

# **Citizen Involvement in Watershed Protection in Russia and the USA**

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## **Abstract**

This paper explores the interaction between NGOs and the government as well as citizen involvement in the process of protecting watersheds in the U.S and Russia. This study identifies factors that catalyze and block the effectiveness of citizen involvement in the environmental policy implementation process and analyzes how public policy impacts the utilization of volunteers by NGOs operating under different historical/cultural context. The cases selected for analysis are environmental nonprofits operating in the Chesapeake Bay region of the United States and at St. Petersburg and Vologda regions of North Western Russia. NGOs in both countries use volunteers for monitoring watersheds, however, this paper demonstrates that in the U.S. volunteers play a more important role in policy implementation than they do in Russia. It also demonstrates that governmental support in both countries brings additional resources that allow NGOs to better recruit and retain volunteers.

**Keywords:** NGOs, Russia, United States, environment, policy network, watershed

## **Introduction**

This paper is a comparative analysis of citizen involvement in watershed protection policy and efforts in the U.S. and Russia. Rather than covering the whole realm of environmental policy in the two countries, I narrowed the focus to the policy of watershed protection because as compared to other aspects of environmental policy, citizen participation is the most developed and significant in watershed protection in both countries (Sirianni and Friedland, 2001; Tysiachniouk et al, 2001).

In recent years in the U.S., governmental institutions became more decentralized: state, county and city agencies became closer to nonprofit organizations and citizen groups. Therefore, local decision making often takes place with many stakeholders involved through multiple networking structures (Kickert et al., 1997). Concerning the implementation of the Clean Water Act (1972), pollution policies and their implementation evolved in such a way that experimentation and co-operation among business, government and civil society was encouraged.

Therefore, the knowledge, opinions and local expertise of citizens has become more widely used by governments in environmental decision making in general and in the protection of watersheds in particular. Nonprofit organizations and individual citizens are actively involved in two components of watershed protection in the U.S.: policy setting and policy implementation

In Russia, the involvement of NGOs in environmental policy implementation is more a part of environmental education programs. The Russian government does not see these environmental groups as vehicles for implementation, however, there exists a network of water quality monitoring organizations that engage and educate students about their watersheds. This is

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part of an initiative to clean rivers and streams, but mostly as education rather than involvement in the policy process. Unlike the U.S. government, the Russian government does not have the culture to involve citizens in policy implementation. This is why citizen involvement in all parts of the policy process is very low in Russia, although, volunteers are involved in many watershed protection activities on the grass roots level.

To facilitate the comparative analysis of citizen involvement in the U.S. and Russia this paper focuses on citizen involvement in the Clean Water Act implementation process in the U.S. and comparable activities in Russia. The comparative analysis will help to identify the existing potential of Russian nonprofits and citizens to be used by national governments in watershed protection.

It is difficult to make a comparative analysis because both the contexts and NGO structures in the two countries are different. However, I will make this comparison and analyze to what extent groups' relationships with governments affect their abilities to successfully attract and retain volunteers. In both societies civic involvement in watershed management is developing, but it is occurring in different ways and by different mechanisms, as will be shown in the paper.

I will focus on a historical/cultural context for the operation of watershed-protecting nonprofits in the U.S. and Russia, methodology of data collection, reports of the findings, and comparative analysis.

### **Context of citizen involvement in watershed protection in the U.S. and Russia**

Citizen involvement in policy implementation processes in the U.S. and Russia is context bound. Therefore, prior to empirical analysis, I will focus on the current historical/cultural context for citizen involvement in watershed protection in the U.S. and Russia.

#### **U.S. context**

The effort to regulate non-point sources of pollution (pollution from farms, storm water runoff, etc.) is difficult because every household is a polluter and every stream must be monitored. The regulation of non-point sources is managed by the states through federal grant programs which encourage the states to develop non-point source management plans including water quality monitoring, clean –ups, tree planting and other restoration activities (Congressional Quarterly, 1999). In such a situation the role of nonprofits as vehicles for policy implementation increases immensely, allowing them to become intermediaries between governments and citizens. The U.S. is an advanced democracy and the government understands the importance of citizen volunteers in implementing the Clean Water Act on all localities throughout the country.

In recent years public problems solving in the U.S. became possible only through collaborative efforts of governments with a wide array of third parties, such as nonprofits and businesses (Salamon, 1980, 1981).

In the 1990s, the responsibility for both public policy setting and policy implementation was shared by many collaborative and interdependent actors. It seems the term “new governance” reflects the American reality better than the traditional term “government” (Salamon, 2001).

The Clean Water Act (CWA) of 1972 was successful in abating point sources of pollution (pollution from a specific identifiable source) by regulating discharges from industries and municipalities. However, the main goal of the act to make all U.S. waters “fishable and swimmable” was not achieved, mainly because of non-point sources of pollution (pollution from farms, storm water runoff, etc.), which are hard to regulate.

The EPA delegated the responsibility to abate non-point sources of pollution to the States. States were mandated to develop pollution abatement plans for both point and non-point sources of pollution through the application of best management practices. Concerning non-point sources

of pollution, every household is a polluter. Therefore, in order to develop the best management practices, all stakeholders must be involved. In such a situation the role of nonprofits as vehicles for policy implementation increases immensely, allowing them to become intermediaries between governments and citizens.

The regulation of non-point sources is managed by the states through federal grant programs which encourage the states to develop non-point source management plans including water quality monitoring, clean-ups, tree planting and other restoration activities. States are mandated to provide lists of impaired water bodies to the EPA every two years. This requirement increased immensely the need to do water quality monitoring in all small streams. The completion of this requirement is very costly and governmental agencies are very short in funding, while conducting professional water quality monitoring on every stream is difficult. In order to increase efficiency in program implementation, governments use nonprofits as vehicles in organizing volunteer based water quality monitoring. NGOs are also participating in the identification of polluted waters and restoration of their health. Both features could not be achieved without citizen involvement in monitoring and restoration activities.

Therefore, citizens have increasingly become involved in providing monitoring data to local and state agencies. The techniques used and the proficiency of the citizen monitors have improved over the years to the point where their data is being used in watershed management decisions. These citizen monitoring programs were developed through public and private partnerships with emphasis on establishing a protocol that would meet federal standards. The training of citizen monitors relies heavily on the “adoption” of local streams in their communities, an element that promotes a greater commitment, more careful monitoring and longer term participation. This local connection also provides motivation for citizens to become involved in influencing the decisions that affect local environmental protection and preservation policies.

### **Russia context**

There is no legislation in Russia that would be comparable with the CWA in the U.S. However, the protection of Russia’s water resources is part of the Russian Constitution, which was enacted in December 1993. All relations concerning water resources are regulated by the Russian Federation (RF) Water Code passed by the State Duma on 18 October 1995. In accordance with the RF Water Code, 100% of water resources belong to the public sector and about 95% of watersheds are under federal ownership.

The watershed protection activities are financed partly from the federal budget, partly from the budgets of the subjects of the RF, local people’s deputy councils, and environmental insurance funds. A certain amount of funds goes to the watershed protection NGOs through the competitive bid process or local, and informal, government-NGO agreements, maintained through interpersonal connections. In addition, watershed protecting NGOs, until 1998, were partly financed through the system of extra-budgetary environmental funds. These funds were formed from the penalties for pollution above the maximum permissible concentrations as well as the sales of produce and the confiscated fishing equipment of illegal fishermen. Since 1998, this system of environmental funds has been under reformation. And so watershed protecting NGOs lost this source of governmental support. However, some support still can be allocated from agencies’ budgets.

NGOs in Russia have many peculiarities when compared to the U.S. there are very few watershed organizations that are set up independently from other “host” organizations. They are usually formed on the basis of the universities, schools, or Houses of Youth Creativity. NGO activists are often affiliated with the state-funded “host” institution, which also provides in-kind support for the NGO’s operations. Some NGO activists in Russia, especially those of North Western Russia, are receiving grants from Western foundations and governments including those of the Baltic region states. NGO activists are usually not directed towards working on implementation of government policy. While volunteer monitoring programs perhaps have the

same goals as U.S. NGOs, that is to locate and remediate water pollution, they are not working in conjunction with the government or policy process. There are only few efforts in recent years in Russia to create policy networks where local governments would use data collected by NGOs. Such networks are developing but not yet functioning effectively.

At this time the overall level of involvement of the Russian public in environmental protection activities is very low. At the same time, several surveys have demonstrated that citizen awareness of environmental problems is very high. This suggests that the energy, concern and abilities of the citizenry could be mobilized on behalf of the environment if appropriate mechanisms could be identified. Under these circumstances, Russian governments in cooperation with NGOs might be able to play a crucial role in fostering public participation in environmental policy implementation.

Although, Russian and U.S. nonprofit organizations operate under totally different historical/cultural context, we will see in this paper that there are many similarities in their interaction with other actors in the society such as governments and citizens.

## **Hypothesis**

I formulated the same hypothesis for both countries:

1. The way governments interact with nonprofits might affect volunteer use by nonprofits. I suggested that several factors related to NGO-governmental interaction may be essential for successful volunteer use:
  - a) The size of the organization might be a crucial factor for nonprofits working with governments and citizens. Governments would be more likely to sponsor larger organizations, while smaller organizations will be more likely to use volunteers.
  - b) Level of governmental support. Those organizations that have more governmental support might become disconnected from grass roots and not use volunteers in their activities.
  - c) The policy tool that the government is using: grant versus contract, might influence volunteer recruitment. In the contractual relations with the government a nonprofit organization might choose using volunteers to reduce costs of the work which needs to be done. Grants are more flexible compared to contracts, therefore there is less incentive for a nonprofit to minimize costs and use volunteers.
  - d) I suggested that governmental restrictions in using funds might affect using volunteers by nonprofits. The more importance attached by a government policy to volunteer participation, the greater volunteer participation there will be in organizations funded under that policy.
  
2. I suggested that several factors might be important for successful volunteer recruitment and retention.
  - a) Size – small grass root organizations will more likely rely on volunteers than larger groups
  - b) Those organizations which are operating totally on the voluntary basis and do not have any paid staff, might have difficulties in managing their volunteers.
  - c) Organizational capacity, shared mission, vision and goals might be important factors in the organization's ability to recruit and manage volunteers.
  - d) Those organizations which engage themselves in successful partnerships with other organizations might be more successful in volunteer recruitment and management.

## **Methods**

Research was conducted using semi-structured interviews and participant observation. The same methodology was used in both Russia and the U.S. In the U.S., Towson University students<sup>1</sup> and students from Dickinson College<sup>2</sup> helped to collect and analyze data. Each student was responsible for the complete description of one case study. In Russia researchers at the Center for Independent Social Research provided case study descriptions<sup>3</sup> on the basis of which this paper has been written. A total of 64 interviews were conducted in the U.S. and 15 in Russia.

In the U.S., I used a snowballing technique of case selection i.e. using existing contacts to find new organizations that meet the criteria of interest for this study. I decided to conduct my research at the Chesapeake Bay Region because the density of watershed protection groups in this area is very high. I studied 18 groups from two states - Maryland and Pennsylvania. Much research has paid attention only to the paid staff of non-profit organizations (Smith, 1997, 1997a). I have included in my study organizations for watershed protection regardless of size or funding.

I strategically chose some organizations that were successful in using volunteers and others that were unsuccessful. Seven of the non-profit organizations that were studied were large (annual budgets over \$200,000 and more than 10 staff members) and eleven were small (annual budgets under \$130,000 and no more than 3 paid staff members). In Russia, I selected all watershed groups that use volunteers or have an intention to do so. I chose an area with a comparatively high concentration of watershed NGOs – Leningrad and Vologda oblasts. When compared to the U.S. this concentration is low, however, in the Russian context, these oblasts have many initiatives concerning watershed protection. I studied 14 small organizations because large ones do not exist in these regions. Almost all were based in the state educational institutions and received in kind support from them. (see the attached list of organizations)

## **Findings U.S.**

To test my first hypothesis, I analyzed what factors in an NGO's relationship with government affect the NGO's use and retention of volunteers. First, I analyzed what organizations get in partnerships with government in general and what organizations are supported by the government and how they are supported. If they are supported, I analyzed how this relationship affected volunteer use.

### *a) size of the NGO*

My assumption that governments will support only large organizations was proven incorrect. Both large and small organizations can have close cooperation and support with the government and distant (see graph 1). Both large and small organizations might be successful or not in recruiting volunteers and both large and small organizations receive governmental support. Governments use large organizations for redistributing grant funds and providing services to smaller groups. They help small organizations to build their capacity; they provide training in water quality monitoring and restoration; they organize networks and build partnerships. Governments do choose larger groups as vehicles for policy implementation, however, they support the smaller groups financially as well. It was demonstrated that the size of the organization is not a significant factor for determining whether the organization works closely with both governments and citizens.

*b) level of public funding*

To test this hypothesis, I grouped the organizations according to their level of governmental support and volunteer use (see table 1). All organizations that were seen as close to the government are supported by the government, and these funds are a significant portion of their revenue. A few organizations are supported mostly by the government (70% or more of their budget comes from governmental sources). Others are moderately supported by the government, with 30-50% of funding coming from public sources as well as a match in private funding. It was demonstrated that there is a small tendency for organizations mostly funded by the government to use volunteers less, while those that match public and private funding rely more heavily on volunteers. Four cases support this relationship, while two cases conflict with it.

**Table 1: Influence of nonprofits' funding on the use of volunteers**

Public support	Low volunteer use	High volunteer use
Moderate	River Network	SOS, HR
High	CWP, ACB	P&P

I analyzed in what way close involvement with the government affects the interaction of these nonprofits with citizens. c) the policy tool used by the government: grant versus contract or d) the importance attached by the governmental policy to volunteer participation.

*c) policy tool used by the government: grant versus contract*

In the relationship between NGOs and government, when the government provides support in the form of grants, the NGO has more flexibility, as opposed to a contract, which is more specific (Gronbjerg, 1991). Thus I thought the policy tool used by the government would affect volunteer use and retention by the NGO. It was found, however, that there is no correlation between the tool used by the government and a group's reliance on volunteers (see table 2). Some of the organizations working on grants do not have their own volunteers. Others, also grant recipients are more closely involved with citizens and rely on their own volunteers. Some organizations are supported mostly by grants but also have small contracts. Regardless of the tool used, they do not rely on volunteers. Sometimes, organizations that rely on volunteers are supported by different tools. These organizations are involved with their communities and use volunteers. Therefore, the tool of governmental policy does not influence volunteer use.

**Table 2: Influence of the governmental policy tool on volunteer use**

Tool	Volunteers low	Volunteers high
Grants	CWP, ACB, RN	P&P, HR
Contracts	CWP, ACB	SOS

*d) policy requirement to use volunteers.*

For this analysis, I only looked at those organizations that work closely with the government. Among those groups supported by the government, I found that there is a high use of volunteers when the government specifies that these organizations need to organize the community for monitoring and protecting watersheds. In these cases, the government gives support so that the NGO involves and educates volunteers. The government uses other

organizations in other ways. It was demonstrated that this specific objective of the government influences volunteer use by the NGO.

Graph #2, illustrates my findings. Those NGOs in quadrant 1 have requirements to use volunteers and do so while those in quadrant 2 do not have such a requirement and do not heavily use volunteers. Therefore, my analysis shows that for the organizations deeply involved with the government, success in recruiting volunteers/citizen participation depends mainly on the governmental policy. If that policy requires such participation, organizations meet this requirement, and if it does not, then they do not.

To test my second hypothesis, I analyzed what brings success and failure in volunteer recruitment and retention for the organizations. I excluded only those which were close to the government and have no intentions to use volunteers. These were all large organizations that are consciously focusing on working with government and are deeply imbedded in this collaboration (see graph 1, quadrant 3).

I analyzed those organizations that have an intention to use volunteers and found that not all of them achieve this goal. I assessed what factors are important for this level of success: size, existence of paid staff, to what extent the mission and vision are accepted within the organization, and the organizations ability to build successful partnerships.

*a) size*

In the sample of organizations under study, I found both large and small organizations high on volunteer use (see graph #1, quadrant 1 and 2). Other organizations, successfully using volunteers are small and semi-formal. Within my case studies there are small groups that are successful in using volunteers (see graph #1, quadrant 2) and those which are not (see graph #1, quadrant 4). Therefore, size is shown to be not a crucial factor for volunteer use.

*b) paid staff and funding sources*

Out of all 14 cases, eight organizations have paid staff. Therefore, six of the organizations do not have paid staff and operate totally on the voluntary basis (see table 3). I found six organizations operating totally on the voluntary basis, with four successful in volunteer use and retention and two unsuccessful (see Table 3). Therefore, unpaid board members and activists can successfully manage the organization and the existence of paid staff is not a significant factor influencing the use of volunteers. I found that those organizations successful with volunteer use have multiple sources of funding, while those unsuccessful organizations have only one source.

**Table 3: Influence of the existence of employed staff and funding on volunteer use**

Number of staff	Volunteers high	Volunteers low
paid staff	ANSERC, ALARM, SOS, Herring Run, Johns Falls, GVC, P&P	Friends of Patapsco
no paid staff	Chester River, CCWA, RVS, SCCA	Indian Creek, Qwynns Falls

*c) Organizational capacity, involvement in networks, shared mission, vision, and goals*

My interviews and participant observation (attending board meetings) has demonstrated that a shared mission, vision and goals is crucial for volunteer based groups to be successful in working with volunteers (see table 4) [this analysis includes the organizations whose mission and vision involves using volunteers, graph 1, quadrates 1, 2, 4]. For organizations that fail to focus on their priorities or have board members with varying agendas, there will be significant difficulties in retaining and managing volunteers. Those organizations that were not successful in using volunteers were not involved in any networks or partnerships.

**Table 4: Influence of organizations mission and vision on volunteer recruitment and retention**

Shared mission and vision	Volunteers high	Volunteers low
Yes	Academy of Natural Science Estuarine research Center; ALARM; Cumberland TU, RVS, GVC, SCCA, Chester River, Johns Falls, SOS, P&P, Herring Run, CCWA	
No		Gwynns Falls;  Friends of Patapsco, Citizens to Conserve and Restore Indian Creek

*d) Role of partnerships for volunteer recruitment and retention*

My observations show that partnerships that increase an organization's resources also increase its volunteer participation (see table 5). [this analysis includes the organizations interested in using volunteers-graph 1, quadrates 1, 2, 4, organizations of quadrate 3 are excluded because they have significant resources and multiple partnerships but choose not to use volunteers]

**Table 5. Role of partnerships in volunteer recruitment and retention**

Successful Partnerships	Volunteers high	Volunteers low
High	P&P, SOS, Herring Run, CCWA, Academy of Natural Sciences, ALARM; GVC; SCCA; Cumberland TU; RVS; Johns Falls; Chester River	Gwynns Falls
Low		Friends of Patapsco,  Citizens to Conserve and Restore Indian Creek

## Findings Russia

Many of the factors that influence volunteer use by NGOs in the U.S. are not applicable to the analysis of watershed groups in Russia. All organizations under study are small, so I cannot assess the influence of size on volunteer use. We cannot assess the influence of policy tools because governments do not contract NGOs to do volunteer monitoring and only occasionally support them with small grants. Thus we also cannot assess the importance of policy requirements. There is no permanent funding provided by the government so we cannot assess how the level of funding for NGOs influences their volunteer use. I analyzed the influence of: closeness to the government, existence of paid staff, organizational capacity, shared mission, vision and goals, and role of partnerships for volunteer recruitment and retention.

### *a) closeness to the government*

Same as in the U.S. organizations close to the government or more distant can be successful in using and retaining volunteers (see graph #3). Those in quadrant 1 are close to the government and use volunteer successfully, and in quadrant 3 are organizations that are distant from the government but are also successful in using volunteers. It was also shown that not all organizations working closely with the government are successful in volunteer use. Therefore cooperation with the government is not a significant factor for being successful in volunteer use.

### *b) existence of paid staff*

As in the U.S. there are watershed organizations with and without paid staff. It was demonstrated that the existence of paid staff in Russia is not an essential factor for volunteer use (see table 6). The absence of paid staff does not mean that these organizations do not have in-kind support which allows them to support volunteers and use them effectively.

**Table 6: Influence of the existence of employed staff and funding on volunteer use**

Number of staff	Volunteer-use high	Volunteer-use low
paid staff	Suchona Ecological Committee, GEIA,	
no paid staff	Eco-Shield, Neva Clearwater, Friends of Ochta, Vologda Univ. Eco-Council,	Eco-Club Nadezda, Children of the Baltic, Friends of Neva, Friends of Ijora, Save Springs and Streams, Slavianka, Friends of Murinski Stream,

### *c) organizational capacity, shared mission, vision, and goals*

Those organizations in Russia which are not well setup dissolve quickly from the arena. Out of the organizations that we studied, we came across some that dissolved but we are not using them in this analysis because they do not exist anymore. In the U.S., organizations that are not well setup can still exist. Here this is an essential factor. In our sample, those organizations that we refer to are relatively well established. However, some of these organizations engage in networks and some coordinate networks. It was demonstrated that those NGOs coordinating networks and forming umbrella organizations are more successful in using volunteers (see table

#7). All of those leading and coordinating networks are successful, and most of the organizations participating in these networks, and not running them, are less successful, except for one.

**Table 7. Influence of networking on volunteer use**

Networking	Volunteer low	Volunteer High
Network coordinator		Neva Clearwater; Eco-Yield  Suchona Ecological Committee; Friends of Ohta; University Eco Council
Participant	Friends of Murinski Stream  Sheksna Friends; Eco-Club Nadezda; Friends of Neva; Children of Baltic; Friends of Ijora; Save Springs and Streams;	GEIA

*d) role of partnerships for volunteer recruitment and retention*

As mentioned in the context section, NGOs are independent units, but they use the infrastructure and equipment of the institutions in which they are located and in which their activists work. Although NGOs are independent units they still maintain close connections with the institutions in which they are located. The networks in which the NGOs engage themselves depend on their institutional history, norms, expectations and identity. The milieu in which the NGOs are embedded influences the structure of the network in which they engage themselves. NGOs that worked closely with the government under socialism are cooperating with governmental structures more efficiently today. Those which are based in the university maintain NGO-university partnerships. It was shown that an affiliation with a “powerful” host institution, which can be a governmental or non-governmental agency, facilitates NGO volunteer recruitment (see Table 8).

Partnerships are essential, whether with other educational institutions or government. It was demonstrated that in order for Russian NGO to be successful in volunteer recruitment and retention, a partnership with a governmental or non-governmental agency is the most important factor. The in-kind support that partner organizations provide is essential for attracting and rewarding volunteers.

**Table 8. Influence of Partnerships on NGO volunteer use**

Partnerships	Volunteer low	Volunteer High
High		Suchona Ecological Committee; Neva Clearwater; Eco-Shield; University Eco Council; Friends of Ochta
Low	Friends of Murinski Stream Sheksna Friends;  Eco-Club Nadezda; Friends of Neva; Children of Baltic; Friends of Ijora; Save Springs and Streams;	GEIA

**Comparative Analysis**

There are many differences in the operation of U.S. and Russian groups and in the way these groups recruit and manage their volunteers. Civic environmentalism has developed much further in the U.S. than in Russia and volunteer monitoring and restoration is part of a comprehensive governmental policy. In Russia, volunteers are mobilized occasionally for cleanups and restoration campaigns, while in the U.S. volunteers do comprehensive water quality monitoring and are widely supported by the governments. In Russia, all these activities are within educational programs, while in the U.S. some are using volunteers for work in policy implementation, and perhaps to educate them at the same time.

The classical theory sees an organization’s funding as a determining factor in its use of volunteers. It predicts that as funding increases, the need for volunteers will diminish (McCarthy & Zald, 1977; McAdam, McCarthy & Zald, 1996; Staggenborg, 1988). This, however, ignores specific differences in the way that volunteers contribute to different organizations (Ostrander, 1987). My data collected in the U.S. support this criticism. In the cases I studied organizations heavily supported by government use volunteers if this is specified in their grant or contract with the government. The classical model cannot be applied to the countries in economic transition, such as Russia. In my case studies there were no Russian organizations heavily supported by the government.

This paper argues that NGOs in both Russia and the U.S. seek cooperation with the government in order to solve existing problems with the watersheds. In the U.S., governments rely on nonprofits and their volunteers as a resource for policy implementation. In Russia volunteers are rarely used for policy implementation. However, in both countries cooperation between the government and the nonprofits has a clear affect on the way in which the organizations use volunteers. Governmental support for grassroots groups enhances their capability for volunteer retention and management only in cases where these organizations have strong cohesion towards a goal.

With small organizations in both Russia and the U.S., the desire to use volunteers does not ensure success. The smaller NGO's all wish to use volunteers and work with citizens, however some are successful and others are not. The determining factor in this is not the presence of a paid staff, for many semi-formal organizations without funding can be quite successful. Although completely composed of volunteers in both Russia and the U.S., these operations can be efficient and successful if organizations are involved in partnerships.

In both Russia and the U.S. volunteer use is heavily influenced by the partnerships that an organization is engaged in, whether it be with a government or with another, larger organization (for example, the university). This cooperation brings more resources, which, according to virtually all of the data obtained in both countries, brings the efficient use of more volunteers. For those organizations with goals involving volunteers, partnerships greatly help with success.

As we can see, there are structural differences between NGOs in the two countries. Those in the U.S. are independent while those in Russia are affiliated with a host institution. The organizations were impossible to compare in such areas as policy tools. However, if we compare small organizations, we see many similarities on the level of grass roots. Comparative analysis can help to develop successful volunteer retention for watershed protection, but also help the development of NGOs' involvement with the public policy process in Russia.

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## **Endnotes**

<sup>1</sup> Case studies conducted by Towson University students:

Charissa Raivel: Parks and People Foundation

Tiffani Marks: River Network

Jenifer Schlager: The Academy of Natural Science Estuarine Research Center

Stephanie Bishop: Alliance for the Chesapeake Bay

Lakeesha Early: Center for Watershed Protection

Carry Web: Herring Run Watershed Association.

Joe Shehade: Gwynns Falls Watershed Association

Sarah Musleh: Chester River Watershed Association

Diana Krepka: Friends of Patapsco Valley & Heritage Greenway

Jody Lewis: Citizens to Conserve and Restore Indian Creek

Sarah Jones: The Gunpowder Valley Conservancy

<sup>2</sup> Case studies conducted by Dickinson College students:

Courtney Giknis: Alliance for Aquatic Resource Monitoring (ALLARM)

Vallie Lewis: Conodoguinet Valley Trout Unlimited

Patrick Read: Ridge and Valley Stream Keepers

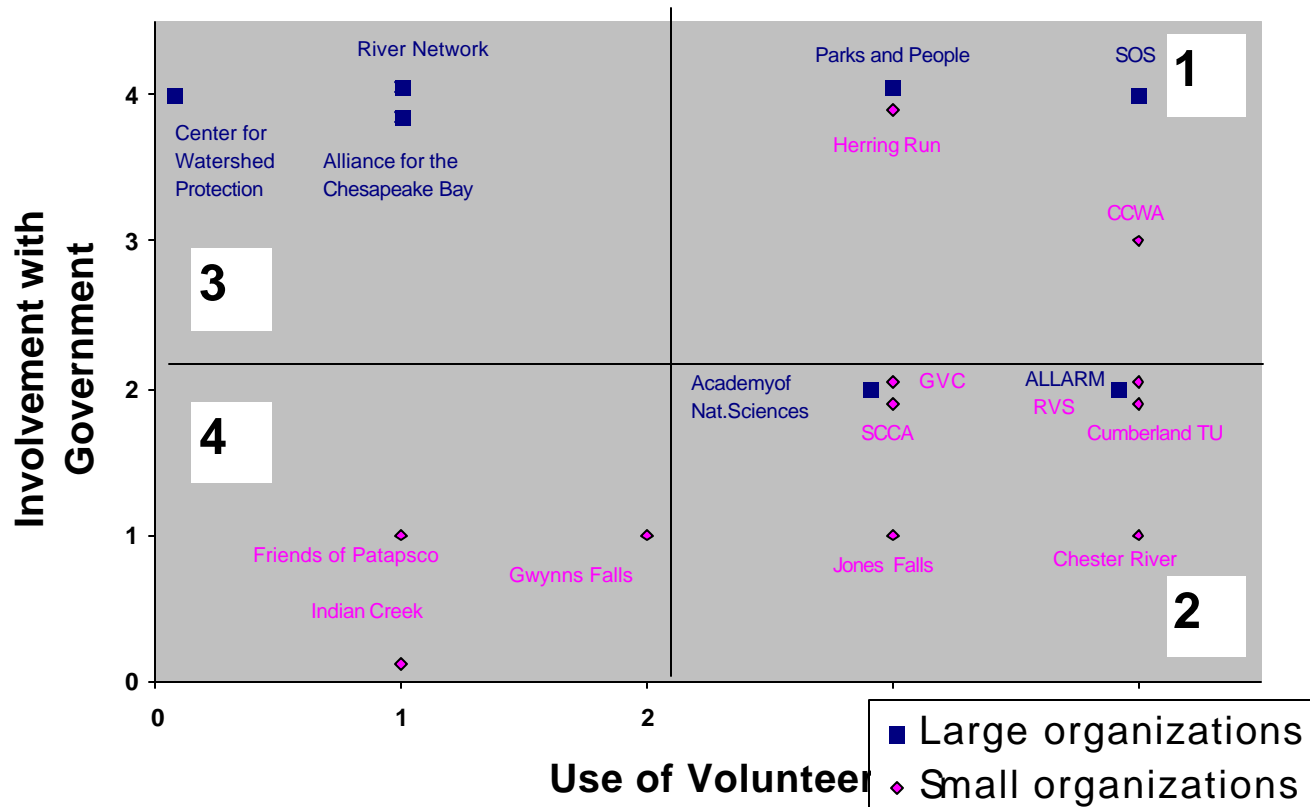
Rick Bateman: Sherman Creek Watershed Association

Kara Sergeant: Conodoguinet Creek Watershed Association

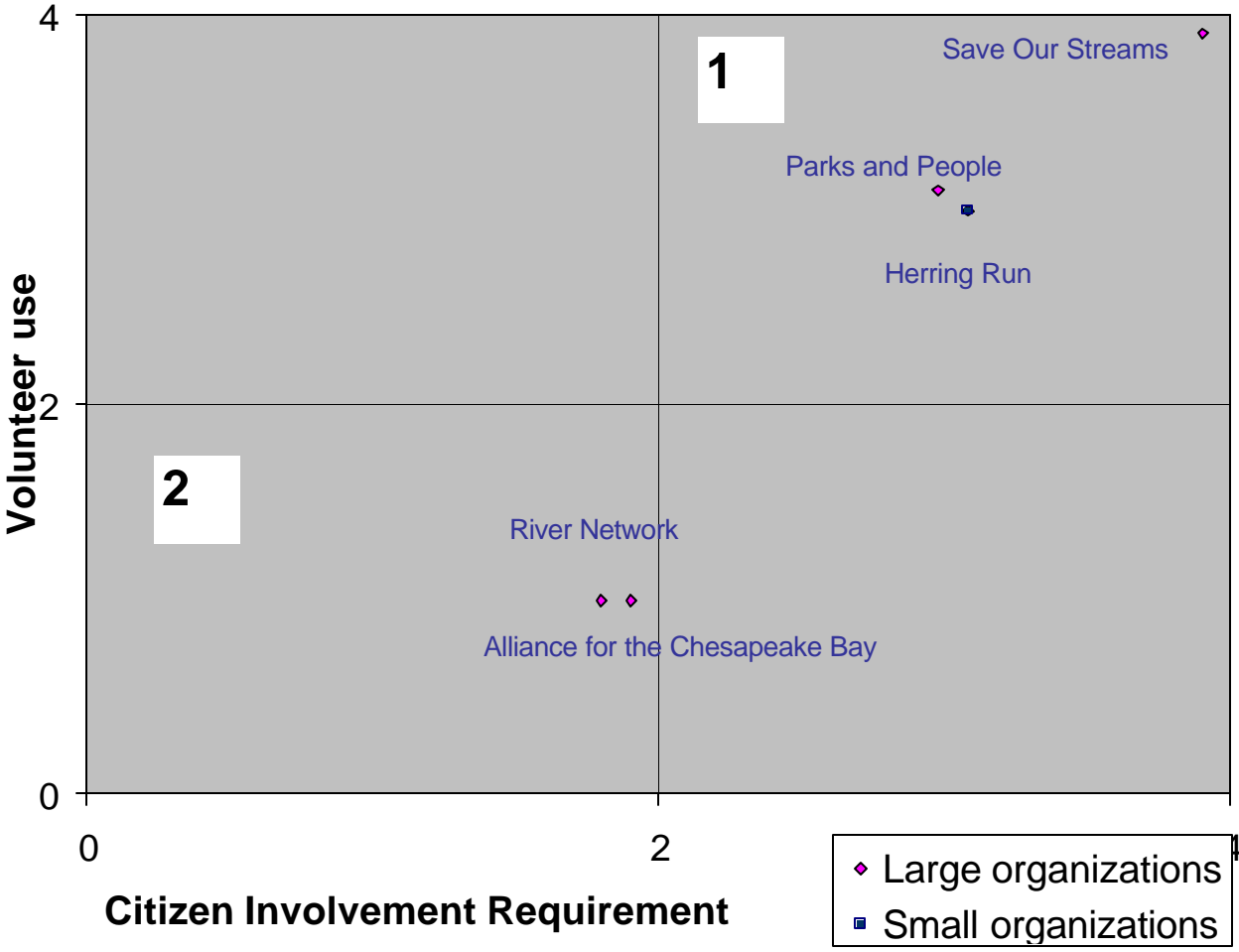
<sup>3</sup> Case studies conducted by researchers of the Center for Independent Social Research ( Ivan Kouliasov, Antonina Kouliasova): Neva Clearwater, Eco- Yield, Eco Club Nadezhda, Friends of Murinski Stream, Friends of Slavianka, GEIA, Friends of Ijora, Children of Baltic, Friends of the Neva, Friends of the Ohta, Suchona Ecological Committee, Vologda Pedagogical University Eco-Council, Save our Springs and Streams, Friends of Sheksna River (All Russia Society for Nature Protection)

Graphs

**Graph 1. Involvement of Watershed Organizations with Government and Citizens in the Chesapeake Bay Region**



**Graph 2. Influence of government funding restrictions on volunteer use**



**Graph 3. Involvement of Watershed Organizations with Government and Citizens in the St. Petersburg and Vologda Regions (Neva River and Suchona River Watersheds)**

