Community Preparedness Policy
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Introduction

In the January 2002 State of the Union Address, President Bush "called on every American to dedicate at least two years or 4,000 hours over the course of his or her lifetime to volunteer service." (Strengthening and Expanding Volunteer Service - USA Freedom Corps By the Numbers, 2004, ¶ 1) This request came in response to the September 11 terrorist attacks on the United States. President Bush created a policy "to foster a culture of responsibility, service, and citizenship by promoting, expanding, and enhancing public service opportunities for all Americans." (Establishing the USA Freedom Corps, 2002, ¶ 1)

This national policy to have a more prepared community had federal components but the bulk of the implementation was tasked to the local level. The Polk County Health Center in Missouri took up the challenge of many of the programs as directed by the Local Citizen's Corps Council such as community disaster training and volunteer recruitment. This project requires dedication from stakeholders and participation from the public. Additionally, policy research must be conducted and the policy implemented with financial stability and effective leadership.

Executive Summary

The added responsibility for all citizens and local governments for community preparedness and volunteerism were felt throughout America. Many positive effects were a result, but some negative effects also had to be dealt with. This paper briefly discusses and proposes a project to evaluate and offer suggestions for public administrators to successfully manage volunteers and create a more disaster prepared community.

Research on this policy is ongoing to improve the preparedness efforts and programs. The implementation of this policy at the federal, state, and local level must be based on community needs and available resources. Additionally, these programs must be supported by political entities and competing interests balanced.

The desired result is slowly being met, but there are ways to enhance the policy design to benefit more Americans. The policy affects local government officials both positively and negatively. Negative effects can be mitigated to enhance the policy. The balance between many competing interests is difficult, but the process can create a more valuable result.

For the most part, this policy requested assistance from the general public and required little government expense, however, there is a financial impact. Expenditures, expenses, and encumbrances are utilized to expend funds while capital project, general, and proprietary funds are utilized to track these monies. As with all government projects and grants, budgets are required and must be analyzed. These budgets support spending plans and must support the policy set forth by President Bush. Throughout this paper, general financial analysis will be conducted at the federal and state levels and a more specific analysis will be conducted at the local level as disaster preparedness funds are granted from the federal government, through the state, to the locals to spend. These grants are utilized to organize, recruit, and retain volunteers. Additionally, they are utilized to train the general population in disaster preparedness activities.

Immediately after this policy announcement, funding sources were abundant for any project or policy that dealt with emergency services or homeland security. Recently, however, many of these funds and revenue sources have disappeared or had significant cutbacks. Even though the significant challenge of this policy is public involvement, funding is becoming more difficult. An assessment of the current revenues and an examination of possible funding options to implement this policy is the focus of this document. Revenue sources are analyzed along with

restrictions placed on those revenues. Effects of public policy and economic conditions are also evaluated. Finally, a revenue policy was developed.

Local and national economies were all affected by those attacks that spurred this policy. At a time when a lot of questions and insecurity were abound, a call for service and extra expense were issued to Americans and American businesses to volunteer and become more prepared for disasters. Incentive programs at the state and local level are in place to bolster economically depressed regions that will help these areas have more resources and be able to be more prepared for disasters. Enterprise zones are one example of an incentive program. These enterprise zones require a cost-benefit analysis along with ethical evaluation to ensure they are doing the most good.

The community education and volunteer coordination requirements from this policy demand leadership skills to provide for the citizens and protect the country. These skills include both rational and non-rational problem solving, stakeholder participation in decision-making, innovative practices, leadership styles to facilitate innovative practices, and ethical leadership.

Project Proposal

Local Government Impact

Through the creation of the Citizen Corps, local citizen corps councils were created to manage local efforts and volunteers. According to the Citizen Corps website (Citizen Corps Councils), eight specific objectives were outlined for local councils:

1) Promote and strengthen the Citizen Corps programs at the community level, such as Volunteers in Police Service programs, CERT teams, Medical Reserve Corps units, and Neighborhood Watch groups;
2) Provide opportunities for special skills and interests;
3) Develop targeted outreach for the community, including special needs groups;
4) Provide opportunities of training in first aid and emergency preparedness;
5) Organize special projects and community events;
6) Encourage cooperation and collaboration among community leaders; and
7) Capture smart practices and report accomplishments; and
8) Create opportunities for all residents to participate.

The first local impact is the creation of a local council. In most communities, several committees and groups work to provide a better community. The interesting part of these committees is that if one were to observe each group (such as senior center committee, community health committee, local emergency planning committee, etc.), the same individuals would be seen repeatedly. People who are willing to serve the community usually do so in multiple capacities and wear multiple hats. Creating one more committee with one more monthly meeting is usually not received well.

Once created, the local council can do great things to coordinate volunteer and community preparedness training efforts. Linking existing groups and activities is usually an easy way to accomplish tasks without re-inventing the wheel. However, a challenge often exists with turf battles and people and organizations that have not worked together in the past. Once these hurtles can be overcome, the real work can begin to create a more prepared community.

Policy Objectives

Five major objectives were created by this federal policy. (Fact Sheet: USA Freedom Corps-Citizen Corps, 2002) The first objective is to "enable Americans to volunteer [and] to

participate directly in homeland security efforts in their own communities." (Fact Sheet: USA Freedom Corps-Citizen Corps, 2002, ¶ 1) The second objective is to create "community-based Citizen Corps Councils [that] will help drive local involvement in Citizen Corps, developing community action plans, assessing possible threats, identifying local resources and coordinating other Citizen Corps programs." (Fact Sheet: USA Freedom Corps-Citizen Corps, 2002, ¶ 2) However, local agencies were not given enough guidance on how, specifically, to meet this objective, nor was a process in place to facilitate cross-jurisdictional coordination. As the program as evolved, many councils have created their own answers and solutions. To move forward, the program should solicit best practices from successful local councils and share these recipes for success with the country.

The third objective is for "these Councils [to] be broad-based [and include] leaders from law enforcement, fire and emergency medical services, businesses, community-based institutions, schools, places of worship, health care facilities, public works and other key community sectors." (Fact Sheet: USA Freedom Corps-Citizen Corps, 2002, ¶ 3) The fourth objective is the establishment of a budget and finances to form and train local councils. Initial funding was provided to purchase training equipment and supplies but it could not be used for promotional material. When a major function of the local councils is to recruit individuals to volunteer their time, promotion and marketing must be a major focus, but without funding, it was difficult. Funding has all but dried up in the past couple years, so continuing these programs will be a challenge that will require assistance from the community and local public and private entities.

The fifth objective is for "volunteers [to] be able to participate in a variety of programs that match their skills and abilities." (Fact Sheet: USA Freedom Corps-Citizen Corps, 2002, ¶ 5) These programs initially were comprised of Volunteers in Police Service (VIPS), Medical Reserve Corps (MRC), Operation TIPS (Terrorist Information and Prevention System), Community Emergency Response Teams (CERT), and Neighborhood Watch Programs. A few other programs have come and gone since the beginning (i.e. Fire Corps). Nationally and locally, the two most successful programs have been CERT and Neighborhood Watch. Both of these programs were already in place and successful before September 11, 2001.

Policy Pros and Cons

Three positive aspects of this policy include: More volunteers available to assist response agencies in times of disaster, more volunteers available to assist public agencies in daily community assistance roles, and having a more involved and prepared community. As a primary result of having community members available to help themselves and their neighbors in a disaster, lives can be saved and property damage limited. This has been a great success and should be the driving factor for this policy. Less burden on emergency services in a disaster will allow those in need to get more help in those first 3-5 days. Additionally, in a day-to-day scenario, public entities are often overworked and have too little staff to accomplish their mission. These volunteers can be recruited to help with safety fairs, flu shot clinics, etc.

Three negative aspects of this policy include: Little federal involvement, assistance, or guidance was provided to the local level, no common approach has been identified as successful and dispersed throughout the nation, and often much more questions were generated by potential volunteers than answers were available to be given. Once President Bush requested every citizen to dedicate 4,000 hours, little else was heard from the Whitehouse to promote the program or lay a foundation that each community could work from to modify to their needs. As a result, many

questions were being asked by volunteers that could not be answered on the local level. Often, answers did not even exist at the state or federal level. A couple prime examples include liability and licensure reciprocity. These finally became apparent in the national media during the response to hurricanes Katrina and Rita. If someone gets sick because they were allergic to food that was served to them in a shelter, can the volunteer that prepared or served the food be sued? A hospital badly needs more nurses and physicians to care for a surge of patients. Can medical professionals licensed in another state help?

Policy Research

Research

Extensive information and research has been available for disaster response and volunteerism for several years. Finding many opinions and articles about disaster preparedness at the community level for citizens has proven more difficult. As programs such as Citizen Corps and Community Emergency Response Teams (CERT) are only a few years old at the national level, many changes are occurring and these programs are evolving. Much research includes official documentation from each program and from experiences at the local level attempting to implement community preparedness programs.

Much of the official documentation is available on program websites such as www.citizencorps.gov and www.ready.gov. This documentation is typically geared towards community members wanting to know more about how to be prepared for emergencies or disasters. Some information has been obtained through documents received at train-the-trainer courses designed to prepare community leaders to conduct trainings such as CERT or awareness activities such as Neighborhood Watch. First-hand knowledge from conducting such trainings and organizing community teams is also invaluable research information. Additionally, survey results and interviews with emergency management directors also provide insight into the public policy and its results.

Role of Policy Research

Since community preparedness and volunteer programs are being propagated at the national level to prepare the nation, local results and experiences do not provide enough information to make informed decisions or even understand the possible options. Attending state and national conferences goes a long way to seeing the national picture and getting ideas to make local policies more effective. However, contacts made at such event allow policy analysts the ability to discuss specific topics and conduct a comparative analysis between similar or dissimilar communities to determine what works and what does not work. Communities and citizens differ from area to area. A program that works very well in a neighboring county may face difficulty and opposition in your jurisdiction. Being able to discuss causes of success and failure with program leaders from many areas is key to diagnosing problems and inventing effective solutions.

Many coalitions, such as one discussed in Creating a better prepared America (Anonymous, 2002) have started surfacing around the nation. These groups utilize these networks of individuals to create best practices lists. Additionally, the ability to share not only successes but problems can be valuable to get feedback from peers that may have encountered a similar situation or have advice on techniques to try. Managing volunteers and convincing

everyday people to take time out of their busy schedules to train for something that may never happen is a difficult task and input from everyone can make these programs more successful.

Implementation Decision

The decision at the national level to implement community preparedness policies are not as transparent or available to analyze as the local level. However, the need for a prepared America after September 11, 2000 was painfully apparent. "Some disaster experts say the United States still lacks an overall strategy for effectively responding to natural disasters," (Friel & Singer, 2005, p. 44) but placing more emphasis on personal responsibility in preparing for disasters has moved the nation in a positive direction. Putting a fire truck and police car on every city block and square mile of rural America was obviously not a solution. The CERT program had has significant success in California after the 1993 earthquake. Thousands of civilians had been trained to make their homes and communities more earthquake resistant. These civilians had also been trained how to protect their families and even check on and save their neighbors from rubble after an earthquake. With some additions for a more all-hazards response, CERT was added to several other programs to create Citizens Corps.

At the local level, the implementation decision was based more on available resources and willing personnel in the beginning. The need was not the driving factor for most communities, but having a dedicated and enthusiastic program leader was imperative. Funding was available, so the initial barrier for local policy makers was just to get the ball rolling and finding someone to keep the ball rolling and moving in the right direction. After implementation, the decision to maintain and continue the policy shifted to be more based on the community response and involvement. Programs that fell flat saw less support than those that were taken advantage of by the public.

Need for Political Support

"To ensure an efficient and effective response to disaster situations, communities must be prepared at all levels." (Davies, 2005, p. 868) These levels include many that are political in nature. In fact, in Missouri, the ultimate responsibility for disaster operations and response rests with the senior elected official of each jurisdiction. Davies (2005) continues to state that "in order that the optimum response to a disaster situation is forthcoming, planning must take place that ensures the appropriate response across the service spectrum, including voluntary organizations." (p. 868) So, not only is political support and involvement critical when a disaster occurs, but these political offices and agencies are just as critical in planning and preparedness efforts. As stated above, President Bush made a public statement in 2002 to encourage Americans to volunteer. This resulted in many Americans coming to local agencies to do just that. However, these officials, from the President to each mayor, must continue the message to ensure the United States is prepared for disaster.

Coalitions discussed earlier to bring program leaders together also need to happen on a smaller scale in each community. One example cited in The Nation's Health (2002) discusses a community group meeting in California: "The meeting was especially significant because it brought together professionals who may not regularly work together, yet play a role in preparedness and response." (p. 3) Group leaders from fire departments, law enforcement, emergency medical services, public health, volunteer agencies, and community groups are essential to implement a successful public policy on community preparedness.

Balance of Competing Interests

The federal government's typical solution to a problem is to throw money at it and hope it solves itself. Free and low-cost programs that are voluntary in nature do not require a lot of money, but they do require consistency and significant support from all levels of society. Many states and local agencies found themselves in trouble after accepting Citizen Corps funding but could not find where to spend it. Funding has dropped significantly in the past couple years and many of these programs are, again, bootstrap groups. There was also some friction when CERT groups started forming (especially on the East coast) as professional emergency service organizations were fearful civilians would be injured trying to perform rescues in non-disaster scenarios. After some education to professionals and civilians these issues have subsided as they both understand CERT groups are only to be used in the front line when there are not professional services available such as a large-scale disaster.

Katrina Allen (2006) warned elected officials and emergency management directors against treating community preparedness efforts as the ultimate solution to disaster management problems. Community disaster training and response teams should be an added tool to the toolbox for disaster response. Agencies must still be coordinated, resources procured and tracked, and recovery activities initiated.

Policy Implementation and Evaluation

Policy Design

As stated above, the desired results of the community preparedness policy was "to foster a culture of responsibility, service, and citizenship by promoting, expanding, and enhancing public service opportunities for all Americans." (Establishing the USA Freedom Corps, 2002, ¶ 1) As designed, this policy was designed correctly to produce these desired results. The assumption was made that if processes and tools were made available, people who wanted to volunteer but did not know where or how, would do so utilizing these programs. Without a volunteerism culture, America could not function, so the design fault comes in with theses developed processes. A key to fostering a focus on results is strong internal communication (Moynihan & Pandey, 2006). These programs must be coordinated locally, regionally, statewide, and nationally. Communication through all these levels is marginal at best. A component should be added to the policy that facilitates and encourages communication among peers and between levels. Local agencies from around the country could share success stories, problems, and best practices in course makeup, volunteer recruitment, volunteer retention, etc. The federal and state governments could share funding and training opportunities and the locals could share their needs, requests for information, and concerns.

Effect on Stakeholders

There are dozens of local stakeholders that have been and will be affected by the community preparedness policy. Two basic types of organizations and stakeholders are represented: agencies that currently utilize volunteers and/or provide disaster preparedness training and agencies that have not traditionally utilized volunteers and/or have not provided disaster preparedness training. Groups such as Salvation Army, hospital volunteers, and volunteer fire departments have intimate knowledge of volunteerism and many have been in the disaster preparedness business since before September 11, 20001. Other groups such as local public health agencies, emergency management, and law enforcement have had limited to no

exposure (depending on location and progressiveness) to volunteers or disaster preparedness. Those groups utilizing volunteers had mixed emotions about the policy such as: "All these new volunteers will be great." or "Will these new programs try to take our volunteers or at least take over managing them?" Groups not utilizing volunteers also had mixed emotions from anxiously waiting for help in the form of volunteers to being fearful of taking on the project for various reasons such as limited staff to find a volunteer coordinator to not knowing what will happen when the funding dries up.

Specifically, in public health, obstacles were already in place because, "since their inception in 1965, community health centers have thrived against tough odds, including patchwork funding, an unpredictable public policy environment, and a volatile healthcare marketplace." (Hunt, 2005, p. 340) Similar affects where felt by many stakeholders. A potential way to mitigate the negative affects is for more state- and federal-level participation and the ability to share resources and problems across a region instead of having to come up with everything and deal with all the issues within a county.

Policy Utilization

As with all policies, the community preparedness policy has both positive and negative factors that influence its utilization. Some positive factors include: 1) Since September 11, 2001, Americans have had a renewed interest in nationalism and patriotism. 2) Volunteerism is alive and strong in America in everything from soup kitchens to home healthcare. 3) Many Americans believe community and disaster preparedness are important because "it could happen, and some are certain that it will: another catastrophic attack on an American city; another day of horror and heartbreak." (Lieberman, 2004, p. 24)

Some negative factors include: 1) Today's high-tech and highly mobile culture makes people think they do not have the time to dedicate to another group. To mitigate this factor, many Citizen Corps are utilizing websites and other high-tech services to reach these individuals. 2) Many people have believe that "it will never happen to me." To mitigate this factor, the entire policy should be geared towards more common disasters such as flooding, power outages, etc. 3) There does exist some resentment and/or suspicion of the bureaucratic federal government. For example, just recently, "the CDC released new guidance on community planning strategies that state and local community decision makers, as well as individuals, need to consider based on the severity of an influenza pandemic." (Anonymous, 2007, p. 11) New guidance such as this is typical of the federal government that makes locals leery to dedicate much time to such a dynamic problem and leads to the thinking that it will never be solved, so why waste time on it. To mitigate this factor, the new guidance documents should build on existing information and each federal agency should discuss new documents extensively prior to release.

Competing Interest Balance

To learn from Nature, one must learn to balance. There are always competing interests and issues that must be balanced to find the best solution. Emergency response agencies needed two things to most efficiently respond to future disasters: more personnel and less immediate calls for service. Many policy makers and national organizations were pressing for a volunteer program to train civilians to be emergency responders in the case of a disaster. The thought training for these volunteers should revolve around basic response actions to be part of larger teams to be deployed into the field to supplement traditional emergency services such as police and fire departments.

Other policy makers and national organizations were pressing for individuals, families, businesses, and communities that were prepared for disaster. Some felt if more of the nation were ready, the need for emergency services would be lowered while others felt traditional emergency responders should not be supplemented due to liabilities, fear of replacement, etc. Statements were released in all disciplines, such as: "Enhanced capacity to respond to disasters and other public health emergencies will require a nursing workforce that is clinically experienced and possesses the knowledge and skills necessary to respond with confidence and authority." (Veenema, 2006, p. 93) In the end, however, both sides were balanced by allowing a modular approach where jurisdictions could embrace disaster response teams or disaster preparedness. This solution proved flexible and the best of both worlds.

Financial Overview

Expenditures, Expenses, and Encumbrances

Expenditures, expenses, and encumbrances are similar in that they all describe spending money on a project. Encumbrances record the estimated cost associated with purchase orders or contracts that can be charged to a specific fund. These encumbrances can be recorded once the amount is known and before the money is actually spent or paid. Expenses record the cost associated with operation, maintenance, interest, or other fees that are administrative in nature and not charged to only one specific fund. These expenses can be recorded once the amount is known and before the money is actually spent or paid. Expenditures record the cost of expenses, debt retirement (when not reported as a liability), and capital expenses. These expenditures can be recorded once the amount is known and before the money is actually spent or paid if using the accrual basis, but if using the cash basis, it is recorded only after the money is spent. Expenses can be expenditures, but encumbrances cannot be expenditures. (Wilson & Kattelus, 2002)

Examples of encumbrances used in fulfilling the disaster preparedness policy are training equipment contracts with companies that refill fire extinguishers and propane tanks used for public fire extinguisher training. Examples of expenses used in fulfilling the disaster preparedness policy are vehicle maintenance and incidental copying of documents to facilitate the program administration. An example of expenditures used in fulfilling the disaster preparedness policy is the initial purchase of the trailer to store and transport materials used in training and volunteer activities.

Capital Project, General, and Proprietary Funds

Governments utilize fund accounting to more easily maintain records for different activities and projects as funding sources can be numerous with specific requirements. There are three general types of funds: Capital project, general, and proprietary funds. Capital funds are used to track income and expenses for the construction or purchase of capital assets such as buildings and vehicles. General funds are used to track income and expenses for administrative and operational activities such as human resources and shared utility bills. There are two types of proprietary funds: Enterprise and internal service funds. Enterprise funds are used to track income and expenses for services and products "sold" outside the agency such as fees for service like water bills. Internal service funds are used to track income and expenses for services and products "sold" within the agency from one department to another such as the use of equipment and personnel from one department to accomplish the goals or mission of another. (Wilson & Kattelus, 2002)

The utilization of these types of funds is useful and necessary for government accounting for several reasons. Capital projects are often defined as projects or properties that will last longer than ten years. Such projects are often very costly and involve many steps and resources to complete. Many budgets and funds are based on an annual cycle, therefore, mixing the monies for short- and long-term projects could be complicated and could negatively impact either project. As with any organization with multiple missions and requirements, there must be oversight and combined resources to manage the entity effectively and efficiently. Rather than each department having its own copy machine that is not utilized effectively, it makes much more sense for the departments to share one machine, for example. Without a general fund, the copy machine costs would have to be divided among each group or absorbed by one. An example of the need for enterprise funds is the use of water bills to offset the cost of maintaining a water supply system to a municipality. Those that use the system the most should pay the most, but without an enterprise fund, the money collected from water bills would not be easily tracked to be utilized by the water department alone. An example of the need for internal service funds also involves the water department. The fire department assists the water department in the middle of the night by supplying lights while a large water main break is being repaired. The costs associated with the fire personnel and equipment must be absorbed by either the fire department or the water department. Without an internal service fund, there would be no way for the fire department to charge the water department for those services which should be paid for by funds to maintain the water supply.

Budget Analysis

Statement number one of governmental accounting and financial reporting principles identified the following three budgeting principles: "[1.] An annual budget should be adopted by every governmental unit. [2.] The accounting system should provide the basis for appropriate budgetary control. [3.] Budgetary comparisons should be included in the appropriate financial statements and schedules for governmental funds for which an annual budget has been adopted." (Johnson, 1985, p. 46)

Revenue Sources

Wilson and Kattelus (2002) identify several main revenue sources: Taxes, charges for services, special assessments, fines and forfeits, licenses and permits, miscellaneous revenues, and intergovernmental revenues. Each source has an impact on taxpayers. Taxes have significant impact because they are the largest form of revenue for governments and incur the greatest cost to taxpayers. Additionally, taxpayers (by definition) must pay taxes no matter if they approve or disapprove of them. Charges for service may impact a taxpayer if they are the recipient of government-supplied services in which there is a fee (such as water bills). Special assessments may only impact certain taxpayers if they are defined as being within the group that has extra taxes being levied against them for a specific service. An example would be a subdivision outside city limits that requests fire and police services from the city. This subdivision pays special assessments for these services. Another revenue source that does not affect all taxpayers is fines and forfeits. These are levied against law breakers or those that forfeit bonds. Dog licenses, liquor licenses, and building permits are examples of licenses and permits that will impact those taxpayers that require those additional privileges from the government.

Budgetary Levels

Budgetary levels are those levels within the agency that are the organizational level for budget items. These levels might include agency level (items are utilized throughout the agency), department level (items are utilized within only one department), or program level (items are utilized by only one program). Disaster preparedness funds are appropriated and budgeted at the program level. The significant advantage of this classification is that an entire department is not responsible for their utilization. Additionally, several activities in the disaster preparedness project are multi-departmental; therefore, the budget can facilitate these cooperative activities without having multiple budgets for each department.

Long-Range and Short-Range Spending Plans

Long-range spending plans are typically defined as being longer than one year whereas short-range plans are within one year. Disaster preparedness spending plans are typically very general in the long-range as funding is volatile and community participation is finicky. Where funding for this policy is grant-based with annual deliverables, spending plans are mostly short-range. For example, the current short-range spending plan is public disaster education through community trainings where last year's short-range spending plan was volunteer recruitment through marketing campaigns. The impact on citizens is that there is always some new approach or emphasis. The positive side is that new groups are targeted and exposed to the policy. The negative side is that many community members may not jump on the first attempt. For example, if a large volunteer recruitment campaign is held during fire prevention week in October, the first year may not yield many new volunteers, but subsequent years would yield more through word-of-mouth and remember previous years. If short-range spending plans vary so much by not using funds for the same event year after year, these increased yields will not be realized.

Program Appropriations

An appropriation is "an authorization granted by a legislative body to incur liabilities for [specific] purposes. An appropriation is usually limited in amount and as to the time when it may be expended." (Wilson & Kattelus, 2002, p. 682) The disaster preparedness policy required each community wishing to utilize federal funds to create a Citizens Corps Council to manage the activities and funds. Many communities utilized their existing Local Emergency Planning Committees (LEPC) to act as Citizen Corps Councils. Some communities created new councils. The author's community utilized a committee already established called Volunteer Organizations Active in Disasters (VOAD). In many cases, these committees manage disaster preparedness funds that are actually held by emergency management agencies. The author's VOAD is the oversight committee for funds held by the local public health agency. The VOAD already extensively utilizes volunteers such as Salvation Army, Hospital Volunteers, and similar organizations. Therefore, such a group is familiar with volunteers and be more effective in program oversight and have a better impact on the citizens. The health department already had several programs in place utilizing volunteers and distributing public information and disaster preparedness campaigns. Citizens were already used to hearing preparedness information from the health department and trusted that agency, so it was utilized to increase the impact of the disaster preparedness policy.

Translation of Public Policy into Spending Plans

President Bush laid out some specific long-range goals that were specifically translated into long-range spending plans at the federal level. These plans included creating agencies such as Citizens Corps and programs such as Community Emergency Response Training (CERT). The determination of these spending plans at the federal level came by way of decisions that would increase America's preparedness at the local and community level. Certain programs were built upon to strengthen them and point them towards a common goal while others were created from scratch. Short-range spending plans were mostly created at the state level with grant administrators. These individuals and groups, usually within state emergency management agencies, were given federal grants to be dispersed within the state to meet the goals of the policy. Some decisions that were critical included creating a program that would be run at the county level but would be similar across the state and nation and creating a program that would be self-sustaining as the federal policy dollars would be diverted to other activities within a few years.

Funding Choices

Revenue Sources

The disaster preparedness policy is a federal policy and request for citizens across the county to volunteer their time and to become more prepared for disasters. Federal funds have been dedicated for disaster preparedness programs throughout America. Each state has been given the directive to oversee these programs within their state. Accordingly, a majority of federal funds have also been funneled to the state level to implement and support these programs. Of course, there is some federal use of funds and creation of oversight organizations for some of these programs. In Missouri, many of these programs have been distributed among state departments and agencies. Some examples include: Weapons of Mass Destruction (WMD) Response Teams have been created around the state and overseen by a committee of law enforcement, fire department, and emergency medical professionals. Bioterrorism preparedness and response efforts are being coordinated by the State Department of Health and Senior Services. Mass care issues are being coordinated by the State Department of Social Services – Family Support Division. The specific program explored in this paper is supported at the federal level by Citizen's Corps and coordinated at the state level by the State Emergency Management Agency (SEMA). Citizen Corps activities at the local level are funded through state grants to each county. The local agent differs from county to county and is identified by the county emergency management director. In Polk County, Missouri, the local coordinating agency for Citizen Corps activities is the Local Public Health Agency: Polk County Health Center.

For 2006, the State Emergency Management Agency operated on a $177 million budget (Division of Budget and Planning, 2007). Large portions of this budget were federal funds that were passed directly to the local governments and agencies supporting emergency preparedness and response activities. The 2006 Citizen Corps funds passed through SEMA totaled $116,000 ($1,000 per county). These state grants were for training equipment and marketing activities to recruit volunteers. This $1,000 is only a small portion of the $1.3 million budget for the Polk County Health Center (Robertson, 2007). All of these funds are government funds rather than proprietary or fiduciary. According to Wilson and Kattelus (2002), governmental funds are used for the benefit of the citizenry and include general revenue, administrative, and special funds. Fiduciary funds are handled by the government on behalf of another agency or individual such as a trust or employee benefit funds. Proprietary funds can be either enterprise funds (the public

pays a fee to pay for products or services) or internal service funds (income and expenses incurred between departments within the government).

Revenue Restrictions

As with almost every grant, there are special restrictions on the use of the money. Citizen Corps grants from the federal government to state agencies are no exception. Some restrictions at this level include the maximum administrative cost and use at the state level. Additional restrictions are placed on the funds when they are passed to the local level. These are usually tactical, such as what the money cannot be spent on (such as purchase of vehicles or brick-and-mortar projects). Citizen Corps grants in Missouri are of the reimbursement type – the money must be spent by the locals and receipts or invoices along with check numbers must be returned to SEMA for reimbursement. If these purchases are not within guidance documents, the reimbursement is denied.

Many times, these funds can be used for almost anything if the correct terms and descriptions are used. A primary example from the 2006 grant period in Polk County includes payment to instructors of disaster preparedness courses. When the grant was applied for, $10 per instructor, per course was included to reimburse those instructors for their expenses such as copies and travel costs. When reimbursement was requested for the instructors, it was described as instructor fees and was denied because payroll and personnel fees were not allowed. However, when the reimbursement was re-requested, the description was changed to instructor expenses reimbursement it was approved. The purpose of the grant funds were to recruit volunteers and train the general population on disaster preparation, and the grant administrators felt these goals could be accomplished without hiring anyone at the local level, thus that restriction was placed on the grant funds.

Effects of Public Policy

The previous example illustrates how public policy can affect the management of revenues. The policy to ask Americans to serve as volunteers demonstrates the inability of the government to pay everyone to perform these duties to ensure a more prepared nation. Therefore, even management of these activities, at the local level, must be done on a voluntary basis, as state funds cannot be used. Having the funds distributed by the federal government and managed by the state government allows for similar programs across the United States. A citizen that participates in Community Emergency Response Team (CERT) training in California could come to Missouri, be very familiar with the same terminology, and have similar qualifications as a citizen that participated in Missouri CERT training. The negative side of having these funds filter through so many levels of government is a slice of the money is taken at each level for administrative costs. Additionally, the money is not distributed in a timely fashion or consistently from year to year.

Economic Conditions

As the World Trade Center attacks moves farther from current events, preparedness funding becomes more and more competitive. By the very nature of disasters, terrorism, and national mass media, long-term revenue projections are difficult. Disasters will occur every year, but the response by the public and national media have a significant impact on funding. As more focus was shifted to Iraq and the fear of WMD threats, Citizen Corps lost emphasis along with its funding. Last year's hurricane season, specifically the New Orleans disaster, did raise awareness

of the benefits of personal and family preparedness and probably postponed the termination of Citizen Corps funding.

Revenue Policy

Recent disasters in the local community of Polk County, Missouri such as December 2006 ice storm, July 2007 drought, and August 2007 flooding have illustrated to many local citizens that all disasters are local disasters. Many people thought previously that if they needed help, the government or National Guard or someone else would come to help them. After about two weeks without power in Southwest Missouri in December 2006, many local citizens realize they must fend for themselves for at least the first 72 hours after a disaster. Polk County is mostly rural and suburban which lends itself to having strong self-reliance values.

A revenue policy for disaster preparedness should include these self-reliance values. Previous federal and state funds allowed purchase of most of the needed training and response equipment, including a trailer for storage and transportation. Primary needs for funds include upkeep and maintenance, such as extinguisher refills, propane, photocopying, etc. These are minor costs and could easily be shared by all agencies benefiting from the generated volunteers. These agencies include Polk County Health Center, Polk County Emergency Management, local volunteer fire departments, Bolivar Police Department, Citizen's Memorial Hospital, and Salvation Army. A small, annual budget item by each agency of $100-$200 should be more than enough to sustain Citizen Corps activities. This policy will ensure continued progress no matter the national focus or available federal funds to ensure the citizens of Polk County are prepared for disasters.

<div align="center">Economic Development Implications</div>

Enterprise Zones

An enterprise zone is an area identified by local or state government as an area needing additional incentives to invite businesses to expand and hire employees there. Incentives provided to businesses in enterprise zones can include tax breaks and regulatory exceptions. Enterprise zones are generally identified in economically depressed areas that need more businesses and jobs. The purpose is to make these regions more appealing to organizations wishing to expand or relocate. "The designation of enterprise zones has been touted as an effective tool in efforts to reduce poverty, but scant evidence exists to support this." (Couch, Atkinson, & Smith, 2005, p. 255) However, a study by Bostic & Prohofsky (2006) revealed that participation in an enterprise zone "has a positive impact on both wages and adjusted gross income of enterprise zone participants." (p. 175) Additionally, they show that these benefits are greater for citizens well below the poverty level

The state of Missouri has identified 66 enterprise zones throughout the state and call them enhanced enterprise zones as they are phasing out the old enterprise zone system. The purpose is to provide state tax credits to new or expanding businesses in these zones. To be eligible, a business must employ at least two new employees and invest at least $100,000 within the zone. These tax credits may be received for one to five years and eligible investment expenditures include cost of the building, land, machinery, furniture, etc. Expenditures not eligible include inventory, supplies, or salary. (Enhanced Enterprise Zone)

"Creating and retaining new jobs is a priority for the City of Springfield and its economic development partners." (City of Springfield Department of Planning and Development, ¶ 1) To that end, portions of Springfield, located in southwest Missouri, gained enhanced enterprise zone

designation on July 20, 2005. The Springfield zone comprises 68 square miles of incorperated and unicorperated land and has higher than average unemployment. "The purpose of the zone is to stimulate business investments and promote the creation of jobs." (City of Springfield Department of Planning and Development, ¶ 2) According to a brochure produced by the City of Springfield, during a period between 1984 and 2004 the Springfield enterprise zone saw the creation of 6,340 new jobs and an added investment of $485.5 million. The City of Springfield Planning and Development Department and a five-member board administer the new enhanced enterprise zone in Springfield. (City of Springfield Department of Planning and Development)

A smaller community to the north of Springfield, Bolivar, has utilized a local enterprise zone within its industrial complex to entice new business to the region. Eligible businesses must create 50 new jobs within the first year. Incentives include cheap land leases (as the City owns the land) and a waiver on building permit fees. This program began in 2000 and has had two success stories. The first is Duck Creek Technologies, which now has 150 employees and is headquartered in Bolivar where it manages offices in Connecticut, South Carolina, and Europe. The second success is Simon Square, which is currently under construction and includes a shopping mall, municipal building, residential community, and other infrastructure.

Economic Development

Emergency preparedness is probably most critical for those living paycheck-to-paycheck and are near or under the poverty line. This group is barely making ends meet and when disaster or emergency strike, they have no reserve or savings account to make emergency purchases or have a stockpile of provisions to survive any length of time without work or access to assistance. To compound the problem, this group is also least likely to be able to volunteer their time to learn how to be more prepared. Enterprise zones can help the whole community become more prepared by simply improving family income and providing more structure and stability.

A few negative implications can arise because of enterprise zones. First, many new businesses look to hire cheap labor, which is understandable. However, if the new jobs come from labor pools outside the community, at least in part, the cumulative number of low-income families could increase in the community instead of decrease. Another downside can be found in the Simon Square development in Bolivar where it plans to hire about 60 people (most are minimum wage) when it opens but for the first 10 years it will not pay any property tax. Local governments providing services to prepare and protect those new families that need the assistance most are not getting any new funding.

Cost-Benefit Analysis

Every decision should include a cost-benefit analysis. There are pros, cons, repercussions, and consequences to every option. Economic development, such as enterprise zones can have a profound and lasting impact on the community. Costs to be considered should include: How much revenue will the local government loose through tax incentives? What will be the cost to implement the incentive (marketing, research, etc.)? What will be the cost each time a business takes advantage of the incentive (permits, water, sewer, etc.)? What will be the cost to maintain these incentives (inspections, added call volume for emergency services, utilities, etc.)? Benefits to be considered should include: How many more jobs will the incentive create? How much more revenue will be generated by supplemental commerce (shopping, home building, etc.)? When the incentive period expires, how much income will be recouped (taxes, fees, etc.)?

There are, however, limits to the cost-benefit analysis. Not all attributes of each choice can be assigned a numerical value or cost. If they can be assigned a value, those values may not be able to be compared. For example: If the introduction of an enterprise zone will produce 50 new jobs per year, a decision-maker cannot be sure those jobs are going to improve the area by boosting family income or improved sales at local businesses. Additionally, many enterprise zone incentives are long-lived (five or ten years) and the local and national economy in ten years is impossible to predict, so those long-range benefits can only be estimated.

Development Incentives

As illustrated in the State of Missouri, Springfield region, and the City of Bolivar, there are several incentive programs in place for developers. Most of these programs include a waiver that frees the developer from having to pay or do something his/her competitors have to do if they do not locate within the enterprise zone or other incentive district. Primary examples are fewer taxes and less building costs (land, permits, etc.). Some of these incentives cost the jurisdiction little but have significant impact, such as leasing land exemptions from building fees and permits. If the jurisdiction has procured property for the use of an industrial park, for example, the initial cost may have been incurred decades ago and that land may be loaned quite easily without cost to the jurisdiction but can save business a lot of money in start-up costs. A drawback to leasing land is potential cleanup costs if a business folds and has polluted it. There is also a physical limit to the amount of land available for such a program. If the first business along only generates 50 jobs and takes the land, the next business wants the same deal and can provide 200 jobs, there is less incentives the jurisdiction can provide.

The building permit fee and process can be quite an obstacle for a large construction process in most jurisdictions. Waiving or reducing those processes can mean little to no loss of income or increased expense to a jurisdiction. However, instead of a six-month wait time for construction documents, it could be closer to three to four months. The obvious drawback is the permit and plan-review process are vital to ensure safe buildings and processes. The addition of 50 new jobs may not be such a benefit if those jobs are not as safe as they could be. Future maintenance costs and costs to city services (police, fire, ambulance, etc.) may also offset these incentives.

Ethical Consequences

Almost every decision has an ethical component. The most important and most difficult part of an elected official's job is grappling with ethical decisions. Voters cannot share their values on every issue with the current democratic system, so they put their faith in those officials they elected to make those decisions on their behalf with the community's best interest in mind. Questions about fairness can easily surface if an incentive program is not fully thought-out and documented. Why did Company A not have to pay taxes and Company B did? Having a fully formed and published requirement list and eligibility protocol will curb many problems. However, there may be circumstances not covered by these ordinances. This is when decision-makers must consult the intent of the program and consider what their constituents would want them to do.

If these decisions are taken lightly and not fully transparent, problems could easily arise that could threaten both the official and the program. Even if the decision was ethically sound, if it is not fully communicated, misinformation and rumor could be worse than making the wrong decision. An example might include a business owner that is related to an elected official that

takes advantage of development incentives. If the entire process is not transparent, competitors and community members may think there is favoritism and nepotism. A perfectly effective and positive program to bring new businesses to a depressed area could have its image damaged beyond repair by such an issue.

Public Sector Leadership Skills

Problem Solving

There are two basic approaches to problem solving instituted by leaders. The first is rational problem solving and is a step-by-step process that is based on logic. The process usually involves identifying the problem, analyzing relevant data, selecting the best solution, implementation of the solution, and review of the solutions effectiveness. The other approach is non-rational problem solving. This method utilizes intuition and a more democratic approach to solicit ideas and input from anyone available. Non-rational processes typically chop big problems into smaller, bite-size portions that can be solved at each step. The final result is a more organic system with a better fit, but may not be coordinated on a larger scale. In 1973, Henry Mintzberg did a large study of managers and found that in a vast majority of cases and with most managers, rational problem-solving was rarely used. "Instead, they take immediate action, groping their way toward a solution through trial and error." (Menkes, 2006, p. 51) Solutions are typically determined without first, trying to understand what the actual problem is. Table 1 illustrates some differences between the two approaches during different steps of the process.

Problem-Solving Stage	Rational Approach	Non-Rational Approach
Is there a problem?	Identify the problem.	Problem becomes apparent.
What conditions must be met to be considered a solution?	Individual or small group identifies specific objectives.	Solicit goals and interests from employees.
What are the components of the problem?	Formal problem analysis.	Discussion to elaborate on specifics of the problem.
How can the problem be solved?	Individual or small group generates a list of solutions.	Brainstorming session of anyone involved to create a list of plausible solutions.
Which solution is best?	Evaluation of the solution list is done to produce the optimal alternative.	Compromising discussion is held to determine the most acceptable solution.

Table 1: Comparison of rational and non-rational problem-solving approaches. (Rusaw, 2001)

Many problems arising with training and organizing volunteers happen unexpectedly. Therefore the non-rational approach is usually used by these managers. This approach is also fairly successful as the group to be managed is organic and dynamic. Additionally, groups of volunteers must feel empowered and like to think their input and time is appreciated and necessary. Certain programmatic problems should be handled rationally, however, personnel issues can be handled very effectively using the non-rational approach.

Decision-Making

"Managers must know a great deal about the industry and social environment in which they work and the decision-making process itself to make decisions well." (Simon, 1987, p. 57) Likewise, subordinates and volunteers must be knowledgeable of the decision-making process to participate efficiently. Each organization has individuals that participate almost too much and

each organization also has individuals (probably several individuals) that do not participate enough. If the process is explained and transparent, those with a lot of input can see the results and do not duplicate an existing process and those with just a little input can see where and when that input will be received and utilized best.

A healthy volunteer program will meet as many of the volunteer's needs as possible while still moving in the direction the mission projects. Local community preparedness policy leaders need to consistently solve problems and make decisions based on the greater good. To that end, open and timely communication with all parties involved is essential.

Innovative Practices

Two techniques are illustrated by Rusaw (2001), the Delphi Technique and the Nominal Group Technique. An anonymous panel of experts is used in the Delphi Technique to evaluate complex problems and suggest innovative solutions. The panel submits ideas anonymously and the leader collects and distributes these ideas and facilitates an anonymous discussion to narrow the possibilities to suggest a solution. The Nominal Group Technique is started by a group of individuals each creating their own list of problem solutions. These lists are ranked by each group member and compiled. This process of voting and ranking may see several revolutions, and in the end, the highest ranked solutions are presented.

During start-up stages, a community preparedness program should utilize a variation on the Delphi Technique to bring together experts in the community to rationally explore problems and come up with innovative solutions. Once the program is running and a group of volunteers has started dedicating time and energy, future problems can be addressed by something similar to the Nominal Group Technique. Again, innovative and organic solutions can be found in addition to consensus and buy-in by the volunteers will be accomplished.

Innovative Leadership Styles

Four innovative leadership roles identified in the textbook (Rusaw, 2001) include proactive change agent, power broker, resource finder, and champion-negotiator. Being a proactive change agent is the ability to see the root of a problem and take steps to make change before the problem becomes severe and a reaction must be made. Hectic lives and jobs make this difficult as leaders are barely keeping up just handling daily issues but one must find and make time to look ahead and diagnose issues. True leaders also must be power brokers. These individuals not only respect and follow formal power structures but the informal methods to get things done. Picking winnable battles is an essential trait for a progressive leader. A resource finder can accomplish more tasks because they tend to see the glass half full because they know who to contact and where to find more to fill the glass when needed. Instead of concentrating on the lack of resources and the limits on the organization, these leaders utilize what they have and go find what they need. Working with volunteers, one of the most important roles is a champion-negotiator. Every individual has ideas and thoughts that should be listened to and appreciated. More importantly, the individual must know their ideas and thoughts are heard and appreciated.

Speaking of business and the private sector, Koprowski (1967) indicated that each leader should be given the latitude to "develop his[/her] potential for innovative leadership." (p. 79) Team and project leaders are not automatically good managers. A mentor program and leadership examples should be developed for these individuals to improve their skills. Community preparedness programs, often, only have one or two participants that are compensated for their time, so volunteers not only make up the rank and file, but also leaders and

managers of other volunteers and programs. These added responsibilities should be rewarded by some specific training to ensure success of these individuals and the program as a whole.

Ethical Leadership

Recent and historic instances illustrate that unethical behavior and leadership can easily result in organizational failure. The positive influence of ethical leadership can also be felt, but is not nearly as newsworthy. "There is much we can learn about the nature of ethical leadership and its relationship to public organizational effectiveness." (Pops, 2006, p. 165) Any management of people has ethical implications, especially when these people are giving their free time to help the community, have broad backgrounds, and little to no experience working together. A manager of a volunteer program finds quickly that very little time is actually spent in the management of the program; most of it is spent in the management of the volunteers.

Leaders without experience in this environment can easily fall into ethical dilemmas. Families, "we don't have to be here" attitudes, and competing interests all fall into play in this environment. Trained and experienced leaders of volunteers are required to be part of the program to implement qualities such as democratic philosophy, commitment to learning and change, stewardship of resources, and moral sensitivity and courage.

Conclusion

The President Bush Administration charged every American to serve their country by giving 4,000 hours of volunteer time to be better prepared for disaster. This policy directly impacted local governments by charging them with creating an avenue for these volunteers and also rewarded local agencies when Americans started volunteering their time. Even though, many methods were tried and failed, the overall result has been a more prepared country, but there is a long way to go towards the goal.

Such a significant policy must be researched and local need and resources evaluated before implementation. During implementation and throughout the life of these programs, support from political entities and offices is critical to their success. All policies have competing interests, but preparing America and all communities for disasters easily outweighs most opponents and is an excellent endeavor to strive for.

Such a significant desired result must require an in-depth design process and this process should be ongoing to identify and implement new ways to enhance the policy to improve the results. No matter how much energy is expended into design, negative effects will be felt by stakeholders at every level. Methods to mitigate these effects are critical to such an important policy. Since this policy is so important on such a large scale, competing interests will be present and must be balanced. Once balanced, however, this policy will make a stronger and more prepared America.

Even though the disaster preparedness policy does not include large amounts of money, its impact is significant if it successfully increases America's preparedness at the community and family level. These relatively small amounts of money must be accounted for through expenditures, funds, budgets, and spending plans. Each category is equally important to ensure accountability and to facilitate the policy goals are met to create a more prepared nation.

An assessment of revenue sources and restrictions gives a good background on the current state of affairs for the disaster preparedness policy and associated programs. However, evaluations of public policy and economic conditions indicate a future lack of funds may be imminent. This situation greatly influenced the revenue policy that looked at alternative funding

sources to maintain the programs. Stability on the local level is of paramount importance in the face of federal policy changes to maintain and increase the ability of local citizens and agencies to respond and prepare for disasters and emergencies.

Through the use of development incentives such as enterprise zones, the disaster preparedness policy may be more successful in economically depressed regions. These regions typically have lower-income families that have less ability to volunteer and be prepared for disasters. However, through good management by jurisdictions by conducting cost-benefit analysis and ethical evaluations, business incentive programs can help America be ready for the future.

Implementing and maintaining a program to create a more prepared community is easy compared to recruiting and retaining volunteers to meet the objectives of the program. Leadership skills such as problem solving, decision making, innovation, and ethics are invaluable commodities to progress the program into the future and ensure a safer future for our local communities.