

**An Analysis of the Impact of Grant Involvement on Perceptions
of Terrorism Preparedness Improvement in Texas**

By

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ABSTRACT

The works of classical American pragmatists suggest that increased worker participation consistent with participatory management ideals will increase perceptions regarding the quality of the final work product. This study used survey research to test four hypotheses. The first two state that State Homeland Security Grant Program participants who report greater involvement in the equipment and training procurement process will perceive greater improvement in preparedness in these areas since September 11, 2001. The second two state that those same participants would perceive greater post-September 11, 2001 preparedness in these same areas. Perceptions of 82 respondents were examined. The independent and dependent variables were examined univariately through graphical representation, measures of central tendency, and dispersion. Finally, a multivariate logistic regression model was utilized to analyze the dependent variables.

The results of the model provided no support for the first set of research hypotheses. Neither jurisdiction size nor level of involvement in the equipment and training procurement process were significantly related to perceptions of improvement in preparedness in the areas of equipment and training. The results of the model did provide support for the second set of research hypotheses. The examination of the dependent variables revealed that level of involvement was significantly and positively related to post-September 11, 2001 perception of preparedness in the areas of equipment and training, while jurisdiction size was not significantly related.

Chapter One

Introduction to the Study

Introduction

The events of September 11, 2001 (9-11) increased public awareness of terrorism to an unprecedented degree. Suddenly, Americans were traumatically aware of the need for an organized response to an immediate threat and the capability to cope with human casualties, property destruction, and social disruption caused by terrorist events. Government is responsible for safeguarding and protecting society against a wide range of natural, technological, and social hazards but especially physical threats such as terrorism.

The aftermath of 9-11 resulted in a dramatic increase in Americans' fear of terrorist attacks. As a result, the public demanded that Congress take immediate steps to ensure the safety of Americans nationwide. As part of the national response to the threat of a terrorist attack with weapons of mass destruction (WMD), the U.S. Department of Homeland Security (USDHS) was created by Congress in 2002. Citing the lack of terrorism preparedness, President Bush's 2003 budget included \$2.3 billion to "enhance the homeland security response capabilities of America's first responders - a greater than 10-fold increase in Federal resources".

(<http://www.whitehouse.gov/news/releases/2002/01/20020124-2.html>).

The massive influx of federal monies coupled with intense public pressure based on fear created previously unforeseen challenges for public administrators in homeland security agencies. Administrators were charged with assessing the needs of local communities and quickly providing their first responders with the necessary training and equipment to cope with future attacks. While states used a standardized assessment mechanism to determine equipment and training needs (Texas Engineering Extension Service 2003), each differed in the methods used for procurement. Presently, little research has been conducted to determine the impact of various state administrative practices on perceptions of emergency preparedness as related to terrorism and weapons of mass destruction.

Purpose of the Research

The present study is explanatory and incorporates elements of description. The primary research question asks, “does the level of involvement of local officials in the procurement process impact perceptions regarding emergency preparedness and its improvement?” In answering the primary research question, several important research goals are addressed. First, the research describes the method employed by Texas Engineering Extension Service (TEEX) to procure equipment and training under the State Homeland Security grants for first responders. The assessment of the Texas model may serve as a guideline for public administrators facing similar challenges in grant administration. Next, using survey data, the study describes perceptions of

preparedness in local jurisdictions. Presently, little data exist that indicate how prepared Texas first responders perceive their respective communities. Such information may help administrators better understand deficiencies in the process and assist in allocating future funding. Finally, the research quantitatively analyzes a key element of the Texas model (first responder involvement) to determine its impact on perceptions regarding preparedness and improvements in preparedness.

Chapter Summaries

Chapter Two presents a review of the literature as it applies to the general topic of domestic preparedness and emergency management in the United States.

The third chapter presents a review of literature and documents applying to the domestic preparedness and the emergency management system in Texas as related to terrorism.

The fourth chapter discusses the literature as it applies to public administration and participatory management involving several levels of government. The conceptual framework, or set of research hypotheses, is located in this chapter.

Chapter Five operationalizes the hypotheses and describes the methodology used to answer the research question.

The sixth chapter addresses the results of the research. The results of the statistical procedures used are explained here as well. The results are summarized in tabular form and interpreted in the text.

Chapter Seven summarizes the conclusions drawn from the results noted in Chapter Six. This final chapter includes suggestions for future research and conclusions of the study.

Chapter Two

Domestic Preparedness and Emergency Management

Introduction

The events of September 11, 2001 catapulted the issue of terrorism into the forefront of the American consciousness. Americans suddenly became painfully aware of the need for an organized response capable of coping with massive human casualties, extensive property destruction, and large-scale social disruption. Waugh (2000, 130) notes that “ . . . the hazard is not new, but the potential consequences have grown tremendously.” While the aftermath of September 11 was dramatic, both natural and social disasters occur with regularity world-wide (see Table 2.1.). However, technological advances in the last two decades have precipitously increased the likelihood and complexity of disaster events. Therefore, competently preparing for terrorism has become one of the most important challenges facing administrators.¹

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature relevant to the topics of emergency management and emergency preparedness. First, the history of domestic preparedness and emergency management in the United States is reviewed. Secondly, the systems approach to emergency management is outlined focusing on the elements of mitigation, preparedness, response, and recovery. Next, issues related to assessing domestic preparedness are reviewed. Lastly, the conceptual model for this study is discussed.

¹ In Gallup Polls conducted since September 11, 2001, have consistently ranked the threat of terrorism as the most important issue facing the United States (retrieved from www.gallup.com).

Domestic Preparedness and Emergency Management

Introduction

Terrorism was not the first and is not the only type of catastrophic emergency that occurs in the American society. An emergency is an unusual event. In it

. . . problems are ill-structured. Environmental conditions are changing and dynamic. Numbers of clientele involved expand and contract dramatically. Time is critical, and complexity increases geometrically with the degree of interaction among participants and conditions. Systematic methods of decision making, based upon orderly search of all possible alternatives for action, prove less effective in complex environments than “rules of thumb” or heuristic decision processes. (Comfort 1987, 16)

Emergencies are characterized by a myriad of factors—risk, uncertainty, fluidity, competition/conflict, action orientation, timing, communications, data/information, and consequences (Lewis 1987, 165-6). Lewis differentiates emergencies from disasters; extensive negative consequences are associated with disasters while an emergency has several possible outcomes contingent upon the management of the event. Kreps differentiates disasters as “nonroutine events” incorporating several social dimensions (1998, 32-6). Rosenthal *et al.* (1989, 9-14) characterize the term “crisis” as having a broad use. They eventually use a definition coined by Rosenthal, which is, “...a serious threat to the basic structure or the fundamental values and norms of a social system, which ...necessitates making critical decisions”.

The table below identifies the types of hazards that are anticipated, planned for and responded to by those involved in emergency management. The

scope and breadth of the spectrum is indicative of complexities of the technical response and organization required.

Table 2.1. Natural, technological and social hazards

Class of hazard	Examples
Natural (geophysical) Geological Meteorological Oceanographic Hydrological Biological	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Earthquake, volcanic eruption, landslide (including rockfall, debris, avalanche, mudflow), episode of accelerated erosion, subsidence ✓ Hurricane, tornado, ice storm, blizzard, lightening, intense rainstorm, hailstorm, fog, drought, snow avalanche ✓ Tsunami (geological origins), sea storm (meteorological origins) ✓ Flood, flashflood ✓ Wildfire (forest or range fire), crop blight, insect infestation, epizootic disease outbreaks (meningitis, cholera, etc)
Technological Hazardous materials and processes Dangerous processes Devices and machines Installations and plants	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Carcinogens, mutagens, heavy metals, other toxins ✓ Structural failure, radiation emissions, refining and transporting hazardous materials ✓ Explosives, unexploded ordnance, vehicles, trains, aircraft ✓ Bridges, dams, mines, refineries, power plants, oil and gas terminals and storage plats, power lines, pipelines, high-rise buildings
Social Terrorist incidents Crowd incidents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Bombings, shootings, hostage taking, hijacking ✓ Riots, demonstrations, crowd crushes, stampedes

History of Disaster Preparedness and Emergency Management in the United States

Government is responsible to safeguard and protect society against the physical threats listed in Table 2.1. (Waugh 2000, 3). In addition to the human misery and suffering caused by disasters the monetary cost is significant.

Between "...1989 and 1993, the annual losses in the United States from disasters were \$3.3 billion annually. From 1994 to 1997, the average annual losses have increased to \$13 billion." (Carroll 2001, 477). National, state and local governments in the United States have historically addressed the issue of disaster response on an individual and episodic basis. Beginning in 1916, the federal government began a new era of emergency preparedness in the form of a civil defense response to the threat to American homeland security posed by the war in Europe (Waugh 1994, 54). In the following 90 years the federal, state and local governments have gone through several phases of emergency preparedness.

Emergency management by federal and state government in the United States has been episodic and related to individual crises and disasters. Until 1916 no federal agency was responsible for emergency crises or disasters. In 1916, a civil defense program was initiated as part of war preparations for the United States' entry into the war in Europe. Congress passed the Flood Control Act in 1936 to create the Tennessee Valley Authority in part to respond to the natural disasters in that geographic area. In 1950, the Federal Civil Defense Act created a nationwide system of civil defense agencies and the Disaster Relief Act made possible direct assistance to state and local government from federal agencies (Waugh 1994, 54). As time passed more federal programs were created to address specific disaster issues and locales. By the 1970s there was an attempt to coordinate these programs through the Department of Housing and Urban Development. Only in 1979 with the creation of FEMA was there focus

both in an implementation sense and also conceptually (Stephens and Grant 2001, 285-6).

In 1970, the National Governors Association (NGA) (2002, 7-8) produced the initial *Governor's Guide to Emergency Management*. The NGA has updated this Guide several times and produced a specific volume pertaining to homeland security. Since that time other professional associations have addressed emergency management with focused guides and other parochial materials.

With the election of Jimmy Carter in 1976 an awareness and appreciation of the complexities of the field and the need for a coherent federal response gained hold in the Executive branch. In 1979, under Executive Order, the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) was formed by combining relevant programs from a number of federal agencies. One of these programs was the Robert T. Stafford Disaster Relief Act. The legislation was passed by Congress in 1974 empowering and providing funds for the President to address the issue of emergency preparedness and respond in a proactive and coherent manner. Since the creation of FEMA there has been a flow of practitioner-oriented guides pertaining to all phases and aspects of emergency management.

Due to the Stafford Act and other focused funding, the Department of Justice has generated complementary material from the Office for Domestic Preparedness (ODP). These included guides on planning, training of first responders and establishment and coordination of communications. Under Public Law 105-277 (1999) ODP was directed to establish the State Domestic Preparedness Equipment Program (SDPEP) for the purpose of assisting

communities in acquiring equipment needed for response to disasters and other civil emergencies. This initiative was expanded in scope and funding as a response to the events of September 11, 2001. The newly created Homeland Security Grant Program (HSGP) (Public Laws 108-7 and 11) would now support a much more extensive acquisition of equipment and training to respond to the use of weapons of mass destruction (WMD) by terrorists. In support of these efforts an assessment of threat, vulnerability, capabilities and needs by community participants was required to help guide the allocation of funds and to identify needed equipment and training (Texas Engineering Extension Service 2003, iv).

Changing National Perceptions

The scholarship surrounding emergency management is relatively young (Mushkatel and Wescher 1985, 49). The first empirical study in emergency management conducted in the United States was by Samuel Prince while in a doctoral program at Columbia University. The Reverend Prince had been present in Halifax, Nova Scotia in 1917 for the explosion of a munitions ship in that harbor. This was the world's largest man made explosion until the 1945 atomic blast. The 1920 doctoral dissertation examined the human response to the Halifax disaster. The Reverend Prince had an academic career in social work and was an active minister but did not pursue a career in public administration. It was not until the late 1940s and the 1950s when scholarly research began to emerge from universities and the National Opinion Research Center (Fischer 1998, 9) concerning emergency management. No appreciable emergency

management studies were produced until the 1970s (Mushkatel and Wescher 1985, 49).

National perceptions as to the need for and the appropriateness of Federal government involvement in disaster relief, emergency preparedness and disaster management began to change in the 1930's. Up to that point it was not perceived to be a Federal responsibility, but rather a state and local issue. In 1934, the Reconstruction Finance Corporation was authorized by Congress to make loans for building and infrastructure repairs due to disaster damages. Over the following decades Federal government assumption of obligations increased. In 1950 President Truman charged the Housing and Home Finance Administration with responsibility for civilian disaster management. The Disaster Relief Acts, beginning in the mid-1960's, furthered that involvement. Similarly, Federal involvement in emergency preparedness and disaster management beyond after the fact assistance eventually became established. Both civil defense and Federal disaster relief functions were located in the Federal Civil Defense Administration in 1953. There followed over the next 26 years a piecemeal approach with the Federal role in emergency preparedness and disaster management being divided among numerous agencies and departments. The Federal Emergency Management Agency was created by Executive Order in 1979 to unify control over the various functions assumed by the Federal government at that time. There was little focused leadership applied by the Federal government for policy development and direction to state and local governments for civilian disaster preparedness and emergency preparedness.

Federal civil defense policy focused on preparations for mitigation with and response to nuclear war results on the civilian population. There was very little state and local government acceptance of Federal leadership beyond a grudging minimal participation. This was due to the perception that there was little local benefit by such participation (Smith 1990). Also, the nuclear disaster situation was totally alien to the other civilian disaster scenarios in its utter devastation and destruction of society as it existed. Hence, through the 1950's and into the 1970's, there was little in the way of a national professional dialogue regarding disaster preparedness and emergency management that would stimulate academic and professional participation.

In 1985, Petak noted that “[p]ublic administration, as a discipline, has generally neglected to consider emergency management within the mainstream of its activities. (It)... was considered only a function of law enforcement and fire departments”. (1985, 3). While public administrators have been slow to view emergency management as an area of expertise related to their professional field, this attitude lessened as “... disasters and emergency incidents seem[ed] more often to overflow the boundaries of traditional first responder work and become enmeshed in traditional municipal administration.” (Grant 1996, 322).

Sylves (1996, 350-354) identified the following foci in the literature: 1) growing scientific knowledge and skill; 2) increasing reliance on regional and local preparedness and mitigation; 3) increasing focus on multi-hazard approaches; 4) increasing reliance on nonstructured mitigation; 5) increasing linkage of government disaster agencies with outside agencies; 6) increasing

linkage of disaster management to other essential programs; and 7) increasing professionalization of disaster management agencies.

Emergency Management Models

Prior to end of the Cold War, the funding and emphasis by the Congress and the Executive branch agencies, especially FEMA, were based on response to a nuclear war scenario. This was the Civil Defense model. Natural and other disasters were dealt with using other categorical resources dedicated to that purpose and Federal Civil Defense resources were not to be applied. According to Sylves and Waugh (1996, 237), this approach was wasteful, ineffective, and failed to create an environment able to maximize constituent political support for emergency management.

European countries have implemented emergency management models based on a centralized administrative function served by national government (Alexander 2002, 301). The applicability of European models in the United States, however, is limited. According to Waugh and Hy (1990, 4), an ...impediment to effective action is the fragmented government responsibility for emergency management programs. The U.S. federal system fragments policy making vertically between national and state governments with relatively little autonomy at the local level, and horizontally among a multitude of competing agencies with overlapping jurisdictional prerogatives. Effective decision making and program coordination is difficult at best...

The Federal role in emergency management has shifted over the period of time since World War I toward a more proactive partnership with the state and local governments. Consistent with former Speaker of the House Tip O'Neal's assertion that "all politics are local," disaster loss and responsibility are mainly

borne by local parties (Waugh 2000, 115). As such, the Federal government now will "...assist State and local governments when a major disaster or emergency overwhelms their ability to respond effectively to save lives; protect public health, safety, and property; and restore their communities." (FEMA January 2003, Foreword).

Internal local governmental unit coordination and coordination among units of local governments for the purpose of mutual assistance and support are desirable due to scarcity of resources. In addition, Lindell, et al (1996, 237) notes that among local emergency managers "...those who were most effective emphasized the development of constituency support by actively seeking to increase the resource base of all local agencies, not just their own." By actively pursuing cross agency interaction it is possible to avoid the following four negative structural qualities described by Drabek (1985, 85-86): 1) localism; 2) lack of standardization; 3) unit diversity; and 4) fragmentation. Emergency management is a challenging profession involving "... multi-organizational and intergovernmental efforts, often with organizations as culturally divergent as military units and volunteer groups, and complex administrative arrangements that require considerable political acumen." (Waugh 2000, 13).

Systems Approach: All Hazards Model

Introduction

Since the early 1980s, a widely recognized and accepted four-part system process has formed the conceptual basis for understanding emergency

management. This process is associated with the All Hazards Model of emergency management. Introduced by the National Governors Association (NGA) in the 1970s, the All Hazards Model (also known generically as the multiple hazard model) for emergency management has become the standard in the United States since that time (Mushkatel and Weschler 1985, 50). It represents the most effective and workable approach to the planning and implementation of emergency management to date (Waugh 2000, 11 and 48). In 1993, James Lee Witt became director of FEMA and implemented a thorough overhaul of the agency, administratively and conceptually. Using General Accounting Office and National Academy of Public Administration findings Witt reinvented FEMA while incorporating the “all hazards” approach to emergency management. The guidelines and standards produced by FEMA and adopted by other agencies and organizations responsible for emergency management reflect the operating environment created by the All Hazards Model. The Comprehensive Emergency Management (CEM) and Integrated Emergency Management System (IEMS) strategies and the Integrated Command System (ICS) tactic provide a comprehensive implementation approach for the All Hazards Model. These approaches are those most effective to be applied on a multi-response capability basis (Stephens and Grant 2001, 285-6).

McLoughlin (1985, 166) outlined the following as “...essential components of an adequate emergency management program”: 1) mitigation – assessing risk and taking action to lessen it; 2) preparedness – developing and implementing a response plan based on the risk assessment and available

capabilities; 3) response – implementing the plan before, during and immediately after the event, minimizing casualties and lessening property losses; and 4) recovery – reestablishing vital life support systems to minimum standards and initiating long term activities to return the community to normal.

The dissemination of information among the elements of the emergency management continuum is critically important. Comfort (1985, 155) observed that “emergency conditions place extraordinary demands upon public service personnel for accurate, timely information in order to make optimum use of time and skills.” Comfort follows on to note in the same section that “...(t)he critical importance of information for optimal decision making increases geometrically with the scale of the disaster, the scope of the geographic impact, and the number of people involved.”

The view espoused in the National League of Cities (NLC) (2002) guidance for emergency management is that of a hands on, direct responsibility perspective. In a typical section of its *Practical Tools for Local Governments* the NLC describes the creation of a jurisdiction’s emergency operations plan (2002, 8). In its guide, the NGA advises the use of the All Hazards Model and stresses awareness (assessment of capabilities and needs) and preparation (2002, 7-8). The manual of the International Association Fire Chiefs (IAFC), a practitioner body, provides similar guidance. The IAFC also provides a Power Point document for use in the presentation of manual materials to community governments and groups.

The State and Local Guide (SLG) 101: Guide for All-Hazard Emergency Operations Planning created by Waugh for the Office for Domestic Preparedness “... is meant to aid State and local emergency managers ... in their efforts to develop and maintain viable all-hazard emergency operating plans. [It] ... is a ‘toolbox’ of ideas and advice, not a sample EOP”. (1996, iii). This is another example of practical advice to local administrators. Similar directions are addressed throughout the Federal and state guidance literature. As an example, ODP states that its guidances “...are offered not as definitive or official regulations, but rather as the informed advice of subject matter experts from both the private and public sectors”. (1996, xii).

Elements of the All Hazards Model

Mitigation

Mitigation is the first of the four phases of the All Hazards Model of emergency preparedness. These four phases form a mutually reinforcing loop of experience and education. Mitigation approaches the problem of emergency management from the perspective of prevention by implementing “...lasting, often permanent, reduction of exposure to, probability of, or potential loss from hazard events....[It]...also can involve educating businesses and the public on simple measures they can take to reduce loss and injury...” (FEMA 1996, 1-3).

Preparedness

The central and crucial element of preparedness is that of planning. The process of bringing together representatives responsible for responding to emergencies for the planning activity initiates the cooperation and coordination

required for a successful broad based coalition. Succinctly, "...preparedness involves establishing authorities and responsibilities for emergency actions and garnering the resources to support them...." (FEMA 1996, 1-3). In *Texas Domestic Preparedness Assessment: Handbook of Instructions* the planning element is extensively addressed. Following this guidance and organization, the local jurisdictions are assisted in

... develop[ing] planning factors to provide a numerical focus for CBRNE (Chemical, Biological, Radiological, Nuclear and Explosive)...scenarios....Those shortfalls or gaps discovered during the assessment process target specific resources in the areas of planning, organization, equipment, training, and exercises required to respond to WMD terrorism incidents....The jurisdiction assessments and COG [regional Council of Government] categorizations provide the information needed to prioritize jurisdictions and to allocate ODP grant funding for equipment. (2002, iv)

Response

Response is the "...time-sensitive [series of] actions to save life and property, as well as ...begin stabilizing the situation so that the jurisdiction can regroup." (FEMA 1996, 1-4). The response phase includes: activation of the first responder force; warning, sheltering or evacuating the population; providing rescue and medical services to the population; providing for law enforcement and civil administration; assessing the human and property damage and loss; and beginning the mitigation and recovery processes.

Recovery

According to *State and Local Guide (SLG) 101: Guide for All-Hazard Emergency Operations Planning*, recovery "...is the effort to restore infrastructure and the social and economic life of a community to normal, but it should incorporate mitigation as a goal." (1996, 1-4). So far in this section only

governmental guidance sources have been used. This is indicative of the nature of the respective foci of the governmental and academic sources.

Assessing Emergency Preparedness

Petak (1985, 5) and Sylves (1996, 57-8) have addressed the issue of obstacles to effective emergency management and arrive at complementary findings. Petak has identified the following obstacles:

- 1) More compelling problems for policy makers;
- 2) Lack of a strong political constituency;
- 3) Political/economic costs are seen as disproportionate;
- 4) Hazard problems are complex and solutions are uncertain;
- 5) Limited technical and administrative capacities of local governments;
- 6) Jurisdictional confusion, distrust and conflict;
- 7) Issues of fact, values, judgment and lack of information; and
- 8) Concern over liability resulting from a disaster.

Also, the current degree of technological change is forcing emergency management practitioners to enter into more advanced and ongoing training and education (Stanley and Waugh 2001, 695-6). In order to address the issue of emergency preparedness in a coherent and cost effective manner it is necessary to assess the levels of threat, vulnerability, capabilities and needs at the community and regional levels. It is at these levels that initial response would be provided in the event of a terrorist attack (USDHS 2002, vii). Additionally, there

are differing attributes, resources, foci, needs and priorities at these various levels (Sauter and Carfano 2005, 54-55). Resources needed to address community emergency preparedness and response requirements are substantial, hence, the sharing of responsibilities and assets by communities through an organized plan is essential. According to the U. S. Department of Homeland Security "... the challenge is to develop the connected and complementary systems that are reinforcing rather than duplicative and that ensure essential requirements are met". (2002, vii). As part of the Homeland Security Grant Program, as implemented by ODP in conjunction with its State Administrative Agency (SAA) partners, grant participants must engage in an assessment process which addresses the elements of threat, vulnerability, capabilities and need. Ideally, the outcome of this process is a planning document that supports both community and regional capacity development.

Model for System Implementation

This study proceeds beyond the above general description of emergency management and disaster preparedness in the United States to describe the model employed by the Texas Engineering Extension Service (TEEX) in its implementation of the State Homeland Security Grant Program (SHSGP) in Texas. In describing the implementation of this model the Texas context is examined and related. Additionally, the process and requirements of participation in the SHSGP with TEEX by the local jurisdictions (through their respective Points of Contact) are described.

The model for this study was developed utilizing the concepts of emergency preparedness, perception of emergency preparedness, perception of improvement of emergency preparedness, level of local jurisdiction participant involvement in the SHSGP procurement process and jurisdiction size. In the Texas model local officials were required to participate in the determination of the appropriate equipment and training necessary to enhance emergency preparedness of their jurisdiction. That participation will be the final focus of the following chapter.

Chapter Three

Texas Domestic Preparedness/Emergency Management System

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review literature and documents relevant to the topic of implementation of the State Homeland Security Grant Program in Texas by the Texas Engineering Extension Service. Additionally, this chapter discusses the elements of the Texas Model for the implementation of the State Homeland Security grants, beginning with the FY1999 State Domestic Preparedness Equipment Program (SDPEP). Lastly, the roles and responsibilities of the local jurisdictions in the grant implementation process will be described.

Federal Terrorism-related Emergency Management Assistance

The U. S. Department of Justice (DoJ), Office for Domestic Preparedness (ODP) was charged with grant program development and national implementation of the Nunn- Lugar-Domenici Domestic Preparedness Equipment Program (PL105-277 and 106-533) in 1999. This process began in Texas with the Fiscal Year (FY) 1999 SDPEP in 2000 and has carried forward in an evolutionary process through the FY2006 Homeland Security Grant Program of today. The SDPEP was a small assistance initiative with \$50,800,000 available nationally and allocated by formula to each state. Texas was awarded \$2,912,000 as its share on September 12, 2000 under this grant. The governor of each receiving state was given wide latitude in the expenditure of these funds.

The main requirements were that a specific state level administrative entity be named, that the bulk of the funding go to local jurisdictions for purchase of equipment from a prescribed list (Authorized Equipment List) and that a Three-Year State-wide Domestic Preparedness Strategy be completed for the state. There was little guidance beyond this and the state implementation process was left to be a top-down one with the respective states in control. Later, the FY2000/2001 SDPEP monies were awarded to Texas on June 16, 2002. This amounted to \$9,169,000 out of a national funding initiative of \$145,354,000.

As the events of September 11, 2001 occurred, a radically different environment for the terrorism related Federal programs was created. With the forming of the U. S. Department of Homeland Security (USDHS) in 2002 from existing agencies and new initiatives, the Office for Domestic Preparedness was transferred there from DoJ. It was in this period of time that the FY2003 State Homeland Security Grant Program (Public Laws 107–77, 107–17, 107-56) was created by Congress. Significant funding increases over the SDPEP initiatives were mandated. The national funding was initially \$566,295,000 with a later supplemental appropriation of \$1.5 billion. As of June 11, 2003 and September 29, 2003 respectively, Texas was awarded \$144,648,000 of these funds plus another \$39,023,692 of earmarked Urban Area Security Initiative funds. While there was only limited program guidance from ODP for the SDPEP grants, the roll out of the FY2003 SHSGP grants series was similar. There was little guidance to the states for program implementation and funds use for the benefit of the local jurisdictions at the local level. The local jurisdictions were to be

allocated 80% of the funding but this could be applied for their benefit at the discretion of the SAA. While there was a requirement and mechanism for local needs and resources assessments there was no funds allocation, distribution and expenditure model provided to the states by ODP. From this situation a multitude of implementation approaches emerged.

Partnership Approach

The method that TEEX used to network with local jurisdictions to respond to the security challenges highlighted by September 11, 2001 is best characterized as a “Partnership Approach” (Zimmerman 1983). The intellectual buttresses of the TEEX methodology can be found in the works of John Dewey and Mary Parker Follett. Their ideas regarding networked and democratic participation in organizations has greatly influenced the theory of participatory management. Dewey described a cooperative and inclusive community of inquiry approach uniting individual citizens, while Follett advocated a group oriented problem solving approach, particularly in networked organizations. The TEEX approach to the implementation of the State Homeland Security Grant Programs developed and was modified over a period of five years.²

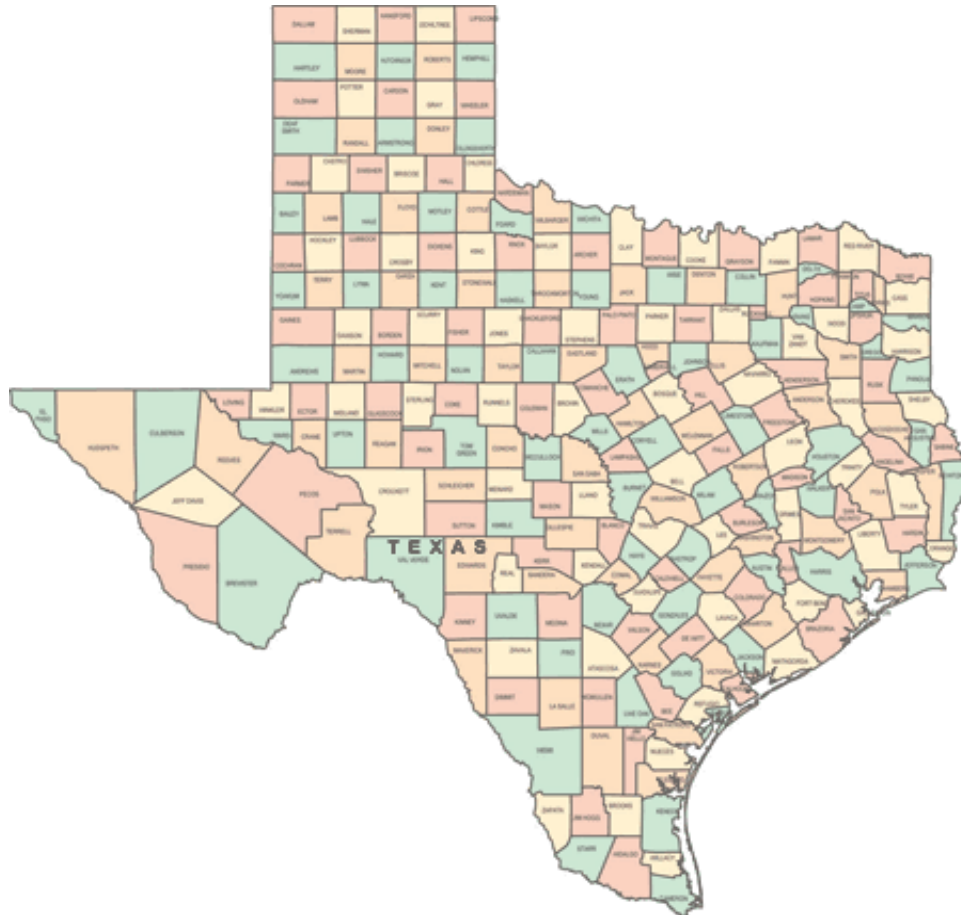
Texas Background

The scope of the challenge to statewide program implementation in Texas is staggering. (See Texas map, Figure 3.1.). Texas encompasses 267,277 square

² The study author was a participant observer of this process in the capacity of staff member of the TEEX SAA program. As such, author has used program materials and documents cited in the Reference List and other proprietary sources on a daily basis and is completing this section based on personal knowledge and experience.

miles of territory, a population of 22+ million, more farms and ranches than any other state, 16 major military installations, 1600 aircraft landing areas, 12 deep draft ports, 15 shallow draft ports, a long international border with Mexico, a nuclear weapons processing plant, 141,000 miles of natural gas pipeline, 76,000 miles of hazardous liquid pipelines, 10,000 miles of rail line, production and refining capacity for a major portion of the nation's petroleum fuel supply, and 12 of the largest 120 cities in the nation. The population of Texas is spread between 254 counties and 1,195 incorporated municipalities. These local governmental entities were to come to be referred to as "local jurisdictions" in the SHSGP grant program materials.

Figure 3.1 Map of Texas



Texas Model

The Texas Engineering Extension Service was designated as the State Administrative Agency for the Office for Domestic Preparedness, U. S. Department of Justice Fiscal Year (FY)1999 State Domestic Preparedness

Equipment Grant Program in 1999 by then Texas Governor George Bush. The governor of each state was required by ODP to designate an implementing agent for the grant in their state. With the creation of the U. S. Department of Homeland Security in 2002 and the transition of the SDPEP grant program into the State Homeland Security Grant Program the SAA designation was retained by TEEX. As such, TEEX has been responsible for the implementation of the Federal grant program requirements and the administration of the procurement and distribution system for the equipment and training resources made available through the grant program.

The overall focus of the Texas model, as designed by TEEX and its state and regional level partners, has been to improve the capability of local first responders to deal with potential terrorist use of weapons of mass destruction (WMD). Although state assets can be a vital part of such a response, the challenges of time and distance in Texas places the important burden of preparedness for immediate response at the local governmental level (Office of the Governor 2005, 7)

Regional Approach

Regional governance (regionalism) is a concept that has proven quite usable in the state of Texas. In Texas, a multi-county aggregate approach to planning and governmental program implementation has been used since the 1960's. This approach is applied by state agencies to both state and Federal funded initiatives. Other states with similar governmental structures could adopt this or a similar approach.

There is an established structure of 24 regional Councils of Government (COGs) in Texas recognized by state law (Chapter 391, Texas Local Government Code) which serves as the vehicle for regional governance. The unconditional support of the Governor's Office is a necessary component for regional governance to function effectively. Each COG has a governing board comprised of local elected officials from that region which provides guidance in its operations. Advantages of regional clustering for planning and program implementation include:

- greater knowledge and familiarity of unique characteristics;
- use of local and region level staff to buttress state level staff;
- greater likelihood of local voluntary participation; and
- coalescence of statewide political support for the initiative.

TEEX contracted with the COGs for support with the local jurisdictions (the descriptive term for SHSGP grant subrecipients which encompasses cities, towns, villages, counties and Federally-recognized native American tribes in Texas) in the grant program planning process. In practice this came to border on technical assistance with the grant implementation processes for the local jurisdictions. This was due to an unavoidable indistinct separation of the two aspects of the grant. The COGs also were responsible for the creation of regional plans and facilitation and coordination of the mutual aid networking among the local jurisdictions. This involved standardization of communications equipment and practices inside and among the COG regions. Through the regional disaster preparedness and emergency management committees much cross boundry

local jurisdiction equipment and training standardization and team building was accomplished.

Statewide Strategy

With the award of the FY 1999 SDPEP to TEEX in September 2000 a statewide implementation strategy was required. A multi-discipline Executive Steering Committee was formed by TEEX from state and local level experts and leaders in their respective disciplines. It was the function of the Executive Steering Committee to advise, set policy, provide guidance and approve the strategy that was being developed. A viable strategy to assist Texas in preparing for a potential terrorist attack using weapons of mass destruction required a measurement of risk along with capabilities and needs. WMD has also been referred to and described as Chemical, Biological, Radiological, Nuclear and (high) Explosive (CBRNE) weapons. The strategy, outlined in the Three-Year Statewide Domestic Preparedness Strategy for the State of Texas, was finalized in late 2001 by a consortium of local, regional and state level participants. The Strategy was submitted to and by approved by ODP on December 20, 2001.

The initial statewide local jurisdiction assessments responded to the need for risk and capability measurement. The assessment mechanism was created around guidances and tools provided by ODP to the states. These tools later went through refinement and expansion by TEEX and its partners to meet further needs of the Texas setting. The initial Texas Domestic Preparedness Assessment and Strategy Development Tool Kit was implemented by TEEX in 2001 and 2002. TEEX later adapted the ODP computer-based assessment tool

to form the core of the new Texas Domestic Preparedness Assessment (TDPA) web site.

TEEX distributed the updated Tool Kit to all local jurisdictions in Texas in 2002. This included over 1400 municipal and county governments. The purpose was to establish the participant base for the FY2002 State Domestic Preparedness Program (awarded to TEEX September 30, 2002) and the following FY2003 State Homeland Security Grant Program (awarded to TEEX May 6, 2003). Over 400 of these assessments were completed and returned to TEEX by mid-2003. The completion of the assessments set the stage for grant subrecipient awards to the local jurisdiction in late 2003 which distributed FY2002, FY2003 and FY2003 Supplemental grant funds. The assessment provided TEEX with local jurisdiction information about:

- threat, vulnerability, and risk rating;
- the number of Potential Threat Elements;
- threat history information; and
- number legal sites with CBRNE hazards.

Initial Grant Implementation

Initially 95 local jurisdictions participated in the three grant year periods of the SDPEP grants during which \$12,081,000 of funding was available. These initial 95 participants completed the ODP assessment process. This supported and justified the equipment selection for the participating communities. The local jurisdictions selected items from the ODP Authorized Equipment List (AEL) and

submitted paper lists of those selections to TEEX. TEEX consolidated the requests and utilized the Texas A&M University Central Purchasing Department to perform the required competitive bid process and procure the items. The items were shipped directly to the local jurisdictions by the selected vendors.

This procurement mechanism was considered only marginally useful due to its cumbersome and time consuming characteristics. It was decided that a more in user friendly and responsive process was needed. A significant requirement was the ability for timely financial accountability. Hence

...the State Homeland Security Assessment and Strategy process [was created to] allow the federal government to obtain vital information on the capabilities and needs of emergency responders on a national scale. The refined process also serve(d) as a planning tool for state and local jurisdictions, and ... assist(ed) ODP and its partners in better allocating federal resources for homeland security. (USDHS 2003)

The State Homeland Security Assessment and Strategy process was implemented by TEEX in Texas in an online form which, as it developed, incorporated an equipment and training procurement mechanism along with the assessment tool (Texas Engineering Extension Service 2003). This mechanism became the means by which the local jurisdictions, through their respective nominated Points of Contact, would participate in the revised equipment and training selection and procurement process.

Implementation of FY2002 SDPP Forward

Lessons learned from the SDPEP implementation effort were carried over to the implementation of the FY2002 grant and those succeeding grants.

- 1) There would have to be a more responsive and efficient mechanism for equipment purchase which would incorporate accountability of

expenditure of grant funds.. This was accomplished with a three tier system incorporating the ODP Prime Vendor program (based on a U. S. Department of Defense procurement system), utilizing a Texas local government cooperative purchasing organization and allowing local jurisdictions to use their own local purchasing mechanisms.

- 2) Local jurisdictions would have to complete a detailed assessment of capabilities and needs which would guide their identification of equipment and training needed by their first responders.
- 3) A current emergency operations response plan would have to be on file with the Division of Emergency Management, Texas Department of Public Safety.
- 4) Local jurisdictions would have to be committed to regional mutual aid plans as evidenced by completed agreements.
- 5) The COG regional structure would have to be incorporated into the SHSGP planning and grant implementation process in order assure local jurisdiction participation and to monitor and guide local jurisdiction performance.

Local Jurisdiction Participation

The Texas State Homeland Security Grant Program implementation approach was based on the involvement of elected officials in the decision making process at the local and regional levels, the use of risk and assessment information in funding decisions for the local jurisdictions and the integration of

information technology to assist the planning and procurement processes. While all three of the implementation elements are important, the most vital one is that of local jurisdiction participation.

Participation by the local Points of Contact in the planning and procurement processes provided reasonable assurance that information was accurate and timely and that there was an element of stakeholder accountability. In the following chapter the reasoning for this assumption will be explored.

Chapter Four

Participatory Management

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review literature relevant to and explanatory of public administration methodology as applied to the management of the State Homeland Security Grant Program by the Texas Engineering Extension Service. Additionally, literature concerning the ideas and writings of John Dewey and Mary Parker Follett applicable to the public administration model practiced by TEEX will be explored, especially as to those authors' contribution to and impact on the field of participatory management.

As identified in the preceding chapter, TEEX implemented the State Homeland Security Grant Program through a combination of bureaucratic control and direction and participant involvement. An administrative structure incorporating the local jurisdictions and the regional Councils of Government was created to facilitate the local jurisdiction's participation in the grants management process. This participation was in a program and policy planning capacity and was used to guide the specific use of grant funds awarded to each grant participant. This methodology evolved over the period of the grants. It was designed to require a commitment by the local jurisdictions to the specific grant processes but also to encourage the integration of the local jurisdictions into an ongoing regional emergency preparedness system. (Office of the Governor 2005, 7).

As Shields' notes (1996, 391), public administration takes place in "...a pragmatic, action-oriented world." This world is one which is exemplified by "... paradox and contradiction, disorder and pattern." In specific reference to public administration theory, but in a comment that can be generalized, Frederickson and Smith (2003, 12) declare that "...public administration is not a tidy field..." In such an untidy and dynamic field a frame of reference is needed for organization and clarity. In this chapter that frame of reference will be the concept of Community of Inquiry (Shields 2003). The basis for this organizing concept originated with John Dewey and has been expanded on by Shields in several articles (1996, 1998 and 2003). Additionally, Evans (2000) has examined Dewey's concepts of education and public governance in line with Shields so as to accentuate Dewey's proposition of the values necessary for a democratic society. The work of Mary Parker Follett provides additional insight into participant involvement and direction of cooperative ventures (Graham 1995), in both the public and private realms. With this context in mind, the discussion of the literature follows.

Public Administration

Public administration has existed in some form since humans began to organize and sought to live together, hence requiring government. Abraham Lincoln stated that the "...legitimate object of government is to do for a community of people whatever they need to have done but cannot do at all or cannot do well for themselves in their separate and individual capacities." (Waldo

1980, 17). Public administration facilitates the civic need for governance (Waldo 1948, 3-4).

Concerning public administration, Frederickson and Smith (2003, 1) join Tout, Ellul and Chrimes in their observation that

All great human events in history were probably achieved by what we would today call public administration. Organization and management *practices* in collective or public settings are as old as civilization. The transition from feudal society to the extended nation state was made possible by the centralization of policy on the one hand and the decentralization of policy implementation on the other.

While the practice of public administration has existed for quite some time, the study of public administration is relatively new as a "...separate self-conscious or self-aware academic or intellectual thing." (Frederickson and Smith 2003, 2).

Modern public administration as a field and a profession can be traced back to a paper, "The Study of Administration", by Woodrow Wilson published in 1887 (Shafritz and Hyde 1997, 1). There was an immediate misinterpretation of Wilson's thought as to the connection between politics or public policy and administration, or ends and means. Contemporary conventional public administration thought suggested that involvement in policy formulation was to be restricted. This misunderstanding maintained some credence through current times but is now discredited (Waldo 1980, 68).

The dominant or leading schools of thought or approaches of understanding public administration have shifted over the decades since Wilson. With a multitude of schools of thought the field has become somewhat confusing to both practitioners and scholars. In an effort to make the field more understandable Lemak (2004, 1312), along with Fry (1989, 2), have organized these schools into

three broad, overlapping groupings or paradigms. These paradigms characterize the public administration methodologies employed in the United States over the past century.

The first paradigm identified is that of the Classical, or traditional, which was initiated by the creation of Scientific Management by Frederick Taylor in the late 1880's. This paradigm emphasized a mechanistic approach to the work place and work outputs (Lemak 2004, 1313). The paradigm was especially embraced by members of the public works component of public administration. Later, the Behavioralist paradigm developed as general public administration separated from the engineering-oriented public works aspect of public administration. The proponents of the Behavioralist schools of thought emphasized various social and psychological aspects of management (Fry 1989, 7) or "... the viewing of worker motivation in terms of social instead of economic needs." (Lemak 2004, 1318).

Max Weber, a leading theorist of the Behavioralist paradigm, characterized public administration as having a number of elemental components (Frederickson and Smith 2003, 1-2). They are:

- (1) some basis of formal authority with claims to obedience;
- (2) intentionally established rules and laws;
- (3) specific spheres of individual competence;
- (4) the organization of persons into groups and categories according to specialization;
- (5) coordination by hierarchy;
- (6) continuity through rules and records;
- (7) the organization as distinct from the person holding positions or offices in it; and
- (8) the development of particular and specific organizational technologies.

The focus was on the structure and attributes of the bureaucratic system, such as staffing and control, rather than the processes involved or the environment of the system. The size and extent of societal involvement of public administration, as a practice, was greatly enhanced by the national response to Great Depression in creating an extensive public support system for those in need. An expanded centralized structure for governing developed (Frederickson and Smith 2003, 95-99) in which public needs were to be met through a professional elite implementing a set of solutions created through a management science.

Since the 1970's a third paradigm has developed to define and guide public administration thought. This has been referred to as the systems paradigm. In this paradigm public administration is conscious of and participates in the public policy formulation and seeks to serve a client group rather than focus solely on the practice of management itself.

The field of public administration is acknowledged to be a "...borrowing discipline...." (Fry 1989, 12). It appears to be in a constant state of change and is subject to multiple inputs from diverse sources. Public administration in America is characterized by Frederickson and Smith (2003, 3) as being based on a common sense and wisdom which meets the context and conditions of the times. The current times are pushing society to accept " ... deregulating, downsizing, contracting-out, privatizing, encouraging bureaucratic risk taking and innovation and loosening controls on government purchasing and bidding." (Frederickson and Smith 2003, 3). As such, currently accepted professional norms lead public administration practitioners to become more inclined to share control and

accept inputs into the process from among partners, participants, and beneficiaries.

John Dewey and Classical Pragmatism

Waldo states that he "...came to view bureaucracy and democracy as two major forces shaping the twentieth century. [He] saw these two major forces as sometimes running parallel or even reinforcing each other, and sometimes coming into collision, with resulting confusion and turbulence." (1980, 82). John Dewey was a well known and acclaimed philosopher, educational theorist, and commentator on contemporary American issues in the first half of the twentieth century. He was also a proponent of the citizen as an active partner in government-based problem solving in society. Dewey "... preferred process-oriented participative democracy and bottom-up policy making." (Evans 2000, 310-312). As such Dewey attempted to meld the American public administration bureaucracy and popular democracy into a new approach to public governance. This approach was grounded in what is referred to as Classical American Pragmatism (Shields 2000, 512). It is a philosophy of common sense propounded by classical pragmatists (Shields 1996, 10-11). The core of Dewey's approach is described as "community of inquiry" (Shields 2003) or in his own words as "instrumentalism" or "experimentalism" (Evans 2000, 310). The community of inquiry approach is an outgrowth of an American philosophy of pragmatism. Rosenthal reviews the origins of pragmatism in the early twentieth century and quotes William James on pragmatism as saying "...it is usually

described as a characteristically american [sic] movement, a sort of bobtailed scheme of thought, excellently fitted for the man on the street, who naturally hates theory and wants cash returns immediately".(1999, vii). True to this description, the community of inquiry approach is very American in its reliance on practical consequences rather than theoretical elegance (Evans 2000, 317).

Pragmatism in American public administration is characterized by several attributes. Shields (1998, 201) describes it:

Pragmatism is the philosophy of common sense. It uses purposeful human inquiry as a focal point. Inquiry is viewed as a continuing process which acknowledges the qualitative nature of experience as problematic situations emerge and are recognized. Recognition involves the doubt associated with questioning existing belief systems. Doubt is resolved through critical reasoning and ultimately tested in action. It is the philosophy of common sense, because actions are reassessed in light of practical consequences. Finally, inquiry is not necessarily limited to individual efforts, rather it often incorporates a "community of inquirers".

The term "critical optimism" refers to a faith in the capacity of ordinary citizens to be active participants in the intelligent and effective addressing of societal problems (Shields 2003, 514). This is a proposition central to the viability of Dewey's community of inquiry-based approach to problem solving. Using the community of inquiry organizing principle a problematic situation is identified. Solution options to the problematic situation are determined through a cooperative interplay between members of the extended community emphasizing communication between and among those participants (Evans 2000, 312).

In the 1940s the Behavioralist paradigm became more entrenched and it created a public managerial class with a claim to "scientific" grounding and which wielded an "expertise" beyond that of the common citizenry. Evans (2000, 321)

notes that "...public management created the box within which it is trapped today [...]..." and from which it is attempting to extricate itself. The emerging solution is a re-discovery of Dewey and his citizen-based approach to public policy formulation and management. Evans (2000, 325) summarizes this by noting that Democracy in America, as Tocqueville noted in the 1830's, is the result of a beautiful, but fragile, experiment. We are the inheritors of a tradition of government emphasizing a delicate balance between inclusiveness and the chaos of mass democracy, between the common interest and our separate interests, and between efficient action and meaningful action....Public management has a role to play in achieving [Dewey's described] democracy in America. Our challenge is to define that role, and the reemergence of the work of John Dewey ...can assist us in meeting that challenge.

Mary Parker Follett and Participant Involvement

The thought of Mary Parker Follett, a contemporary of John Dewey, shared in the general direction of the flow of the ideas of Dewey (Snider 1998, 276). Follett was influenced by Dewey and William James, a contemporary and fellow pragmatist with Dewey. However, Follett had differences with Dewey concerning the relationship of the individual and the group, the meaning of effective democracy and the role of conflict in the problem definition and solution dynamic.

An initial summarization of Follett's ideas, innovative for the time, are:

Recognition of the importance of the group in the organization...; identifying conflict and diversity as integral to the organizational experience...; developing a relational concept of authority that relies on the "law of the situation" and denies the "illusion of final authority" ...; and asserting the importance of participatory decision making.... (Fry and Thomas 1996, 11).

Follett began her public career working in low income neighborhood community centers in turn of the 20th century Boston. She assumed a prominent role in development of work placement training in Massachusetts based on her

community center experiences and practical innovations. Publications followed based on her experiences working with the clients of the community centers and work placement initiatives. These were works in sociology and psychology but they had broad application to business and government management. Based on their recognition and acceptance, Follett then began a career of lecturing and advising on business management (Graham 1995, 17-19).

Follett's writings centered on the inevitability of conflict and change. She did not propose to resolve conflict through domination by one side over another or by an insincere or coerced compromise among the parties. Follett described a process of integration or "... the creative synthesis of conflicting interests that gives all sides what they really want". (Fry and Thomas 1996, 17). In this way, rather than by exercising "power over", a synthesis or "win-win" situation supportive of separately identified needs is arrived at through "power with" (Eylon 1998, 23) (Graham 1995, 23-24). Differences are "...neither suppressed nor compromised, but rather maintained and harmonized". (Snider 1998, 275). Through the "law of the situation" and the process of "interpenetration" authority is created at the level of operations. Follett's principles of organization can be reduced to four rules of coordination among the participants (Urwich 1979, 133):

- 1) coordination by direct contact of the responsible people concerned;
- 2) coordination in the early stages;
- 3) coordination as a reciprocal relation of all the features in a situation; and
- 4) coordination as a continuous process.

Shafritz and Hyde (1997, 6) point to Follett as being "...a major voice for what today would be called participatory management." They also note that she was one of the first public administration theorists to focus on the theory of individuals in the organization and that she influenced thought on the subject of cooperative work.

Wren (1979, 324) encapsulates Follett's contributions:

...two individuals [Follett and Chester I. Barnard] made significant contributions to the development of new ideas regarding the nature of authority, the necessity for coordination of effort, the resolution of conflict, and the design of organizations which would provide maximum opportunities for cooperative effort. One was a political philosopher turned business sage who never met a payroll in her life [Follett].... Together, they were integrators who provided insightful links between the eras of scientific management and social man.

However, Snider (1998, 274) has differences with Wren, while still agreeing him to some extent. Snider

...presents an interpretation of Follett that locates the roots of ambivalence in the way she wrote her later, more practitioner oriented papers and lectures on administration.... What gets lost is an understanding of the underlying philosophical pragmatism upon which she relied in her earlier works.... Follett chose to engage administrative practitioners in her later works by submitting her radical identity and expressing her ideas in more practical language.

Due to her wide ranging writings covering psychology, sociology, business, and public administration, Follett and her works have been difficult to categorize. Her writings applied to the human social condition, without specific directives as to public administration or business management techniques (Snider 1998, 279). Consequently Follett has not maintained the visibility similar that of Dewey.

According to O'Connor (2000, 187) there are additional reasons why Follett has not received prominence in the public administration and business management

fields over the past 75 years. A summary of the causes of relative neglect include:

...her gender, the difficulty of her writing, the complexity of her ideas...her political incorrectness. She was a Hegalian at a time when the power of the state...was increasingly suspect. [Her ideas]...became increasingly identified with socialism....industrial democracy as a concept became increasingly linked “to the propaganda of trade unionists, socialists, and social reformers”.

Follett has regained a certain visibility in the past 15 to 20 years in the United States. This is due in large part to the recent vogue of Japanese business management and organization practices, where Follett along Demming are revered, within American business management circles. Peter Drucker, along with others, has been a proponent of Follett's contributions to American management theory (Graham 1995, viii). Parker and Ritson (2005, 1346) note that her “... rediscovery by contemporary management theorists has elevated her status and recognition and facilitated the currency of her ideas. These include Parker..., Graham..., Fry and Thomas..., Eylon..., McLarney and Rhyno..., Ryan and Rutherford..., and Schilling....they offer the prospect of [reestablishing her position]...as a founder of today's management discipline”.

Dewey, Follett and Participatory Management

For the purposes of this study participatory management and the Community of Inquiry approaches have been treated as complementary. They both offer mechanisms for participation by all involved parties in a process. They both encourage and value a diversity of perspective. They are contemporary in time and place of origin, as well as having shared intellectual authors. The Community

of Inquiry approach directly embraces American civic democracy as a foundational principle. Participatory management, as represented by Follett, hedges on this characteristic, viewing the role of the individual as most positive in a group dynamic.

In this study, a linkage has been sought between the two approaches so as to support the hypotheses of the study. The local jurisdiction and public funding contexts of the study lend themselves to interest in both participatory management as a management technique and intergovernmental cooperation and relations as a civic function. It could be anticipated that the combination of the two would yield positive results for both program performance metrics and public policy satisfaction.

Hypotheses

H₁: Controlling for jurisdictional size, local officials with greater involvement in the State Homeland Security Grant Program procurement process will exhibit a greater perception of improvement in equipment preparedness.

H₂: Controlling for jurisdictional size, local officials with greater involvement in the State Homeland Security Grant Program procurement process will exhibit a greater perception of improvement in training preparedness.

H₃: Controlling for jurisdictional size, local officials with greater involvement in the State Homeland Security Grant Program procurement process will exhibit a greater perception of equipment preparedness post-September 11, 2001.

H₄: Controlling for jurisdictional size, local officials with greater involvement in the State Homeland Security Grant Program procurement process will exhibit a greater perception of training preparedness post-September 11, 2001.

Table 4.1. Conceptual Framework Linked to the Literature

Hypothesis	Literature
H ₁ : Controlling for jurisdictional size , local officials with greater involvement in the SHSGP procurement process will exhibit a greater perception of improvement in equipment preparedness .	Evans 2000 Garrison 2000 Graham 1995 Schilling 2000 Shields 1998 and 2003 Snider 1998 Zimmerman 1983
H ₂ : Controlling for jurisdictional size , local officials with greater involvement in the SHSGP procurement process will exhibit a greater perception of improvement in training preparedness .	Evans 2000 Garrison 2000 Graham 1995 Schilling 2000 Shields 1998 and 2003 Snider 1998 Zimmerman 1983
H ₃ : Controlling for jurisdictional size , local officials with greater involvement in the SHSGP procurement process will exhibit a greater perception of equipment preparedness post-September 11, 2001.	Evans 2000 Garrison 2000 Graham 1995 Schilling 2000 Shields 1998 and 2003 Snider 1998 Zimmerman 1983
H ₄ : Controlling for jurisdictional size , local officials with greater involvement in the SHSGP procurement process will exhibit a greater perception of training preparedness post-September 11, 2001.	Evans 2000 Garrison 2000 Graham 1995 Schilling 2000 Shields 1998 and 2003 Snider 1998 Zimmerman 1983

Chapter Five

Methodology

Introduction

The primary research question guiding the study asks, “does the level of involvement in the SHSGP procurement process impact perceptions regarding emergency preparedness and improvement in emergency preparedness?” This chapter describes the research methods designed to address the primary research question. Included is the operationalization of key concepts, identification of the dependent and independent variables, survey construction, data collection, sampling strategy, and statistical techniques. This study is explanatory in nature. Similar to an organizational case study, the research provided a concise description of the Texas State Homeland Security Grant Program and an in-depth description of its equipment and training procurement method. As an employee of Texas Engineering Extension Service, the researcher’s role was as a complete participant. The role of complete participant involves significant ethical challenges to objectivity which were diligently considered.

Concepts, Operationalization and Variables

Concepts

The primary research question addresses the perceptions of respondents. The primary research question was organized into four hypotheses. Table 5.1.

operationalizes the hypotheses. The concept of emergency preparedness was operationalized by asking respondents to indicate their jurisdiction's pre 9-11 and post 9-11 level of preparedness according to a continuum from one to five with one (1) indicating not prepared at all and five (5) representing completely prepared. Operationalization of the concept of emergency preparedness resulted in four variables, PRE9-11 PREPAREDNESS and POST9-11 PREPAREDNESS (training and equipment). Both variables were treated as ordinal level variables.

The concept of improvement in preparedness was operationalized by calculating the difference in PRE9-11 and POST9-11 preparedness levels in training and equipment. Pre-911 scores were subtracted from post-911 scores to obtain preparedness improvement scores which became the dependent variables, TRAINING IMPROVEMENT and EQUIPMENT IMPROVEMENT. The variables were treated as interval level measurements.

The concept of involvement (in the procurement process) was operationalized by asking respondents to indicate their level of participation in the SHSGP process on a scale from one (1) to five (5) with one (1) representing no involvement at all and five (5) representing very involved. Operationalization of the concept resulted in the ordinal level independent variable INVOLVEMENT.

The concept of jurisdiction size was operationalized by asking respondents to indicate the population of their respective jurisdictions. Responses was recoded into the independent variable SIZE consisting of the attributes rural (5,000 and smaller), small (between 5,001 and 50,000), medium

(between 50,001 and 250,000), and large (above 250,000). This variable was treated as an ordinal level variable.

The operationalization of the hypotheses is represented in Table 5.1. See Appendix A for the complete questionnaire.

Table 5.1. Operationalization of the Hypotheses

Variables	Hypotheses	Measure	Source
Dependent			
Change in Perceptions of Emergency Preparedness Training	Controlling for Jurisdiction Size, respondents reporting greater involvement will have a significantly larger change in perception of preparedness.	(Perceptions of Preparedness Pre 9-11) – (Perceptions of Preparedness Post 9-11)	Survey
Change in Perceptions of Emergency Preparedness Equipment	Controlling for Jurisdiction Size, respondents reporting greater involvement will have a significantly larger change in perception of preparedness.	(Perceptions of Preparedness Pre 9-11) – (Perceptions of Preparedness Post 9-11)	Survey
Perceptions of Emergency Preparedness Training	Controlling for Jurisdiction Size, respondents reporting greater involvement will have a significantly greater perception of preparedness.	Perceptions of Preparedness Post 9-11	Survey
Perceptions of Emergency Preparedness Equipment	Controlling for Jurisdiction Size, respondents reporting greater involvement will have a significantly greater perception of preparedness.	Perceptions of Preparedness Post 9-11	Survey
Independent			
Level of Involvement		Self-reported involvement using a scale from 1-5	Survey
Control			
Size of Jurisdiction		Population of: 1. Less than 5,000 2. 5,001 to 50,000 3. 50,001 to 250,000 4. Over 250,000	Survey

Data Collection

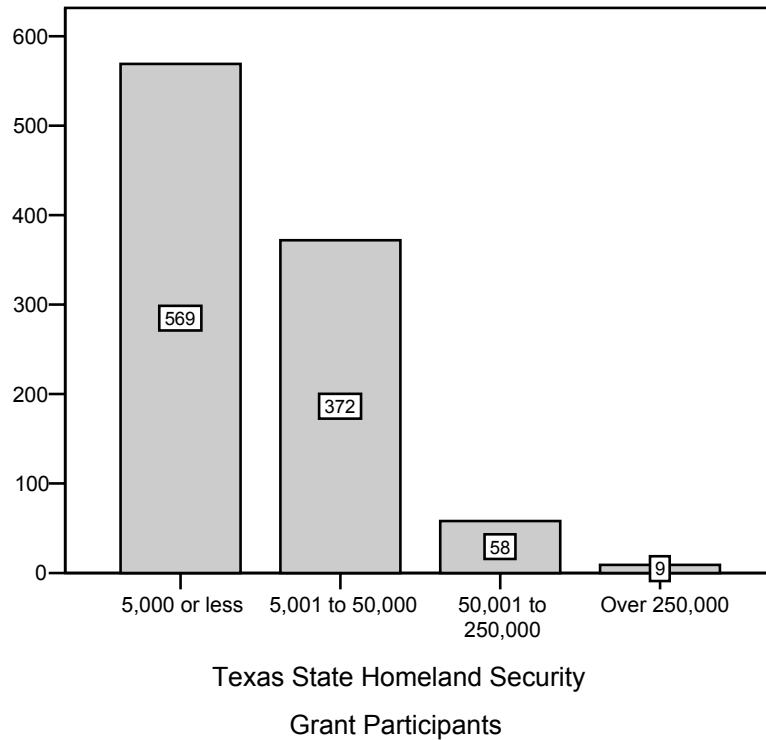
Each operationalized concept formed a survey question. To test the hypothesis that increased participation is positively associated with an increase in perceptions of preparedness, attitudinal data were collected using web-based surveys. Access to an online survey construction tool was obtained by subscribing to www.surveymonkey.com.

Sample

The population consists of “Points of Contact”, or POCs, for all local jurisdictions participating in the Texas State Homeland Security Grant Program. The POCs are local jurisdiction representatives who are charged with acting as liaisons with TEEX staff and completing and conveying all required planning and strategy documents and identifying local decisions as to training and equipment procurements. By 2005, over 1,000 local jurisdictions had participated in the program with populations ranging from less than 100 to over 3.4 million residents.

There were 1,008 Points of Contact from all jurisdictions participating in the Texas State Homeland Security Grant Program. The sampling frame was a list of all Points of Contact. Email addresses for the Points of Contact were obtained by accessing the individual local jurisdiction file contained in the Texas Domestic Preparedness Assessment database. A disproportionate random sample stratified by jurisdiction size was selected. As indicated in Figure 5.1., jurisdictional sizes varied considerably in the population.

Figure 5.1. Distribution of Population by Jurisdiction Size

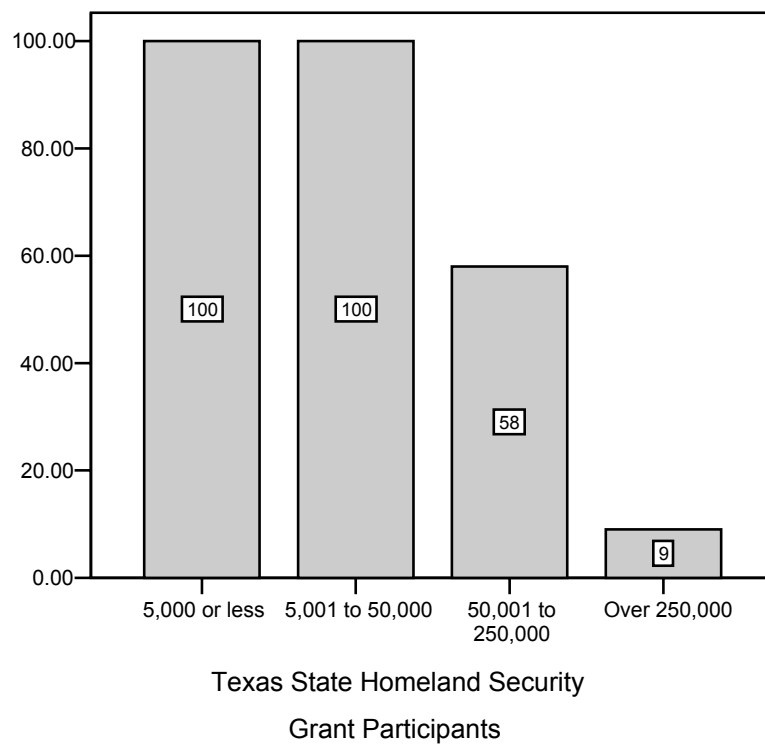


Over 56% of the jurisdictions (569) were rural with populations of 5,000 or less. Almost 37% were jurisdictions (372) with populations between 5,001 and 50,000. The number of larger jurisdictions was considerably smaller. Fifty-eight of the jurisdictions (58) or 5.8% were between 50,001 and 250,000. Only nine jurisdictions (.9%) had populations exceeding 250,000. Since jurisdiction size was a key control variable, stratification on this variable was necessary to ensure adequate sample sizes for meaningful and valid comparisons.

The sample was stratified. All (100%) jurisdictions between 50,001 and 250,000 (58) and jurisdictions over 250,000 (9) were included in the sample to

ensure that jurisdictions containing most of the people in Texas would not be eliminated if a simple random sample were used. Surveys were sent to 100 respondents each for jurisdictions with 5,000 or less and between 5,001 and 50,000. Figure 5.2. indicates the sampling stratification by jurisdiction size. A total of 267 surveys were emailed to potential respondents.

Figure 5.2. Stratification of Jurisdiction Size



The online surveys were distributed on March 26, 2006. Participants received an email describing the project and soliciting participation (see Appendix B). After one week, 65 online surveys had been completed. The most responses (40) were received on the day following the initial mailout. A second mailing was completed one week after the first mailing. The final sample size was 82 for a response rate of 31%.

Statistical Analysis

Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the data. Univariate analysis of the variables PRE 9-11 EQUIPMENT PREPAREDNESS, POST 9-11 EQUIPMENT PREPAREDNESS, EQUIPMENT IMPROVEMENT, PRE 9-11 TRAINING PREPAREDNESS, POST 9-11 TRAINING PREPAREDNESS, AND TRAINING IMPROVEMENT consisted of mean, median, and standard deviation. SIZE was summarized by a frequency distribution indicating the modal category. Bivariate analyses were also conducted examining the relationships between IMPROVEMENT and the independent variables SIZE and INVOLVEMENT. Finally, a multivariate model was analyzed through use of regression. Regression is appropriate for models incorporating an interval or ratio dependent variable and independent variables that are interval or dummy-coded ordinal and nominal level variables. Figure 5.3 represents the model to be tested:

Figure 5.3. Regression Analysis Model

$\text{Change in Perception} = a + b (\text{level of involvement}) + c (\text{size of jurisdiction})$

The data provided a description of perceptions of preparedness enabling an analysis of the relationship between the involvement of local officials in the procurement process and the perceptions of preparedness and improvements in preparedness.

Human Subjects Protection

In January 2006 a prospectus of this study was submitted to the Texas State University Institutional Review Board (IRB). After review the IRB designated this study exempt. The portions of the study of relevant interest to the IRB were the survey questionnaire and the methodology of the involvement of the local jurisdiction Points of Contact (Appendix B).

The survey utilized a commercial online web-based service to create an anonymous mechanism of response. The value or use of the response was not affected by the specific identification of the respondent. The only related need was that of identification of jurisdiction size category. The respondents were not associated with responses. Only aggregated data was used in the Results chapter of the study.

Conclusion

This chapter addressed important elements of the research design and the methods used to answer the primary research question. Data collection methods were described including a discussion of the sampling process. The work applied participatory management tenets as the theoretical framework used to answer the primary research question, “does the level of involvement of local officials in the procurement process impact perceptions regarding emergency preparedness and its improvement?” Chapter Six, the results section, describes distributions of the dependent and independent variables and the multivariate analyses used to answer the research question.

Chapter Six

Results

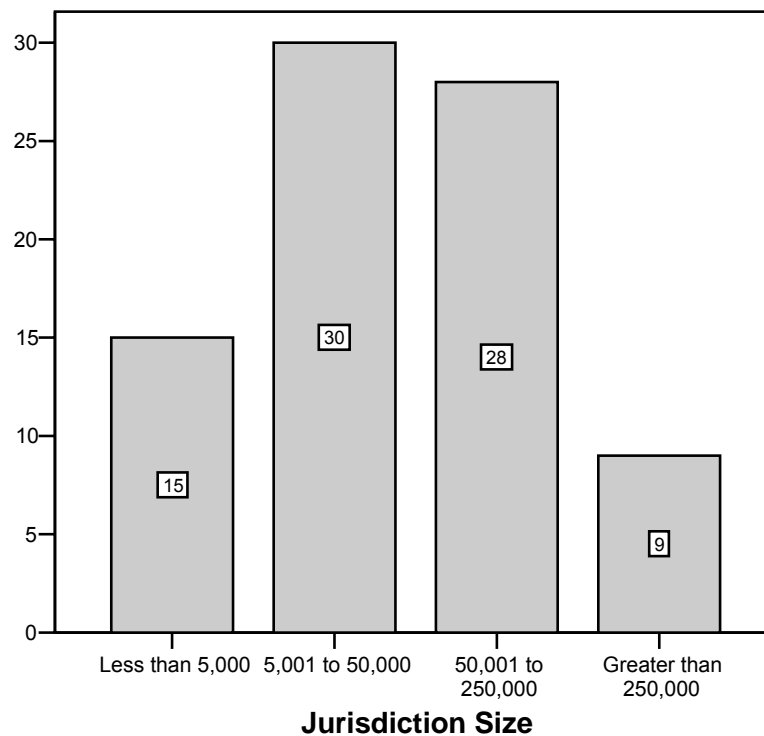
Introduction

In this chapter, the results of the statistical analysis are reported. First, the independent and dependent variables were examined univariately through graphical representation, measures of central tendency, and dispersion. The chapter concludes with four multivariate logistic regression models in which the elements of the primary research question are addressed.

Univariate Descriptives

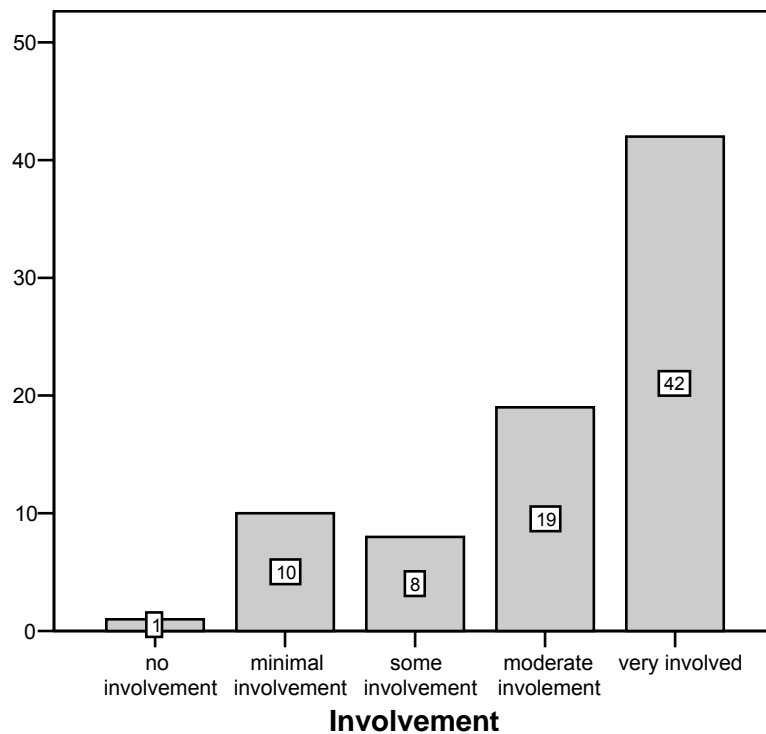
The first section reports the univariate characteristics of the independent and dependent variables. Examined were the distributional characteristics of the variables including the mode, mean, and standard deviations. Eighty-two (82) surveys of the 267 email surveys were completed. Level of involvement represented the independent variable. Jurisdiction size was a control variable. Respondents were asked to indicate the population size of their jurisdiction. The results are displayed in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1. Distribution of Returned Surveys by Frequency



The mode for returned surveys by jurisdiction size was 30 (37%) respondents indicating their jurisdictions fell within the 5,001 to 50,000 population range. The second most frequent jurisdiction size was 50,001 to 250,000 with 28 returned surveys (34%). In the stratified categories, the response rate differed considerably. Better response rates were achieved with more populated jurisdictions. All jurisdictions (9) with populations exceeding 250,000 responded (11% of responses) for a 100% response rate for size category. For populations between 50,001 and 250,000, 28 (49%) responded. Only 30% (or 30 responses) of jurisdictions between 5,001 and 50,000 returned surveys. The lowest response rate was for the least populated jurisdictions (15%) with 15 responses.

Figure 6.2. Bar Chart of Reported Involvement.



Respondents were asked to indicate their level of involvement (Figure 6.2) in the State Homeland Security Grant Program using a 5-point Likert Scale ranging from no involvement (1) to very involved (5). Overall, the respondents indicated considerable involvement. The modal category was very involved with 53% of respondents indicating they were very involved in the grant procurement process. The second most common response was moderate involvement (24%). Less than 23% reported minimal or some involvement. Only one respondent (1%) reported no involvement. The mean for INVOLVEMENT was 3.14 and the standard deviation was 1.11.

Dependent Variables

Four dependent variables were examined. The variables were calculated as the difference in pre-September 11 and current perceptions regarding level of equipment and training preparedness. The distributional characteristics are represented in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1. Distributional characteristics of dependent variables

	Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mode
Equipment	Pre-911	1.01	.66	1
	Post-911	1.64	.80	1
	Improvement	.63	.80	0
Training	Pre-911	1.09	.71	1
	Post-911	1.69	.78	1
	Improvement	.60	.61	0

The distributional characteristics of the variables were further explored with bar charts. (Figures 6.3. – 6.8.)

Figure 6.3. Bar chart of Pre-September 11 Equipment Preparedness

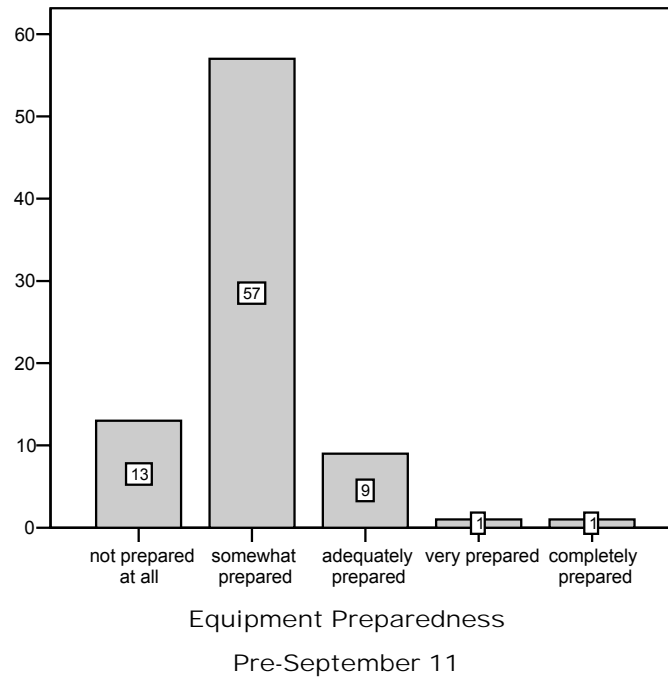


Figure 6.4. Bar chart of Post-September 11 Equipment Preparedness

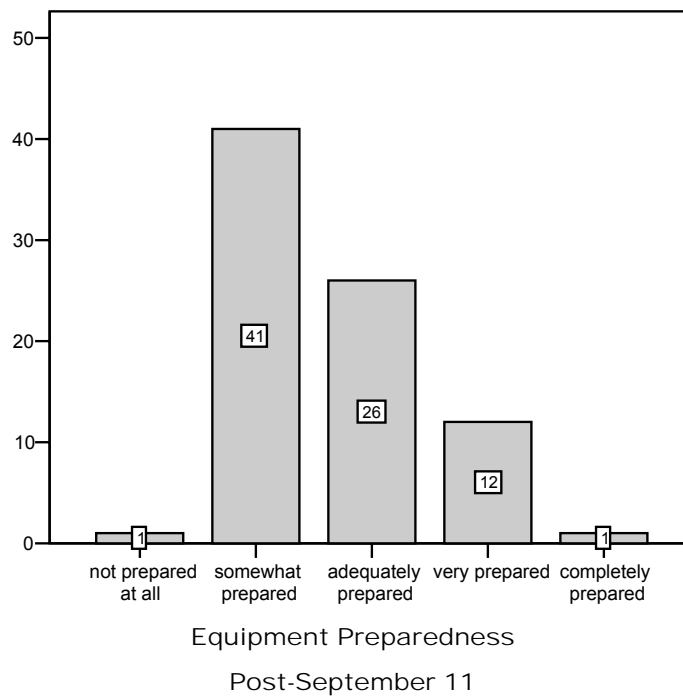


Figure 6.5. Bar chart of equipment improvement

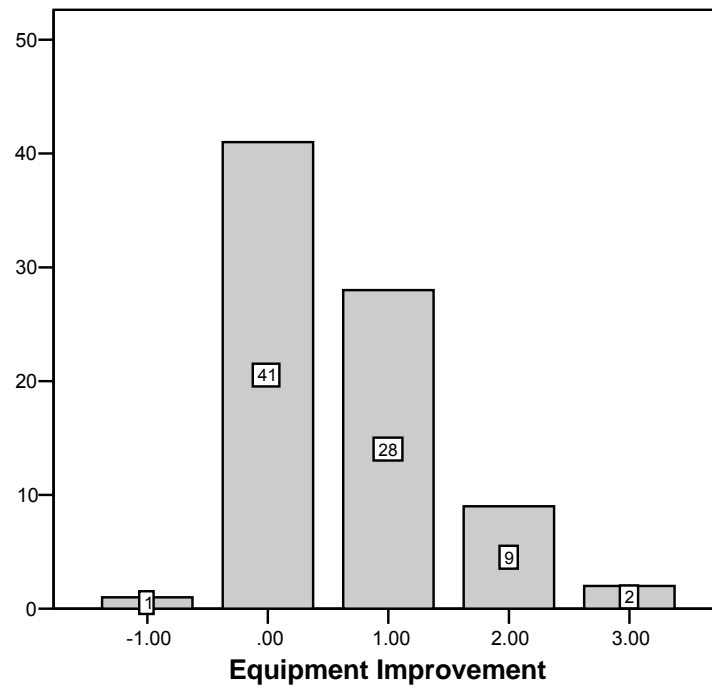


Figure 6.6. Bar chart of Pre-September 11 Training Preparedness

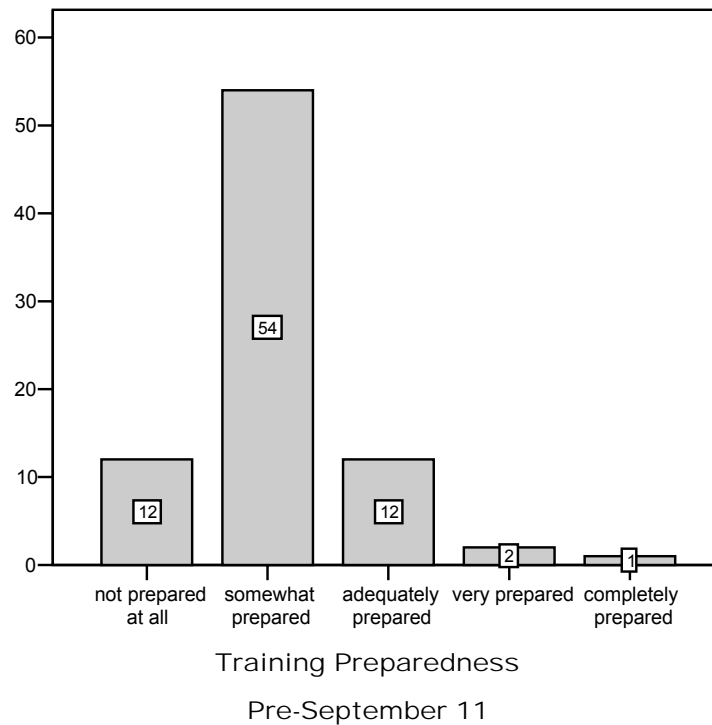


Figure 6.7. Bar chart of Post-September 11 Training Preparedness

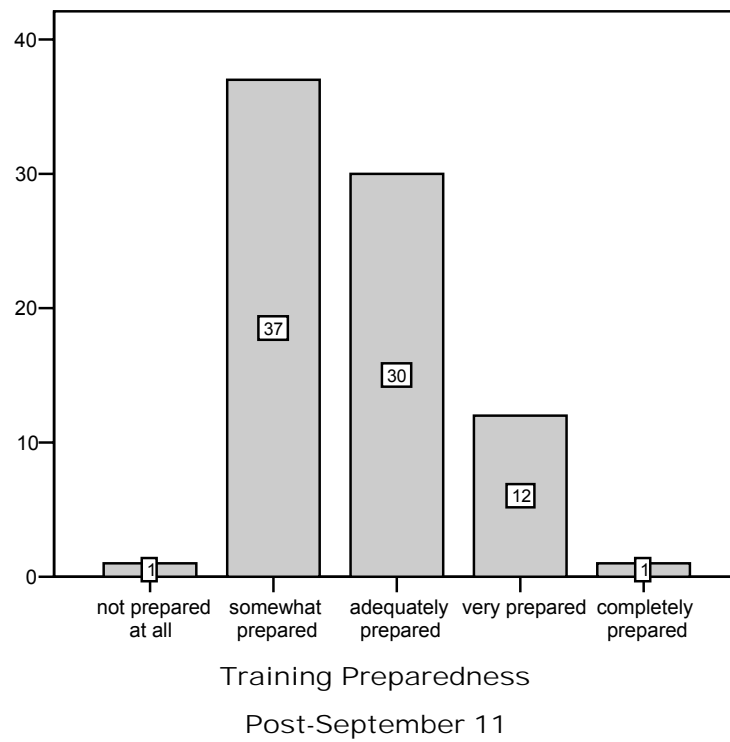
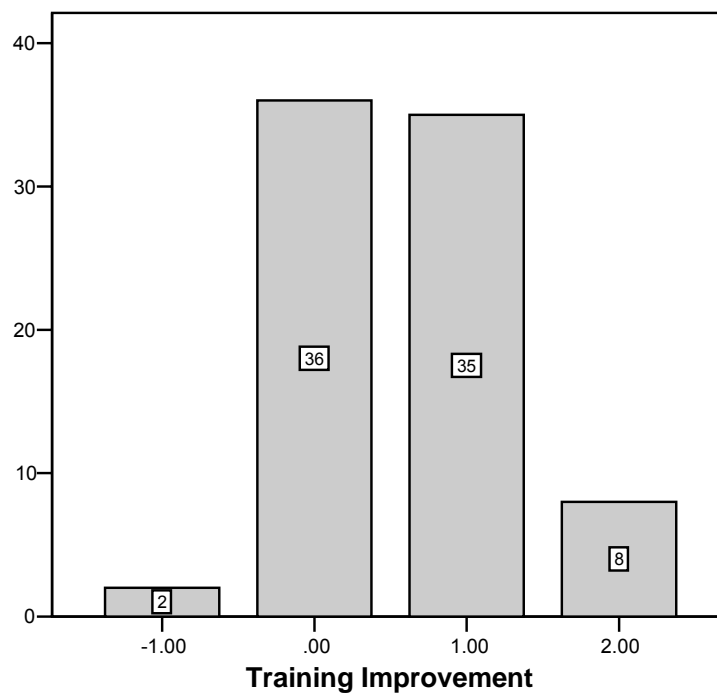


Figure 6.8. Bar Chart of training improvement



Perceptions of improvement in equipment preparedness (Figure 6.5.) were limited. Almost 52% of respondents (42) saw no improvement in equipment preparedness. This finding was unexpected and created modeling challenges with respect to linear regression which assumes a linear relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Only 39 respondents (48.1%) reported an improvement in equipment preparedness and of these 37 (95% of the positive respondents) were concentrated in two categories. Furthermore, only fully-ordered ordinal level data with five or more categories are appropriate for linear regression models which assume interval level measurement of the dependent variable. The lack of variability in improvement was also apparent in the variable TRAINING IMPROVEMENT. Here in Figure 6.8. fully 100% of the improved cases were concentrated in two categories (see Figure 6.7.).

With these distributional issues in mind, two additional regression models were computed which included the variables, POST 9-11 EQUIPMENT PREPAREDNESS and POST 9-11 TRAINING PREPAREDNESS. These variables represented fully-ordered ordinal level data appropriate for linear regression. Initially, it was reasonable to expect a similar relationship between involvement and perceptions of preparedness after September 11. Specifically, participatory management theory would lead to the expectation of greater involvement being associated with an increase in perceptions of preparedness in both equipment and training.

Multivariate Analysis

The initial focus of analysis was on the two dependent variables, EQUIPMENT IMPROVEMENT and TRAINING IMPROVEMENT. The impact of INVOLVEMENT on two additional dependent variables, POST 9-11 EQUIPMENT PREPAREDNESS and POST 9-11 TRAINING PREPAREDNESS, was then explored. The logic of support for POST 9-11 EQUIPMENT PREPAREDNESS and POST 9-11 TRAINING PREPAREDNESS as measures likely to be impacted by INVOLVEMENT was based on the tenets of participatory management theory. Additionally, the demonstrated limited variability of EQUIPMENT IMPROVEMENT and TRAINING IMPROVEMENT made this analysis even more compelling. The results of the analyses are displayed in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2. Results of Regression Analysis

Variable	Model 1 Equipment Improvement		Model 2 Training Improvement		Model 3 Post 9-11 Equipment		Model 4 Post 9-11 Training	
	<i>b</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>t</i>
Involvement	.09	1.03	.14	1.70	.282**	3.38	.285**	3.46
Size	.02	.17	-.13	-1.33	.018	.17	-.006	-.06
Constant	.28	.98	.48	1.83	.700*	2.59	.795	2.97*
F	.80		1.62		7.71		7.56	
R ²	.020		.04		.167		.164	
Adjusted R ²	.005		.016		.145		.142	

*p \geq .01

** p \geq .01

As noted in Table 6.2., INVOLVEMENT was not a significant predictor in Models 1 and 2 examining the independent variables, EQUIPMENT IMPROVEMENT and TRAINING IMPROVEMENT. In Model 3, INVOLVEMENT was a significant predictor of perceptions of POST 9-11 EQUIPMENT PREPAREDNESS ($p > .001$). Hence, although INVOLVEMENT could not predict perception change it was significantly related to a positive sense of increased preparedness. As indicated by R^2 , the almost 17% of the variation in perceptions of POST 9-11 EQUIPMENT PREPAREDNESS was explained by variation of the independent variables, INVOLVEMENT and SIZE.

The Adjusted R^2 takes into consideration the sample size and number of independent variables in the model and adjusts accordingly correcting for small samples and a large number of predictor variables. The Adjusted R^2 indicated that 14.5% of the variation in the dependent variable was explained by the model. The unstandardized coefficient (b) indicated that perceptions of equipment preparedness increased .282 units for every one unit increase in INVOLVEMENT. SIZE was not a significant predictor in the model.

INVOLVEMENT was also a significant predictor in Model 4 examining the dependent variable POST 9-11 TRAINING PREPAREDNESS ($p > .001$). As in Model 3, INVOLVEMENT was not significantly related to perception of change. INVOLVEMENT was significantly related to a positive sense of increased

preparedness. The R^2 indicated that 16.4% of the variation in perceptions of POST 9-11 TRAINING PREPAREDNESS was explained by the model. The Adjusted R^2 indicated that after accounting for sample size and the two independent variables 14.2% of the variation in the dependent variable was explained by the model. The unstandardized coefficient (b) indicated that perceptions of equipment preparedness increased .285 units for every one unit increase in INVOLVEMENT. As in Model 3, SIZE was not a significant predictor in Model 4.

Conclusion

This chapter examined the univariate distributions and bivariate relationship. Four linear regression models were calculated to answer the research question, “does the level of involvement of local officials in the procurement process impact perceptions regarding emergency preparedness and its improvement?” Utilizing significance testing, the null hypothesis was failed to be rejected in the models examining TRAINING IMPROVEMENT and EQUIPMENT IMPROVEMENT. However, INVOLVEMENT was a significant predictor of POST 9-11 EQUIPMENT PREPAREDNESS and POST 9-11 TRAINING PREPAREDNESS. The multivariate analysis did not provide support for the research hypotheses that increased involvement was associated with increased perceptions of equipment and training improvement. This was likely due to the limited variability of these variables. The analyses did provide support

for the hypotheses of a positive impact of involvement on post 9-11 perceptions of both training and equipment preparedness. See Table 6.3 for summary of conclusions.

Table 6.3 Summary Table for Conclusions

Hypotheses	Evidence
1. Controlling for jurisdiction size , local officials with greater involvement in the SHSGP procurement process will exhibit a greater perception of improvement in equipment preparedness .	Evidence failed to support hypothesis.
2. Controlling for jurisdiction size , local officials with greater involvement in the SHSGP procurement process will exhibit a greater perception of improvement in training preparedness .	Evidence failed to support hypothesis.
3. Controlling for jurisdiction size , local officials with greater involvement in the SHSGP procurement process will exhibit a greater perception of equipment preparedness post-September 11, 2001.	Evidence supported hypothesis.

4. Controlling for jurisdiction size , local officials with greater involvement in the SHSGP procurement process will exhibit a greater perception of training preparedness post-September 11, 2001. .	Evidence supported hypothesis.
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Chapter Seven

Conclusions

Research Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine if participation in the State Homeland Security Grant Program equipment and training procurement process by local officials impacted their perceptions of equipment and training preparedness and improvement in preparedness at the local jurisdiction level. The research findings did not support the first two hypotheses in finding a positive relationship between involvement in the grant procurement process by local officials and perception of improvement in preparedness. However, the last two hypotheses were supported with a significantly positive finding of relationship

of involvement and perception of preparedness in the current time frame at the local jurisdiction level. Hence, the purpose of the study was achieved in part.

Limitations of the Study

There were several limitations to the study. The first was the small sample size. Out of a sample frame of 1008 SHSGP participating local jurisdictions the survey information was distributed to 267 local jurisdictions. The composite sample consisted of a random sample pulled for the two groups of the stratified sample frame and two groups were surveyed in their entirety. A significant number of queried participants did not respond as there were responses by 82 of the local jurisdictions. The small sample size (30.7%) limited the ability of the study to generalize to the population.

The second limitation of the study was that the response pattern was skewed to the larger jurisdictions. The smaller jurisdictions, those in the less than 5,000 and the 5,001 to 50,000 population ranges, composed 93.4% of the sample frame but only 54.9% of the survey respondents. Those local jurisdictions with populations of 50,001 to 250,000 and above 250,000 composed 45.1% of the survey respondents while they consisted of 6.6% of the sample frame. It is not known if significant differences existed between those who responded and those who did not.

Two independent variables were used to explain the one dependent variable (perception). The model explained a substantial amount of variation (16+%) in

the dependent variable given it had only two predictor variables. Other predictive factors impacting perceptions of preparedness should be explored.

Suggestions for Future Research

In any future study a larger sample size should be used. A different survey design, or combination of survey types, might be used to facilitate an increase in the response rate to the survey and to achieve a more balanced set of responses. Lastly, but perhaps most usefully, other variables should be explored that might be more explanatory as to impact on perceptions of preparedness.

Suggestions for Policy Makers

Noticeably few respondents perceived significantly improved levels of preparedness between the two time periods of the study. While this may be merely a methodological problem, it could be indicative of a marginal contribution by the SHSGP resources input into a local All Hazards emergency management model. In a similar vein, the perceptions of high levels of preparedness by involved SHSGP participants could be an artifact of participatory management as noted in the literature. That is, the result of the second set of dependent variables studied could indicate a participation bias by capable and aggressive grant program participants and not represent an actual state of preparedness.

Policy implications that could be drawn from this study potentially impact the direction of limited state and Federal funds to specific types of grant participants.

Also, the focus of SHSGP funding into areas of concentration so as to maximize the positive effect of those funds on emergency preparedness is another possible policy impact. In short, the question arises, “Have SHSGP funds been dispersed over too wide a set of recipients and too broad a set of assistance options to have an appreciable and measurable impact on terrorism preparedness at the points of greatest effect?”

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Appendices

Appendix A: Local Jurisdiction Point of Contact Survey Form

Appendix B: Local Jurisdiction Point of Contact Survey Instrument

Appendix C: Regional Map of Texas Counties

Appendix A

State Homeland Security Grant Program

Local Jurisdiction Point of Contact Survey

Beside each of the questions presented below, please indicate your preference with one of the responses.

A. Local Jurisdiction Population

Please indicate population range of your jurisdiction	yes	no
1. less than 5,000		
2. between 5,001 and 50,000		
3. between 50,001 and 250,000		
4. greater than 250,000		

B. Level of Perceived Local Jurisdiction Preparedness

Please indicate level of perceived preparedness	Indicate level with 1 as "not prepared at all" through 5 as "completely prepared"
<u>Pre 9-11 level of preparedness for:</u>	
4. Equipment	1 2 3 4 5
5. Training	1 2 3 4 5
<u>Post 9-11 level of preparedness for:</u>	
6. Equipment	1 2 3 4 5
7. Training	1 2 3 4 5

C. Level of Involvement of Point of Contact in State Homeland Security Grant

Program (SHSGP) process

Please indicate level of involvement of POC in SHSGP process	Indicate level with 1 as "none" through 5 as "very involved"
	1 2 3 4 5

Thank you for completing this survey

Appendix B

Local Jurisdiction Point of Contact Survey Instrument

Good, James B

BARRY GOOD@TXSTATE.EDU

From: Good, James B *Barry Good* **Sent:** Mon 3/20/2006 2:06 PM
To: Good, James B
Cc:
Subject: Texas State Homeland Security Survey
Attachments:

State Homeland Security Grant Program Point of Contact:

I am a graduate student at Texas State University conducting a survey concerning the State Homeland Security Grant Program. Your response will be very helpful in a study relating to local jurisdiction participation in the grant program and will be greatly appreciated.

Here is a link to the survey:

<http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.asp?A=121019087E2280>

Thank you for your participation,

Barry Good

Please note: If you do not wish to receive further emails from us, please click the link below, and you will be automatically removed from our mailing list.

<http://www.surveymonkey.com/r.asp?A=121019087E2280>

<https://synergy.txstate.edu/exchange/jg1474/Deleted%20Items/Texas%20State%20Homela...> 3/20/2006

Texas State Homeland Security Survey**Exit this survey >>****1. Texas State Homeland Security Survey**

Greetings!

You have been selected to participate in a study of perceptions of local officials regarding emergency preparedness of their communities for incidents of terrorism or use of Weapons of Mass Destruction.

I am a graduate student at Texas State University (TSU) at San Marcos, Political Science Department. This study is part of the capstone course in the Masters of Public Administration (MPA) program in which I am participating at TSU.

You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you have served as the Point of Contact for the State Homeland Security Grant Program between your local jurisdiction and Texas Engineering Extension Service (TEEX). You are one of 250 individuals selected for participation.

If you decide to participate, you will complete a very brief one page survey questionnaire online which will require minimal time investment associated with your participation. Identification of yourself or your local jurisdiction is not requested. This information will not be collected. I ask only that you identify the population range of your local jurisdiction.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission. However due to the nature of the survey you will not be identified as you complete the survey.

Your decision whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relations with Texas State University or any other institution or person. If you decide to participate by completing the survey questionnaire, you are free to discontinue participation at any time without prejudice. *

If you have any questions about this research or the survey, your participation in it or your rights if you choose to participate, please contact me (Barry Good) at 979/739-6160. If you have any additional questions later, Dr. Patricia Shields, Program Director of the MPA Program (512/245-2143) will be happy to answer them.

You may retain a copy of this form and the survey questionnaire by retaining this email if you wish.

You are making a decision whether or not to participate. Your

<http://www.surveymonkey.com/Users/21277687/Surveys/270501911045/42D4885A-CC0...> 3/21/2006

participation indicates that you have read the information provided above and have decided to participate. You may withdraw from completion of the survey questionnaire at any time without prejudice, should you choose to discontinue participation in this study. **

*You are under no obligation to participate in the study. Your completing the questionnaire will be taken as evidence of your willingness to participate and your consent to have the information used for the purposes of the study.

**You may retain the cover letter and this explanation about the nature of your participation and the handling of the information you supply.

FEDERAL OFFICIALS HAVE THE RIGHT TO INSPECT RESEARCH RECORDS, INCLUDING CONSENT FORMS AND INDIVIDUAL MEDICAL RECORDS, TO ENSURE COMPLIANCE WITH THE RULES AND STANDARDS OF THEIR PROGRAM.

THIS PROJECT HAS BEEN REVIEWED BY TEXAS STATE UNIVERSITY'S INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB) [PHONE: 512-245-2314].

Next >>

Texas State Homeland Security Survey**Exit this survey >>***** 1. Please indicate the population of your jurisdiction.**

- ☐ Less than 5,000
- ☐ Between 5,001 and 50,000
- ☐ Between 50,001 and 250,000
- ☐ Greater than 250,000

2. With regard to equipment, please indicate your jurisdiction's level of preparedness before September 11, 2001.

- ☐ not prepared at all
- ☐ somewhat prepared
- ☐ adequately prepared
- ☐ very prepared
- ☐ completely prepared

3. With regard to training, please indicate your jurisdiction's level of preparedness before September 11, 2001.

- ☐ not prepared at all
- ☐ somewhat prepared
- ☐ adequately prepared
- ☐ very prepared
- ☐ completely prepared

4. What is your present level of equipment preparedness?

- ☐ not prepared at all
- ☐ somewhat prepared
- ☐ adequately prepared
- ☐ very prepared
- ☐ completely prepared

5. What is your present level of training preparedness?

- ☐ not prepared at all
- ☐ somewhat prepared
- ☐ adequately prepared
- ☐ very prepared
- ☐ completely prepared

6. Please indicate your level of involvement since September 11, 2001 in the State Homeland Security Grant Program process as related to equipment and training procurement.

- ☐ no involvement
- ☐ minimal involvement
- ☐ some involvement
- ☐ moderate involvement
- ☐ very involved

[<< Prev](#)

[Next >>](#)

Texas State Homeland Security Survey

Exit this survey >>

3. THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS SURVEY.

If you wish to view the composite results of this survey and the attendant Applied Research Project please contact me (Barry Good) at 979/739-6160 for TSU website information.

[<< Prev](#)

[Done >>](#)

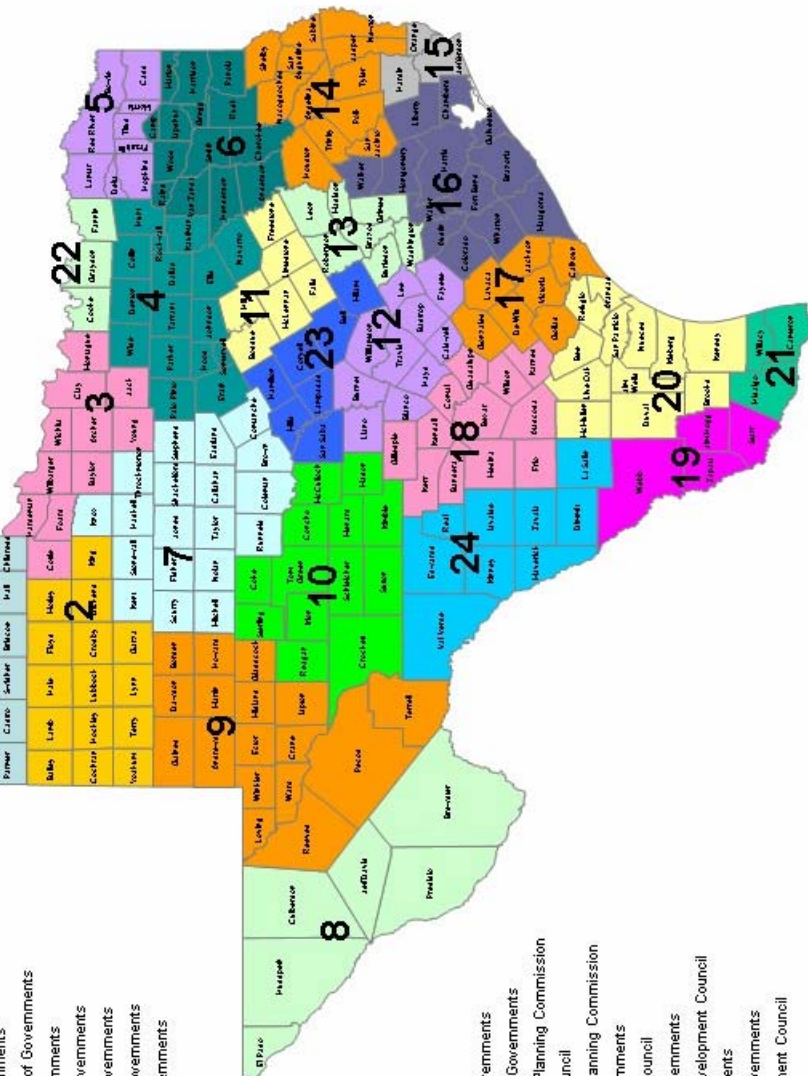
Appendix C

Regional Map of Texas Counties

Regional Councils of Governments
24 Service Areas
(Governor's State Planning Regions, Chapter
391, Texas Local Government Code)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24

1. Panhandle Regional Planning Commission
2. South Plains Association of Governments
3. Nortex Regional Planning Commission
4. North Central Texas Council of Governments
5. Ark-Tex Council of Governments
6. East Texas Council of Governments
7. West Central Texas Council of Governments
8. Rio Grande Council of Governments
9. Permian Basin Council of Governments
10. Concho Valley Council of Governments
11. Heart of Texas Council of Governments
12. Capital Area Council of Governments



13. Brazos Valley Council of Governments
14. Deep East Texas Council of Governments
15. South East Texas Regional Planning Commission
16. Houston-Galveston Area Council
17. Golden Crescent Regional Planning Commission
18. Alamo Area Council of Governments
19. South Texas Development Council
20. Coastal Bend Council of Governments
21. Lower Rio Grande Valley Development Council
22. Texoma Council of Governments
23. Central Texas Council of Governments
24. Middle Rio Grande Development Council