helper provided opportunities for the participants to provide feedback and reflect upon how the process was working.

Cases in Which the Helper Utilized Four or Fewer Characteristics

In seven cases (B, C, D, E, G, K and M), five or fewer of the characteristics of a citizen professional were utilized. In Case B (Scientist), the helper approached the watershed organization and offered to collect water quality data in the watershed. The watershed organization accepted the helper's offer because they needed more data for their own use. The watershed organization trusted the helper because he was a professor at a local university who also owns property in the watershed.

The watershed organization obtained grant funds for the helper to use for the monitoring project. The helper implemented the entire process of data collection and analysis and provided semi-annual reports to the watershed organization. Once the project started, the watershed organization gave no feedback or input to the helper. They do not participate in the project implementation or check the accuracy of the data. 'This is [the helper's] program – it is kind of a one-way street. We don't give [the helper] feedback – we use the report as is" (Anonymous,

personal communication, November 18, 2009). The watershed organization uses summaries of the water quality data in news articles and community outreach publications. "We use the data a lot for publicity purposes" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 18, 2009).

In Case C (Executive Stakeholder), the watershed organization wanted to conduct stream restoration on segments of a river in their watershed, but did not have funds to accomplish a project. There is another watershed organization in their watershed, and through a series of meetings the two organizations realized they shared the goal of stream restoration. The helper, who was the Executive Director of the other watershed organization, provided assistance by including the watershed organization that needed help as a partner in a grant application. The grant was then awarded for the purpose of implementing the stream restoration project. The watershed organization provided all the specifications and locations for the stream restoration to the helper. "We designed the where and how of the restoration projects for both the grant application and during the actual work" (Anonymous, personal communication, September 20, 2009).

Although the watershed organization did not know the helper prior to this instance, they had a prior positive relationship with the helper's organization. The project resulted in 2.5 miles of restored stream habitat. Primarily two of the watershed organization's members worked with the helper. They communicated with the helper via e-mail and at the monthly meetings of the helper's organization. "We had an open channel of communication" (Anonymous, personal communication, September 20, 2009).

Although the watershed organization that used the helper trusted the helper at the beginning of the project, the relationship deteriorated. During the project, the watershed organization's members reported that "[The helper] was making decisions without approval of

the board of directors [of the helper's organization] (Anonymous, personal communication, September 20, 2009). The watershed organization members "…saw [the helper] stepping out of line and spoke to [the helper] about the behavior" (Anonymous, personal communication, September 20, 2009). They reported that the helper responded to their concerns "…in a positive fashion and took corrective action steps" (Anonymous, personal communication, September 20, 2009). However, as a result of the helper's actions, the watershed organization began to experience a loss of relationships with landowners and community members.

In Case D (Executive Stakeholder), the watershed organization wanted to implement an environmentally-friendly development project in the watershed. The watershed organization needed the help of a city official as a partner on the project. The city has power available to them which was critical to the success of the development. Without the partnership of the city, the watershed organization would have a difficult, if not impossible, time making the project happen.

The watershed organization's executive director met with the helper on several occasions to explain the project and request the city's help. The helper also sent city staff members to several meetings on the project. The helper expressed interest in the project but would not commit to helping. The helper never declined to provide help. The watershed organization felt "…strung along" by the helper. Meetings were scheduled between the helper and the watershed organization that were continuously rescheduled by the helper. Because the helper did not commit to becoming a partner on the project, the project did not occur.

In Case E (Website Developer), the watershed organization needed someone to help them design and populate their website. Their website was previously maintained by volunteers, and although the maintenance was free, the website did not always get updated on a timely basis. A

board member recommended a person whom they worked with and was known to be qualified on website development. The watershed organization had no prior relationship with the helper.

The helper signed a contract with the organization that included specific deliverables and deadlines. The executive director primarily worked with the helper through e-mail, phone, and at face-to-face meetings at the helper's place of business. The other board members and organization members provided input about the work through the executive director. The helper gave drafts to the executive director of the watershed organization who would then provide changes or corrections that the helper incorporated to the website.

The helper was meeting the specifications and making progress when about halfway through the project he disappeared. The executive director was unable to reach the helper through multiple methods. After three months of non-contact, the helper contacted the executive director and began to work on the project again. Just as the project was nearly complete, the helper disappeared again and has not been heard from since. They paid the helper the project budget up front of the project being complete. A board member was able to complete the website for the organization's use.

In Case G (Technical Expert), manure management the helper approached the watershed organization with the idea of implementing a new manure management program in the watershed. The Board thought it was a "…creative solution" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 17, 2009). One area of concern of the watershed organization is nutrient management. The watershed has a lot of livestock, and therefore an "…excess of manure availability exists in the watershed" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 17, 2009).

The Board knew and trusted the helper because the helper worked in the watershed on technical issues. The Board was not active in the design or implementation of the project. The watershed organization did promote the project to landowners. The helper did all the work. "[The helper] made it easy for us to promote the concept" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 17, 2009). The Board had no specific measuring tool for whether the project was working. The watershed organization assumes the project is reducing water quality problems because manure is leaving the watershed. "It was a perfect storm for us – we knew the standard was being met. We were fortunate to piggyback with the manure brokerage" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 17, 2009).

In Case K (Technical Expert, environmental consultant), an organization member brought a grant opportunity to the board of directors. The board agreed to apply for the grant because the resulting work fit with the broad interpretation of the organization's mission statement. The member created the grant application. The watershed organization was the only applicant for the grant. "We felt kind of obliged to take the bull by the horns" (Anonymous, personal communication, October 6, 2009).

The grant was awarded and specified hiring a consultant to conduct the work of the project. The main goal of the project was to conduct a review of existing reports on the environmental conditions of a specific property and then to evaluate what additional (if any) data was needed to conduct an accurate review of those conditions. Another goal of the project was to involve the community in the process to ensure community members were fully aware of the environmental conditions on the property. A Request for Proposals (RFP) to find a consultant was created by the organization's member who submitted drafts to the board of directors for review. "Not all suggestions by the board made it into the RFP" (Anonymous, personal

communication, October 6, 2009). Several consultants responded to the RFP and one was hired by the organization. The member oversaw the work of the helper. "The member had significant input on who the organization hired" (Anonymous, personal communication, October 6, 2009).

The member became a board member during the project. The board approved the final work plan of the helper. Most, but not all, of the consultant's work was approved by the new board member who had written the RFP. The new board member also submitted payments to the board and approved the work that was completed.

"The [new board] member did a good job of protecting the rest of the board from all the detail work" (Anonymous, personal communication, October 6, 2009). When the helper drafted written reports, the new board member involved at least the President in the approval process. "…the watershed organization's leadership edited the consultant's reports" (Anonymous, personal communication, October 6, 2009). A subcommittee (the President, a past-President, and the new board member) regularly reviewed the helper's work and provided comments. Other members were given the opportunity to review the helper's work when the topic warranted their involvement. A board member accompanied the consultant and the new board member on a number of site visits.

In Case K (Technical Expert), only part of the project was completed. The helper did collect and review all the data that was available. Some data was not available, so it was not possible to make the suggestions for future studies. The agency that awarded the grant provided the watershed organization with an opportunity to renew, but they declined. Although there was a trusting relationship at the start of the project with the helper, the trust declined. The helper included photographs of the property in a draft report that the board members did not want to be disclosed to the public. At the request of the board members, the helper removed the

photographs, but some copies of the report had already been distributed. The Board of Directors became concerned about their liability in relation to the summaries of environmental conditions on the property. The helper had experience with other similar project sites so "…the helper wanted to push the boundaries of the project and openly criticize the property owner's monitoring and investigation of environmental conditions on the property" (Anonymous, personal communication, October 6, 2009).

The watershed organization sought a legal opinion. At question was the board's liability for alleged libel or slander against the property owner for verbal or written statements by either the helper or any watershed organization member communicating on behalf of the organization. "We agreed that the chances of such rash behavior were slim, but we also agreed that corporations and lawyers may easily sue for libel or slander as a legal strategy to discourage public scrutiny of questionable waste handling practices" (Anonymous, personal communication, October 6, 2009).

In Case M (Watershed Plan Writer), the watershed organization needed help to finish writing their watershed action plan. The organization received grant funds from the state to work on completing the plan. Their watershed coordinator was busy managing other projects, so they were looking for someone to help compile the plan. One of the board members was a professor at a local university and suggested that he knew "the perfect intern" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 16, 2009). The watershed organization asked the helper for help. The helper had no prior relationship with the watershed organization other than with the board member who was a professor was also the helper's advisor.

The watershed coordinator provided oversight and guidance to the helper. The helper was given sections of the plan one at a time, and would then complete each section. The helper

took the initiative but within the boundaries of the goal. "[The helper] took ownership right away" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 16, 2009). The helper collected missing data that was needed and also created the document's layout. The helper attended monthly board meetings where progress on each section was discussed. "By the time the plan was completed, there were verbal overviews of the whole thing" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 16, 2009).

The helper provided each finished section to the watershed coordinator for review. However, only two of the board members were active in the process. The reviewed sections were then forwarded the agency funding the work for approval. The watershed action plan was successfully completed and approved by the state. "We knew it was working because the agency approved the sections" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 16, 2009). "Nothing went wrong during this process" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 16, 2009). "[The helper] inspired us to work harder and be more enthusiastic about the work" (Anonymous, personal communication, November 16, 2009). Once the grant which funded the completion of the watershed action plan was expended, the organization has not done any further work to implement the plan.

To summarize, one case (M) utilized five characteristics of a citizen professional, one case (C) utilized four characteristics, two cases (D and K) utilized three characteristics, one case (E) utilized two characteristics and two cases (B and G) utilized one characteristic. None of the cases utilized the characteristics of: a cyclical process of planning, acting, observing, reflecting, and then re-planning; the helper as a facilitator; and the helper encouraged the participants to reflect upon and analyze their situation. Table 5.2 is a summary of the seven cases (B, C, D, E,

G, K and M) that utilized five or fewer characteristics of a citizen professional and which characteristics were utilized in each case.

Table 5.2

Cases that utilized five or fewer characteristics of a citizen professional

Characteristics of a citizen professional	Case B	Case C	Case D	Case E	Case G	Case K	Case M
The helper guides the watershed organization through a process of planning, acting, observing, reflecting, and then re-planning, etc.	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
The watershed organization provides valid information to the helper.	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
The helper is a facilitator.	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
There is a trusting relationship between the helper and the watershed organization.	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes
The watershed organization helps identify the problem and helps create the solution.	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes
The helper encourages the participants to reflect upon and analyze their situation.	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
There are opportunities for the data to be checked and re-checked.	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
There is opportunity for the community organization to provide their knowledge.	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	No

- In five cases (C, D, E, K, and M) the watershed organization provided valid information to the helper.

- In three cases (B, G, and M) there was a trusting relationship between the helper and the watershed organization. In both cases the trust was established prior to the helping relationship. In Case B, the watershed organization trusted the helper because they trusted the helper's organization, in Case G, the watershed organization trusted the helper because they knew of the helper's reputation in their watershed, and in Case M, the watershed organization trusted the helper because a trusted board member recommended the helper.
- In four cases (D, E, K, and M) the watershed organization identified the problem, created the solution on their own, and then looked for a helper to assist implementing the solution. In two cases (B and G), the helper identified the problem and created the solution. In two cases (C and M), the helper assisted the watershed organization in creating and implementing the solution.
- One case (M) there was opportunity for the participants to reflect upon and analyze their situation.
- In three cases (C, D, and K), there was opportunity for the watershed organization to provide their knowledge on the issue.
- One case (C) there was opportunity for the data to be checked and re-checked.

Summary of Independent Variables

In all 14 cases the watershed organization provided valid information to the helper. This variable was tracked by examining how the helper collected information from the organization and what opportunities the organization had to provide feedback and express their concerns during the process.

In ten of the cases the interviewees reported there was a trusting relationship between the helper and the participants. This variable was tracked by asking the interviewees how the

helping relationship started and the nature of any prior experience the watershed organization had with the helper. The interviewees also reported how active they were during the watershed organization's interaction with the helper. Their level of activity could reflect either their distrust for the helper (if they micro-managed that person) or trust (if the organization gave the helper power).

In ten of the cases the interviewees reported there was opportunity for the watershed organization's members to provide their knowledge to the helper during the process. In eleven cases the interviewees also reported that they had opportunity to participate during the process of identifying the problem and creating the solution. This variable was tracked by asking how the central question that needed attention was identified and how the watershed organization participated in the design of the help. Information was also collected on what opportunities the watershed organization had to provide feedback and provide knowledge during the process.

In ten of the cases the interviewees reported they had opportunity to check and re-check the data that was created during the helping process. This variable was tracked by asking how the participants got new and important information from the helper and whether it was always accurate.

The interviewees reported that in eight of the cases the helpers encouraged the participants to reflect upon and analyze their situation. This variable was tracked by asking interviewees how the watershed organization reflected upon their work with the helper and how they knew it was addressing their problem.

There was no case where the helper acted as facilitator and guided the participants through a cyclical process. These variables were tracked by asking interviewees about the role of the helper, and how the issue of concern and its solution was identified and implemented.

Chapter VI: Analysis

The fundamental research question of this study is: Do the characteristics of a citizen professional, when utilized by someone who is helping a watershed organization, continue or increase citizen participation and empowerment and/or assist the successful pursuit of organizational goals? To answer this question, data was gathered on 14 cases where a helper assisted (or was asked to assist) a watershed organization. In Chapter III, possible hypotheses were identified. In this chapter, the data is analyzed and compared with the hypotheses. The data is also analyzed to look for additional or emerging themes. The findings support the hypothesis. The more a helper utilizes the characteristics of a citizen professional, the more positive changes there are to the dependent variables.

The Intersection of the Dependent and Independent Variables

Seven cases (A, F, H, I, J, L, and N) utilized six of the eight characteristics of a citizen professional. Table 6.1 is a summary of these cases and whether there was a change to the dependent variables. For Case L, there is a positive change in all of the dependent variables. All but one (A) had a documented increase in social outcomes. Cases F, I, J, and N had a positive change in all but one variable and in Case A there was a positive change in all but two variables.

Table 6.1

Cases that utilized six characteristics of a citizen professional

Dependent Variables	Case A	Case F	Case H	Case I	Case L	Case J	Case N
Environmental Outcomes	None	None	Yes	None	Yes	None	None
Perceptions of environmental quality	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Environmental Outputs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Citizen Participation	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Social Outcomes	None	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Perceptions of individual competencies and confidences	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

In seven cases (B, C, D, E, G, K, and M), the helper utilized five or fewer of the characteristics of a citizen professional. Table 6.2 is a summary of these cases and the changes to the dependent variables. Only one case (C) had a change to environmental outcomes. In five cases (C, D, G, K, and M) the interviewees reported an increase in their perception of the organization's impact on the environment. Six cases (B, C, E, G, K, and M) had an increase in environmental outputs. Case C is the only case with an increase in citizen participation, while Case K had a decrease in citizen participation. Case K and M experienced an increase in social outcomes, while Case C experienced a decrease in that variable. The participant's interviewed in six of the cases (C, D, E, G, K, and M) reported an increase to their perception of individual

competencies and confidences. Case C experienced an increase in five variables, Case K experienced an increase in four variables, Case G experienced an increase in three variables, Cases D and E experienced an increase in two variables, and Case B only experienced an increase in one variable.

Table 6.2

Cases where the helper used five or fewer characteristics of a citizen professional

Dependent Variables	Case B	Case C	Case D	Case E	Case G	Case K	Case M
Environmental Outcomes	None	Yes	None	None	None	None	None
Perceptions of environmental quality	None	Yes	Yes	None	Yes	Yes	Yes
Environmental Outputs	Yes	Yes	None	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Citizen Participation	None	Yes	None	None	None	Decrease	None
Social Outcomes	None	Decrease	None	None	None	Yes	Yes
Perceptions of individual competencies and confidences	None	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

If the Helper Utilizes the Characteristics of a Citizen Professional

The first hypothesis identified in this study is that the more the actions of the helper resemble the characteristics of a citizen professional, the more there are increases to participation and empowerment of the organization's members and the more likely the watershed organization is to achieve their goals. In seven of the cases (A, F, H, I, J, L, and N), the helper utilized six out

of eight of the characteristics of a citizen professional (see Table 6.3). If the first hypothesis is correct, then these seven cases have continued or increased forms of participation, empowerment, and organizational success.

Environmental outcomes are used in this study to track empowerment and organizational success. Two of the eight cases (H and L) had a documented change to environmental outcomes. Case H had a documented increase in number of feet of restored streambank, and Case L documented an increase in the number acres of constructed wetlands. Because of the difficulty in tracking changes to environmental outcomes as discussed in Chapter II, it is not surprising that only two of the cases documented a change. One possibility why there is no change in the environmental outcomes of the other six cases is that the watershed organization did not set out to monitor changes to the environment during the time they worked with the helper.

Citizen participation was tracked by looking at the changes to the number of active members, volunteers, or amounts of funds raised. In seven of the cases, (A, F, H, I, J, L, and N) there was a documented increase to citizen participation.

Empowerment and organizational success were tracked by looking for changes to social outcomes, such as an increase in the number of completed projects as an indication of an increase in a watershed organization's real power. In six of the cases (F, H, I, J, L, and N) there was a documented increase in social outcomes.

This study also uses perception data to track empowerment, although it is known that perception data can be biased. In all seven cases, there was an increase in the participants' perceptions that the watershed organizations had a greater impact on the environment and on the perceptions of their individual competencies and confidences. For example, the participants may perceive the organization's environmental impacts as higher than they actually are because they

enjoy being involved in the organization and want to think of the organization as impactful. The participants may report a more positive environmental impact or their own individual confidences and competencies to justify why they spend so much time working on the organization's goals. It is possible they do not want to admit to themselves that all of their effort has not actually made any change. This bias does not necessarily exist in these seven cases. However, it is a factor to be considered when analyzing perception data. It is also possible that because the participants were being interviewed face-to-face, they were more likely to report a positive outcome than if they were given an opportunity to answer the same questions anonymously.

Therefore, in seven cases (A, F, H, I, L, J, and N) where the helper utilized six out of eight of the characteristics of a citizen professional, there was an increase in participation, empowerment, and organizational success.

If the Helper Does Not Utilize the Characteristics of a Citizen Professional

To test the first hypothesis, we can examine the cases that did not utilize the characteristics of a citizen professional to discover if they had any change to participation, empowerment, and goal achievement. Seven cases (B, C, D, E, G, K, and M) utilized five or fewer of the characteristics. Only one case (C) had a documented increase to environmental outcomes. Only one case (C) had an increase in citizen participation, but one case (K) had a decrease in citizen participation. Two cases (K and M) had an increase in social outcomes, but one case (C) had a decrease in social outcomes.

Six cases (B, C, E, G, K, and M) did document an increase of environmental outputs, which reflects a change in both organizational success and empowerment. Five cases (C, D, G, K, and M) did report an increase to the perception of their watershed organization's ability to

impact the environment, and six cases (C, D, E, G, K, and M) reported an increase to their perceptions of individual confidences and competencies. However, as discussed earlier, perception data can be unreliable to track empowerment or organizational success on its own.

Therefore based on the results of this study, the fewer the characteristics of a citizen professional that a helper utilizes, there are fewer positive changes to the dependent variables. On the other hand, perceptions of environmental quality and increased competencies reportedly increase regardless of the number of characteristics involved.

What Cases Had the Most Success?

To further test the first hypothesis we can examine the cases with the most change to outcomes and outputs to discover if they were also the cases that also utilized the most characteristics of a citizen professional. Seven of the 14 cases (A, F, H, I, J, L, and N) had an increase in citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success and no decreases. All of these cases also utilized six of the eight characteristics of a citizen professional. Table 6.3 is a summary of cases with the most increases to the dependent variables. The six characteristics that are common to all seven cases are as follows:

- The community organization provides valid information to the helper.
- The community organization helps identify the problem and helps create the solution.
- There are opportunities for the data to be checked and re-checked.
- There is opportunity for the community organization to provide their knowledge.
- There is a trusting relationship between the helper and the community organization.
- The helper encourages the participants to reflect upon and analyze their situation.

The two characteristics that are not present in any case are:

- The helper guides the community organization through a process of planning, acting, observing, reflecting, and then re-planning, etc.
- The helper acts as a facilitator.

The two cases with an increase in every dependent variable are Cases H and L. The other five cases (A, F, I, J, and N) had an increase in enough variables to document an increase in citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success. This provides further evidence that hypothesis one is supported. The more the actions of the helper resemble the characteristics of a citizen professional, the more the participation and empowerment of the organization's members and the more likely the watershed organization is to achieve their goals.

Table 6.3

Cases with the most increases to the dependent variables

Dependent Variables	Case A	Case F	Case H	Case I	Case J	Case L	Case N
Environmental Outcomes	None	None	Yes	None	None	Yes	None
Perceptions of environmental quality	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Environmental Outputs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Citizen Participation	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Social Outcomes	None	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Perceptions of individual competencies and confidences	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Eight cases (B, C, D, E, G, K, and M) had the fewest changes to the dependent variables and/or a decrease in those variables. The helper in Case C utilized four characteristics of a citizen professional, and the watershed organization had positive increases in empowerment and

watershed organization success, but a decrease in citizen participation. The helpers in Cases D and K utilized three characteristics of a citizen professional. The watershed organization in Case D only had an increase in perception data. The watershed organization in Case K experienced an increase in empowerment and organizational success, but a decrease in citizen participation. The helpers in Cases E and G utilized two characteristics of a citizen professional, and the watershed organization experienced only an increase to environmental outputs and perception data.

To summarize, in cases where the helper utilized four or fewer characteristics of a citizen professional, the watershed organizations only experienced increases in some, but not all, of the dependent variables. See Table 6.4 for a summary of the cases with the fewest changes and/or a decrease to the dependent variables.

Table 6.4

Cases with the fewest changes and/or a decrease to the dependent variables

Dependent Variables	Case B	Case C	Case D	Case E	Case G	Case K	Case M
Environmental Outcomes	None	Yes	None	None	None	None	None
Perceptions of environmental quality	None	Yes	Yes	None	Yes	Yes	Yes
Environmental Outputs	Yes	Yes	None	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Citizen Participation	None	Yes	None	None	None	Decrease	None
Social Outcomes	None	Decrease.	None	None	None	Yes	Yes
Perceptions of individual competencies and confidences	None	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Sub-hypothesis: If the Helper Uses a Cyclical Process and/or Acts as a Facilitator

The first sub-hypothesis of this study is if the helper guides the watershed organization through a process of planning, acting, observing, reflecting, and then re-planning, etc., then the watershed organization has increased forms of citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success. The second sub-hypothesis is if the helper fills the role of facilitator, then the watershed organization has increased forms of citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success. None of the helpers in the 14 cases utilized either the cyclical process or the role of facilitator. Thus, the findings shed no light on these hypotheses.

In practice, participatory action research may not use every step of the cycle in every application. For example, some projects may not get past the planning stage. It is also possible that these cases are in a timeframe that represents only a portion of the project cycle. For example, in Case H (Streambank Restoration), the helper was engaged by the watershed organization to assist implementing a project the organization had already prioritized and designed. The helper only assisted in the action step of the cycle. Further research is needed to fully test these hypotheses.

Sub-hypothesis: If There is a Trusting Relationship

The third sub-hypothesis of this study states that if an organization has a trusting relationship with a helper, then the watershed organization has increased forms of success, participation, and empowerment. In ten of the cases (A, B, F, G, H, I, J, L, M, and N) the interviewees reported there was a trusting relationship between the helper and the participants. This variable was tracked by asking the interviewees how the helping relationship started and what prior experience the watershed organization had with the helper. The interviewees also reported how active they were individually during the watershed organization's interaction with

the helper. Seven of the ten cases (A, F, H, I, J, L, and N) are also the cases with the most increases to the outcomes and outputs to track citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success. Three of the ten cases (B, G, and M) had increases in some, but not all, of the dependent variables.

In six of the ten cases (A, B, G, I, L, and N), trust between the watershed organization and the helper was established prior to the start of the helping relationship. In four of these six cases (B, I, L, and N) the interviewees stated they had trust in the helper even before the helping relationship began because they trusted the agency the helper represented. In four of the ten cases (F, H, J, and M), the trust came as a result of the relationship. A trusting relationship exists in all eight of the cases (A, F, H, I, J, L, M, and N) where the helper also utilized also six of the eight characteristics of a citizen professional.

The factors that led to a trusting relationship are the existence of a prior positive relationship between the helper and the watershed organization; the watershed organization trusted the agency the helper represented; or the helper earned the watershed organization's trust over time because the helper's actions were trustworthy.

If There is no Trusting Relationship

In the four cases (C, D, E, and K) that did not report the presence of a trusting relationship between the watershed organization and the helper, the trust was either lost during the relationship, or was never present. It is notable that in the two cases (D and E) with the least increase in the dependent variables are also the two cases where the interviewees reported there was no trusting relationship at any point in their interaction with the helper. It is possible that trust is a characteristic that has to exist in a relationship between a helper and a watershed organization in order for that help to be successful.

It is also notable that in Cases C and K the watershed organizations had a trusting relationship with the helper in the beginning of the project and that trust deteriorated during the project. In Case C an incident occurred that led to the deterioration of the trusting relationship and also caused social outcomes to decrease. In Case K the incident that led to the loss of trust by the watershed organization also led to a decrease in citizen participation. Both cases experienced an increase empowerment and organizational success. However, the increases occurred while a trusting relationship existed. Once the trusting relationship ended, both cases reported a decrease in dependent variables. These two cases represent the possibility that if the characteristics of a citizen professional are violated, such as a loss of trust, then it can lead to a decrease in citizen participation, empowerment, and/or organizational success.

Sub-hypothesis: If the Organization Helps Identify the Problem and Create the Solution

The third sub-hypothesis of this study is that if an organization helps identify the problem and create the solution, by providing valid information to the helper, then the watershed organization has increased forms of success, participation, and empowerment. In eleven cases (A, C, D, E, F, H, I, J, L, M, and N), the watershed organization did help identify the problem and help create the solution by providing valid information to the helper. Seven of those cases (A, F, H, I, J, L, and N) are the cases with the most increases to the dependent variables. However in Cases C, D, E, and M the organization helped identify and create the solution, but they were among the cases with the least increases to the dependent variables. Also, the three cases (B, G, and K) that did not utilize this characteristic experienced more increases in the dependent variables than Cases D and E, which implies that the absence of this characteristic does not lessen the watershed organization's ability to achieve some increases to citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success.

If the Helper Acts as an Outside Expert

Another way that a helper can assist a community organization is when the helper is an outside expert and acts as an expert resource or assists an organization by diagnosing problems and prescribing solutions (Boyte, 2008; Schein, 2009). Outside experts are those professionals that provide a service (Boyte, 2008). They are in charge of the process, act alone to intervene and fix the problem, and provide all of the knowledge (Boyte, 2008). Of the 14 cases included in this study, two of the cases (B and G) are examples of the helper as an outside expert.

In Case B (Technical Expert, scientist) the helper approached the watershed organization and offered to collect water quality data in the watershed. The watershed organization accepted the helper's offer because they needed more data for their own use. The helper implemented the entire process of data collection and analysis and provided semi-annual reports to the watershed organization. Once the project started, the watershed organization gave no feedback or input to the helper. They did not participate in the project implementation or check the accuracy of the data. The watershed organization uses summaries of the water quality data in news articles and community outreach publications. In this case, the helper utilizes only two characteristics of a citizen professional. The watershed organization has a trusting relationship with the helper, and they provided valid information to the helper. In this case, the helper did successfully assist the watershed organization reach its goal of acquiring more water quality data by acting as an outside expert.

In Case G (Technical Expert, manure management) the helper approached the watershed organization with the idea of implementing a new manure management program in the watershed. One area of concern of the watershed organization is nutrient management. The Board knew and trusted the helper because the helper worked in the watershed on technical

issues. The Board was not active in the design or implementation of the project. The helper did all the work. The watershed organization assumes the project is reducing water quality problems because manure is leaving the watershed. In this case the helper successfully assisted the watershed organization reach its goal of reducing available nutrients in the watershed that could potentially run in to rivers and streams.

In both Case B and G, the helper utilized characteristics of an outside expert. The helpers acted as an expert resource and assisted the organizations by diagnosing problems and prescribing solutions. Both helpers provided a service, were in charge of the process, acted alone to intervene and fix the problem, and provided all of the knowledge during the project. In both of these cases, the help did increase the watershed organization's environmental outputs in the form of implemented projects. The interviewees in Case G reported an increase to their perception of the watershed organization's ability to impact the environment, although the project did not include a monitoring component. Therefore, no actual impact to the environment was tracked. The interviewees in Case G also reported an increase to their perception of individual competencies and confidences through the involvement with the helper who gave them a "…better understanding of manure management." Therefore, it is possible that if a helper acts as an outside expert the watershed organization can increase environmental outputs as in the cases of B and G, where the output was the successful implementation of a project.

Sub-hypothesis: If the Helper Encourages Reflection of the Situation

In eight cases (A, F, H, I, J, L, M, and N), the helper encouraged the participants to reflect upon and analyze their situation. Seven of these cases (A, F, H, I, J, L, and N) are the cases with the most increases to the dependent variables. These findings suggest that in

organizations where the helper encourages reflection, the organization experienced increased forms of success, participation, and empowerment.

Sub-hypothesis: If the Organization Provides Their Knowledge

The fifth sub-hypothesis states if there is opportunity for the watershed organization to provide their knowledge, then the watershed organization has increased forms of success, participation, and empowerment. In ten of the cases (A, C, D, F, H, I, J, K, L, and N) this characteristic was present. Six of those cases (A, F, H, I, J, L, and N) are the cases where the helper utilized six of the eight characteristics of a citizen professional. However, the interviewees in Cases C, D, and K reported there was opportunity for the watershed organization to provide their knowledge during the process, but these cases are also among the seven cases with the fewest increases to the dependent variables. The four cases (B, E, G, and M) that did not utilize this characteristic are also among the seven cases with the fewest increases to the dependent variables. From these results it is difficult to draw a conclusion or inference on this sub-hypothesis.

Sub-hypothesis: If There is Opportunity for the Data to be Checked

The seventh sub-hypothesis of this study is that in cases where there is opportunity for the data to be checked and re-checked, the watershed organization has increased forms of success, participation, and empowerment. The helpers in ten cases (A, C, F, H, I, J, K, L, M, and N) this study utilized this characteristic. Seven of these cases (A, F, H, I, J, L, and N) are the cases with the most increases to the dependent variables. However, three cases (C, K, and M) that utilized this characteristic and are among the cases with the fewest changes or a decrease to the dependent variables. Case C documented or reported an increase in all of the variables but had a decrease in social outcomes. Case K and M documented or reported an increase in all of

the variables but environmental outcomes (they conducted no monitoring on this variable) and citizen participation. It is possible that in cases where there is opportunity for the data to be checked and re-checked, the watershed organization has increased some forms of citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success.

Significant Findings: Trust and Reflection

Of all the hypothesis and sub-hypotheses identified in this study, two hypotheses emerge as having the most impact to outcomes and outputs. When a trusting relationship occurs between a helper and a watershed organization, there are increases to citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success. When a helper encourages a watershed organization to reflect upon and analyze their situation, there are increases to citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success. To further evaluate these hypotheses, the cases that had these characteristics present are compared with the cases that did not have these characteristics present, using the number of dependent variables that increased. See Table 6.5 for an illustration of this evaluation.

Table 6.5

Comparison of cases with or without trust and with or without reflection

Average # of variables with an increase	If a trusting relationship existed	If no trusting relationship existed
Of all 6 variables	4.4	3.25
Of the 2 perceived variables	1.8	1.75
Of the 4 documented variables	2.6	1.5
Average # of variables with an increase	If the organization utilized reflection	If the organization did not utilize reflection
Of all 6 variables	5.0	2.75
Of the 2 perceived variables	2.0	1.66
Of the 4 documented variables	3.0	1.66

The cases with a trusting relationship are compared with the cases where no trust exists, using the number of dependent variables that increased. In cases where there is a trusting relationship, the number of variables increased an average of 4.25 compared with an average of 3.25 for the cases with no trusting relationship. To reduce the potential bias from the perception data, the two types of variables are analyzed separately. In cases where there is a trusting relationship, the variables that were tracked by environmental outcomes and outputs, and social outcomes increased an average of 2.6 compared with an average of 1.5 for cases with no trusting relationship.

The cases where the helpers encouraged the watershed organization to reflect upon and analyze their situation are compared with the cases where there was no reflection, using the dependent variables that increased. In cases where there is reflection, the dependent variables increased an average of 5.0 compared with an average of 2.75 for the cases with no reflection. To reduce the potential bias from the perception data, the two types of variables are analyzed

separately. The variables that were tracked by looking at environmental outcomes and outputs and social outcomes increased an average of 3.0 for the cases with reflection compared with an average of 1.66 for the cases with no reflection.

These comparisons are further evidence that these two characteristics do positively impact levels of citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success. This analysis helps us to understand how the documented variables are better measures of these two characteristics than the variables that use the perception data.

Limitations

Several limitations of this research were identified during the process of designing, conducting, and analyzing this study. First, as discussed several times in previous chapters, there are validity concerns with using perception data. This study used two questions about perceptions to help track organizational success and empowerment. The problem with using perceptions is that people who are involved in the organization may perceive environmental outcomes as greater than they actually are because they enjoy being involved in the organization. Cognitive dissonance occurs when participants report a more positive environmental outcome to justify why they spend so much time working on the organization's goals (Koontz and Thomas, 2006).

Several of the interviewees responded with answers to the questions about their perceptions that could be considered to have a validity concern. For example, in Case D (City Official), interviewees reported they perceived the watershed organization's ability to positively impact the environment as having increased as a result of working with the helper. The interviewee reported a positive increase even though the helper never actually provided any assistance to the watershed organization. In Case K (Environmental Consultant), the project was

never completed, but the interviewees reported that their perception of the watershed organization's ability to positively impact the environment increased because "…we have increased the information we have access to." Even though the watershed organization cannot use that information because it is incomplete, the interviewees perceive their ability to impact the environment as better than before they worked with the helper.

These are two examples where the perception data might not reflect actual conditions. The literature suggests that in order to conduct a valid study that uses perception data, the study should examine direct and objective measures of environmental conditions such as land use or ecological changes where possible (Koontz and Thomas, 2006). To minimize the effects from cognitive dissonance, data was collected on the organization's actual goals achieved and power. Of the 14 cases in this study, only three (C, H, and L) tracked the organization's impact on environmental conditions. In the other 11 cases, the watershed organization either did not set out to track that data or the project did not have a direct impact on the environment (such as website development). Without information on impacts to direct and objective measures of environmental conditions, the use of perception data is not as valid as other variables for tracking organizational success and empowerment.

A second limitation of this study is researcher bias. Although a strength of case study design is that the researcher is deeply involved in the inquiry process, this can cause the researcher to bring her own values, theories, beliefs, and expectations into the data that is collected or into how the data is organized in the analysis. In this study, the researcher also has previous knowledge of each watershed organization (but not each case). To minimize the effects of the bias, the researcher contributed writings to a journal to reflect on the inquiry process and

data analysis. The researcher was especially thoughtful while analyzing and organizing the data to attempt to reduce bias.

A third limitation of this research is the size of the sample set. Although all 12 watershed organizations in the Great Miami River Watershed were invited to participate in this study, only eight organizations agreed to participate. It is possible that the timing of the interviews was bad for some organizations because it coincided with agricultural harvest time. Also, there are over 6,000 watershed groups throughout the U.S. that might have experience with helpers. Although it may not be feasible to conduct focus group interviews with thousands of organizations, adding a survey instrument to this study could increase the amount of data collected. This study did not have the time or resources to include a survey. However, adding a survey instrument to studies of this type could dramatically increase the knowledge they provide on the role of the helper in watershed organizations.

The results of this study also included two empty data sets. In this study none of the helpers acted as a facilitator or utilized a cyclical process. By increasing the number of cases studied through the use of a survey instrument, more insight could be gained into whether helpers in other cases utilize these two characteristics, and whether their presence increases citizen participation, empowerment, or organizational success.

By using a survey instrument that is anonymous could also reduce a validity concern that happens during face-to-face interviews. It is possible that interviewees gives biased answers to questions posed by an interviewer in order to answer the way an interviewee thinks an interviewer wants to hear, instead of a more accurate answer.

Chapter VII: Implications for Leadership and Change

Chapter VII begins with a discussion of other hypotheses, implications for watershed organizations that are faced with an adaptive challenge, and for the study of leadership. Finally, ideas for future research that emerged during the study are presented.

Possible Hypothesis: Watershed Organization Type

There are three types of watershed organizations, citizen-based, mixed, and agency-based. Of the eight watershed organizations that participated in this study, two are citizen-based, two are agency-based, and four are mixed type watershed organizations. Of the seven cases (A, F, H, I J, L, and N) with the most increases to the dependent variables, there are both mixed and agency-based type watershed organizations. Of the cases (B, C, D, E, G, K, and M) with the least increases to the dependent variables, there are citizen-based, mixed, and agency-based types of watershed organizations. From the results of this study, no conclusion can be drawn about whether the type of watershed organization has an effect on how the characteristics of the citizen professional impact citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success.

Possible Hypothesis: Government and Nongovernmental Relationships

In chapter two a discussion of the relationships that occur between governmental and nongovernmental organizations identified four different types: collaboration, co-optation, complementary, and adversarial. Five watershed organizations had ongoing collaborative relationships with government, and three had an ongoing complementary relationship. Of the seven cases (A, F, H, I J, L, and N) with the most increases to the dependent variables, there are both collaborative and complementary relationships. Of the seven cases (B, C, D, E, G, K, and M) with the least increases to the dependent variables, there are both collaborative and complementary relationships. From the results of this study, no conclusion can be drawn about

whether the type of relationship has an effect on how the characteristics of the citizen professional impact citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success.

Possible Hypothesis: Size of a Watershed Organization's Budget

During the document analysis, the size of each participating watershed organization's budget was recorded. The budgets ranged in size from $0 to $50K for 2009. However, the cases of the helpers discussed by the participants were from previous years, so no conclusion can be drawn from whether the budget size has an effect on how the characteristics of the citizen professional impact citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success.

Emerging Hypothesis: Adaptive vs. Technical Work

While technical problems are relatively easy to define, adaptive challenges are complex. Technical problems can be addressed using a known solution by someone who has the applicable knowledge and authority to solve the problem. The focus of water pollution problems in the U.S. has moved from a technical problem – point sources are easily located by the pipe from which they originate – to an adaptive challenge. Adaptive challenges take work, learning, and change in how people perceive the problems and possible solutions that can only be accomplished by involving stakeholders (Heifetz, Kania, & Kramer, 2009). Nonpoint source pollution is a socially and environmentally complex problem that is difficult to define because it originates from many diffuse sources.

Solutions to nonpoint source problems are mainly voluntary. Therefore, solutions are more successful when all of the different people who cause, and are affected by the problem, are involved in the creation and implementation. If the stakeholders are involved in the identification and development of the solution, they are more likely to adopt that solution themselves.

As discussed in Chapter I, watershed management is an adaptive approach that gives community members the opportunity to help identify problems and create solutions to reducing pollution that best meet the needs of the community. Both defining the problem and identifying the solution to nonpoint source challenges requires learning new or different ways of doing things, and an adaptive approach can help meet those challenges (Heifetz, Kania, et al., 2009). The learning that occurs in an adaptive process creates change that can only be accomplished by the people affected by the problem – not by a person who just brings attention to the issue.

While a helper can solve a technical problem which requires no learning or change for an organization, a helper cannot solve an adaptive challenge for an organization. When nonpoint source problems are addressed using a technical approach it is harder to successfully address those problems. Solutions that "…depend on a known answer and the authority to impose a solution can never be effective in solving adaptive problems that require multiple stakeholders to clarify their values, choose among painful tradeoffs, develop previously unknown solutions, and voluntarily implement them" (Heifetz, Kania, et al., 2009, p.7). With this in mind, a hypothesis that emerged in this study is that if a helper utilized the characteristics of a citizen professional and assisted a watershed organization meet an adaptive challenge by using an adaptive approach, there are increased forms of citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success.

In this study, eight cases (A, C, F, H, I, L, M, and N) had adaptive challenges that were addressed using an adaptive approach. All of them had an increase to four or more variables. Table 20 is a summary of whether the cases are an adaptive or technical challenge, what type of solution was used to address that challenge, how many variables increased, and what characteristics were utilized of each case.

Table 7.1

Adaptive vs. Technical

Cases with the most increases to the dependent variables	Nature of challenge	Type of solution	Number of dependent variables	Number of independent variables
A-Watershed Plan Writer	Adaptive	Adaptive	4	6
F-Agricultural Practices	Adaptive	Adaptive	5	6
H-Streambank Restoration	Adaptive	Adaptive	5	6
I-Public Relations	Adaptive	Adaptive	5	6
J-Website Development	Technical	Adaptive	5	6
L-Wetlands	Adaptive	Adaptive	5	6
N-Finance Manager	Adaptive	Adaptive	5	6
Cases with the fewest increases to the dependent variables	**Nature of challenge**	**Type of solution**	**Number of dependent variables**	**Number of independent variables**
B-Scientist	Technical	Technical	1	2
C-Executive Director	Adaptive	Adaptive	4	4
D-City Official	Adaptive	N/A	2	3
E-Website Development	Technical	Technical	2	2
G-Manure Management	Technical	Technical	3	2
K-Environmental Consultant	Adaptive	Technical	4	3
M-Watershed Plan Writer	Adaptive	Adaptive	4	6

In one case (D) the watershed organization was faced with an adaptive challenge but the person that was asked to help never agreed to assist the watershed organization.

In one case (K) the watershed organization illustrates what can happen when an adaptive challenge is addressed with a technical solution. Instead of the community organization facilitating an adaptive approach, they treated it as a technical problem, and turned to an outside expert for help. In an adaptive approach, the stakeholders that are affected by the challenge are

involved in the process of creating and implementing the solution. In Case K, the regulatory agency awarded a grant to the watershed organization to conduct the project. This grant program is specifically designed as an adaptive approach to the adaptive challenge of addressing large-scale pollution problems in a community. An objective of the grant program is to enable community organizations to engage other community members in the process, thereby involving stakeholders in the adaptive approach.

The watershed organization used the grant funds to engage an environmental consultant to assist them gather the data, make recommendations for future monitoring on the property to complete the knowledge of the problem, and act as a liaison between the community members and the agency in charge of regulating the pollution problem. However, this approach was unsuccessful for several reasons. First, the property owner would not release the monitoring data so the historic dataset was not complete. In an adaptive approach, involving the stakeholders such as the property owner and community members can help to build a trusting relationship among the participants. The knowledge of the stakeholders helps create a solution that is amenable to everyone involved so there is acceptance, buy-in, and possibly voluntary implementation of the solution. Instead of an adaptive approach the consultant conducted most of the work on his own. Second, the watershed organization chose not to continue the project when they became concerned about their own liability because the consultant had released information without their approval.

In three cases (B, E, and G), the watershed organization had a technical problem that was addressed using a technical solution. Cases B and G are also the only two cases where the helper acted as an outside expert. The helper in Case E also demonstrated some actions of an outside

expert until he disappeared and the solution was not completed. Cases B, E, and G are also among the cases with the fewest increases to the dependent variables.

In sum, based on this analysis there are increases in citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success if the helper utilizes the characteristics of a citizen professional and assists the watershed organization in addressing an adaptive challenge with an adaptive approach.

Emerging Hypothesis: Citizen Professionalism as Leadership

Heifetz (1994) defines adaptive work as leadership that recognizes that a change in values, attitudes, and behaviors is needed in order to address large societal concerns. "Leadership means influencing the community to face its problems…mobilizing people to tackle tough problems" (pp. 14-15). When a helper acts as a citizen professional and assists an organization to address an adaptive challenge with an adaptive approach, that helper is doing leadership. Alternatively, someone with authority and the right tools can also solve problems. When a helper acts as an outside expert and addresses a technical problem with a technical solution, they are in an authority position. For example, in Case B (Scientist), the helper approached the watershed organization and asked if they needed additional water quality data on their waterways. The organization also identified that goal, so they welcomed the helper's assistance. The helper had the tools to create and implement a watershed monitoring program and did all the work himself. The helper had authority to conduct the work by virtue of his professional association. Therefore, the watershed organization trusted the helper. This case helps reveal another aspect of trust. Authority is a trust; therefore a helper who has authority is trusted by an organization (Heifetz, 1994).

Recommendations for Future Research

During this research study, several ideas emerged that could be developed into future studies that could add knowledge on the helping relationship, the citizen professional, and/or watershed organization success. This study has several limitations and a lot more work can be done on these topics. Future studies could use this research to refine additional hypotheses.

First, more research is needed on the application of the characteristics of a citizen professional and their influence on citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success. As previously mentioned, combining a qualitative technique such as case study with a quantitative technique, such as a survey instrument, could greatly increase the amount of cases in a study. This increase in cases could further test the hypotheses and provide insight into the two characteristics of this study where there was no data (the helper as a facilitator and the helper utilizes a cyclical process). Another idea is to lengthen the time period that is studied on each case to better understand if the watershed organizations were just at one point in the cyclical process. Future studies on the helper in watershed organization could also focus on the two critical hypothesis, trust and reflection that emerged during this study. Future studies could also examine whether the characteristics of citizen professionals are equally important across the roles. For example, the administrative expert increased citizen participation in both cases, but the technical expert did not increase citizen participation in every case.

Another idea that emerged is to study the factors that must be present for a watershed organization to be ready for help to be successful. What are the factors that ready them? Does an organization need a strong board? Do they need a current strategic plan? Are they asking for leadership or authority?

There are still many opportunities to grow the understanding of watershed organizations. One idea that emerged during this study is to research the impact of government funding on watershed organization success. Another idea is to examine how government funding affects the process of empowerment.

Chapter VIII: Conclusion

In conclusion, this final chapter provides a summary of the background for the study, its purpose, and how it fills a gap in scholarship. This chapter also provides lessons for watershed organizations that need help and lessons for helpers looking to provide assistance to organizations in their community. This chapter concludes with the significance of the study.

The focus of water quality issues in the U.S. has moved from managing point source (end of the pipe) pollution to looking at nonpoint source pollution problems (diffuse runoff from the land). A watershed approach considers the complex, interrelated issues of nonpoint source pollution including land use, water quality and quantity, and biological needs. In the past, point source pollution was adequately addressed using a technical solution. However, nonpoint source pollution cannot be fully addressed with these same solutions because they are too complex and require the involvement of community members to help solve them. Nonpoint source pollution originates from many sources that are unregulated such as runoff from urban lawns.

The protection of water resources is typically the responsibility of government and many agencies have moved from a command and control type approach to a decentralized watershed-based approach to addressing water pollution challenges. Despite government attention to watershed management, water pollution still exists and can have dire impacts on water quality. This has led private citizens to organize and form community organizations to address shortfalls in water policies. In 2008, more than 6,000 watershed organizations across the U.S. worked to protect and restore water resources in their communities. One approach to meeting these goals is for the watershed organization to provide voluntary incentives to landowners to change their behaviors. Watershed organizations rely on citizen participation to help accomplish their goals through the active involvement of volunteers and to fund their activities. Citizen participation is

also an important aspect to an effective collaborative effort with the people that have influence over the pollutant sources. One reason that people are an attracted to a watershed organization is they have real power to foster leadership, raise funds, and develop strategies to achieve goals. This power can come from the process of empowerment.

Because watershed organizations are many times run by volunteers, ideally the board of directors consists of people with a diverse set of skills so they can assist the organization to accomplish its goals. However, many watershed organizations turn to people outside the organization to help increase their power. An outside expert is a helper that assists an organization by identifying and solving the problem with little involvement from the organization. A citizen professional is a helper guided by a set of characteristics that are defined by the principles of an effective helping relationship and the principles of participatory action research. The helper works in partnership with an organization to identify, design, implement, and reflect on a solution. Through this help, the watershed organization learns how to address future problems with less outside assistance. In this helping relationship there is mutual trust between the helper and the watershed organization, the organization is involved in creating the solution, and it is able to implement the solution.

The purpose of this study was to discover whether the characteristics of citizen professionalism, when utilized by someone who is helping a watershed organization, can continue or increase citizen participation and empowerment in community organizations as well as the successful pursuit of organizational goals. To research that hypothesis, 14 cases from eight watershed organizations were examined for instances where the helper utilized the characteristics of a citizen professional (the independent variables) and the use of those characteristics coincided with changes to citizen participation, empowerment, and the successful

pursuit of organizational goals (the dependent variables). Data on the variables was tracked through document analysis and focus group interviews.

The results of the study illustrate that in cases where the helper utilized a majority of the characteristics of a citizen professional, there were positive changes to the dependent variables. In seven of the 14 cases the helper utilized six of the eight characteristics of a citizen professional. In all of these cases there was an increase in citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success. In six of the 14 cases, the helper utilized four or fewer of the characteristics of a citizen professional. These cases had some decreases, some increases, and some unchanged instances of citizen participation, empowerment, and organization success. In one case the watershed organization experienced no increase in the variables that tracked citizen participation, but the helper did utilize six of the eight characteristics. This outlier is possibly due to the study's use of perception data to track empowerment. It may be possible to generalize the results of this study to other watershed organizations and because watershed organizations are part of the tradition of community-based organizing, to generalize the results to community-based organizations with a focus other than water resources.

Discussion of Important Findings

Trust emerged as one of two characteristics of the citizen professional as having the most impact to the dependent variables of the study. An effective helping relationship depends on trust (Dzur, 2008; Heifetz, 1994; Schein, 2009; Stoecker, 2005). When a trusting relationship exists between a helper and a watershed organization, there are increases to citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success. This trust can exist prior to the helping relationship or can develop as a result of the relationship. In cases where trust did not exist, the watershed organization did not experience as many increases as those organizations where trust did exist.

The cases that experienced a decrease in trust also had a decrease in citizen participation, empowerment, or organizational success.

Reflection emerged as a second critical characteristic of a citizen professional. In cases where the helper encouraged the watershed organization to reflect on the process, there are increases to the citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success. Reflection is a communication process that encourages the participants to evaluate how a solution is working and if it is addressing the problem. If not then the solution can be adapted to better solve the problem. Reflection is a key component of adaptive management.

This study provides examples of cases where the helpers acted as outside experts and as citizen professionals. These cases illustrate that while outside experts can effectively help watershed organizations with technical problems; adaptive challenges require the help of a citizen professional. In the cases where a helper used an adaptive approach to assist a watershed organization, the participants were involved in creating and implementing the solution alongside the helper. The organization was directly involved in the process and the participants gained skills to deal with future problems with less help. So regardless if a problem is technical or adaptive, by assisting an organization to learn how to handle future challenges citizen professionalism breaks the pattern of dependency on the outside expert. The cases in this study illustrate that even though the scholarship on adaptive leadership is well-established, watershed organizations still mistake authority for leadership and seek to solve adaptive challenges with technical approaches.

Leadership is about getting people to tackle complex and challenging problems (Heifetz, Kania, et al., 2009). Leadership helps identify adaptive challenges, manages the change process, involves the affected parties in the process, and facilitates the difficult work of changing

attitudes, values, and behaviors (Heifetz, Kania, et al., 2009). Helpers that utilize the characteristics of a citizen professional shift the focus to adaptive work, because the relationship begins with pure inquiry (Heifetz, 1994). Pure inquiry is a communication process that enables a helper to discover exactly what assistance is needed, and what role the helper should fill (Schein, 2009). Pure inquiry helps to create an equitable relationship, because the organization is given the opportunity to contribute their knowledge to the process (Schein, 2009). By using local knowledge, the organization is more likely to trust the helper and work to create a solution the organization will implement.

Lessons for Watershed Organizations

Several themes emerged from this study that could be useful for watershed organizations, who are looking for help, that provide insight into how to find a helper who can assist them achieve success.

- Look for the type of solution based on the type of challenge. "The mistake that community organizations make is they have a complex issue that needs adaptive work and they ask for authority instead of leadership" (Heifetz, Grashow, et al., 2009).
- Trust is an essential element in a helping relationship.
- Do not mistake authority for leadership.
- Reflection during the helping relationship helps to ensure a watershed organization is getting help that is working.

Lessons for Helpers

Aside from the using the characteristics of a citizen professional, several key themes emerged from this study for people who want to help watershed organizations achieve success.

- Offer the type of solution based on the type of challenge the organization is facing.

- Helpers who are technically-focused can still use elements of adaptive work to assist an organization.
- When watershed organizations ask for authority, helpers must resist and begin the relationship with pure inquiry to discover what kind of help is truly needed. (Heifetz, Grashow, et al., 2009)
- Start the relationship with pure inquiry (Schein, 2009; Heifetz, 1994).
- Provide opportunity for reflection during the helping relationship.

Significance of the Study

This study was designed to fill a gap in the scholarship on the role of the helper to assist community organizations increase authentic citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success, and provide a better understanding of how a general theory of a helping relationship applies to community organizations. The significance of these issues extends to the role of citizens in policy issues and specifically to the critical role of citizen professionals in increasing the effectiveness of community organizations to participate in policy issues.

A general theory of an effective helping relationship emphasizes readiness, trust, communication, collaboration, and an equitable relationship. When best applied, this theory guides the actions of a citizen professional. This study used the principles of an effective helping relationship combined with the principles of participatory action research to define eight characteristics of a citizen professional. These characteristics, especially trust and reflection, can be used as a guide for watershed organizations to find a helper that will assist them so they are more likely to have increased forms of citizen participation, empowerment, and organizational success.

> Imagine the differences in behavior when people operate with the idea that 'leadership means influencing the community to follow the leader's vision' versus 'leadership means influencing the community to face its problems'. In the first instance, influence is the mark of leadership; a leader gets people to accept [her] vision, and communities address problems by looking to [her]. In the second, progress on problems is the measure of leadership; leaders mobilize to face problems, and communities make progress on problems because leaders challenge and help them do so. (Heifetz & Laurie, 2001, p. 14-15)

Appendix

Appendix A: Focus Group Interview Questions

Interviewer first explains the context of the research study, including the definition of a helper, and the purpose of the focus group.

1. How was the central question that needed the helper's assistance identified?
2. How did the organization participate in the design of the assistance?
3. How was the solution implemented? Who implemented the solution?
4. How was the solution evaluated? How did you know it was addressing your central question?
5. How did you reflect upon your work with the helper?
6. How did the helper collect information from the organization?
7. Did you get new and important information from the helper? Was it accurate?
8. What opportunities did the organization have to provide feedback/input/express concerns into the process? How often?
9. What opportunities did the organization have to provide their knowledge on the central question to the helper?
10. What was the role of the helper?
11. How did the helping relationship start? (Who initiated the helping process? Did you have experience with the helper prior to this instance?)
12. How active were the participants (members of the community organization) in the process?
13. Were the participants (members of the community organization) in the process equal to the helper? Why or why not?

14. After working with the helper, how did you feel that your organization's impact on the environment changed? Did it improve or decrease?
15. After working with the helper, how did you feel that your personal capability/abilities/confidence to help the organization accomplish its goals changed? Did it improve or decrease?

Appendix B: Letter of Invitation to Study Participants

ADDRESS

DATE

Dear NAME:

I am conducting a research study on watershed organizations within the Great Miami River Watershed. This study will help me fulfill the requirements to earn a doctoral degree at Antioch University in the Leadership and Organizational Change program. The purpose of this study is to discover whether helpers, who utilize the principles of an effective helping relationship, assist organizations reach their goals and/or increase participation and power.

Your organization may have hired a helper to fill a variety of roles including facilitator, organizational development consultant, researcher, or attorney. The role of the helper could also include government agency employees, fiscal agents, or scientists. Your organization might have paid this person – or received their services for free. I am looking for instances where you worked with this person for a minimum of three months. It is irrelevant to the study on who the specific person is – no names will be used during this research study.

I need your help to make this study successful. To gather the data, I will conduct one group interview of 3-4 people from your organization including yourself. The interviews will last one to one and half hours and are scheduled at your convenience – both time and location. The people I am most interested in include the board members, staff, or members of your organization that were present at the time of the work with the helper.

I will conduct the interviews, record them, and take notes using flip charts and markers. After each group interview is complete, I will send a summary back to the participants to verify its accuracy. Hopefully, the results of this research will be useful to your organization, watershed, and other, community organizations, who are looking to engage the help of an outside professional.
This is a voluntary study! If you choose to participate, please contact me. I will also need the names and contact information for 4 people from your organization to schedule the group interview.
Please contact me if have any questions at (937) 223-1271 or shall@antioch.edu. I will follow up this letter with a phone call to you within two weeks. Thank you for your time and attention!

Sincerely,

Sarah Hippensteel

Appendix C: Participant Consent to a Study about Helpers

You have been asked to participate in a research study conducted by Sarah Hippensteel Hall, a doctoral candidate in the Leadership and Organizational Change program at Antioch University, Yellow Springs, Ohio.

Purpose of Study
This research involves the study of helpers and in particular, the role of the helper in watershed organizations in the Great Miami River Watershed. Helpers are defined as any person who provides assistance to an organization. They can fill a variety of roles including financial officer, facilitator, organizational development consultant, scientist, researcher, or attorney or government agency employee. The person may have been hired, or offered their services at no expense.

The purpose of this study is to discover whether helpers, who utilize the principles of an effective helping relationship, assist organizations reach their goals and/or increase participation and power.

Study Procedures
The study involves, at a minimum, one conversational face-to-face group interview with three or four people from your organization. The interview is arranged at your convenience. It is expected to last no more than 1 and a half hour. Ms. Hippensteel Hall will take tape record and take notes during the interview. Once the interview notes are typed and summarized, a copy of the summary is provided to you for your review and comment. Those comments are incorporated into the summary.

Confidentiality
Your name will be kept confidential in all aspects of this study. You will have the opportunity to remove any quotations from the interview summary. The results from these interviews will be incorporated into Ms. Hippensteel Hall's doctoral dissertation. All related research materials, including this signed form, will be kept in a secure file cabinet and destroyed after the completion of the study.

The risks to you from your involvement in this study are considered minimal. You may withdraw from this study at any time (either during or after the interview) without any consequence. Should you withdraw, your data will be eliminated from the study.
There is no financial remuneration for participating in the study.
If you have any questions or concerns about any aspect of the study, or your involvement, please contact:

Carolyn Kenny, Ph.D., Chair, Institutional Review Board
Ph.D. in Leadership & Change
150 E. South College Road
Yellow Springs, OH 45387
(805) 565-7535
ckenny@antioch.edu

Signing this document indicates that you have read, understood, and agreed to participate in this research study.

Please sign two copies and return them to Sarah Hippensteel Hall.

Sarah Hippensteel Hall
Name of researcher

Signature of researcher

Date

Name of participant (please print)

Signature of participant

Date

Sarah Hippensteel Hall
7228 Coffin Station Road
Springfield, Ohio 45502
(937) 414-7017
shall@antioch.edu

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