Illuminating Identities and Motivations in Public Participation:

Public Administrators' Perspectives about Public Participation in Local Government

Lorita Ann Copeland Daniels

A Dissertation submitted to the faculty of Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Public Administration and Public Affairs

Matthew Dull, Chair

Karen Hult

Todd Schenk

Margaret M. Cowell

Joseph Rees

September 18th, 2019
Arlington, Virginia

Keywords: public participation, public service motivation, identity theory, social identity theory, role identity theory, Community Development Block Grant (CDBG), local government, administrative discretion, public administrators

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ABSTRACT

The U.S. Housing and Urban Development (HUD) Agency provides Community Development Block Grant (CDBG) funding to state and local governments, giving them broad flexibility to design and implement community projects. The CDBG program emphasizes that public hearings are a requirement to obtain federal funding at the state and local levels. Also, HUD lists several other public participation methods that can be used in addition to public hearings. Further, the extant literature on public participation emphasizes the prevalent use of one method, public hearings, compared to the use of other more engaging techniques. Despite the availability of different methods that may be more engaging, administrators continue to engage the public through the use of public hearings.

This study explores the motivation and identity of public administrators in local government, implementing public participation programs. Using a multi-site case study based on fifteen interviews with officials from various localities across the Commonwealth of Virginia, I found that administrators held onto their identity as public servants but might have had difficulty staying motivated to do public engagement work when they perceived that there were impediments in the work environment. Another interesting finding is that these obstacles created tensions between the public servants and their respective organization, leading to fewer performance outcomes among the administrators.

Further, the administrators' characteristics (identity) such as job tenure, rank, education, age, and gender, along with their public service motivation, might have impacted their actions and behavior in the public sector environment. I also found that administrators who wanted to do more, commonly reported they were situated in a work environment that limited their ability to do more. I found that the work environment and the identity (personal characteristics and public service motivation) could influence the public service behavioral outcomes of administrators.

The interview data pointed out a complex picture of the tensions existing between the institution and the individual. The research revealed that public administrators often adhered to their role as public servants but were faced with dynamics that interacted with their performances. From these findings, administrators must look pass those informal and formal influences that prevent them from staying engaged with their roles as public servants and find ways to give citizens meaningful opportunities to have input into the government decision-making process.

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GENERAL AUDIENCE ABSTRACT

This research sought to discover the public administrators' identities and their motivation for engaging in public participation, along with understanding their roles as public servants. To examine this further, the researcher captured how administrators have engaged the public and how they have documented this engagement in their citizen participation plans. The findings showed that public administrators were committed to their identities as public servants and continued to perform in this capacity despite some of the barriers that may have prevented them from having meaningful engagement opportunities with the public.

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to the people in my life who encouraged me along this journey:

- My mother, who instilled in me the value of hard work and getting things done. Thank you for always showing me the value of being true to who I am.
- My mother-in-law, who was always there to take in her grandsons whenever we needed her. Thank you for always being available. You were truly God-sent.
- My sisters and my brother, who always provided encouragement when I needed it. Thank you for loving me as I am and providing your unwavering support.
- My sister-in-law and my brothers-in-law, who always provided the help that I needed to finish up. Thank you for visiting our home when we needed some family and babysitting time.
- My closest friends from Alabama and Texas, who always had my back. Thank you for picking up the phone when I needed to talk. You were truly my *real* friends and my support system on this journey.
- Lastly, thank you to all of my mentors who helped shaped me into the person I am today. I appreciate all of your encouraging words and prayers. Thank you for believing in me.

I dedicate this dissertation to my three handsome boys Parris, Raymond and Ryan. You were the reasons that I kept going. You have brought the greatest joy into my life. I am thankful that God gave me the opportunity to be your mom in this life. With Him, everything was possible on this journey. Because of you, I kept pushing forward because I wanted the best for you all and I wanted you to know that you can do anything and be anything that you want to be. I leave you with this: Don't let anything stop you from pursuing your dreams. Put God first in everything that you do.

Most importantly, I dedicate this dissertation to my wonderful husband, Rodney O. Daniels – my soulmate and my number one supporter of anything that I decide to do. Thank you for hanging in there with me and believing that I could do this. Thank you for your patience and encouraging words when I needed them. You were my inspiration. Thank you for showing me what love looks like through the years. Over the years, I appreciated you so much. I love you just for being you.

Acknowledgements

The work associated with this dissertation could not have been completed without the support of my friends, colleagues, and teachers. I would like to thank the members of my committee, Dr. Matt Dull, Dr. Karen Hult, Dr. Todd Schenk, Dr. Margaret Cowell, and Dr. Joe Rees, for their positive advice, support and feedback on my dissertation, which helped to improve the final version. My chair, Dr. Matt Dull, was the cheerleader who kept me moving forward on this journey. I will always appreciate his invaluable time, enthusiasm, advice and feedback. I am extremely grateful to Dr. Todd Schenk and Dr. Karen Hult, who helped me develop my research agenda from the start of this dissertation journey. I also owe a great deal of gratitude to my committee members, Dr. Margaret Cowell and Dr. Joe Rees for their expertise and insight, which helped shape this study and enhance my research.

In addition, there were many more mentors who helped me along the way and provided the support that I needed to complete this dissertation. I would like to recognize the guidance, advice, and suggestions that I have received throughout this journey starting with the William "Bill" Anderson Fund, which provided me with a tremendous mentor, Dr. Ronald Schumann, who took time out to provide valuable insight and support that were vital in making the completion of this dissertation possible. I truly appreciated his generosity and helpful guidance.

I would also like to thank my colleagues at the Center for Public Administration and Policy. Thank you, Rosa and Anne, for always being available for a conversation over food. Thank you, Faith, and Melvene, for all of the encouraging words throughout this dissertation process.

There were many others who helped me throughout this journey. I truly appreciated our conversations and the time that you took out of your busy schedule to meet with me. Thank you,

Dr. Susan Gooden and Dr. Anne Khademian, for your encouraging words. Dr. Gooden, you reminded me that there would be many mentors who would cross my path. Dr. Khademian, you helped me stay positively oriented throughout my time in the program.

I know that I will continue to remember and be thankful to many more whom I have not mentioned here, including professors, colleagues, students, and friends. Thank you, you were truly helpful along my journey.

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Chapter 1 - Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This dissertation explores how understanding the administrators' identities might help to explain their motivations for public participation and how their work environment may have some influence in the actions they take for public participation, which may impact the extent to which they report or carry out public participation actions. In order to understand the reasons why individuals engage and persist in engaging in public service and its work, we must first understand the meaning and the degree of importance the public servant role has in their life. This dissertation employs a thematic analysis that features the interpretation of the interviews with administrators working in various localities across the Commonwealth of Virginia that receive Community Development Block Grant (CDBG) funding. In addition, key documents are examined to observe how administrators report public participation compared to how they discussed their public participation work in the interviews.

In order to understand participants' perceptions and meanings about their identity in public participation and the internal organizational environment, and to understand the extent that their identity can impact their motivation for performances, this study reviews both the public service motivation literature and considers relevant information from the identity theory to understand this interaction. For the purpose of this paper, meanings are cognitive behaviors that reflects the internalized characteristics, beliefs, and principles that members may define to a specific role (Burke and Stets, 2009).

While there is an impressive amount of research on public service motivation and its influence on attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (Brewer and Selden, 1998), there is little research exploring the identity of public administrators and how their identity and their perceptions of the organizational environment may influence their public service motivation. This study also explores some of the tensions between the individual and the institution. It argues that institutions are "central and have enduring systems of social beliefs and socially organized practices" (Scott, 1987, p. 499) and that administrators may acknowledge these as acceptable norms of the organization, but they may find themselves coming to grips with their own motivation to perform at a level that does not diminish their motivation to do public work. Accepting the norms of the organization may create tensions between the administrators' role as public servants and the motivation guiding their behavior versus the role of institutions and the immediate influences that they have on the administrators' behavioral outcomes (Perry, 2000) and roles.

By understanding how the interaction between their public service motivation, their identity and their perception of the organizational environment may impede their public participation actions – behavioral outcomes (Brewer, 2008, p. 136), we may gain some insight into the degree of influences on their reported performances in organizations. Individuals who enter government may take on the identity and the role as a public servant. This stems in part from the theory on public service motivation where individuals are induced to work in public service because of their desire to increase the well-being of others in society. However, once they are in government, their identity and motivation for public service may wane due to a number of factors. To investigate this further, this research uses the identity theory and adopts its perspectives to investigate the extent that the identity and the public service motivation of the CDBG administrator remains prevalent as they put forth efforts to meet the requirements of the program as set forth by the U.S. Housing and Urban Development Agency (HUD).

This qualitative study begins with an overview of the legal and historical background about public participation and provide context about the Community Development Block Grant Program under HUD. In Chapter Two, this dissertation establishes the context of the research study by highlighting the administrator's role in public participation. This chapter discusses the downside for engaging the public in public participation as identified in the scholarship. In addition, the chapter further defines the public participation process and the various methods that administrators have for engaging the public. The conceptual framework presented in this chapter draws on several streams of scholarly research: Social Identity theory, Public Service Motivation theory, the research on administrative discretion and the broad scholarship on administration and public participation. Using these streams of research will provide structure and guide the direction of this research, as well as provide context for interpreting what is in the data. The authors propositions are also provided in this chapter.

Chapter Three offers a review of one of the research designs and methods selected. The chapter explains the selection, data collection, and the data analysis techniques used for this study, including a discussion about the development of the interview protocol and the researcher's experiences with public participation.

Chapter Four discusses the basic content analysis of the CDBG Citizen Participation Plans data. For each plan, the researcher extracted the public participation method used and captured the frequency of the methods used for engaging the public. This chapter features the documented public participation methods, defining and characterizing the specific methods used by the entitlement localities. participations methods and defines and characterizes the specific methods used by the entitlement localities. The results are presented.

In Chapter Five, results of the analyses are presented along with the findings from the study. Fifteen participants took part in this study and the data from these interviewees are interpreted and discussed. This chapter features the administrators' perspectives about public participation and the characteristics of each of the localities where the interviewees reside.

Chapter Six contains a discussion of the limitations and the implications of these findings using the identity and public service motivation theory. In addition, Chapter Six offers some recommendations and suggestions for future work. This research highlights an ongoing concern in the literature about public servants and the extent that they maintain their identity and remain motivated to do public service work in public institutions.

1.2 Legal and Historical Background and Context of the Community Development Block Grant Program (CDBG)

Exploring the legal and historical background of the Community Development Block Grant (CDBG) Program can assist in understanding why the program provides a useful canvas on which to explore the identity of the administrator and his or her method of choice for public participation. CDBG has been around for four decades, created with the U.S. Housing and Urban Development Act of 1974. The CDBG program was a way to combine local knowledge with innovative ways to solve social problems in the community. The program came about in an effort to reduce segregation and poverty in the communities, while helping the disadvantaged population in the process. To achieve this effort, the CDBG program allowed grantees, which were often local government entities, to use the funds at their discretion as long as they were following the guidelines of the program. The funding continues to benefit the low-income individuals and communities, allowing them to focus on the implementation of community projects instead of trying to solicit funding through other means.

1.2.1 The U.S. Housing and Urban Development and its Role in the CDBG Program

The funding for many of the localities come for HUD, who distributes the funds to entitlement communities, which are defined as principal cities of metropolitan area, other metropolitan cities with a population of at least 50,000, and qualified urban counties with populations of at least 200,000 (GAO, 2010). These funds are distributed to entitlement and non-entitlement communities using a dual formula system in which grants are calculated under two different weighted formulas (see Table 1). These entitlement communities have the latitude to carry out the activities directly or they may award the funds to another unit of local government or to a non-profit to carry out the activities on their behalf (GAO, 2010). Entitlement communities have a large amount of discretion as to how and what they may want to fund (GAO, 2010; HUD, 2019). On the other hand, non-entitlement communities receive funding directly from the states and are known as Units of General Local Government (UGLG). UGLG are also responsible for carrying out local citizen participation, but the states can set more restrictive requirement granted that they do not contradict with the U.S. Housing and Community Development Act of 1974 (HUD, 2019). In addition, states have the ability to select a definition of income and can give UGLGs projects that align with the objective of the state. Under the CDBG program, states are responsible for the administration of the CDBG program, but partners with UGLGs to carry out the activities, such as local citizen participation (HUD, 2019). Due to the flexibility allowed by the CDBG state program, it is prudent to look at the entitlement cities since localities are required to engage the population at the local level to ascertain the needs of the community. At this level, local government garners input from the community for projects that benefits the low-to-moderate income based on the census where the state CDBG program sets income criteria, determines its community objectives and looks for UGLGs to carry them out.

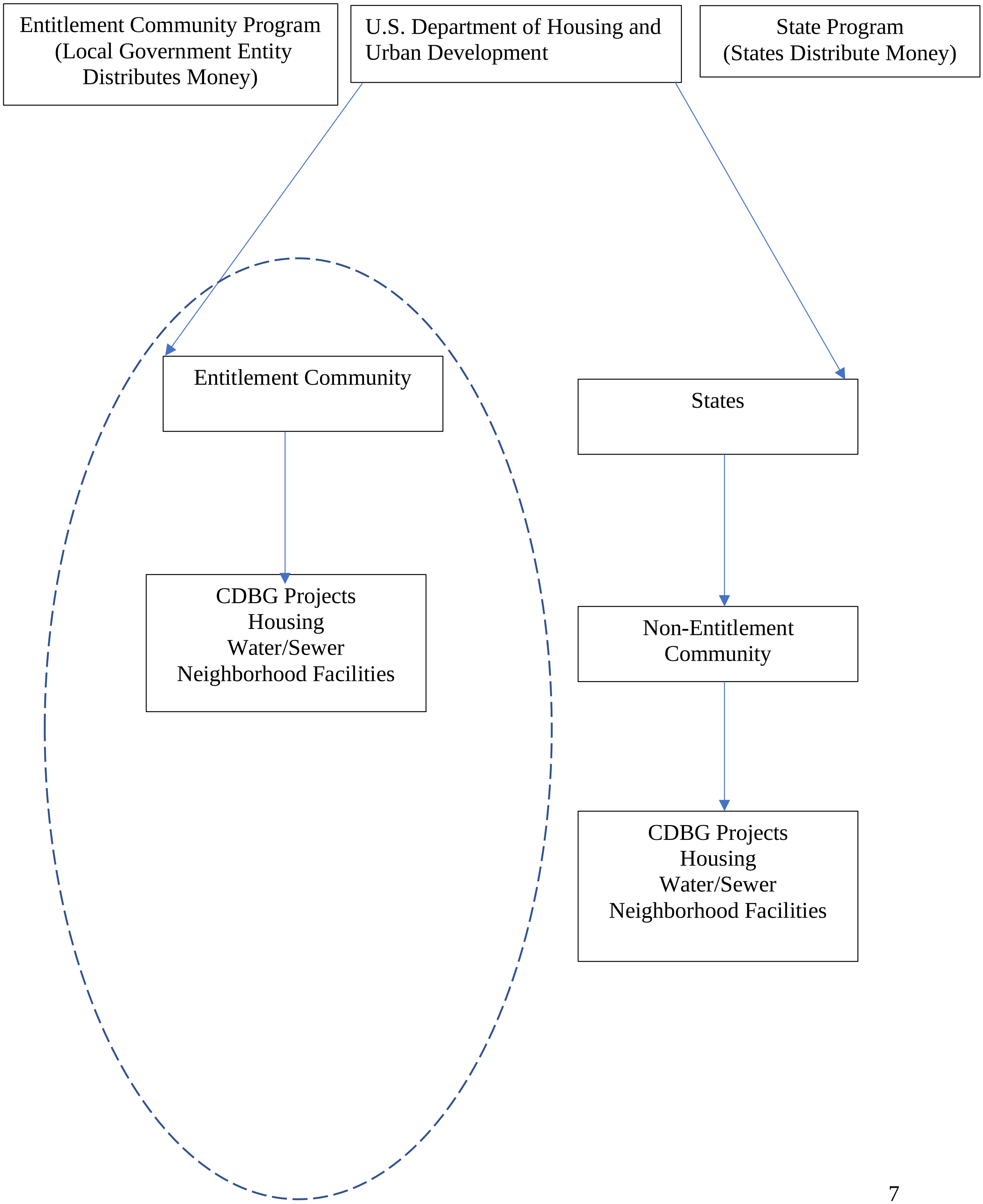
Table 1: CDBG Funding Formulas

ENTITLEMENT COMMUNITIES		STATES (NONENTITLEMENTS)	
FORMULA A 25% *population lag 50% *poverty 25% *overcrowding 1940 housing	FORMULA B 20% *growth 30% *poverty 50% * pre-	FORMULA A 25% *population lag 50% *poverty 25% *overcrowding 1940 housing	FORMULA B 20% *growth 30% *poverty 50% * pre-
Grant is larger of the two formulas less a pro rata reduction.		Grant is larger of the two formulas less a pro rata reduction.	

Richardson (2005)

In addition, non-entitlement communities have access to the CDBG funding, but this amount is based on the annual appropriation for CDBG formula funding as a whole. The CDBG formula funding is split so that 70 percent is allocated to entitlement communities and the other 30 percent is allocated to serve non-entitlement communities (HUD, 2019; GAO, 2010). For this research, the focus will be on the flow of CDBG funds from HUD to local entitlement communities (see Figure 1) instead of the flow of CDBG funds from the states to non-entitlement communities.

Figure 1: HUD Funding Distribution Channels (GAO, 2010)



1.2.2 Community Development Block Grant Program (CDBG): What Makes CDBG Unique

The Community Development Block Grant (CDBG) program was enacted by Congress in 1974 and is one of the most established federal programs for cities interested in federal funding to fund projects related to community development programs, housing rehabilitation for low and moderate-income families, and structural improvements (Tortola, 2015). Its original purpose was the development of viable urban communities for low to moderate - income persons, where the primary uses were for neighborhood development, housing rehabilitation for low- and moderate-income families, and infrastructure improvements (Herzik and Pelissero, 1986). In addition to these projects, there were other areas where the funds could be used, water and sewer projects, streets, and drainage improvements, and assistance to community organizations that helped with low- and moderate-income residents (see Table 2 for a list of CDBG activities). Although the federal involvement did not start with CDBG program, it started with another program called The Housing Act, which was created by the Urban Renewal program of the 1950's and 1960s with the intent to eliminate blight and to revive American cities where populations were declining, and the industry was being weakened by the suburban expansion (Norcross, 2007). The Housing Act of 1974 was an early attempt at Urban Development. The CDBG program came aboard because the Nixon administration wanted to consolidate all the grant program in the Community Development Block Grant in 1974 (Norcross, 2007). CDBG was set up to be a government to government transfer of funds to assist localities to identify their needs and to implement projects in communities. The focus of the CDBG is on reversing the economic decline (Norcross, 2007) in communities that are suffering from social problems. To help tackle these social problems, the CDBG program emphasized several features: (1) can be used for a variety of activities according to a broadly defined mission; (2) beneficiaries have flexibility in how they apply the funds; (3) reporting requirements are limited to minimize administrative burdens; and (4) funds are allocated according to a statutory formula (GAO, 2006; Posner and Wrightson, 1996). According to Norcross (2007), each of these features provide benefits, but there were also unintended consequences associated with each of these features.

1.2.3 Block Grant Uses

Recipients of CDBG funding have six broad areas on where the funding can be used (see Table 2). The CDBG statutes, state that activities that are funded through the grant program should serve three objectives: directs 70 percent of the funds for the benefit of low-to-moderate income people, aids in the prevention of blighted areas, and meets an urgent need of the community. These purposes meet the objective of the Housing and Community Development Act of 1974, Section 5301 (c), which states that "the development of viable urban communities, by providing decent housing, a suitable living environment, and by expanding economic opportunities, principally for persons of low to-moderate income." This broad definition gives the localities some latitude in how they meet these objectives.

Table 2: CDBG Eligible Activities

1. ACQUISITION /PROPERTY	2. ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT	3. HOUSING
Disposition Clearance & Demolition Acquisition of real property Relocation Clean-up contaminated sites	Rehab: public or private Land acquisition/disposition Infrastructure Building acquisition, construction, rehab Other improvements Micro enterprise Technical assistance Direct financial assistance to for-profits	Loss of rental income Housing construction Direct homeownership assistance HOME CHDO operating HOME administration Residential historic preservation Rehab: acquisition Rehab administration Rehab: multi-unit residents Rehab: single-unit residence Energy efficiency Lead-based/hazard abatement Code enforcement CDBG non-profit capacity building CDBG operation & repair of foreclosed property

4. PUBLIC SERVICES	5. URBAN RENEWAL	6. PUBLIC IMPROVEMENTS
Public services: general Senior services Handicapped services Legal services Youth services Transportation services Substance abuse Battered spouses Employment training Crime awareness Fair housing Health services Abused & neglected children Mental health services Lead screening Subsistence payments Homeownership assistance Rental housing subsidies Security deposits Tenant/landlord counseling Childcare services	Urban renewal completion CDBG higher education	Public facilities: general Senior centers Handicapped centers Homeless facilities Youth centers Neighborhood facilities Parks, recreation Parking Solid waste disposal Flood drain Water/sewers Sidewalks Childcare centers Tree planting Fire stations Streets Health centers Abused/neglected children centers Asbestos removal HIV/AIDS facilities Operating costs: homeless/AIDS Interim assistance Architectural barriers Privately owned utilities Non-residential historic preservation

1.2.4 The Flexibility of CDBG

Local government has the ability at their own discretion to define projects to meet the needs of community development (HUD, 2019). One of the few CDBG restrictions is that grantees must use at least 70 percent of the funds to benefit the low-to-moderate income people. There are also other limits to how much can be spent on planning and administration (20 percent) and public service (15 percent). The result is that each city can choose whatever project is appropriate for their community but must maintain these limitations. Table 2 shows the variety of eligible activities and projects for use of CDBG funds.

1.2.5 Minimization of Administrative Burden: CDBG Program

In order for the entitlement communities to receive CDBG funding, they must submit a Consolidated Plan (ConPlan) to HUD describing how it intends to meet program goals. The application is the criteria used to evaluate the grantee's performances. Other additional requirements are informing citizens of their plan to hold public hearings to receive public input, allowing them to make suggestions and receive answers to complaints. Further, the city submits an Annual Action Plan to the local HUD office stating the community needs and the planned projects. The Consolidated Annual Performance Evaluation Report (CAPER) describes how the funds are spent and the expected benefits to the community.

1.2.6 Funding Allocation and CDBG Formula

The CDBG program provides annual grants on a formula basis to units of local government and States (HUD, 2019). The U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) determines the amount of each grant by using a formula comprised of several measures of community needs (see Table 1), including the extent of poverty, population, housing overcrowding, age of housing, and population growth lags in relationship to other metropolitan areas (HUD, 2019).

In 1981, Congress enacted the 70/30 split in funding where 70 percent of the total CDBG allocations would go to entitlement communities and the other 30 percent of the total CDBG allocations would go to non-entitlement communities (HUD, 2019). Although the paper is not about how the government uses the formula to determine the allocation, the author will point out that there are two formulas, Formula A or Formula B. HUD determines the amount for each jurisdiction under both Formulas and then awards the locality the larger of the two sums. See Table 1 for the CDBG Funding Formulas.

1.2.7 Flexibility: HUD Requiring Public Participation

Administrators have a lot of flexibility concerning the procedures, designs and methods; they can choose any decision-making mechanism to decide how they will use CDBG funds as long as they have met the CDBG requirements for involving citizens (Tortola, 2015) in the process. For example, for local funding distribution, recipients must have engaged the public and have documented it in the Consolidated Citizen Plans before disbursing funding.

HUD personnel periodically visits locations and utilizes a “paperwork-oriented monitoring” process, (Tortola, 2015, p. 7; HUD, 2019) ensuring that all funding requirements are being met.

HUD’s Citizen Participation Handbook (HUD, 2019) provides a brief summary of these requirements:

> A grantee must develop and follow a detailed plan, which provides for, and encourages, citizen participation and which emphasizes participation by persons of low- or moderate-income, particularly residents of predominantly low and moderate-income neighborhoods, slum or blighted areas, and areas in which the grantee proposes to use CDBG funds (HUD, 2019).

The plan must:

> Provide citizens with reasonable and timely access to local meetings, information, and records related to the grantee's proposed and actual use of funds

- Provide for public hearings to obtain citizen views and to respond to proposals and questions at all stages of the community development program, including at least the development of needs, the review of proposed activities, and review of program performance
- Provide for timely written answers to written complaints and grievances
- Identify how the needs of non-English speaking residents will be met in the case of public hearings where a significant number of non-English speaking residents can be reasonably expected to participate (HUD, 2019).

The formal requirements above may place demands on the city's resources. For example, Hock, Anderson and Potoski (2012) found that phone calls to inform citizens of meetings may promise an increase in attendance, but this is may be more time-consuming, and municipalities may not have the resources to make phone calls for every public meeting. While resources may be limited, public administrators have a large amount of discretion in the implementation of their public participation program, giving them some room to use a variety of approaches that accomplish their goals based on local conditions.

The Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) requirements for public participation expects "jurisdictions to take whatever actions are appropriate to encourage the participation of all its citizens, including minorities and non-English speaking persons, as well as persons with disabilities" (Consolidated Submissions for Community Planning and Development Programs, 2010). This statement allows local government agencies considerable discretion to "explore alternative public involvement techniques" that increase opportunities for public participation (Consolidated Submissions for Community Planning and Development Programs, 2010). As the Government Accountability Report notes, local government officials or grantees "took advantage of the CDBG program's flexibility to distribute their funds in the ways that the grantees felt fit their local needs and circumstances" (GAO, 2010, p. 8). With this, government officials and agencies may have a significant amount of autonomy, especially when HUD participation mandates do not give clear and specific directions, including how and to what extent is the public included in governmental affairs. Discretion among government officials seems to hold even when these federal requirements demand that the public must be involved in the decision-making process (Zhang and Feeney, 2018). Further, Thomas (1995) highlights that these legal requirements do not go beyond this; the requirements are limited to stating that the public must be involved, leaving everything else such as specifying what must be done and the extent that the public must be involved to the administrator's preference. And consequently, as a result of these various practices that we see highlighted here we find that administrators may take it upon themselves to engage in minimum efforts.

1.3 Problem Statement

Research indicates that public hearings are one of the most frequently used techniques for public participation even though the U.S. Department of HUD's Public Participation Handbook lists several examples for engaging the public (see Appendix A). Hence, despite the wide amount of discretion that HUD allows for public participation in its CDBG program and the number of combinations for public engagement that exist, local officials continue to use public hearings as one of the only mechanisms for engaging the public. Current literature focuses on the various public participation mechanisms that may be used for public participation, and the challenges faced by administrators when they involve citizens. The research calls for greater understanding of how the administrator's role in the public participation process can hamper the process. Current research has not explored how these administrators can hamper the public participation process other than to say that their backgrounds, identity, and motivation need to be examined to understand their role in the public participation process. Therefore, this study seeks to shed light on the extent that the administrators' identities and motivations allow them to perform or report public participation actions beyond meeting HUD's minimum public participation requirements.

The purpose of this study was to explore fifteen local government administrators' identity and how their identities were influenced by their public service motivation and the perception of the internal work environment, thus impacting how they enacted public participation. It was anticipated that, through a better understanding of an individual's public service motivation, his or her identity in the work environment, and an understanding of the internal work environment, administrators could be encouraged to seek methods of engagement that aligned with their salience identity and their motivation for public service work that create opportunities for meaningful public participation that are beyond public hearings. For the purpose of this research, I adopt the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency's definition of meaningful public participation which "involves seeking public input at the specific points in the decision process and on the specific issues where such input has a real potential to help shape the decision or action" (Kandil, 2019).

1.4 Research Questions

The research questions that this dissertation seeks to explore emerge from three observations regarding CDBG and public participation: First, what were the public participation requirements and what actions did the local entities take to engage the public? Since public hearings are a requirement for CDBG funding, I suspect that all localities engaged the public through public hearings, but this study seeks to explore the extent of public engagement and how they engaged the public through other techniques. The second observation comes from the

CDBG requirements and/or statutes that give administrators considerable discretion on how they engage the public. In fact, not only does HUD gives the administrator's considerable discretion on how they engage the public, but they also give them leeway on how they use the funds for community development projects. However, there are requirements that must be met, including how much of the funding can be used for administrative cost. Since there are minimum requirements for these local entities, HUD, itself, has not given clear guidance on what actions that they will take if these governmental agencies are out of compliance (GAO, 2006). Thirdly, literature suggests that public servants are motivated to serve, and that this motivation is what guides them to do the work that they do as public servants. When public servants are motivated to serve or have the identity of a public servant, one may expect that they will have meaningful engagements that ensures that the public has an opportunity to shape the outcome and not the other way around, allowing the governmental agency to shape the outcome based on what the needs of the agency. Using these three observations together, the expectation is that administrators will engage the public in a way that ensure that the design of these programs is not only meeting the requirements, but go beyond the aforementioned mandatory requirement, public hearings.

Some have argued that public hearings are merely ritualistic and have positive benefits for society in terms of solidifying the norms and the behavior supporting democratic values (Nabatchi and Amsler, 2014; McComas, Besley, and Black, 2010). Because public hearings are used frequently by administrators as the technique of choice for public participation and little effort goes beyond meeting the minimum requirements, this study will explore the identity of the CDBG administrators and their motivation for public participation in order to understand the drivers of their behaviors and actions in the public service work that they perform. I ask these questions to understand the public administrators' identities in and their motivation for public participation. To explore the following research questions, I conducted interviews using the Interview Guide in Appendix B.

1. What public participation actions and methods are reported in the documents by CDBG administrators?
2. To what extent do public administrators' identities as public servants affect public participation and how does this affect their motivation and behavioral approach to public participation?
3. How do the perceptions of the internal work environment influence public service motivation and behavioral approaches toward public participation?

Answering the first research question will provide some insight into the behavioral patterns that may emerge from the static documents as evidence of how various localities recorded the public participation actions. The second question wants to understand whether public servants are motivated to carry out the work of public participation and whether their identity plays a role in how they perform and assign meaning to their role as a public servant. Because the environment can affect how the public servants see themselves in the work environment, it is important to note to what extent does the environment affects their identities as public servants. Question three will help to answer this question. Some other things to consider is whether the public servant still behave as a public servant despite what is going on in their work environment? This dissertation explores these relationships as administrators implement public participation. Data collection include citizen participation plans and individual, semi-structured interviews.

1.5 Importance of Research

When administrators fail to engage the public in a meaningful way by not providing real opportunities, the relationship between the government and the community could become artificial or strained. For instance, in a survey of city managers and administrators, Berman (1997) found that 97% of the cities used public meetings and hearings as their method for public participation. Public meetings/hearings are usually specific in nature where the public is assigned a specific time period to engage the officials in a dialog, but it does not go beyond a one-way communication (Adams, 2004), "creating adversarial formats that are known for being biased toward agency-driven objectives" (Nabatchi and Amsler, 2014; McComas, 2001, p. 38). However, Nabatchi (2012) notes that public participation is the foundation of democracy and that citizens must have a voice in those decisions that affect them. Public administrators are at the forefront of giving citizens a voice in governmental affairs.

Public administrators serve the public and must ensure that the work that they do is for the public's benefit. To gain a better understanding of the work that public administrators do and the meanings that they have assigned to their role as a public servant, this study may provide insights into their motivation for doing public participation work. This research will give scholars and practitioners another way to think about the motivation behind public participation as public servants work to engage the public. By linking the administrators' identities, motivations and perspectives to the choices they make for engaging the people, administrators can begin designing public participation processes that are seen as meaningful and collaborative (Buckwalter, 2014; Thomas, 2013). Since, public servants may enter the public service with a desire to serve the public, the theories of identity and public service motivation provides a valuable lens through which public administrators can be viewed, and can help make sense of the extent to which CDBG's flexibility in the public participation program design may allow public administrators to be ineffective and fall short of having meaningful engagement.

1.6 Organization of the Study

In Chapter Two, this dissertation establishes the context of the research study by highlighting administrators' roles in public participation. This chapter discusses the downside of engaging the public in public participation as identified in the scholarship. In addition, the chapter further defines the public participation process and the various methods that administrators have for engaging the public.

The conceptual framework presented in this chapter draws on several streams of scholarly research: Social Identity theory, Public Service Motivation theory, the research on administrative discretion and the broad scholarship on administration and public participation. These streams of research will provide structure and guide the direction of this research, as well as provide context for data interpretation. My propositions are also provided in this chapter to contribute evidence to the scholarly conversation surrounding the highlighted variables.

Chapter Three offers a review of one of the research designs and methods selected. The chapter explains the selection, data collection, and the data analysis techniques used for this study, including a discussion about the development of the interview protocol and the researcher's experiences with public participation.

Chapter Four discusses the basic content analysis of the CDBG Citizen Participation Plans data. For each plan, the researcher extracted the public participation method used and captured the frequency of the methods used for engaging the public. This chapter features the documented public participation methods, defining and characterizing the specific methods used by the entitlement localities.

In Chapter Five, results of the analyses are presented along with the findings from the study. Fifteen participants took part in this study and the data from these interviewees are interpreted and discussed. This chapter features the administrators' perspectives about public participation and the characteristics of each of the localities where the interviewees reside.

Chapter Six contains a discussion of the limitations and the implications of these findings using the identity and public service motivation theory. In addition, Chapter Six offers some recommendations and suggestions for future work. This research highlights an ongoing concern in the literature about public servants and the extent that they maintain their identity and remain motivated to do public service work in public institutions.

Chapter 2 - Illuminating the Administrator in Public Participation

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the relevant scholarly literature that informs this study. It first discusses public participation and administrators' roles in public participation. Second, it reviews the literature that highlights why administrators are hesitant to include the public in decision-making processes. Third, the chapter explores the public participation processes and methods used to engage the public. In this chapter, we continue with support from the literature that discusses the importance of why we must examine the administrator's motivation for and identity in public participation. In addition to understanding the administrators' motivations and identities regarding public participation, I also discuss the latitude that administrators are given in their jobs as public service workers who carry out the rules and guidelines as established by HUD for engaging with the public. Finally, the chapter turns to examining the Identity Theory as the theoretical lens and the existing studies that have used it to explore public participation.

2.2 Administration and Public Participation

Public participation is "easy to preach, but difficult to practice" (Forester, 2006, p. 447). The literature highlights the many challenges of public participation (Dudley, Webb Farley and Banford, 2018). Some of the challenges are warranted due to how public participation is perceived by those who are part of the processes. Citizens and administrators have different views about public participation and may be on opposite ends of the spectrum. For instance, citizens believe that administrators selfishly operate while administrators believe that citizens are incompetent to make informed decisions requiring expert opinions (King, Feltey, and Susel, 1998). Both of these perspectives have a degree merit, especially if the parties feel that the public participation process is not authentic. King et al. (1998) describe genuine public participation as a deep and continuous involvement in administrative processes, with the citizens contributing to and influencing the government decision-making process. For citizens to feel that the process is meaningful, citizens must know that their input is valuable to the process. To do this, administrators must play an important role in showing concrete examples where citizens' input was part of the decision-making processes. Otherwise, scholars and citizens will continue to question the authenticity of public participation processes (Yang and Pandey, 2007); public participation is required in a number of U.S. government programs in the U.S. For administrators to design public participation processes that are genuine in nature, they must first look beyond their own views about public participation and provide opportunities for citizens to participate meaningfully in the process.

2.3 Administrators' Role and Public Participation

Dudley et al. (2018) argue that "public participation in bureaucratic agencies is important to enhance legitimacy and to do good work" (p. 690). Every year, there are thousands of public meetings held across the U.S. at state, local, and federal levels (McComas et al., 2010). Yet, how and to what extent the public is involved in administrative decision-making is still questioned and debated in the literature. For example, in a transportation decision-making case study by McAndrews and Marcus (2015), they conclude with a question about the extent to which policy agendas or planning practices change due to the public participation processes. In another study, Yang and Callahan (2007) highlight the need for understanding why there is a disconnection between public involvement and the use of public input into the administrative decision-making process. Further, some have argued in favor of multiple methods for engaging the public, while others have stated that a specific mechanism may not be useful in certain environments (Irvin and Stansbury, 2004), showing how complex the public participation process can be. In either case, while there may be many opportunities for adjusting the administrative decision-making processes and involving the public, Yang and Pandey (2011) argue that administrators must think about how their design choices may or may not facilitate engagement and how they can remove administrative barriers that impede participation, including the perceived barriers in the work environment.

Administrators may bring their views, values and perspectives (positive or negative) into the public participation process. A study by Zhang and Feeney (2018) captured the perception of administrators and showed that managers' positive beliefs about participatory values lead to enhanced engagement efforts. Another study by Yang and Pandey (2007) found that managers were not opposed to participation and that they were motivated to do what was best for the community. According to Yang and Pandey's (2007) study, only 15 percent of the respondents believed that participation created excessive delays and 27 percent of the respondents thought that participation made it hard to reach a consensus. From these two studies, managers are in a position to impede or advance public participation efforts. Buckwalter (2014) found that administrators play a dual role influencing both the processes and the outcomes of public participation and Neshkova (2014) concludes that the decisions about the extent that administrators engage the public is up to the administrators' discretion. With this, the literature supports the notion that favorable attitudes toward public participation can lead to positive decisions about including citizens in the process (Yang and Callahan, 2007).

2.4 Administrators' Reluctances in Public Participation

The literature on citizen participation is expansive and generally positive on its importance. However, the role of citizen participation in the public administration literature has been inconclusive about whether participation is necessary or desired (King et al., 1998). For instance, in a 1999 study, Koontz argued that citizens at the local level have an advantage in the participatory process due to their proximity to local government; however, he found that administrators at the local level did not want more citizen participation compared to those administrators at the federal level. Scholars have provided several reasons why administrators are reluctant to include citizens in the decision-making processes.

One reason that administrators are reluctant to include citizens is found in Yang's (2005) study on public administrators and trust, in which he introduces empirical evidence that sheds light on the factors that influence public administrators' trust in citizens and the relevance of trust to citizen involvement efforts. Trust is defined in this context as the "administrators' beliefs that the citizens who are affected by their work (or whom they are serving), when they are involved in the administrative (or governing) process, will act in a fashion that is helpful (or beneficial) to administrators' performance (or goal fulfillment)" (Yang, 2005, p. 276). In other words, administrators must not be laser-focused on citizens meeting their agencies objectives, but administrators must account for the citizens needing to participate in the process in order to achieve their community goals and needs. Nonetheless, Yang finds that without trust, administrators are not likely to encourage participation from citizens, suggesting that trust works in both directions (2005). A failure to see the connection between trust and collaboration can lead to citizens becoming isolated and administrators becoming frustrated with the participation process. Therefore, administrators must seek citizens' input and participation.

From King's et al. (1998) work on citizen participation, administrators want and recognize the need for participation, but they lack guidance on how to fit the public into the decision-making process, thus further increasing the distrust of citizens' input in the process. When citizens are ignored due to their assumed or perceived lack of knowledge, administrators might substitute the administrators' preferences into the decision-making process (Robbins, Simonsen, and Feldman, 2008). The substitution of administrators' preferences occurs when specific mechanisms are chosen that minimize citizens' deliberation and education. For example, Beierle (1998) discusses the different directions that information flows that may have the potential to isolate citizens from becoming educated about the issue and deliberating on the issue: One-way (public to government), two-way (collaborating of information), and one-way (government to the public). In this sense, trust seems the lowest when information flows from the government to the public, which are found in public hearings, websites, and public notices. For instance, the use of public hearings is often used to defend the agency's decisions rather than involve the public in a meaningful decision-making process (Beierle, 1998), with information flowing in one direction. For administrators to become more trusting of citizen participation, they may need to change their practices for engaging citizens and use mechanisms that increase administrators' trust of citizens' preferences in the decision-making process. Specifically, administrators must begin working with citizens as partners, accepting the view that citizens can share in governing their lives within the context of bureaucratic systems.

A second reason why administrators are reluctant to include citizens in the decision-making process can be found in a more recent study involving the administrators' perception of citizens as lacking the expertise in government matters (Neshkova, 2014). Administrators would rather rely on technical experts rather than on non-experts providing input (Neshkova, 2014). For instance, administrators sought feedback from technical experts when estimating their future budget projections rather than relying on the local information from the public (Neshkova, 2014).

While gaining expert opinion is important in decision-making processes, agencies must find ways to incorporate citizens' input, if they want their decisions to appear legitimate in the eyes of the public. Citizen participation is two-way communication between the government and the citizens (Heikkila and Isset, 2007). When administrators give citizens the opportunity to engage in two-way conversations, citizens may become educated on the issue because they can ask questions and gain more understanding of the issue. As citizens become more educated, they become more involved in making decisions that affect their lives (Thomas, 1995), thus gaining more trust from the administrators about their abilities to solve community problems. In these situations, administrators gain knowledge about the context in which these citizens will contribute to the decision-making process. By including citizens and their input in the decision-making processes, administrators are ensuring that the citizens are engaged in the process.

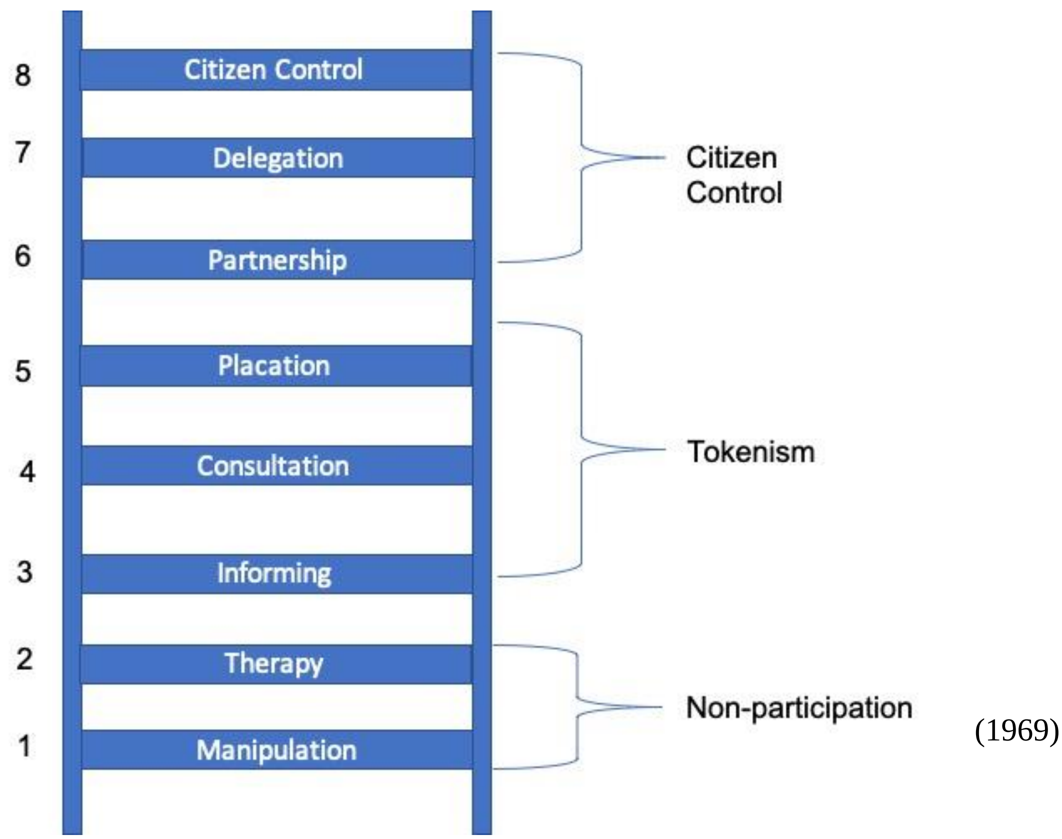
2.5 Making Decisions about the Public Participation Process and the Method of Public Engagement

There are a variety of techniques that administrators can use when engaging the public; techniques entail those methods that involve the public in order for administrators to conduct the public participation processes. Appendix C is a comprehensive list of various participation mechanisms used in a number of different areas in the United States and in the United Kingdom. Although this list is broad, there are a number of points to keep in mind when examining it. For example, some of these "techniques are composite processes, and some are specific techniques and others are tools that may be incorporated into other tools" (Rowe and Frewer, 2005, p. 257).

The purpose here is to show that there is a comprehensive list of participatory tools available for administrators, giving them an opportunity to decide which method is appropriate for their current circumstances. Further, HUD's Citizen Participation and Consultation Toolkit (2014) lists a number of other participation examples for engaging the public, including the citizen advisory board meetings, Web-based surveys, public meetings, email announcements, social media, online forums, mapping community resources, alternative methods of public notices, alternative language media targeting non-English speaking populations, local television and radio, website publication, and public hearings are the techniques that administrators can used to engage the public. The document also provides examples of how administrators can implement these public participation requirements, giving administrators an idea on how to implement public participation in their own localities.

While highlighting these available tools is warranted for this paper, it is also appropriate to discuss several frameworks that have categorized public participation in one form or another and have examined the participants and their influence on the final outcome of public participation; scholars have also studied the extent of agenda control in public participation (Arnstein, 1969, Fung, 2003, 2006; IAP2, 2007). Sherry Arnstein's (1969) classification of public participation along a continuum describes the various levels of public participation or engagement. The Ladder of Participation (see Figure 2) emphasizes the eight levels, or continuum of public participation from manipulation, therapy, informing, consultation, placation, partnership, delegated powers, and citizen control (Fung, 2006). For this framework, Arnstein characterized public participation as falling into one of three categories, full participation, symbolic participation, and no participation at all (1969). Fung (2003) developed a different framework to understand the range of institutional possibilities that put administrators in the center of this institutional space, where the form of direct participation processes may vary (Fung, 2006), depending on the method chosen. Further, he argued that no matter how people come together, “decisions are being made regarding the scope of public participation, the mode of communication and the decisions, and the extent of authority and power of the input” (Fung, 2006, p. 66-69). In support of this framework, the literature purports that the responsibilities of the public participation process lie with the administrator, making it appropriate to consider the importance of the institutional design space in this context and the selection of an appropriate method for public participation. Yet another framework, or “Spectrum of Public Participation,” developed by the International Association of Public Participation (IAP2, 2007) identifies the five levels of government and participant engagements and the expected outcomes from these engagements. These levels are: Inform; Consult; Involve; Collaborate; and Empower (for complete listings and definitions see Appendix D). This framework provides a comprehensive framework to analyze public participation along a spectrum depending on the type of information that the government is seeking from the community. Although, this framework lists a number of processes that government entities can use, it places public hearings in the consultation level, which is contrary to the way that the U.S. has characterized public hearings. For example, Innes and Booher (2004) contend that public hearings do not achieve genuine participation and they do not ensure that members are being heard. While the Spectrum can help administrators with choosing a method that aligns with what the government entity seeks, we must not overlook the role of administrators in public participation. On this same note, it is problematic if we believe that these administrative choices, decisions, and discussions are driven objectively without taking a closer look at the inherent ideas and administrators’ backgrounds that may or may not be driving some of these choices, discussions, and decisions. Therefore, it is worthwhile to have a number of public participation techniques at an administrators' disposal so that they can choose the method that will give the public an opportunity to have thick and meaningful engagement (King et al., 1998), which are synonymous for the purpose of this paper, in community development discussions. Meaningful was the term used during my interviews with the participants for the study. From this point forward, meaningful will be used throughout the paper.

Figure 2: Arnstein's Ladder of Public Participation



2.6 Growth of Public Participation Supporting the Need for Further Studies

Despite the growth in the practices of public participation at the local, state and federal levels, creating a wealth of information for future examination (Nabatchi, 2012), and the increased discussion about public participation in the literature, questions remain regarding the extent to which public participation efforts are meaningful and genuine to the extent that participants have the opportunity to shape the outcomes. Dudley et al. (2018), in addressing the re-founding concerns about citizen inclusion in agency decision-making, stated the following: "Amid all the contradictions and confusion, the prospect of meaningful public participation in federal decision making continues to inspire great hope—as well as deep resignation and mistrust" (p. 698). Yang and Callahan (2007) readily argued that meaningful and authentic participation is seldom found in the public participation process, believing that public participation processes are driven by something else, such as the views and priorities of administrators. Therefore, they believe that an examination of those informal and formal institutions, beyond government, that shape the decisions regarding public participation are needed (2007).

Studies focusing on the barriers to meaningful participation and the administrators' perceptions of public participation is abundant in the literature. On the other hand, few studies exist that examine the administrators' background and motivation which could drive the choices they make about public participation. This study attempts to highlight how the administrators' background and motivation for engaging the public directs them toward thin, non-meaningful engagement.

2.7 Understanding Administrative Discretion in Public Participation

As defined by Lipsky, street level bureaucrats are public service workers who interact directly with citizens in the course of their jobs and who have substantial discretion in the execution of their work (Lipsky, 1980/2010, p. 3). A distinguishing feature of street level bureaucrats is that they have to meet the demands of serving the public with limited resources, acting as gatekeepers, deciding who gets what services and when. These bureaucrats have to navigate unclear and conflicting guidelines and policies, which are deemed “street level work” (Maynard-Moddy and Musheno, (2003, p. 8). They are also the administrators who exercise professional discretion in their line of work (Lipsky, 2010).

Discretion is defined by Lipsky (1980/2010) and Evan (2010) as the extent that workers can exercise their latitude in the context of their work, giving them latitudinal opportunities to make judgments and to act as they see fit in the context of their work. Sowa and Selden defined discretion in a similar context, “administrators’ perceived latitude in effecting administrative outcomes” (p. 703). Although these scholars have defined discretion in the context of street level bureaucrats, other scholars have used the term administrative discretion, reflecting the specific values that administrators may hold as they take actions in their work environment (Roman, 2015), measuring administrative discretion at the individual level. These administrators carry out the will of the state and are considered the street level workers focusing on the application of the state’s laws, rules and procedures for the programs that they handle (Maynard-Moody and Musheno, 2003/2012). Maynard-Moody and Musheno (2003) emphasize front-line workers as either state-agents or citizen-agents because they reject being called a street-level bureaucrat. Community Development Block Grant administrators are typically considered the ‘state agents’ who carry out the will of the state, or in this case, the will of the federal government (Maynard-Moody and Musheno, 2003). On the other hand, the citizen agents “help create and maintain the normative order of society” (p. 23). For administrators to carry out the rules and guidelines established by HUD, the federal government, they check for compliance in service-oriented agencies, carry out public participation programs based on the established guidelines, and make decisions about the extent of the public feedback for community assessment. Just like any other street-level bureaucrat, CDBG administrators have considerable discretion in how they interpret the guidelines and have opportunities to choose the appropriate actions for engaging with the public. In many cases, “street level work is rule saturated but not rule bound” (Maynard-Moody and Musheno, 2003, p. 10). As discussed above, HUD gives considerable discretion to the CDBG administrators in how they carry out public participation programs for their localities. However, Sowa and Seldon (2003) argued that public servants are in a quandary because they are pressured to decide whether to carry out the will of the state that fits within their pattern of decision-making or maintain loyalty to the organizational doctrines. Using Maynard-Moody and Musheno’s narrative for the state-agent, administrators’ self-interest guides the exercise of discretion and other motives can drive their behaviors (2003). For example, if administrators want to move quickly through their work, they may put little work effort into public participation, or they may make their work easier by minimally engaging with clients. In other words, administrators begin to process their work instead of engaging with their work (Maynard-Moody and Musheno, 2003). The issue for this paper is not to focus on the ubiquity of discretion because we know it exists in bureaucratic work, but to highlight the likelihood that discretion manifests or the prevalence of it in this environment (Maynard-Moody and Musheno, 2003).

According to Thomann, van Engen and Tummers (2018), allowing for discretion helps administrators tailor a policy or guideline to specific circumstances. Roman (2015) argues that “discretionary power has been and remains a prevailing reality for many public servants and their agencies and continues to be an essential ingredient in conditioning administrative responsiveness and accountability” (p. 596). Ongoing conversations about discretion and the benefits that it can bring to the agency continue to be debatable in the literature. For instance, Roman argues that discretion may not guarantee the outcome that the agency may desire (2015).

In his study, he found administrators from the National Institute of Government Purchasing had high discretion and were most likely to assume the role of steward of public interest as a dominant role that guided habitual decision-making among the administrators. This is similar to Sowa and Seldon (2003) who demonstrated that the presence of discretion might explain the habitual behavior seen in organizations. The presence of discretion in the work environment has been noted in the public administration literature to be present and inevitable. To move this conversation further, we must look at the human factor of discretion (Roman, 2015) and examine the extent that the public administrators' identity and their public service motivation for public work may combine to help explain the decisions that they make about how they engage with the public to solicit support for community development projects.

In the following section, I introduce the identity theory to help understand the meanings associated with individuals in their given roles as public servants, and how they have understood this role (Stets and Carter, 2012). Because it has been argued elsewhere (Stets and Carter, 2012), I acknowledge that identity meanings correspond to a behavior. For example, a study by Stets and Carter (2012) showed that individuals with a high moral identity score were more likely to behave morally, showing that there is a relationship between meanings and the perceived meanings of the individuals who take on the meanings. Therefore, this study examines the individuals' public service motivation for the work that the public servants perform in their workplaces as they take on the meaning of this identity.

2.8 Public Participation Summary

The literature review shows how administrators are central to the public participation process by choosing methods that may or may not align with their views, backgrounds, and perceptions about the public participating in government affairs. Administrators play an important role in the design and selection of methods for engaging the public, providing a basis for moving this study forward. This review also shows that understanding the views about public participation might be helpful in understanding the reasons why certain mechanisms are chosen over others. Finally, the use of an approach that asks administrators about their experiences, meanings and motivation for engaging the public could lead to better understanding about why administrators may not go beyond public hearings to engage the public in a way that assures them that their input is considered in the decision-making process.

When there is a lack of clarity and direction regarding the implementation of public participation programs, public participation may have a different meaning for the various administrators involved with the process. Administrators may function under different kinds of motivations, identities, organizational, and political constraints (Goodsell, 1984/2015), which they can bring into the public participation process. Furthermore, scholars have identified several external factors that can influence what gets adopted in the design of public participation programs (Zhang and Feeney, 2018). For instance, Li and Feeney (2014) found that external demands, such as managerial perceptions, were significant in the implementation of technology to communicate with citizens. When administrators understand what factors may impede public participation, they can design programs where citizen want to provide input because they feel that their input is valued and that it will be part of the decision-making processes. While the flexibility provided by the law (GAO, 2006) can allow for many dissimilar adoptions of specific methods for diverse situations, it also means that these variations in the public participation processes are accepted by HUD as long as the citizen participation plan describes how the process worked and whether citizens had an opportunity to participate (GAO, 2010).

Any public participation process must be an approach that galvanizes and informs the public while integrating their views into the decision-making processes. Research has highlighted concerns that seem to plague decision making for public participation. For instance, scholars have previously argued and identified the distinction between participation as an end (just participation to meet the requirement) and a means (achieving an end goal) (Nelson and Wright, 1995; Bamberger, 1991; Rosener, 1978). For the means argument, the aim of participation is akin to efficiency where the ends argument entails the community setting up a process to control its destiny (Nelson and Wright, 1995). Taking both arguments together, different stakeholders may approach public participation differently, producing a variety of mechanisms that either produce thick, meaningful participation or lackluster, thin participation (Zhang and Feeney, 2018; King, et al., 1998). While there are several different methods that administrators can use to engender public participation, administrators may also be unclear about the meaning of intentional public participation, which may produce different participatory tools at various times to solve complex community issues. As Crosby, Kelly and Schaefer note, the participation process "should be adaptable to several different tasks and settings," (1986, p. 172) to ensure that the process informs and galvanize participation from the public, which can ultimately result in voices being heard in the process.

2.9 Using the Identity Theory to Explain Motivation of Public Administrators in Public Participation

2.9.1 Introduction

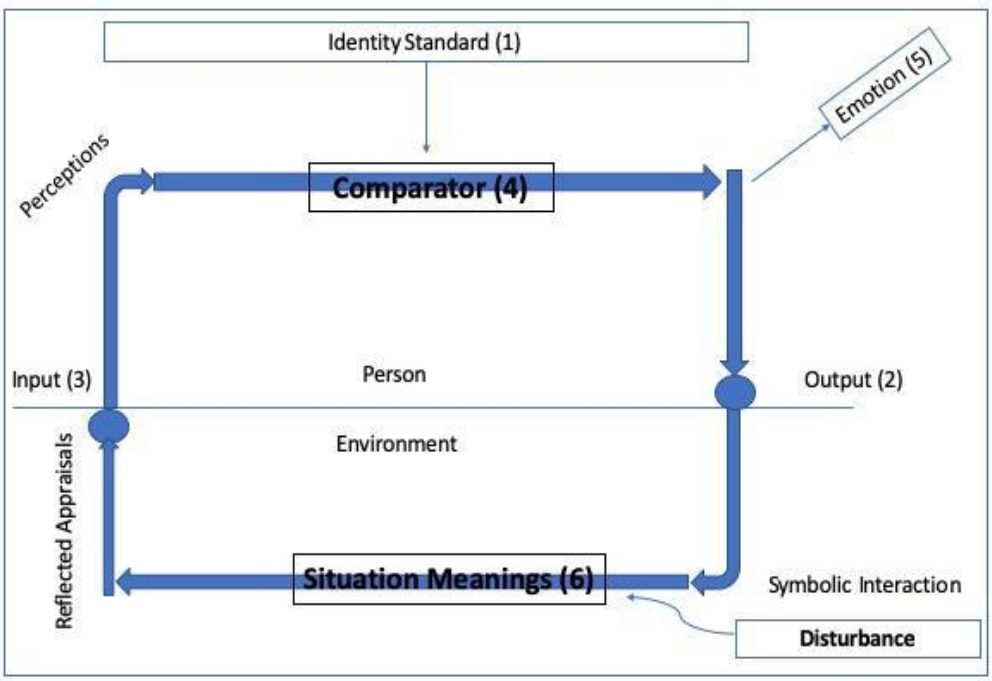
The research analyzes the various concepts, theories, and definitions from the review of the literature (Merriam, 2009); three literature streams were examined and formed the conceptual framework of this study. They are social identity, role identity and public service motivation.

Miles and Huberman (1994) contended that a conceptual framework is good at explaining, graphically or narratively, the main idea that is to be examined and the relationships between them. This framework was helpful for understanding the phenomena under study, as well as having the framework inform the design, data collection, analysis and interpretation of the data. The conceptual framework was informed by the following theories: social identity, role identity, and public service motivation. These theories provide background framing for this study and enhanced my understanding of how social and role identities can impede or promote public service motivation depending on both internal and external factors, which may ultimately affect individual performances and actions.

The literature illuminates various reasons why public servants are reluctant to engage the public in a meaningful way--putting more effort into the work of public participation. But very little is known about the public servants' public service motivation towards public participation and the function that their social and role identities have on public participation work. Therefore, if we want to understand why they engage and persist in doing public servant work, we must first understand the meaning and the degree of importance that the role of being a public servant has in their public participation work. The role identity (Burke and Stets, 2009) theory is a framework for understanding how internal processes influence the intentions, behaviors, and interactions (Burke and Stets, 2009). In this given role, individuals, through interactions, learn expected behaviors in a given environment, which eventually guide their thought processes and actions (Pope, Hall, and Tobin, 2014).

Stets and Biga (2003) argued that in order for us to predict how one will behave in a given context, we must examine the identities that one claims to have and the meanings assigned to those identities in a person's mind while he or she is situated in the environment. Using the identity model (see Figure 3) from Burke and Stets (2009) and drawing from the literature on identity to highlight the link between identity and motivation were the first steps toward answering these research questions. This model contends that there are six feedback loops that make up the components of an identity. In this model, (1) the identity standard is the meaning of an identity; (2) the output is the behavior or action associated with the output; (3) the input is how people believe others see them in a situation-also called reflected appraisals; (4) the comparator is when the input is compared to the identity standard that the person identifies with; (5) the emotion that is exhibited as a result of the comparison process; and (6) the situation meanings which vary with the degree of correspondence with the identity standard meaning.

Figure 3: Burke and Stets Identity Model (2009)



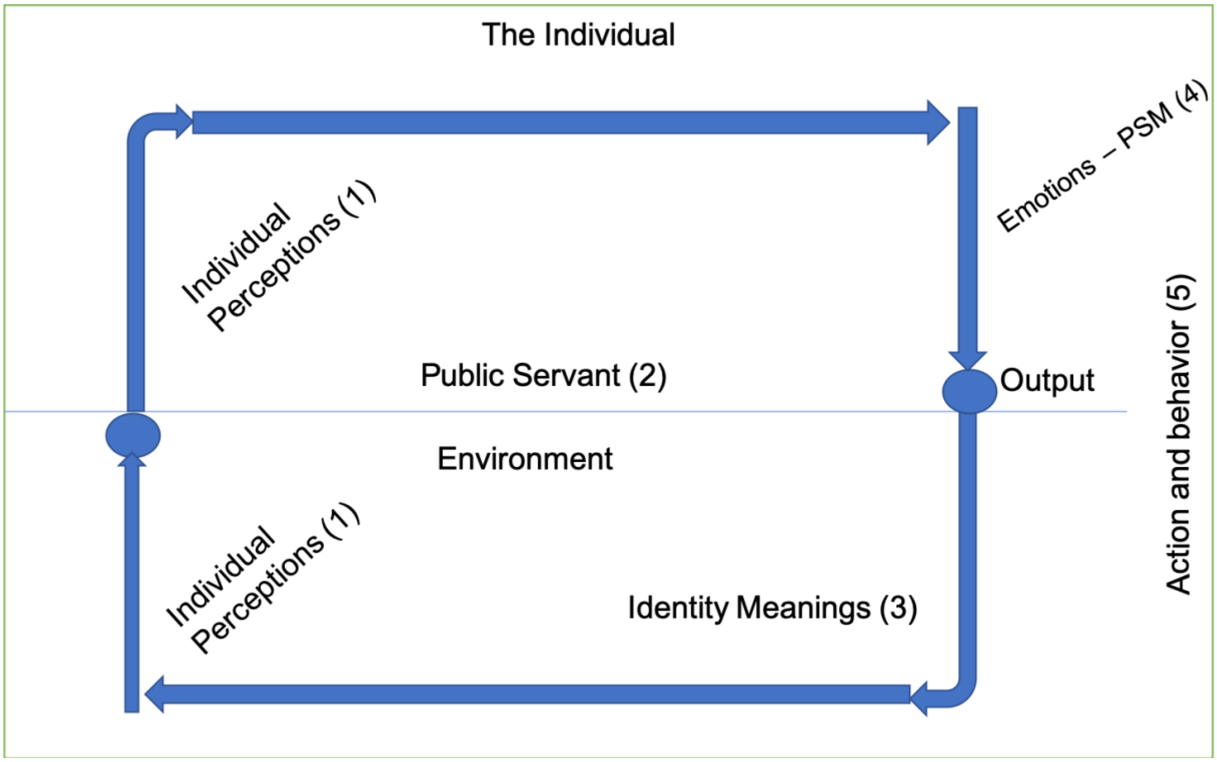
The identity model discussed above has influenced the way that this paper is framed and how I have built my adapted model for this paper (see Figure 4). The adapted model is concerned with the individual inside of the public space or environment and the individual output (the action and behavior) that is manifested on the outside as a result of being inside the public space (the environment). In the adapted model, (1) individual perceptions are the perceptions that people use to negotiate their personal identity with the identity that they have taken on as a public servant (2); (3) after the individual has taken on the identity, they begin to reflect on who they have become in the new environment (identity meaning); (4) the individual now begins to act on this identity through emotions and we see this output as an action or behavior (5). I want to understand the impact of this identity meaning in the public service environment, which we can see manifesting in the individuals' actions and behaviors. Between the models, there are some commonalities that have driven how this paper is presented. The identity standard, which is the identity that individuals hold, and it contains the meanings that people associate with being the person that they are in a given environment. Meanings are individuals' responses to who they are when they reflect on themselves (Burke and Stets, 2009). In other words, it is the image that people hold of themselves. For this paper, mapping the public servant identity onto the individual will provide some insight into the meaning that individuals may have assigned to their role as a public servant. For the output, when individuals take on the public role or when the identity is activated, their behavior is being guided by the identity that they have taken on in that environment. For instance, when individuals take on the role of public servant, we should find their behaviors reflecting the meanings of serving the public.

In the component (inside the box), situational meanings influence how people behave and feel. Individuals may enact behaviors that are consistent with how others see them in a situation. Individuals may interpret this reaction as consistent with how they see themselves in the situation, if, and only if, they perceived themselves as others have perceived themselves. For the emotion, when individuals perceived that their behaviors and identity are aligned, they begin to think positively about the work that they do. They produce consistent behavior over time. If negative behavior creeps into the equation, this is the result of a negative emotion driven by the identity that is inconsistent with how others see them compared to how they see themselves. For the purpose of this paper, I am concerned with how individuals see themselves in the situation or environment and how they have come to assign meaning to their identity (see Figure 4). When meanings are assigned, we begin to see the behaviors and actions enacted that relate to the identity that they have become in that situation. As individuals continue (the arrows are in a continuous loop to depict that individuals are constantly negotiating their identity in the environment) to situate themselves in the environment, their behaviors and emotions may change. Previous scholarship has focused on how changes in the situation may change the identity of a person with less emphasis on how the situation may influence the behavior and the emotions of the individual (Stets and Carter, 2012). Other scholars have argued that the environment or the situation may influence the behavior of individuals. For instance, a study examined the saliency of identities when athletes entered college or when their situation changed. They found that the identity was maintained overtime. These types of studies are becoming more prevalent in the research because scholarship is recognizing that identity salience matters when situations change (Stets and Carter, 2012).

For the purpose of this paper, I did not examine how people think others see them in a situation as Burke and Stets (2009) did, but how the individual sees him or herself in the situation or environment. Using the public servant as an identity for all government employees is an assumption that the research has made for all public sector employees.

Figure 4: Adapted Identity Model as the Focus of the Study – Redrawn by author

(Burke and Stets, 2009)



2.9.2 Social Identity Theory

For the social identity theory, individuals are tied to certain groups through emotions and values that are important to them (Ellemers, Haslam, Platow, and van Knippenberg, 2003). Adams, Bowerman, Dolbeare, and Stivers (1988) argue that administrators try to coordinate and balance their own worldviews and values as well as those of the agency where they work, incorporating these distinctive professional values and attitudes into their own self-identity as a result of being a member of the organization (Caza and Creary, 2016). Therefore, when organizations can promote or enhance a public employee's identification, there is a possibility of gaining increased performance (Ellemers, et al., 2003). Framing identity in this context is not only how individuals define themselves, it is about how they have arranged themselves in the environment, and how the people around them have identified them. Stets and Biga (2003) further state that "[t]he identity theory, rooted in sociology, focuses not simply on individuals' choices but on how persons who are multifaceted are embedded in the social structure [t]hat guides these choices" (p. 399). Using the identity framework as a starting point to explore the individuals' public service motivation behind their public work, we can begin to understand the meaning and the degree of importance that individuals have regarding their role as a public servant.

2.9.3 Role Identity Theory

According to the role identity theory, multiple identities (Stets and Biga, 2003; Stryker and Burke, 2000) make up the individual self---each identity represents a role in one's life (Pope et al., 2014), focusing on what the individual is doing (Caza and Creary, 2016). In each of these roles, a meaning is attached that defines the individual to that role (Stets and Biga, 2003). They are subconscious responses that individuals use to affiliate themselves within a particular role (Burke and Stets, 2009). However, others argue that meanings are formed through the expectations of how others see them, which can be learned through an interaction or response from other individuals in the environment (Pope et al., 2014; Mccall and Simmons, 1978). Combining both of these perspectives, I posit that meanings can be shared understandings and expectations of one's role and social position in an organizational environment from the individual self and from others. For instance, a public servant may learn how to act through his or her interaction with others or from his or her observation of others in the organizational environment. It is through these interactions that individuals begin to illustrate how they can work to contribute to society.

In addition to meanings taking on actions when individuals associate with a particular role, they can also be a form of conscious behaviors or cognitions (Pope, et al., 2014; Burke and Stets, 2009). These conscious behaviors or cognitions reflect the internalized values, beliefs, and principles that the individuals attribute to a given role. When these behaviors or cognitions become internalized, they will act as a standard for the guidance of actions for that particular role (Burke and Stets, 2009). However, depending on how the individual sees his or herself in a role, he or she may subscribe a different meaning that is separate from the meaning that may be subscribed to by another person (Pope et al., 2014).

To date, I am unaware of any studies that examine the relationship between the meanings that public administrators have assigned to their role as a public servant or server of the public and the public servant behavior as it relates to public participation to my knowledge are absent. To examine this, I look at specific meanings associated with an individual's role as a public servant and his or her motivation for public participation in this role. Further, understanding this will shed light on the degree to which administrators have internalized a role, making it likely that they will enact that role (Pope et al., 2014). When individuals are excited, motivated, and activated to do work, according to Burke and Stets (2009), they have become the role, the public servant; they have identified with the role and internalized the role. This is in line with Tickle (1999) who found that the teachers' judgements and behaviors were a result of their perceptions of their professional identity. This study will provide a useful first window into understanding the administrators' role and their motivation for public participation work.

2.9.4 Identity Prominence

Various identity scholars agree that the individual self can be seen as a multidimensional (Schott, van Kleef, and Steen, 2015; Stryker and Burke, 2000; Stet and Burke, 2003; McCall and

Simmons, 1978). Many scholars have examined this multidimensional concept for a long time. Others have also built upon McCall and Simmons' (1978) hierarchy of prominence to show that role identities can be organized in this way. The identity of prominence is concerned with the values and desires of the individual (Stets and Serpe, 2003); an identity that is promoted more in a given situation is seen as central and more important to the individual (McCall and Simmons, 1978) and is expected to be enacted more frequently than any other identity (Burke and Stets, 2009). Individuals may enact an identity that is of importance to them while also portraying how they want others to see them (Pope et al., 2013; Stets and Serpe, 2003). In this capacity, the role identity may become more pronounced and it is likely that it will be actuated and performed in an action (Stets and Serpe, 2003).

Along these same lines, identity prominence is also characterized by the emotional experience of individuals when they engage in their identity role. An engagement in positive or negative emotional experience can emerge when individuals have certain feelings toward their role identity. When a negative emotion emerges, the individual may feel that their prominent identity was not supported by others in the interaction (McCall and Simmons, 1978). However, Stryker (2004) expanded this to link emotions to the support or the lack of support for the identity. He examined how an individual behaved in a situation (salient) compared to what the individual valued (prominent) (Stets and Burke, 2003; Stryker, 1987).

2.9.5 Identity Salience

Identity salience is the degree to which one is committed to the identity. When one is committed to a specific identity, he or she may find ways to stay committed to that identity. Supporting the link between commitment, identity salience and behavior, Stryker and Serpe examined the role of religious role identity and found that those that had more salient religious identities and those that spent more time in religious endeavors were more dedicated to relationships based on religion (1982). Similarly, another study examined the blood-donor role identity and found that people were committed to the identity by the number of times they donated blood in a given six-month period (Callero, 1985). These similarities indicate that identity salience can play a major role in how individuals associate with their identity role in their environment. This gives support to the notion that individuals with higher salience may actively seek out more opportunities to perform that identity. For instance, if an individual is acting in the role of a public servant, he or she will seek out opportunities such as educational training that would help them navigate their identity as a servant for the people or to seek out more training about ways of engaging the people that assures them that their input is considered. In another example, we may find that the administrator may engage the public in a number of ways using various methods to ensure that they are hearing from the people, which may show their commitment to their identity as a public servant engaging the public. When we can identify the meanings that individuals attach to their role identity, we can also understand their motivational commitment to their job performance.

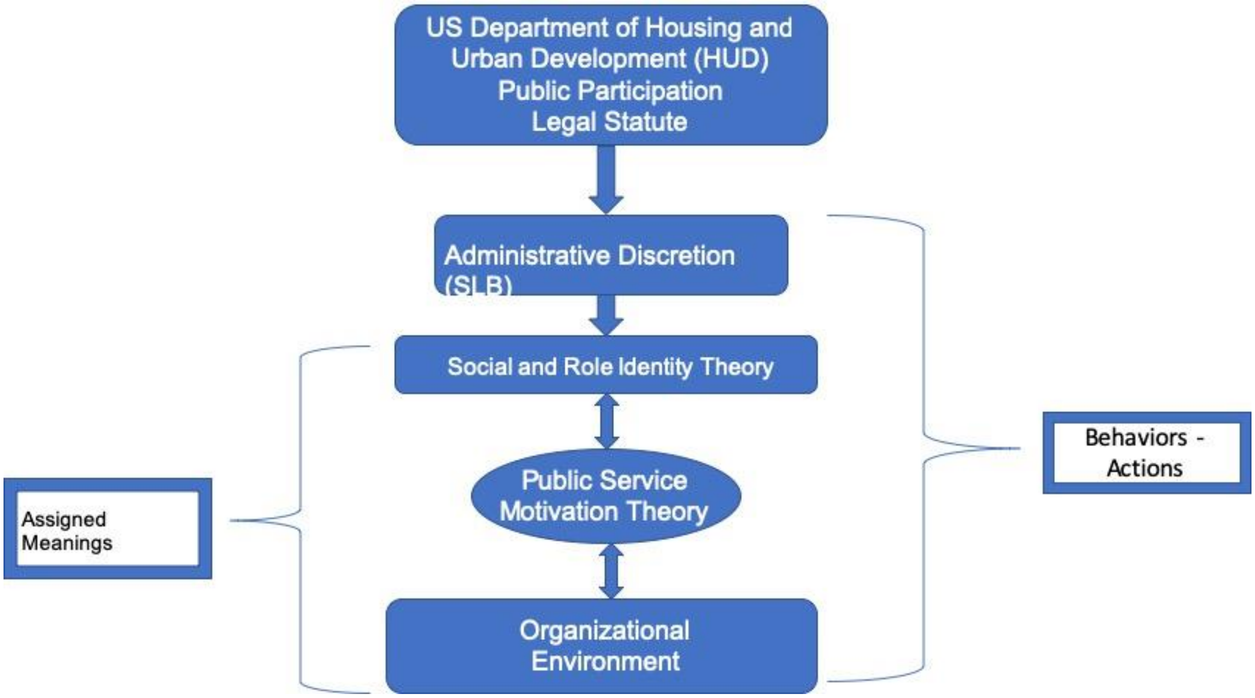
2.9.6 Identity and Public Service Motivation

Social identity theory seeks to explain the reason why individuals choose specific courses of actions when they are presented with several choices to choose from (Serpe, 1987), which is useful for explaining various behaviors (Stryker and Serpe, 1982) and for understanding the human thought and why people do what they do (Hafer and Ran, 2016; Ashford, Harrison and Corley, 2008). It is believed that identification motivates groups to work in concert with the group's interest, which from this perspective, may affect performance. The more an individual sees him or herself as part of a group or a member of an organization, the more he or she will identify with the group, acting in accordance with the social identity that is insinuated by the group membership (Haslam, Oakes, Reynolds, and Turner, 1999). For example, in a Texas A and M University study, participants' productivity increased when they were working towards a group-based incentive instead of an individual incentive in the social environment, suggesting that belonging to a group induces motivation to perform with the group (Worchel, Rothgerber, Day, Hart and Butemeyer, 1998). In addition, another study by Ward (2014, 2019) found that AmeriCorps members or peoples' experiences with the organization had affected individuals' levels of public service motivation for public service for the rest of their careers. This is in line with other research that found that organizational membership (individuals in an organization) had positive impacts on the individual levels of public service motivation (Moynihan and Pandey, 2007; Pandey and Stazyk, 2008; Perry and Hondeghem, 2008). Given the interpretation of social identity, which states that individuals who identify with a collective group and see this group as an important part of their social identity will tend to support their companions. The social identity can be thought of as a motivating resource for the organizations (Worschel, et al., 1998). This is in line with the assumption behind the research on self and identity, which is the primary motivator of behavior (Stets and Burke, 2002). However, when this is taken into account and the individual's participation and motivation are understood in the broader structure, Stets and Big (2003) argued that behaviors became predictable and patterned across the organization. Similarly, Maynard-Moody and Mosheno in their book, Cops, Teachers and Counselors, sought to reveal the patterns of decision-making when laws, beliefs and interpretation merge with behaviors and identities in work environments (2003). In one of the anecdotes, policies, administration, and rules were thought of as tools that facilitated decisions or the actualization of behaviors. However, a dynamic perspective may need to be taken on the state of policies, administration, and rules within a discretionary work environment and how this dynamism intertwines with the public administrator's identity and motivation for doing performative actions in the work environment. It has already been noted that public servants may have the ability to exercise discretion in their work but may be limited in how much discretion they can exercise due to their affiliation and the identity they take on within the organization. However, as discussed previously, having discretion may not lead to the expected outcomes, but to patterned behavior overtime.

While these studies have shown an association between social identity, organizational members in a social structure, and public service motivation, very few have examined the meanings that individuals hold and the essence of their identity in the social structure - the public organization. Despite the lack of attention for the connection of public service motivation to identity, other research has highlighted how identity relates to work outcomes. This limited amount of research between identity and public service motivation is likely due to a general lack of understanding about to how social identity promotes or discourages public service motivation in social institutions, given that individuals may carry multiple identities and that researchers have usually measured attitudes and behaviors through surveys (see PSM literatures). This study seeks to interview individuals to ascertain their meanings associated with these topics.

The literature on public service motivation addresses the behavioral outcomes of public employees working in public organizations as well as bridges the concept of their identity, defined in terms of the social structure, and their behavior in the public institutions (Perry and Vandenabeele, 2008; Stryker and Burke, 2000). The conceptual drawing in Figure 5 is guiding this study.

Figure 5: Guiding Conceptual Framework

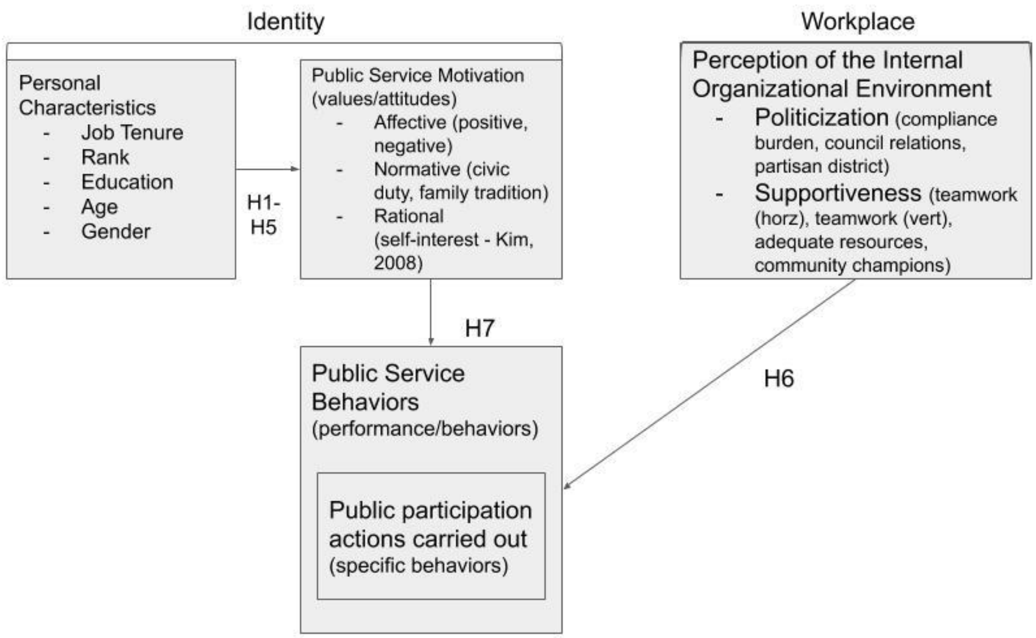


2.9.7 Organizational Factors: Work Environment and Perceptions

Using Perry's (1997) call for examining the organizational influences and policies on the public service motivation of members over a period of time (p. 193) I answer this call by examining the individuals' perceptions of the organization that may shape the relationship between individuals' public service motivation and their performances (Paarlberg, Perry and Hondeghem, 2008). Examining the literature on organizational politics and organizational support suggests that when employees perceive that there is no organizational support or that the organization is politicized, individuals become frustrated, leading them to believe that they are unable to act upon their public service motivation.

Organizational politics is defined as a behavior that undermines the collective goal of the organization and maximizes the self-interest of certain individuals (Vigoda, 2000). This assumption is in line with Maynard-Moody and Musheno's (2003) findings that rules, and superiors were impediments to employees doing what was right and fair for their clients (p. 218). This conceptual framework in Figure 5 recognizes that the work/organizational environment may have an impact on the identity, public service motivation and his or her performances.

Figure 6: Proposition Model



2.9.8 Personal Characteristics, Public Service Motivation, and Propositions

The literature on public service motivation (Ward, 2014) and identity (Bourgault and Van Dorpe, 2013) provides research that reveals that demographic variables, such as tenure, rank, education, age and gender matter. I take the variables of tenure, rank and education as being important in organizational settings, as they guide what the public administrators do and why do they do what they do in their work environment. The other variables, such as age and gender are also important regarding how individuals perform and do what is required of them in their work environment. These are explored further in the following propositions and expectations (see Figure 6 for the Proposition Model).

First, individuals with less job tenure in local government will express greater PSM, leading to more reportable public participation actions. This assumption is based on the review of the PSM literature where individuals with longer tenure may become dissatisfied overtime. According to the public service motivation literature, the longer that employees stay with an organization, the lower their public service motivation levels. Several findings (Moynihan and Pandey, 2007) have shown an inverse relationship between job tenure and public service motivation. Moynihan and Pandey (2007) posit that public service employees are likely to grow dissatisfied over time if they see that they have limited power in solving wicked problems. Although this study was limited to a health service environment, he called for more studies in other public sector environments. Finding the inverse relationship between tenure and public service motivation sheds light on another study that found that employees may also leave public sector employment when public service motivation levels wane (Wright and Christensen, 2010). I assume the following:

> **Proposition 1**: Individuals with less tenure will express higher PSM, leading to more public participation actions.

Secondly, individuals with a higher rank will express greater PSM, leading to more reportable public participation actions. This statement is based on the assumption that lower ranking individuals' work may be more routinized, and therefore, they may report little variations in public participation actions due to their inability to relate to the public work that they do. Previous studies have tended to look at all public service employees together without examining the how different levels of employee groups experience public service motivation, (Yung, 2014) with the exception of Houston (2000) who looked at the educational levels of public officials by rank and the valuation of meaningful work. He found that high ranking public officials had higher public service motivation than the lower ranking officials even though he did not set out to study this initially. This finding is also consistent with Jang's (2012) quantitative study that higher ranking officials in Taiwan were more likely to have higher PSM. Bright (2005) also found that managers within county government were linked to higher levels of PSM (Johnson, 2010). Recognizing the importance of these groupings and their distinctions, Yung (2014) hypothesized a link between PSM and different groups of public servants, including upper, middle and lower ranking officials. Yung (2014) found that PSM varied with rank, with the upper ranking officials tending to have higher PSM levels compared to lower ranking officials. Yung contended that these differentials may be the result of where they work. For instance, lower ranking public employees may be involved with routinization of work, making it difficult for them to relate to the public work that they do, resulting in lower PSM, leading to this assumption,

> **Proposition 2:** Individuals with a higher rank will express higher PSM, leading to more public participation actions.

Third, the more education that one has may heighten how he or she sees the value that serving the public may have on society. So, this study assumes that individuals with more advanced degrees will express greater PSM, leading to more public participation actions. There have been several studies by public service motivation scholars noting the link between education and public service motivation (Yung, 2014; Johnson, 2010; Pandey and Stazyk, 2008; Moynihan and Pandey, 2007; Naff and Crum, 1999; Perry, 1997). Perry's (1997) study, for example, found that education had a significant positive relationship with the overall measure of PSM and two of the PSM subscales, including commitment to public interest, civic duty and compassion. In another study, Bright (2005) found a positive relationship between public service motivation and educational levels and gender among Oregon public sector employees. These recognitions have fueled a discussion about education having a role in shaping one's beliefs about the value that public service has in society (Moynihan and Pandey, 2007). Using this as a starting point for those who have advanced degrees leads to this assumption:

> **Proposition 3:** Individuals with more advanced degrees will express higher PSM, leading to more public participation actions.

Fourth, although the research on age and public service motivation has produced mixed results as it relates to job performance, scholars continue to use it in their studies. For this research, it was beneficial to show that age is believed to have some impact on public service motivation. Older populations, as reported in the literature, want to make a difference and make a positive contribution to society, giving credence to why the older the individual is, the more he or she engages in making a positive difference in performance outcomes. Several studies have supported the positive effect that age has on public service motivation (Houston, 2000; Perry, 1997). However, other studies have indicated that age has no effect on public service motivation or that there is no theoretical underpinning for why public service motivation increases with age (Naff and Crum,1999; Pandey and Stazyk, 2008; Leisink and Steijn, 2009). Other scholars have chosen to control the age variable (Belle, 2013; Moynihan and Pandey, 2007) when examining the antecedent of PSM. In discussing a theoretical underpinning for what has been seen in the findings, Leisink and Steijn (2009) highlighted the notion that older populations may want to make a public service difference so that they can leave a positive contribution to society, giving some credence to why age has a positive effect on public service motivation. I put forth the following assumption:

> **Proposition 4:** The older the individual, the higher PSM s/he will express, leading to

more public participation actions.

Fifth, motivations can vary between men and women. This assumption is based on the review of the public service motivation literature that women with greater PSM tend to contribute to organizations through an emotional work effort. Women were seen as having compassion, empathy, and concern for others, driving the affective motivations that postulate the desire to serve and support while men were seen as conforming to masculine role expectations such as dominance and aggression. Studies found that women had higher levels of the affective motive, represented on the compassion dimension of PSM (Pandey and Stazyk, 2008). For instance, DeHart-Davis, Marlowe, and Pandey (2006) found that female public managers registered higher compassion and attraction in policy-making scores, supporting the notion that women have a proclivity toward helping others. However, Blum's (1982) study made a point about emotions being considered both a strength and a weakness of femininity, giving rise to the complexity that femininity has in the public sector environment (DeHart-Davis et al., 2006). Because of the gender dimensions associated with public service motivation (DeHart-Davis et. al., 2006) and a women's tendency to contribute to organizations through an emotional work effort (Bellas 1999; Guy and Newman 2004), I put forth the following expectations:

Proposition 5: Women will express higher PSM, leading to more public participation actions.

Sixth, if the perception of the internal organizational environment is perceived as non-supportive by the individual, the assumption is that individuals will express less public service motivation and therefore, report fewer public participation actions. This assumption is based on a review that individuals become frustrated if they believe that the environment is non-supportive, decreasing their motivation to perform at a certain level. Organizational politics have been documented in the management literature as having negative effects on important behavioral work outcomes. For example, organizational politics have been associated with decreased job satisfaction and organizational commitment, less work engagement and lower levels of task performance (Chang, Rosen, and Levy, 2009; Rosen, Levy, and Hall, 2006). Further, the study by Shrestha and Mishra (2015) also found a negative relationship between employees' perception of organizational politics and organizational commitment (Drory, 1993), suggesting that employees who perceive that their environment is political will be less committed to the organization, and therefore leave the organization. Several scholars also found a positive relationship between PSM and organizational commitment (Camilleri, 2007; Crewson, 1997), suggesting that employees with public service motivation tend to stay with the organization compared to those who leave due to frustration with the organizational environment. This insight is essential here, because if employees with public service motivation are, in fact, remaining with the public organization, then we would expect them to express more public participation actions. It is still important to note, as Moynihan and Pandey (2007) argued, that the perception of the environment may frustrate employees' public service motivation because they may feel that their ability to perform their job is limited (Brewer, Selden and Facer, 2000). In addition, Scott and Pandey (2005) further argued that individuals with higher levels of PSM could become acutely aware of the barriers that may have the potential to prevent public sector employees from performing their jobs. Continuing on this same thought, Sasser and Koslow (2012) also purported that highly politicized climates tended to suppress creative activity (Bai, Han, and Harms, 2016), giving employees less control over the organizational politics due to the external and powerful forces driving many of the politics exhibited in the organization (Vigoda, 2000). I put forth the following two propositions,

Proposition 6a: Individuals who perceive the organizational environment as less supportive will express less public service motivation.

Proposition 6b: Organizational environments perceived as less supportive will generate fewer public participation actions.

Seventh, there continues to be interest in the influence of public service motivation on job performance. There is a growing amount of work that examines the links between employee work outcomes that are potentially beneficial to organizations, including job performance, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Belle, 2013; Vandenabeele, Brewer, and Ritz, 2014). Public service motivation has been found to increase job performance among employees (Bright, 2007; Vandenabeele, 2009) and Bogh and Serritzlew (2012) highlighted the association between commitment to the public interest and the actual behavior of the individual. In this study, they examined 556 Danish employees utilizing their self-reported stronger commitment to the public interest and found that they tended to have a higher percentage of disabled patients. According to the study's authors, they used the percentage of disabled patients as their proxy for individual performance in terms of their contribution to society, helping more needy people compared to those who are less needy. This contribution is in line with Perry's (1997) definition of public service, denoting the act as doing something valuable for society. Similarly, findings suggest public employees make an effort to do something worthwhile (more actions) and engage citizens for public participation in a way that is thick and meaningful. Further, in a seminal study, Perry and Wise (1990) found that public service motivation was positively related to individual performance. Conceptually, they argued that highly public service motivated employees exerted more effort due to their embracement of public work (Perry, Hondeghem, and Wise, 2010). Further, individuals may perform work that may be influenced by the values that they hold about public work (Schott, Van Kleef, and Steen, 2015). Wright and Grant (2010) also found that people with high levels of public service motivation tend to live out their altruistic values, creating intrinsic motivation to perform at a higher level. Therefore, I propose the following proposition:

> **Proposition 7:** Individuals that express <u>higher public service motivation</u> will undertake <u>more public participation actions</u>.

2.10 Summary Discussion

In this section, I described the identity theory and identified the connection between identity and public service motivation. I also provided background information on organizational factors that may impede work performance for employees. Personal characteristics of an individual play a role in understanding the identity of public employees working in a public sector environment. From an organizational perspective, tenure, rank, and education are expected to be part of what defines an employee in an organization. I expect differences among employees because each employee personally makes an investment in his or her professional development (Schultz, 1961; Becker, 1962). Sweetland (1996) argued that individuals' pursuit of education leads to individual growth, which he based on the Human Capital Theory. Other variables, such as age and gender are expected to be personal attributes of a person that may have an impact on whether they are able to perform at a certain level. These variables are also important in organizational settings. I will discuss more about these variables in Chapter Five.

Chapter Three offers a review of one of the research designs and methods selected. The chapter explains the selection, data collection, and the data analysis techniques used for this study, including a discussion about the development of the interview protocol and the researcher's experience with public participation.

Chapter 3: Research Design and Method of Analysis

3.1 Research Approach

For this study, this study uses qualitative methods, which are useful methods for focusing on administrators' experiences and the meanings that they have placed on the identity, the events, structures, and processes. I seek to understand the extent that the administrators' experiences and meanings (Braun et al., 2019) play a role in how they understand their identity and motivation for public service. It is the connecting of these meanings to the social world (Miles, Huberman, and Saldana, 2014) around the administrators that pique my interest. If I understand how the administrators see themselves in the work environment, I can begin to understand their motivation for doing public work along with understanding the identity that they have while performing in the work environment. From an interpretivist stance, I am interested in the meanings that individuals attach to their public servant role rather than using the researcher's definition (Haverland and Yanow, 2012). As individuals encounter their work environment, they assign meanings that guide their behaviors in the workplace. Taking the thematic analysis approach to this study is one way to identify what is common about a topic discussed or written (Braun et al., 2019). Thematic analysis makes sense of the commonalities (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Further, Creswell pointed out that one of the reasons to conduct a qualitative study is to "listen to participants and build an understanding based on their ideas" (Creswell, 2003, p. 30). Using this approach allowed me to listen to how administrators have interpreted their environment and how they see themselves fitting in the work environment. It allowed me to "examine the physical events and behaviors taking place, but also how their understandings influence their behavior" (Maxwell, 2004, p. 9). In this study, administrators have an understanding about their role in the environment that may dictate how they perform their job. These behaviors and reportable actions have intentions and meanings that lead to consequences (Miles, et al., 2014). When administrators take actions on work related projects, this is intentional behavioral actions as a result of the meanings that they may have relied on to guide their performances. It is for this reason that taking a qualitative approach to this study is acceptable because these actions do occur in a specific situation within a social and historical context (Miles et al., 2014).

Upon completing the thematic analysis of the interviews, I began to formulate a conclusion narrative from the research by systematically coding interesting features from the data while looking for codes that allow me to code for themes. Codes help to manage, organize and identify themes (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Responses were coded into potential themes, which allowed me to determine if these themes work in relation to the coded extracts.

3.2 Research Sample

Administrators working within the CDBG program were chosen due the important role that they have in the community. The sample included officials from across the Commonwealth of Virginia in order to offer insight into the thinking of a varied population of administrators. These respondents were chosen because they were expected to offer a degree of knowledge about public participation and possess a degree of decision-making authority that could affect the extent that public participation was implemented. With convenience sampling, I solicited participants identified as CDBG administrators as of May 5, 2018 from the Grantee Contact Information on the HUD Exchange Website. The sample size for the interviews totaled 15 individuals. Some of the individuals could not be contacted or refused to participate. In some instances, I was given contact information about the person who was now handling public participation; I sought out their participation in this research (see Table 3 for participants' profiles). The response rate was 55%.

Table 3: List of Respondents, Locality IDs and Demographical Information

Participant's Locality ID	Participant	Rank	Gen	ED	Age	Tenure	Public Participation Actions (Percentages)
ID 09 - Marana	Deacon	M	M	BA	>57	0 and <5	8 (6.0)
ID 15 - Bullhead	Esther	NM	F	AA	>57	0 and <5	3 (2.2)
ID 20 -Camp Creek	Esa	NM	F	BA	>57	0 and <5	6 (4.5)
ID 25 - Duncan	Tonya	NM	F	MA	>25 and <45	0 and <5	22 (16.4)
ID 03 - Globe	Bobbi	M	F	MA	>25 and <45	0 and <5	3 (2.2)
ID 01 - Eager	Kylie	NM	F	MA	>25 and <45	0 and <5	3 (2.2)
ID 07 - Fountain Hills	Lana	M	F	MA	>46 and <56	0 and <5	5 (3.7)
ID 04 - Coolidge	Manford	NM	M	MA	>57	>6 and <11	4 (3.0)
ID 18 – Pike Terrace	Jay	NM	M	MA	>57	>6 and <11	11 (8.2)
ID 23 - Schotts	Kelvin	NM	M	MA	>46 and <56	>6 and <11	1 (0.7)
ID 24 - Wellton	Don	M	M	MA	>57	>18	2 (1.5)
ID 12 - Mammoth	Dennis	M	M	MA	>57	>18	5 (3.7)
ID 14 - Parker	Martha	NM	F	HS	>57	>18	5 (3.7)
ID 16 - Paine	Tracey	NM	F	BA	>57	>18	4 (3.0)
ID 05 - Benson	Lea	NM	F	MA	>46 and <56	>18	5 (3.7)

Education (ED)- MA = Graduate; BA/AA = Undergraduate; HS =High School
Rank - NM (Non-Manager); M (Managers)
*Actions as Documented in the Citizen Participation Plans (HUD, n.d.)

3.3 Why Study Public Participation in Virginia

Providing some background on Virginia at this point can assist in understanding why Virginia was a useful canvas on which to explore the intersection between identity and motivation in public administrators as they implemented public participation across the various localities. Virginia is named, "the mother of all states" and is guided by these principles: "Government is, or ought to be, instituted for the common benefit, protection, and security of the people…” and “That all power is vested in and consequently derived from, the people…” These statements are the foundation and heart of the meaning of the “Commonwealth of Virginia.” (Constitution of Virginia, n.d.). This emphasizes that the people are at the heart of the state and therefore, they must have a voice in public participation programs.

It was also useful to use The Commonwealth of Virginia as the setting for this study due to the state having a median income that was widely dispersed by location with the lowest median income ranging from 30,000.00 while the highest median income ranging to 150,000.00 (United States Census Bureau, 2018). Accordingly, eleven percent of the population lived below the poverty line, which was lower than the average of thirteen percent.

3.4 Procedures

Interviews were conducted with CDBG administrators as identified on HUD’s website as of May 2018. Each of the respondents were asked a core set of questions; however, I asked probing questions to provide further insight into the interviewees’ responses, to expand on the topic at hand, and to solicit examples when people generalized (Rubin and Rubin, 2012). All interviews were digitally recorded via Zoom and some were taped recorded if the interviewee did not have access to a microphone on the computer. The transcripts, along with the Consolidated Plans, served as the primary data sources. Until the study is completed, the interview recordings and notes will be stored in a password protected file and will be destroyed upon completion.

A recruitment email (see Appendix E) was sent to the administrators asking for their participation in the study. This letter was to ensure that the administrators were aware that I would be following-up if I did not receive a response from them. The letter provided a brief introduction to the study, information related to the study’s approved IRB protocol and contact information if they wanted to ask questions prior to responding to the request. If I did not hear from the administrator, I followed up with a second email. If I was unsuccessful, I telephoned them to request their participation using the telephone script (see Appendix F). This approach garnered additional respondents. After they agreed to be interviewed, each of them signed the consent form and returned it via email. If the interview was done in person, they handed the consent form to me. If the interview was done over the telephone, I obtained their verbal consent. Three interviews were conducted in person, two were conducted on the telephone and the rest were done over Zoom. Each interview lasted approximately 60-90 minutes.

Overall, PSM is individualized and personal, and therefore, from this perspective, it was assumed that the participants have the capacity to accurately reflect on their motivations for working within the public sector environment and producing performative outcomes.

3.5 Data Collection

In qualitative research, the primary method of data collection is the use of interviews (Creswell, 2003). For this study, data collection involved the use of semi-structured questions and a review of documents related to the study. Data was collected over an eight-month period from November 2018 - June 2019. Data collection involved fifteen semi-structured interviews, each lasting between 60-90 minutes and took place either in person, via telephone, or over Zoom; and an analysis of 4000-pages of documents including the Consolidated Plans, which have the citizen participation plans located as a subsection of the document.

The instrument for data collection was the use of an interview protocol (Appendix B). The identity model presented in this study informed the data collection and the analysis. Questions were related to identity. Burke and Stets (1999) discussed their model relating to how individuals negotiate their identity while gathering input into how others see them (not examined in this study) and how they want to see themselves. Identity allows individuals to take action based on the identity that they currently have in use. Research suggests that understanding what individuals do in their jobs may provide a richer insight into who they are in the identity construction (Pratt, Rockmann and Kaufmann, 2006). The interview protocol included the following questions intended to explore the participant's identity:

- Please explain how you came to work for local government.
- Please describe your role in your agency. What is your job like?
- What is it like working here?
    - Probe: Feelings about your job (e.g. scary, boring, overwhelming, etc.)
- In your lifetime what kinds of jobs have you held during your career in government?
- How did you come to work with the Community Development Block Grant Program?
- What is your experience with the Community Development Block Grant Program?
- I see you as an administrator of public service that is serving the public; what do you believe being an administrator of public service means?

From the research on identity theory, we know that people are constantly striving to reaffirm their salient and prominent identity (Burke and Stets, 2009). If they are prevented from sustaining the identity that they have about themselves in the nature of their work, they may begin to have negative feelings toward the work that they do (Burke, and Stets, 2009). The interview protocol included the following questions, which were intended to explore how participants feel about the work and their motivation for doing the work that they do:

Public Participation Process

- Public participation has been required of administrators for many years in a number of federally funded programs, what does public participation mean to you?
- What is like working with citizens (cooperative, friendly, rewarding, unpleasant waste of time)?
- Can you describe the typical people that show up for public participation?

- Can you describe a time where you were not able to engage a group targeted for public participation?
  - Probe: What did you do to try to elicit participation from the targeted group?

- Looking back over a single instance that stood out in your mind, when have you had a meaningful engagement with the public?
  - Probe: When have you not?

- To what extent do you rely on written guidance and procedures to specify what public participation methods are used to engage the public?

- What are some of the techniques that you use to engage with the public outside of the public hearing requirement or mandate?

- Do you have enough resources and personnel to lead a meaningful public participation process?

Prior to the start of the data collection, I piloted the instrument with four participants. The piloted interview questions allowed me to examine the interview questions and adjust as needed based on the feedback and the usefulness of the questions. Revisions were made to the interview protocol. Five questions were reworded, and additional questions were added. The final interview protocol consisted of twenty-questions. The interview protocol, along with the recruitment letter approved by the Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board (IRB) are in Appendix B and Appendix H.

3.6 Collecting Interview Data

3.6.1 Introduction

Fifteen administrators participated in the interviews. Their tenure (Table 4) in their roles was divided into several categories, 0 - 5 years in the current position, (47%); 6 - 11 years in the current position (33%) and 12+ years in the current position (33%). The public servants had various positions ranging from CDBG administrators, coordinators, directors, managers, specialists and analysts. See Table 5 for how they were divided into managers versus non-managerial roles. The majority of the respondents had completed (Table 6) graduate degrees (67%), while the rest of the respondents had a bachelor's degrees or below (33%). The age range of the respondents were 25 - 45 years (20%), 26 - 45 (20%) and 57 + (60%). The majority of the respondents were females (60%) and the rest were males (40%) (see Table 7). Table 3 provides a description of the participants' profiles, as data collection sheets were collected on all respondents prior to the interview (see Appendix G for Data Collection Sheet).

Table 4: Tenure of Respondents

Tenure of Respondents	Frequency	Percent
0 - 5	7	47%
6 - 11	3	20%
12 +	5	33%
Grand Total	**15**	**100.00%**

Table 5: Position and Educational Levels of Respondents

Position - Education	Frequency	Percent
Manager	**5**	**33%**
Bachelors	1	7%
Masters	4	27%
Non-Manager	**10**	**67%**
Associates Degree	1	7%
Bachelors	2	13%
Diploma	1	7%
Masters	6	40%
Grand Total	**15**	**100.00%**

Table 6: Educational Levels of Respondents

Highest Education Level Completed	Frequency	Percent
Associates Degree	1	7%
Bachelors	3	20%
Diploma	1	7%
Masters	10	67%
Grand Total	**15**	**100.00%**

Table 7: Gender, Race and Ethnicity of Respondents

Race and Gender	Frequency	Percent
⊟F	**9**	**60%**
African-American	4	27%
Asian	1	7%
White	4	27%
⊟M	**6**	**40%**
Other	1	7%
White	5	33%
Grand Total	**15**	**100.00%**

3.6.2. Internal Confidentiality

In the qualitative research realm, researchers are often faced with confidentiality and the promise to do no harm to subjects. Once I gained my IRB approval, I understood that this was the premise on which I was to embark as I undertook this research. The first step after my IRB approval was to email potential participants asking for their participation in my research project. Once they replied and agree to participate, the IRB required me to obtain their consent to move forward with the project. Part of the consent document addressed confidentiality and stated, "The investigator will not include the name or any data that identifies the study participants (e.g., name, phone number, and addresses) in the report." In addition, all identifying information will be kept separate from participant's interview responses. I presented this agreement at the beginning of the data collection process to build trust and to establish rapport. Building this trust at the beginning was important for me, as it allowed me to move right into data collection. I assigned each of my participants pseudonyms during the data collection phase. Baez (2002) discussed the protection of the research participants from any kind of discomfort or vulnerability. I contended that my disclosing any identifying information about my participants could put them at risk of being identified and threaten the safeguard of others in the research. Protecting the individuals was a top priority in order for the participants to speak openly and freely about their jobs. Data was analyzed without compromising the participants identities.

In addition, scholars have discussed the benefits gained from the concealment of participants' identities from an organizational perspective. For instance, Guenther (2009) stated that organizations may transform due to what they have learned from a group of de-identified employees. Other have highlighted how the failure of disclosing information may perpetuate the kinds of experiences that will continue to happen over again and again (Baez, 2002). Since confidentiality was necessary for this research, and that there was a sense that everyone knew each other in these localities, I have decided to disguise participants' identities along with their respective locations (Tolich, 2004; Hennink, Hunter, and Bailey, 2011). Despite these efforts to keep confidentiality, I understand that there may be some quotes or descriptions that may have revealed my participants. Tolich (2004) called this deductive disclosure. It is for this reason that I wanted to ensure that the information given in the public domain did not compromise individuals' confidentiality.

Table 3 displays the list of participants. Each participant was given a pseudonym to conceal his or her identity and to ensure confidentiality. Upon selection of the participants, the researcher offered confidentiality and stated that no names or identifying information would be linked to a participant's name. Each of the participants signed off on the consent document with the understanding that his or her name would remain confidential. In addition to the locality and the participant information, the table also describes the individual in terms of his or her tenure, rank, education, age, gender, and locality.

3.6.3 Community Characteristics of the Respondents' Localities

Fifteen localities in the Commonwealth of Virginia participated in this study. The localities' median income, in 2017 dollars range from $30,000.00 to $150,000.00. The 2018 population estimates of the localities ranged from 20,000 to 1,200,000. The localities used a range of activities or projects eligible for funding (see Table 8). The administrators agreed to participate in the study and understood, from the consent form, that the researcher would maintain anonymity and confidentiality.

Table 8: Range of CDBG Eligible Activities

Acquisition of Real Property	Interim Assistance	Construction of Housing	Homeownership Assistance
Deposition	Relocation	Code Enforcement	Planning and Capacity Building
Public Facilities Improvements	Loss of Rental Income	Economic Development Activities	Program Administration Costs
Clearance	Privately-Owned Utilities	Special Activities by CBDOs	Miscellaneous Other Activities
Public Services	Rehabilitation	Microenterprise Assistance	

HUD (n.d.)

3.6.4 Selection Bias

This analysis does not make claims or state causality, although I used statistical controls to ensure that selection bias was minimum. The responding localities and the non-responding localities look similar and different patterns do not exist. The correlation coefficient r measures the strength and direction of a linear relationship between the poverty variable and the public participation actions on the scatterplot (See Figure 7 and Figure 8).

In this case, the r varied slightly (r= 0.09 and r=0.12, respectively). Therefore, the sampling displays minimum selection bias. Note: See Table 11 for the Localities related to the ID numbers.

Figure 7: Responding Localities

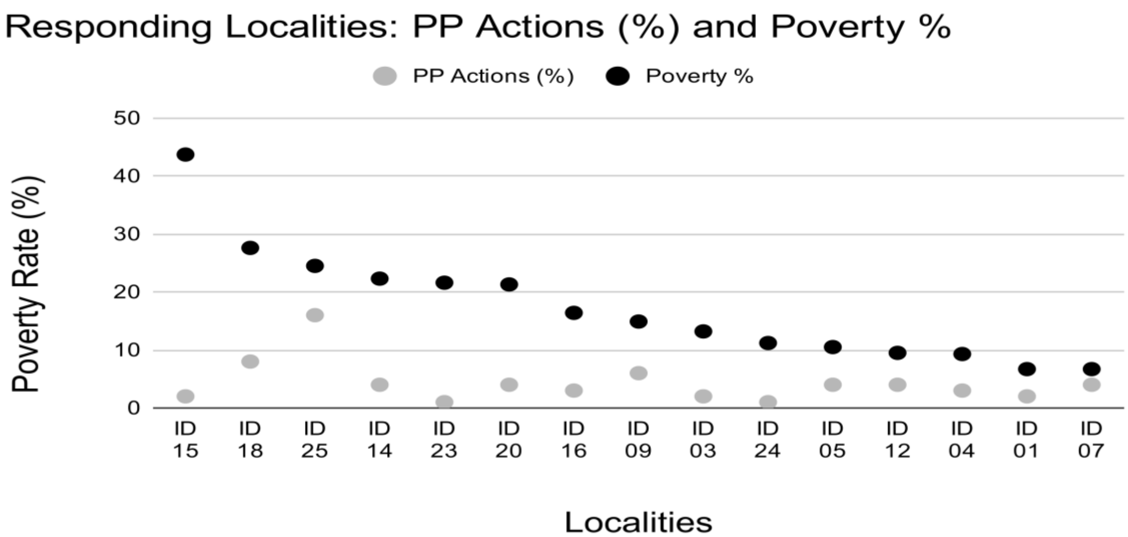
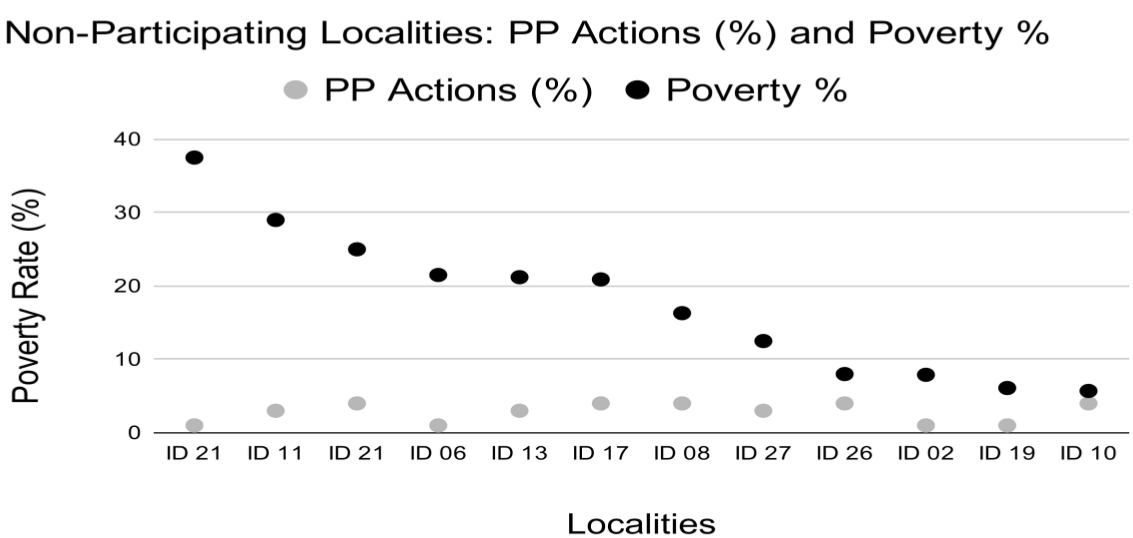


Figure 8: Non-Responding Localities



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3.7 The Researcher

I bring the experiences of having been a participant in the public participation process before and after this study and having both the knowledge and the understanding of public participation. I have witnessed community members participating in government-led public participation in a manner that may or may not have been productive for either the individual or the local government administrator.

With this up close and personal interaction, I acknowledge that this public participation experience is valuable for providing insight into this study, but it could also bias my judgment and create a liability in the research design and interpretation of the findings. Also, I am dedicated to engaging in continual reflection by memoing and staying in contact with my chair and committee members regarding data triangulation. At the end of the interviews, interviewees had an opportunity to discuss anything they wanted to clarify in the conversation. Taking these approaches has strengthened the credibility of the research. Further, clarifications are documented in another chapter as part of this study.

3.8 Ethical Consideration

Participants were given consent forms to sign before taking part in the interview. This study ensures the protection and rights of the participants by keeping the participants' identities and the interview data confidential. Participants were informed that their data would remain confidential with no identifying attribution. Seeing as some of the collected data will reveal their identities, the researcher has opted to de-identify the localities and give the interviewees pseudonyms (see Table 3). Both the interview data and transcripts were stored on a password-protected computer with a firewall. Appendix H provides a copy of the IRB approval documentation. I also made sure that the participants were aware of the study's purpose and how they might contribute to the study.

3.9 Examining the Interview Data

After the completion of the interviews, the interview data were transcribed, and a thematic analysis was done using the Atlas ti software program. This software program was used to organize and sort data and to search for themes (Creswell, 2013). I did the analysis after watching the Atlas ti training with additional insight gathered from Miles and Huberman (1994). Braun and Clark (2006) provided the practical guidelines for the data analysis which allowed me to follow specific steps in order to analyze the data. This research is used as a foundational method for qualitative analysis (Braun and Clark, 2006), followed by a focus on narrative as a valuable means of appreciating the administrators' work (Orr and Bennett, 2017). The focus on narrative, according to Orr and Bennett (2017), is created by individuals and is one way that shared meanings help individuals understand the work that they do on a daily basis.

Rubin and Rubin (2012) contend that the analysis is stimulating because of the themes and the concepts that emerge from the data. Because there is no one method to analyze data, it is important that researchers' objectives and theoretical frameworks match their research goals (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis can be a method to reflect the reality and to dig deeper into the reality that is below the surface (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Table 9 highlights the approach that I took to analyze the data. Prior to analyzing the data, I took efforts to read and understand each transcript as a whole and developed a constant approach for examining the data (Sandelowski, 1995). Transcripts were read and reread in preparation for data coding. The coded data were sorted and collated into potential higher order themes. These themes were analyzed, re-evaluated, and refined to ensure that internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity were bringing about commonality amongst the codes within a theme, as well as identifying distinctions between the themes (Patton, 2002). Using the identity theory framework as a guide, I analyzed the data deductively. Then, in the inductive phase, I looked for patterns of themes by working back and forth with the data to see if the themes were logical and in accordance with the interviewees' responses. I continued with the deductive approach by examining the data to see if there were more evidence that could support each theme (Creswell, 2014). As identified by Braun, Clarke, Hayfield, and Terry (2019), coding and analysis use a combination of both deductive and inductive approaches, because the researcher always brings biases into the data when it is analyzed inductively. Creswell (2013) highlighted that qualitative research allows patterns to emerge and then the patterns begin to merge into themes. A preliminary list was developed to depict the levels of themes, the higher and lower order theme names, and the number of codes identified within each. Themes were reexamined once more to ensure that they had been adequately accounted for, named, and refined.

Table 9: Phases of the Thematic Analysis

(Braun and Clarke, 2006)

Phase	Description of the process
1. Data familiarization	Transcribe data, reading and rereading the data, jotting down initial ideas.
2. Initial code generation	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each other
3. Themes search	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
4. Reviewing themes:	Checking if the themes work in relation to coded extracts and the entire data set, generating a thematic map of the analysis.

5. Defining and naming themes	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
6. Producing the product	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis

To illustrate the thematic analysis used in this study, I will provide an example. This project involved interviewing 15 participants in Virginia to understand their experiences with public participation while also gathering their identity and motivation. This thematic analysis example uses data from only three of the administrators. The administrators varied in rank, gender, age, and education, but they were all administrators of the CDBG program within their respective locality. The scope of public participation was broadly examined to include the norms and the ideas conveyed for engaging the public, the administrator's interactions with the public, the interactions between the administrators and the government within the environment, the engagement process, the limitations, and the local geographic areas of the locality.

In the semi-structured interviews, which lasted approximately 60-90 minutes, participants were all asked about their experiences with public participation. The interviews covered their experiences and their perceptions of public participation, the local environment in which they have to engage the public, whether they had thick, meaningful engagement opportunities with the public and whether they felt that they had enough resources to do their job. I worked with full transcripts while doing the analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2016).

Phase 1: Data Familiarization:

In this phase, I became familiar with my data by listening to the interviews and making notes and observations about the data. I used an electronic file to store my written notes.

Making these notes helped me start reading my data as data (Braun and Clarke, 2016). This approach allowed me to read actively, analytically, and critically, and to start thinking about how the data related to my research questions. Here is a brief example from one interview:

Don: Public participation to me is getting out and getting folks who can see the forest through the trees because they live there, and they live the life because you know I live a different life than they live. And so therefore, their perception on things to mind are different and I want their viewpoint. The money for public participation is meant to serve their needs, not mine. But I do know that it is a struggle to get the public out for participation unless you are doing something really controversial in someone's backyard. Block Grants are non-threatening, and a lot of folks don't understand them.

My initial observation included: (a) Don reports a common experience of public participation, (b) public participation is challenging, (c) people know what they need in their communities, (d) he wants to help, but may not be sure about the best approaches to garner greater public participation. Looking more closely, I surmised that Don values honesty and being true to the job he has in front of him, but he recognizes the sociopolitical context in which he is situated and may not want to or cannot stretch beyond this.

The goal at this phase was to become familiar with the content and to begin to notice ideas that might be relevant to my research question (Braun and Clarke, 2016). In this phase, I was not coding, but simply looking at the interview to gather a stream of ideas that flowed from reading the transcript. This helped me think back on the notes when I began coding and analyzing.

Phase 2: Generating Initial Codes:

In this phase, I started to do systematic analysis of the data through coding. Codes developed at this stage provided a label for a feature of the data that was relevant to my research question. Coding provided a summary of a portion of the data, with a focus on staying close content of the data and to the participants' meanings. An example from another interview follows:

Esther: I appreciate the money that I'm administrating. It came from taxpayers and that you know that legislators have made important decisions about allocating it and I do take seriously that we are in compliance with those guidelines. I need to listen to the needs of the community.

For this, I coded "staying in compliance, managing taxpayer's monies, and listening to the need of the community." In addition, codes do not have to stay at the participant's meanings, they can go beyond to provide an interpretation about the data (Braun et al., 2019). In my initial coding, I generated more descriptive codes, which was normal in novice coding according to Braun et al., 2019. Overtime, interpretative approaches develop as the researcher gains more experience (Braun et al., 2019).

Using more than one code is normal. I used the computer software program, Atlas.ti, to manage my coding, allowing me to cut and paste text into a new Word document, if needed. I also did some hand coding, which allowed me to get close to the data. Using the hand coding process, I was able to easily see whether to apply coding to what I had already used or whether to generate a new code to capture that specific piece of the data (Braun et al., 2019). Another illustration of coding in this data extract revealed that there was tension between what the administrators were required to do, versus the impact that the requirement was making. This was coded as “publishing” in the paper and” no engagement”. An example from another interview follows:

Esther: I mean, certainly, just with those annual invitations, like every time we do our annual action plans for CDBG and home. We have to publish in the paper public participation, they can go on the website, they can come to one or two public meetings, there's virtually no engagement with that.

Similarly, in another illustration, this interview data revealed some tensions between the program and the resources given. This was coded as “limitations of the program” and “city council are receptive of the CDBG projects”.

Martha: Sometimes they don't realize the limitations of the programs. So, some things can't be done. But, with city council, they're always very receptive with the projects that come in from the nonprofits and the city departments.

This phase ends with my data coded and the diversity and patterns revealed across the data.

Phase 3: Searching for Themes:

In this phase, my data began to take shape (Braun et al., 2019), showing important themes in the data in relations to the research question, representing a pattern across the data. I reviewed the coded data to identify areas of similarity and overlaps between the codes. In this data, there were clusters around administrators’ experiences with public participation. Looking at this further, I identified codes that either focused on resource limitations as they related to public participation, and the tension that existed between the administrator and what they are able to do in the work environment. A lot of codes clustered around the issue of identity and motivation. After looking into this further, I looked for ways to combine codes around the issue of identity. Coming up with these themes around identity was not as obvious. I had to make connections and draw lines that connected several codes to one or more themes. When there were overlaps between the themes, it gave a clearer picture of the concepts and issues, creating a framework that tells a story about what was going on in the data (Braun et al., 2019).

Phase 4: Reviewing Potential Themes:

This phase was the quality checking phase where I first checked themes against the collated extracts of data and determine whether the themes work within in my data. If they did not work with my data, I eliminated them or relocated the code to another theme. Braun et al. (2019) identified some questions that I asked when deciding whether these codes and themes worked. 1). Is this a theme; 2). If it is a theme, what is the quality of the theme; 3) What are the boundaries of the theme; 4) Are there enough data to support this theme; 5) Are the data too diverse and wide ranging. At this phase, I was doing a final read of my data to determine whether the data were meaningful.

Phase 5: Defining and Naming Themes:

This phase allowed me to define the themes. Providing definitions at this stage allowed for identifying what was unique and specific about each theme (Braun et al., 2019). Here is an example of a definition and label for a theme:

Theme: "*I love being able to deal with low-moderate income people that need some assistance to make their lives better*": Understanding their roles as public servants. This theme focused on how the administrators see themselves in government, realizing that they were working to serve the people in one capacity or another. "*Government needs to be transparent and needs to be there to serve*". Here, they positioned themselves within government and identified the need to serve the people in their role as public servants.

Phase 6: Producing the Product:

The final analysis included the production of a report that tells a compelling story from the data, notes, and memos based on the analysis. At this phase, research questions were answered. Braun et al. (2019) purport that the report using first-person active tense is best used for qualitative research. Building the themes in a logical progression can help with telling a coherent story about the data (Braun et al., 2019). For this research, it made sense to discuss the participants' identity and their motivation for public participation to get a clearer picture of who they are in the work environment, followed by their motivation for public participation. Capturing their experiences with and their feelings about public participation helps to tell a story about the data (Braun et al., 2019).

3.10 Summary Discussion

This chapter contains information about the methodology used in this multi-site case study, focusing its efforts on the administrators' identities and public service motivation as they implement public participation as part of their jobs as CDBG administrators. The design of the study used a semi-structured interview format to uncover administrators' identities and motivation for engaging with the public. Through these perspectives, we may learn about the meanings that they have associated with the work that they do as public servants. This chapter also provides details about how the data was analyzed as well as exploring the themes and sub-themes that exist in the data. The theoretical framework provided the backdrop to organize the emerging themes that came forth. Triangulation of data sources was used to support the administrators' interview data, allowing the phenomena to be viewed from multiple perspectives (see Chapter Five). In the following chapter, a discussion of the basic content analysis of the CDBG Citizen Participation Plans data. For each plan, the researcher extracted the public participation method used and captured the frequency of the methods used for engaging the public. This chapter featured the documented public participation methods, defining and characterizing the specific methods used by the entitlement localities.

Chapter 4: Method: Content Analysis

4.1 Introduction

The proposed project is retrospective, which allows for data to be collected by me in a timely manner because it has already been compiled (Salkind, 2010). Though the study examines data from the past, it is not outdated because I extract 2019 data from the HUD Exchange Website. One of the advantages of using this is that data is already collected and has been compiled, making it easy to access. There was a total of 30 localities listed, but the final analytic sample comprised of 27 documents. Three localities were excluded because there were no Citizen Plans on files for these localities.

Due to the variations in median incomes and the poverty rates in the Commonwealth of Virginia, examining public participation actions in these entitlement localities are an excellent choice for analyzing the documents for citizens' input into community development projects.

The primary data for this analysis comes from HUD's databases; HUD provides CDBG funding to communities for the development of viable urban communities by providing decent housing, suitable living environments, and expanded economic opportunities, principally for low to moderate-income persons. According to the CDBG program, recipients of these grants must develop and follow a detailed citizen participation plan, which provides for and encourages citizen participation. The citizen participation plan must emphasize participation from persons of low to moderate income, particularly residents of predominantly low and moderate-income neighborhoods, slums, or blighted areas where the grantee proposes to use the funds (HUD, n.d.). These data/documents consist of self-reported information by city administrators in the localities where proposals were submitted to fund community projects.

The localities' Consolidated Plans list the affiliated government offices responsible for the content of the plan, including the citizen participation plan. The majority of the plans' administrators were from a combination of agencies within the city from the following areas: the city's planning department, city housing administration, community development, budgeting office and redevelopment and housing authority.

The Consolidated Plans are designed to help states and local jurisdictions assess their community development needs and market conditions (HUD, n.d.). They are carried out through Annual Action Plans, which are a summary of the actions, activities, and the specific federal and non-federal resources that will be used each year to address the priority needs and specific goals identified in the Consolidated Plan. The Consolidated Plan is uploaded to the Consolidated Annual Performance and Evaluation Report (CAPER) where the grantees can report on their accomplishments and progress (HUD, n.d.).

Examining the documents highlighted how administrators reported public participation activities across Virginia. The overall data was compared with what they said during their interviews. Oftentimes, during the interviews, the interviewees were quick to point out the public hearings and sometimes used the term "public meetings" interchangeably with public hearings. According to Williamson and Fung (2004), these terms are often used interchangeably. However, the literature described distinguishing features between the two. For example, public hearings are defined as open gatherings for officials and citizens; however, although citizens are given the opportunity to speak on the issues, officials are not obligated to respond (Williamson and Fung, 2004). On the other hand, public meetings allow for officials to learn more about the citizens' opinions and perspectives, while informing citizens about certain policies and the reasons they have taken on such policies (Williamson and Fung, 2004). Although the statutes often require public hearings to be held prior to the implementation of projects, numerous problems have been documented in the literature about the public hearing process. For example, King, Feltey, and Susel concisely stated: "The most ineffective technique is the public hearing. Public hearings do not work" (1998, p. 323). Another scholar stated that citizens' comments do not influence policy outcomes (Adams, 2004). However, we continue to find that public hearings are the most frequently used method for engaging the public across the U.S. In a study by Berman, 97 percent of cities nationwide used public hearings as a way to involve citizens (1997). For the public to have meaningful opportunities to influence decisions, they must be given public participation opportunities that are authentic and engaging.

Another interesting point is that the literature has also used the two terms: public meeting and public hearing, interchangeably. For example, Adams (2004) characterized public meetings as an opportunity to give citizens a specified amount of time to speak without engaging with other citizens or officials in a dialogue. It is no wonder that my interviewees were using these terms interchangeably. This may be an area for follow-up to determine if administrators are aware that public meetings and public hearings have distinguishable characteristics, where the key differences are in the types of interaction. Interactions could be two-way conversations between officials and citizens or one-way communication without any interaction between officials and the citizens providing the input.

When looking at the data, most of the methods used were uni-directional. It appears that they were giving out information to the community instead of providing a dialog where the community and the officials could learn from one another. Using these static public records may reflect the beliefs, behaviors and attitudes of administrators that go beyond those of the individual (Hancock and Algozzine, 2006). This research examines whether these reportable practices became patterned overtime, bringing attention to the behaviors and attitudes of the administrators. The reports will allow me to evaluate the data as a whole (Bloomberg and Volpe, 2008) and to triangulate the report data with the interview data. As Creswell (2018) purported, triangulation gives us the ability to substantiate evidence from other individuals, methods and types of data collection.

4.2 Content Analysis: CDBG Citizen Participation Plans for FY 2019

4.2.1 Content Analysis of the Documents

The purpose of this study is to assess how the localities documented public participation as depicted in each of the localities Citizen Participation Plans located in the HUD Integrated Disbursement and Information System (IDIS). I conducted a systematic content analysis of the documents to address the following research question: What public participation actions are reported by CDBG administrators? This is performed to document how each locality engaged the public. Content analysis is a tool for understanding the meanings that are reported in the documents (Krippendorff, 2004). It is an objective way of quantifying something that may indicate the importance of a particular topic that is shown in the document (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 59). I extracted the public participation methods based on a variety of literatures that documented various techniques that are used to engage the public. Specifically, public hearings is one of the methods that is often used for engaging the public. Public hearings are defined as an open gathering for officials and citizens; however, citizens are given the opportunity to speak on the issues, but officials are not obligated to respond (Williamson and Fung, 2004). They are the most widespread method for public participation in the United States and are used by all levels of government for a wide variety of reasons (Williamson and Fung, 2004). Moreover, other methods do exist that government uses for soliciting public input. These other methods include questionnaires, focus groups (Rowe and Frewer, 2005), telephone surveys, citizen juries or public meetings, and online platforms.

As a result of the many ways of engaging the public, Appendix C presents a comprehensive list of public participation techniques used across the U.S and the UK. In addition to this list, the literature has categorized public participation techniques in a variety of ways: one-way communication versus two-way communication (Nabatchi, 2012; Beierle, 1998), thin participation versus thick participation (Nabatchi, Ertinger, and Leighninger, 2015), authentic versus non-authentic (King, et al., 1998) and meaningful versus non-meaningful. Others have used the IAP2 to analyze public participation along a spectrum depending on the type of information that the government was seeking from the community.

For the purpose of this analysis, I have documented the participation technique and determined whether the participation was thick, synonymous with meaningful participation or thin (see Table 10 for a list of techniques used by localities). Thin participation allows for citizens' input through a variety of methods and occurs face-to-face or by telephone as well as online. Thick participation allows for people, either in small or large groups, to have face-to-face conversation to discuss, learn, decide, and act together (Nabatchi et al. 2015). Thick descriptions allow for meaningful input to discuss, learn and decide together whereas, thin descriptions are where citizen input allows for less interaction between the interactants.

The first step in content analysis was to determine which localities used what method. For this, localities' Consolidated Plans were extracted from the publicly accessible HUD Integrated Disbursement and Information System (IDIS) to examine their Citizen Participation Plans to document their methods by locality in an Excel spreadsheet. The latest report was examined (FY 2019). It was found that each entitlement localities had a Citizen Participation plans, with the exception of three that did not have a Citizen Participation document (ID 28-Tempe, ID 30-Springerville and ID 29-Payson), and each plan documented public participation techniques. I examined all 27 localities' Citizen Participation Plans. ID 28-Tempe, ID 30-Springerville and ID 29-Payson were listed in the IDIS database, but no documents existed for them. This may indicate that they may not have participated in the HUD CDBG program during the reporting period.

Table 10: Total Number of Times (134) Localities Used a Technique; Description of Techniques Follows

TECHNIQUES	***DESCRIPTION***	**TOTAL USED**
Flyer-Mailer (includes Mailed Letters) - Thin	**Distribution of flyer and Letters s in entitlement areas and in the proposed service area(s)**	**3 (.02%)**
Website/Internet Outreach (includes Email) - Thin	**Tool used to publicize public hearing information and other information pertaining to the community development projects**	**15 (11%)**
Newspapers - Thin	**Tool used to publicize public hearing information with dates and times for input from the public.**	**24 (18%)**
Public Hearings - Thin	**Tool used to gather input from the public. It is usually unidirectional.**	**31 (23%)**
Public Meeting -Thick	**Tool used to gather input and/or solicit feedback on various community development projects.**	**49 (37%)**
Surveys - Thin	**Tool used to solicit citizen input on various community projects.**	**10 (.07%)**
Stakeholder Interviews -Thin	**Surveys sent out to ask community stakeholders about the needs in the community**	**2 (.01%)**

4.2.2 Results: Documenting Public Participation

Virtually all localities used public hearings (70%), public meetings (70%), and newspapers (59%) as their "go to" method for engaging the public (see Figure 9 and Figure 10). Figure 9 lists the public participation methods used, the percentages of the localities using these methods and Figure 10 is a graphical depiction of the methods used. Figure 11 lists the localities and the number of times that each locality used a specific technique compared to the number of times they engaged with the public. After further data examination, most of the engagement was thin public participation or non-meaningful, which allows for an easy and fast way of garnering citizens' input into the decision-making processes. The government may find that this approach is a faster way to garner input right away whereas the least used method in this data, thick participation, requires more engagement to give citizens an opportunity to work with officials and come up with solutions that helps to solve immediate needs. Referring back to Figures 9 and 10, public meetings, public hearings and newspapers were more often used as the method of choice for many of the localities, giving some indication that public participation within government has become isomorphic within this environment. We may see that these methods are highly used in the plans due to the HUD statute giving guidance to the agencies about holding, at minimum, two public hearings with at least one held prior to the development of the Consolidated Plan and notifying the public through a public notice in the newspaper at least two weeks prior to the public hearing, which is a sufficient notification according to HUD. Looking at the documents, I noticed that some localities documented newspapers as a method, while other localities did not provide documentation, even when it was requested by HUD. If it was documented elsewhere, I did not find it in these documents. Because these documented are self-reported and rely on the administrators to accurately account for what they did, we may find that the requirement to advertise via newspapers may have been overlooked by the localities or that they simply did not document it. Using these strategies as a way to document engagement is relatively easy.

There were other methods chosen by the other localities, however, these methods made up a slim minority used by the localities to engage through email (7%), flyers (4%), interviews (4%), and letters (7%). However, other methods were used by a mid-majority of the localities such as surveys (30%) and websites (44%) to engage the public. Surveys are one method to document the public input, but it does not allow for an interactive process or relationship between citizens and administrators (King et al. 1998). There are a host of reasons that administrators may limit their use of surveys. For instance, Franklin and Ebdon (2015) argue that surveys are costly to administer and time consuming. These reasons are also similar for why we find less localities using email, flyers, and letters to engage the public. Consistent with the isomorphic definition, Figure 10 shows a pattern existing among the various localities even when they have been given the freedom to implement other methods for public participation. Isomorphism leads to legitimacy when each of the localities adopt these approaches and view them as being appropriate with the norms, values, and beliefs about public participation (Suchman and Edelman, 1996; DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). From this perspective, administrators may rely on what other cities are doing in the area and respond in a similar manner, giving another reason to take a closer look at the administrators' identity and motivation for performing the public participation actions.

Figure 9: Percentages of Localities and Specific Public Participation Methods Identified in Plans

* Excludes the localities without Citizen Participation Plans (3)

Total Number of Localities (27*)	Public Participation Methods Used	Percentages
19	Public Meetings	70%
19	Public Hearings	70%
16	Newspapers	59%
12	Website	44%
8	Surveys	30%
2	Emails	7%
2	Mailed Letters	7%
1	Flyers- Mailers	4%
1	Stakeholder Interviews	4%

Figure 10: Graphical Depiction of Public Participation Methods

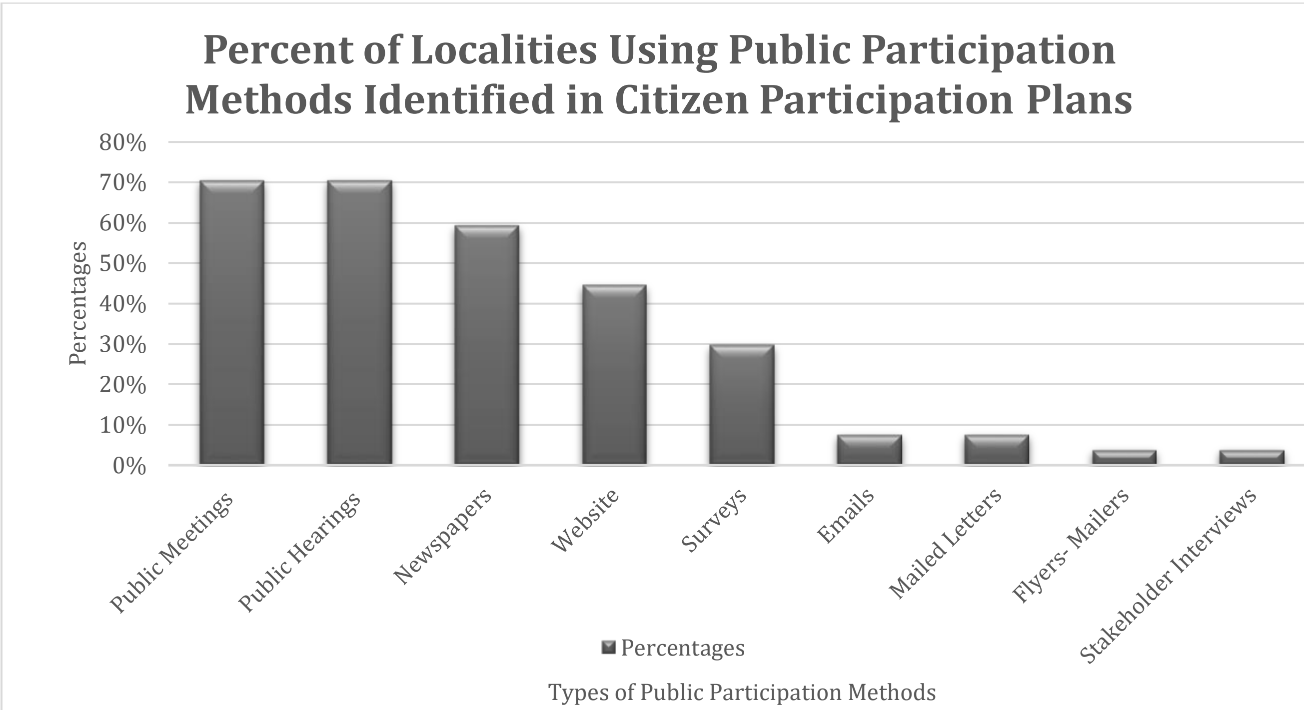


Figure 11: Times Engaged and Total Techniques Used by Locality

Localities	Number of Times Engaged the Public (Actions)	Total Techniques Used Per Locality
ID 25 - Duncan	● 22	● 6
ID 18 - Pike Terrace	◑ 11	◑ 3
ID 09 - Marana	◔ 8	◑ 3
ID 20 - Camp Creek	◔ 6	◕ 4
ID 08 - Jerone	◔ 6	● 5
ID 17 - Pima	◔ 6	◕ 4
ID 22 - Surprise	◔ 6	◔ 2
ID 05 - Benson	◔ 5	● 5
ID 10 - Buckeye	◔ 5	◔ 2
ID 07 - Fountain Hills	◔ 5	◔ 2
ID 12 - Mammoth	◔ 5	◕ 4
ID 14 - Parker	◔ 5	○ 1
ID 26 - Tolleson	◔ 5	◕ 4
ID 04 - Coolidge	○ 4	◕ 4
ID 11 - Kearny	○ 4	◑ 3
ID 13 - Ora Valley	○ 4	◕ 4
ID 16 - Paine	○ 4	◔ 2
ID 27 - Winchester	○ 4	◑ 3
ID 15 - Bullhead	○ 3	◑ 3
ID 01 - Eager	○ 3	◑ 3
ID 03 - Globe	○ 3	◑ 3
ID 02 - Fredonia	○ 2	◔ 2
ID 06 - Eloy	○ 2	◔ 2
ID 19 - Safford	○ 2	◔ 2
ID 24 - Wellton	○ 2	◔ 2
ID 21 - Somerton	○ 1	○ 1
ID 23 - Schotts	○ 1	○ 1
TOTAL	134	80

Findings indicate that localities engaged through public hearings and public meetings more often was similar to previous studies that found that public hearings were more often used among administrators for a number of reasons. One reason for this, according to the literature, is that administrators want to be able to say that the citizens had an opportunity to participate in the process, knowing that the decisions have already been made (King et al., 1998). Some critics believe that public hearings are too late in the process and that they have no way of changing the mind of the public officials. Another reason that public hearings are often used is because administrators believe that citizens do not know enough to provide informed information about the issues at hand.

It is evident that out of the total number (nine) of public participation techniques (Flyer/Mailer and Website/Internet were combined) used for FY 2019 in the CBDG program only ID 25-Duncan (6) used the most variation of techniques to reach the public followed by ID 05-Benson (5), ID 08-Jerone (5), ID 20-Camp Creek (4), ID 04-Coolidge (4), ID 12-Mammoth (4), ID 13-Ora Valley (4), ID 17-Pima (4), and ID 26-Tolleson (4). The other localities used less than four techniques to engage the public (see Table 10). About sixty-nine percent of the localities did not use no more than three variation of techniques to engender public participation. When localities use less of a variety of methods, they can become prone to unexpected outcomes that may not get the real picture about who is actually getting opportunities to participate, creating "public participation bias" (Nabatchi and Leighninger, 2015, p. 247). However, using a variety of techniques can leverage the strength of one and offset any weakness in the other techniques used (Franklin and Ebdon, 2015; Ebdon and Franklin, 2004).

Table 11 illustrates more of a demographical comparison between all of the localities as they relate to their community characteristics (median income, minority population, education and poverty rate) and Table 12 illustrates the responding localities where administrators were interviewed. Figure 12 shows graphical depictions of all localities' public participation actions rates and the poverty rate. Across the localities, public participation action rates are constant across all localities. The poverty rate appears to be higher among localities with lower public participation actions than they are for those localities with lower poverty rate. Interestingly, the public participation action is still low even among those localities with lower poverty rates.

Looking at the data in Figure 13, in general there were less public participation action among those localities with high poverty rates, ranging from 21-50% compared to the composition of Virginia's population poverty rate, ID 20-Camp Creek, ID 15-Bullhead, ID 06-Eloy, ID 11-Kearny, ID 13-Ora Valley, ID 14-Parker, ID 17-Pima, ID 21-Somerton, ID 22-Surprise and ID 23-Schotts, compared to the two localities with the highest public participation action rates (ID 25-Duncan and ID 18-Pike Terrace). This is an interesting finding considering that the programs that the localities were funding were geared toward low-to-moderate income residents and the statutes want engagements from this population. If this is considered a hard to reach population in this area, administrators should find many more opportunities to engage a hard-to-engage populations in this category. A study by Weber (2000) found that participation was higher among people who were full-time homemakers, often lacking low-income participants in the room. Russell and Vidler (2002) also found in their study that low-income residents were difficult to engage due to a high number of them working to provide for their families and were not able to spend time on activities outside of work and family, while Arceneaux and Butler (2016) argue that low income individuals have more pressure to earn income, leaving less time to volunteer for other activities. In addition, they also hypothesized that low-income people may be deterred from participating in the public participation process due to their lack of expertise in the subject matter. So, they did a policy intervention by offering training to low-income residents so that they could become competent participants and Arceneaux and Butler (2016) found the response rates from low-income communities were low. They concluded that these individuals assumed that it was a difficult job and did not want to participate any further unlike the higher income groups (2016). Arceneaux and Butler (2016) suggested finding out the skills low-income residents already possessed and highlighting those skills that were needed during public engagement. Based on the evidence in this study and the literature, there is a connection between the poverty rate and the public participation rate among the localities. With this new insight, public administrators must provide a wide array of opportunities for low-income residents to partake in public participation activities, especially if the projects are to benefit them. Examining the skills that low-income participants already have and finding ways to incorporate those current skills into projects, rather than giving them training that may detract them earning money or spending the little time they have with their families.

Examining Table 10, a little closer, another interesting finding is where localities with high poverty rates and an educated population have low public participation action rates with the exception of ID 25-Duncan. These localities are ID 15-Bullhead and ID 14-Parker. I would suspect that those localities with an educated population would use a number of techniques at their disposal to reach participants. Four localities stood out due to a high poverty rate and a large minority population. Those localities are ID 18-Pick Terrace, ID 13-Ora Valley, ID 17-Pima, ID 06-Eloy and ID 22-Surprise. Considering the high minority population in these localities, I would speculate that there would be more public participation actions. However, the average public participation occurring in these localities were six and there were only three localities above this average. This may indicate that this population may be hard to reach or that it is challenging to reach this population. Since administrators have a variety of public participation techniques at their disposal, they can increase the use of techniques and find ways to ensure that they have engaged a population that the community development project is intending to benefit. Administrators must consider what their goals are for public participation and how these goals can be accomplishment through the engagement of the citizens (Nabatchi and Leighninger, 2015).

In Chapter Five, results of the analyses are presented along with the findings from the study. Fifteen participants took part in this study and the data from the interviewees are interpreted and discussed. This chapter features the administrators' perspectives about public participation and the characteristics of each of the localities where the interviewees reside.

*Table 11: Community Characteristics of all Localities Extracted for Review** (organized by poverty rates)*

Locality ID	Locality Name	Poverty Rate	Median Income in 2017 Dollars	Minority Population Percentage	BA+ Education
ID 18*	Pike Terrace	High	Low	High	Low
ID 20*	Camp Creek	High	Low	Low	Low
ID 15*	Bullhead	High	Low	Med	High
ID 23*	Schotts	High	Low	Med	Low
ID 14*	Parker	High	Low	Med	High
ID 25*	Duncan	High	Low	Med	High
ID 06	Eloy	High	Low	High	Low
ID 11	Kearny	High	Low	Med	Med
ID 13	Ora Valley	High	Low	High	Low
ID 17	Pima	High	Low	High	Low
ID 21	Somerton	High	Low	Low	Med
ID 22	Surprise	High	Low	High	High
ID 01*	Eager	Low	High	Med	High
ID 05*	Benson	Low	High	High	High
ID 07*	Fountain Hills	Low	High	High	High
ID 10	Buckeye	Low	High	Med	High
ID 19	Safford	Low	High	High	High
ID 02	Fredonia	Low	Low	Low	High
ID 12*	Mammoth	Low	Med	High	Med
ID 04*	Coolidge	Low	Med	Med	Med
ID 26	Tolleson	Low	Med	High	Med
ID 03*	Globe	Med	Low	Med	Low
ID 16*	Paine	Med	Low	High	Med
ID 09*	Marana	Med	Low	High	Med
ID 27	Thatcher	Med	Low	Med	Med
ID 24*	Wellton	Med	Med	High	Med
ID 08	Jerone	Med	Med	Med	High

*Responding Localities- See sources on next page

*Table 12: Community Characteristics of Responding Localities** (organized by poverty rates)*

Locality ID	Locality Name	Poverty Rate	Median Income in 2017 Dollars	Minority Population Percentage	BA+ Education
ID 23	Schotts	High	Low	Med	Low
ID 25	Duncan	High	Low	Med	High
ID 15	Bullhead	High	Low	Med	High
ID 20	Camp Creek	High	Low	Low	Low
ID 14	Parker	High	Low	Med	High
ID 18	Pike Terrace	High	Low	High	Low
ID 07	Fountain Hills	Low	High	High	High
ID 05	Benson	Low	High	High	High
ID 01	Eager	Low	High	Med	High
ID 12	Mammoth	Low	Med	High	Med
ID 04	Coolidge	Low	Med	Med	Med
ID 09	Marana	Med	Low	High	Med
ID 03	Glober	Med	Low	Med	Low
ID 16	Paine	Med	Low	High	Med
ID 24	Wellton	Med	Med	High	Med

Source:
https://www.census.gov/quickfacts/fact/table/roanokecityvirginia,roanokecountyvirginia/IPE120217
*QuickFacts data are derived from: Population Estimates, American Community Survey, Census of Population and Housing, Current Population Survey, Small Area Income and Poverty Estimates

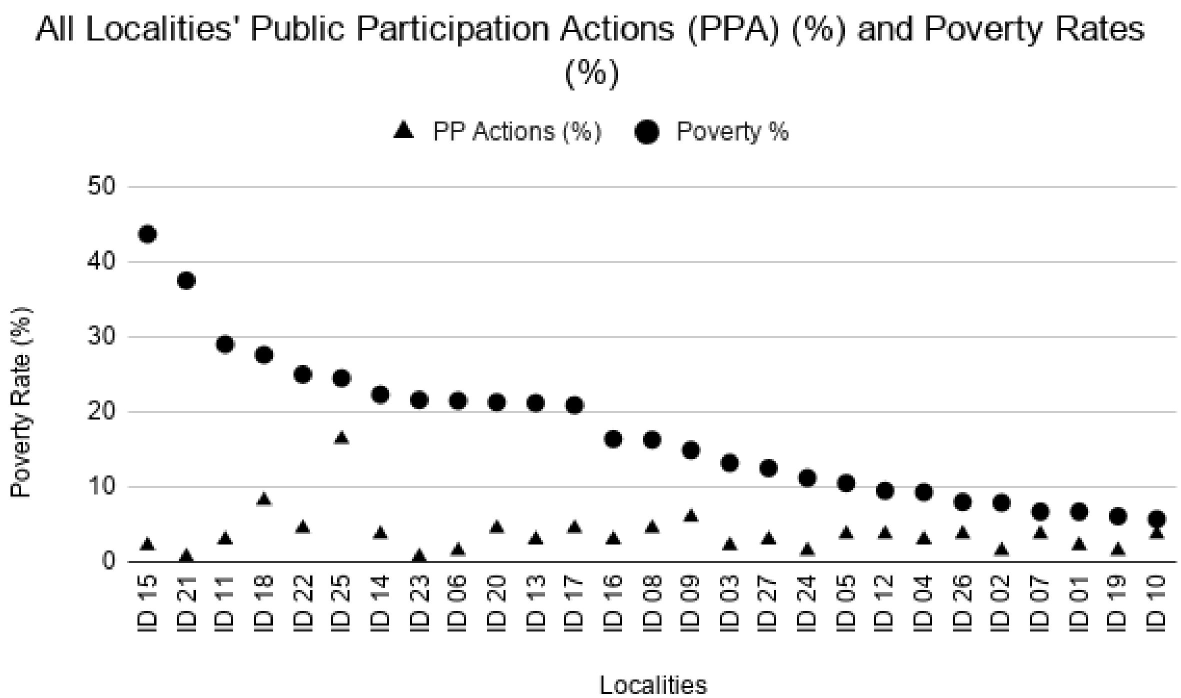
** Scales
Poverty Rates (compared to the composition of Virginia's population poverty rate)
Low = 0 - 10%; Med = 11 - 20%; High = 21 – 50%

Median Income Ranges (Compared to Virginia's median income):
Low = $30,000 – 55,000; Med = $56,000 – 75,000; High = $76,000 – 150,000

Minority Population (compared to the composition of Virginia's minority population):
Low = 0 - 28%; Med = 29% - 44%; High = 45 - 100%

BA + Education (compared to the composition of Virginia's population with BA + degrees):
Low = 0 - 23%; Med = 24 - 45%; High = 46 - 100%

Figure 12: All Localities' Public Participation Actions (PPA) (%) and Poverty Rates (%)



Source:
https://www.census.gov/quickfacts/fact/table/roanokecityvirginia,roanokecountyvirginia/IPE120217
*QuickFacts data are derived from: Population Estimates, American Community Survey, Census of Population and Housing, Current Population Survey, Small Area Income and Poverty Estimates
** HUD CDBG - Citizen Participation Plans, (HUD, n.d.)

Figure 13: Poverty Rates (%) High to Low and Public Participation Action (%) by Localities

*Pseudonyms

Localities	Localities Location*	Poverty (%) *	Public Participation Actions (%) **
ID15	Bullhead	44	2.2
ID21	Somerton	38	.7
ID11	Kearny	29	3.0
ID18	Pike Terrace	28	8.2
ID22	Surprise	25	4.0
ID25	Duncan	25	16.4
ID14	Parker	22	3.7
ID23	Schotts	22	.7
ID06	Eloy	22	1.5
ID20	Camp Creek	21	4.5
ID13	Ora Valley	21	3.0
ID17	Pima	21	4.5
ID16	Paine	16	3.0
ID08	Jerone	16	4.5
ID09	Marana	15	6.0
ID03	Globe	13	2.2
ID27	Thatcher	13	3.0
ID24	Wellton	11	1.5
ID05	Benson	11	3.7
ID12	Mammoth	10	3.7
ID04	Coolidge	9	3.0
ID26	Tolleson	8	3.7
ID02	Fredonia	8	1.5
ID01	Eager	7	2.2
ID07	Fountain Hill	7	3.7
ID19	Safford	6	1.5
ID10	Buckeye	6	3.7

Chapter 5: Administrators' Perspectives

5.1 Introduction

Public administrators in public service are expected to serve the public, which means that they may enter public service with an altruistic motive to make their communities better. They begin to take on the identity of a public servant and perform actions that are related to this identity. These actions are defined by how the administrators understand their identity to perform the public work that they do every day. Understanding this identity will also help explain their motivation for doing their public service work. There is little research about the extent that the two concepts work together to guide the actions of public servants in public participation. There are gaps in the literature about the extent that public service motivation and the identity of the administrator play a role as they make efforts to engage with the public.

Building on the research methodology presented in Chapter Three, this chapter presents the research findings of this study. The purpose of this study is to analyze and narrate, through interviews with a sample of administrators, the importance of identity in influencing the public administrator's decisions related to the actions undertaken in public participation. I collected and retell the stories of these administrators. All of the interviews started with the question about the administrators' trajectory into government. Providing answers to the interview questions helped answer the following research questions.

RQ1: *To what extent do public administrators' identities as public servants affect public participation and how does this affect their motivation and behavioral approach to public participation?*

RQ2: *How do the perceptions of the internal work environment influence public service motivation and behavioral approaches toward public participation?*

Interview responses from the public servants were coded both inductively and deductively. In the inductive coding, I used a guiding framework for public service motivation and identified the overarching themes based on findings from the data. The themes contained responses from at least several of the public servants in the study, though some of the less frequently mentioned themes were noted.

The construct of the public servant identity was split into personal characteristics and public service motivation. Personal characteristics were separated by job tenure, rank, education, age, and gender, while public service motivation was separated into affective (positive and negative), normative (civic duty or responsibility, family tradition), and rational (self-interest), which is part of the identity framework in this study.

The personal characteristics of the administrators, including how they entered government, were recorded. Emergent patterns of the identity of public servants were documented as themes for individual participants. Generally, narratives were grouped around the themes and according to whether these themes represented administrators' motivations and identities in public service. The analysis detailed several recurrent themes related to the personal characteristics of individuals and their entrance into public service. Considering their personal characteristics and their entrance into public service, three major themes emerged: reinforcing public service identity with job tenure, reinforcing identity through their public service degree or education, and salience of age in public service. These themes are explored in this chapter. The respondents' voices describe their own trajectory into local government, their relationship to their jobs and their growing awareness about their own identity and motivation to serve the public. Narratives of these experiences provide examples for the themes in the next chapter.

When the public service motivation was explored, several low-ordered themes emerged. These were affective (positive emotions and negative emotions), normative (civic duty, family tradition), and rational (self-interest). The next section discusses the experiences of the administrators, which helps to provide the themes presented in this chapter.

5.2 Personal Characteristics and Identity

5.2.1 Reinforcing Public Service Identity with Job Tenure

In the majority of cases, participants have been in public service for fewer than eleven years. Conversely, a slim minority of the participants have been with the public sector for over 18 years, indicating that they may have reinforced their identity as a public servant. Briefly, the public administrators discussed the different ways that they had entered government. Two respondents entered government from the nonprofit sector (Esther and Lana); a couple of respondents entered government after they received their degrees (Jay and Tonya). Jay was looking for something different after he obtained his degree. Other respondents had family members already in local government or had the influence of a family member who encouraged them to apply (Manford and Tracey). Not all respondents entered government through these means, Martha's entrance into government was right after high school while Lea's entrance into local government was after her employment in the private sector.

> *Martha*: I had only been out of high school probably for about two years. A position came open with the city of Parker and I applied and got the job. I have been here ever since. I have been with the city of Parker for about 31 years. Then I retired and came back. I have now been back for almost nine years. (Location: Parker)

> [1]*Lea*: I was working in the banking industry and then I was working in the title industry. I was laid off and I needed to look for a job. My family members were in a program and I wanted to get into the program. I had not heard of the program prior to this. My family member indicated that there were job opportunities at the housing authority. This sounded interesting. I applied and got the job. And then from then on, I got married and moved to another location and I wanted to learn more about the program. I wanted to work on the other side; I was especially interested in helping low to moderate income families. My experience started about 25 years ago. I have just maintained this type of career. (Location: Benson)

Concerning their trajectories into local government after college, several of the respondents related stories about looking for something different.

> *Jay*: I started work in engineering for 12 years, both public and private. At this time, I was getting ready to graduate with an undergraduate degree in finance and I was looking for something different to do and the locality offered me a job that was planning in nature. I've been mostly in the public sector and local government since. (Location: Pike Terrace)
>
> *Bobbi*: It was obvious to apply for a job in urban planning because I had obtained my graduate degree in urban planning. I felt like I had the expertise in affordable housing because I worked at the state level. I was definitely ready for a change.
>
> *Interviewer*: Did you set out to work in local government?
>
> *Bobbi*: Not really. (Location: Globe)

Jay and Bobbi may have felt that their choices, to enter government was random. They may have made an unconscious effort to pursue public service due to an internal desire to serve. This desire to serve and maintain employment in local government was presented by Esa, who returned to government after working in a community action agency and Esther, who spent most of her life in the nonprofit sector.

> *Esa*: Actually, I've been here for about two years. I did work for the government a long, long time ago that was basically one of my first jobs. I worked for Fountain Hills. But since I've moved around. I've been here for two years prior to that and I worked for a community action agency for about 15 years. But anyway, this job came open and I actually knew the people that had the job before. And I remember thinking, long time ago how I would love to have this job. And, so, I got it. Okay, so that's kind of how I fell into it. (Location: Camp Creek)

[1] Names have been changed to conceal identity.

> *Esther*: Most of my life has been spent in the nonprofit sector. My last job was at the farmers market before this. Through this, I made a lot of connections with the town of Bullhead. So, when I was looking for something different, I applied for the job. This was kind of like a good fit. I knew the people that I was coming to work for quite well through my involvement with the farmers market. I have stayed here because I love it. I love the people that I work with. (Location: Bullhead)

The majority of these individuals had a number of reasons for entering government but remaining in public service may have been in alignment with their call to serve the community. Perry and Wise noted that an individual's interest in a particular program or service may be due to the "social importance" of what they are doing in society (1990, p. 369). Not all respondents in this sample went back to school after they were employed in government for a number of years. Others may have recognized that their time in government was worthwhile and decided to attain more education which cemented their government career. Esa, for example, moved around, but she was able to keep her identity and return to public work. She reflected on her dream job a long time ago and knew, at some point, she wanted to position herself in the public servant role again. In these instances, the respondents sought to understand themselves as public servants by engaging in the work and getting a public sector degree. In addition, once in the job, they sought to keep their public service identity as evidenced through their tenure in the job.

Job tenure, which is defined as the level of knowledge, skill, or experience that an individual brings to their public work (Seibert, Wang, and Courtright, 2011), represents the longevity of the relationship with the employer. The results showed that the majority of the respondents (seven) were on the job for five years or less and had more public participation actions combined (50), compared to the other respondents in the other tenure groups who were on the job a lot longer. It is in the middle range tenure where I found fewer public participation actions compared to higher tenure (18+ years). For instance, in three out of 15 localities, a small minority of respondents had 6-11 years in public service with fewer public participation actions (16) compared to those respondents from other localities who had been with government 18 + years with more public participation actions. The assumption was that individuals with less tenure would produce more public participation actions compared to other individuals with more tenure. For the purpose of this paper, less tenure is defined as 0-5 years. Looking at these results, a large majority of respondents with less tenure may have had higher public service motivation to perform, leading to more public participation actions, supporting my proposition.

5.2.2 Rank in Public Service

Those who work in public service may have different positions and roles as public servants. In this data, the research categorized individuals as managers and non-managers. Those who did not have the title “manager” or “director” in their official titles, were identified as non-managers while the others who did have these titles were identified as managers. These titles came from the HUD database. There were five managers (33%) while the other ten (66%) were listed as non-managers. A small minority of the managers expressed that they were managers in other positions prior to entering their current position. Reflecting on themselves as managers, some respondents discussed their managerial role as a public servant. None of the interviewees presented additional details about their managerial role with the exception of a few participants who stated that they no longer wanted to be a manager or that they enjoyed the work that they did as managers.

> *Kelvin*: Most of that time I've been spent as either Chief Executive Officer or assistant manager for a number of localities in Virginia. But I have over 25 years with CDBG. I know it pretty well. I didn’t want to be a manager anymore when I came here. It’s kind of nice to be a small fish in a big sea. When you are a manager in a Small town. I like living on fishbowl. Yes. It’s hard to go out with your family without someone coming in and complaining about their water bill and potholes. I love serving the public, but you know there is personal time. You have to have your personal time too. I am much more behind

> the scene than I used to be. And I enjoy it. I have taken on a different capacity when it comes to serving the public. I am still working with community development. I have always worked in community development in some aspect whether city manager or town manager. I don't want to wear the crown anymore. (Current role: Non-Manager; Location: Schotts)

> *Deacon*: Recently, I have work more in finance and development. Back in 1992, I finished a position that I had for two years in planning in another state. It was bit of a demanding job. When an opportunity came to change gears, I went to a state job in Virginia. That was much more interesting. And I just wanted to get away from planning. It did sound more interesting to get into a job like this because of my experience. They were willing to get me into a job at the state level, in department of housing and development. I was there for about three years. I got headhunted to take a job in another country for two years. While I was there, I got dragged into doing planning and zoning because they never had it. This was fun. Then I took the job for two years. Then, I got dragged into helping them setup planning and zoning. This was fun. Then when I came back, I got into a job with a national nonprofit. I was basically a loan officer for five years. Then I got a job as training manager and I have been with them for five years. After a certain point in your career, you end up in training and consulting. And, then I liked the opportunity of getting back into government. The private sector was okay. The non-profit sector is kind of quasi, you know, more private than public. So, I spent about ten years on that side. And, then I decided that when you are in local government, you have a lot more opportunities to work on making things happen. On the finance side, you were kind of pushing other people to do things. It was more monitoring. Being a risk mitigator. You can't always make things happen; but you can certainly work with people in different departments. It is challenging, but I would love to be a change agent. (Current role: Manager; Location: Marana)

In general, respondents felt that they knew what was expected of them as managers. They were the face of their roles as managers and as public servants.

> *Lana*: Being strategic about how we spend those dollars, working with senior leadership and the various division directors that we currently have in the program. Is that strategically what we want to as part of our toolkit for affordable housing. How are we spending our dollars? Are they effective or are the dollars being used? And then on the other side of it, the monitoring component. And monitoring is a huge part of my team, both financially as well as programmatically. (Current role: Manager; Location: Fountain Hills)

For other non-managers, however, they liked the work that they did and talked about it in terms of relationships with others in the community and in their work environment. Interestingly, they seemed to know that they were in the position to build relationships with people while assuming the role of overseeing the program.

> *Martha*: I am able to administer these CDBG programs very independently and I have very little management oversight. And, so they trust me enough to do these programs and I do them every day for the city of Parker. I am getting good reviews. So, this is very fulfilling and rewarding knowing that I have good working relationships with the people in management. Over the years, I've developed a relationship with a lot of nonprofit organizations. (Current role: Non-Manager; Location: Parker)

Combined, the majority of non-managers had more public participation actions compared to managers. For instance, the non-managers public participation actions (PPAs) average was 6.4 while the managers PPAs average was 4.6. It is interesting to note that this was opposite of my proposition that higher-ranking individuals would have the majority of public participation actions due to their expression of PSM. The majority of non-managers expressed more actions. This statement is inconsistent with Bright's (2005) argument that managers would have higher levels of public service motivation because they were socialized in the organization through the years of service that they had. In other words, managers who value public service may have high levels of public service motivation. This proposition may require additional follow-up. A slim minority of managers had greater than 18+ years in public service (2), while the other managers had less than five years in their current job (3). Further, the three managers with less than five years of service, who produced fewer public participation actions, may not have had the opportunity to be socialized in the organization and therefore, may not have seen the value in public service work. In other words, if individuals do not see the value in the work that they do, they may not have high levels of public service motivation.

A study by Yung (2014) recognized the importance of groupings and distinctions in the work environment. He found that PSM varied with rank, with the upper ranking officials tending to have higher PSM levels compared to lower ranking officials. Yung contended that these differences may have been the result of where they worked. For instance, lower ranking public employees may have been involved with routinization of work, making it difficult for them to relate to the public work that they did, resulting in lower PSM. However, this study indicated something different where virtually all of the non-managers or lower ranking employees had more public participation actions compared to the slim minority of managers who did not, suggesting that managers might have been less involved with the work that they did. Similarly, being less involved can also suggest lower PSM.

5.2.3 Reinforcing Identity Through Public Service Degree or Education

The majority of participants identified their demographics on the data collection sheet. Virtually all participants had graduate degrees (67%) in public service compared to those participants who did not (33%) have graduate degrees. There were a small minority of the respondents who had bachelor's degrees or below. This research did not capture the field study of the bachelor's degrees (20%). Overall, after participants finished their graduate degrees, they found jobs in the public sector.

> *Kylie*: When I finished my Master of Urban and Regional Planning degree, I guess I got the position of an administrator shortly after graduating. (Degree: MA; Location: Eager)

> *Tonya*: When I was a student in undergraduate, I worked as an intern for a public service organization. During this job, I was exposed to local government. Then I got another job in local government through a contact in my internship. (Degree: MA; Location Duncan)

This research did not explore when respondents received their graduate degrees. There were a minority of respondents who talked about their undergraduate degrees prior to entering government, which may indicate that they had received their graduate degrees in the public service field at some point after being employed in the public sector.

> *Manford*: I have a Bachelor of Arts in political science from the university. While I was taking those students, I became interested in the field of public service and government

> work. My mother had been with the Clerk of Courts office for about 25 years and my father had also done some government work in accounting. So, I was familiar with government. I kind of developed an interest in going into the field of public service. One of my professors, who was actually my advisors at the university, made me aware of an entry level opportunity with the city of Wellton. (Degree: MA; Location: Coolidge)

> *Jay*: I worked in engineering for twelve years, both private and public. And, at the time, I was getting ready to graduate with an undergraduate degree in finance and I was looking for something different to do. The city of Surprise offered me a job that was planning in nature. That is how I started. I've been mostly in the public service and in local government ever since. (Degree: MA; Location: Pike Terrace)

These administrators often told stories about going into public service, even taking additional time to obtain a graduate degree in public service after they had been in public service. In many of these cases, there were some who sought public service degrees with the intention of serving others. This is in alignment with a comparative study by Henstra and McGowen (2016), where they compared the career preferences among students with public service degrees, and those with private sector degrees such as business administration. They found that there were differences in the job choices that both groups had chosen as a career. For the students with public sector degrees, they found that the motivation for public sector comes from an individual's desire to give back to society and to be of service to the general public. Conversely, they concluded that the motivation for students with private sector degrees stemmed from career options and better rewards. In a similar study about graduate students in the public policy program (Chetkovich, 2003), the researcher found that students who wanted to work for public and private sectors offered different motivations from one another as they explained their choices for public or private sector work.

Some may have landed in public service work, particularly local government work, because they had already been doing public work for nonprofits or wanted something different. When respondents had degrees that were public service oriented, their identity as a public servant may have been influenced in the very early stages of their college years. Virtually all participants in the study presented themselves as having a public service degree and used this degree to set boundaries for the job that they wanted to pursue. There is little reason to believe that they would have entered the private sector with a public service degree. Although it is possible, it is not highly likely.

In general, a large majority of public administrators with advanced degrees (66%) had more public participation actions than those with no advanced degree (33%). The most telling pattern that emerged from this analysis was that the majority of administrators held advanced degrees, and that this was where the most public participation actions were found. This is in alignment with Bright's (2005) argument that education facilitates a higher level of awareness that leads individuals to think about the value that their public service work has on society. In addition, the employees may have created intentional actions to help facilitate public input in the decision-making process. The results of this analysis align with the expectations put forth in this study.

5.2.4 Salience of Age in Public Service

The data show that the majority of the administrators (60%) were in the 57 and above age group, while the other administrators (40%) were in the under 57+age category, twenty percent were in 25-45 category while the other 20% were in the 46-56 category. In this section, a discussion of age is presented in further details.

In addition to the majority of the administrators being in the age category of 57 and above, the education levels varied in this category, compared to the other categories where virtually all of the administrators held graduate degrees. Administrators at the lower age range furthered their education compared to the administrators in the 57 and above age range. Some of the administrators in the 57 and above age range came into the public servant role either after high school or after obtaining a bachelor's degree, giving them opportunities to grow and age in their identity and position as a public servant.

> *Esa*: Actually, I have been here for about two years. I did work for the government a long, long time ago. That is basically one of my first jobs. I worked for Fountain Hills. But, since I have moved around, I have worked for other places. That was last time I worked there. It was temporary, but it was five years. Anyway, I have been here for two years and prior to this I had worked about 15 years at a community action agency. (Degree: BA; Location: Camp Creek)

> *Tracey*: Well, I started banking right after I graduated from college. I was with the banking industry for about nine years. The bank that I was with was making some changes for that particular branch. At the time, I was the branch manager. They were selling that branch and I would become a floater. Then the husband of the current director for my department told me that there was a position at the city that needed somebody with some loan and judgement experience. He told me that I probably should go and apply for it. So, I did, and I didn't think I would be here over 20 years later. (Degree: BA; Location: Paine)

> *Martha*: I was in the city of Parker for about thirty-years. I retired and I have since returned and have been back for almost nine years. (Degree: HS: Location: Parker)

Over half of the respondents aged in public service and therefore, gained more in-depth experience in doing public service work. They told stories about their longevity in the public sector environment. For some, it was surprising to them that they were still in the public service environment, while others wanted to return to the public servant role after retiring.

Age seems to be important, as the majority of the respondents (60%) in the 57 + category had more public participation actions. This was in line with the expectations presented at the beginning of the study that the majority of older individuals would express more public participation actions. As individuals age, they tend to want to make a difference and leave a positive contribution to society. In other words, age has a positive effect on public service motivation.

5.2.5 Gender in Public Service

The sample included a majority of females (60%), while the rest of the sample were males (40%). Women were more often found doing public service work. The majority of the female population identified as being part of a minority group (66%) while the other women identified as being white (33%). Of the male population, six out of six men identified as being white. Although this study did not explore interview questions related to the race and ethnicity of the individual, it captured the data from the collection sheet to further examine them with earlier propositions. Notable in the data was that the majority of the women discussed more caring attributes, compared to a minority of men who discussed sense of service in the public servants' role. Females saw their jobs as helping others who needed their help and often relied on their intuition to get things moving for those individuals requiring their assistance. The women wanted to be part of something that gave them the satisfaction of helping people.

> *Kylie*: I mean, it's rewarding making a difference. I would say most people would say that about this type of position. I guess working directly with the nonprofits is rewarding because it creates partnerships, which enables some of our lower income residents to become successful.
> (Location: Eager)
>
> *Interviewer*: What is rewarding about working directly with nonprofits? What do they do?
>
> *Kylie*: They enable residents to have a higher quality of life whether it's given them affordable housing or a public service type project. The purpose of the funding is really to kind of elevate the residents in the income ranges to be successful. We want to meet their needs. (Location: Eager)
>
> *Lana*: Knowing the work that I do makes a difference in the community, serving those who may not have as much as what I have and being able to implement programs that are helping others improve their quality of living and I think giving back to the community through public service is something that is so important. And, definitely, the federal program that I work with helps to achieve that goal. (Location: Fountain Hill)

Other administrators told stories of learning about the duties of their jobs through research and finding out that there were more people in need of assistance than they had thought. In their accounts, they wanted to help as much as they could.

> *Lea*: When I think about how I learned about these programs and how they actually benefit those in need. I think all of it is rewarding. Even knowing that we have to put together an action plan to continue to get the funds. Everything that I do still focuses back on the reason for why I am doing it. These funds are an important benefit to low-income families because you do not want people living on the street. When I first started doing the research, I learned that many people are in need of assistance. It was really an eye opening for me to learn that there were people making below the Area Median Income (AMI) and that more families spend more than 30% of their income on housing. We have people here that really need assistance and it is important that it benefits everyone because you don't want people to be living on the streets. And, you want to prevent homelessness and so forth. (Location: Benson)

The relationship between the administrator and the communities they served provided the administrators with some sense of reward but could prove to be frustrating and challenging for some of the women administrators.

> *Tracey*: We use some of the CDBG money for nonprofit organizations. Seeing some of the good work that they do. This is rewarding to know that it makes a difference in what you do. I used to tell my supervisors early on. I said, I would try to give you my honest answer. And, what I feel is the right thing per the regulation. If you all choose to do otherwise, that is fine, but I will still share if I think that what you all are doing is outside of the regulations. (Location: Paine)

In the majority of the cases, women seemed to be more concerned about understanding the needs of the people as part of their job as public servants (Kanter, 1977). Most of these women used caring attributes to describe the work that they did in the public sector. Not only did they recognize the importance of community members in the work that they did, they also recognized their limitations given their work environment.

Some of the men spoke about helping others from a sense of service perspective.

> *Kelvin*: A sense of being able to look at the end of the day and see the fruits of your labor and we do a lot of work for the Habitat for Humanity program and other housing rehabilitation partners in the city. To serve low-to moderate income and homeowners.

> Just being able to drive down the street and see a house that I had something to do with. And, that there is a family that lives there now. They are working on their American Dream. It makes me feel like it is worth it. (Location: Schotts)

> *Manford*: I think my motivation just comes from trying to make my community, Coolidge, a better place to live, work and play for the residents. We touch a lot of different aspects of the community. We manage several programs, which gives us an opportunity to effect change in low- and moderate-income communities. So, it's really a chance to touch people's lives and in several different ways. (Location: Coolidge)

In this analysis, women, generally, had more public participation actions overall compared to men. Bright (2005) argued that we are all influenced by the role expectation that society gives to us based on our gender. For example, women are expected to take on a supportive and caretaking role in the workplace while men are expected to be more aggressive and dominant in how they approach their work (Bright, 2005). Typically, in this case, women were more engaged, by providing on average (6.2 %) more public participation actions compared to the men who provided an average of 5.2 %. This means that women provided citizens with more opportunities to provide feedback in the decision-making process.

Despite the recent changes in gender roles (Word and Min Park, 2015; Perry, Brudney, Coursey, and Littlepage, 2008), this research suggests that women were more actively engaged in public participation actions as a result of attributes related to their behavior (i.e. compassion, empathy, and concern for others). Women tend to value public service (Bright, 2005) and therefore may have the tendency to contribute to organizations through emotional work efforts (Kanter, 1977; Bellas 1999; Guy and Newman, 2004). The results of this study aligned with my expectation about gender playing a large role in how women approach their public service work.

5.2.6 Public Service Motivation

Public Service Motivation: Affective

Affective motivations are those behaviors that are grounded in emotional responses to certain contexts and are the actions that are characterized by a desire to help others (Quratulain, Khan, and Sabjarwal, 2019; Brewer, Seldon and Facer, 2000; Perry and Wise, 1990). Many of the respondents presented positive and/or negative responses related to their public sector role.

For this study, affective was divided in two lower order themes, positive emotions and negative emotions, associated with their role as a public servant. The emotions discussed by the interviewees were mostly in relation to their behavior outcomes (e.g. public participation actions), where they often referred to community apathy and resource limitation. The interviewees also discussed emotions in relation to their own success in performing their job adequately. In addition, there were a number of substantial negative coding units compared to the number of positive comments received. Many of the negative comments were related to the ability of the participants to do their public servant work. The stories warned that the practicality of things could get "outdated" and become ineffective. Some expressed disdain for the CDBG mandate that required them to advertise in the newspaper. Some felt confined to the mandate even when they were given discretion to use other means to engage the public. At this point, it may not have been about the mandate, but more about the money spent to advertise.

> *Kelvin*: My big beef with PP are the methodologies that are used for notifying the public about public hearings and receiving their input. I've always thought it would be an excellent master's thesis for someone to look at in the community how much the government is spending on advertising public hearings versus the number of people who actually come out. You know, the reality is that people aren't reading the newspaper. I think for public participation; you need to reach out using social media using technology. To connect with the public and to me, I think if you open up a public meeting on social media, it is more effective than a $1000 ad in the local newspaper. (Location: Schotts)

> *Esa*: I really want to say one thing; newspapers are really getting out of date and it is expensive. You will hear, even the people that work for HUD, they realize this. But it would be really great if we can move on to other means to advertise this stuff because it

> costs us $500 to $600 for each ad we do. The other thing is that not many people are reading or getting the newspapers. There are a lot of other means of getting the word out that is less expensive and would reach a lot of people. It is becoming outdated. (Location: Camp Creek)

> *Esther*: Every time we do our annual action plan for CDBG, we have to publish in the paper for public participation. They can go to the website; they can come to one or two public meetings. There is virtually no engagement with that. We can do it diligently, but there is really no engagement. (Location: Bullhead)

On the other hand, some had not been as successful with other techniques, such as social media platforms, to reach the public. But they were hopeful that the public saw the information and that they would come out to the meetings to provide input.

> *Tracey*: We have not been as successful using social media. We may put it out on the website, meeting on our website. We have not used Facebook, twitter, etc., okay, you hope people go to the website. (Location: Paine)

Generally, others expressed negative emotional comments due to the limitation of what the government could do in terms of resources and manpower.

> *Tracey*: The advice that I give to others is to be open and to try to think outside of the box. I am pretty by the rules and traditional kind of person and it is hard for me to think outside of the box. If it worked before, then why do we need to change it. I would say, be flexible and think outside of the box and be open to other ideas and try to leave your bias out of it. I like what I do. We do help people. It's just frustrating that we don't have enough time, resources or people to do it as good as we could do it. I think we do a decent job with the limited resources, the people that we have. We have enough to meet the requirement. But to go above and beyond, we would need more staff and resources to do some door to door or other outreach. (Location: Paine)

Many more expressed negative emotions associated in their role as a public servant and their role in the performance of the respondents' public work. There was a total of 25 emotions reported, eight of these were positive and 17 were negative. The most frequently reported positive emotions were rewarding, satisfaction, needs fulfilment, enjoyment, excitement, opportunistic, hopeful, and energized. Several participants described success in terms of partnering with others to stay in compliance.

> *Kylie*: I would say that the most important part about the CDBG program is making sure that you partner with other nonprofits for quality projects. They are really the ones who determine the success of the funding. You want to make sure that you are partnering with nonprofits. If they don't have any experiences with grants, you know, you make sure that you sit down with them and take time to walk them through all of the expectations. The problem is where you don't see CDBG funding being successful is where you are not spending the funding within the HUD timeframe or your project does not fit in one of the eligible activities. But, if you partner with a nonprofit who has experience with HUD and know what to expect, it makes it more successful. (Location: Eager)

Other administrators talked about how they felt about their work world. Here the community people and the nonprofits were prominent features of the administrators' physical and emotional spaces. In this space, their identities and their motivations were revealed as central to the administrators' account of why they were doing what they do. I focused on the emotional content as a context for revealing the affective dimension of the work that they have done as administrators. Here, both administrators were collaborators within their jobs.

> *Esther*: I love being able to deal with low- and moderate-income people that need some assistance to make their lives better. And to be able to use the funding that were given to do that is very rewarding. It's fun, it's, it's a good creative outlet for me. It's very collaborative. It is kind of collaborative like it crosses a lot of different sectors and I really like that about it. It's not just the one little silo. (Location: Bullhead)

> *Jay*: Oddly, in the recent years, the needs public hearings has been less effective. So, we get more out of the interactions with groups or individuals at council meetings than we do out of the need's public hearings. We have so much experience with nonprofits and we demand so much of a nonprofit. So, these nonprofits are technically what we call sub-recipients. This means that they assume responsibility for all federal compliance with the exception of public notices and environmental review. There are hundred, literally hundreds of other requirements and they assume responsibility of all of that. (Location: Pike Terrace)

In another statement, interviewees discussed satisfaction in this way; they were on the frontline making sure that community members were getting support. Some talked about using what they had at their disposal to create opportunities for those in need.

> *Ester*: We are getting together to say where are the gaps and information on affordable housing and how can we help to coordinate an effort towards filling those gaps and

> getting the resources to the people? Yes, I am being an advocate for those tenants. (Location: Bullhead)

> *Dennis*: If you are trying to reach a bunch of elderly people, don't hold a meeting, you know, at 7:30 at night in the middle of the winter when they are coming out of the dark. You know, if you are trying to reach working people, you know, don't hold a meeting in the middle of the day. You have to figure out where your target is and when they are available and when they are not available. You have to also figure out where they will go and where they will not go. Sometimes you have to try different things. And after a while, you learn, you know what locations work and what locations don't work and what times work and what times don't work. And if you have a group that already has an established meeting structure, you go to them. Don't bring them to you. This is kind of public participation 101. (Location: Mammoth)

Of the 25 emotions reported by the respondents, only two positive emotions (rewarding and fulfilling) were reported, generally, by a majority of the respondents, while more than three-quarters of the respondents discussed the challenges in their job as a public servant. From this, I concluded that although public servants experience both positive and negative emotions in their role, they were able to articulate this through how they experienced their jobs as public servants from a physical and emotional space.

In this emotional space, people identified who they were as they discussed how they felt about public participation. In general, administrators were positive about the job that they did for the people but knew the constraints when it came to the availability of resources and the restrictions they were under. For instance, a large majority of the administrators had a higher percentage of engagements, even though they identified that they had constraints that they had to work within. Another interesting point was that a small minority of administrators discussed their frustration with the requirements but had a lower percentage of public participation actions. These lower public participation actions may indicate a source of hopelessness in the process, in general. This was expressed in the juxtapositions with their current thinking about their jobs and the feasibility of doing it, as evidenced by Kelvin's comments earlier.

Public Service Motivation: Normative

Unlike affective motives, which are based on the emotional processes, the normative motive attracts individuals who have a desire to work in public service. These individuals express a sense of duty and loyalty to public service (Quratulain, Khan, and Sabharwalk, 2019; Brewer, Selden, and Facer, 2000; Perry and Wise, 1990). These motivations became important when respondents discussed their normative stance in their role as a public servant doing public work. There were two normative motives mentioned related to civic duty or obligation and or a family tradition for engaging in public service work. These themes were related to the interviewee's entrance into public service and the meanings that they assigned to taking on the role as a public servant.

The first theme is civic duty, which was discussed in the majority of the participants' interviews. The respondents understood that their role as public servant may go beyond self, as evidenced in this statement by Kelvin from Schotts:

"*I love being able to deal with low- and moderate-income people that need some assistance to make their lives better*."

In another statement by Kelvin.

> *Kelvin*: A sense of service, government is in its heart good. Certainly, at the local level, probably at the state level, at the federal level, not so quite sure any more these days. But I believe strongly in government and a sense of citizenship. People should have a sense of commitment to local government. (Location: Schotts)

He recognized his service to the people. His identity as a public servant became evident when he stated that he believed strongly in government and the work done. Here he acknowledged that, "Government needs to be transparent and needs to be there to serve." He seemed to want to maintain the good in government. Others may have come to recognize that their public servant role was a result of a family tradition (parents' tenure in government) and may have entered public service through these means. Manford, from Coolidge, discussed his interest in government by stating that his mother and father were working in public service, inheriting a public service ethos (Goodsell, 2018). Leveraging this connection, he articulated the following,

> *Manford*: My mother had been with the Coolidge Clerk of courts office for about 25 years and my father had also done some government works and accounting work. So, I was familiar with it and aware of it. I kinda developed an interest into the field of public service. One of my professors actually made me aware of an opportunity with a city of...at an entry level. It was an administrative analyst position and I applied and got it. It has been good. I've always enjoyed working at the local level. I feel like I'm sort of closest to the needs of the community and I am able to see the impact of the work that I do on my neighbors and friends. And so, it's been it's been rewarding. (Location: Coolidge)

Both interviewees wanted to serve the public interest and expressed their desire to hold on to their belief in and loyalty to government. Not only did I find that they were holding on to their internal beliefs about government, they were also honoring a family legacy (Goodsell, 2018). We had some interviewees who took on the identity as a public servant; they knew the role that they had and understood how others may see them in this role. But they continued to reason that what they did benefitted community members in the long run.

> *Esther*: I do not do anything in an organized way. I do a lot of monitoring of units because we help fund hundreds of them. I have to do regular annual reviews every two years. With some of them, if the residents are home, I will engage them in a conversation. So, I try to explain that, you know, I'm here to make sure that things are going well for them and that I am not checking up on them. I am checking up on their landlord. I want to know that everything is going well for them. I want to hear it if it isn't. So, I try to have a very informal conversation. But I help them to get the picture. I want to know how people are feeling about their housing and if there are any red lights about the facilities. It's a really collaborative thing that we do. I can help to effect some change for them through just monitoring. (Location: Bullhead)

> *Tonya*: What is rewarding about my job is seeing the impact of the dollars. When sub-recipients apply for funds and they say that they are going to meet specific outcomes. I actually get to see those outcomes at the end. Once they complete their final report and I am able to report that to city council at the end of the year to say here is where we used the funding, and these are our beneficiaries. We serve different demographics. (Location: Duncan)

Public servants care about the job that they do and the people that they are impacting. They want to see the impacts as a result of their duty to service. They take on their identity and do what is needed in their jobs to fulfill their role as a public servant. In general, the majority of these administrators who discussed the importance of making an impact had a higher number of public participation actions. On the other hand, less than a quarter of administrators who expressed a normative motivation in terms describing the government's role for citizens and their desire to look out for citizens had a lower percentage of public participation actions. Even when expressing the desire to help the community of people, the administrators may have been struggling against the institutional structure and preserving their identities within the institutions. In this instance, as Maynard-Moody and Musheno (2003) discussed, people may have come to recognize themselves and others through a group of belonging but may struggle with reconciling their interest with the government's interest.

Public Service Motivation: Rational

The rational perspective places emphasis on self-interest and is premised on personal gain. Taking this approach to public service motivation can cause internal conflict within the individual because he or she has to balance self-interest versus public interest. Although administrators have the desire to serve the public, they may do so on a selfish and personal interest level. An example of this is found in one of the administrators' statement. Some were asked about what was rewarding about their work.

> *Jay*: Planners, you know, are all about setting goals. And all of that includes trying to accomplish things. Well, I'm very goal oriented. I try to bring a strategic approach to everything I do. So, I look for those opportunities. So, when I come across an opportunity that excites me. It gets me energized. (Location Pike Terrace)

In Jay's role, he was fulfilling a self-interested behavior, but still had the desire to serve the public. After further reading of the transcript, I did not find any other motivation outside of self-interest or personal benefit for doing public service work. Because I did not find this in this data does not means that Jay did not have other motives for doing his work. For example, he wanted people to be able to live in an environment that they liked as evidenced by this statement.

> *Jay*: First thing a planner does is get out into the community and find out what people want. People are comfortable in an environment that they want to be in, want to live in, and want to spend their money in. (Location: Pike Terrace)

In another statement, we found that administrators were motivated by self-interest. They may have performed the job as a public servant, but internally, were motivated by self-interest.

> *Martha*: I like a good work environment. I like the fact that I am able to administer these programs very independently and that I have very little oversight. They trust me enough to do these programs and I do them every day for the city. I get good reviews. It is very fulfilling and rewarding knowing that I have a good working relationship with the people in city management. (Location: Parker)

In general, the majority of administrators that fell into this category displayed greater public participation actions. The exaggeration of their self-interest when asked about their motivation for their job was telling, as they set the framework for understanding the increased public participation actions for a small number of administrators. In these narratives, there may be nothing wrong with having a self-interest motive for doing public servant work. Scholars have recognized that there are a range of personal factors that might entice administrators, such as salaries, but recognized that administrators may be driven to perform by the organization itself (Prebble, 2016; Perry and Hondeghem, 2008b). Some administrators entered local government due to the promise of employment stability and the benefits, while others explicitly said that they were not in government for the money. Administrators may draw on their self-interested behavior to continue to perform at a certain level, despite the constraints that they may be under.

5.3 Workplace Environment

5.3.1 Administrators and their Workplace Environment

The perception of the environment can shape the beliefs, motivations, and behaviors of individuals working in public organizations. These findings, in general, demonstrated some politicization in and some support from the environment, where the two themes emerged in the data. Politicization refers to evidence of frustration and burdensomeness as they carried out the HUD requirements, such as compliance burden, council relationships, and partisan districts. The impact that the environment had on employees as they performed in their workplace was broadly apparent in their discussions about their work. When asked about challenges faced in their workplaces that may have prevented them from gaining meaningful public participation, on average, many of the administrators discussed the politics that existed in their work environment.

> *Jay*: I have to say that the political environment, maybe it is the most important because that sets the tone for the local county for the locality and for the community. You recognize the need for greater participation. But at the same time, I mean that it all begins in terms of doing more and going beyond. It comes down to, you know, philosophy. And I think politics, the political environment has something to do with this. (Location: Pike Terrace)

> *Dennis*: Mammoth was not in the game when other localities were getting huge amounts of money. There were a lot more justifications for a much more sophisticated public review process. We got in a little later with a much lower entitlement amount. There really was not a luxury of working in a fairly lengthy citizen review process because the reality is that the ability to accommodate, you know, didn't exist. Having a lengthy review process would have been deceiving to the public to suggest that we can accommodate their input when the budget really wouldn't allow it. (Location: Mammoth)

Just as they have worked in environments that may have created moments of discouragement, administrators were pulled between feelings of altruism and vexation. Administrators, at times, may have felt a great compassion to serve the public, and their professional environment. However, merging these two could create tension in the environment because administrators had to contend with staying close to their emotional space, which was the source that acted in the interest of the public, but they may have also experienced frustration and decreased public service motivation. These narratives became a tale of workers wanting to go well beyond what was required, even calling out the constraints that they faced as they were trying to do public work. In many ways, they had a sense of their identity as being central to their work, but as they continued to narrate, these public servants recognized the frustration existing in their environment.

> *Deacon*: We have not gone to any real, what I would say an aggressive outreach program because the funds are not there. The couple of hundreds of dollars that we get is gone in a heartbeat. I have enough personnel to run a real aggressive program, if we want to run it. The problem is that I am going to be asking to promise things and then funds are not going to be there to back it up. I don't want to have that expectations when I don't have any chance of delivering anything. (Location: Marana)

Compliance was another element that emerged from the data collection and analysis process. In responding to the question about administrators' roles as public servants, some administrators discussed their relationship with their work environment. They wanted to get a sense of who they were at work and control how others might try to distort their views of themselves in the environment. In figuring out who they were, they may have challenged some of the social belonging that comes with being in a public service environment. Others may have had identities intermingled within the context of rules and regulations.

> *Tonya*: I used to tell my supervisors early on. I said, I will try to give you my honest answer. And what I feel is the right thing per the regulations. If you all choose to do otherwise that's fine, but I will still try and share my opinion if I think that it is outside of the regulations. City Council ultimately has final control and keeping them happy and getting them to see that we can't do it this way because our money will be in jeopardy. (Location: Duncan)

> *Tracey*: We used the same method over and over. Every year we say that we are going to do something different to engage the people, but we are so busy trying to meet the requirements that we end up doing the same thing the same way. (Location: Paine)

> *Esther*: I totally rely on written guidelines. I mean, yeah, it is all about compliance in those pieces. I mean, that is kind of your bottom-line. I totally rely on all of my HUD manuals, policies and procedures. (Location: Bullhead)

> *Martha*: Being an administrator of public service means helping the citizens with whatever I can do within the limits of the regulation. (Location: Parker)

Conversely, more than one administrator stated that, generally, the environment was supportive. Administrators felt like they were being supported in the environment. As reflected in these conversations, working with others in the space, perhaps they saw their identities as shaping what they were doing for the program. They recognized that their identities were bounded to others in the environment and were better able to keep their identities intact due to the commonalities that they shared with one another. Collaborating with others was a necessary part of their jobs, and at times, fulfilled their sense of belonging or identity in their work environment.

> *Kelvin*: We meet once a month to see how we can improve attendance at the meetings. We are not understaffed even with three. We get by with a little help from our friends. (Location: Schotts)

> *Esa*: I love working here. I really like being able to get out in the community. And, I work closely with the people. I am a member of lots of different committees and teams in the city, which is great. But we have a really good community development team here. I work with a planner, my supervisor and other people. We are just trying to improve the community and in all kind of different ways. (Location: Camp Creek)

Overall, many of the administrators discussed the environment as not being a supportive compared to a supportive environment. Surprisingly, there were more public participation actions among those who thought the environment was not as supportive compared to those administrators who spoke positively about the environment. Administrators needed to understand the work environment that they were situated in to get an idea of how their identity fit into that environment. When they perceived the environment as highly political, they tended to suppress creative activity (Bai, Han, Harms, 2016), giving them less control over the organizational politics due to the powerful external forces driving many of the politics exhibited in the organization (Vigoda, 2000), and therefore, their actions. However, in this case, generally, administrators who thought the environment was not supportive performed more public participation actions compared to those that thought the environment was supportive. These increased actions indicated that these public servants are motivated to keep their salient (behavior) and prominent (values) identities, suggesting that they are in a position to serve the public despite how they have perceived their environment.

Chapter 6: Discussion, Implications, and Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented information about the administrators' perspectives as they engaged the public. This chapter showcases a more expansive discussion of the findings and their implications. This research sought to discover the administrators' identities and their motivation for engaging in public participation in the public sector along with understanding their public servant roles in a public service environment. There were three questions that directed this research. For this chapter, I will be discussing research questions 2 and 3 here. Research question 1 is discussed later in this chapter. Research questions 2 and 3 are as follows:

RQ2: *To what extent do public administrators' identities as public servants affect public participation and how does this affect their motivation and behavioral approach to public participation?*

RQ3: *How do the perceptions of the internal work environment influence public service motivation and behavioral approaches toward public participation?*

The findings described in chapter five directly tied back to the identity and public service motivation literatures. The fifteen respondents who participated in this study described their role as public servants and their motivation for doing public service work that contributed to their public service behaviors. Accordingly, I found that there were broadly related themes associated with identity, public service motivation, and the work environment that emerged across all fifteen participants. Even though each respondent had his or her own unique responses to the questions, the findings captured some variation in how the respondents discussed their motivation and identity in public service work as described in the data.

This qualitative study began with an overview of the legal and historical background about public participation and provided context about the CDBG Program under HUD. Chapter Two established the context of the research study by highlighting the administrator's role in public participation. It discussed the downside of engaging the public in public participation as identified in the scholarship. In addition, the chapter further defined the public participation process and the various methods that administrators have for engaging the public. The conceptual framework presented in this chapter drew on several streams of scholarly research: Social Identity theory, Public Service Motivation theory, the research on administrative discretion and the broad scholarship on administration and public participation. Using these streams of research provided the structure and guided the direction of this research, as well as providing context for interpreting the data. The author's propositions were also provided in this chapter.

Chapter Three offered a review of one of the research designs and methods selected. The chapter explained the selection, data collection, and the data analysis techniques used for this study, including a discussion about the development of the interview protocol and the researcher's experiences with public participation.

Chapter Four discussed the basic content analysis of the CDBG Citizen Participation Plans data. For each plan, the researcher extracted the public participation method used and captured the frequency of the methods used for engaging the public. This chapter featured the documented public participation methods, defining and characterizing the specific methods used by the entitlement localities.

In Chapter Five, results of the analyses were presented along with the findings from the study. Fifteen participants took part in this study and the data from these interviewees were interpreted and discussed. This chapter features the administrators' perspectives about public participation and the characteristics of each of the localities where the interviewees reside.

6.2 Discussion of Propositions

Table 13 offers a summary of the propositions presented in Chapter Two and whether or not the data highlight the need for further examination. Although, this research does not make claims of causality, a closer look at these propositions is warranted due to the possible relationships that may exist among these narratives. These propositions can serve as a resource for understanding the variation and range of public participation actions among administrators involved in public participation to help the leadership better understand the constraints that public servants are under when they want to fulfil the role.

6.3 Discussion of Findings

The results presented here are relevant to the literature on identity as well as a larger discussion addressing the public administrator's role as a public servant. In Chapter Five, I showed that public administrators engaged extensively with their role as public servants. They recognized themselves, and each other, through group cohesiveness, which gave them opportunities to belong to a group. I heard comments such as this, "*I get to collaborate with people from a lot of different community agencies and I really enjoy the passionate and creative people that I get to work with*." In this interaction, administrators learned the expected behaviors held for them in a given environment that eventually guided their actions and processes. They seemed to claim this identity and were motivated by how they saw themselves in this environment. The next statement helped to solidify their motivations for doing this work, "And I guess I'm given a lot of leeway to bring new and exciting programs into what we're doing and to supplement what we're doing. So, I enjoy that."

Table 13: Summary Table of Propositions

Propositions	Statements	Findings
Proposition 1	Individuals with less tenure will express higher PSM, leading to more public participation actions.	A large majority of respondents with less tenure may have had higher public service motivation to perform, leading to more public participation actions, supporting my proposition.
Proposition 2	Individuals with a higher rank will express higher PSM, leading to more public participation actions.	Virtually all of the non-managers or lower ranking employees had more public participation actions compared to the slim minority of managers, suggesting that managers may be less involved with the work that they do.
Proposition 3	Individuals with more advanced degrees will express higher PSM, leading to more public participation actions.	The majority of administrators held advanced degrees, and this was where the most public participation actions were found.
Proposition 4	The older the individual, the higher PSM s/he will express, leading to more public participation actions	The majority of the respondents (60%) in the 57 + category had more public participation actions.
Proposition 5	Women will express higher PSM, leading to more public participation actions.	Women, generally, had more public participation actions compared to men.
Proposition 6a	Individuals who perceive the organizational environment as less supportive will express less public service motivation.	A large majority of the administrators had a higher percentage of engagements, even though they identified that they had constraints that they had to work within.
Proposition 6b	Organizational environments perceived as less supportive will generate fewer public participation actions.	A large majority of the administrators had a higher percentage of engagements, even though they identified that they had constraints that they had to work within.
Proposition 7	Individuals who express higher public service motivation will undertake more public participation actions.	In general, the majority of the administrators who expressed higher public service motivation had a higher number of public participation actions

The use of administrators' identity in the work environment gave them a way to organize their work around their public servant identity. Among the public servants, there was a clear underlying definition of a public servant that provided direction for their expected behaviors. From the interviews, not only have public administrators taken on the role of public servant, their behaviors reflected the meanings of serving the public. As they engaged in public work, their behaviors and identities became aligned and they began to think positively about their public work. However, when they found that their identity was no longer in alignment with their work, they began to exhibit negative emotions toward the work environment.

Respondents were asked how they defined the meaning of a public servant and they discussed the different aspects of being a public servant in practice. Discussing it in this way allowed them to understand their identity in the process of doing public work. However, doing public work meant that they had to have the necessary resources to carry out public engagement activities. Respondents often discussed the lack of resources available to them, but they were able to do what they could with what they were given. From this perspective, their public service identity did not seem to change because they continued to do what they were required to do, despite the obstacles that may have prevented them from having thick, meaningful public engagement. I found that the respondents had an ability to act in the capacity of a public servant due to how they framed their role as a public servant. Furthermore, not only did their behaviors align with their role as a public servant, they understood their purpose in the public sector environment. They were committed to their identity and to the public work. However, it seems that having the public service ethos was what guided their continued behavior and actions for the work that they did. Providing more insight into identity salience helped me understand how this identity was being maintained or committed to over a period of time, despite the barriers that may have prevented respondents from performing meaningful engagement with the public.

I have shown that the identity of the individual can influence public service motivation and the behavior of an individual. When individuals saw themselves as part of a group, they became motivated to do the work because they had been assigned to a group of public servants within the organization. To have a behavior outside the norm would create an identity that was misaligned with the group, possibly creating multiple identities. If their identity was not aligned with their behavior, they began to have negative emotions towards the public work that they performed. On the other hand, if their identity was aligned with their behavior, then they had positive emotions. Listening to comments from the public servants, there were more negative emotions toward their public work regarding how they discussed the aspects of their job for engaging the public. More specifically, they discussed frustration or disappointment because they were unable to perform their jobs in a meaningful way, which may have impacted their motivation, and therefore, their behavior. These findings suggest that if an individual is disconnected from their identity, this will be reflected in their public service motivation and therefore, their behaviors.

Whether there are rules, regulations, and laws that may prevent public servants from performing at a certain level depends on the circumstances surrounding their motivation for public work and their attitudes toward public work. Emotionally, public servants may be disconnected from their identity despite the values and the desires held toward public work. A value discussed by one of the public servants was that he believed in the sense of citizenship. In another comment, a public servant believed that giving back to the community was important. These comments demonstrated the values that public servants held as prominent to their identity as a public servant. To keep these values in the forefront, they discussed them in a way that was exciting and rewarding to them. These comments were a way that public servants demonstrated the importance of their identity to them and highlighted how they wanted others to see them in their role as a public servant. However, other public servants discussed how they were doing all that they could do despite the lack of resources. This negative emotion towards work demonstrated that their identities may be misaligned and their motivation for doing work had waned. It should be noted that administrators may still perform in their capacity as public servants but make minimum efforts (behavior) toward the work if their motivation has waned or if they feel that they are not being supported in a way that assists them in having a meaningful public participation.

The success of these public participation efforts depends on the perception of the public servants' fit and relationship within the internal work environment. The internal work environment can become an impediment to public service performance and motivation for doing public work. The findings regarding respondents' public service motivation presented here suggest that the public servants had the passion to do the work for the community. However, they were frustrated when there were not enough resources to allow them to do more public work, as evidenced by this comment, "*I like what I do. We do help people. It's just frustrating that we don't have enough time, resources or people to do it as good as we could do it. I think we do a decent job with the limited resources, the people that we have*." Conversely, when asked about whether they believed that they had enough resources and personnel to have meaningful engagements, the majority of the public servants said that they did have enough resources. For instance, public servants discussed it in these terms, "*We have enough to meet the requirement. But to go above and beyond, we would need more staff and resources to do some door to door or other outreach*." This suggests that if public servants frame their efforts in the context of resources, they may overlook the other impediments that may prevent them from doing what is in the best interest of their community. For instance, the majority of the public servants discussed or brought up the politicization of the environment both internal and external. This seemed particularly important for their public work since public servants appeared to want to provide meaningful public participation opportunities to the public. But here, public servants faced the politicization of the environment, which offered a way for administrators to take a back-seat approach to public participation because they might have felt that no matter what they did in their work, the final decisions were up to their superiors. In addition, the public servants often cited regulations and compliances as inhibiting their work, as in this comment, "*You can never get everything done and the regulations keep getting worse and worse, the money keeps getting less and less*." Another comment was, "*You recognize the need for greater participation. But at the same time, I mean it all begins in terms of doing more and going beyond. It comes down to, you know, philosophy, and I think politics, the political environment*." These findings are in line with Paalberg, Perry and Hondeghem's (2008) insights discussed previously, that perceptions may shape public service motivation and performance of the individual. Further, within these environments, individuals may not vary their degree of commitment to the public servant role because they tend to keep their values and their loyalty toward their identity as a public servant in front. However, their motivation to do the public work may vary or wane to some degree and their behavior may change due to their perception of the politicization of the environment in which they work.

6.4 Summary Discussion

The research questions were answered by the information that was collected.

RQ1: What public participation actions and methods are reported in the documents by CDBG administrators?

RQ2: *To what extent do public administrators' identities as public servants affect public participation and how does this affect their motivation and behavioral approach to public participation?*

RQ3: *How do the perceptions of the internal work environment influence public service motivation and behavioral approaches toward public participation?*

The first research question asked about the documentation of public participation actions. This question was answered in Chapter Four and the majority of the participants met the minimum requirements and sometimes public hearings were documented as the only method used for engaging the public. I found this pattern emerging across all of the documents. Further, formal and informal demands may guide the actions and behaviors of the individuals as they engage with the public. This is another area that could be further explored to understand this isomorphic pattern that emerged over time.

Unfortunately, public hearings are not viewed as a good method for soliciting input (Franklin and Ebdon, 2015; Thomas, 1995). Given these findings, there are many other ways of engaging the public in a meaningful way. Administrators must be clear about what public participation means in the context of their job and be open to using various methods for engaging communities. Each community may have different dynamics and the administrators must be willing to adjust public participation techniques to meet various community dynamics.

The second research question asked about the extent that the administrators' identities as public servants affect their public participation and how this affects their motivation and behavioral approach to public participation. On the surface, administrators seem to understand their role as a public servant and acted in this capacity as they engaged the public. The nature of their enactment called for a service to serve the public, but the details of this service and the frustration exhibited played out in the narrative. However, they seemed to remain engaged and motivated to serve. The administrators stayed committed to this role.

The third research question focused on the perception of the internal work environment and whether this influenced their public service motivation and behavioral approaches toward public participation. This question was answered by a number of participants who recognized that the environment mattered for the public work that they did. If participants did not feel that they had the support needed to carry out their behavior, they became frustrated, which was evident in the discussions. However, it was difficult to see any patterns emerging due to this frustration. There was a combination of both minimum and maximum efforts for engaging the public.

6.5 Implications

The implications of this research are two-fold. The first relates to the use of motivation and identity as the theoretical framework for understanding the administrators' behavior as they perform public participation actions. The results suggest that an association between identity and motivation is prevalent among administrators as they confirm their role in the environment along with giving meaning to the work that they do, which creates their motivation. For instance, administrators identified with the public servant behavior, but were constrained by what they could do in the public service work environment; therefore, they may have lacked the motivation to do more. This suggests that other factors are at play when there are fewer public participation actions among the administrators. On the other hand, when there was more public participation, the focus was more on the characteristics of the individual and less on the other factors that may have also been driving these actions.

Looking back at the characteristics of the administrators provides some insight into who they are as administrators and the influences that these characteristics may have on the performance of tasks on their job. Although there were several themes that emerged from the data, confirming many of the propositions, I found that administrators intended to perform in their role and capacity as public servants.

Despite these favorable findings, when I examined the identity of the administrator and his or her motivation for public participation, the incorporation of identity was important to provide a picture of his or her willingness to go beyond meeting the minimum requirement. This suggests that when the administrators are tasked to perform, these factors tend to control public participation in localities. This finding supports Yang and Callahan's (2007) statement that the public participation processes are driven by something else, such as the views and priorities of the administrators. It is important to examine the inherent ideas and administrators' backgrounds, which may be driving some of these choices, discussions, and decisions made about public participation. Therefore, this research can be best understood to lend support to the idea that administrators are important and vital to the success of public participation. It is possible that improvements could be made in the future, by providing administrators with some concrete guidelines about what agencies expect for public participation, rather than leaving public participation open to the administrators' discretion. If administrators can better understand what is expected in public participation, they can apply an appropriate method for their locality to get the needed information and to give citizens real decision-making opportunities in their communities.

6.6 Limitations

As with all studies, limitations are important to take into consideration. First, there are limitations associated with the interview method. Self-reported data may be inaccurate, biased or the interviewees may be unable to recall past events, and I may be unable to double check information for accuracy. Second, this research only examined the perspectives of the CDBG administrators and did not take into account other public administrators within the city. I took care in finding the participants who were identified as CDBG administrators in various localities across the state. Others who may have been involved with the CDBG program were not considered for this study, including those who were from non-entitlement cities. In addition, the sample respondents may not represent CDBG administrators across all fifty states. It is my hope that future studies will expand this study and look at other states to see if they can find similar patterns in public participation actions. The identity theory framework used in this study is reliable and valid, as other studies have used it in other capacities. It is a framework that is applicable to studying motivation in other public sector settings.

6.7 Conclusion

Despite the substantial body of knowledge on public service motivation, it is still difficult to grasp what it means to have an identity as a public servant in a public sector environment where impediments to doing the public work are evident. Public servants enter public service with the goal of serving the public, but once in the public servant role, they find that there are simply not enough resources to do their work. They seek to keep their identity, and their values and loyalty to the identity, but their motivation can topple over-time, if they are not able to reconcile how they perceive the environment versus how they situate themselves in an environment that may not be fully conducive to the public servant identity, due to the constraints that are imposed by the work environment. I documented how administrators discussed the tensions existing between their work and their struggle against an institution that prevented them from the exercising their discretionary powers and preserving their identity for doing public service work.

In addition, I examined their motivation for doing the public work. I found juxtaposition between their role as public servants and their struggle to act upon their public service motivation to do public work. When their public servant identity no longer aligned with their behaviors, they became frustrated and began to have negative emotions toward their public work. Public administrators still held onto their salient identity, but had difficulty staying motivated to do the work when they perceived that there were impediments in the work environment. With this, I saw some decreases in the performance outcomes.

This study makes a unique contribution to the research on identity and motivation of public servants. Public servants are motivated to serve the public and have identity salience and prominence in the work that they do. However, once they are in an organization, they may have a different perspective of what this looks like in practice. Unlike most studies on public service motivation and identity, which typically surveyed public servants in public sector environments, my research focused on the identity of public administrators who had chosen to work in the public sector as a career or had entered for no other reason than to serve the public. They have committed themselves to this role, as evidenced by the majority who had been employed in the public sector environment for a significant amount of time, despite the barriers they talked about. Understanding their motivation for the actions that they took is important for public participation programs looking to engage the public in a meaningful way. In addition, the qualitative analysis of public servants' interview data allowed me to probe deeper into their identity and the motivation of the participants regarding their public service work.

In the future, it may be helpful to perform a longitudinal study to capture the motivation of public employees prior to, and during, their time in the public environment to see when their behavior and actions begin to change. Another qualitative study could help frame the conversation surrounding their motivation for the work, and whether they are still motivated to do the work based on their experience and knowledge after entering public service.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Citizen Participation and Consultation Toolkit (Sample of Past Activities Table)

Title	Citizen Participation of Consultation	Time Frame	Location	Description
Citizen Advisory Board Meeting	Citizen Participation	Ongoing throughout the planning cycle	Entire jurisdiction	A multi-member citizen board drawn from target communities that regularly meets to discuss CDBG activities. Board provides ongoing feedback through regular public hearings.
Internet Survey	Both	One-time survey	Entire jurisdiction	Posted a survey form on city website to solicit input on plan.
Neighborhood Planning	Consultation	Ongoing throughout the planning process	Target Area	Coordinated with neighborhood planning efforts in central downtown area for feedback on Con Plan goals and projects.
State example: Regional Public Hearings	Citizen Participation	During Con Plan Development	Three locations statewide	Engage the public in more remote areas who may feel disconnected or be underserved.

Other Potential Opportunities for Outreach

Traditional Media Outlets	Internet Based Outlets	Data Visualization Techniques	Coordinate with local and regional public entities ongoing efforts

Appendix B: Interview Guide

QUALITATIVE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Thank you for taking the time to talk with me. Before we begin, let me explain a little about this research. This is an academic research project to complete my dissertation. What you tell me is confidential and anonymous. I will not link identifiable personal information, such as your name, to anything that is written as part of my dissertation. My purpose is to gain a greater understanding of decision-making of public administrators such as yourself. The study focuses on administrators of public service working with the Community Development Block Grant program. My purpose today is to get to know a little more about the nature of your work as it relates to public participation and about you. Do you have any questions? May I continue.

1) Identity

- Please explain how you came to work for local government.
    - Please describe your role in your agency. What is your job like?
    - What aspect of your job do you feel is most rewarding, and why?
    - What is it like working here?
        - Probe: Feelings about your job (e.g. scary, boring, overwhelming, etc.)

- In your life time what kinds of jobs have you held over your career in government?
    - What is your experience with the Community Development Block Grant Program?
    - How did you come to work with the Community Development Block Grant Program?

2) Definition

- What does being a public service administrator mean to you?
    - Do you consider yourself a public servant?
    - Probe: Defining public servant

3) Public Participation

- Public participation has been required of administrators for many years in a number of federally funded programs, what does public participation mean to you?
    - What is like working with citizens (cooperative, friendly, rewarding, unpleasant waste of time)?
    - Can you describe the typical people that show up for public participation?
        - Probe: Do you feel you engage more often with civic organizations or with individual citizens?
    - Can you describe a time where you personally felt that you were not able to engage a group targeted for public participation?
        - Probe: What did you do to try to elicit participation from the targeted group?
    - Looking back over a single instance that stood out in your mind, what has been your most meaningful engagement with the public?

- Probe: What has been the least?

- To what extent do you rely on written guidance and procedures to specify what public participation methods are used to engage the public?

- What are some of the techniques that you use to engage with the public?
  - What techniques, if any, fall outside of the public hearing requirement or mandate?

- Do you feel that you have enough resources and personnel to lead a meaningful public participation process?

4) Training

- What is your educational background?
  - What training, if any, did you receive that prepared you for a career as a public servant?
  - In your current position, what types of training opportunities do you typically seek out on a regular basis?
  - How, if at all, did your training prepare you to work with and listen to members of the public?

5) Other Information

- What advice, if any, would you offer to other professionals trying to elicit public participation?

- Is there anything that I missed that you would like to discuss?

Appendix C: Comprehensive List of Various Participation Mechanisms used in the U.S. and the UK

- Act Create Experience (ACE) (1)
- Action Planning (1, 2)
- Appraisal (Community, Public), e.g., village/parish/environmental. (Also "Monitoring," e.g., citizen monitors and scrutiny.) (1,2)
- Arbitration (Mediation) (3, 4)
- Broad-Based Organizing (1)
- Cable Television (Not Interactive) (2)
- Cable Television (Interactive) (3)
- Charette (3)
- Choice Methods (1,2)
- Citizens' Advisory Committee (CAC) (3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9)
- Citizen Advocacy (1)
- Citizen Employment (3)
- Citizen Honoraria (3)
- Citizens' Jury (1, 2, 6, 10, 11, 12, 13)
- Citizens' Panel (Research) (2)
- Citizens' Panel (Standing) e.g., Health Panel (2, 10, 14, 15)
- Citizen Review Board (3)
- Citizen Training (3)
- Community Dinners (16)
- Community Forum - of: Place (e.g., Neighborhood); Issues; Service Users; Shared Interest (2, 10)
- Community Indicators (1)
- Community Plans/Needs Analysis (10)
- Community Site Management Plans (1)
- Community Strategic Planning (1)
- Community Technical Assistance (3)
- Complaints/Suggestion Schemes (10)
- Computer-Based (IT) Techniques (2, 3)
- Conference (generic term, often with qualifier e.g., "planning," "deliberative," "visualization") (3, 10, 17)
- Consensus Building (1, 2)
- Consensus Conference (2, 6, 18, 19, 20)
- Consultation Document (Consultation) (10)
- Consultative Panel (2)
- Coordinator or Coordinator-Catalyst (3)
- Co-option (Citizen Representatives on Policy making Bodies) (3, 10)
- Deliberative Opinion Poll (2, 21)
- Design-In (3)
- Drop-In Center (also Neighborhood Office, One-Stop/First-Stop Shop) (2, 3)
- Enspirited Envisioning (1)
- "Finding Home" ("Visualizing our future by making maps") (1)
- Fishbowl Planning (3)
- Focus Group (3, 6, 10)
- From Vision to Action (1)
- Future Search (1, 2)
- Game Simulation (3)
- Guided Visualization (1, 2)
- Hotline (3)
- Human Scale Development Initiative (1)
- Initiatives (Citizen Initiated Petition) (2, 22)
- Imagine! (1)
- Interactive Web-Site (10)
- "Issues, Aims, Expectations, Challenges & Dialogues in a Day" (1)
- Learning Service Team (2)
- Local Sustainability Model (1)
- Maps/Mapping (Village, Parish) (1, 2)
- Media-Based Issue Balloting (3)
- Meeting–Community Sponsored (3)
- Meeting–Neighborhood (location-based) (3)
- Meeting–Public ("Open Informational," generic) (3, 10, 23, 24)
- Meeting–Town (New England Model) (2)
- Meeting–Town (Electronic) (2)
- Negotiated Rulemaking (6, 22, 25, 26)
- Neighborhood Planning Council (3)
- Ombudsman (3)
- Open Door Policy (3)
- Open House (2)
- Open Space (1, 2)
- Opinion Metres (2)
- Opinion Polls (2, 10)
- Participatory Appraisal (1)
- Participatory Strategic Planning (1)
- Participatory Theatre (1)
- Planning Balance Sheet (3)
- Planning Cell (27)
- Planning For Real (1, 2)
- Policy Capturing (3)
- Policy Delphi (3)
- Priority Search (2)
- Priority Setting Committee (3)
- Public Hearing (3, 6, 22)
- Public Information Programs (3)
- Publicity (Leaflets, Newsletters, Exhibitions) (2)
- Question and Answer Session (10)
- Random Selected Participation Groups (3)
- Real Time Strategic Change (1)
- (The) Recall (2)
- Referendum (generic; compulsory response) (2, 3, 6, 10)
- Referendum–Petition (2)
  Referendum–Preferences (Preferendum) (10)
- Roundtable (2)
- Social Audit (1)
- Study Circles (2)
- Surveys (e.g., Community; Tenants' (Service) Satisfaction) (2, 3, 6, 10, 16, 22)
- TalkWorks (1)
- Task Force (3, 28)
- Team Syntegrity (1)
- Tele-Polling (2)
- Tele-Voting (2)
- Time Dollars (1)
- User Management of Services (10)
- Value Analysis (3)
- Visioning Exercises/Conferences (10)
- Workshops (generic, may include: Action Planning; Design; Information Exchange) (1, 2, 3, 29, 30)
- Whole System Development (2)

Alphabetical listing of "participation" mechanisms (references in parentheses).

SOURCES: (1) New Economics Foundation (1999); (2) Democracy Network (1998); (3) Rosener (1975); (4) Baughman (1995); (5) Lynn and Busenberg (1995); (6) Rowe and Frewer (2000); (7) Plumlee, Starling, and Kramer (1985); (8) Hannah and Lewis (1982); (9) Pierce and Doerksen (1976); (10) Lowndes et al. (1998); (11) Barnes (1999); (12) Coote and Lenaghan (1997); (13) McIver (1998); (14) Dowswell et al. (1997); (15) Kathlene and Martin (1991); (16) Carr and Halvorsen (2001); (17) Rowe, Marsh, and Frewer (2004); (18) Einsiedel, Jelsoe, and Breck (2001); (19) Guston (1999); (20) Joss (1998); (21) Fishkin and Luskin (1999); (22) Fiorino (1990); (23) Rosener (1982); (24) Sinclair (1977); (25) Coglianese (1997); (26) Susskind and McMahon (1985); (27) Dienel and Renn (1995); (28) Stewart, Dennis, and Ely (1984); (29) Lundren and McMakin (1998); and (30) Twight and Carroll (1983).

Appendix D: "Spectrum of Public Participation" developed by the International Association of Public Participation (IAP2, 2007)

SPECTRUM OF PROCESSES FOR COLLABORATION AND CONSENSUS-BUILDING IN PUBLIC DECISIONS[1]

	EXPLORE/INFORM	CONSULT	ADVISE	DECIDE	IMPLEMENT
Outcomes[2]	• Improved understanding of issues, process, etc. • Lists of concerns • Information needs identified • Explore differing perspectives • Build relationships	• Comments on draft policies • Suggestions for approaches • Priority concerns/issues • Discussion of options • Call for action	• Consensus or majority recommendations, on options, proposals or actions, often directed to public entities	• Consensus-based agreements among agencies and constituent groups on policies, lawsuits or rules	• Multi-party agreements to implement collaborative action and strategic plans
Sample Processes	• Focus Groups • Conferences • Open houses • Dialogues • Roundtable Discussions • Forums • Summits	• Public meetings • Workshops • Charettes • Town Hall Meetings (w & w/o deliberative polls) • Community Visioning • Scoping meetings • Public Hearings • Dialogues	• Advisory Committees • Task Forces • Citizen Advisory Boards • Work Groups • Policy Dialogues • Visioning Processes	• Regulatory Negotiation • Negotiated settlement of lawsuits, permits, cleanup plans, etc. • Consensus meetings • Mediated negotiations	• Collaborative Planning processes • Partnerships for Action • Strategic Planning Committees • Implementation Committees
Use When	• Early in projects when issues are under development • When broad public education and support are needed • When stakeholders see need to connect, but are wary	• Want to test proposals and solicit public and stakeholder ideas • Want to explore possibility of joint action before committing to it	• Want to develop agreement among various constituencies on recommendations, e.g. to public officials	• Want certainty of implementation for a specific public decision • Conditions are there for successful negotiation	• Want to develop meaningful on-going partnership to solve a problem of mutual concern • To implement joint strategic action
Conditions for Success	• Participants will attend	• There are questions or proposals for comment • Affected groups and/or the public are willing to participate	• Can represent broad spectrum of affected groups • Players agree to devote time	• Can represent all affected interests and potential "blockers" • All agree upfront to implement results, incl. "sponsor" • Time, information, incentives and resources are available for negotiation	• Participants agree to support the goal for the effort • Participants agree to invest time and resources • Conditions exist for successful negotiations

[1] Developed by Suzanne Orenstein, Lucy Moore, and Susan Sherry, members of the Ad Hoc Working Group on the Future of Collaboration and Consensus on Public Issues, in consideration of and inspiration from the spectra developed by International Association for Public Involvement (http://www.iap2.org/associations/4748/files/IAP2%20Spectrum_vertical.pdf) and the National Coalition for Dialogue and Deliberation (http://www.thataway.org/exchange/files/docs/ddStreams1-08.pdf).

[2] While all types of processes have intrinsic value on their own, those on the right side of the spectrum tend to include early phases akin to those on the left side and those on the left side often support participants in moving to next steps akin to those on the right side.

Appendix E: Recruitment Email

Invitational E-mail to Participate in a Research Study

Dear_____________________________:

I am a current doctoral student at Virginia Tech, and as part of my dissertation, I am conducting a research study to understand how administrators decide on specific methods for public participation. I am contacting you to ask if you would be willing to participate in this research by taking part in an interview with me. I am looking to interview administrators responsible for public participation programs in local government. The interviews should take no more than 60 minutes to complete. Your input is valuable to my research and will help us understand the decisions that administrators make about the design of public participation programs.

This research follows The Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board guidelines. Therefore, your participation in this research will remain confidential with respect to the data I collect from participants. Names and other identifying information will be strictly confidential.

Your participation is voluntary, and you will have an opportunity to withdraw at any time.

If you are interested in participating, please fill out the doodle poll to confirm a date and time. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at 410-570-5663. Thank you for your assistance at this important stage of my dissertation.

Sincerely,

Lorita Daniels, PhD Student
Center for Public Administration and Policy
Virginia Tech School of Public and International Affairs
410-570-5663
lacdaniels@vt.edu

Matt Dull, PhD
Dissertation Chair
Center for Public Administration and Policy
Virginia Tech School of Public and International Affairs
MDull@vt.edu

Appendix F: Follow-up Telephone Script

Follow-up Phone Call to Invitational E-mail to Participate in A Research Study

Good Morning Ms. _____________ or Mr. _____________:

My name is Lorita Daniels and I am a Virginia Tech doctoral student and I am following up on a previous e-mail sent on ___________.

As part of my dissertation, I am conducting a research study to understand how administrators decide on specific methods for public participation. I am contacting you to ask if you would be willing to participate in this research by taking part in an interview with me. I am looking to interview administrators responsible for public participation programs in local government. The interviews should take no more than 60 minutes to complete. Your input is valuable to my research and will help us understand the decisions that administrators make about the design of public participation programs.

This research follows the Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board guidelines. Therefore, your participation in this research will remain confidential concerning the data I collect from participants. Names and other identifying information will be strictly confidential.

Would you be willing to set up an interview with me? If so, what would be a good time to set up an interview with you?

I will send an e-mail to confirm the time and date.

Thank you for agreeing to interview with me.

Bye

Appendix G: Data Collection Sheet

Biographical Information
(Please circle the one that fits)

Please check the box next to your age range:	25-45	
	46-56	
	57 and over	
Indicate your highest level of education:	Bachelor’s Degree	
	Graduate Degree	
	Type of degree and specialization	
	____________________________	
How long have you been in this particular position:	0 – 5	Years
	6 – 11	Years
	12 - 17	Years
	18 +	Years
What is your race and ethnicity?	White	
	Black or African-American	
	Asian	
	Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	
	American Indian or Alaska Native	
	Hispanic	
	Other	

Appendix H: Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board Approval Letter

VIRGINIA TECH.

Office of Research Compliance
Institutional Review Board
North End Center, Suite 4120
300 Turner Street NW
Blacksburg, Virginia 24061
540/231-3732 Fax 540/231-0959
email irb@vt.edu
website http://www.irb.vt.edu

MEMORANDUM

DATE:	January 16, 2019
TO:	Matthew Martin Dull, Lorita Daniels
FROM:	Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board (FWA00000572, expires January 29, 2021)
PROTOCOL TITLE:	The Identity of Local Government Administrators: A Review of Public Participation in Communities in Virginia
IRB NUMBER:	**18-729**

Effective January 13, 2019, the Virginia Tech Institution Review Board (IRB) approved the Amendment request for the above-mentioned research protocol.

This approval provides permission to begin the human subject activities outlined in the IRB-approved protocol and supporting documents.

Plans to deviate from the approved protocol and/or supporting documents must be submitted to the IRB as an amendment request and approved by the IRB prior to the implementation of any changes, regardless of how minor, except where necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects. Report within 5 business days to the IRB any injuries or other unanticipated or adverse events involving risks or harms to human research subjects or others.

All investigators (listed above) are required to comply with the researcher requirements outlined at:

https://secure.research.vt.edu/external/irb/responsibilities.htm

(Please review responsibilities before the commencement of your research.)

PROTOCOL INFORMATION:

Approved As:	**Expedited, under 45 CFR 46.110 category(ies) 5,6,7**
Protocol Approval Date:	**November 7, 2018**
Protocol Expiration Date:	**November 6, 2019**
Continuing Review Due Date*:	**October 23, 2019**

*Date a Continuing Review application is due to the IRB office if human subject activities covered under this protocol, including data analysis, are to continue beyond the Protocol Expiration Date.

FEDERALLY FUNDED RESEARCH REQUIREMENTS:

Per federal regulations, 45 CFR 46.103(f), the IRB is required to compare all federally funded grant proposals/work statements to the IRB protocol(s) which cover the human research activities included in the proposal / work statement before funds are released. Note that this requirement does not apply to Exempt and Interim IRB protocols, or grants for which VT is not the primary awardee.

The table on the following page indicates whether grant proposals are related to this IRB protocol, and which of the listed proposals, if any, have been compared to this IRB protocol, if required.

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IRB SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONS:

This amendment, submitted January 10, 2019, changes the consent form by modifying the title. Data collection instruments were also changed by revising all questions.

Date*	OSP Number	Sponsor	Grant Comparison Conducted?

* Date this proposal number was compared, assessed as not requiring comparison, or comparison information was revised.

If this IRB protocol is to cover any other grant proposals, please contact the IRB office (irb@vt.edu) immediately.