

1 **Standardization vs. Situatedness: A Grey Literature Meta-Synthesis of How Guidance for Alaska's**
2 **Water Infrastructure Management Varies by Government Level**

4 Nicola Ritsch, MSc., S.M.ASCE,¹ Michaela LaPatin, MSc., P.E., S.M.ASCE,² Lauryn Spearing, Ph.D.,
5 A.M.ASCE,³ Daniel Erian Armanios, Ph.D., A.M.ASCE,⁴ Leif Albertson, MSc.,⁵ Lynn E. Katz, Ph.D.,⁶ Kasey
6 M. Faust, Ph.D., A.M.ASCE⁷

7 ¹PhD Candidate, Department of Engineering and Public Policy, Carnegie Mellon University, 5000 Forbes
8 St., Pittsburgh PA 15224, USA; email: nrtsch@andrew.cmu.edu.

9 ²PhD Candidate, Department of Civil, Architectural and Environmental Engineering, The University of
10 Texas at Austin, 301 E. Dean Keeton St., Austin, TX 78712, US; email: mlapatin@utexas.edu.

11 ³Assistant Professor, Department of Civil, Materials, and Environmental Engineering Department, The
12 University of Illinois Chicago, 842 West Taylor St., Chicago, IL 60607, USA; email: spearing@uic.edu.

13 ⁴Professor, Saïd Business School, University of Oxford, Park End Street, Oxford, OX1 1HP, UK; email:
14 daniel.armanios@sbs.ox.ac.uk.

15 ⁵Cooperative Extension Service, University of Alaska Fairbanks, P.O. box 904, Bethel, Alaska 99559, USA;
16 email: lealbertson@alaska.edu.

17 ⁶Professor, Department of Civil, Architectural and Environmental Engineering, The University of Texas at
18 Austin, 301 E. Dean Keeton St., Austin, TX 78712, USA; email: katzl@utexas.edu.

19 ⁷Associate Professor, Department of Civil, Architectural and Environmental Engineering, The University
20 of Texas at Austin, 301 E. Dean Keeton St., Austin, TX 78712, USA (corresponding author;
21 faustk@utexas.edu).

22 **ABSTRACT:**

23 The success of water system operation, maintenance, and management (OMM) critically depends on
24 the local workforce. Extreme environmental conditions, limited financial resources, challenging supply
25 chains and increased technological requirements especially challenge the workforce to deliver equitably
26 and reliably such OMM services in Alaska. To better understand these challenges, this paper presents a
27 meta-synthesis of the grey literature regarding water system management in Alaska, with a particular
28 focus on workforce development and OMM regulation. This synthesis was conducted based upon
29 qualitatively coding 49 documents that were representative of the full corpus of 183 documents
30 identified on this topic. While prior work tends to focus on a single regulatory level (national or state),
31 this meta-synthesis reveals important differences that occur between regulatory levels of government.
32 More specifically, we find federal and state government focus more on standardization (“one size fits
33 all”), while regional and local government focus more on situatedness (“tailoring for every
34 circumstance”). This may have equity implications for water utilities in Alaska and other Arctic regions
35 where national and state standards drastically differ and overlook local needs. We find that this theme
36 of standardization versus situatedness may generalize to other state water systems, especially those
37 with similar conditions as Alaska (such as Wyoming and Montana), as well as in other sectors in Alaska
38 beyond water (such as environmental management, nursing, and aviation). Given the multi-level
39 governance of water system OMM, these findings suggest that training materials and programs,
40 certification processes, financial support, and policy decisions could be more effective if they consider
41 more the local context in which these water systems are situated, especially when local conditions
42 markedly differ from national norms. Such an approach may help better ensure more reliable and
43 equitable access to safe drinking water in extreme settings such as those in Alaska and in the Arctic,
44 more generally.

45 **1. INTRODUCTION**

46 Operating, maintaining, and managing (OMM) water collection, treatment, and distribution systems
47 is a challenging issue globally and is a perennial issue in some areas of the United States. Recent work has
48 found that within the U.S., there are nearly 500,000 households which still lack complete plumbing; more
49 than 1,000 community water systems that are in “serious” violation of the Safe Drinking Water Act; and
50 more than 21,000 Clean Water Act permittees that are in Significant Noncompliance (Mueller and
51 Gasteyer 2021). These service gaps predominantly impact low-income, minority and housing-insecure
52 communities (Deitz and Meehan 2019; Meehan et al. 2020; Mueller and Gasteyer 2021; Wescoat et al.
53 2007). These burdens are especially heavy for indigenous communities in the United States with Alaska
54 Native and American Indian people representing the largest percentage of households with demonstrated
55 lack of access (Gasteyer et al. 2016). Alaska Native households are 3.7 times more likely to not have
56 complete plumbing over other households in the United States (Deitz and Meehan 2019).

57 Acute workforce challenges, especially in rural areas, contribute to these inequitable water service
58 gaps and bring into question the ability to balance national regulations with the needs of local context.
59 The State of the Water Industry Report from 2023 highlights that “talent attraction and retention” is the
60 12th most critical concern in the water sector (AWWA 2023). This issue is further intensified by the COVID-
61 19 Great Resignation during which a national skills shortage has left most public utilities understaffed and
62 ill-equipped to recover fully from the pandemic (Ferguson 2023). These challenges of gaps in workforce
63 skill sets (Grigg 2006), are only further exacerbated for small utilities in rural areas. Rural utilities face
64 heightened challenges with young people leaving rural areas in pursuit of better opportunities in urban
65 areas (Kot et al. 2011). Rural utilities are also challenged by limited staff sizes, which make responding to
66 emergencies ever more difficult. Furthermore, the expectations for workers employed at small and rural

67 utilities often reaches beyond the standard expectations for such a position in urban areas (DeNileon and
68 Stubbart 2005).

69 In the Arctic, an extreme case of rural and remote contexts, these workforce challenges are especially
70 acute. While there are several root causes for this gap in water services including aging infrastructure,
71 arctic conditions, and spatial remoteness, issues pertaining to workforce are an especially salient concern
72 for water service provision (Spearing et al. 2022b). According to data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics
73 as of March 2023, Alaska had the highest rate of job openings per total nonfarm jobs of any state (US
74 Bureau of Labor Statistics 2023). In Anchorage, the largest city in Alaska, the lack of available labor force
75 and the declining population for six years running are blamed for constraining the economic recovery
76 following the COVID-19 pandemic (Anchorage Economic Development Corporation 2023). Confounding
77 the more general workforce shortage in Alaska is a gap in certified operators available to manage water
78 systems and a perennially difficult set of environmental challenges (Spearing et al. 2022b). These factors
79 put Alaska communities at high-risk in terms of having reliable access to safe drinking water. Rural
80 communities in Alaska arguably face a greater hurdle than most other similar rural utilities due to a
81 comparably high worker shortage and overall a lower percentage of labor force participation than past
82 historic trends in the state, with aforementioned job openings hitting record highs in 2023 (Alaska
83 Department of Labor and Workforce Development 2023).

84 Current estimates find that there are over 30 unserved communities, where 45% or more homes are
85 not served by in-home systems (AK DEC 2022), and the current water infrastructure grade assigned to the
86 water infrastructure in Alaska is a D (ASCE 2021). Water service provision is of acute interest in our area
87 of study - the Yukon–Kuskokwim (YK) Delta region of Alaska. As of 2018, only 56% of households in the
88 region had access to piped water (Fuente et al. 2022), and such household plumbing access is decreasing
89 over time (Brown et al. 2022). The rest of the population relies on a form of hauled water service, where

90 water is moved in trucks or by ATV to the household, or traditional collection practices such as packing
91 ice or collecting rainwater.

92 Addressing these systemic gaps in water service throughout Alaska, but specifically within the YK
93 Delta, requires a concentrated effort from multiple levels of regulatory government, some of which have
94 been underway for many years and some of which have just started. Historic levels of investment are
95 being made at the federal and state level. In conjunction with the Bipartisan Infrastructure Law, \$65
96 million has been allocated to Alaska's two State Revolving Fund programs, and the Environmental
97 Protection Agency (EPA) has committed \$20 million USD to support the state of Alaska's proposed plan
98 for key drinking water projects (Corcoran 2022). \$3.5 billion is being made available for the Indian Health
99 Services sanitation facilities (Edgmon 2022), and an additional \$2.76 billion is being made available for
100 investment in water and wastewater infrastructure through the EPA's State Water Revolving Funds
101 program (Lisa Murkowski Press Release 2022). At the regional and local level, such investments focused
102 on improving water infrastructure has been underway for a long time. Historic investments of \$300 million
103 from the state for sanitation projects supported by Village Safe Water (VSW) Program between 1972 and
104 1994, and \$537 million of combined federal funds and \$240 million from the State of Alaska given to VSW
105 by 2005 (Marino et al. 2009) have sought to support and strengthen water infrastructure over time.

106 To better understand this multi-level trend, our study undertakes a meta-synthesis of gray literature
107 documentation to understand how different governmental levels, ranging from federal to local agencies,
108 respond to water workforce challenges in Alaska. We focus on government agencies as they are the
109 authoritative body for which workforce training and credentialing takes place in the water sector. This
110 study takes a novel approach by unpacking each level of government separately and comparing their foci.
111 We will explain the Alaska context that led us to depart from the convention of measuring government
112 monolithically (or as a single level taking precedence), and what our analysis reveals in terms of the ways

113 different levels of government manage training and certification for water system OMM. We then assess
114 the generalizability of our findings. While our analysis is conducted for the case of water systems in Alaska,
115 we show that our key propositions may be applicable for other non-water sectors within Alaska and for
116 the water system management in other states with similar rural population and climate profiles. Finally,
117 we consider what can be done to better traverse these differing approaches to uphold the role of
118 standardization as is prevailing in the regulation that governs Alaska water system OMM, but in a way
119 that recognizes how to achieve these standards will differ across local settings, especially extreme ones.

120 **2. POINT OF DEPARTURE**

121 The key point of departure is that prior work predominantly focuses on the credentialing processes
122 for water operators managing “standard” systems (i.e., water systems working within conventional
123 operational ranges). However, U.S. rural water systems markedly differ from those used in more urban
124 areas. We choose to focus our analysis on the context of Alaska specifically, but we show that this trend
125 is also valid for other states with high prevalence of rural utilities. Key contextual differences for the
126 case of Alaska include but are not limited to the size of population centers served (Eschenbach et al.
127 1989), extreme environmental conditions experienced (Birchall and Bonnett 2020), funding resources
128 available (Taylor et al. 2020), populations lacking plumbed service (Mueller and Gasteyer 2021),
129 challenges surrounding supply chain (George 2022), and maintenance approaches in light of climate
130 change based challenges (Melvin et al. 2017). These differences between systems used in Alaska
131 compared to most of the contiguous U.S. mean that rural utilities and operators in Alaska face a
132 significantly different set of hurdles than operators in many other states. Therefore unsurprisingly,
133 Alaska has a “dismally low rate of passing the exams”, at least partially due to operators facing
134 challenges not found in the contiguous United States (Alaska Native Tribal Health Consortium 2022a).
135 This raises the question: is the national certification process aligned or appropriate for the Alaska

136 context and other similar rural contexts which have drastically different conditions than is typically
137 certified? Ultimately, this is a critical question to ask because in order to obtain federal funding to
138 support the operation of water treatment systems, the system must have a certified operator. However,
139 because Alaska uses the same national certification process that is based on contiguous U.S. systems,
140 operators in Alaska are inherently disadvantaged as they must obtain a certification that is often
141 misaligned to the operational needs of their water systems to acquire the full set of federal funding.

142 In order to assess how materials vary between national credentialling and training tailored to the
143 specific requirements of Alaska water systems, this paper asks: what is the primary areas of focus for
144 each level of government when training operators for water OMM and to what extent is such material
145 presented in contextually relevant ways? In order to explore these ideas, the paper seeks to: 1)
146 characterize what grey literature is currently available on the certification and training process for water
147 system OMM within the context of Alaska's water utilities, 2) how the local social context is considered
148 in these materials, 3) and then assess how these findings are valid across different contexts (varying by
149 sector and geography).

150 We focus on analyzing the available grey literature, which we define as materials written and
151 published by stakeholder organizations that are outside of the traditional academic publishing channels
152 (i.e., journal or book publications and working papers). The reason for not including the academic
153 literature in this analysis is two-fold. First, while such literature presents cutting edge insights, it does
154 not often focus explicitly on the direct requirements for how to manage water distribution systems in
155 ways that the grey literature is designed to do (Adams et al. 2017). Secondly, in emphasizing the grey
156 literature, this also allows us to more evenly assess and include non-traditional sets of materials focused
157 on indigenous knowledge and teaching, which are largely absent in the academic literature. Therefore
158 given our focus on implementation rather than analysis of practices and the desire to more holistically

159 incorporate diverse perspectives, including indigenous ones, we made the choice to focus on the gray
160 literature as our core corpus for synthesis.

161 **3. LITERATURE AND EMPIRICAL CONTEXT**

162 **3.1. The Role of Certifying Water Operators in the US**

163 The Safe Drinking Water Act (SDWA), established in 1974, enabled the Environmental Protection
164 Agency (EPA) to set enforceable standards for drinking water quality. By establishing these standards, it
165 provides avenues for oversight to ensure states, local authorities, and water suppliers meet those
166 standards. To achieve the benchmark quality goals, several funding mechanisms were also developed.
167 Section 1452 of the SDWA establishes a Drinking Water State Revolving Loan Fund (DWSRF), which is used
168 to make low interest loans and provide other forms of financial support, such as grants, to eligible water
169 systems (EPA 2013). As a further sub-set of that legislation, the Drinking Water Infrastructure Grant Tribal
170 Set-Aside (DWIG-TSA) program allocates funds specifically intended for building infrastructure which
171 addresses the most pressing public health needs of tribes and Alaska Native Villages (EPA 2013). However,
172 in order to be eligible for this funding, Section 1419(b) outlines that each state must have adopted and be
173 implementing a training program which “meets the requirements of EPA’s Guidelines for the Certification
174 (and Recertification) of Operators of Community and Nontransient Noncommunity Public Water Systems
175 (64 Fed. Reg. 5915)” (EPA 2016). The requirements for what this looks like differs by state and depends
176 on whether the funding is being received by a Tribal group. In general, expectations include having a
177 certified operator “at the appropriate level to operate the public water system”, some form of
178 enforcement approach, a plan for certification renewal, and a budgeting system (EPA 2013, 2016). If the
179 state does not have these components in place, the EPA is within its legal rights to withhold up to 20% of
180 the funding a state would otherwise have access to under the DWSRF program (EPA 2016). While this
181 study primarily focuses on the water sector specifically, there is a rich set of literature which explores the
182 benefits and drawbacks of certification programs across relevant fields including healthcare (Gebbie and

183 Turnock 2006; Lichtveld and Cioffi 2003); engineering (Kelly 2007; Tripp 2002); and education (Hansen
184 2011; Randall and Zirkle 2005), to name a few.

185 **3.2. The Empirical Context of Alaska**

186 Of the 185 rural communities in Alaska, there are 31 unserved communities where less than 55%
187 of homes are served by a water or sewer utility, leaving community members reliant on central washing
188 points and honey buckets. Of these 31 underserved communities, up to 17 of the communities run a fee-
189 based utility which uses closed-haul water and sewer systems (Hickel et al. 2018; Rosen et al. 2023). In
190 the remaining 143 rural communities, the infrastructure in place is rapidly deteriorating due to
191 environmental degradation and aging. Considering these challenges, much of rural Alaska could be strong
192 beneficiaries of the DWIG-TSA and have already been identified as recipients of the newly available
193 Infrastructure Investment and Jobs Act funding. However, while investing in the capital infrastructure
194 investment is the first critical step needed to connect these underserved communities, one of the key
195 concerns now is how to make the investments sustainable into the future (Rosen 2023). One such
196 challenge is identifying and retaining trained operators who can fulfill the certification requirements
197 needed to secure the full set of funding (Alaska Native Tribal Health Consortium 2022a; Black and McBean
198 2017; Murphy et al. 2015; Neegan Burnside Ltd 2011).

199 **3.3. The Skills and Workforce Gap in Alaska**

200 Challenges for rural and remote communities in the Alaska context span a range of issues from
201 access to educational resources to autonomy over project operations. Educationally, there are social and
202 financial barriers for sending operators from remote villages to urban centers for training and inadequate
203 access to the educational components required for certification (Alaska Native Tribal Health Consortium
204 2022a). These include the relatively high cost of flying an operator-in-training into a larger city to complete
205 the training and the compounded impact of having to take time off of work to do so. This is made further

206 challenging by the differences in educational approaches which are used in rural communities which place
207 higher emphasis on traditional methods of knowledge sharing (Barnhardt 2007). Financially, lack of
208 adequate institutional support and funding for water system OMM harms long-term operation (Murphy
209 et al. 2015), and insufficient budgets make retaining qualified operators difficult (Neegan Burnside Ltd
210 2011). Further, a lack of community engagement and ownership over the design and maintenance of a
211 community's own system makes system management challenging (Black and McBean 2017).

212 While specific investigation into such questions is limited, Black and McBean (2017) conducted a series
213 of semi-structured interviews with 23 operators and community members including First Nations
214 communities in Ontario, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia. The study found that the topmost
215 issue for ensuring quality water systems is the provision of consistent financial support. They found that
216 48% of the respondents felt they had received adequate training to ensure safe provision of drinking
217 water, while 91% felt confident in the day-to-day operation of the community treatment plant. However,
218 61% of the respondents felt that certification should be mandatory, while only 26% approved of an opt-
219 in approach for certification. Sixty-one percent (61%) had concerns about the level of education being a
220 barrier for community members to obtain certification credentials, and only 35% trusted an operator who
221 was not certified but had been working in the plant for a long time. In addition to financial hardship, Black
222 and McBean (2017) found that the topics of "liability" and "high-pressure" were recurring concerns
223 associated with the certification process. Black and McBean (2017) outline the importance of involving
224 Indigenous peoples in a "collaborative, nation-to-nation" approach when designing training and
225 certification programs that impact Indigenous peoples. While this study addresses many key aspects of
226 the certification process for water system management in the Arctic, their study does not explore how
227 well suited the certifications are for the communities using them.

228 **3.4. Assessing the Gap**

229 What these existing studies reveal but do not explicitly investigate is the differing foci around water
230 system OMM in Indigenous communities, depending on regulatory boundaries and how this appears in
231 the documentation geared towards operators and end-users of the systems themselves. At the federal
232 and state level, while there are set-aside funding sources for specific communities, the focus is still on a
233 standard set of operator guidelines that determine funding eligibility to ensure equivalent water
234 standards across the U.S. However, at the regional and local level, the focus seemingly shifts to more
235 local needs of systems and users, and, therefore, the operators who need to manage these context-
236 specific aspects of the systems. A more systematic analysis of how these different foci across
237 government levels interact and may ultimately impact operator certification must be understood,
238 especially given the federalist system that oversees water system OMM in the U.S.

239 **4. METHODS**

240
241 **4.1. Using a Meta-Synthesis Approach**

242 To systematically analyze our archival data, we conduct a meta-synthesis of the grey literature
243 pertaining to water system OMM in Alaska to characterize the available materials and their content. Using
244 a meta-synthesis approach (Noblit and Hare 1988), paired with a qualitative coding scheme (Saldaña 2013;
245 Spearing et al. 2022a), we characterize the existing grey literature pertaining to water operator training
246 in Alaska and the emerging technical and social themes highlighted in each grey literature document. In
247 order to assess the technical rigor of the grey literature, we use the American Board of Certification “Need
248 to Know” criteria (American Board of Certification 2019) as a starting point for our coding framework in
249 terms of the required technical knowledge for credentialing. We then iterate our coding approach to
250 understand how these credentialing requirements are contextualized within the social setting of Alaska.
251 We use the results from the qualitative coding to explore how the materials presented by each
252 governmental level vary in the content and type of information delivered on operator training in Alaska.

253 Meta-syntheses are a subset of qualitative research which focuses on conducting a systemic review
254 of qualitative literature (Lachal et al. 2017), whereby the objective is not to test a prior theory but rather
255 to assess past qualitative work in order to build new theory (Rutgers University Library 2023). This is in
256 contrast to a similar, but different, method called meta-analysis which focuses on a quantitative synthesis
257 of existing literature with the objective of assessing the consensus of findings in the prior literature
258 (Haidich 2010). While meta-synthesis approaches have been historically used to assess literature in health
259 fields (France et al. 2019), such as those applied to a variety of different medical-related studies (Delicate
260 et al. 2018; Lashewicz et al. 2019; Sáinz-Ruiz et al. 2021; Thomas and Harden 2008; Zhu et al. 2019), they
261 have also been applied in the fields of education (Douglas et al. 2022; Gordon et al. 2022) and psychology
262 (Button et al. 2017). Closer to our context, this method has been applied to infrastructure projects such
263 as assessing the social impacts of dams (Kirchherr et al. 2016), the efficacy of development projects (Suich
264 2010), and, to assess the sustainability of rural water systems (Armanios 2012). We selected meta-
265 synthesis as our methodological approach due to the limited prior work available, and therefore the need
266 to build theory around how multiple government levels coordinate (or not) around water system OMM.
267 To that end, based on our investigation, this is the first systematic review of operator training and
268 certification grey literature with a specific focus on how the technical and social aspects of the work are
269 geared towards the audience and context of Alaska. By characterizing what literature exists in this space
270 and how the pieces interact with both social and technical considerations, we can gain insight into how
271 current water OMM approaches adequately address (or not) the Alaska context.

272 We have chosen to focus on grey literature for this analysis as this set of documentation
273 predominantly focuses on actionable procedures and guidelines for the OMM of water infrastructure
274 systems and is directly geared towards use by operators and end-users. Throughout our exploration of
275 the academic literature in this space, we saw more focus placed on cutting-edge methods for OMM and
276 analysis around gaps in the space, but we could not find any studies based in the materials aimed towards

277 operator and end-user requirements specifically, which was the key motivation for this study. Several
278 studies have recently highlighted the value in analyzing grey literature and have specifically encouraged
279 their consideration. These studies highlight that including grey literature helps bridge the divide between
280 academic and public discourse (Benzies et al. 2006; Rothstein and Hopewell 2009), allows for direct focus
281 on the materials predominantly used by non-academic stakeholders of interest (Adams et al. 2016; Albino
282 et al. 2011), and considers the knowledge of practitioners who are not necessarily in the academic space
283 but are directly involved with system management (Brammer et al. 2011). Past studies have used grey
284 literature to assess trends and concepts that might not yet be present in the academic space but are
285 relevant in the operational context (Adams et al. 2016; Kaval 2011; Peloza and Yachnin 2008). Some
286 research institutes, such as The Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions and the
287 Institute of Medicine Standards for Systematic Review explicitly call out the need to consider grey
288 literature (Eden et al. 2011; Higgins and Green 2011). The grey literature offers key insights into how
289 different levels of government are communicating expectations and guidance to operators and end-users
290 on the management of potable water systems and by studying the grey literature specifically, we can
291 better assess the key themes and trends in those communications, which can inform advancements in the
292 academic discourse.

293 **4.2. Creating the Corpus**

294 While there is no “gold standard” for how to collect and consider grey literature within the academic
295 space (Godin et al. 2015), there have been a series of proposed best practices for doing so. We follow the
296 set proposed by Godin et al. which highlights the following four steps of collection: (1) grey literature
297 databases, (2) customized Google search engines, (3) targeted websites, and (4) consultation with content
298 experts (Godin et al. 2015, Methods section). As highlighted by the authors, the combination of these four
299 key approaches are used to reduce the risk of omitting key documents from the literature search and
300 serve to comprehensively cover the space.

301 Our first step to conducting the meta-synthesis was the creation of the literature corpus. We
302 generated our initial corpus of grey literature articles pertaining to OMM of water systems in Alaska via a
303 three-step-process. First, the initial dataset of grey literature was collected using a snowball method.
304 There is a debate surrounding the sampling methods used when conducting a meta-synthesis between
305 exhaustive sampling and expansive sampling (Finfgeld-Connett and Johnson 2013). For this work, we
306 prioritized an expansive sampling procedure to ensure we were capturing the diverse perspectives of a
307 large range of stakeholders across all mediums of written communication. By design, our sampling
308 approach is based on finding relative differences between governmental levels rather than capturing
309 exact counts of all grey literature documents in this space. For these reasons, we err on the side of
310 expansive sampling that better captures breadth rather than exhaustive sampling that better captures
311 depth. Documentation collection started by using Google's search engine to search for the following
312 keywords: water, operations, maintenance, management, training, certification, Alaska, YK Delta. No
313 limits were set around publication dates and searches were not restricted to any particular discipline. The
314 database search was conducted between February and May of 2022. Prior studies note such a keyword-
315 based search is more conducive to the collection of grey literature, as opposed to academic literature
316 (Atkins et al. 2008). Following this keyword search on Google, we tabulated all the stakeholders relevant
317 to the OMM space in Alaska that appeared in the results. The final list appears in Table 1.

318 Using this set of identified stakeholders, we then snowball searched through their websites and
319 other online presence to find any additional materials relevant to OMM in Alaska. We added this
320 stakeholder-based search because we found the keyword search alone did not adequately capture all
321 materials actually available on each stakeholder's website. Once the initial set of resources were collected,
322 the third and final step was to share the grey literature corpus with the research team's Project Advisory
323 Board, comprised of seven local subject matter experts spanning state, regional and local agencies
324 involved in the provision of water. They assessed the completeness of the list and recommended further

325 stakeholders and documents. This included additional documents that the Advisory Board provided that
326 were not available openly to the general public such as training materials only provided in private classes.
327 This step ensured our final corpus was not modality-biased (i.e., only online materials). In addition to
328 checking the grey literature that was included in the corpus for consideration, we also presented the key
329 results from our rounds of qualitative coding to the advisory board in order to validate our findings and
330 iterated on their feedback in subsequent rounds of data analysis.

331 The final corpus consisted of 183 documents. These documents ranged from training manuals
332 published by the American Boards of Certification (ABC) to in-home water system treatment guidance
333 published by the Alaska Department of Environmental Conservation (AK DEC) to information pamphlets
334 on the health implications of poor water quality published by the Yukon-Kuskokwim Health Corporation
335 (YKHC). To conduct the qualitative content analysis, we then selected a sub-set of the corpus to analyze,
336 as is the standard practice in this space (Delicate et al. 2018; France et al. 2019). As per our expansive
337 sampling aims, we wanted to ensure our subsample reflected the breadth of organizations involved in
338 OMM in Alaska and not heavily weighted towards stakeholders with more presence in our full corpus. To
339 do this, we did the following: (i) we included in our subsample all the documents from any organization
340 with less than 5 documents in our full corpus; (ii) included at least 5 documents from any organizations
341 with less than 25 documents in our full corpus, and (iii) included 20% of all the documents from any
342 organization with more than 25 documents in our full corpus. Two authors screened and added a
343 document in the subsample based on the following inclusion criteria:

344

- *Focus*: direct relevance to the OMM field, training and certification, or rural arctic conditions
345 when relevant
- *Duplication*: avoidance of any duplicate or highly similar documentation (such as multiple
347 chapters of any given training material)

- *Spread*: ensuring the documents were as close to representative of the materials provided from each stakeholder

350 From this selection process, a total of forty-nine documents were qualitatively coded. Of the selected
351 documents, there were 24 documents from federal agencies (e.g. ABC, AWWA and EPA), 18 documents
352 from state agencies (AK DEC and AFE), 5 documents from regional agencies (e.g. YRITWC) and 2 from
353 local agencies (e.g. ONC and Bethel City Council). Figure 1 depicts a PRISMA diagram which summarizes
354 the selection of each set of documents. Appendix A displays the final set of documents included in the
355 analysis. All documents included in the first assessment were obtained from publicly available resources
356 or were provided by the Project Advisory Board.

4.3. Qualitative Coding Scheme

358 For this study, we used a hybrid process of inductive and deductive thematic analysis (Fereday and
359 Muir-Cochrane 2006). For the technical components, we used a deductive coding structure as these are
360 well defined and often mandatory requirements for water system OMM in the U.S. In particular, these
361 technical considerations included assessing what stage of the water distribution process the document
362 focuses on followed by an assessment of how the “Need to Know” criteria established by the American
363 Board of Certification was presented in the material (American Board of Certification 2019). For the social
364 components, we used an inductive coding structure as there is no definitive consensus in the prior
365 literature as to what social factors ought to be of focus for water system OMM. Thus, we allowed these
366 themes to emerge from several coding iterations. These social considerations included aspects of system
367 operations and management, relevance of the document towards the established audience of the piece,
368 and other aspects related to taking the certification tests. These social considerations were discussed
369 between the coding researchers and finalized as the codes hit saturation, or the point at which the no
370 substantive additional information is being found when compared to those documents coded previously
371 (Saunders et al. 2018). The coding scheme was reviewed by two members of the research team and

372 achieved a kappa intercoder reliability score of 0.81 across a subset of codes checked, which is typically
373 viewed as having substantial agreement for qualitative work (McHugh 2012). Table 2 provides the primary
374 codes and definitions established through this coding process while Appendix B displays the full coding
375 dictionary.

376 As a reminder in alignment with our choice to engage in more expansive than exhaustive
377 sampling, codes were assessed as presence within a document, rather than other used metrics such as
378 frequency. For all metrics presented in the paper, we show a numerical value for the presence of a code
379 in a document. In contrast to using a frequency metric which shows how often a theme appears in any
380 given document, we were interested in exploring if the given technical and/or social themes were
381 mentioned at all in the document. Given the scope and context of the research question we asked, we
382 were seeking to understand how governmental levels differed on the content the presented, rather
383 than the weighting they gave to the content they presented.

384 **4.4. METHODOLOGICAL LIMITATIONS**

385 While we believe we have taken the best approach for this analysis, we recognize these choices come
386 with limitations. Grey literature in general, and particularly within this space, is hard to systematically find
387 (Adams et al. 2016). However, Noblit and Hare note that the search does not have to be exhaustive, but
388 rather the best approach is the one that best captures the diversity of perspectives and views within the
389 space (Noblit and Hare 1988). This is why we chose an expansive rather than exhausting sampling process,
390 and even then, our sample size is larger than most other papers using this approach. The average corpus
391 of other papers in this space ranges from 12 (Delicate et al. 2018) to 57 (France et al. 2019).

392 This work primarily focuses on written grey literature, which focuses on a single modality of
393 knowledge transfer. This may introduce bias as we could not capture here any documentation which is
394 informally kept, advice passed by word of mouth or other forms of documentation. Furthermore, our

395 approach relies primarily on publicly available grey literature sources. We tried to address this by
396 supplementing the sets of documents with resources provided by a board of experts, but this could still
397 potentially provide space for bias as the individuals that agreed to advise the work likely share similar
398 interests in Alaska. Future work could expand the perspective of such a search to incorporate
399 consideration of academic literature, books, videos, and other forms of knowledge sharing and could
400 make use of tools such as machine learning to further expand the research findings from such work.
401 However given our focus on regulatory requirements that impact water system OMM, we felt these
402 literature sources were out of scope.

403 **5. RESULTS AND KEY FINDINGS**

404 **5.1. Presence of Information Pertaining to Social Considerations**

405 **5.1.1. Operators and End Users**

406 The first prominent variation across governmental levels that we observed was the primary
407 audience that each document was geared towards. One of the basic meta-data codes we applied to each
408 document was a code assessing which audiences were explicitly addressed in the document of interest.
409 As seen in Table 3, for documents which made their content geared specifically towards operators, we
410 find that local documents had a much higher presence rate (50%) compared to federal documents (20%)
411 and state documents (17%). An example of such a quotation comes from the ABC guide from 2000 which
412 states that “the purpose of this guidebook is to help operators of very small water systems serving a
413 maximum population of 100 understand the provisions and purpose of the Final Guidelines for the
414 Certification and Recertification of the Operators of Community and Nontransient Noncommunity Public
415 Water Systems.” We find that local documents geared their documents towards end-users more often as
416 well (50%) compared to state documents (20%). An example of a regional document contextualizing the
417 document comes from the Yukon River Inter-Tribal Watershed Council YRITWC which states “Is this
418 manual for YOU! This manual is designed to give you a basic understanding of the need for safe drinking

419 water and ways to ensure that water used for common domestic purposes is safe clean drinking water.”
420 This suggests that local documentation, in the space related to OMM of water systems, have a larger
421 priority in publishing documents specifically focusing on their own operators and end-users.

422 **5.1.2. The Certification Process**

423 The second theme for which we uncovered variation across governmental levels was discussion
424 pertaining to the certification and training processes. When assessing the mention of, or reference to, the
425 certification and training process, we see a clear division in the materials provided by federal and state
426 agencies in the sample of documents analyzed compared to the regional and local documentation. Table
427 4 shows the summarized presence values for codes throughout these documents. Across regional and
428 local documentation, we find no presence of codes pertaining to any of the certification process. Within
429 the federal documents, we see an emphasis placed on the operator exam design (25%) and exam content
430 covered (30%). We see this represented in a federal document from the American Board of Certifications
431 which states “Just as water distribution operator job duties vary in their complexity, so will the questions
432 you are asked on the exam. Some will be more simple and routine, whereas others will be more complex,
433 or cognitively demanding” (Association of Boards of Certification n.d.). We also see this at the state level
434 in a document from the Alaska Department of Environmental Conservation which states “The exam
435 consists of 50 multiple-choice questions. You will have 2 hours to complete the exam. You will be given a
436 formula sheet to use during the exam. Copy of the formula sheet (PDF). A description of the type of
437 questions that will be on the exam (PDF)” (Alaska Department of Environmental Conservation Division of
438 Water 2022a). We also see that experience requirements (8%), previous educational requirements (8%),
439 benefits of certification (16%) and the need for study tactics (13%) are present in a relatively limited
440 number of federal documents. We see examples related to continuing education from the American
441 Water Works Association which states “continuing education measured by recognized units, such as
442 contact hours or continuing education units (CEUs), is essential to the development and sustained

443 competence of all operators and should be required for certification renewal". An AWWA also states "Do
444 not let your past define your future...Those that have the most success in their careers are the ones that
445 do not let their past define their future" (American Water Works Association n.d.), in reference to the
446 benefits of certification. State documents have a higher presence of discussion on required prerequisite
447 experiences (22%) and previous educational considerations (22%). The exam cost is only present across
448 state documentation (17%), as reflected by this quote from AK DEC "Operators pay just an exam fee when
449 registering for exams!" (Alaska Department of Environmental Conservation Division of Water 2022b). This
450 suggests that national standards, as well as the certification and training processes to help operators earn
451 compliance to those standards, were a priority at the state and federal levels of government. While the
452 federal government is focused on more general education and tactics for success, state government
453 seems to tailor their approach more to the infrastructure available and composition of their local
454 workforce.

455 The general lack of documentation publicly available (or easily searchable) at the regional and
456 local level discussing the certification process is particularly important to note due to the challenges
457 associated with obtaining funding for systems which lack a certified operator. While just over 15% of the
458 documents we analyzed from the federal and state levels mentioned the application process for getting
459 certified, none of the regional nor local documents mention the process. The test is administered at the
460 federal level in adherence with the state requirements, so we would expect the presence of
461 documentation geared towards successfully taking the test to be higher at the federal levels. Yet, we see
462 discussion of such testing and certification at the state level, even though they do not administer the
463 testing. The lack of available information focused on training and certification at both the local and
464 regional level suggest several avenues for exploration. The first possibility is simply that local and regional
465 agencies do not see the need to provide further clarification to what they see as already adequately
466 covered in federal documentation. However, when discussing the technical considerations, this seems

467 less likely to be the case. The second possibility is that local systems diverge significantly from the standard
468 system for which federal certification and training is most applicable. Given such divergence, local
469 government may not feel such certification is adequately relevant for managing a local water system. Even
470 though local agencies may know certifying a local operator to federal standards is necessary to procure
471 funding, they may lack the capacity to provide materials that systematically translate local systems to the
472 federal systems of focus in certification and training. We will unpack this further in subsequent findings
473 and in the Discussion.

474 **5.2. Presence of Information Pertaining to Technical Considerations**

475 **5.2.1. Overview**

476 When considering the technical elements present throughout the grey literature, there were four
477 primary categories which we deductively coded for based off of the ABC Need to Know Criteria which
478 include stage in the water collection and distribution process, administrative considerations, discussion
479 pertinent to operating system itself, and discussion about water quality implications. Table 5 shows the
480 aggregation of these technical consideration across the full sample of documents analyzed. Interestingly,
481 the regional documentation had the highest prevalence of identifying a specific stage in the water process
482 which the documentation was geared towards (80%). This seems to be a local focus as well with 50% of
483 their documentation also identifying a specific stage in the water process, indicated by a label in the title
484 or specifically called out in the documentation. We see this trend hold generally across the other
485 categories as well with regional documentation including details on demonstrative considerations (40%),
486 operating system details (60%) and water quality (20%). This specificity may facilitate improved
487 understanding of what aspect of the water system is being presented. Within both operating system
488 considerations and some administrative considerations, regional and local level documents had higher
489 code presence. As per prior findings, this suggests local and regional authorities are potentially filling gaps
490 in federal and state documentation. More specifically, there is potentially recognition of the need to

491 discuss the nuances of local water systems vis-à-vis the more standard systems that are of focus in state
492 and federal documentation.

493 **5.2.2. Administrative Considerations**

494 Table 6 shows the coding presence for administrative considerations. Within the administrative
495 consideration codes, we see several interesting trends emerge. Regional (40%) and local (50%)
496 documentation have a higher prevalence of discussing the financial threats to a system, whereas there
497 are no state documents coded mentioning such issues, and only 4% of federal documents mention
498 financial threats as a concern. We see the emphasis on financial threats highlighted in a quote from the
499 Bethel City Council which states “The City must have a score of 60 or greater out of 100 points in order to
500 be approved for funding from the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and the Alaska Department of
501 Environmental Conservation (DEC)” (Bethel City Council 2021). This same trend holds when discussing
502 worker safety and threats and security for the water systems. Regional and local documents continue to
503 show higher frequencies for compliance to existing guidelines, although not to the same extent across the
504 sample. There is only one category within technical considerations where the federal documents show a
505 higher code presence and that is for administrative procedures (20%), which makes sense given they are
506 the authority most directly responsible for establishing and administering water system requirements.

507 Table 7 shows the threats and security code in detail. As we would expect to see, regional and
508 local documents show higher overall prevalence across the various codes. When discussing the threats
509 posed by climate and the environment, we see a 60% and 50% code presence, respectively, and we see a
510 20% code presence for hazardous materials and the threats of system break-downs at the regional level;
511 for example, YRITWC states “Earthquakes and floods sometimes cause fuel tanks to fall or float from their
512 supporting structures” (The Yukon River Intertribal Watershed Council 2019). It is also interesting to note
513 that the threat of cyber security breaches is only present in federal documents with a presence of 4%.

514 In totality, our findings suggest that local and regional authorities seek to balance standardized
515 requirements with localized needs. Given the extensive discussions around financing, this suggests local
516 and regional authorities are aware of the needs to comply with federal mandates to ensure funding.
517 However, they also seek to elaborate upon the nuances between local systems and standardized systems
518 per federal mandates. Perhaps this is to fill gaps between standard administrative processes and local
519 needs of local systems and workforce.

520 **5.2.3. Physical System**

521 When analyzing the code presence across the management of the physical system, we see
522 another interesting trend emerge. Table 8 shows the specific codes outlined under the broader umbrella
523 of the operating system. We see the mention of system components and design mentioned with low
524 frequency in federal and state documents, with the highest federal document category focuses in
525 equipment operations (28%) ad equipment maintenance (24%). There is a high code presence for system
526 monitoring (40%, 50%), maintenance (60%, 50%), and operations (40%, 50%) across regional and local
527 documentation respectively. This again attests to potential nuances between local systems and the
528 standardized systems from federal mandates.

529 We find that regional and local level documents have a heavy emphasis on practical applications of
530 running and operating water systems daily. This includes a higher emphasis placed on administrative
531 considerations and the technical considerations for operating a system. We find a higher frequency of
532 context setting and establishing relevance throughout local and regional documentation. These findings
533 encourage us to consider what materials are provided for training and certification and what is expected
534 knowledge on the test. This also raises the question of whether certification should be more context
535 aware and sensitive for the regions where it is being applied. Perhaps local and regional authorities place

536 such emphasis to fill gaps in the federal and state documentation that is less sensitive to the operational
537 context.

538 **5.3. Results Summary and Core Propositions**

539 In synthesizing across findings, we have uncovered an understudied tension between *standardization*
540 (“*one size fits all*”) and *situatedness* (“*tailored to every circumstance*”). This tension is especially acute in
541 the Arctic context. Arctic water systems and their accompanying workforce must operate in conditions
542 that are far from the conventional setting given their extreme climate and spatial remoteness. However,
543 to ensure standard quality and to secure funding, compliance and training systems that are more
544 standardized may be misaligned with the systems in the Alaska context.

545 Taking our findings and this core tension, as well as linking these ideas to prior literature studying the
546 relationship between certification and cultural context (Schelwald and Reijerkerk 2012), our study reveals
547 two core propositions (shown in Figure 2):

548 • Proposition 1: As the regulatory level of the document author becomes spatially larger (i.e., moves
549 towards state and federal documents), standardization of the process is prioritized over tailoring
550 to the context.

551 • Proposition 2: This tension between standardization and contextualization will become more
552 acute following the degree to which local systems operate outside of typical ranges and
553 tolerances.

554 Base off of our meta-synthesis, we pose that this may manifest along two primary avenues that can serve
555 as sub-propositions to these core propositions:

556 • Social translation: (a) state and federal documentation will implicitly assume average measures
557 of skills, community make-up, size of city and workforce when preparing guidelines; (b) regional

558 and local documentation will assume a more bespoke configuration unique to their social context
559 and needs.

560 • Technical translation: (a) state and federal governments will assume typical water quality needs
561 and therefore typical contaminant treatment needs; (b) local and regional governments will
562 assume more atypical water quality needs and therefore consider more esoteric treatment needs
563 and traditions.

564 To summarize the key findings of our meta-synthesis, we present our findings in Table 9.

565 6. SCOPING POLICY ANALYSIS TO ASSESS TRENDS BEYOND THE GREY LITERATURE

566 While our work up to this point predominantly focuses on the themes identified from our meta-
567 synthesis of water system operations, maintenance and management, as identified in the grey literature,
568 here we are interested in understanding the generalizability of our propositions. To this end, we explore
569 two additional avenues. The first is focused on assessing generalizability across sectors within Alaska in
570 order to understand if these are water system specific findings or if the concept of Standardization vs
571 Situatedness is a challenge in other sectors. We present three motivated cases across the requirements
572 for environmental needs assessments to apply for federal funding, the push for a nursing compact for
573 cross-state boundary license recognition, and the lack of situated regulation for aviation management.

574 The second is focused on assessing generalizability across states within the water sector. We conduct
575 a basic correlational analysis across all 50 states to assess what factors are associated with states which
576 adopt the use of the ABC Need to Know Criteria. We find that broadly states which adopt their own Need
577 to Know Criteria are associated with more rural states, states that spend more on their utilities broadly,
578 and their water utilities specifically. However, we find for the extreme cases, which include Alaska,
579 Wyoming and Montana, all three states still use ABC's Need to Know criteria which suggests that there is
580 a lack of situated policymaking occurring to adapt federal regulations to their own context.

581 **6.1. Generalizability Across Other Sectors within Alaska**

582 We start with assessing generalizability across sectors within Alaska. Here we present three case
583 studies that highlight similar standardization versus situatedness challenges in the context as we observe
584 in water. The first focuses on the specific requirements of including an environmental impact statement
585 (EIS) to be eligible to receive some federal grants. This was an issue highlighted at the Rights, Resilience
586 and Community-Led Climate Adaptation Workshop held in Anchorage in 2023 with a statement
587 summarizing the sentiment “the problem is federal policies and regulations that don’t fit Alaska’s unique
588 terrain and climate” (Estus 2023). Under the National Environmental Protection Act, grants that are
589 expected to have “a significant impact on the quality of the human environment” will be expected to have
590 an EIS (EPA 2023). However, many of the tools and resources used to inform EIS assessments are
591 inadequate for the context of Alaska due to the rapidly changing environmental landscape and the large
592 scope of remote terrain which is challenging to appropriately capture in databases. This in turn negatively
593 impacts the ability of communities to be eligible for funding. In this context, while the federal government
594 has standard expectations for conducting an EIS based off of existing survey data, such standardization
595 when applied to Alaska has the potential to do more harm than good.

596 The second example focuses on the stance that the Alaska Nurses Association expressed in response
597 to a move towards establishing a Nurse Licensure Compact (NLC) (National Counsel of State Boards of
598 Nursing 2023). The NLC aims to “expand access to nursing care and nurse mobility across the U.S.”.
599 However, the Alaska Nurses Association highlights several critical concerns about this compact when
600 applied to the context of Alaska. They broadly summarize their position in the following way: “the Nurse
601 Licensure Compact: a Bad Fit for Alaska” (The Alaska Nurses Association 2023). Their arguments against
602 the move include a loss of decision-making power at the state level, loss of context awareness in making
603 the care for Alaska-specific health concerns more challenging, and that such a national approach will not

604 fix the key local issue of workforce gaps. The Unions statement concludes be arguing that a ““One-Size-
605 Fits-All”” Nurse Licensure Compact is a Bad Fit for Alaska” (The Alaska Nurses Association 2023).

606 Finally, we consider the context of aviation legislation, and specifically the mandatory use of
607 Automatic Dependent Surveillance-Broadcast (ADS-B) systems. In this case, because Alaska is an
608 “uncontrolled airspace”, pilots are not mandated to use an ADS-B (Larsen 2020). In part due to the
609 hazardous terrain, challenging weather conditions and limited communication methods available in
610 Alaska, the state suffers the highest aviation accident rate in the U.S. (Alaska Department of Transport
611 and Public Facilities n.d.). Without the consideration of the local environmental and geographic challenges
612 and adjusting these requirements for the fact that Alaska airspace is not controlled, the current Federal
613 regulation does not adequately meet the needs of Alaska pilots. In order to address these challenges, the
614 state has been working with the Federal Aviation Agency (FAA) to develop regulations which better fit the
615 context of Alaska’s flying conditions.

616 From these three case studies, we see that the challenges associated with taking standardized policies
617 and applying them to a situated context may be challenging in other sectors as well. We find this to align
618 with our first proposition. Furthermore, we find that the extreme conditions of the Alaska environment,
619 for all three cases, may have contributed to a feeling that such existing national regulatory standards had
620 the potential to do more harm than good. In the scenario of requiring EIS to receive Federal funding, the
621 lack of accurate data about the Alaska context makes creating an accurate EIS challenging, thereby
622 harming the overall ability of communities to be able to apply for grants. For the context of the NLC,
623 according to the Alaska Nurses Association, the national agreement is likely to detrimentally impact Alaska
624 health, decrease revenue for local nurses and will not fix the workforce shortage, only serving to hurt the
625 jobs of local nurses. And finally, the extreme environment and the fact that the aviation space is not
626 controlled in Alaska means that the existing regulations do not even most aviation incidents in Alaska and
627 pilots are being harmed as a result. Table 10 summarizes these case findings and suggest that our theory

628 holds across different infrastructure systems within the context of Alaska. To further ascertain these
629 synergies, future work could conduct additional meta-syntheses of these sectors in Alaska and in other
630 states.

631 **6.2. Generalizability Across Other States within Water Sector**

632 While we have established some avenues for generalizability when comparing to other certification
633 processes within Alaska via specific case examples, we now run a correlational policy analysis across the
634 other 50 states to assess if these findings for needing an improved set of situated approaches for Alaska's
635 water OMM sector hold, in a purely correlational manner, for the water systems of other states. For this,
636 we use the base context of what is required to become a certified operator in other states. As we discuss
637 above, the requirements to become a certified operator vary by state (American Water Works Association
638 2018). All 50 states have an established set of criteria for what is required to qualify for certification which
639 has been reviewed and approved by the EPA. Some of these requirements include taking and passing an
640 exam, having demonstrable educational achievements and on-the-job training, and expectations around
641 what certification renewal consists of. While the EPA's documentation states that "the type of operator
642 training necessary for each classification level in each state is best determined by the state" (American
643 Water Works Association 2018), we argue there are several states which would benefit from having their
644 own certification process which have not yet established it. To assess this question, we conduct a
645 Pearson's correlational assessment to understand, using a simplistic mechanism, the differences in these
646 states across several categorical variables including the density of the population (ACS 2021), the
647 percentage of the population living in rural areas (World Population Review 2024) and the revenue
648 created and managed by local government within the state as applied to water utilities (US Census Bureau
649 2021) to highlight any categorical variables which emerge. Figure 3 presents a correlation matrix which
650 highlights how these variables interact with each other, while Appendix C presents where the raw data
651 was pulled with regards to what states adopt what ABC criteria (American Water Works Association 2018).

652 Let's start by defining our key variables. ABC means that the state, according to the American Water
653 Works Association, uses the ABC criteria produced at the Federal level for their certification and licensure
654 process. Own Criteria means that the state has elected to create their own certification process, tailored
655 to the context of their own state. There are a total of 9 states where the use of federal vs. own state
656 examination processes were unknown or unclear. We then include variables for total population in the
657 state, population density, the percentage of people living in rural areas within the state, and utility
658 expenditure. When looking at general trends, we see that states which have not yet identified a clear use
659 of a federal or state-based criteria for their exams have a correlational relationship with the percent of
660 the population living in rural areas. While only representing a correlational relationship, which is not
661 indicative of a causal trend, this is an interesting commentary on the relationship between rurality and
662 the use of a contextualized testing process for certification.

663 While it is valuable to look at the context of this across the full set of United States, we are specifically
664 interested in the context of Alaska and other states similar to Alaska. For this comparison, we have
665 selected the states of Wyoming and Montana. Both of these states are statistically similar to Alaska in
666 several key factors. After Alaska, Wyoming and Montana have the lowest population density in the United
667 States (US Census Bureau 2020). Qualitatively speaking, both states have primarily rural landscapes and
668 are known for their resource-based industries and outdoor sport appeal. Quantitatively speaking, all three
669 states are comparable along several key demographic variables. All three states have statistically similar
670 rates of high school educational attainment in their populations over the age of 25, percentage of people
671 who fall below the poverty level in the last 12 months, the percent of children that don't have health
672 insurance, and the percentage of people employed in the manufacturing industry (US Census Bureau
673 2022).

674 Now, let's compare the trends of these three states. We assess the regulations each state has adopted
675 for the water operator training process and find that each of all three states use the Federal certification

676 process but align with several of the key variables of states that establish their own criteria including the
677 cost of utilities and the amount of money spent on water utilities in particular. While each state re-affirms
678 the need to assess their local context when preparing to manage a water system in their state (American
679 Water Works Association 2018), we argue that the lack of state-specific certification processes may be
680 misaligned with their more extreme and esoteric contextual needs. For example, Alaska “Uses ABC's 2012
681 New Standardized Exam Need-to-Know Criteria”, but “Recommends studying the Alaska Drinking Water
682 Regulations as opposed to the Federal Regulations”. Wyoming states “Examinations are linked to ABC
683 NTKC and study guides are available” while Montana states “Montana has revised its classification system
684 to incorporate key provisions of the ABC system, yet still preserve Montana-specific requirements”
685 (American Water Works Association 2018). This helps explore and extend the generalizability of our
686 arguments in that the situatedness – standardization tension we observe in Alaska seems present in water
687 operator training and certification guidelines across the U.S., and especially in similar other states (i.e.,
688 Wyoming and Montana).

689 **7. DISCUSSION**

690 Our study centrally asks, is the national certification process for water system OMM aligned or
691 appropriate for the Alaska context and even for other similar rural contexts? To answer this question, we
692 conducted a meta-synthesis that sought to better capture neglected variation across government levels
693 more directly as applied to water system OMM. This allowed for the uncovering of key differences
694 between how federal, state, regional, and local governments attend to social and technical considerations
695 in water systems. In particular, we find that the prior literature misses a key tension across government
696 levels when it comes to water system OMM, namely the tension between standardized approaches that
697 apply universally and situated approaches that vary locally. These tensions between standardization and
698 situatedness is especially acute in extreme settings such as Alaska where the local system is markedly
699 different than the typical standard system.

700 These differences are also especially challenging as they are do not take into account markedly
701 different indigenous practices. Current OMM practices are based on Westernized engineering knowledge,
702 which expect a minimum formal education level (Alaska Department of Environmental Conservation n.d.),
703 and assume this training can take place over extended time periods for content absorption (Alaska Native
704 Tribal Health Consortium 2022a). However, the formal education level of many Alaska communities does
705 not match the formal education level in the contiguous United States, and the time allocated for
706 completing certification training is limited to windows during which tribal subsistence activities (i.e.,
707 hunting and gathering) are not occurring. Furthermore, for individuals that do obtain the necessary
708 certification, they are typically drawn to more urban, higher-paying jobs (Alaska Department of Labor and
709 Workforce Development 2023). While Western knowledge prioritizes compartmentalized learning taught
710 in the context of a classroom, indigenous knowledge emanates from “direct experience in the
711 natural world” (Barnhardt and Kawagley 2005). Our study suggests that such standardized approaches
712 may not even be fit for purpose when introduced in such indigenous settings. This reveals a divide
713 between the way that training and credentialing for OMM of water systems in Alaska is assessed versus
714 the time constraints and pedagogical needs of the Indigenous communities needing such training.

715 In exploring the nuances across regulatory levels of government, we make several key contributions.
716 While previous literature notes technical, social, and environmental factors are crucial to sustainable
717 water systems (Armanios 2012; Kaminsky and Javernick-Will 2014), these works implicitly assume either
718 all governmental levels are equally aware of these factors or that a single level takes precedence. In
719 understanding this standardization-situatedness tension, we argue that only in a multi-level effort can
720 systems meet universally accepted needs while also being flexible to nuances of their local social context.

721 **8. POLICY IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

722 There key policy implication that stems from this work pertains to the unprecedented amounts of
723 funding currently (in 2023) being made available from the EPA and the Infrastructure Investment and Jobs
724 Act (IIJA) for rural Alaska water systems. The EPA has committed \$20 million USD to support the state of
725 Alaska's proposed plan for key drinking water projects, and the IIJA/Bipartisan Infrastructure Law includes
726 allocations of \$65 million to Alaska's two State Revolving Fund programs (Corcoran 2022). Furthermore,
727 \$3.5 billion is being made available for the Indian Health Services sanitation facilities (Edgmon 2022), and
728 an additional \$2.76 billion is being made available for investment in water and wastewater infrastructure
729 through the EPA's State Water Revolving Funds program (Lisa Murkowski Press Release 2022). This is
730 compared to historic investments of \$300 million from the state for sanitation projects supported by
731 Village Safe Water (VSW) Program between 1972 and 1994, and \$537 million of combined federal funds
732 and \$240 million from the State of Alaska given to VSW by 2005 (Marino et al. 2009).

733 In light of the nearly \$7B in financing that has been allocated for water and wastewater systems in
734 Alaska in the coming decades under the IIJA, our study argues for a more multi-level regulatory
735 perspective around who receives financing and for what facets. Our work suggests that relying solely on
736 the federal government's understanding of Alaska systems may overlook key aspects of Alaska systems
737 which require nuanced investment strategies. While historically the biggest hurdle to addressing gaps in
738 infrastructure provision in Alaska has been a lack of funding, the historic funding being made available
739 through the IIJA shifts this focus to how to maintain and operate the infrastructure in the long-term, and
740 in ways that align with the unique needs and capabilities of Alaska water systems. As a start and at the
741 bare minimum, perhaps some of this funding could be used to create more tailored training materials that
742 better account for Alaska's unique environmental conditions and indigenous knowledge systems.

743 **9. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK**

744 This study is motivated by the need to understand how we can address workforce challenges that are
745 especially acute and severe in rural communities, using the case of Alaska specifically to explore this
746 relationship. This led to the need to uncover how different levels of regulatory government communicate
747 about technical and social considerations around water. Through a meta-synthesis of the grey literature
748 across different governmental levels, we unpacked a key tension between standardization and
749 situatedness. State and federal authorities tend to prioritize standardization, while local and regional
750 authorities prioritize situatedness. For a state like Alaska where the local water system operates outside
751 typical ranges, this tension becomes more drastic and salient. From our findings, we subsequently propose
752 propositions around this core standardization-situatedness tension. We see this as having important
753 policy implications, namely the need to have a consultative approach across levels of regulatory
754 government for how funding ought to be allocated. However, more importantly, we also recognize this is
755 only the start of the work needed to more comprehensively capture the dynamics across governmental
756 levels as they pertain to water system OMM. In particular, future work should conduct more qualitative
757 interviews and surveys of water operators and end users to better anchor these propositions in the grey
758 literature to actual local voice. This is also an exciting opportunity that also lends itself to more novel
759 methods such as natural language processing that can discern patterns in qualitative data, especially when
760 quantitative data is sparse as is often the case in such extreme settings as these. Future exploration could
761 also explore the key mechanisms behind the root causes for such structured differences for available
762 funding at both federal and local levels.

763 APPENDIXES:

764 **Appendix A: Final Set of Documents Included in Analysis**

765 Appendix A details the final set of documents included in the corpus that was manually coded by the
766 authors.

Agency	Document	Year of Publication
ABC	VSWS Guidebook	2000
ABC	Validating Your Certification Exam	2013
ABC	Guide Collect Class I	2018
ABC	Guide Collect Class II	2018
ABC	Guide Distr Class II	2018
ABC	Guide Treat Class I	2018
ABC	Guide Waste Treat Class I	2018
ABC	Certification Process	2019
AFE	Environmental Technician Work Process and Related Instruction	2018
AFE	Alaska Connect Information	2022
AFE	Environmental Technician Apprenticeship Information	2022
AFE	Environmental Worker Training	2022
AK DEC	Operator's Guide for Small Treated Public Water Systems in Alaska	2002
AK DEC	Well Owner's Guide for Small Untreated Public Water Systems in Alaska	2002
AK DEC	Introduction to Small Water Systems Ch1	2009
AK DEC	Introduction to Small Water Systems Ch9	2009
AK DEC	Alaska Water and Wastewater Operator Certification & Training	2016
AK DEC	Operator Certification Program Report for State Fiscal Year 2021	2021
AK DEC	Capacity Development	2022
AK DEC	How to Get Certified as a Water Operator	2022
AK DEC	More About the Operator Training & Certification Program	2022
AK DEC	Operator Certification Compliance Guidance During COVID	2022
AK DEC	Small Water System Certification	2022
AK DEC	Alaska Water and Wastewater System Operators Requirements	nd

AK DEC	Bethel Heights Water Distribution System	nd
AK DEC	How DEC Determines Eligibility For Provisional Certification	nd
AWWA	Findings of the Effective Utility Management Review	2016
	Managing Cyanotoxins in Drinking Water-Technical Guidance	
AWWA	Manual	2016
	Communicating Source Water Protections-Consumer	
AWWA	Confidence Reports-Literature Review	2018
AWWA	Operator Licensing Requirements Across the US	2018
AWWA	Cybersecurity Risk & Responsibility in the Water Sector	2019
AWWA	Water Operator Certification Explained	2019
AWWA	Water Utility Manager's Guide to Community Stewardship	2019
AWWA	Operator Certification Statement	2022
AWWA	WSO WPP Get the Job	nd
AWWA	WSO WPP Study Tactics	nd
BCC	Bethel City Council_2021_Water & Sewer Report	2021
DCRA	RUBA Training Courses	2018
EPA	Operator Certification Guidelines Implementation Guidance	2000
EPA	Rural and Small Systems Guidebook	2016
EPA	Summary of State Operator Certification Programs	2016
EPA	Water Systems Partnerships Meeting Summary	2017
EPA	Learn about Capacity Development	2021
	Clean Water Makes a Healthy Home - Financing	
ONC	Infrastructure Investment in Bethel, AK	2022
YRITWC	Safe Drinking Water and Sanitary Manual	2019
YRITWC	Template Emergency Response Plan	nd
YRITWC	Aquatic Buffer Ordinance	nd
YRITWC	Drinking Water Improvement Program	nd
	Water Quality Protection of Water Source and Traditional	
YRITWC	Water Sources ES	nd

768 **Appendix B: Coding Dictionary**

769 Appendix B outlines the coding dictionary used for the application of the qualitative coding scheme.

CODE	DEFINITION
Document Properties	
Geopolitical Scope	<i>The level of regulatory government that published the document.</i>
Federal	<i>The national government of the United States.</i>
State	<i>State-based governments which provide oversight to a single state.</i>
Regional	<i>A regional form of government which provides oversight to a subset of a state.</i>
Local	<i>A local form of government the city level.</i>
Audience	
Operators-in-training	<i>An individual who is pursuing training to become a certified water operator.</i>
System Operators	<i>An individual who is licensed and operating a water treatment and distribution system.</i>
Community Members	<i>An individual who lives in the community receiving treated water.</i>
Technical Considerations	
Stage in the Water Process	<i>The stage of water treatment that the document targets.</i>
Not Stage Specific	<i>The document does not identify or make specific which stage of water treatment the document is referring to.</i>
Source Water	<i>Addresses where the water is initially coming from.</i>
Potable Water Treatment	<i>Addresses the process of treating and making ready for consumption potable water.</i>
Potable Water Distribution	<i>Addresses the process of getting potable water from the utility to the end-user.</i>
Wastewater Collection	<i>Addresses the process of aggregating grey and black water.</i>
Wastewater Treatment	<i>Addressers the process of treating and making ready for release water.</i>

CODE	DEFINITION
Water Storage	<i>Addresses a utility's storage system.</i>
End-Users Storage System	<i>Addresses an end user's personal storage system.</i>
Administrative Considerations	<i>Items that concern administrative needs, including paperwork, planning, and other "back of house" tasks</i>
Administrative Processes	<i>Actions and procedures related to record-keeping. Examples: billing, human resources, time keeping, overhead tracking, company management, etc.</i>
Compliance	<i>Tasks related to water quality regulations and permitting requirements from the water operator's side. Examples: compliance paperwork, filing compliance forms, tracking deliverables, interacting with inspectors.</i>
Strategic Planning	<i>Practices pertaining to future planning, including best management practices, gold standards, and strategic planning. Examples: budgeting for future expansions, hiring specialists).</i>
Funding	<i>Discussion of financing, spending, and other costs considerations. Examples: funding from government entities for system operations.</i>
Worker Safety	<i>Procedures to ensure the safety of workers and the security of the water system. Examples: PPE requirements, staffing requirements, worker health</i>
Water Quality	<i>Considerations of water contaminants and cleanliness</i>
Testing	<i>Processes for testing potable water quality.</i>
Laboratory	<i>Formal water quality testing in a laboratory, chemical analysis. Conducted by a specialist.</i>
Field	<i>Conducted during routine checks and maintenance, more back of the envelope. Conducted by an operator.</i>
At-home	<i>Conducted by end-user, not mandatory.</i>
Effluent at the conclusion of the treatment process	<i>Considerations of the quality of treated effluent water leaving the water treatment plant, entering the distribution portion of the system.</i>

CODE	DEFINITION
Biological	<i>E.g.: Viruses, bacteria, zoological contaminants, organic compounds.</i>
Chemical	<i>E.g.: Nitrous oxide, rust.</i>
Physical properties	<i>E.g.: Turbidity, pH, temperature.</i>
Water received by the end-user	<i>Considerations of the quality of water received at the tap for the end-users.</i>
Biological	<i>E.g.: Viruses, bacteria, zoological contaminants, organic compounds.</i>
Chemical	<i>E.g.: Nitrous oxide, rust.</i>
Physical properties	<i>E.g.: Turbidity, pH, temperature.</i>
Treatment Process	<i>The process of water treatment, including flocculation, tanks, equipment</i>
Operating System	<i>Considerations of the water system equipment</i>
Equipment Installation	<i>Instructions for creating new water systems</i>
Equipment Operations	<i>Procedures for operating the water treatment and distribution infrastructure system.</i>
Equipment Maintenance	<i>Procedures for maintaining the integrity of the water treatment system, including routine maintenance and repairs.</i>
System Components	<i>A breakdown of each material or piece of a system</i>
System Monitoring	<i>Tells us if maintenance is needed – about the integrity. Measuring processes occurring in water utility (uses devices), humidity sensors, water level measurements.</i>
Threats and Security	<i>Anything that threatens the daily operations of the water system, both physically and operationally.</i>
Climate and Environment	<i>Flooding, landslides, freezing, extreme weather events, erosion, change in landscape, changes in water supply patterns.</i>
Cybersecurity	<i>Cyber hacks, ransom ware, hostage data.</i>

CODE	DEFINITION
System Breakdown	<i>Rusting, lead-based paints, mold, corrosion.</i>
Hazardous Materials	<i>Chemical spills, asbestos.</i>
Background	<i>Information which helps inform, train or educate the user on why a process is designed like it is, what the technical/engineering-based/physics reason is</i>
Social Considerations	
Certification	<i>Pertaining to the process of earning certification to become a certified water operator.</i>
Application Process	<i>Provides details on how to apply for exams and certification.</i>
Benefits of Certification	<i>Explains why pursuing certification is of value to the individual and the community.</i>
Accessibility of Material	<i>Where is the material stored/available?</i>
In-Person Training	<i>Provided at an in-person training.</i>
Library	<i>Found in a publicly available library.</i>
Online	<i>Found online.</i>
Cost Considerations	<i>The cost incurred by the individual pursuing the certification and the affordability of this cost.</i>
Continuing Education Requirements	<i>Details the requirements for maintaining certification.</i>
Experience Requirements	<i>Details the experiences required for achieving certification.</i>
Previous Education Considerations	<i>Education credential required and education paths to get certified.</i>
Study Tactics	<i>Advice for how to prepare and study for the test itself, strategies.</i>
Consequences of Poor Management	<i>Detrimental impacts of mismanaged water utilities on population and the environment.</i>

CODE	DEFINITION
Collaboration	<i>The importance of cross-systems collaboration and disciplines.</i>
Water Governance	<i>How different levels of government interact and deal with policy and regulation related issues</i>
Federal policies, regulations	<i>Acts, laws, policies.</i>
State policies, regulations	<i>How these policies and regulations are implemented at the state level.</i>
Tribal governance	<i>How tribal policies interact with federal policies.</i>
Community Outreach	<i>Considerations of how water systems can interface with and interact with the communities they are serving.</i>
Water System Stakeholders	<i>Discussion of who will be impacted by the water system.</i>
Environmental Attorneys	<i>Lawyers who are responsible for defending the water systems.</i>
End-Users	<i>People who are receiving water from the water systems.</i>
Relevance	<i>How is the content covered in the document made relevant to the context it is addressing or the individual using the materials.</i>
To environment	<i>Materials that are better suited for the Alaska environment.</i>
To operator	<i>Materials that are tailored for operators in Alaska.</i>
Positive implications	<i>Positive assumptions about the backgrounds, interests of, skills of operators that are getting certified.</i>
Negative implications	<i>Negative assumptions about the backgrounds, interests of, skills of operators that are getting certified, condescending, tone sounds like being talked down to.</i>
To end user	<i>Information directed towards household management of water and interacting with the water system.</i>
COVID-19	<i>Any aspects relevant to the COVID-19 Pandemic</i>

772 **Appendix C:**

773 Appendix C presents the raw data explaining which states use what form of certification guidelines
 774 (American Water Works Association 2018)

State	Reciprocity		Certification in addition to Treatment		Established Need-to-Know Criteria					
	Water	Wastewater	Distribution	Collection Systems	ABC		Own criteria		No or unsure	
					W	WW	W	WW	W	WW
1. AL	YES	YES	YES	YES					X	X
2. AK	YES	YES	YES	YES	X	X				
3. AZ	YES	YES	YES	YES	X	X				
4. AR	YES	YES	YES	NO	X					X
5. CA	YES	YES	YES	YES			X	X		
6. CO	YES	YES	YES	YES			X	X		
7. CT	YES	YES	YES	Voluntary			X			X
8. DE	YES	YES	NO	NO					X	X
9. FL	NO	NO	YES	NO			X	X		
10. GA	YES	YES	YES	YES	X	X				
11. HI	YES	YES	YES	NO	X	X				
12. ID	YES	YES	YES	YES	X	X				
13. IL	YES	YES	YES	YES					X	X
14. IN	YES	YES	YES	NO					X	X
15. IA	YES	YES	YES	NO	X	X				
16. KS	YES	YES	YES	NO			X	X		
17. KY	YES	YES	YES	YES			X	X		
18. LA	YES	YES	YES	YES			X	X		
19. ME	YES	YES	YES	NO			X	X		
20. MD	YES	YES	YES	YES	X					X
21. MA	YES	YES	YES	Voluntary		X	X			
22. MI	YES	YES	YES	NO			X	X		
23. MN	YES	YES	NO	YES			X	X		
24. MS	YES	YES	NO	Voluntary					X	X
25. MO	YES	YES	YES	NO			X	X		
26. MT	YES	YES	YES	YES	X	X				
27. NE	NO	YES	YES	NO		X	X			
28. NV	YES	YES	YES	Voluntary	X	X	X	X		
29. NH	YES	YES	YES	NO			X	X		
30. NJ	YES	YES	YES	YES			X	X		
31. NM	YES	YES	YES	YES			X	X		
32. NY	YES	YES	YES	Voluntary		X	X	X		

33. NC	YES	YES	YES	YES				X	X	
34. ND	YES	YES	YES	YES					X	X
35. OH	YES	YES	YES	YES	X	X				
36. OK	NO	NO	YES	YES			X	X		
37. OR	YES	YES	YES	YES	X	X	X			
38. PA	YES	YES	YES	YES			X	X		
39. RI	YES	YES	YES	NO	X	X		X		
40. SC	YES	YES	YES	Voluntary	X	X				
41. SD	YES	YES	YES	YES	X	X		X		
42. TN	YES	YES	YES	YES		X	X	X		
43. TX	YES	YES	YES	YES			X	X		
44. UT	YES	YES	YES	YES		X	X			
45. VT	YES	YES	YES	Voluntary					X	X
46. VA	YES	YES	NO	NO	X	X				
47. WA	YES	YES	YES	Voluntary	X	X		X		
48. WV	YES	YES	YES	YES					X	X
49. WI	YES	YES	YES	YES			X	X		
50. WY	YES	YES	YES	YES	X	X	X	X		
TOTALS 50	YES – 47 NO -- 3	YES – 48 NO -- 2	YES – 46 NO -- 4	YES – 28 NO – 15 VOL – 7	18	21	26	28	9	8

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778 All data, models, and code generated or used during the study appear in the submitted article.

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1053

1054 **TABLES:**

1055 **Table 1:** Select stakeholders for Alaska water systems represented in corpus, organized alphabetically.
1056 While not necessarily the full set of stakeholders in this space, these were the key stakeholders
1057 identified using the open text search and were then verified by the group of advisors.

Organization	Geopolitical scope
Alaska Department of Environmental Conservation (AK DEC)	State
Alaska Department of Transportation and Public Facilities (AK DOT & PF)	State
Alaska Division of Environmental Health (AK DEH)	State
Alaska Division of Water	State
Alaska Forum on the Environment (AFE)	State
Alaska Native Tribal Health Consortium (ANTHC)	Regional/Tribal
Alaska Rural Utility Collaborative (ARUC)	Regional/Tribal
Alaska Spill Prevention and Response	State
Alaska Water Wastewater Management Association	State
American Water Works Association (AWWA)	National
Association of Boards of Certification (ABC)	National
Association of General Contractors (AGC)	National
Association of Metropolitan Water Agencies	National
Association of State and Interstate Water Pollution Control Administrators	National
Association of State Drinking Water Administrators	National
Bethel City Council (BCC)	Local
Bethel Finance Committee	Local
Bethel Planning Commission	Local
Bethel Public Works Committee	Local
Carpe Diem West's Healthy Headwaters Alliance	Regional/Tribal
City of Bethel	Local
Community Parks and Recreation Committee	Local
United States Department of Agriculture (USDA)	National
Department of Consumer and Regulatory Affairs (DCRA)	National

Department of the Interior (DOI)	National
EPA's National Drinking Water Advisory Council	National
Indian Health Service (IHS)	National
National Association of Clean Water Agencies	National
National Association of Water Companies	National
National Drinking Water Advisory Council	National
National Rural Water Association	National
Orutsararmiut Native Council (ONC)	Local
Rural Community Assistance Corp	National
Source Water Collaborative	National
Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)	National
Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD)	National
Yukon River Inter-Tribal Watershed Council (YRIT WC)	Regional/Tribal
Yukon-Kuskokwim Health Corporation (YKHC)	Regional/Tribal

1059 **Table 2:** A summarized version of the qualitative coding dictionary used to identify key themes which
1060 emerged across the document corpus.

Code	Definition
Document Properties	
Geopolitical Scope	<i>The level of regulatory government that published the document.</i>
Audience	<i>The group of people that the document is intended to inform.</i>
Technical Considerations	
Stage in the Water Process	<i>The stage of water treatment that the document targets.</i>
Administrative Considerations	<i>Items that concern administrative needs, including paperwork, planning, and other “back of house” tasks.</i>
Water Quality	<i>Considerations of water contaminants and cleanliness.</i>
Operating System	<i>Considerations of the water system equipment.</i>
Threats and Security	<i>Anything that threatens the daily operations of the water system, both physically and operationally.</i>
Background	<i>Information which helps inform, train or educate the user on why a process is designed like it is, what the technical/engineering-based/physics reason is.</i>
Social Considerations	
Certification	<i>Pertaining to the process of earning certification to become a certified water operator.</i>
Consequences of Poor Management	<i>Detimental impacts of mismanaged water utilities on population and the environment.</i>
Collaboration	<i>The importance of cross-systems collaboration and disciplines.</i>
Water Governance	<i>How different levels of government interact and deal with policy and regulation related issues.</i>
Community Outreach	<i>Considerations of how water systems can interface with and interact with the communities they are serving.</i>
Water System Stakeholders	<i>Discussion of who will be impacted by the water system.</i>

Code	Definition
Relevance	<i>How is the content covered in the document made relevant to the context it is addressing or the individual using the materials.</i>
COVID-19	<i>Any aspects relevant to the COVID-19 Pandemic</i>

1061

1062 **Table 3:** Statements made contextually relevant towards a given stakeholder in the community. All
1063 tables show the percent of documents that have presence of any given code for that level of federal
1064 government. N values indicate the total sample size for each result. In this table we see that the local
1065 documentation “situates” or makes the content relevant to both operators and end-users, followed by
1066 regional documentation. We see the gap in situating the documentation at the state and federal
1067 documentation level.

	To Operator	To End-User
Federal	20% n = 5/24	8% n = 2/24
State	17% n = 3/18	11% n = 2/18
Regional	0% n = 0/5	20% n = 1/5
Local	50% n = 1/2	50% n = 1/2

1068

1069 **Table 4:** Content coded related to certification. All tables show the percent of documents that have
 1070 presence of any given code for that level of federal government. N values indicate the total sample size
 1071 for each result. The discussion on the certification process, ranging from statistics provided on people
 1072 clearing through each test through to study tactics, are only presented in federal and state
 1073 documentation. We see an emphasis on federal discussion of the design of the certification process and
 1074 the content covered in the exam which we see a state emphasis on some of the more logistical aspects of
 1075 the exam including previous educational experiences required and the cost implications of the exam.

	Certification			Previous			
	Exam Design	Content Covered	Experience Requirements	Cost Considerations	Education Considerations	Benefits of Certification	Study Tactics
Federal	25% n = 6/24	30% n = 7/24	8% n = 2/24	0% n = 0/24	8% n = 2/24	16% n = 4/24	13% n = 3/24
State	11% n = 2/18	17% n = 3/18	22% n = 4/18	17% n = 3/18	22% n = 4/18	17% n = 3/18	0% n = 0/18
Regional	0% n = 0/5	0% n = 0/5	0% n = 0/5	0% n = 0/5	0% n = 0/5	0% n = 0/5	0% n = 0/5
Local	0% n = 0/2	0% n = 0/2	0% n = 0/2	0% n = 0/2	0% n = 0/2	0% n = 0/2	0% n = 0/2

1076

1077 **Table 5:** Content coded related to technical considerations. All tables show the percent of documents
1078 that have presence of any given code for that level of federal government. N values indicate the total
1079 sample size for each result. Here we see that regional documentation had the highest prevalence of
1080 identifying a specific stage in the water process and highlight specific considerations about the operating
1081 systems. This suggests local and regional authorities are potentially filling gaps in federal and state
1082 documentation.

	Stage Specific in Water Process	Administrative Considerations	Operating System	Water Quality
Federal	29% n = 7/24	32% n = 8/24	28% n = 7/24	25% n = 6/24
State	33% n = 6/18	28% n = 5/18	17% n = 3/18	17% n = 4/18
Regional	80% n = 4/5	40% n = 2/5	60% n = 3/5	20% n = 1/5
Local	50% n = 1/2	50% n = 1/2	50% n = 1/2	0% n = 0/2

1083

1084 **Table 6:** Content coded related to administrative issues. All tables show the percent of documents that
 1085 have presence of any given code for that level of federal government. N values indicate the total sample
 1086 size for each result. Considerations of standardization, such as compliance and worker safety, are more
 1087 evenly discussed across the four stakeholder levels. However, local and regional documents place much
 1088 more emphasis on understanding and navigating threats presented to water systems and possible
 1089 avenues of funding.

	Funding	Strategic Planning	Administrative Processes	Worker Safety	Compliance	Threats and Security
Federal	4% n = 1/24	4% n = 1/24	20% n = 5/24	20% n = 5/24	32% n = 8/24	8% n = 2/24
State	0% n = 0/18	6% n = 1/18	0% n = 0/18	0% n = 0/18	28% n = 5/18	11% n = 2/18
Regional	40% n = 2/5	0% n = 0/5	0% n = 0/5	40% n = 2/5	40% n = 2/5	80% n = 5/5
Local	50% n = 1/2	0% n = 0/2	0% n = 0/2	50% n = 1/2	50% n = 1/2	50% n = 1/2

1090

1091 **Table 7:** Threats to a water system, showing a high prevalence placed on the discussion of
1092 environmental concern at the regional and local level. All tables show the percent of documents that
1093 have presence of any given code for that level of federal government. N values indicate the total sample
1094 size for each result.

	Hazardous Materials	Cybersecurity	Climate and Environment	System Breakdown
Federal	4% n = 1/24	4% n = 1/24	0% n = 0/24	0% n = 0/24
State	6% n = 1/18	0% n = 0/18	6% n = 1/18	6% n = 1/18
Regional	20% n = 1/5	0% n = 0/5	60% n = 3/5	20% n = 1/5
Local	0% n = 0/2	0% n = 0/2	50% n = 1/2	0% n = 0/2

1095

1096 **Table 8:** Code presence across the management of the physical system. All tables show the percent of
 1097 documents that have presence of any given code for that level of federal government. N values indicate
 1098 the total sample size for each result. Here we see that aspects of system monitoring, equipment
 1099 maintenance and operations are highlighted in the regional and local documentation whereas system
 1100 components and design considerations are only discussed in federal and state documentation.

Design						
	System Components	Consideration	System Monitoring	Equipment Installation	Equipment Maintenance	Equipment Operations
Federal	8% n = 2/24	4% n = 1/24	20% n = 5/24	0% n = 6/24	24% n = 6/24	28% n = 7/24
State	6% n = 1/18	6% n = 1/18	6% n = 1/18	6% n = 1/18	6% n = 1/18	6% n = 1/18
Regional	0% n = 0/5	0% n = 0/5	40% n = 2/5	0% n = 0/5	60% n = 3/5	40% n = 2/5
Local	0% n = 0/2	0% n = 0/2	50% n = 1/2	0% n = 0/2	50% n = 1/2	50% n = 1/2

1101

1102 **Table 9:** Summary of key findings as they track to propositions.

Proposition	Key Findings
<p>Proposition 1: As the regulatory level becomes more macro (i.e., moves towards state and federal documents), standardization of the process is prioritized over tailoring to the context.</p>	<p>Local agencies are better than state and federal agencies at making their documentation tailored specifically towards operators and end-users.</p> <p>Federal documents mention with higher prevalence exam design while state documents tend to focus on prerequisite experiences, educational requirements, and previous pass rates. There is a notable lack in publicly available documentation which discusses the certification process at the local level.</p> <p>Local and regional documentation provides more system-specific guidance compared to state and federal documentation.</p>
<p>Proposition 2: This tension between standardization and contextualization will become more acute following the degree to which local systems operate outside of typical ranges and tolerances.</p>	<p>Alaska has some of the lowest rates of certified operators per capita in the U.S. (Alaska Native Tribal Health Consortium 2022b)</p> <p>Alaska currently ranks as number 47 in terms of percentage of population served by a community water system with a serious drinking water violation in the past year (United Health Foundation 2023)</p> <p>Regional and local documents suggests that the extreme context might not always be compatible with Federal regulations and that federal documentation might miss the relevant situated context</p>

1104 **Table 10:** Summary of sectors where the standardized approach may hard the situated needs.

Program	Alignment with Proposition 1: As the regulatory level gets spatially larger, standardization of the process is prioritized over tailoring to the context	Alignment with Proposition 2: The tension between standardization and situatedness will become more acute following the degree to which local systems operate outside of typical ranges and tolerances
Requiring an Environmental Impact Statement (EIS) to apply for Federal Grants	To create a national framework to assess eligibility for grants, an EIS is required for all projects that are expected to have a detrimental impact on the health and well-being of community members in proximity to the project (EPA 2023).	Unlike the challenges of many other contiguous U.S. states, due to the changing, remote Arctic climate, the data required to create accurate EIS is not available or is not fully inaccurate, detrimentally impacting the eligibility of Alaska communities for Federal grants (Estus 2023).
Nurse Licensure Compact	To create a national network where workforce gaps in nursing staff can be filled (National Counsel of State Boards of Nursing 2023).	A lack of understanding about the unique health challenges of Alaskans could result in worse care (The Alaska Nurses Association 2023). Out of state nurses wouldn't be required to pay the same licensing fees as in-state nurses, meaning that Alaska nurses – who already pay among the highest fees in the nation – would have to shoulder additional financial burden (The Alaska Nurses Association 2023).
Airline Regulations for Safety	To protect aviator safety, federal laws and regulations are applied to the standard context that most airplanes operate in – controlled airspace (Alaska Department of Transport and Public Facilities n.d.).	Alaska is not within controlled airspace and as a result, Part 135 operators (those used in Alaska) are held to less stringent regulations and safety standards than Part 121 air carriers (other commercial carriers), resulting in higher accident rates (Larsen 2020). The FAA's NextGen initiative, which requires aircraft to be equipped with ADS-B to improve safety is not required outside of controlled airspace (Larsen 2020).

1106 **FIGURE CAPTION LIST:**

1107 **Fig. 1.** PRISMA Diagram depicting the process of collecting and refining the final set of documents
1108 included in the analysis. The acronym dictionary for each of these terms is included in Table 1.

1109 **Fig. 2.** A graphic representation of the propositions uncovered and how the scale of standardization to
1110 situatedness may occur (City of Bethel 2023; Durrani 2023; FEMA n.d.).

1111 **Fig. 3:** Correlation table for all 50 states comparing states that use the Federal ABC Guidelines for
1112 Certification versus those that develop their own.