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The Linear Evolution of Local Emergency Management Training in Response to Domestic Terrorism

Jeffrey Januchowski

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Walden University

College of Health Sciences and Public Policy

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Jeffrey Januchowski

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Walden University
2023

Abstract

The Linear Evolution of Local Emergency Management Training in Response to
Domestic Terrorism

by

Jeffrey Januchowski

MA, Columbia Southern University, 2012

BS, Austin Peay State University, 2010

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Management

Walden University

April 2023

Abstract

This paper presents a research study in the field of emergency management. The study aims to identify training or educational needs for the emergency manager at the local level of government to effectively handle disasters. The study uses phenomenon theory with semi-structured interviews that gather data from emergency managers that have experience with major disasters and training requirements. Participants were experts in the emergency management profession with the ability to speak appropriately about the phenomenon. Research questions identified the training methods that produce the best results along with the specific hazards emergency managers may encounter. The research design used questionnaires and interviews to gather data from participants, which was analyzed to produce viable results. The results identified in-person training was the most effective model with specific hazards varying depend on location. The main area emergency managers should be trained is in Incident Command System (ICS) classes, specifically communications. This area was noted by all participants as a key to success before, during, and after a disaster or incident. The results of the study will assist local emergency managers to better understand training or educational needs to effectively deal with hazards and disasters therefore increasing the safety and security of the community.

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Dedication

This study is dedicated to my wife and best friend Melony, who has always been a constant source of support and encouragement during my entire college experience. She has stood by my side for over 30 years and has always been my rock who always provided the motivation to continue with the next step and finish what I started. There have been plenty of ups and downs, but in the end, we are stronger together and able to accomplish any task when it can be shared together.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

This study researched the lack of practical and approved educational standards found within the emergency management profession and highlights better practices that could be put in place for improved disaster management. A lack of training was found at all levels, including the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA), an organization that has been taxed with heavy emergency response requirements throughout the years. Managing disaster-related situations, either man-made or natural, requires emergency managers to effectively make decisions that can affect others' lives. Setting standards and allowing for a fluid evolution will benefit an emergency management training curricula and promote a more competent workplace.

Disasters are natural or man-made occurrences that affect a local area or an entire nation. With the possibility of a major disaster occurring with little to no warning, it is necessary for local emergency managers to be properly prepared to handle all hazards. This requires local emergency managers to have proper training and education to better react to the complex nature of a disaster. Issues surrounding the training and preparedness of emergency managers often arise when a newly hired employee begins their position. Many times, these individuals are directly out of college with little to no practical experience before they are placed in positions requiring them to react and lead in dramatic situations (Kirkpatrick & Jensen, 2021). In a profession that allows no room for error, new emergency managers are often failed by the lack of current and thorough critical material received during their educational careers.

In the growing emergency management profession, more colleges and other institutes of higher learning are providing degree or certificate programs to keep up with the demand. Identifying a basic common, practical curriculum for all emergency managers will help to standardize the way each emergency manager operates in their community. Understanding that each area of the country has its own specific hazards, the way one prepares for, responds to, and recovers from such hazards should be set to standard to simplify overall comprehensive emergency management. This study addresses the multiple facets of emergency management curricula and determined from experts the basic educational requirement to assist local emergency managers in handling major disasters effectively.

Background of the Study

Emergency management is a relatively new profession that requires properly trained individuals to evaluate and react to hazardous situations no matter how minor or severe. Training is an important facet in any profession because it helps you gain the qualifications, knowledge, and skills in a particular area of interest. Training and education can be received through colleges, universities, and federal agencies that all have different curricula. This makes it very difficult for emergency managers to communicate their message between different jurisdictions and agencies. An article by Brown (2015) determined emergency management organizations overall were prepared to respond to disasters; however, they were concerned whether their employees were adequately trained even know most have college degrees. The need for additional training

through workshops or exercises was necessary for new employees to improve upon their knowledge and skills on how to respond and recover from disasters.

A study conducted by the FEMA from 2010-2011 produced a document titled “A Comprehensive Emergency Management Training and Education System.” FEMA understood there was no single source of training information for emergency managers whether new to the profession or trying to acquire the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed for their position. This document identifies core competencies that all emergency managers should possess and developed curricula that would provide the basis for training in these areas (FEMA, 2020). FEMA has a federal training program in place at the Emergency Management Institute (EMI) in Emmitsburg, Maryland for emergency managers to receive specific training in over 550 courses. The implementation of an academy at EMI that implements the core competencies covering eight specific areas is covered over a 3-week period. The enactment of a common core education system is in place at the federal level where emergency managers can come from around the country; however, colleges and universities continue to implement their own curriculum for emergency management degrees.

Information retrieved from the International Association of Emergency Managers (IAEM) website of colleges and universities that offer degrees or certificates in emergency management identified the following. Over 198 colleges or universities offer degrees or certificates in emergency management. Of these colleges, nine offer doctoral degrees; 39 offer master’s degrees; 41 offer bachelor’s degrees; 45 offer associates degrees; and 120 offer bachelor level, master level, or stand-alone certificates (IAEM,

2013). When comparing the curriculum from each of the colleges or universities that offer emergency management degrees, few offer the same curriculum, with many offering completely different curriculum. Emergency manager's responsibilities to deal with different type of disasters or hazards vary depending on where they are located in the country, but the overall aspects to prepare for, protect against, respond to, recover from, and mitigate all hazards is the same. An emergency manager receiving training or education on the west coast should not have to receive additional core training if they move to the east coast, only the hazard specific to the area. Standardized curriculum throughout the United States would not only benefit the individual emergency manger but the communities they serve.

IAEM and FEMA are the standard-bearers for emergency management; however, training and education should reflect what these institutions believe to be the most important areas of study for local emergency managers. An article by Shufutinsky et al., (2020) identified that during the COVID-19 pandemic, many leaders were not prepared or being reactive in their response. The ability to have leaders go through military surge training to prepare them for situations they may encounter can better prepare leaders. Although the authors developed a model that identifies many attributes that are needs by leaders to be trained, they are very vague and do not go into specifics. When analyzing different literature, there are many articles that have come to the same conclusion. Since emergency managers are the first individuals the community turns to when disaster nears or strikes, it is imperative these individuals receive the most current and appropriate training required for them to effectively perform their duties as emergency managers.

Most emergency managers receive some type of training, whether it is formal or on-the-job training depends on the area and the qualifications needed for the specific job (Brown, 2015). This is a concern in small municipalities where emergency managers are not full-time positions, but an additional responsibility performed outside their normal duties (Via, 2006). Identifying specific training will benefit these “part-time” emergency managers by keeping them current on the most-up-to date curriculum available for their job.

Education and training are extremely important to the local emergency manager, but personal experience is just as important. Identifying what emergency managers deem critical after a disaster can be as important as training prior to an incident. Being new to the profession requires a basic understanding of what type of training is needed to have comprehensive knowledge of the scope of the job. Gathering information from emergency managers that have experience with disasters will help to identify specific topics for training and/or education. When examining college curricula, many classes are outdated or irrelevant for emergency managers. Power (2018) conducted a study showing that building teams during a disaster is necessary for effective response but identifies many roadblocks that prevent this from happening. Three areas where training is needed that will help build effective teams are coordination, communication, and cooperation. The ability to build effective teams will assist emergency responders to better understand each other with commonality on how each person should react while responding to a disaster. This by itself shows a need for training and education but fails to identify

specific programs of study or courses. Local emergency managers are at the tip of the spear when it comes to handling threats or disasters that can affect their community.

This study is significant because it determined the need for training and/or education requirements for the local emergency manager. Much of the literature addresses the need for training or education for local emergency managers to effectively handle disasters; however, there are no specific details that elaborate training or educational requirements (Goodwin et al., 2009). There is a significant gap in the literature that fails to identify common training or education curriculum offered by federal or state institutions to better prepare local emergency managers.

Degrees offered by colleges and universities in emergency management, on the job training at specific locations, and formal training offered at the federal level have still failed to produce specific courses that will prepare the local emergency manager (Brown, 2015; Waugh & Goss, 2019). It is imperative to identify specific training that all professional development institutions can implement to have a similar curriculum to prepare the nation's local emergency managers. Individuals at the federal and state level have vast amounts of experience handling major disasters and are the individuals who would have the knowledge to determine the training or education required at the local level. Determining these requirements will vastly improve the emergency management profession by identifying specific curriculum (identified by experienced experts) to have a well-trained and educated work force.

Problem Statement

There is a problem with education and training at the local emergency management level to effectively handle major disasters (Roberts et al, 2012). Despite the current available emergency management curricula at colleges, universities, and federal agencies, there is an issue with emergency management personnel being ill-prepared (Nicholson, 2007). Research conducted by Pelfrey and Kelley (2013) highlights the inability for academic curriculum to identify common core requirements to enhance the emergency management field. Although bringing together colleges and government to discuss possible shortcomings in training has accomplished much, there is a need to identify the most viable curriculum that will benefit all levels of government (Polson et al, 2010). Data analyzed from 198 colleges that offer emergency management degrees identified the lack of an accepted standard in emergency management curricula (Department of Homeland Security, 2013). This failure to provide cohesive training nationwide is a contributing factor that produces poorly prepared graduates as they enter the professional arena.

This problem has negatively affected local communities because emergency managers are not properly prepared due to improper training, education, or experience which can result in a false sense of security (Brown, 2015). A possible cause of this problem can be attributed to the profession of emergency management, as is relatively new and education and training often fails to meet the requirements necessary to prepare and respond to major disasters. Perhaps a study that investigates training and education

acquired by experienced emergency managers by qualitative method could remedy the situation.

In the literature, there is a constant understanding there is a need for training and education to improve local emergency managers' ability to respond to disaster. The main gap identified is the study was concentrated to a specific state or there were no specifics to the change in training. McCreight (2009); Gordon (2008) both expressed a need for education and training improvements but fail to name exact curriculum or classes. Roberts et al. (2012) identified there should be more research into specific training requirements for emergency managers. When analyzing the literature for this study, one common theme is a need for education and training improvements within the emergency management profession; however, no specific classes are mentioned.

Purpose of the Study

As mentioned earlier, all emergencies and disasters are local, which is why there needs to be an emphasis placed on local emergency management training. There have been numerous studies exploring the need for training or education, but the literature never addresses the specifics or notes the exact curriculum. Major disasters are a reality and have a possibility of occurring in any of the states and territories of the United States. Having properly trained emergency managers will benefit the community and its citizens by having individuals with the knowledge and experience to handle disasters. The results of this study will benefit the local emergency management office by noting qualified individuals, but also benefit the community to know they have the most qualified individuals in the positions.

Research Questions

The study explored one central issue of training and educational requirements through two research questions.

RQ1 – What training models are most effective at preparing emergency managers?

RQ2 – What are the most crucial threat areas in which emergency managers should be trained?

This study determined training and/or educational requirements for local emergency managers at the local level. Research questions 2 builds on the overall threat to the local emergency management environment, where research question 1 tries to build on any additional training the local managers might benefit from that is not offered to the local level manager. All disasters are local which is the determining factor for limiting the study to requirements for the local emergency manager.

RQ1 This research question was answered by a qualitative approach using semi-structure interviews. Using questions derived from previous literature along with the current curriculum at colleges, universities, and federal training facilities will produce viable results. Participants in the study answered a variety of questions that produced enough data where empirical information will yield results.

RQ 2 This research question compared answers provided by the participants to the various training outlines and the *comprehensive emergency management training and education system*. Every disaster is local; however, much of the funding and training is provided through state and federal agencies. Information acquired through the interview

process was analyzed and a determination was completed on relevance of material. A difference in training that is not offered at the local level was obtained through the interview process where a training strategy can be constructed.

Theoretical Foundation

The framework for this study was Charlie Reigeluth's elaboration theory with a small concentration towards curriculum theory, which has several areas of focus. Scott (2001) defined curriculum theory as a set of learning and teaching programs that take place in a formal setting which is the basis of his theory. Reigeluth divided elaboration theory into seven basic components that guide the educator into how the curriculum should be presented. The seven basic components are an elaborative sequence; learning prerequisite sequences; summary; synthesis; analogies; cognitive strategies; and learner control (Reigeluth & Stein, 1983). These seven components can be used to design curriculum and assist instructors to prepare to present the course content.

Within curriculum theory, the idea to communicate between both the educator and student about the meaning of the curriculum and the if and how this same curriculum will be beneficial in the future (Scott, 2014). Understanding whether curriculum is relevant both present and future will help to design constructive curriculum that allow students and teachers to benefit through learning and instructing.

The basis of this study identified the areas of most interest that would assist emergency managers to effectively handle disasters or incidents at a local level. The combination of elaboration and curriculum theory will implement the most common areas that would be most decisive in training. My goal identified learning objectives that

can be universal throughout the emergency management profession, Elaboration theory will optimize a set of learning goals through the ability to sequence instruction. Because the curriculum is needed to be presented at the earlier time someone decides to become an emergency manager, the material must start with the simplest idea and build to a more complex design.

By using elaboration theory's concentration of education and training, and curriculum theory that builds on the creation of curriculum, the ability to identify what is needed for emergency managers to handle disasters was met. Curriculum theory added to the data that was obtained by adding how elaboration theory structures the curriculum by putting the proper information in the correct order. Understanding where we need to be is where elaboration and curriculum theory begin by identify the most relevant areas to train in the simplest form.

Conceptual Framework

The theoretical framework for this study was Edmund Husserl's phenomenology theory with a concentration toward Clark Moustakas's transcendental phenomenology using semi-structured interviews. Because this theory addresses participants that have experienced the process, emergency managers will provide the most complete information due to their knowledge of the profession (Moustakes, 1990; Patton, 2002). Other individuals and researchers, in order to identify experiences of specific events, have used Husserl's theoretical framework. This approach provided details by focusing on how the participants experience the process and understand the importance of the

study. When conducting phenomenological theory, the research questions asked of the participants helped to gather data from the individual's experiences (Moustakes, 1994).

The theoretical framework for this study revolves around specific training or education requirements. Local emergency managers have a vital impact on the community, and it is unclear whether current training and education requirements improve major disaster management. Another fault of current occupational standards involves the lack of evaluations of colleges or universities providing training and education in order to determine if local emergency managers are more effective with the training or education (Brown, 2015). Without this evaluation, colleges and universities could be obsolete in providing this training or education. Major disasters are a continual hazard throughout the United States, so it is imperative that the local threat is clearly identified and taken seriously. Training and education are extremely important for emergency manager to effectively handle major disasters (McCreight, 2009); however, many local agencies perceive the threat of major disasters to be low (Schafer et al., 2009) making local emergency managers unprepared.

In my study, the area that formed the framework of identifying the requirements and standards for local emergency managers to efficiently handle major disasters is training and educational requirements. The literature reviewed for this study examined training and education and their impact on local emergency managers; however, the literature failed to identify specific subjects or classes. The gap in the research lends itself to explore exactly what types of training or education will better prepare local emergency managers to handle major disasters and explain the gap in the research literature.

Nature of the Study

The nature of the study was qualitative design using phenomenological theory and semi-structured interviews. Qualitative research began with studying emergency managers to determine the most effective training and education classes for better handling of disaster situations. Interviewing participants in the study identified trends that can be used to improve training and education for local emergency managers. This qualitative analysis helped pinpoint classes or training that will benefit the local emergency manager to effectively manager major disasters.

Information from the participants was gathered and analyzed to determine common and unique terms and phrases that correspond to the research questions. Participant's expertise in the emergency management profession was quantitatively analyzed through questionnaires and interviews. Empirical data developed specific themes that was used to compare participants responses that could be tied back to the research questions. The information gathered from the questionnaires prioritized specific training or education requirements identified by the research participants that can be used to improve curriculum for new emergency mangers to effectively handle major disasters. Quantitative research produced the best results from the participants that identify their reasoning for specific training or educational requirements for local emergency managers.

Definitions

Emergency Manager (EM) - protects communities by coordinating and integrating all activities necessary to build, sustain, and improve the capability to mitigate

against, prepare for, respond to, and recover from all hazards (U.S. Department of Homeland Security, 2013).

Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) – national agency to assist citizens and first responders prepare for, protect against, respond to, recover from, and mitigate all hazards (U.S. Department of Homeland Security, 2013).

Certified Emergency Manager (CEM) – is considered the top certification in emergency management requiring formal training and experience (International association of Emergency Managers, 2013).

Emergency Management Institute (EMI) – is the Nation’s flagship training institution devoted to strengthening emergency management core competencies (U.S. Department of Homeland Security, 2013).

International Association of Emergency Managers (IAEM) - is recognized as a premier international organization of emergency management professionals (International association of, 2013).

State Training Officer (STO) - a community specialist who oversees emergency response centers and training protocols and organizes training exercises, seminars, and drills for emergency operations staff and first responders (U.S. Department of Homeland Security, 2013).

Federal Coordinating Office (FCO) – appointed by the director of FEMA to coordinate federal assistance to a state affected by disaster or emergency (U.S. Department of Homeland Security, 2013).

Assumptions

This study and the need to understand the importance of training and education at the local emergency manager level assumed the participants represent the whole community and have similar knowledge and experience. There are 54 STOs and over 2,500 CEMs throughout the United States, and this study used a small sample of these professionals (IAEM, 2013). All CEMs must meet similar qualifications to obtain the certification making these individuals reliable in their assessment of the entire emergency management community. These individuals have been exposed to a minimum of three major disasters and worked closely with local managers which make them qualified to represent all emergency managers in this study.

Major disasters affect each region of the United States and Territories differently. FEMA has divided the United States into 10 regions with each having their own priorities when it comes to disaster preparedness. Florida, California, and Kansas all experience different hazards they must prepare for (FEMA, 2008). Because one hazard is more prevalent in one region does not alleviate that threat completely and must be addressed and planned for. Each local emergency manager has their own area of responsibility that requires different planning and response throughout the country. The ability for STOs to understand each of the areas is assumed in this study through their certifications and experiences.

The core competencies developed by FEMA are standards that have an impact on the emergency management community by building a set values and norms to follow. Tables 1-4 are being used as a guide that will determine specific training and/or education

requirements. These competencies were part of the questionnaire that determined different areas state training officers concentrated on while developing training. An expert in the profession requires the knowledge that includes most of the competencies; however, everyone provides a variety of data similar but different from these competencies.

This study required certain assumptions to be made that will contribute to the overall study. The emergency management community is very large with offices in most towns and cities throughout the United States. With STOs being so few, a random sample of this group assumed each of these individuals will provide accurate information at the local level. Without this assumption, all STOs would have to be interviewed which would be a hefty task that would produce similar results. This qualitative study produced better results when the study group is limited to five to 20 participants and in-depth interviews are used to gather information (Creswell, 2007).

Each selected individuals had knowledge of disasters that could occur in all regions of the United States. This assumption relied on the fact that STOs have a wide knowledge base of all regions and possible disasters. The ability to understand the threat at each level and the procedures on how to react is imperative for each of these individuals. Without having a common understanding of each region, STOs would not be able to effectively perform their duties, thereby threatening the safety of the communities they serve. STOs are an appointed position where the individual can be removed if they are ineffective or ineffective in their position. This fact strengthens the assumption STOs are knowledgeable at the local level and all hazards.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this study focused on the need for training and/or educational training for local emergency managers. There are many areas that could contribute to the inability for institutions to come together to provide a common core of curriculum that would benefit the entire emergency management community. One area this study addressed is the ability to understand what the common requirements for the local emergency manager should be. The research conducted by Pelfrey and Kelley (2013) highlighted this specific problem that address the inability for academic curriculum to identify common core requirements to enhance the emergency management field.

This study considered the core competencies identified by FEMA and produced valid data received by the participants. Once the information was received from the participants, the data were analyzed and compared to the core competencies for any similarities that can be used to identify specific training or educational courses. The information collected and analyzed was coded into specific areas where a determination was made for the best courses that would benefit the local emergency manager.

The sample of the study included a selection of experts in the emergency management profession that was determined using questionnaires and interviews. The data were collected from a sample size of 15 STOs using questionnaires and in-depth interviews. Questionnaires were sent to 54 STOs to identify whether the individuals have been involved in disasters in different regions and have worked closely with local emergency managers. The questionnaire brought forth a better-rounded individual that had the preferable work and leadership experience that provided the most relevant

information. Individuals selected from the questionnaire needed to first have experience as a local manager or worked closely with them; second, involved in multiple disasters; and third, have a comprehensive understanding of state and federal programs.

The analysis of data retrieved from the participants was coded into groups that compared the core competencies in Table 1-4. From these groups, a more defined selection of courses was completed using training and educational courses currently available. Information from the analysis included courses outside the grouping of Table 1-4 requiring the need to include additional courses into a separate group.

The mere exposure theory and theory of education used in this research is transferable to other research identifying similar characteristics. Being exposed to a certain phenomenon in order to retain the subject matter is used in everyday teaching and is common practice (Davis & Sumara, 2008; Fang et al., 2007). In today's world, education has a major impact on almost everything we do. Understanding the correct educational requirements is necessary to produce viable curriculum for success. In this study, the problem statement can be changed to produce viable results of any specific subject.

This study did not include specific disasters or hazards because each disaster can affect different areas in their own way. This study focused on the local level emergency manager because of the fact all emergencies are local. Even though much can be learned from individual disasters, the ways emergency managers prepare for, respond to, and recover from disasters should not change. Understanding the process of handling a disaster is more important than the nature of the specific disaster itself.

This study did not address the state and federal level of response to a major disaster by emergency managers. This study focused on the local level because the normal first responder to a disaster is the local emergency manager. In the National Incident Management System (NIMS), it identifies that all disasters are local (FEMA, 2008). This study focused on the local emergency manager because this is where state and federal managers normally originate. The state and federal response to a disaster only occurs when the local government is overwhelmed and requests assistance.

FEMAs core competencies were the only competencies used in this study during the analysis. There are hundreds of other competencies and course curriculum that could be used for this study, but FEMA is the standard bearer in emergency management. From this information, a list of training or educational recommendations was identified. A full curriculum was not developed, only recommendations of courses that could be included into curriculum to produce a more effective training or educational system.

Limitations

The recommendations of this study covered training and education requirements for the local emergency manager to effectively handle major disasters. The information identified in this study provides an understanding of what would be the most important courses for the local manager to complete. This study did not develop a specific curriculum for colleges, universities, or federal facilities to produce emergency managers, but provide recommendations of curriculum that would best assist emergency managers in performing their duties and responsibilities.

The intent of this study developed a group of standardized training or educational recommendation without regard to location or disaster. Each region in the country has different disasters that specialized training is necessary; however, this study addressed only what is common for emergency managers. The ability for emergency managers to relocate and perform their duties without interruption is vital to the overall success and safety of the community.

This study did not recommend any changes to doctrine such as the National Response Framework (NRF), NIMS, Presidential Policy Directives 5 & 8, and the Emergency Management Information System. This study focused on training and education and not on local policy for emergency managers.

Biases were addressed in this study preventing any influences on the outcome. A potential bias of this study was participants are not able to identify with a change to the profession. The participants enter the study with the assumption there is nothing that needs to be changed at the local level. Individuals are set in their way and believe that they have been successful and there is no reason for any change to training or education requirements. These individuals also represented a small group of professionals who have had regular success. Not being able to present what could be done better and only what they have accomplished could hinder the study. Participants were asked to focus on what is needed for local emergency managers to be successful and not their personal beliefs. This bias was addressed using questionnaires that identified any outliers that could affect the validity of the study.

Using semi-structured interviews has the ability for the researcher to guide the study in a direction that meets their own bias. Introducing my own beliefs into the study can alter the results producing a skewed and biased study. Being involved in the emergency management profession for over 25 years has shown different training and educational methods that have been both a success and a failure. The ability to put aside personal beliefs is imperative to the success and validity of this study.

Within this study, there are several steps taken to reduce the impact of a limitation. This study represented qualitative research into the emergency management field as it applies to disasters at the local level. The study was narrowed down by concentrating on the local emergency manager regarding handling major disasters. This study provides suggested recommendations for developing training and/or educational requirements for the local emergency manager to successfully deal with major disasters.

To establish validity and credibility, I selected a representation of experts in the emergency management profession determined through experience and selection from peers and governmental professionals. Additionally, I used key members of the *comprehensive emergency management training and education system* study to review the study for any factual problems.

I did not deviate from the doctoral process to establish validity and expunged any bias that may occur in qualitative research. I am presenting the findings of the study through the analysis of data collected from the participants.

Certain aspects could be addressed in this study were not discussed to concentrate on the focus and purpose of the study. My study could of legitimately address specific

curriculum colleges, universities, or federal training facilities should incorporate. The training or education identified in this study is as simple as hands on classes on how to create a specific document. The study consisted of interviewing emergency managers and not university or college professors who develop academic curriculum. A separate study could be completed in future research and use the findings from this study as the basis for identifying specific curriculum.

Additionally, identifying specific disasters that affect local areas will not be examined due to the expansive nature of areas disasters that may occur. The intent of this study was identifying training or education to assist all local emergency managers instead of specific areas or incidents. This could be accomplished in a future study that narrows down specific regions and/or a designated disaster. This would be a valuable study for advanced training for state or federal emergency managers that are responsible for large areas where different disasters may occur.

Another research area is the impact emergency managers have politically in their community. Emergency managers are the experts in their community that require them to be politically active to accomplish their mission (Kapucu & Van Wart, 2008). Requesting funds, equipment, and training are only part of the duties and responsibilities of the local emergency manager. This involves these individuals to work closely with political figures in their community.

In qualitative methodology, the major inherited problem would be trustworthiness of the study. There are many areas where research bias can influence the data collection and analysis. Creswell (2009) characterizes qualitative research as judgment and looking

for the meaning to real life events. The intent of this study was determined qualitative methodology was the best way to gather the specified data to answer the research questions.

Due to the fact all the participants are emergency managers, there was a possibility all have a specific bias in execution of plans during disasters. This may not be the doctoral method of preparing, responding, or recovering from a major disaster; however, their method has produced results. Senior emergency managers may not be able to identify the underlying issues due to their inability to change and implement new training or doctrine.

Gathered data was analyzed and compared to the *comprehensive emergency management training and education system* chart to identify any similarities. Personal bias was not a contributing factor because protocols were followed during the research process. Having 25 years of experience in the profession, I was consistent in the collection and evaluation of data using strict analysis protocol and not allowing personal biases to interfere in the collection and analysis of data.

Significance of the Study

My study is significant because it highlights the need for specific training or education requirements by using the comprehensive emergency management training and education system as a tool to gauge specific requirements. By using FEMA, which is the premiere emergency management agency, and experts in the profession developed a list of requirements that can be used by federal and state institutions to better improve the curriculum of emergency managers at the local level. There are hundreds of classes and

degrees that can be better structured to offer a common curriculum that will strategically improve the quality of emergency managers at the local level.

The most significant benefit to my profession as an emergency management professional is to create a better understanding of what experienced emergency managers believe are requirements to handle major disasters at the local level. This will strengthen the curriculum everyone receives prior to arriving at their local emergency management office. Emergency management has been around since Congress enacted legislation to assist with the major fire disaster that took place in Portsmouth, New Hampshire in 1803; however, the profession of emergency management has only started to evolve and be recognized in what we see today. In 1993 the creation of the CEM, raises and maintained professional standards that are recognized internationally throughout the world (IAEM, 2013). There are very few colleges and universities to offer emergency management degrees, and it was not until FEMA created the Higher Education Program in 1994 that collaboration between FEMA and higher education began to offer greater opportunities to the profession (Waugh & Goss, 2019). With emergency management being a relatively new profession, it is imperative to establish common requirements for colleges, universities, and federal institutions to incorporate that will produce well trained and qualified individuals.

Receiving common courses will assist individuals moving from one local emergency management office by establishing common standards that will be incorporated at all locations. FEMA offers common courses for emergency managers and first responders; however, they are not a requirement for anyone to attend or the training

is not included in the local budget. This study identifies specific courses that could assist emergency managers to determine the most productive training or education to have at the local level.

An additional benefit to my profession will be a contribution to a more qualified emergency manager where a qualifications standard can be produced. Understanding the common requirements for emergency managers, an evaluation and qualification system can be established that will assist individuals to set goals and standards to advance in the profession. Standard requirements for most local emergency managers are a college degree; however, each college is different in the curriculum offered to receive the emergency management degree. This study identifies a curriculum that can be used to produce individuals that will have the knowledge and experience to perform their duties anywhere in the United States.

My research study contributes to more effective and efficient training and educational programs designed to streamline a basic curriculum that includes all requirements to be an effective local emergency manager, therefore enabling social change.

Using the skills of the emergency manager obtained through quality training and education will improve the community's preparedness to all hazard incidents. Hurricane Katrina was an example of unprepared local, state, and federal government with individuals looking to these entities for assistance. A well-prepared local emergency manager understands the need for a viable plan and will be prepared for the next disaster without initially relying on the government. Changing an individual's perception of

disasters preparedness and response will impact the community by having more informed and prepared citizens through positive social change.

The ability for emergency managers to be established professionals is essential to ensure the safety of their community is established in the event of all hazard events. Emergency managers must not only understand the make-up of a disaster but must also know the inner workings of their community. This unique effort requires a commitment by the local emergency manager that will bring together all private, public, and non-governmental agencies to work together. Having the proper background of emergency management allows local emergency manager to influence and implement public perception that can improve preparedness, response, and recovery to disasters that might impact the community.

The ability for curriculum to maintain current data and relevant material is imperative for the emergency management profession to stay informed and trained (Waugh & Goss, 2019). This research is not intended to build curriculum, but the study may influence social change through improved knowledge of training and educational requirements. Formal education allows individuals to achieve social status through educational requirements of specific jobs. Colleges will benefit if they are known to have a current and relevant emergency management curriculum where individuals know they will receive a quality education sought by employers.

Emergency management has transformed over the years from a fire administrative function in California to its own agency within the Federal government. The incident command system (ICS) was implemented in California in 1970s to establish a

commonality within agencies along with establishing resource management. ICS was adopted by the federal government in 2005 that made it a requirement for all jurisdictions to use ICS (Jensen & Thompson, 2016). The changing world landscape has the United States leading the way in emergency management development, making this research important to the global world and social change.

Significance to Practice

This study is important to numerous stakeholders in the emergency management profession to include local, state, and federal managers and college institutions. Understanding training and education requirements to make local managers better prepared to handle major disasters. This will benefit colleges and universities by identifying areas that can be used in future curriculum that will improve new emergency managers that will work at the local emergency management office.

Significance to Theory

This study is unique because it addressed actual and potential gaps in training and educational courses currently available for individuals pursuing a career in the emergency management profession. The results of this study determines critical information that can help to produce a more capable local emergency manager. These individuals will be better equipped to handle major disasters through improved college and training curriculum. Most organizations and agencies require a degree in emergency or disaster management as a prerequisite for employment; however, it is unknown whether the specific curricula offered through different training and educational institutions prepare local emergency managers to handle major disasters (Brown, 2015).

With emergency management being a relatively new, modern profession that quickly evolves, many course and training requirements are irrelevant or unnecessary for the success of an individual pursuing a career (Waugh & Goss, 2019). Senior emergency managers (10 years or more experience) along with STOs, CEMs, and federal coordination officers (FCOs) have a plethora of knowledge that can be used to better understand the vital training required to produce the most professional and skilled individuals prepared for the immediate workforce upon graduation.

Understanding training and educational requirements for local emergency managers to effectively handle major disasters will better prepare the community. Emergency managers are responsible to prepare for, protect against, respond to, recover from, and mitigate all hazards. Having these individuals prepared will benefit the community by having the most qualified individuals in the position. Major disasters are a threat to every community and having the most qualified individuals in the emergency management position will benefit the community to be properly prepared.

Significance to Social Change

The importance of properly trained emergency managers is critical for communities to prepare, respond, and recover from all hazards. Emergency managers need a basic understanding, and this education and training should be similar for any degree or training in any part of the United States. Information gathered from the Department of Education and IAEM identifies over 100 colleges and universities that offer degrees in emergency management with few having similar curriculum. This becomes a challenge for new emergency managers entering the profession trying to

establish similar standards that are established in federal doctrine. Case studies from Hurricane Katrina and Sandy have identified the lack of communication between jurisdictions to properly identify and handle the scope of the disasters (Mycoff, 2007). Local emergency managers being properly training and having similar training or education could have prevents the lack of communication and response to these disasters.

This study uncovered the predominant courses that will produce the most effective emergency managers which should be included in emergency management curriculum. The analysis collected data from known experts throughout the nation that have a vast working knowledge of emergency management and real-life experience. These individuals have worked as or for the local emergency management office and have had experience with major disasters throughout the United States. Understanding the competencies and characteristics that made these individuals successful can be transferred to others in the form of training or education. Previous research identified in numerous articles the need for training and education to produce effective mangers; however, none have actually identified what specific training or education is necessary (Pelfrey & Kelley, 2013; Remington, 2014; Roberts et al., 2012). This study identifies specific training or education required by the local emergency manager and fills the gap in previous research. This chapter will be followed by a review of the pertinent literature in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 will follow with a description of the study design, participants, procedures, assessments used, and interpretation of information gathered.

Summary and Transition

Emergency management has evolved over the years; however, curriculum at state colleges, universities, and federal institutions have not come together to offer similar studies. Numerous studies identified a need to identify specific training or educational requirements for emergency managers. Most studies have drawn a consensus there is a need for training or educational requirements but have never examine specific courses or studies. Giblin et al., (2009) described a failure of emergency management preparedness at the local level due to the lack of experience, training, and education. This study identifies training and/or educational requirements for local emergency managers to effectively handle major disasters by interviewing CEMs and FCOs.

The mere exposure theory and theory of education combined with questionnaires and non-structured interviews answered RQ1, which asks what training models are most effective at preparing first responders to handle major disasters. The data were gathered, coded, and analyzed using the comprehensive emergency management training and education system matrix.

Research Question 2 (RQ2) identified what the most crucial threat areas in which responders are should be trained.

Chapter 2 reviewed literature appropriate to the phenomenon theory, emergency management training and education, and core principle and requirements. The review supports the use of FEMAs comprehensive emergency management training and education system matrix and college and university curriculum to group specific training or educational needs.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Emergency management is a relatively new profession that has transformed over the years and has become a major component of local, state, and federal government responsible for the preparedness, response, recovery, and mitigation of all hazards. There is a problem with education and training at the local emergency management level to effectively handle major disasters (Roberts et al., 2012). Numerous studies have shown a specific need for training or education requirements at the local level but have failed to identify the needed curriculum to assist local emergency managers to handle major disasters. With emergency management becoming more prominent in local and state governments, colleges and universities have added emergency management curriculum to meet the needs of the country. Data retrieved from FEMA Higher Education Program identify 325 colleges offering a degree in emergency management. Unfortunately, there has been no consensus among these institutions to identify a common core of classes that should be a requirement for all individuals perusing an emergency management degree (FEMA, 2022).

This study identifies specific courses or common core curriculum that should be implemented or developed to provide a solid base for local emergency managers. Without this study, curriculum will continue to be a mixed bag of classes, where department heads will implement courses they believe are relevant. This will be confusing when individuals enter an emergency management position with others that were training in different locations, and they all have different perspectives of the subject matter. Having a common curriculum makes communities more prepared by creating a

set of standards of training and education that will produce the most qualified and equipped emergency managers to handle major disasters.

Literature Search Strategy

To begin, a review of research strategies will be presented to assist in locating articles for future reference. The next portion of this literature review will highlight important research capturing the problems associated with local and state government not properly trained to handle major disasters. This review provides a better understanding of the importance of training or educational requirements at the local level to better prepare and deal with major disasters.

This review also identifies how colleges and universities fail to have a common curriculum making it difficult for two individuals with emergency management degrees from different areas to have similar knowledge of the subject. This will be determined through identifying curriculum from numerous colleges throughout the United States. Next, a review of case studies of major disasters will be examined that identify a lack of training by emergency managers to be a common factor in the success or failure of the event. Case studies look at the overall results of a disaster and bring together all aspects of preparedness, response, and recovery. These studies are a great source of information to identify lessons learned. Finally, a review of common goals and strategies of emergency managers throughout the United States is studied to identify any shared traits.

Several common themes in the literature were identified when conducting the review. When examining each of the articles, the common theme was there is a need for training and/or education for emergency managers; however, no specifics were ever

presented (Choi, 2008; Gerber & Robinson, 2009; Kusumasari et al., 2010; Maor, 2010; Pelfrey & Kelley, 2013). Several of the articles specifically recognized a need for future studies to identify common training that would benefit emergency managers (Brooks et al., 2010; Brudney & Gazley, 2009; Randol, 2012; Roberts et al., 2012). Articles were collected from different journals using key words to identify specific content that would be relevant to the problem. Searching different databases produced a vast quantity of article specific to the emergency management profession and training and education requirements.

The literature also illustrates the vast number of courses offered from different colleges or universities making a common curriculum difficult to fathom. Reviewing specific courses offered by colleges and universities identifies the major disconnect in curriculum in the emergency management field. This information is easily gathered from the Department of Education Website, IAEM website, and EMI website. Major disaster case studies provided valuable information that divided each disaster into a lesson learned of both positive and negative practices. By using case studies, college curriculum, and journal articles in emergency management provided enough information to determine a common theme and purpose for this study.

Literature research was conducted using several sources of information. The Walden University library offered several databases to include Political Science: A Sage full text collection, ProQuest: Criminal Justice Periodicals, and EbscoHost: Military and Government Collection. Sage, ProQuest, and EbscoHost databases were accessed using the general search terms “emergency manager” and “training” or “education” as the root

of all inquiries. With these terms, other search words such as “local,” “disaster,” “curriculum,” “colleges,” and “universities” were used to narrow down the results. Some of the main journals that resulted in the most information were Emergency Management, Administration & Society, Journal of Homeland Security, Emergency Management, and State and Local Government Review.

The EMI website had a list of degrees offered by colleges and universities with a list of curricula offered by each. This site also has a research center that has one of the largest concentrations of emergency management material. The database was accessed with the same keyword as the SAGE database. Case studies of the major disasters were obtained from this location. The IAEM website had a database that can access a wide variety of information from articles to a list of CEMs. One final database used was the Department of Education, which gave access to colleges and universities offering emergency management degrees.

Theoretical Foundation

The theoretical framework for this study was Charlie Reigeluth’s elaboration theory. This theory addresses training and education with the complexity of the material taken into consideration, emergency managers would be able to identify training received from simple to complex. Elaboration theory has been used by other researchers which has been applied in higher education and training (Reigeluth, 2018). This theory provided details of specific training by focusing on emergency managers and what time and level in their career they received it. When using elaboration theory, the research questions asked of the participants gathered data from the individual's training experiences. Pappas

(2016) describes elaboration theory as a way to increase learning by presenting basic to form a foundation and then increase in complexity of the subject. Presenting the material in this manner provides the student context of the material they are learning where they can understand how they relate to more complex material that is added later in the curriculum.

Because this theory addresses training and education with the complexity of the material taken into consideration, emergency managers would be able to identify training received from simple to complex. Elaboration theory has been used by other researchers which has been applied in higher education and training (Reigeluth, 2018). This theory provides details of specific training by focusing on emergency managers and what time and level in their career they received it. When using elaboration theory, the research questions asked of the participants gathered data from the individuals training experiences.

The framework for this study was Charlie Reigeluth's elaboration theory with a small concentration towards curriculum theory which has several areas of focus. Scott (2014) defined curriculum theory as a set of learning and teaching programs that take place in a formal setting which is the basis of his theory (p.14). Reigeluth divided elaboration theory into seven basic components that guide the educator into how the curriculum should be presented. These seven components can be used to design curriculum and assist instructors to prepare to present the course content.

Within curriculum theory, the idea to communicate between both the educator and student about the meaning of the curriculum and the if and how this same curriculum will

be beneficial in the future (Scott, 2014). Understanding whether curriculum is relevant both present and future will help to design constructive curriculum that allow students and teachers to benefit through learning and instructing.

The basis of this study identifies areas of most interest that would assist emergency managers to effectively handle major disasters at a local level. The combination of elaboration and curriculum theory will implement the most common areas that would be most decisive in training. My goal identified learning objectives that can be universal throughout the emergency management profession, Elaboration theory will optimize a set of learning goals through the ability to sequence instruction. Because the curriculum is needed to be presented at the earliest time someone decides to become an emergency manager, the material must start with the simplest idea and build to a more complex design.

By using elaboration theory's concentration of education and training, and curriculum theory that builds on the creation of curriculum, the ability to identify what is needed for emergency managers to handle major disasters was met. Curriculum theory added to the data that will be obtained how elaboration theory will structure the curriculum by putting the proper information in the correct order. Understanding where we need to be is where elaboration and curriculum theory begin by identify the most relevant areas to train in the simplest form.

The articles reviewed for this study used elaboration theory in many cases to gather data for the author's research. The main information the authors were trying come away with in their articles were precise data from areas that were known to the

participants. The main area of expertise in many articles used participants that had knowledge of a specific area of instructional design and curriculum development. A study by Kuruganti et al. (2012) used elaboration theory that showed individuals with an understanding of the courses or information were more able to obtain a level of mastery of the subject (p.12). Using elaboration theory by teachers can improve a student's ability to learn through sequencing that increase students' knowledge and prevents teachers from being discouraged (Ali et al., 2009). Distant learning has become a way for educators to present their material with the resent COVID-19 pandemic. Distance learning can use elaboration theory to design classes that will assist in the learning process by arranging the curriculum from simple to complex so the students will learn progressively (Cakiroglu & Ozturk, 2014). A lack of understanding what the common phenomenon is can make it difficult to answer the research questions successfully.

Elaboration theory benefited this study because it built on previous research where individuals interviewed were due to their expertise of the subject. Understanding what the main purpose will be by placing the easier classes first will build to create a more structured curriculum. Participants have similar experience of the phenomenon by understanding required training or education for local emergency managers would be the most effective way to gather data. In previous studies, the main goal was to identify if training can be conducted where the students can properly retain the information (Elsayed, 2015; Priawasana et al., 2020).

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study was transcendental phenomenology using semi-structured interviews. This approach provided details by focusing on how the participants experience the process and understand the importance of the study. When conducting phenomenological theory, the research questions asked the participants to provide information to gather data from the individual's experiences. Participants were experts in the emergency management profession with the ability to speak appropriately about the phenomenon. The information from the interviews was collected and analyzed and placed into groups that have similar quotes or statements. Phenomenology theory was the best approach to gather information that best answered the research questions.

Within the study, individuals selected for the study have experience as a local emergency manager or had extensive interaction with them. Each participant provided their knowledge and expertise of the phenomenon where common traits were identified from the research questions. Key words were an important part of the data collection because answers to the research questions determined whether there was common theme. Identifying the participant's response to the research questions produced key phrases or words. The phenomenon that everyone interviewed has similar experience in the subject matter presented strengthened the overall study and improved validity.

The conceptual framework for this study was Edmund Husserl phenomenology theory with a concentration more towards Clark Moustakas transcendental phenomenology using semi-structured interviews (Creswell, 2007). Husserl believed "that experience is the source of all knowledge," which was the basis of his theory

(Creswell, 2007). Husserl divided phenomenology theory into two approaches (transcendental and hermeneutical) with transcendental further focused on by Moustakas (Creswell, 2007).

Transcendental phenomenon is “focused less on the interpretations of the researcher and more on the descriptions of the experience of participants” (Creswell, 2007, p. 59). There are three areas that Moustakas’ approach focuses on identifying a phenomenon to study, bracketing out one’s experiences, and collecting data from individuals experiencing the phenomenon (Moustakas, 1990). From this theory, the information can be gathered and analyzed to identify the common themes in the responses given by the participants of the study.

The articles reviewed for this study used phenomenology theory in many cases to gather data for the author’s research. The main information the authors were trying come away with in their articles were precise data from areas that were known to the participants. The main area of expertise in many articles used participants that had knowledge of a specific area of homeland security or emergency management (Andrew & Carr, 2012; Brudney & Gazley, 2009; Choi & Brewer, 2006; Henstra, 2010; Kapuca & Khosa, 2012; Maor, 2010; Napal et al., 2012; Nelson et al., 2011). Without the ability to understand what the common phenomenon is, can make it difficult to answer the research questions, therefore, making it difficult to answer the research question successfully. Using phenomenon theory builds on previous research where individuals interviewed were due to their expertise of the subject. The most effective way to gather data was to

interview participants that have similar experience of the phenomenon of required training or education of local emergency managers.

Duranti (2010) uses Husserl's intersubjectivity anthropology to compare it to the widespread interpretations within the social sciences and how it conflicts with the overall concept. Within the study, Duranti argues that Husserl's phenomenological concepts can be translated into such areas as the study of healing or sorcery (p. 19). To accomplish this study, Duranti make four claims that will break down Husserl's theories that when complete can be adopted, modified, or rejected. The four claims are: intersubjectivity is more than shared or mutual understanding; intersubjectivity is the possibility of trading places; intersubjectivity is the source of objectivity; and intersubjectivity is a precondition for interaction.

Duranti (2010) argued that intersubjectivity was more shared or mutual where Husserl's writings were more basic and foundational (p. 29). Understanding Husserl's writings where he looked at the human relationship with the natural world and how the role of tools and other artifacts played a role in the social environment and human experience. By using the past to interpret how individuals participated and reacted to different encounters provide a broad spectrum of what is the human condition. Duranti concluded Husserl's intersubjectivity can be used as the basis to study human condition that could unite all of anthropology within the United States (p.16).

One of the most foremost methods for data collection in phenomenological research is the interview. For the beginner researcher, this process may be difficult to manager and the author explains that little instruction is in place to describe how the

interview should be conducted. Bevan (2014) describes how Moustakes was not concerned about the interview process but the analysis of data and the phenomenological theory (p. 137). The author mentions several researchers who have mentioned briefly different aspects of the interview process and how they should relate to phenomenology. One area Bevan highlighted was that the presence of structure in interviews, no matter how unclear, is a critical beginning for qualitative interviewing during phenomenological research.

Within the study, Bevan describes applying structure is an important aspect that would enhance the interview process. Structure is not necessarily what questions to ask, but how the interview process is managed. Bevan's structure is broken down into three domains that were used to develop a phenomenological interview method. Contextualization, apprehending the phenomenon, and clarifying the phenomenon are domains that provide an alternative to phenomenological interviewing (Bevan, 2014). This method combines qualitative interviewing techniques and phenomenological methods to produce a more structured method of interviewing. The use of different interviewing methods combined with different approaches will help to improve the phenomenological interviewing process.

The phenomenological process is sometimes complex that requires some additional clarification. Conklin (2007) breaks down phenomenology method and how it relates to the human experience. The author relies heavily on Husserl's and Moustakas's research of phenomenon to describe the process of the theory. Conklin explains how

phenomenology is used along with whether it is a useful method with other professions and the potential problems and concerns (P. 275).

In the study, the author interviewed nine individuals in a variety of professions that worked within the natural environment. Although interview protocol was used, not all individuals were asked the same questions. The intent of the interviews was to gather an in-depth description of their experiences and how it impacted their career journey. The study transitions into the application of phenomenological method using the interviews as the basis of the study. The author breaks down each section by bringing together excerpts of the interviews to explain how the interview and section are related. Conklin (2007) finishes the article by highlighting the limitations of phenomenology and how Husserl understood the researcher must remain uncluttered by past experiences. Overall, this study gives an excellent overview of phenomenological method bringing together different interview styles and how they transcend to the whole method. Conklin concludes various professions could benefit from the phenomenological method and described how it could be used to gather a better understanding of what training is necessary.

Using phenomenology research, Chan et al., (2013) demonstrate how bracketing can be used to validate a study. The authors explain that the use of bracketing is a common occurrence in phenomenal research, but the precise practice is rarely demonstrated by itself. The data collection strategy used in this study followed the phenomenology approach by using semi-structured interviews to obtain qualitative data using open-ended questions (Chan et al., 2013).

Even know the main subject in the paper is bracketing; the authors explain their meaning of phenomenology as the understanding of individuals lived experiences of the phenomenon (Chan et al., 2013). In the paper, the authors' mention Embree's seven approaches to phenomenology to give a better understanding to the different methods bracketing would have to explore. Understanding the researcher has a role in the research and the ability to influence the direction and result of the study, one of the goals of the study is that bracketing the researchers own knowledge and experiences will help to remove bias from the research. Four strategies are proposed by the authors with an acronym "BRACKETING" being the main component (2013). Overall, the most important point of the study is to receive the participants knowledge of their experience of the phenomenon and how bracketing can be used to define the findings as close to the participants original meaning.

Literature Review

Cakıroglu and Ozturk (2014) use elaboration theory as a guide to assist in teaching designers how to properly present and arrange content of distant learning classes. Within the study, Cakıroglu and Ozturk argues that elaboration theory has a simple strategy that information is introduced from the simplest to most complex order (p. 144). To accomplish this study, Cakıroglu and Ozturk use the seven components of elaboration theory (an elaborative sequence, learning prerequisite sequences, summarizers, synthesizers, analogies, cognitive strategy activators, learner control).

Cakıroglu and Ozturk (2014) main objective of the study was to prepare teaching material at the introductory level for programming courses in a distance learning

environment. Knowing that students may face obstacles in a distance learning environment, the ability to have material that is familiar with each course is effective to the learning experience. By designing the curriculum in an elaborative sequence, the content is prepared from simplest to most complex to build upon previous learned material. The use of elaboration theory was used to develop material that reduced the restrictions in distance learning and was an appropriate method of material design.

The need to have a better implementation of training needs using virtual training is necessary to assist those not comfortable in setting where a teacher or instructor is not physically present. The use of elaboration theory in the creation of virtual training started with the simplest and fundamental idea and called it a cognitive zoom (Hamidi et al., 2011). The use of the cognitive zoom is the same principle in elaboration theory known as epitome. The basis to start with a simple idea and increase the sequencing of layers to a more complex principle can then be developed.

The results of their study described how elaboration theory can be used effectively to design subjects based on the desired performance of the student understanding the curriculum (Hamidi et al., 2011). The study identified four values elaboration theory provides to include student understanding and decision making; rapid prototyping; viable approaches to sequencing; and it applies sequencing in a holistic approach. This design was shown to be able to cover a shift from a teacher centric to a learner centric design.

The use of elaboration theory and the effectiveness in higher education has always been studied. The study conducted by Chen and Dwyer (2006) investigated the

correlation hypertext instruction and prior student knowledge. As the method of online learning increases, the use of hypertext is equally important to the success of the class. The study looked at the seven principles of elaboration theory and inserted different variables into each group to determine whether student learning was increased if one to five of the principles were used.

The expected result of the study is that it would benefit educators in how they create curriculum by using the appropriate instructional theory. Another area that would benefit instructional designers is the ability to develop and design the appropriate materials for the course. The last objective of the study would be to identify the most effective educational objective form the students if they have high or low prior knowledge of the subject. The study found that elaboration theory instructional strategies were superior to the linear based testing in enhancing the student's knowledge of the material (p. 172). Another find was that individuals with lower knowledge of the subject matter benefited more from elaboration theory.

Using Reigeluth's elaboration theory, Ljubojevic et al. (2005) conducted a study to determine the best method to use when students are engaging in problem solving activities. By introducing one group with a structured method of problem solving and another that was provided a suggested learning sequence the study meant to identify which would be the preferred method. The sequencing strategy used identified the simplest tasks to the more complex task to understand what would be easier understood and performed by the student.

The study was structured to determine the appropriate starting point for the student by understanding the knowledge of the individual through their perceived experience of the perceived task and the collection of metadata received for the feedback and contextual descriptions of the material (Ljubojevic et al., 2005). Individuals that were provided a structured path experienced a more enjoyable learning experience. Knowing the learners understanding of the subject is vital to the success by placing the individual in the proper area of study. This demonstrated that as the task gets more complex or the learning is less familiar with the curriculum, the more structured the material should be to promote greater learning.

The goal of Ludwig (2000) is to compare elaboration theory and cognitive flexibility theory and describe how each are beneficial to the design of higher education. The use of elaboration theory is to develop the sequencing of curriculum from basic to more complex, while cognitive flexibility theory is designed to be used for complex and ill-structured domains (p. 3). Both have their benefits towards the adaption of an online working and learning environment, allowing a new user to integrate content with an established framework.

In Reigeluth's elaboration theory, subject matter acquired by active learners is classified into specific areas or content then presented with the information to students from basic to more complex in lessons. Each lesson builds upon the other, the first lesson being the epitome and further lessons elaborating, synthesizing, and summarizing all the previous and newly acquired information gained from all combined content. These synthesized should offer up ideals, concepts, and explain relationships that integrate all

the lessons worked and learned previously. This simple to complex arrangement is at the core of elaboration theory.

Elsayed (2015) uses elaboration theory to measure the effectiveness of mathematical content to understand whether students achieved greater academic and critical thinking skills. Elsayed believes critical thinking is an important part for individuals to determine information received is good or bad and focuses on decision making for what individuals think or do (p. 852). By using elaboration theory, the mathematical curriculum can be arranged in a way that will be strategically proficient for teacher to use and for student to learn. The idea that structuring the curriculum to easily be understood will assist the students to maximize their learning over a longer period.

Elsayed (2015) found that there was a significant difference between the students that used elaboration theory from critical thing to test results. A main contributor to this would be the way the curriculum was structured and the knowledge of the students and their ability to achieve excellence and critically think (p. 862). Elaboration theory made the information relate to each other by linking each lesson together and growing upon each other. Although the author recommends elaboration theory for all curriculum, he identifies the need for further research in mathematics using different variable.

Priawasana et al., (2020) conducted a study using elaboration theory to determine if learning achievement and an increase in critical thinking skills will improve. The study identified that there is a major shift in the way higher learning is accomplished with more time being spent online than in a lecture-based classroom setting. The strategies that can be applied for a better education outcome have many factors that influence the result

including the teacher, student, and curriculum (Priawasana et al., p. 3274). Elaboration theory provided an organized structure and a complete picture of the material being taught that allows individuals to be better critical thinkers.

The results of the study showed that learning was above average for the individuals that used elaboration theory and improved critical thinking skills. The author believes elaboration theory can increase the student to better understand the material which will increase their ability to learn. The authors have shown that elaboration theory produce better results improving students critical thinking skill that with the web-based teaching method Priawasana et al., (2020). Prior knowledge of the student can be beneficial and must be taken in account, but the overall objective of the curriculum must be known. The students taught with elaboration theory increased their overall achievements both in critical thinking and educational learning.

In a study by Ali et al., (2009) the authors use elaboration theory in combination with layered instructional strategy to identify if learning achievement is increased in a classroom setting. The study comprised of two groups with one being provided traditional instruction and the other using elaboration theory components. Ali et al., believe learning cannot be effective without proper instruction which can greatly stimulate, assist, and strengthen the process of learning (p. 82). The authors build on the idea that a learner's ability to comprehend hinges on the development and delivery of the curriculum. The capability for the curriculum to be layered with each advancement building upon the previous layer with help the individuals comprehend better.

The study concluded that the group that used elaboration theory showed better results than the traditional method of instruction. The authors believe the ability for teachers to use different methods of instruction is vital for language teachers because of the difficulty of the subject which could be discouraging to the students (Ali et al., 2009). The way teachers present the material to the student must be understood how it applies to the real world along with the ability to properly introduce the learners to an unfamiliar topic.

A study was conducted by Kuruganti et al., (2012) to apply three theories that work together to allow and encourage effective learning, with elaboration theory being one of the theories used. This paper did not break the three theories up but used them together to form the basis of the study. The study used two courses to evaluate, mathematics and forestry. The research was designed to identify when a student would be considered “mastery” of the curriculum as defined as being able to repeat the specific criteria successfully (Kuruganti et al, p. 1).

The use of elaboration theory was allowing students multiple attempts at the subject with each subject present being from easiest to most difficult. The paper’s focus was on the elaborative sequencing component where instructors follow a simple to more complex sequence with early lessons. The study did show an increase in proficiency in both classes; however, the math class showed greater rate of learning (Kuruganti et al, p. 10). The increase in problem difficulty too fast resulted in poor results, making it known that there must be a rate of learning that would fit the student’s development. The rate of

mastery between the two classes was different mainly due to the fact the forestry students had prior knowledge of the subject.

Recent issues surrounding the ever- expanding role of Emergency Management has led to an increased need for both specific and basic training. Following the events of 9/11, the Department of Homeland Security Act of 2002 rebranded and reorganized nearly two dozen agencies, making it the largest governmental agency in history (Choi & Brower, 2006). This shuffling and responsibility shifting afforded a great deal of responsibility to various agencies but, in its wide birth, distracted state and local governments in their municipality-based training.

Ambiguity of roles played by the federal government became an issue in itself. State and local emergency responders and management were lost in the development of key, executive roles vital for a cohesive response team (Choi & Brower, 2006). A lack of comparative analysis highlighting the problems arising from displacement and lack of command has become a noted problem in itself. Studies noting and distributing the right amount of responsibility to the expected agency would benefit the continuing efforts of commingling resources and vital personnel (Choi & Brower, 2006).

Concepts of collected networks attempt to reduce the known factors of interagency work responsibility and open up dialogue. Krakhardt (1990) utilized concepts of cognitive accuracy in response to social structure (formal power) and powers with informal networks (informal powers) (Choi & Brower, 2006). Perceptions of power and organizational structure are not always forefront in the management of disasters and in the preparations for such.

This study relates to RQ1 by identifying that plans and networking is an important part of preparedness. The study created a process for emergency managers to use a simplified analysis process for policy makers to develop effect networking structures. Having a proper training model will help for instruction and distribution being successful.

As noted earlier, the rebranding and redistribution of power within governmental agencies greatly increased the size and scope of emergency management powers held by the federal government. Over 20 agencies banded together to institute the current Department of Homeland Security, leaving vulnerability as the power sources trickled downward. In 2004, the Government Accountability Office stated that regional organization was the most effective way to improve the collective cooperation and preparedness situations of local level emergency management agencies. Additionally, the Department of Homeland Security calculated risk assessments and vulnerabilities and determined that a regional approach to both training and financial assistance was most successful for both major metropolitan areas and local municipalities (Caruson & MacManus, 2008).

Regional training offered up opportunities for local area emergency management personnel to train and educate their personnel on the situations facing region- specific problems as well as introduce larger scale disaster training and preparation. Understanding vulnerabilities, both federally and locally, has become a pivotal exercise in emergency management preparations and training. Vulnerabilities exhibited by ill preparations open the country to threats both internal and external and offer terrorists important loopholes which can be exploited in extreme situations (Caruson &

MacManus, 2008). Analysis completed by agencies highlights many vulnerabilities and offer up planning and training that can be used to combat problem arenas of disaster management. Multiple agency inclusion is necessary in recognizing and recovering from vulnerable exponents of national security.

This study relates to is RQ2 by identifying the vulnerabilities each jurisdiction faces. The understanding that there are different areas of concern depending on the part of the state that responded determined what they perceived as the greatest threat.

Recent disasters and threats to the nation has demanded additional responsibilities of securities but has, also, threatened the autonomy of states in their rights of being individual sovereigns against governmental intrusion. Constitutional specialists have noted the thin line of partnership and manager in the relationship between the vast Department of Homeland Security and the rights and roles of states in their response to disaster management.

Based on the 1979 formation of FEMA by the National Governors Association, an accepted four-phase cycle of expected emergency response was conceptualized as part of the Integrated Emergency Management System (DHS 2006a) (Edwards, 2007). This four-part cycle of emergency management- mitigation, preparedness, response, and recovery- afford the rights of states and throughout their emergency management specialists and governors to establish the response level of government assistance, declarations of national emergencies were maintained to assert boundaries and need based invocation of governmental powers within state boundaries.

Despite established models of intergovernmental relationships, the ideal role of public safety is maintained by local governments under American Federalism (Edwards, 2007). Establishing community emergency response teams based locally allow for a clearer acceptance of governmental assistance and allow for ideals of self-help and autonomy amidst disastrous situations. Other emergency preparedness programs, such as the national mutual aid system NIMS (DHS 2005), have helped to establish common terminology, systems, and equipment for utilization in joint governmental ventures (Edwards, 2007).

This study relates to RQ2 by identifying the federal governments involvement in training and response through the NIMS which is a standardized approach to emergency management. This could be made to accommodate training needs, equipment, to the way training plans are created.

Recent events in national vulnerability to both natural and man-made disasters have opened a clear and definite division of social inequality in disaster response and recovery. Educational and training opportunities are also biased in some localities on socio-economical sections of population. The events leading to and following Hurricane Katrina afforded analysts a distinct opportunity to determine and deduce situational awareness and preparedness that was found majorly lacking in an array of social groups.

Social vulnerability, as it applies to disaster management, correlates to social equity. Levels of professional organization and management can vary among jurisdictions and certain groups can be viewed as being treated fairer than others. Equity and equality are different, and some areas demand more need based financial assistance

and training than others to qualify as being equally as prepared. State and local governments still maintain the brunt of jurisdictional preparations on all social fronts, but FEMA has developed an inclusive approach that, in partnership with state and local governments, take a risk-based approach to educate and instruct practices expected in a disaster situation (Gooden et al., 2009). Document planning and visible areas of help for displacement helps all social groups, despite economic status.

The failures of emergency response to Hurricane Katrina were evident and fatal. The comprehensive planning of disaster control has benefited by the vast resources afforded to FEMA. Coordination along organizational lines and studies of risk factors of populations have become an important concern. Non-English-speaking populations within the US have grown exponentially and have added to the concerns of maintaining emergency management preparedness (Gooden et al., 2009). Multi-tiered levels of preparedness and training must be afforded to all jurisdictions, and sections of populations most at risk should be placed in high distinction when enacting a preparedness plan. Economical levels are a distinct difference when assessing risk but should not be the only determining factor. Age, disability, and access to information are all high-risk factors that should be determined before implanting permanent response planning.

This study relates to both RQ1 and RQ2 by identifying vulnerable population needs to be addressed in training more in emergency management. Emergency managers may need to adjust the way they respond to these population group which may require a different way of training to meet these specific needs.

With the current state of attention rising from threats and actions of terrorists and weather, the emphasis of emergency management preparation is vital to ensuring a safe country for its citizens. Jurisdictional preparedness is a multi-level endeavor; for national success and preparation, state and local municipalities must play their part in preparing and training their citizenry. First steps begin with a methodical approach to planning, including categorizing threats, including natural, man-made, and situations involving disruption of local utilities and daily planning (Hendriks & Bassi, 2009).

Intentional planning for individual threats involves thorough investigation and preparedness. In a local environment, adherence to established guidelines put in place by employers and in community and government buildings are the first defenses when dealing with an unexpected situation that can cause devastation. Placement of emergency tools should be visible and an effort to prioritize an established shelter is paramount in the initial phase of organizational planning. Schools should be prepared to react in case of emergency and parents of school children should be educated to the actions schools should take upon the first signs of impending disasters, whether internal or externally threatening (Hendriks & Bassi, 2009).

Besides being prepared for disaster response from local emergency management professionals, local citizens should be educated about implementing person disaster plans. An emphasis should be placed upon the citizenry establishing their own plans in case of emergency instead of relying on governmental assistance (Hendriks & Bassi, 2009). A prepared people take less precious resource management and allow for a more equitable distribution of assistance and better overall recovery.

This study addresses RQ2 by focusing on the threat that nursing homes and elderly care facility need additional training for emergency managers. After Hurricane Katrina this showed that emergency managers were ill trained to respond to these facilities.

A high-risk subset of population includes geriatric communities in long-term care situations. A gap in literature was found in response to the active awareness of leaders in situations dealing with the emergency response and disaster planning of care homes and their inhabitants. For over thirty years, the Older Americans Act (OAA) has required each State Unit on Aging (SUA) maintain a Long-Term Care Ombudsman Program (LTCOP) headed by a state ombudsman to maintain facility control (Nelson et al., 2012) The duties required are many and include complaint resolution and facility reform and patient defense. Since many institutionalize individuals suffer from physical and/or mental incapacities, the role of the ombudsman is essential in maintaining and improving resident safety and quality of life.

Training and emergency implementation of crisis planning is more difficult in high-risk situations. Ombudsmen, as leaders representing a specific set of citizenries, are expected to maintain advanced knowledge of incident management. A recent survey of 43 state long-term care showed that a large majority (78 percent) of ombudsmen felt they were well versed on their state's disaster response plan for those in long-term care facilities. Some were directly involved with the implementation of planning while others were familiar or aware but not involved. Those with the most involvement felt most confident in planning response (Nelson et al., 2012)

Social desirability is a distinct problem with distasteful planning for long-term care residents. A sense of self-reliance is invaluable to a successful response and a lack of training and preparation for the removal of long-term residents is complicated. Extensive medical problems, including immobility is particularly problematic with quick response. Additional training is necessary, and a new curriculum written to market a cohesive plan, utilizing all hazards approach when dealing with long-term care residents and their caregivers (Nelson et al., 2012).

The study relates to both RQ1 and RQ2 by showing the need for training for individuals handling response to long term care facilities. The study discusses how there is training available but there needs to be additional training, resources, and job aids (p. 968). The majority of individual who did receive training were no better off than individual who receive no training, this could be from the product of a poor training model.

Prior to the rising of new and external threats, hazards within our own regions have excised caution and demanded emergency management to mitigate the dangers ever present in our local areas. Due to geography and population centers, it is imperative for local government to assess the possible hazards located within their areas and maintain proper procedural actions. The vulnerabilities of specific arenas should be evaluated by a council or local government with an assessment produced by the same with learned opinions and evaluations mustered into community education and response planning procedures (King, 2008)

All hazards and disasters requiring emergency management should be understood. Local community leaders and councils should be burdened with the responsibility to limit

the impact of such disasters, whether natural or man-made. Technology-based curriculum and other training products are easily available with the advancement of the internet and recent disasters have afforded leaders easily visible examples of what to do and what not to do in response. There is a complexity in emergency and crisis management with a theme that requires equally complex and competent cross-institutional planning and training (King, 2008)

Outside arenas of disaster management can be studied and adapted for both national and regional success. The Natural Disaster Risk Mitigation Studies Framework was adopted in Australia and used as a primer for primitive reaction to crisis situations (King, 2008). Like all basic emergency management prevention, the core of its effectiveness and usefulness lies in the basis of locality. Local responders are best adapted and most capable of maintaining situational awareness as they are most familiar with both the natural disasters common to their area and to the conditions and preparedness of their populations.

This study relates to RQ1 and RQ2 showing that best practices must be used to create a better training group. The training model showed that in-house training was more suited than hiring a consultant because of the ability to relate to the community. The identified threats were many that were identified through meetings and town planning.

As noted throughout, the cumulative actions of federal, state, and local governments produce viable results in combating natural and man-made disaster situations. Local training is the first step, as is assessing the training needs of nearby localities to prepare a training procedure that best fits a specific region. These local

models of training and region-specific and are used to bolster the training offered federally, as they include analysis based on attitudes of local personnel as well as regional geography and socio-economic situations of those living within the regional borders (Maor, 2010).

Regardless of the federal training programs offered to regional emergency management professionals, the basis of responsibility relies on informed local prevention and pro action planning. Federal programs existing alongside these plans can both be beneficial and detrimental. Two contrasting approaches should be discussed. The command-control model introduces preparedness and response with military precision, whereas emergent human resource models introduce problem solving components, utilizing the human aspect of flexibility and model knowledge of specific locale and/or disaster (Maor, 2010). Neither systemic approach produces results without compare; federal agencies should not consider each area homogenous and should counter any insufficiencies noted by local emergency management professionals as best placed courses of actions.

Complex intermingling of governmental agencies requires balance and respect. Respecting autonomy and familiarity of local authority adds to the chances of successful situational resolution (Maor, 2010). The strengthening of personnel and capability is the ideal admixture of successful training and adaptation. This is a major problem facing current disaster management. As a people, Americans are quite skeptical of outside interference, even in the face of grave danger. Education and cooperation lead the way in concerns of interagency training activities.

This study relates to RQ1 by identifying the best way for local levels of government to conduct training. The ability for local governments to determine the method of training will be determined whether assistance is need from the state of federal government and how the assistance will change the training method.

Modern issues of security mandate modern exercise and educational training. Curriculum evaluation has uncovered latent problems arising from a nascent field, too new for long-term research expertise. Since homeland security derives itself from various disciplines, any curricula used to train today's emergency manager must be comprised of important and precise information derived from those same fields of study. The role of homeland security education began as an inquiry into the readiness of our emergency field and their preparations for the threat of "weapons of mass destruction" or WMD (Pelfrey, 2009). This study was conducted and evaluated in 1998, years before the actions of 9/11 that would further question readiness and preparation.

Following 9/11, more testing was conducted, and more education was added to better combat new threats on American soil. During this time, the relevance of a security beefed up various disciplines with the emergence of the "new" discipline of Homeland Security. In 2002, The U.S. Federal Government published the National Strategy for Homeland Security accompanied by the formation of the Department of Homeland Security. In 2003, the Department of Homeland Security issued the Office for Domestic Preparedness (ODP) Guidelines which promoted prevention and deterrence (Pelfrey, 2009).

Prevention and preparedness rely on all levels of government, as well as individuals. Americans known to be highly private were asked to be the "eyes and ears" of homeland security and to report immediately any activities that seemed suspicious. Additional research suggested the reporting aspect was not as successful as leaders would like. Anti-government bias still existed, and many felt uncomfortable reporting to an outside government agency. New curricula were developed to conform to the process of development and connectivity (Pelfrey, 2009). A condensed set of expectations and training was developed that was more straight-forward and workable. The Office for Domestic Preparedness Guidelines for Homeland Security: Prevention and Deterrence (2003) provides direct steps and an array of objectives to be adopted by local municipalities to enhance their preparedness (Pelfrey, 2009). This educational tool is only an enhancement of already set rules and planning to be used without overstepping departmental reach.

This study relates to both RQ1 and RQ2 by understanding Homeland Security is relatively new and will require curriculum from many disciplines to build a reliable product. The evaluation of training from institutions that offer higher education showed there was no unified curriculum, and the material was a combination of many different disciplines. The study also discussed different training models from resident training to hands on.

The dichotomy of emergency management training lies in the nature of disaster, either man-made or natural. On one hand, immediate actions with pre-ordained planning are essential, on the other, the fact that disasters are spontaneous and rarely introduce

themselves until well underway makes immediate actions nearly impossible. These truths make it ever important for all levels of emergency response to be as prepared as possible. They, too, must continually update strategies and education, changing nearly as quickly as the situations they are deigned to manage.

Information derived from emerging literature on Institutional Collection Action (ICA) highlights the need for reducing uncertainty of interagency cooperation and coordination (Andrew & Carr, 2013). Agencies bonded through organizational activities and information sharing produced the best results with a strong emphasis on social interactions. Financial responsibilities by each agency should be considered as cost-benefit sharing as uncertainty arises from one or more groups failing to fully commit time and resources, leaving others to provide the skills, equipment and planning for emergency response in regional activities (Andrew & Carr, 2013).

Broader participation by all response groups in a region is a must for building a cohesive management team. Self-organization or allowing local agencies to include their leadership into the collective formation adds assurance that all members of force are committed to the outcome of effective training and education. This balance of individualism and collectivism provides and promotes a multi-disciplinary approach that will cover more area and assure more precious resources be diverted to the right arena (Andrew & Carr, 2013). Bonding through social networking and immediate updates via emergent technologies insures even the most remote localities have access to current situations as well as new educational materials or training opportunities.

This study relates to RQ1 by trying to identify ways for the whole community to participate in planning and exercises. The study determined a closer bond with the stakeholders will show more support when planning and exercises happen. This could be a model that could be effective in answering RQ1.

All disasters, whether natural or man-made are the primary responsibility of the local emergency response agencies of one or more municipalities (Sinclair et al., 2012). In the United States, emergency management has become a primary concern that encompasses all levels of governmental agencies. Because of emergent threats and technology, the FEMA has been given greater responsibility in its duties as a multi-jurisdictional response agency.

Since disasters are unlikely to play out on a schedule, training and educational tools should be as varied as the situations they may encounter. A comprehensive training program should offer a schematic program and materials, including information that identifies certain steps to be implemented by all as a collective force. Steps including identifying training needs; identifying those who should or need to be trained; identifying what training method to use; preparing the training materials to be utilized; delivering the correct program to the correct agency; evaluating the effectiveness of training; and auditing of the process for future modification and correction (Sinclair et al., 2012). The evaluation of the response and materials is essential for future disaster response.

Maintenance of emergency response plans is imperative in all agencies as incidents are sometimes far apart and laziness and lack of preparation can impede even a successful mission plan (Sinclair et al., 2012). Preventative maintenance and playback of

situations can counter-balance a lack of real-time experience. Feedback and critical review are critical to the success of any plan and training aids used should be well established and critiqued before being put into permanent placement. Assessment of outside agencies and cost effectiveness are other areas of concern for proper training and the exercise of that training.

This study relates to both RQ1 and RQ2 by identifying what local governments and teaching and what methods are producing the best results. The study identified that many jurisdictions are conducting informative training but do not have a model that can accurately evaluate whether the training is effective in performing their duties. The need to use available resources in training and evaluating is necessary to identify any shortfall in the training process.

Literature related to issues surrounding the evacuation of carless individuals in response to major threats and disasters is being utilized for reflection and guidance in providing real efforts and the failures and successes of such response. In the literature review, the term "carless" referred to those without automotive transport with which to self-remove from disaster circumstances. There were several reasons identified for individuals being careless, among them, poverty, age, physical disability, and choice (Renne et al., 2011).

Overall research indicated no significant disadvantage to disaster response and availability of transportation. In larger metropolitan areas, though, there were distinctions with the failure of proper transportation and response being heavily noted during the Hurricane Katrina disaster affecting the southern gulf region where 60 percent of the

population (850,000) of the greater New Orleans area left the affected area, leaving 200,000 to 300,000 individuals unable to leave due to a lack of access to transportation. An additional 100,000 people refused to leave (Renne et al., 2011).

Several sources noted low-mobility groups and the parts played by public transportation, but no information was readily available concerning management planning for future changes in disaster management. The main issue highlighted was a lack of public transport in major metropolitan areas and the high numbers of non-mobile residents who rely on public transport for most of their day-to-day work and entertainment activities (Renne et al., 2011). Income levels seemed to play an issue in the transportation situations of most jurisdictions' citizens. Additionally, those carless individuals suffering physical and/or mental deficits added to the safe retrieval during disasters. Some suggestions were made, including early evacuation, and practicing of evacuation drills. Ensuring carless individuals remained informed and volunteer drivers offering assistance added great support (Renne et al., 2011).

This study relates to RQ2 by identifying many gaps in the evacuation of carless residents and the need for training to prevent this from occurring in future disasters. The authors identify that there is a need for a common user-friendly format for nongovernmental organization which should be provided by the Federal government. Identifying that planning plays a major role in the success or failure in response to a disaster requires appropriate training that will assist in this endeavor.

A highly informed rally calls for change has been demonstrated by the constantly evolving role of emergency management professionals. Educational requirements have

generally sided with a more public policy centric degree program, leading toward an MBA and management in administrative areas. Recent developments have identified a need for a more structured framework, including an emphasis on effective crisis managers who are able to employ both academic and social professionalism and concerns (Stevens, 2013).

Highlighted in the literature is the relationship between outside practitioners who have experience in various fields versus the emergency management professional who has spent an entire career inside the field. The limited exposure to other arenas of interest can stifle personnel growth while not enough relative emergency management experience can be detrimental to success within the field (Stevens, 2013). The EMI under the direction of the FEMA's Protection and National Preparedness Directorate has the burden of continuously updating information and making enormous strides in boy threat identification and personnel training and education. The allocation of resources, as well as the implementation of the FEMA Qualification System (FQS) and supporting doctrine have encouraged and established merit-based framework of standards towards certifications of the agency's workforce training programs (Stevens, 2013). More emphasis is placed on a more rounded management professional with education becoming a more rounded concept than degree only. A revamped FEMA reservist program and incident management teams have brought more exposure and quality of personnel to an ever-changing and evolving agency (Stevens, 2013).

This article relates to RQ2 by showing that the emergency management profession is new and there was not a lot of formal training. This along with new and

evolving technologies that are part of the profession, it is difficult to keep up with the growing need for training. The specifics are missing, and a unified agreement must occur on what academia will focus on.

Disaster situations vary by region and the response employed by elected officials has greatly affected the outcomes of extreme situations. Following the terrorist attacks of 9/11, New York Mayor, Rudy Giuliani became a symbol of strength and helped to bring a quality of character to the image of a strong New York and even stronger America through his take-charge attitude and determination. His quick decision-making skills helped New York to recover and garnered the politician accolades from all. Like the Mayor, Governor Arnold Schwarzenegger of California remained a strong and determined leader during the destructive wildfires of 2007. Both men were involved leaders, placing themselves at the scene and mingling with the citizens of their respected areas (Silverberg, 2013).

Unfortunately, not all politicians follow suit and most find themselves taken aback when disaster strikes. Though a prepared leader makes a great difference in the response and recovery of disaster situations, few take the time to become informed of the emergency management framework. The opportunity for education is widely available, as is the ability to be consulted and counseled on the local and regional plans put in place by emergency management professionals. The amount of training for elected officials can vary by state. California, for example, has an extensive training program and conducts training throughout the state with local elected officials.

Additionally, California has developed and published the "Elected Official's Guide to Emergency Management" which encourages officials to take part in the state's emergency management programs. In contrast to California's preparedness, Florida, a state besieged with violent weather disasters, have little elected official training. Much of these differences can be concluded to arise due to the success of state emergency management agencies, especially Florida, where the disaster agency ranks best in the country (Silverberg, 2013). This attitude likely can be found nationwide.

This study relates to both RQ1 and RQ2 by identifying the need to training public officials in emergency management. They officials do not have to be experts but need to know basic emergency management information to build proper policy to prepare and respond to disasters. The way officials receive training will be a different approach because of their status and possibly not have the time to sit through lengthy classes.

Despite the attentions to urban localities of the most major terrorism attacks, in its base state, terrorism is a local issue. The U.S., unlike many countries, houses an individualistic ideal that is identified in both its citizens and in the locale structure of emergency services. Training and monies spent on terrorism and other threats to national security are directed to individual locations that provide policing, fire, public health offerings and other emergency services (Chenoweth & Clarke, 2010). Still, the monetary and power structure over budgetary constraints deflect national security initiatives. Multi-level power structures and policies of Homeland Security complicates likely policy implementation and its effectiveness, thus generating distrust and other dilemmas from local governance (Chenoweth & Clarke, 2010).

To combat this ineffectiveness, guarantees and resources need to be shared between the federal government and state and local jurisdictions. National and subnational funding predates 9/11, continuing today in different, updated training and resource management (Chenoweth & Clarke, 2010). In 2006, monies were consolidated from the Urban Area Security Initiative (USAI) granting program into the Homeland Security Grant Program (HSGP), allowing for funds and resources to be issued based on programs of competitive formulas (Chenoweth & Clarke, 2010). These formulas are based on needs and area and, while still federally controlled monies and resources, these programs allow state and local jurisdictions to measure the needs of their locales using autonomous judgment.

This study relates to RQ2 through finding the need for local, state, and federal jurisdictions to work together. The study does not specifically identify any training but goes into depth talking about the way each level of government should interact with each other. These areas of concern could be made into training so that all jurisdictions know how to interact with each other.

Following 9/11, the need for both more specific and more generalized education in emergency management and preparedness has become evident. Despite this overwhelming fact, there is a debate or consensus about what is expected and applicable in the emergency management classroom.

Although emergency management professionals are sorely needed, the lack of a focused ideal of what is expected by these managers is one of the biggest obstacles to operation readiness. Neither the U.S. Department of Homeland Security, the Federal

Emergency Management Agency (DHS and FEMA) have a common curriculum that outlines national, state, and local training requirements. Adding on to the lack of cohesive training directives, there are no true industry benchmarks being assigned to colleges and universities within their emergency management and public policy classrooms (McCreight, 2009). A lack of cohesiveness has led to ambiguous ideals in training and employing emergency managers.

Perhaps the biggest operational barrier is in the ideal of emergency management and homeland security. Are they two separate entities or can they be lumped together as one solid field utilizing the same training? Should an "all-hazards" approach to training be employed, thus preparing a local emergency manager to act with authority in a homeland security disaster? (McCreight, 2009). Since all terrorism is local, the optimum outcome would seem to be uniting the various training programs and using guidance and perspectives from DHS and FEMA as a strong starting platform (McCreight, 2009).

This study relates to both RQ1 and RQ2. The author describes the need for common core and delivery mechanisms for individuals seeking emergency management and homeland security degrees. The model of delivery is online or operational experience with both being important, but they do not fit into each with each level of career development.

Currently, there are no specific standards that outline what emergency management education should employ in training professionals. This lack of cohesiveness extends outside of the classroom and into real-time scenarios with different governmental entities offering up different direct definitions and directives (Gordon,

2009). This confusion moves even further when adding in state and local governmental jurisdictions to the more powerful national agencies.

Because of this confusion, on October 5, 2007, the president released a national strategy document, the National Strategy for Homeland Security, that offered up an integrated approach to homeland security and emergency management. This perspective included an all-hazards approach, as well as specific scenario projection employment (Gordon, 2009). Some perspectives arising from an all-hazards and possible occurrence include: the Homeland Security Impact Scale; the Public Safety/National Security Grid; and a Typology of Emergencies (Gordon, 2009).

This paper relates to both RQ1 and RQ2 by employing different techniques and outlining an adjoining of multiple ideals and institutional preparedness training, disaster scenario training can become more cohesive throughout training institutions. Though no one can be trained in all things, an all-hazard approach, in addition to perspective can better identify what is needed in the classroom.

In keeping with the events of the last few years and in the acknowledgement that they can better prepare for events, the Department of Homeland Security and other governmental agencies have become more proactive in both response and education. In doing so, questions regarding the very nature of homeland security and what education is expected has become a focal point in many institutional settings (Pelfrey & Kelley, 2013). Surveys highlighted the differences in emergency management and homeland security education. Identifying individuals and groups interested in obtaining homeland security education is pivotal to any success of training excellence. No one surveyed

supported a degree program that just included homeland security as its base of study (Pelfrey & Kelley, 2013).

What was cited by those involved included specific ideals and characteristics of emergency management professionals that highlights and ability to work and collaborate with other individuals and groups to achieve the best result (Pelfrey & Kelley, 2013). Communication, both on an individual level and between federal, state, and local management groups was noted to be the first building block in education and team building. Leadership was a mixture of education and training, and foundational education took on an "all-hazards" identification, allowing individuals with different strengths to assess and lead situations.

This study relates to both RQ1 and RQ2 by posing questions to homeland security leaders and students offered up interesting ideals and projections about the future of emergency management education. Focusing on education-as opposed to training- shows a marked ideal that education cannot be easily clumped into one area. The paper notes that education is more relevant for complex task and not simple task making the training model design important to not omit one area or another.

The immediate response needed when reacting to or becoming proactive to any emergency disaster scenario is recognizing that all incidents are local. That being said, there is a lot of intermingling of governmental agencies before any locale can become adequately prepared to respond or fight many hazardous situations.

Further study and education are needed before any final decisions can be made regarding the exchange of aid between federal, state, and local emergency management

services. Despite the immediacy of the area in which the event occurs, primary budgeting and training for that jurisdiction is, for the most part, obtained by federal sources (Brooks et al., 2013). Response to emergencies is normally flexible, managed through an organizational structure known as the Incident Command System (ICS). This organizational structure depends upon a melding of governmental agencies and networking partners working towards implementing aid and leadership in extreme situations (Brooks et al., 2013). Autonomy of locale is a precursor to emergency response. Certain situations are more region-specific than others and training should be at a high-level of preparation by emergency response personnel at these locations. Using the ICS structure offers a guide for incident management, allowing state agencies to work with federal agencies in an evaluated measure (Brooks et al., 2013). State-level emergency management leadership is responsible for ensuring the response needed from federal sources is stated and that primary response planning is in place for quicker action and reaction (Brooks et al., 2013). Tensions between governmental agencies can quickly arise from large gaps in preparation and lack of communication. Training and education should highlight the need for networking and collaborative emergency response.

The study relates to both RQ1 and RQ2 by understanding training is a key component of exercise. The ability to train new emergency managers is always needed along with training on new systems and technology. The different threats will be identified during exercise and simulations where areas must be implemented that result in training related to real world events and issues that could arise.

Emergency management responses included preparation for various situations. Terrorist threats should be incorporated into an "all-hazard" approach which requires attentions and education thorough in all governmental agencies. Many disasters or threats follow similar timelines, with structure being needed for response, recovery, and rebuilding. Although terrorist acts produce a need for an all-hazards response, there are specific intricacies of these actions that require additional awareness, training, and education (Gerber et al., 2005).

Terrorist threats and acts are man-made and strategic in their application. Unlike natural disasters or man-made accidents that produce an event that can be evaluated, terrorist acts are intelligent in their design and don't follow a singular plan as those involved can utilize current events to adjust actions (Gerber et al., 2005). States should be aware of the possibilities of these threats and plan, accordingly, highlighting terrorism as an integral part of their all-hazards approach.

Working with the Department of Homeland Security to assess situations and make changes to state-prepared hazard response is imperative for cooperative success. Failure to implement state-level homeland security procedures can lead to an uneven response and distrust between federal and state governmental agencies. The uniqueness of the threat of terrorism requires complex levels of cooperation and more reliance on a federal knowledge of terrorism (Gerber et al., 2005).

This study relates to RQ2 with the authors gathering data on different perceived threats and the level of preparedness identified by officials in different cities. The study does identify many threats but does not go into detail as to which or how these threats

should be addressed. These threats can assist to see if the same threats are identified in this study and produce training requirements.

The primary focus of the Defense Support to Civil Authorities (DSCA) (former Military Assistance to Civil Authorities or MACA) is to provide state civil authorities with information and access to federal and military assets in the likelihood of natural or man-made disaster situations (Milliman et al., 2006). This focus has extended in scope as the cooperation of regional and federal agencies has broadened and conjoined.

To successfully provide the assistance to regions facing hazardous situations, emergency management professionals should be aware of the help offered and be provided training for implementation of that assistance. Current results of an exploratory study suggest that most emergency managers believe that they have not received adequate information or training through DSCA and feel the training should be clearer and more concise (Milliman et al., 2006). Some of the concerns stated by the responding emergency managers highlighted a lack of conclusive education regarding DSCA and poor, irregular training schedules. A lack of working relationships, as well as informational access to what is offered through DSCA was also noted (Milliman et al., 2006). Some suggestions for interagency cooperation noted a need for more military representation and presence in regional emergency management exercises, including in study aides (videos, literature, brochures, etc.). On-going training was highlighted as was web-based programing and education that provided more access to updated information (Milliman et al., 2006).

This study relates to both RQ1 and RQ2 with part of the study identifying different methods of instruction must be used to interact with local and state jurisdictions. The source of training varies with formal instruction making up one third of how local and state authorities learn about MACA. This study also describes that additional information is needed so local and state personal understand the purpose of MACA and their capabilities when activated.

Since the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, in New York City, disaster response has grown in complexity and response. Immediately following 9/11, the federal government invested billions of dollars into national security through granting programs. These grants were used in establishing and bulking national programs, as well as initiating and funding state and local level response coordinators (Randol, 2012). The Department of Homeland Security has continued to invest into local preparedness through federal granting programs such as Homeland Security Grant Program, the Urban Areas Security Initiative, and the Emergency Management Performance Grant (Randol, 2012).

Before 2001, state and local governments were less active in terrorism response and concentrated their efforts on locality-specific response readiness (Randol, 2012). With the evolution of terroristic acts, law enforcement personnel had to increase situational awareness to a grander scale, including working alongside government agencies in a partnership. With this newfound relationship, the burden of financing gave way to federal guidelines instituting training and procedural methodology unfamiliar to many state and local agencies. Ambiguity in direction and guidance has caused conflict between federal and local level security with federal level mandates being given but not

explained and/or taught in an effective method (Randol, 2012). The Homeland Security Presidential Directive 8 (2003) describes national readiness as “the existence of plans, procedures, policies, training, and equipment necessary at the federal, state, and local level to maximize the ability to prevent, to respond to, and recover from major events” (Randol, 2012, p. 318). This definition provides an overall goal but fails to consider directives needed for mission clarity.

Despite the accepted need for partnership, threat readiness has not achieved accountability. Budgeting concerns and organizational structure has challenged the innate fusion of federal, state, and local agencies. Jurisdictional size proves to be a significant predictor of mission readiness, with large organizational structures outside policing forces proving to be a better measure of success than large law enforcement bases with untrained response professionals (Randol, 2012).

This study relates to RQ2 that it studies terrorism response preparedness after 9/11 and identifies different threats that can be addressed. There are many threats, but there are many variables on how or if training is to be accomplished. The push after 9/11 also showed a quick push of training that might not be effective because of the speed it was pushed out.

With the merging of federal, state, and local emergency response, the local police municipalities are expected to provide current enforcement of applied threat organizational ideals filtered down through levels of governmental agencies. Large, urban areas tend to incorporate objectives issued through homeland security into their training

programs, but smaller, rural municipalities have failed to successfully orientate their policing forces into mission-ready status (Schafer et al., 2009).

More access to training and equipment acquisition is a primary concern for developing a stronger base of operations within smaller locales (Schafer et al., 2009). Environmental and cultural concerns vary throughout the United States, and experts should be aware and prepared to discuss issues and disseminate information through the most logical of channels.

Though information involving raw numbers of threat-ready agencies is lackluster, operational bias of small and large center law enforcement centers as related to terror-threat ready is apparent. Looser organizational structures provide less preparedness and are more likely to need immediate assistance from larger agencies from the onset as they rarely activate their forces per written emergency, organizational guidelines (Schafer et al., 2009). Additionally, relationships between law enforcement and the public should be strengthened as smaller locales are likely not privy to the advance mechanical and logistical benefits supported by more liberal federal granting.

This study relates to RQ2 since local agencies are the first responders to incidents involving their geographical infrastructure, primacy of knowledge-based actions requires more focused training. Funding and assistance in training, including a more area-specific threat management education, is needed to assist smaller law enforcement agencies in their first response to disaster situations.

The FEMA is a government creation that has taken on a wide berth of responsibility post-9/11 and Hurricane Katrina. Following both of those cited disasters,

FEMA was burdened by a supposition of expectations and not adequately prepared for response. Training and organization were found wanting and billions of dollars of government funding was put into reorganizing in preparation for future disasters.

The National Response Plan (NRP) was revised due to a lack of operational readiness. The National Response Framework (NRF) was created to assist agencies in collaboration and communication during threat management (Kapucu, 2009). Prior to intense communication overhaul, many agencies were left powerless, as they depended on FEMA to pick up the pieces following large crisis scenarios. Dependence on FEMA has led to pre-planning and Emergency Multi-organizational Networks (EMONs) strengthening collaboration methods and communication before, during, and after crisis control (Kapucu, 2009).

Newly minted emergency managers have been offered resources and training for better preparation and anticipation of disaster scenarios. Their positions have offered up guidance for communication and crowd control, as both are challenges faced by all emergency management professionals (Kapucu, 2009). Developing plans for defense, evacuation, and recovery by independent sources without solely relying on FEMA has allowed for more control and better communication through interdisciplinary agencies.

This article relates to RQ2 which identified smaller municipalities and regional differences have added to a less-than-expected readiness rate but with modern technology, training has become more readily accessible for many emergency management professionals. Despite these presentations and new preparations, both small and large agencies have yet to maintain a strong-enough readiness plan and rely on any

new additions to be filtered down through the channels rather than developing quality education expectations.

Emergency readiness and response is a multi-organizational endeavor that relies heavily on funding and training from several aspects of governmental and outside agencies. National emergency response has taken center since 911, and even with more informational sources and active, trained personnel, timely and proficient response has been found lacking with a root source that begins and ends in the United States Congress.

Although Congress assigns and assists in emergency response by deigning trained professionals, the *buck* literally stops there as it is the responsibility of Congress- working alongside the President- to facilitate response procedures from federal to local (Mycoff, 2007). State and local manageable actions are taken if the response approach is within the working capabilities of staffed professionals, as deigned appropriate by the Stafford Act of 1988. If and when damage or threat exceeds these established guidelines, a governor may make an appeal to the president allowing for a declaration of disaster to be made formal, authorizing the assistance of federal government (U.S. Senate Committee on Homeland Security and Governmental Affairs, 2006, p. 79) (Mycoff, 2007).

In spite of this accepted disaster response, training prepared and authorized from the federal level has often been found lacking. According to the Federal Response Plan (1990-2003) and the subsequent National Response Plan (NRP), government's primary mission "is to save lives; protect critical infrastructure, property, and the environment; contain the event; and preserve national security" (U.S. Senate Committee on Homeland Security and Governmental Affairs 2006, p. 79) (Mycoff, 2007). In the case of Hurricane

Katrina that hit the southern gulf region in 2005, planning, funding, and communication were at a functional low. Responsibility from all levels of government was non-existent and disaster readiness failed from the initial inking of suspected damage. Preparation for such a large-scale catastrophe was not region-specific and evacuations during the initial event highlighted ill prepared emergency management leadership. Follow-up led to infighting among divisions and groups shed a light on the failure of Congressional leaders to do their jobs in the areas they represented (Mycoff, 2007).

This study relates to both RQ1 and RQ2 with the failures from Katrina led to the development of education at all levels. The threat being the gross violations of professionalism and forethought of emergency management professionals during the disaster has led to more inner-agency training and educational opportunities. More funding and more concentration of making sure the funding is utilized appropriately have opened the emergent field of emergency management into a fully realized occupation.

With the challenges found in the modern age, disaster response and management has had to evolve alongside the defining lines of “what is a disaster?” and “who should be in charge of responding to it?” Better communication within communities and the municipalities and regions that represent them has led to more awareness and inclusion. Before, many areas were left to “clean it up themselves, as no one will be there to help” but now recognize the challenges and have developed their own disaster and emergency response planning.

In smaller municipalities and regions, the local police force has become more specialized in evaluating emergency situations and other crises. Police departments in

New York City during 911 were immediately thrust into the spotlight as they fought terrorism in their hometown. Understanding that all emergency events are “local” is the first step in accepting and implementing policing duties in response to situations that may have state or national significance (Oliver, 2009).

Highlighting first responders and nominating inter-agency incident commanders is a significant adjustment that changed much of disaster field operations. Training and education given to all responders has helped officers make the swift change from disaster responder to traffic officer and back again during incidents (Oliver, 2009). Multi-level professionalism and multi-tasking is expected amongst professionals as the world of policing has changed drastically with new threats and enemies. Global communication has allowed for a more veiled threat to become manifest and today’s police and other initial response leaders are under more pressure to leave nothing uninvestigated.

Issues arising from the introduction of the police forces into Homeland Security have been highlighted. 6 weeks after the events of 911, Congress pieced together the Patriot Act of 2001 that included comprehensive legislation without as much comprehensive directives that should have been more understood (Oliver, 2009). The rapid passing of bills gave the police forces more power and more reach than ever before. Without training and education and with great expectations, these newly constructed forces were armed with more personal power than ever before, mainly due to an increased anxiety felt throughout the nation. Enhanced changes in laws were passed swiftly and harsher punishments for terrorism were put in place alongside law

enforcement's increased surveillance capabilities (Oliver, 2009). The midway between a nation's safety and citizen rights was blurred and levels of anxiety became misplaced.

The change in policing duties following 911 spurred onward the development of Homeland Security and inter/intra office directives. However, education and training were minimal at best and non-existent in many areas. First responders often found themselves misguided and situations became more expensive and more dangerous.

This article relates to RQ2 with today's leaders handling this situation with increased training and awareness but there is a lot of room for improvement, especially in a field that changes alongside technology. The change in policing duties following 911 spurred onward the development of homeland security and inter/intra office directives. However, education and training were minimal at best and non-existent in many areas. First responders often found themselves misguided and situations became more expensive and more dangerous.

Leadership plays an extensive and important role in managing crisis situations. The current 24-hour news cycles provide constant reminders of catastrophes and the result of such. Leadership during these disasters is pivotal to the overall success of the rescue mission and a lacking leader can elevate an already deadly situation into a nightmare.

The events surrounding Hurricane Katrina can be used as a prime example of poor leadership that trickled downward. Despite the great successes of many agencies, such as non-profits, some governmental agencies, the private sector, business owners, volunteers, and others, the response and recovery following the extreme weather was

deemed a failure. A series of extraordinary systemic failures outweighed the great successes, leaving a vulnerable New Orleans to nearly crumble (Kapucu & Van Wart, 2008).

In the case of Hurricane Katrina, politics and social issues became two mitigating factors for the much failure. From federal to state and local leaders, there was poor planning and organization. There was an initial failure in the planning and prevention of the trigger event (hurricane) and decision-making leadership was nearly non-existent. Communications were not restored timely, leaving a largely disorganized response force lacking coordination (Kapucu & Van Wart, 2008). Citizens within the city were not properly educated about disaster specific response. Failure to adapt to changing plans and to the rise of lawless behavior also stalled the response. A lack of public transportation stalled the roads and information regarding shelter and supplies was found to be insufficient. Leadership in all areas failed to consider the extent of the city's vulnerabilities and a solid emergency response management schematic never came to fruition.

Strong leadership would have helped to calm the situation by having a plan and moving focus in a direct and timely manner. Of course, not all disasters can be pinpointed and planned but the actions of emergency services personnel and leaders, particularly New York Mayor Giuliani, during 9/11 highlighted the swift response and recovery of a well-trained and well-led response team (Kapucu & Van Wart, 2008). Taking charge of situations is a direct responsibility of leadership, as poor leadership offers up little confidence and assurance during difficult times.

This study relates to RQ1 and RQ2 identify many threats that need to be addressed with the internal threat of incompetent or indecisive leadership. Knowing the threat must be relayed to leaders as much as the first responders to effectively respond to disasters. The method used for leadership will be different from the normal method due to their time and job requirements.

Disaster studies refers to social and behavioral elements of sudden onset high-stress, collective situations which often result in mass emergencies and disastrous outcomes (Lindell, 2013). These situations can be man-made or naturally occurring and likely affect an enormous amount of a regional population. Additionally, the effects of a disaster may branch out into outlying problems affecting more and more lives until the source of the crisis is stopped or alleviated. According to Lindell there are three categorical definitions of disaster- classic, hazards/ disaster, and socially focused. In short, a disaster is “an event concentrated in time and space, in which a society or one of its subdivisions undergoes physical harm and social disruption, such that all or some essential functions of the society or subdivision are impaired.” (p. 810)

Disaster planning is not a one-all solution of function. A well laid out plan includes the periods before the disaster strikes, the period during the situation, and the recovery period (Lindell, 2013). Disaster planning is also not one plan or phase, even for the same locality. Each group of subdivision of groups is broken down into key parts, each part allowing for different units of needed attentions. Understanding that no region or locale is homogenous in its makeup is another important factor to consider when

planning training and education. Previous incidents in the same region and in others with similar risk factors add pertinent information to emergency management strategy.

This book relates to both RQ1 and RQ2 with the author studying the impact of previous crises and the levels of response needed compared with the relative recovery efforts and their effects can be used to build a more comprehensive disaster plan. Such information deigned from previous situations can be used to build models and better understand the hazards involved, including physical trauma, emotional and psychological damage and trauma, and financial burdens faced by the locale (Lindell, 2013). By employing disaster studies, emergency management leaders can better understand and prepare a complex and comprehensive disaster plan.

The terrorist attacks in New York City on September 11, 2001, brought the possibility of our nation being attacked into an absolute certainty. On that day, police and other first responders were involved in mission that they were ill prepared for. Despite the frightening situation and poor understanding of the initial cause of crisis, these men and women met the challenge and succeeded in saving thousands of lives. Strong leadership from New York Mayor Rudy Giuliani also added to the success of a mission that both weakened and strengthened the character of the United States. Until that day, the thought of attack was always just a breath away but the realization of what ends the terrorists were willing to meet deemed additional training and insight were needed. Research conducted after 9/11 shows a significant change in threat assessment training and education throughout the U.S. (Giblin et al., 2009).

Prior to 9/11, few law enforcement agencies had written or practical preparations for various forms of terrorism, including nuclear or biological. Surveys conducted by the Rand Corporation immediately before the terrorist acts and after identified a huge swing toward more threat management (Giblin et al., 2009). Additional research into jurisdictional preparedness has shown that law enforcement officials and other first responders have had a mixture of success and failures in implementing terrorist threat training in their locales. Successes have been noticed in joint-training exercises, updating mutual aid agreements, and developing risk assessment planning. Failures have come from a more localized insight into emergency response; outside of joint ventures, many law enforcement members and other first responders have no direct written policy regarding terrorist activities and few new positions have been created in response to terrorism (Giblin et al., 2009).

From these findings, the DHS has worked with first responders to frame their role in homeland security as pertinent (Giblin et al., 2009). Perceptions of threat have caused many jurisdictions to provide little effort into singular threat management without aid. Organizational development was found lacking in many jurisdictions and perceptions of real threat of terrorist activities was not dependent upon size of jurisdiction. Some smaller jurisdictions reported a higher threat belief than their larger counterparts, but organizational capacity did correlate with size of municipality despite the belief of risk (Giblin et al., 2009).

This study relates to RQ2 with resources and additional training have added more organizational capacity to smaller arenas and the increase of interagency workings have

benefited the overall disaster response plans of all groups studied. The threat of terrorism is the main component needing training and the existence of federal grants help to bring this to a reality. The ability to train small and large jurisdictions equally will help to better prepare everyone for the next disaster.

The local police forces within the U.S. faced a defining moment following the events of 9/11. No longer were local forces only responsible for issues surrounding their jurisdictions, they were assigned to be part of a task force with roles played both locally and federally (Roberts et al., 2012). The fundamental shift from community protectorate to homeland security specialist has altered much of the training and demands of first responders. Some departments have embraced this change and included new positions and additional training specifically targeted to the potential of terrorist threats. Other agencies have been more lax and/or have taken a different turn to emergency preparedness. More research is needed to be able to better pinpoint agency preparedness and what models work better or worse for which agency. (Roberts et al, 2012).

The existential threat of terrorism is, in itself, an alarming concept capable of employing fright without even an existence. This problem is in direct conflict with police duties who, in most cases, have a concise idea of whom or what the threat is that they face. Forms and faces of local police agencies are continuously changing, including devising complex planning and training to combat multitudes of disaster scenarios. Preparedness in law enforcement agencies also includes preparing their specific regions for vulnerabilities specific to their locales in relationship to terrorist threats. Regional-specific environmental factors and utilities can increase possible terrorist targets, leaving

a locale with more risk despite the size and scope of its police department. Various possible risks can include power plants, airport access, dams, and bridges or vulnerable geographical location (seaport) (Roberts et al., 2012).

Despite the actual degree of risk, police departments have had to adopt countermeasures to measures yet unseen. Current research suggests that organizations with higher levels of diverse occupational training and more collaboration with outside forces will foster more creative and inventive complex plans in a greater sense of terrorist threat preparation (Roberts et al., 2012). This measure of preparedness can be used as an objective measure of environmental and terrorist threat vulnerability.

This study relates to RQ2 by addressing the vulnerability of local agencies and their preparedness to respond to terrorism. There were many different areas of emphasis that could be considered a threat that require local responders to understand. The authors discuss community policing and how it relates to preparedness and the principles of community policing were associated with homeland security. These areas could be used to train in the threats identified for other responded to the disaster (Roberts et al., 2012).

Emergency planning efforts are high concerns for all agencies of emergency services. Government agencies who fail in their missions to act in expected, reasonable ways may be sued by individuals. Tort actions taken against agencies involve actions of those agencies in understood measures. Negligence in emergency management is understood as a failure of the agency to perform or perform as needed in governmental duties. If failure falls in the initial planning phase and actions are taken per the plan, there may be proof of a legal violation (Nicholson, 2007).

Gross negligence is another measure meant as the failure of a person to act reasonably under emergency circumstances. This form of negligence requires a more specific intent, and an elevated level of content may be required before any court finds this person to have been grossly negligent in their actions (Nicholson, 2007).

Intentional wrongdoing is yet another measure of tort that can lead to liability. Intentional wrongdoing suggests another person intentionally injures another's person or personal property. Battery, or the wrongful touching of another, is an example of an intentional wrongdoing (tort) and is a crime that the government may choose to prosecute. Immunity exists, in some cases, for shielding the government and/or its workers for failure to carry out the duties expected of them. It is this dilemma that many emergency managers face while fulfilling their duties. Balancing the needs of groups against the greater interest of society during situations where death, injury or property damage may occur. Sovereign immunity provides some liability shield, but that shield is not impervious to malicious acts committed by some government workers (Nicholson, 2007).

The Federal Tort Claims Act (28 U.S.C. 1346B) allows people and corporations injured by the acts of federal employees to bring suit against the government for their actions to federal court. Sovereign immunity is greatly considered and applied when to protect discretionary decisions made by government agencies in their duties of considering public safety. This immunity may include the agency and its agents, but the merits of the case could be determined by the actions or actions of an individual in dispensing his or her duties as an agent of the government (Nicholson, 2007).

The planning process for the establishment of emergency response actions is greatly considered when being determined for liability. Absent other facts, courts will determine the reasonableness of the action by closely examining the plan from which the act came (Nicholson, 2007). Planning has become an avoidable action for emergency management professionals. Various states require different levels of government to create emergency plans. Under Homeland Security Directive 5, all federal agencies must work together in developing a NRP and NIMS. States and localities not adhering to this cooperative planning duty may lose federal grants and other funding that make up significant portions of their budgets (Nicholson, 2007).

The role of Homeland Security has displaced much of the state emergency response planning. This role was reworked to add an extra-legal eye to the specifics and in an effort to maximize the amount of emergency powers available (Nicholson, 2007). Significant steps of planning and legal exercise have taken out much of the stress of government liability, but the opportunity still exists, especially in an environment where the public has great access to legal advice and information.

This study relates to both RQ1 and RQ2 with the author identifying many different threats to include terrorism, hazardous materials release, and school violence. Planning is the first step to identify the threats and then determine the best method to conduct the training. The training identified can either be formal training of hands-on training depending on the task and level of experience of the individual. The author makes the case that proper planning and implementation of the plan will prevent the jurisdiction being liable and this can be done through training.

The emergency management profession is responsible for many aspects of public safety. Not only are skilled managers tasked with training in terroristic threat scenarios, but they are also charged with planning for natural disasters. Each region has specific weather challenges and states, and jurisdictions should hold regular training sessions regarding those issues. Unfortunately, the concept of success or failure of emergency management during severe storms is poorly documented and current disaster regional disaster plans are not readily available (Baumgart et al., 2006).

To properly prepare for possible severe weather destruction, emergency managers should develop a disaster plan that fits the different phases of storm warnings. Emergency managers need to work in tandem with radar detection specialists and make the appropriate decisions to enact scripted protocol. The different phases become more challenging as the threat gets closer and emergency management professionals should be prepared to call for and to take specific action that correlates with the threat perceived (Baumgart et al., 2006). Like other aspects of emergency management and homeland security, preparing for severe weather can be a multi-agency discipline. The phases of storm decision-making require working with other responders to meet the challenges that severe weather can present. The different phases of storm warnings, pre-storm, severe weather watch, severe weather warning, and severe weather event should be a part of emergency management curriculum (Baumgart et al., 2006). By following the protocol set by adhering to these standards, emergency managers can involve other first responders to form a chain of information sharing that extends from the beginning stages

of planning to a rebuilding process, all the while keeping both the public and other responders aware of the impending situation.

The study relates to RQ2 with weather related topic being difficult for emergency managers to understand and properly relay to their community. The ability for emergency managers to interpret the information they receive and how they disseminate it can determine the outcome of the disaster. Training emergency managers on the science of disaster is critical to the overall understanding of how to properly serve the public with preparedness information.

Disaster scenarios are situations faced by all Americans throughout the nation. While emergency management professionals expect a certain responsibility factor from the populace-at-large, there are certain sectors of the population who are at a disadvantage. Studies show that many pockets of the population are linguistically isolated, making disseminating information particularly problematic (Nepal et al., 2012). Each culture should be studied as a whole and the proper procedures for information sharing should be evaluated based on expectations and demands of those affected.

This study relates to both RQ1 and RQ2 with the need for emergency management to be placed not only at the government level but the households that make up the community. Immigrants comprise a growing section of the American population and there needs to be a method to reach out to them to teach and inform them of the threats they may face. Each culture is unique and their experiences and familiarity with both hazards and responses to those hazards should be expected in effective disaster planning.

Colleges, universities, and other institutions of higher learning are having to actively maintain new and progressing methods of providing student mass hazard safety. Adopting common practices in an uncommon setting has helped prepare schools of all sizes to react with certainty and to recover with resiliency.

Resiliency, in relations to disasters and expected reactions, is a revolving concept (Kapucu & Khosa, 2013). Preparing students and faculty for pre disaster planning and mitigation strategies illuminates the relevant and modern need for such actions. Severe and disastrous events have targeted educational institutions. Responses and recovery actions to these disasters have had a sordid past. Saving life and maintaining strength in adversity should be expected, particularly considering the youthful nature of most institutional populace.

Maintaining a culture of readiness, according to emergency directors like Steve Charvat, the management director at the University of Washington in Seattle. Directors like Charvat have initiated response planning that involves government and citizen cooperation. Colleges are being helped to get involved in risk mitigation and phase planning. Working with governmental all-hazards ideals, emergency management planning helps to identify the risks of various threats and weighs them against the response recognized in both state and federal planning modules. It, also, helps to identify the roles both faculty and students play in any response and initiates a command systems layout for outreach and support (Kapucu & Khosa, 2013).

This study relates to RQ2 by showing training is effective in promoting a safe and secure environment. The threats identified on campuses and universities may be different

than those encountered in a local or state environment, but the overall training aspect remains the same. Having a trained workforce will better prepare them to respond to real world situations.

In preparation for introducing and employing emergency management disaster planning, evolving changes and challenges to the both the instruments used and the groups identified must change along with the time. Part of any planning process includes identifying and classifying those with special needs. Extra measures should be taken when working with individuals requiring special assistance. Unfortunately, classification of a group and the group itself can be at odds. Informed emergency management professionals should be prepared to make distinctions or to instigate new planning.

"Special needs" is an all-encompassing term that, to an emergency response leader, means an individual or group who needs extra attention. Often times, special needs involve a general area that requires responders to be flexible in their exercising of protection. Special needs can be quite broad in its emergency management definition. It can include groups of individuals living in a convalescent home and a disabled child living in the area. It can also be used to describe a large swath of the population that are carless. While not a distinct disability, it is important to include this populace into regional planning in case of a need for quick displacement (Kailes, 2012).

Analysis conducted from information provided by the U.S Census should be studied and accounted for in the community. Closer research should be conducted in the area as to understand terms more fully like "special needs" and "disability" (Kailes, 2012). Some individuals who fall into groups outlined on the census are not in need of

emergency evacuation assistance solely based on an expected condition. Likewise, there may be others not identified that fit the special help need. Extremely obese and home bound citizens should be notated as priority, as should their situations if they should change.

This study relates to RQ2 is it requires you to know the disabilities in the community (threat) is paramount for emergency planning. Parsing the broadly defined into manageable is the first step in clearing a path for response readiness. The author states that by implementing people with disabilities in the planning process will identify threats that may not have been considered. The ability to include the whole community in the planning process will make a better and sounder plan.

Since the 1980s, disasters have been on the rise. In developing and non-developing nations, the magnitude and impaction of disaster scenarios have escalated (McEntire, 2009). With the rise of easier global communication, the availability of hazardous materials has allowed those with ill intent to build their weapons and devices much easier and with instant communication, those looking for others of like minds find their cohorts in crime.

Current rising incidents find more destruction in poorer, underdeveloped regions that lack much of the early warning design built into many modern-day emergency management watch systems. A lot of money, time, and planning has been used to institute early threat detections and complex emergency management training in a tried-and-true and expected system of detection and recovery. Like the evolution of threats

and the viability of the implementation of such, new and greatly effective threats have identified even more weaknesses and attacked without mercy.

Underdeveloped and newly developing nations are being threatened, particularly with their nearly infantile relationship with technology. Back-alley bars in nations like Nigeria and others are used by computer hackers to link disadvantaged youth with new computers and theft. Pseudo-holy men of various religions have also used their nation's youth and a combination of newly acquired technology to perpetuate hideous crimes. Paradigm shifts and epistemological assumptions should be considered when facing modern disaster scenarios. Refusing to visit the entirety of the issues and relying fully on what had worked in the past is lacking in leadership. Changing what use to be to what can be frightening but necessary to save lives.

This study relates to RQ2 by identifying threats that would normally be found in other places. Knowing the threats through comprehensive planning will assist to better prepare the community and emergency managers to respond to disasters. The ability to reach underserved communities should be placed in the emergency plan and training conducted to test the plan.

The impact of the utilization of information technology (IT) and emergency planning and management within the U.S. has shown to greatly affect both readiness and the evolution of training (Reddick, 2012).

Since 1979, when a broad framework for emergency management was developed by the National Governor's Association (NGA), national emergency planning has utilized an IT base. Technology has been used in many emergency management functions. IT has

been used in mitigation of disaster and reduction of threat by highlighting vulnerabilities. Technology is used for preparedness and readiness, giving citizens' time to respond and in response, allowing online information and access to assistance forms. Recovery has been benefited by technology with information sharing and rebuilding more accessible for volunteers and donators.

This article refers to both RQ1 and RQ2 by identifying the threat of disasters and the model would have to incorporate IT. IT will continue to aid emergency management, particularly in the planning process and may be unfamiliar to some that are afraid of technology. Sampling and evaluating disaster and hazardous situations offer up a plethora of wealth that can be analyzed and used to build a more concrete emergency plan. It will continue to train and assist professionals and offer up new and beneficial additions to training learned from around the world.

Ensuring insight and perspective is kept when adjusting and involving others in an all-hazardous situation. Maintaining an eye towards success for long term goals rather than singularly concentrating on individual detail is highly important. New ideals of what "normal" means must be discussed and introduced before any sense of completion will start to look promising.

Achieving realistic results within a specified timeline will allow for communication and trust by managers and civic members. Focusing on the framework of the city-in-need will require layering of both government and local monies and personnel. Setting goals of recovery and thriving instead of return-to-good-as-new should be discussed and highlighted so that all mission and citizenry are aware of the obstacles and

prepared for the expectations. Involving those from the community to work in various capacities in the improvement of their communities will have a lasting effect that will continue past the recovery process and well into the thriving of the community (McCreighton, 2010, p. 228).

This study relates to Both RQ1 and RQ2 by educating residents about the differences of recovery and resilience should be made part of any emergency management planning and the ability to identify a training model that can reach the population. Instructing residents in the reality of the situation without instilling dread and confusion is an integral planning procedure for future field work in situations involving displaced and distrusting citizens.

The emergency situation of September 11, 2011, ushered in a new era of critical emergency management response that included an integrated system based on successful collaboration between agencies. Both federal and state agencies have had to make planning changes to their systems of hazards management and incorporate new threat responses into their everyday lexicon.

Successful collaboration of first responders in various official positions has begun a natural integration into emergency management planning and response. Specialists employed in various positions are on the forefront of collaborative thinking as they are tasked with holding a deep understanding to the threat level and hazard most specific to their general area. Urban areas require more specialists as their general populations represent larger amounts of possible hazard-specific issues that could arise. Multi-lingual emergency managers are an example of a specialty held by a professional; being able to

instill trust while safely ushering citizens to a safe zone is paramount in highly populated areas. Categorizing threats and the areas from which these threats arise will further aid an emergency manager when preparing for expected emergencies (Caruson & MacManus, 2008).

This study relates to RQ2 using surveys that should be conducted by all emergency managers to engage training to specific areas. Training based on and around specific hazardous incidents can help build a better vocabulary of threat training. The different types of threats identified through the survey include vulnerable populations, mobile home parks, and major infrastructure. Each needs to have separate training that can be conducted to improve the response to these areas during a disaster.

Although all emergency management incidents are, in the immediate, local issues, the effects and carnage left by both threat and actual event encompasses a much larger area. The Emergency Management Assistance Compact (EMAC) acknowledges this wider bridge and encourages states to work together. (Kapucu et al., 2009).

The training aspect for this operational interstate partnership is, as much of the current state of training with this field, lacking. Bridging the gaps between state accepted responsibility and financial capacity can cause severe logistical issues.

Certain catastrophic events are somewhat foreseeable. State-anticipated incidents play important parts in setting up and maintaining a cohesive multi-state training and response unit. Unfortunately, the responsibility factor of responding to and recovery from catastrophic events is both timely and cost consuming and can lead to collaborative efforts falling in their initial responses. Incidents like Hurricane Katrina affect all

humanity and allowed for a response more resembling an inter organizational response effort than simply an interstate cooperative challenge (Kapucu et al., 2009).

Collaborative efforts for major response require training for assistance. EMAC was implemented to establish a plan for expected operating procedures. It requires the ratification by state legislatures and provides a legal framework to ease facilitation and reimbursement (Kapucu et al., 2009). Workers knowing their rights and entering a situation with some training is a first step to interstate cohesion.

This study relates to RQ2 by identifying EMACs as an area that emergency responders need to be trained. Even know this is not an external treat that can harm the community, it is a threat that can do harm if not implements properly. When EMAC is activated the state and local jurisdictions need to know the capability and authority that this provides. Training will inform managers how to request and utilize this valuable asset.

Emergency management is a worldwide challenge. Different areas, environments, and populations requires knowledge in response. Since the landscape of the United States is so varied, training for incident response must be broad and evolving. Learning from and about other responses in similar landscapes, despite the geographical locations, can better prepare emergency managers to meet challenges more prepared.

The Black Saturday bush fires of 2009 challenged the concept of firefighting throughout the Australian nation. Although the continent of Australia offers up extensive areas of brush fire disaster possibility, it is a lesson in challenging preconceived notions of environmental and crisis management (Boin & Hart, 2010). Strategic and operational

aspects of disaster response led to a challenge of preparing and expectation of best-case outcomes.

From this tragedy, catastrophic fire response and strategic thinking point out failures of systems. Obtaining full information and learning from past mistakes are invaluable training tools. Consolidating efforts and circumscribing the victim issues, along with account-giving bring more legitimacy to any effort (Boin & Hart, 2010).

This study relates to both RQ1 and RQ2 with the threat being response to wildfires not only at the responder level but at the policy maker level. The training model used needs to incorporate training that can be delivered to different individuals and positions. Knowing the audience is important and possible able to produce one product for all the individuals involved. Having leadership involved in developing training will help to improve upon the curriculum.

The word "disaster" has become a common part of the world's lexicon. According to data derived from OFDA/CRED International Disasters Database (EM-DAT), the number of natural disasters experienced throughout civilizations worldwide have increased over 2000 times since 1990 (Kusumasari et al., 2010). These disasters can be identified in various ways but, in general, they represent an event, and the ways societies structure themselves both socially and economically, and the relationships between the government and the citizens of the region (Kusumasari et al., 2010).

The capability to respond to a natural or man-made disaster can differ greatly between societies. The relationship between government officials and the population they represent can also be challenging. Poor nations with less-than-trustworthy relations with

their officials can immediately challenge response and recovery efforts. The ability to observe structural problems in managing complex organizations is paramount in training knowledge and participation (Kusumasari et al., 2010).

Local governments represent great challenges in training for and responding to disaster efforts. Training at the local level provides additional barriers with responsibility levels of workers. A lack of trust and financial issues offers up additional challenges as state level workers and government officials collide to provide a cohesive training plan and future response. These challenges are just more increasing evidence of the failure of current training policies (Kusumasari et al., 2010).

This study relates to RQ2 with the authors identifying many threats in four of the five mission areas. Some of the areas of concern that should be address with training are how to evacuate individuals, warning systems, and wave resistance structures. The ability to train the identified threats will make the community more resilient and able to respond to disasters.

Training for disaster events is a challenging endeavor. Whether providing a cohesive training program in the classroom, to collaborative response efforts in the field, a strategy for maximum learning potential is imperative for future success. Strategic management has been used throughout the years for response to uncertain environments (Choi, 2008). Current challenges are illuminating incidents that require a modern strategic thinking movement.

The difference between public and private sector response to threat management are different. Public sector officials have lagged far behind their private sector cohorts.

This is in direct contrast to the needs and successes of government response. Studies have shown that strategic management processes within government have been successful. Unfortunately, despite these shown successes, the actual implementation of these strategic management processes has been labored and utilized infrequently within government (Choi, 2008). Governmental leadership should be reevaluated, with flexibility becoming a key component to any position holding control over training and response (Choi, 2008).

This study relates to RQ2 which has found leadership to be a key component in both exploring strategic management and in its implementation. Threats are identified differently depending on the level of response individuals are. Some require awareness training where other may require more in-depth training specific to threat. Community leaders should be trained to contribute to strategic management. Like all aspects of emergency response reaction, training is the key.

Accountability is an issue in emergency management that has repeatedly produced gross failure and neglect. Hurricane Katrina was a lesson in accountability failure. Multiple organizational groups both decried and declared responsibility but the effect was a breakdown in communication and failure. A less-than diligent approach to observation and production provided confusion rather than leadership.

Trade-offs between agencies has been common. Agencies responsible for one or more area of crisis management and control become lazy with their ideals and take their responsibilities less seriously. Sound, professional judgment made by leaders was lacking, with poorly coordinated responses between all levels of government adding to an

already failing scenario (Koliba & Zia, 2011). Emergency response was a complete failure during Hurricane Katrina, but it brought up important insights that has greatly benefited the future of emergency management training.

The need to define governance networks was highlighted during the disaster (Koliba & Zia, 2011). Models of accountability and considerations of amounts of control opened a system of vertical and horizontal control structures with varying responsibilities. The accountability of governmental agencies admixed with public policy leaders tasks each office with responding to the public (Koliba & Zia, 2011). Opening channels of communications allows the public a voice in their elected officials and in choosing an accountability register for their votes.

This study relates to RQ2 in several ways by defining threats of inexperienced responders to government officials not taking responsibility. The authors also identify there was a large portion of responders that were new and did not have the operational experience. Training needed to be conducted for all responders and in this case, personal should not be stove piped in their steady state job. Being training prior to deploying to the disaster is imperative to the success of the mission.

With the expectations placed on emergency management professionals to react swiftly, any additional assistance is welcomed. Technology has rapidly advanced to a place unheard of only a few decades ago, aiding management specialists to cooperate more efficiently. Outside of specially trained individuals, the role of volunteer organizations can aid in response, recovery, and in planning procedures.

Joint planning between local emergency managers and the regional volunteer agencies offers important value to crisis management (Brundey & Gazley, 2009). Only a short time ago, government agencies were viewed as inclusive entities, not willing or less likely to work alongside those outside their expected perimeters. Today's incident managers are aware of the assistance of private sector workers. The increased need of additional labor has made a partnership between the two vital.

While volunteer organizations clearly offer a bonus to emergency management, their role in crises has definite pros and cons. As challenged throughout the literature, training is lacking in the emergency management field and even more so in many volunteer organizations. Volunteers, while providing badly needed manpower, offer up challenges in the very nature of their title. Not having a working relationship between governmental agencies and the private sector can cause confusion and the lack of proper authority to manage both groups can lead to heated disagreements over responsibility (Brundey & Gazley, 2009).

This study relates to both RQ1 and RQ2 with the identification of specialized training relating to location and expectations that can be utilized to build better working arrangements and partnership skills. Training volunteers can be challenging, and the model needed should be tailored to the audience. The threat identified is different disaster response but the way we train each group identified in the study would be different.

Since 9/11, the scope of emergency management and homeland security has greatly broadened. The magnitude of disasters, including terrorist attacks, has challenged the roles of federal, state, and local organizers (Gerber & Robinson, 2009). The creation

of the DHS changed the character of local incidents and added an additional layer of leadership and cooperation (Gerber & Robinson, 2009). The scope of incident management has added a need for more cooperation and, with that, a need for more thorough education and training.

How to build a fundamental emergency response includes looking back at the past and into the future. Preparedness for crises is no longer a local problem but an issue that affects everyone. Regional response requires a working relationship between local emergency management groups and governmental groups tasked for support. Challenging the original NRP, a more organized ideal of regional preparedness requires becoming more prepared and willing to work outside of local jurisdictions (Gerber & Robinson, 2009).

Worst-case scenario planning is the new first step in building a complete response. Awareness of capability and assistance available helps to build a relationship based on abilities and expectations of authority. There are pitfalls of this cooperation such as performance and relevance. Training and education acknowledging the roles of each response entity is a first step for the collaboration of multiple jurisdictions.

This study relates to RQ2 with the threat being large scale disasters such as hurricanes, bombs, or tornadoes. Each of these require training with the paper discussing preparedness to handle these disasters is key to the overall success of the response. Local emergency managers must be prepared but know how to request assistance from the next level of government if the situation becomes worse using up their resources.

Much of the attention paid to emergency management response is aimed at high-powered federal agencies. These agencies were created or became more powerful following incidents like 9/11 and Hurricane Katrina (Walia, 2008). Often overlooked are the local based emergency management professionals. Because of their knowledge of the region, local and jurisdictional planners and response personnel are of vital importance to national security.

Community Based Disaster Preparedness (CBDP) is a concept that considers the usable resources held by a community in response to large- and small-scale emergency events. It, also, includes expectations of what a well-aware community should be prepared to undertake if given a certain circumstance (Walia, 2008). Involving communities to continue to control much of the response adds to the respect and trust which is often at a loss between local and federal, public, and private sectors.

CBDP models rely on a partnership. That partnership relies on awareness of the situation and respect for those who live in the area. Disasters, whether small or large, have a great effect on the surrounding community. A prepared community must have a well-laid-out plan in response to expected or anticipated natural and man-made disasters. Local knowledge of the area should be clouded into a collected and collaborative response and recovery effort (Walia, 2008). Mistrust of governmental agencies, along with a lack of training for the ever-changing environment of emergency management will go a long way in preparation and preparedness.

This study relates to RQ1 in that it calls for a standardized training model for community-based disaster preparedness. The author identifies many shortfalls in the

training approach to includes lack of standard and the inability for trainers to interact with the local communities. With many organizations teaching the same subject, there should be a common training model used so that everyone is receiving the same information.

Intergovernmental collaboration is a term that describes the relationships between one or more agencies working within the broad scope of government services.

Overcoming challenges created by an intricate organizational chart require education and training in multiple environments. Ineffective inclusion and lackluster management can seriously reduce the trust and effectiveness of any response and recovery entity working collaboratively.

There is a complex level of authority within the bureaucracy and proverbial red tape of the network of governmental agencies responding to incidents of crisis and disaster. Local response professionals, along with volunteer organizations often feel ineffective in comparison to the power of the federal government. These collaborations are necessary to meet any challenge. A collaborative effort involving local and federal entities and public and private sector workers is necessary for maximum effectiveness (McGuire & Silvia, 2010).

Planning and delivery of preparation and response rely on agencies working intergovernmental. Overcoming crisis relies on an emergency management leader to react accordingly to the specific disaster affecting his/her area of responsibility. They must consider the risk created for society as a whole, including the need for additional support when the situation becomes too extensive to contain by local response agencies (McGuire & Silvia, 2010).

This study relates to RQ2 with the author noting organizations with a well-defined training will be able to collaborate better with their counterparts. Training and education are paramount to intergovernmental collaboration. Taking time to familiarize and plan for events will better create a cohesive working environment. This study is similar to this one because they try to establish a common theme.

Funding is an aspect of emergency management that can create governmental and societal mistrust. Within the wide scope of federal powers lies a paradox of crisis response. Current political and regional tensions have added to this government mistrust. Tax revolts among citizens have greatly increased tensions and national politics have become more local throughout the last decade. These arguments have placed disaster response planning and the expense of such on the shoulders of local emergency management organizations (Krueger et al., 2009).

Emergency management, as a profession, is a complex network of agencies. First responders, such as local police and firefighters, have a priority to their jurisdiction, while simultaneously working within the scope of the federal government. Communities are required to project their emergency management needs through strong local representation. Bolstering the crisis planning based on local needs, environmental factors, and historical reflection demand a certain level of funding. Unfortunately, the performance of emergency management within a jurisdiction can be quantified and poorer communities tend to not have a response comparative to the needs of their populations (Krueger et al., 2009).

Trying to find the admixture of governmental involvement can be difficult. Balancing the power of government with the needs of a community require planning and knowledge of the networking system of agencies. Mistrust and politics affect the preparation and understanding of the need for additional funds to represent their areas in a crisis.

This study relates to both RQ1 and RQ2 by demonstrating that funding could be considered a threat for emergency managers. The need to construct a training model to effectively reach the community is necessary so they understand the roles and responsibility of emergency management, so they are not against increased taxes to fund this agency.

Since emergencies are not constantly occurring, it is often an afterthought in local planning and networking. Hurricane Katrina and the events occurring on 9/11 highlighted a lack of preparation by both local and federal agencies (Henstra, 2010). Current management plans are in need of evaluation. Additional funding, education, and training are vital to successful response and recovery following disaster situations. Whatever framework is utilized in this planning and adopting the correct framework for the situation is necessary for future success.

Emergencies are created when physical and social situations become extraordinary within a jurisdiction. Disasters occur when the situation becomes out of control and local resources are insufficient for effective response (Henstra, 2010). Primary responsibilities are delegated locally, and each region is responsible for producing viable emergency response plans. History has shown that most jurisdictions

fail to properly plan or allocate funds for situations turning to disaster status. Evaluation of current planning procedures based on criteria realized training and education can better manage a situation before it grows too big for immediate response (Henstra, 2010).

This study relates to RQ1 with the author defining a need to evaluate emergency management plans. There are a multitude of frameworks available for study from which a productive emergency response can be prepared and/or evaluated. A community's effective policies, greatly affect the planning, as does the political climate of any area. Education and training become a mainstay for any emergency management professional. Knowing where to turn for framing a crisis plan should be part of a successful educational and training platform.

Change is necessary in the implementation of disaster plans. Current situational attitudes have challenged the idea of a lackluster response to incidents. Maintaining the precarious distinction between policy control and population responsibility adds to the already changed landscape of society. A more proactive approach to disaster management is a necessity dealing with the natural and man-made incidents that are affecting the nation.

Climate change, political involvement, and societal situations are all challenges to disaster planning and response. These barriers to effective planning represent a shift in the paradigm of emergency management (McEntire, 2009). Taking these characteristics into mind when developing framework for and researching disaster planning is imperative for success.

Inclusion of jurisdictional entities is another change needed for disaster replanting and response. Allocating resources, responsibility, and resources-even in the preparation stages- builds trust and challenges held beliefs of governmental mistrust. Instilling a personal response factor in the population is another change needed to update crisis management. Environmental factors, including sustainable development, should be included in any planning as a modern outlook to mitigation rather than response-only situations (McEntire, 2009).

Waiting for a disaster, rather than preparing to intercede before such an event, is a worthwhile change to the current framework of emergency management specialists.

This study relates to RQ2 with education and training for management specialists is a first step in changing the landscape of networking and intergovernmental collaboration. Different threats identified by the author include climate change and political involvement. A need to shift to preparation rather than response should be highlighted in any training program.

Summary and Conclusions

Within the reviewed literature, there are several key themes and trends identified that contribute to the overall study. One of the main trends was the lack of training too properly prepare emergency managers to handle disasters. Much of the literature went into detail on the shortfalls related to the profession but failed to identify specific requirements. Several articles studied different state emergency operations that identified training as a major area that needs to improve to meet the changing environment. Another

trend that was identified was the lack of funding to incorporate training or education that could improve emergency management operations.

Understanding what requirements can improve the emergency management profession was clear from the reviewed literature. Each article was relevant in their own way by identifying mentioning small but significant themes that shed light on where improvements could be made in emergency management. While one could argue the need for specialized training for specific areas of the country would be more appropriate, the overarching consensus is the need to improve the emergency management curriculum and training.

While specific training requirements is not mentioned in any of the articles, it is stressed there is a need for more to be done for emergency managers to be better prepared. While needed training was the main theme in many articles money and budget were another contributing factor. With the increase of local, state, and federal government becoming more fiscally sound, the ability to bring training to the emergency manager is becoming more difficult. With college degrees becoming a requirement for most emergency management positions; training needs to reflect on the requirements that would best benefit the new local manager. Each article relates to one another by common themes that include the ability to include proper training and of education at the local level of emergency management.

Each of the studies used in this study have a common theme that can be used to improve on emergency management training. When comparing several articles, qualitative studies were used to determine specific areas within the emergency

management field that should be addressed to improve upon the profession. The EMI is the main body that research and designs curriculum for federal, state, and local emergency manager. There have been numerous studies and focus groups conducted by EMI that have tried to identify training and/or education for the emergency manager. Information gathered from the Department of Education identifies no common curriculum offered from college to college or state to state.

The articles have many areas of concern that add for the need to complete this study to clarify requirements for the local emergency manager. Some of the preparedness plans offered in some of the article remain controversial in that they address areas that affect certain locations. The thought that each location of the country should be handled equally when it comes to emergency management should not be considered when it comes to preparedness. The ability to have a common core of initial training requirements should be standardized throughout the country to prevent additional training.

Most of the articles failed to address the underlining concern and topic for this study, the need for training and education for emergency managers. In the conclusion of numerous articles, additional research on specific training or education requirements for emergency managers was addressed as a topic for future research. Another area not covered in detail but mentioned briefly in numerous articles was how money was imperative to training and how it is received and conducted at the local level. When the local emergency manager is responsible for a budget, there should be prior training received so they can effectively perform their duties and responsibilities.

The articles selected for this study directly correspond and support the validity of the research question. The research question(s) are a relevant in that they try and answer the gaps in the literature reviewed. All the articles selected have common traits that defined a need to identify training and education requirements for the local emergency manager assisted in determining the importance of the research. Many of the articles explain the importance of emergency managers and the role they have in their community. To ensure emergency managers are properly prepared to perform their duties at the local level, the articles reviewed showed a correlation for the need for standardize training.

Using the articles in the study determined that interviewing emergency managers with local experience would explain the need for training and/or educational requirements. Some of the articles interviewed different professions related to emergency management. The results of different studies were looking more at a consensus of requirements than to narrow down the standards. Different article that examined institutional training determined there were no standardized courses required throughout the country. To identify specific training or educational requirements, the research questions would help to determine the most significant and useful training.

The comprehensive emergency management system defined by FEMA includes the need to standardize training for a more effective manager. Several articles identify similar requirements that need to be standardized to improve overall capabilities of the local emergency manager. Each article built on another to determine the need to further explore whether more training is needed. When combining the different studies,

information gathered from FEMA, and the Department of Education, there was a definitive need to complete a study that would identify specific training and/or educational requirements. The articles used in this study each produced a viable need to conduct a further study to determine the most significant requirements for local emergency managers.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of the study was to develop common training and/or educational requirements that would benefit the local emergency manager without regard to their location. Having properly trained emergency managers benefit the community and its citizens by having individuals with the knowledge and experience to handle disasters. This study presents different areas where the information could benefit the emergency management profession.

The training and education emergency managers receive is nonspecific and generic, making it difficult for new managers to transition directly into a position without receiving additional training or guidance. If you compare college curriculum along with job announcements from different parts of the United States, each area has different requirements and curriculum. California has different standards and requirements than Kansas or Florida; however, there should be mutual characteristics that all states should have in common. Identifying specific core competencies and attributes by experienced emergency managers will improve the development of a set of courses or curriculum that will better serve emergency managers.

Fire and police academies in every state are relatively similar with the curriculum provided and the structure of the academy. An individual certified in California or New York will transfer to most law enforcement or fire departments throughout the United States after they pass the state qualifying exam. This should be the standard in emergency management and would standardize curriculum and standards to produce emergency managers with skills that would be interchangeable throughout the United States.

Focusing on this problem will help discover common themes and standards required for emergency managers to perform their duties effectively so set standards can be achieved.

Research Design and Rationale

The study explored one central issue of training and educational requirements through two research questions.

RQ1 – What training models are most effective at preparing first responders?

RQ2 – What are the most crucial threat areas in which responders should be trained?

This study determined training and/or educational requirements for local emergency managers at the local level. Research Questions 2 builds on the overall threat to the local emergency management environment where Research Question 1 ascertains any additional training the local managers might benefit from that is not offered to the local level manager. All disasters are local, which is the determining factor for limiting the study to requirements for the local emergency manager.

The use of phenomenology design addressed participants who have experienced the process of what is needed to best handle situations that may arise and what is needed to address these situations. Emergency managers provided the most complete information of training needed due to their knowledge of the profession and experience from their position handling real world events.

The design addresses the research questions by identifying individuals of the same profession answering the same questions. Using emergency managers that had

experience at the local level, the shared experiences resulted in answers that could be used to build a consensus for the research questions.

The key phenomenon being investigated in this study was experts in the emergency management profession answering questions to determine key requirements of the local emergency manager to handle major disasters.

This study was qualitative, driven by participants answering non-structured interview questions. Each of the participants had similar experiences of the phenomenon but provided a different perspective of how they were able to achieve a successful response to major disasters. Information from the participants was gathered and analyzed to determine common and unique terms and phrases that correspond to the research question. This information prioritized specific training or education requirements identified by the research participants that can be used to improve curriculum for new emergency managers to effectively handle major disasters.

The research method used to best answer the research questions was the qualitative method. The need to identify different training methods and types of training all require the feedback from individuals having experience with the specific phenomenon. The study identified training and education along with the best method to present curriculum. Individuals who have experienced this in real world situations and in workplace settings were the best sources to collect data. Qualitative was the most effective method because it allowed participants to explain what is needed for emergency managers to be successful.

Using interviews and questionnaires, I gathered data from individuals who understand emergency management and have direct experience with questions that I asked about the profession. The data collected through interviews and questionnaires identified the common themes that were placed in graphs and charts that can confirm the questions asked of the participants.

The basis for the use of phenomenology method was to gain an understanding of individuals through real life experiences. The research focus is not on the individual, but on the phenomenon experienced through the individual. What makes phenomenology theory relevant to this study was individuals selected for the study have experienced the phenomenon and the data are collected using interviews (Creswell, 2007).

Though emergency management has many classes and curriculum both in higher learning and independent study, this study identified the key learning model and training courses that are necessary for emergency managers to be successful. Using a smaller sample group was required to be able to effectively answer the questions. Having too many individuals involved in the study would not produce the results necessary for an informative response to the research questions. Narrowing down the participants in the study from all emergency managers to state training officers produced a more well-rounded response due to their experience and expertise.

This was the main reason qualitative research using the phenomenology method was selected for this study. Experts in the profession and not random individuals that have no experience, but have formal education, were better suited to answer the research questions. Using other methods would require larger sample size, as with grounded

method or from the narrative method which requires individuals provide their views on a specific topic. Other methods would not be beneficial because the study tried to garner information from individuals that have experienced the phenomenon that can provide explanations and examples of their knowledge of the subject.

The use of qualitative research allowed the study to explore concepts and experiences of emergency managers. Through real life experiences, raw data were gathered, producing qualitative results. The study identified different experiences that can be transformed into workable data that shows what participants need and require to be successful. There was no need to gather data points or numbers and statistics on training and education or the specific training model that would be the most beneficial to emergency managers. This would not produce viable data that could be interpreted to answer the research questions.

The approach used created meaning from the information gathered from the participants who have “lived the experiences” of the study (Padgett, 2008). There are very few studies about the topic of this research which is why the research method is being used. According to Brown (2015) FEMA's higher education program and the Foundations on Higher Education Accreditation have all identified certain standards for emergency management. Even with these institutions identifying standards, very little research has been conducted which assess these educational needs (Brown, 2015). The phenomenological research is like narrative, but the research group is larger not focusing on one area. Other approaches have value but would not be able to produce results needed to fully understand the identified phenomenon.

Role of the Researcher

My role in this study was an observer that provided an explanation of the study to the participants and what was expected of them. As an observer, I ensured each participant was treated equally and kept any bias away from the study. Each interview was conducted properly and adhere to the standards within the design of the study. The interaction between the participants was limited with discussions happening only after data has been collect and follow up as necessary.

The role of the researcher was collecting the information from the questionnaires and arrange the data to determine whether additional follow up questioning is needed. Open and closed ended questions from the questionnaires was collected and analyzed and placed in similar groups. The data from follow up interviews provided more in-depth information to better understand the research questions. Information collected from the interviews provided greater understanding of the specific training methods and how they are used along with specific threats that responders need to be trained. The interview not only got a response from the questions but also stimulated information from the participant of answers not previously thought of. Gathering data was analyzed and compared to the *comprehensive emergency management training and education system* chart to identify any similarities.

There was personal relationship between the researcher and any of the participants. The individuals were selected because of their position and experience in the emergency management profession. Some of the participants have a professional relationship with the researcher; however, that is where the relationship ends. Email and

phone correspondence occur on occasion to talk about training opportunities available and instructor qualifications but that is the extent of relationship. None of the participants are in a position of authority over the researcher and the researcher is not the supervisor of any of the participants.

Identifying the guidelines set by the institution and following them helped to lower the chances of researcher biases. All data collected, even data that is thought to be irrelevant and not support the study was analyzed. This study is important to the emergency management profession and having usable data without bias helped to better the institution. Having strict interview standards that do not deviate, asking the same questions not leading the participants to specific answers is important to have viable data so the study is credible and accurate. All the participants are professionals and the data retrieved was not influenced by the relationship between researcher and participant.

Other ethical issues that might arise were the study is being conducted in emergency management which is the field that I work in. This was not an issue because I have been in emergency management for ten years and have chosen this study because of the need I have seen for training. Knowing there is gap in literature only heightened my interest in achieving a viable outcome of this study free from bias and ethical issues. I do not have an identified outcome of the study and let the data speak for itself to produce whatever results that may occur.

Another ethical issue is keeping data confidential and not sharing personal data with other participants. The emergency management profession is small and the participant group I pulled from is even smaller with most having some sort of

professional relationship. Keeping who are participating in the study from other participants helped to lessen the ability of the group from taking within each other for common answers to the questions. Documenting true data from the participants and not what I may believe they are saying is the reason for follow up interviews to not sway the data to what I would like the study to conclude.

Methodology

The use of phenomenology design addressed participants who have experienced the process of what is needed to best handle situations that may arise and what is needed to address these situations. Emergency managers provided the most complete information of training needed due to their knowledge of the profession and experience from their position handling real world events.

The design addressed the research questions by identifying individuals of the same profession answering the same questions. By using emergency managers that had experience at the local level, the shared experiences were comparable and resulted in answers that can be used to build a consensus for the research questions.

The role of the researcher was grounded within the research questions and limited to asking the same questions and follow up responses when needed. A structured set of questions was asked and repeated to each interviewee. Once all the interviews were conducted, the data was be collected, and the results were presented.

Individuals selected were state training officers (STOs) throughout the country with interviews conducted at their local home or office. There are only 54 STOs that were contacted for this study and not all responded. These individuals have experience with

disasters at the local level and have an understanding what training would be needed for them to accomplish their mission.

The data collection process used in-depth interviews and questionnaires to collect data from a select group of individuals. The initial step was sending questionnaires to the participants using open-ended questions along with gathering basic personal data pertaining to their positions and experience. Follow-up interviews through phone and online chat rooms were conducted to retrieve additional information or to clarify answers.

Once the interviews were completed, the information was compiled and arranged to identify common themes and words. The data collected from these participants were compared to the basic care competencies along with the training and education specializations. The content was sorted even further to identify the underlying theme and the finding presented.

The study sent the same questionnaire to all participants and only did follow-up interviews with those that did not answered questions completely or were vague in their response. All the information collected was correlated and placed in detailed transcripts. The follow-up interviews were recorded to ensure proper documentation was done without distortion of the facts.

Each participant in the study is confidential and no information was shared between any participant. Participants were told the intent of the study and had the option to not participate at any time. There was no personal identifiable information collected during this study that violated the right of any participant.

The results of the study are presented using tables and graphs. The raw data collected was analyzed and arranged to show the logical methods to conduct training and the specific training needed. The results had an explanation to support the finding and justify their place in the study.

Participant Selection Logic

The sampling strategy used is purposeful random sampling which involved the selection of information rich cases for the most effective use of limited resources (Patton, 2002). This was the most effective strategy because it is selecting individuals that are knowledgeable or have experience of the specific phenomenon being studied.

Criterion sampling worked in conjunction with random sampling to further break down sampling by identifying standardized questions that led to follow-up interviews to elaborate upon the answers. The area being studied was rich with information that is useful when using criterion sampling. By first sending questionnaires to the participants, the information was broken down to further elaborate on the areas of emphasis with follow-up interviews to better understand their concerns or thoughts of their answers.

The population for the study was emergency managers that are acting state training officers. The qualification to be a state training officer vary by state; however, many qualifications are similar in that they are required to develop and manage the delivery of training modules and identify training needed for individuals within the state to stay qualified in their duties and responsibilities. The state training officer has overall purview of what training is required and what training will be conducted. This is not done

solely by themselves but through a training plan that is put together through a collaborative effort and approved by their superiors.

According to the IAEM, there are over 2100 Certified Emergency Managers (CEMs) throughout the United States and this study will use a small sample of these professionals. All CEMs must meet similar qualifications to obtain the certification making these individuals reliable in their assessment of the entire emergency management community. These individuals have been exposed to a minimum of three major disasters and worked closely with local managers which make them qualified to represent all emergency managers in this study. State training officers that also possess the CEM are small that should assume each of these individuals will provide accurate information at the local level.

The sample of the study included a selection of experts in the emergency management profession that were determined using a questionnaires and interviews. Questionnaires were sent as a hyperlink in the consent form to 30-40 State Training Officers to identify whether the individuals have been involved in disasters in different regions and have worked closely with local emergency managers. The data collected from the questionnaires determined whether additional interviews will be conducted from a smaller sample size of 10-15 State Training Officers that hold the CEM certification. This information was obtaining by crossing the names from the IAEM CEM webpage and the FEMA State Training Officers webpage. The questionnaires brought forth a better-rounded individual that has the preferable work and leadership experience that provided the most relevant information.

Individuals selected from the questionnaires needed to first have experience as a state training officer or worked closely with them; second, involved in multiple disasters; and third, have a comprehensive understanding of state and federal programs. Individuals who failed to meet the criteria were dismissed from further consideration for follow up interviews.

The sample size was 30-40 participants which are state training officers and hold the certified emergency management. These participants received a questionnaire, that was part of the consent form, and completed and returned where data was analyzed, and a determination of which participant receive a follow up interview. The number of participants was 56-74 percent of the total number of state training officers in the country.

Saturation occurred with the interview process when no further information could be obtained, or the research questions have been adequately addressed. The 11 participants that were interviewed after the questionnaires made up 18-28 percent of the state training officers. The experience and qualification of the participants produced maximum amount of data that was used. Understanding the participants are experts in their professions and represent their states on all training needs, saturation occurred by the end of the interview process.

The only know factors of the participants was they are a certified emergency manager and are a state training officer. Both criteria can be verified through the International Associations of Emergency Managers website and the Federal Emergency Management Agency website of state training officers. Not all state training officers are

certified emergency managers, so the sample size of 30-40 should be obtainable. The qualifications to be a certified emergency manager must demonstrate a strong understanding of the emergency management field through knowledge, experience, work history, training, education, and contributions to the profession.

Emergency managers have different qualifications due to the fact it is a young profession where some of the participant may have formal education and other only with real life experiences. The time the participants have in the emergency management profession may differ, but the qualifications needed to become a state training officer are similar throughout the country. The use of the questionnaires determined the participants qualifications and experiences and whether they can provide additional information through the interview process.

The characteristics of the selected sample was any of the 54 state training officers have the opportunity of being selected to participate in the study. Narrowing down the state training officers through their qualification of being a certified emergency manager was a key characteristic and the probability of them being selected increase. The chances of participation for any state training officer were approximately 75 percent with much depending on their overall certification.

The selected sample was randomly selected from the list of state training officers obtained through the Federal Emergency Management Agency's Emergency Management Institute webpage. By pulling participants from different states allowed for a more diverse understanding of the common phenomenon but produced similar results due to their common qualifications. An emergency manager from any part of the country

have similar qualification to be a state training officer and all that have the certified emergency manager have met the same qualifications. Participants from different parts of the country provided a variety of opinions to the questionnaires that identified if they needed a follow up interview.

Participants were identified by their specific position as a state training officer. According to the EMI website, there are a total of 55 state training officers in the country that are made up of all 50 states the District of Columbia and four territories. From this list, the possible participants were cross checked with the IAEM website of certified emergency managers, and the list of participants were identified.

The potential participants were contacted through email (from the list of state training officers obtained through the Emergency Management webpage) with a request to participate in a study and a link was provided for them to complete the questionnaire. The responses from the questionnaire determined whether a follow up interview will be needed to expand upon their questionnaire responses. The questionnaire disqualified some participants because they were no longer be the state training officer, or their certified emergency manager has expired. Participants identified for a follow up interview, were contacted through Zoom to conduct the interview.

Instrumentation

There were several data collection instruments used in this study. The first was a questionnaire to garner initial background information from the participants and to answer various open ended and multiple-choice questions. Each of the participants received an identical questionnaire and had a specific amount of time to complete. The

second data collection instrument was an interviews of selected participants. The follow up interviews was determined from the initial questionnaire and followed specific questions design to clarify and elaborate on their questionnaire answers.

The questionnaire was conducted using the internet program SurveyMonkey. This is an internet program that enables this study to develop a questionnaire that was customized and professional. The questions were developed to produce specific answers from the participants that drew from their experiences of the specific phenomenon. Once the questionnaire was completed, the information was compiled through SurveyMonkey that produced data sets used to identify additional questions that were used during the interview process.

The interview protocol started with the design that effectively made the participant comfortable and understand the purpose of the study. The first step was to introduce the participant to the questionnaire they completed and let them know we were going to expand upon those answers. The place of the interview was over the internet through either Zoom or another online platform where the participant were seen and recorded. The interview focused on open-ended questions that were kept at a neutral tone to not lead the participant into specific answers. Once the information was collected, the information was transcribed from the recorded interviews and analyzed forming specific subsets.

The use of questionnaires and interviews produced enough data to answer the research questions. The objective of the research questions was to identify specific methods and curriculum that is needed at the local level for emergency managers to

effectively perform their duties and responsibilities. These data collection methods gathered data that is based on non-qualifiable elements from the participant where it allowed the participants to annotate their true feelings and emotions.

The use of questionnaires collected data through a series of questions and prompts to receive a response from the participants. Questionnaires offered actionable data, the questionnaires were used to look at changes from previous studies, and the questionnaires covered all areas of the research questions.

The use of interviews used face-to face conversations that collected relevant information from the participant to satisfy the research questions. Semi-structured interviews were the best method to gather information with the key questions covering the scope of the questions to be explored. Semi-structured interviews allowed for more leeway where the research questions could be explored more in depth.

The data collection instrument that was used is SurveyMonkey which was developed by Momentive in 1999. This instrument has been used by 95% of Fortune 500 companies to evaluate customer satisfaction, employee engagement, market research, and education and schooling.

This instrument was very appropriate for this study providing a template for the questionnaire portion of the study. The first part of the study required the participants to provide answers to a questionnaire that discussed background information about the participant and moved to more in-depth open-ended questions that address the research questions. The answers provided a baseline of participants and identify those requiring an

additional follow-up interview to gain more information on the specific research questions.

SurveyMonkey came with prebuilt surveys but could be modified to meet the needs of the specific topics in question. SurveyMonkey allows you to create questionnaire that are both contextual and culturally specific specifically address the research questions. The development was specific to the culture and context of the study.

Content validity for this instrument was established by being able to share the results of the questionnaire. The ability to share the questionnaire with the participants or peers is an option that SurveyMonkey offers that adds validity to the study. The amount of access provided to the questionnaire is dictated by the controller where read only access can be granted or access to write over and edit responses can be given. Within the questionnaire, questions were asked in a way to gain increased validity such as the time the participant has had as an emergency manager or the amount of time in their specific position.

The instrument was selected to identify the training and method needed for emergency managers at the local level to conduct their duties and responsibilities. The context to have the participants conduct the questionnaire and interviews in their setting enhanced the validity and reliability of the study. The emergency managers selected was based on their experience and job descriptions that were obtained from several databases with this information.

Being immersed physically with emergency managers was an option for this study but due to the location of each, the best instrument to conduct this study was to

conduct studies and interview through internet resources. Knowing emergency managers all have met certain qualifications, the ability engaged them in their environment is key to being able to extract information from them that will benefit the study.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

For both research questions, data was collected from state training officers that have had local emergency management experience. The participants provided information from their own environment whether it is their work environment or their home. The data was collected from the questionnaire that was included in the informed consent in the form of a hyperlink where the participant responses were arranged and sorted to analyze the information for specific data points. Once the participants complete the questionnaire, the information was returned through SurveyMonkey, and the data was sorted and analyzed. Each of the participants accessed the questionnaire through the hyperlink in the informed consent and had two weeks to complete the questionnaire. The information was collected, and data recorded on a spreadsheet that was used to identify common themes and phrases. If too few participants return the questionnaires in the two-week period, additional time was provided because of situations that arose where the participant was unable to complete in the specified time. If there were still not enough participants to respond to the questionnaire, a larger participant pool may have been made by expanding the research pool to individuals that have the certified emergency manager and have held the position of emergency manager at the local level of government.

The data collection instrument SurveyMonkey was used where a hyperlink to the questionnaire will be included in the informed consent. Each participant had a series of

basic information questions that identified their work experience as an emergency manager and questions pertaining to the specific research questions. The questionnaire was hyperlinked to the informed consent where the participants completed the questionnaire within their own work or personal setting. The data was collected by SurveyMonkey, and the information sorted and analyzed using different instruments offered by the program. From this information, the data was analyzed to identify the participants that will provide additional data through the interview process. Participants were provided a two-week window to complete the questionnaire and there was only one questionnaire the participants will need to respond to. SurveyMonkey has tools that can sort the data collected into different areas that can be analyzed by the researcher to identify trends and patterns provided. If the original number of participants do not respond to the questionnaire, the questionnaire was resent to the selected participants and if there is still not enough participation the research group will be opened to a larger group of participants that have similar qualification but no the specific current job description.

The interview process was conducted after the return of the questionnaires and a correct analysis was done to identify the participants that required the follow up interview. From the original group of participants, the number that was selected for an interview was 10-15 participants. The data was collected from the participants through a face-to-face interview or an online platform that has audio, video, and recording capabilities. The interviews were conducted by the researcher and all information was collected, sorted, and analyzed. The interview was conducted only once, and the time of

the interview did not exceed 45 minutes per participant. This process required more time due to finding time in both the participants and researchers scheduled but set a timeline of 30 days to finish all the interviews. If too few participants responded to a formal interview request, then the participant pool will request from others that have taken the questionnaire but were not previously selected.

At the conclusion of the interview, participants were debriefed on the results of the process and the intentions of the study they just participated. A debriefing form was used that had the basic study information to include the study title, researchers name, and an explanation of anticipated results. The research questions were identified and what was expected to be found from the results of the study. Because the participants were audio and video taped during the interview process, the option was given to the participants to withdraw their consent to use the tapes. Each participant was given the opportunity to review the study results which was provided to them an opportunity to review references and websites from the literature reviews for further reading on the topic.

The initial portion of the data collection process used questionnaires to collect informative data on the participants to identify whether they could assist in the study. The ability to get the proper participants identified through the qualification information was determined and the participants received a follow up interview. Individuals were asked on the questionnaire whether they were available for a follow up interview to clarify answer provided and to provided additional information to the study. Once the data was collected from the questionnaires, a list of participants was identified for a follow up

interview that gathered additional information about the research questions. The participants were contact through email to schedule a date and time to conduct the follow up interview through a social media platform.

Data Analysis Plan

The data collected from the questionnaires were included in all the basic qualification questions to determine whether a follow up interview was required but also questions related to each of the research questions. From the questionnaire the data was collected and evaluated first to ensure that the participant met the basic qualifications to participate in the study. This would include specific position, time as a local emergency manager, and have the certified emergency manager. After this information was sorted, a more in depth look at the questionnaire answers that relate directly to the two research questions. Questionnaires addressed each research question and gathered as much information from the participant using open ended questions. From this information, participants that had the most experience and have responded with actionable answers to each research question were identified for a follow up interview to elaborate on their answers.

The data collected from the interviews contained more detailed information as they pertain to each of the research questions. The questions asked during the interview provided data specific to each research question that built upon the information obtained from the questionnaires. The participants were asked to elaborate upon their answered questions from the questionnaire that further increased the data that can be used. Each of the participants had their own understanding of the answers they provide to each of the

questions, so the ability to have additional follow up questions prepared improved upon the data collected.

The procedure for collecting the data included using two types of software for each data collection method (questionnaire and interview). Descriptive coding was used for each collection method that helped to identify “key words” to explore the research questions on what training model was most effective and which crucial threat areas should emergency managers be trained. The ability to identify key words within the data were crossed with the research question to determine specific areas that answer the questions. The use of inductive coding produced the best results by reading and interpreting the raw data collected through the questionnaire and interviews that developed concepts and themes related to the research questions. Coding linked together the theoretical framework (elaboration theory) by addresses training and education that emergency managers would be able to identify from simplest to more complex. The data received from the questionnaires were simplest and then more complex as participants are identified for an interview. This allowed the code to be analyzed where common themes were identified that support the research questions.

The software that was used is SurveyMonkey and was able to provide analysis for both the questionnaires and the interviews. For the questionnaire, participants were invited to participate and those that did not respond can be filtered to remove nonresponses. The data was adjusted so it is representative of the sample population of emergency managers and then start to look at the results. The data provided an inside look of the participants opinions and experience of the phenomenon. The data showed

trends that were filtered into usable information that will be displayed through spreadsheets and graphs.

SurveyMonkey had software that can analyze open ended responses from interviews. The tool on SurveyMonkey used sentiment analysis which utilizes machine learning and natural language processing. The software analyzes the opened ended questions asked during the questionnaire and categorizes each response. Another tool used by SurveyMonkey was placing information in a word cloud that made it easier to look for trends that show participants frequency of words within the specific parameters. Both sentiment analysis and the word cloud allowed for the data to be leveraged through the questionnaire and interview identifying specific information that can be used to answer the research questions.

Discrepant cases identified during the questionnaire were filtered and removed from consideration for the interview. Discrepancies in the questionnaire included emergency managers that have not had any local experience but have experience working at the state or international level or government. Another discrepancy were participants had local experience but has not had the opportunity to work planning emergency management training. Participants that have both local experience and planned training but do not have the certified emergency manager designation could still be part of the interview if the minimum number of participants was not met.

During the interview process of data collection, discrepant cases were handled differently than the questionnaire due to the limited number of participants. Open ended questions that participants fail to answer directly were still analyzed due to the possible

answers that might provide to the study. The interview process identified when the questions were not being answered and follow up questions needed to answer the initial questions. If a specific interview was a discrepant case where the data provided no relevant data, then that specific participant will be removed. If the minimum number of participants (10-15) was met, then discrepant cases during the interview was dismissed.

Issues of Trustworthiness

Credibility

Credibility was established through reflective triangulation which involves knowing one's own perspective and voice as well as the perspective and voices of those interviews and those participants (Patton, 2002). Being self-reflective I know about the issue being studied but will not take any preconceived notions into the study and will analyze all data equally. My understanding of the study is from an educational background and on the job real life experiences. Reflexivity about the participants involved emergency managers who have a specific set of qualifications that know about the phenomenon being studied and see me as a peer trying to improve upon the profession. Depending on the location of the participant, data collected may be different in methods used, but the overall training requirement should remain constant. Reflexivity to the individuals that will read the study should see that there is a need to understand the issue and the study could be a nice start to improve training within the profession.

Transferability

Transferability used thick description which refers to the detailed account of experiences the researcher makes by describing the phenomenon with enough detail

where a conclusion can be drawn and transferred to other setting or situations (Holloway, 1997). The participants were drawn from a population of emergency managers that have similar qualification throughout the country. The findings from the population group used in the study can transfer the data to others in the same population and receive similar results. The data collected from the study have enough elements that can be used in other setting of similar circumstances of the same population. Individuals with comparable experience and qualifications as the participants in the study should come to a similar conclusion due to the need for training and the way to conduct training. There may be a discrepancy in the “how” training is conducted but the main problem within the study of what is needed should be transferable to all emergency managers.

Dependability

Data was collected and annotated in systematic manner that will be easily understood by others reviewing the study. Establishing an audit trail is a strategy that will help create dependability in the study by illustrating the findings are based on the participants responses to the questionnaire and interviews and not my own biases and preconceptions. The ability to create a logical path of data will clarify to the audience why the decisions were made and followed the data that was analyzed. By providing an audit trail will make it easier to report and explain the study to outside sources. Another strategy was to use an inquiry audit that will use an external reviewer that will analyze and scrutinize the processes from data collection, data analysis, and the results of the study. This helped to confirm the accuracy of the finding and to show that the findings are supported by the collected data.

Confirmability

A strategy to determine confirmability was the use of an audit trail. As with establishing dependability, the use of the audit trail documented every aspect of the data analysis made to provide a rationale for each of the decisions made. The ability to show why certain participants were selected for a follow up interview will increase the validity of the study by showing meaningful additional details to explain questionnaire responses. The audit trail looked at the raw data from the questionnaire and interviews and was regularly looked at throughout the study to ensure information is being properly collected and analyzed and are the participants experiences and not my person beliefs and predeterminations. With an audit trail, the study will have a high degree of repeated success from or corroborated by other individuals.

Ethical Procedures

This study followed the steps outlined by Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval process. This board is responsible for ensuring that all research complies with the university's ethical standards as well as U.S. federal regulations. This review is a requirement prior to any work is completed to include participant recruitment, data collection, or dataset access.

There are four steps to the IRB process with the first step of submitting the research ethics approval Form A. This form determined what additional forms are needed along with the steps the IRB will take to follow federal regulations and university policy. This review included protection of human subjects; ethical partnership with partner organizations; alignment with the University's social change mission; and appropriate

usage of scholarly tools. Step 2 involved preparing documents and working out ethical issues. The IRB's goal is to complete as much documentation on ethical challenges and partner organizations to minimize the number of revisions and correspondence later in the review process. Step 3 happened after the proposal has been complete and identifies any changes that were needed after the defense of the proposal. The final step involved the IRB receiving all the documentation and updates and approved the study procedures and documents.

The ability to properly identify what is needed during the IRB's process helped to prevent a delay in the study. Once the IRB approved the proposal and all documentation, the process to start recruiting participants began. Forms were provided to the participants to identify their rights during the study and what was required of them.

The IRB process involved submitting specific forms after the proposal was submitted to the University Research Review (URR). The approval was obtained prior to any selection of participants or data collection begin. The process to receive approval normally takes between 4-6 weeks due to feedback received from the research ethics support specialist to make changes until the study meets all criteria. At the proposal stage, the IRB provided a list of documents needed for the study that needed to be completed to move on to the next stage. The approval went from the URR and completing Form A to working out ethical issues identified in Form A. The student and IRB closed the loop after the proposal was approved and is documented in MyDR. After this step the IRB approved the final set of study procedures and documents.

The recruitment of participants involved reviewing the names of state training officers that is public record on the FEMA website. The use of the IAEM webpage was used to verify if the participant is a certified emergency manager. This is an open-source website, and the list of certified emergency manager could be found through the webpage's search block. Once the participants were identified, a recruitment or invitation email was sent to explain the who and why the study is being done along with what is expected of the participant. The email also explained how the participant was identified for the study along with information how to contact the researcher if they are interested in participating in the study. Following the questionnaire, another invitation email was sent to selected participants to determine if they would participate in a follow-up interview to gain further insight into their responses. All the participants were selected due to their specific position and qualifications. There are only 54 state training officers in the country so the ability to target this group is specific to the study.

The potential participants are unique that they all are still performing their normal duties and responsibilities. With disasters being unpredictable, some of the participants may need to delay or withdraw from the study because their state has been activated and they are unable to participant or continue with the process until the incident has settled and things return to normal. If this should occur, those participants identified were released from the study and will not be needed. If they were selected as part of the interview, the next participant identified in the questionnaires will take the place of the removed participant. If a participant refuses to participate, no pressure will be done to influence the individual. After the invitation email, if the individual agreed to be a

participant, a consent form was sent to each participant that explains the study and the requirements expected of the participant. The participants fully understand that their participation is voluntary and if they decide to join the study, they can change your mind later or stop at any time. Included was an area that discussed the participant can withdraw from the study at any time and no derogatory feelings will be held against them.

Each participant was required to complete the informed consent form prior to being selected to participate in the questionnaire and/or interview (Appendix A). This agreement provided the participant with information about the study, information that will be collected, their rights they have as a participant, and whether the agree/disagree to participate in the study. Once the consent form was returned and the participant has agreed to take part in the study, they receive an email with instructions on how to take the questionnaire. After the questionnaires have been returned, the data was reviewed, and selections made on the participants for the interview.

The data collected in the study was anonymous that will keep the identity of the participants closely protected. Participants in the study were informed prior to the questionnaire and interview that their information will be anonymous. Participants were also informed how long the data will be stored, and how it will be destroyed after the specified amount of time required by the university. Individuals that participate in the questionnaire remained anonymous with the questions not being specific enough that the answers will identify the participants identity. Questionnaire questions were specific to the study and do not have any demographic questions that can identify a participant through their state or gender. The data collected from participants who were identified for

an interview will be held anonymously and only the researcher know the identity of the participant. The process to protect the identity of these individuals was to assign each interviewee a number. The data collected was kept in a secure environment to protect the anonymity of the participants.

All data was marked and stored according to university policy. All raw data to include interview tapes, spreadsheets, questionnaire results and other information will be preserved for no less than five years upon completion of the study. If the data is no longer needed after the required five years, it will be destroyed so the information cannot be retrieved by outside sources where pertinent confidential information can be retrieved. Copies were made of all information and secured in two separate locations. The locations are clearly marked and will be physically on a computer and a copy on an external hard drive. Access to the data will be open to those who have a need and clearance to review the data. Members that make up the study committee will have access to the data in accordance with the IRB guidance and approval.

The use of archival data will be stored similarly to anonymous data collected where it is placed on the computer hard drive or external storage. Most archival data will come from the IAEM and FEMA webpages where names and emails of state training officers were obtained. Other data obtained by others will be stored to preserve the integrity of the study by having all data and material used available for others. This study was conducted in an environment outside of my own workplace involving individuals I have no supervisory overview or influence. One ethical issue that can become an issue is my personal bias to receive the information I would like to see come out of the study.

Having been involved with emergency management for over 10 years and have taken many formal training classes along with a degree in emergency management the ability to place by personal feeling aside and let the data speak for itself is imperative for a solid study. Not personally knowing the participants assisted me to make fair selections of the individuals that are identified for the interview. Understanding the importance of the study and how it can influence the profession will help to ground the data in facts and biases removed.

Summary

The main purpose of this study determined the proper training methods and training required for local emergency managers to effectively perform their duties to prepare, respond and recovery from disaster. The study used qualitative research to retrieved data from questionnaires and interviews that comprised of open-ended questions along with basic demographic information. Using phenomenology design gathered information from emergency managers that have experienced the phenomenon in the field with knowledge of the local level requirements along with response to real life disasters. Knowing there is a gap in specific training needs for all emergency managers, the best method to gather qualifiable data was from individuals that have lived and worked in the profession.

The study used 15 state training officers who responded to a questionnaire that gathered basic information on their emergency management experience and knowledge. Participants were selected from lists obtained from the FEMA state training officer webpage along with the IAEM certified emergency managers webpage. The

questionnaires were conducted using SurveyMonkey that also analyzed the collected data. The data analyzed from the questionnaires identified 10-15 emergency managers to participate in an interview where further information was gathered, along with responses from their questionnaire further explained. The data collected used consent forms that were signed by all participants explaining the nature of the study and their role as participant. The data linked together the theoretical framework by addresses training and education that emergency managers would be able to identify from simplest to more complex. Data was analyzed from the questionnaires and interviews and the results were annotated in charts and descriptions of common information. All data was preserved through copies and stored on internal and external devices for a period of five years.

Once the data was collected and analyzed the findings and results of the questionnaire and interviews were presented. The data was a presentation and description and not an in depth meaning of the data. The collected data was organized and used to answer the two research questions. Each method of data collection was explained, and the findings presented in charts, tables, and other forms of significant information. Quotes from participants that were interviewed are included in the findings. The findings are the specific themes that have been found or emerged from the collected data.

Table 1

Basic Core Competencies

• Science of Disaster	• Emergency Management and Federal Homeland Security
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<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Applicable Laws, Authorities, and Programs • Principles of Emergency Management • Threats, Hazards, Risks, and Capabilities • Resource Management, Including Mutual Aid • National Incident Management System • Emergency Management Standards, Certification, and Accreditation • Response Operations • Ethics 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Response Framework • Phases of Emergency Management • Emergency Management Functions, Roles, and Responsibilities • Political, Legislative, Governmental, Social, and Economical Contexts • Roles and Responsibilities of the Emergency Manager • Community Preparation • Emergency Management in the Homeland Security Environment
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Table 1 shows the core competencies identified by FEMA that should be required by all emergency managers. These competencies will be used as a reference from the results received from the participants in the study to identify whether these competencies are being used or valid. Table 2, 3, and 4 identify competencies identified by FEMA for specific and specialized duties and responsibilities outside the basic requirements.

Table 2

Specialized Training and Education

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Planning <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Emergency Management Plans ○ Organizational Preparation ○ Resource Management Technologies ○ Legislative and Intergovernmental Interface • Training <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Training Management ○ Training Design and Development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Protection <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Warning, Alert, and Notification System ○ Mass Care, Emergency Assistance, Housing, and Human Services ○ Mass Prophylaxis • Response <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Operations ○ Resource management and Logistics ○ Situation Awareness
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- Training Implementation
 - Training Evaluation
 - Exercises
 - Homeland Security Exercise and Evaluation
 - Mitigation
 - Hazard Identification
 - Mitigation Integration Program
 - Prevention
 - The Intelligence Cycle
 - Interface Between Fusion Centers and EOCs
 - Information Collection/Dissemination
 - Special Teams
 - Operational Readiness
 - Supporting Senior Officials
 - Public Information
 - Demobilization
 - Recovery
 - Short Term Recovery Strategies
 - Long term Recovery Strategies
 - Recovery Policies
 - Public Information
-

The competencies identified in Table 2 are more specialized and might not be relevant to the local emergency manager. Location and size of the emergency management office could dictate whether the competencies are needed for them to successfully perform their duties.

Table 3

Executive/Managerial Training and Education

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- Managing an Organization
 - Management Concepts and Styles
 - Organizational Design
 - Systems, Policies, Procedures, and Performance Measures
 - Strategic Planning and Budgeting
 - Changes and Stress management
 - Critical Thinking and Problem Solving
 - Critical Decision Making
 - Management of an Emergency Management Organization
 - Understanding and Assessing Risks and Capabilities
 - Using Intelligence and information
 - Situational and Environmental Awareness
 - Managing Response and Recovery
 - Collaboration and Coordination
 - Public Communications
-

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- | | |
|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Organizational Ethics ● Resources <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Human Resources ○ Fiscal Resources ○ Physical Resources | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Intergovernmental and Interagency Relations and Collaborations ○ Integrating Federal Protocols ○ Business and Nongovernmental Organization and Private Sector Emergency Management Interface |
|---|--|
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Every emergency management office has different leadership where the office could be operated by the fire or police department or has a separate organizational breakdown.

Table 3 lists competencies that leadership should have to manage an effective office.

Some of these competencies might be necessary for the local manager to possess if they are the only individual responsible for the designated area.

Table 4

Strategic Leadership Training and Education

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- | | |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Leadership in the Emergency Management Environment <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Understanding Strategic Leadership ○ Leading in Complex Environments ○ Overseeing and Motivating Managers and Influencing Organizations, Networks, and Environments ○ Promoting and Managing Innovation and Managing Knowledge Networks ○ Advancing and Implementing Local and National Policy | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Strategic Leadership for All-Hazard Planning and Coordination <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Leading a Diverse Team of Agencies, Organizations, and Professionals ○ Roles/Responsibilities of Agencies, Organizations, and Stakeholders ○ Advancing Sustainable Relations with Partner Agencies and Key Stakeholders ● Results-Orientated Emergency Management Environments and Networks <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Understanding and Applying Organizational Research |
|--|---|
-

- Fostering Coordination and Collaboration

Methods and Evaluation Measures

The overall management of an emergency management agency requires advanced knowledge of more than the basic requirements. Table 4 shows a greater understanding of operations beyond the basic competencies and shape a local emergency manager into a more well-rounded leader and expert to handle their organization. Information received from the participants will be analyzed and compared to the competencies in the Tables 1-4 to identify commonality that can be converted to a specific course or curriculum.

Chapter 4: Results

All emergencies and disasters are local, which is why there needs to be an emphasis placed on local emergency management training. Numerous studies have explored the need for training or education, but the literature never addresses the specifics or annotates the exact curriculum. Major disasters are a reality and can occur in any of the states and territories of the United States. Having properly trained emergency managers will benefit the community and its citizens by having individuals with the knowledge and experience to handle disasters. The results of this study will benefit the local emergency management office by noting qualified individuals, and the community to know they have the most qualified individuals in the positions.

This study explored one central issue of training and educational requirements through two research questions.

RQ1 – What training models are most effective at preparing first responders?

RQ2 – What are the most crucial threat areas in which responders should be trained?

The research method was developed with emergency management as the primary source to retrieve information that adequately answered the research questions. The ability to garner current or former state training officers that could provide information on training occurring in their states was instrumental to the study. Knowing who and what information was being obtained defined how the individuals were identified, and the types of information gathered from the research questions. Understanding the phenomena was vital when selecting state training officers as the participants for the study.

A questionnaire was sent to all state training officers to identify those who would like to participate along with individuals that meet the requirements of the study. Those who returned the questionnaire were screened to determine if they are candidates to participate in the interview. Once the individuals were identified, interviews were conducted to elicit information from them through a series of interview questions. Once the interviews were complete, the data were transcribed and analyzed through a computer program to identify similarities and differences.

The ability to determine the participant pool early allowed the study to establish specific protocols to follow the research method. There was no reason to make an adjustment to any of the planned research areas. State training officers were open to the study; many responded to the questionnaire and met the requirements for an interview. Recruiting the individuals identified in the study without having to go to secondary participants helped make the study more reliable and trustworthy.

Research Setting

The study's setting is emergency managers with experience both in the profession and at the local level. The ability of state training officers who are emergency managers to understand how things operate at the local level of government was how specific questions were addressed. The participants are experts in their profession with the ability to understand and elaborate upon the interview questions trying to identify how training is conducted to handle major disasters. Participants answered specific questions about their organization and what they can do to assist local emergency management agencies within their state. The study did not have the participants assume what other

organizations do and only respond to emergency management within their state organization.

This study did not identify any specific demographic information of the participants. The focus of the study targeted state training officers with local emergency management experience. The average experience in emergency management for all participants was 4.7 years, with all the participants having local emergency management experience. Although specific states were not mentioned, the participants represented every region throughout the country. The goal of getting representation from participants throughout the country was achieved by those who responded to the study, with each having a unique perspective from different areas of the country.

Data collection in the study was achieved by identifying state training officers with local emergency management experience. To identify the proper participant pool, a questionnaire was emailed to all state training officers to determine their qualifications and if they should be interviewed. Information from the questionnaire provided information from experience to knowledge of emergency management principles. From the questionnaires, 11 participants were identified to participate in the interview and were contacted, and a time and location were determined. All the interviews were conducted over Zoom and were audio recorded. The recordings were submitted to a transcription service where the information from the interviews was transcribed appropriately.

All the interviews were recorded, and transcription was provided where the information was analyzed using a data analysis program NVIVO. From the data, many themes were identified including different training requirements, the best training

methods, and shortfalls and obstacles when it comes to training. The analysis also showed many of the state training officers have similar training requests from the local government including ICS training and Emergency Operations Center (EOC) interface training.

The information obtained from the interviews was recorded and transcribed so individuals could see there was nothing questionable about the data collection. The study is credible using identical questions asked to each participant, and there were no leading questions that influenced the answers provided by the participants. The entire process, from the selection of participants, interview questions, and data analysis, are documented for others to understand the steps and procedures. The IRB process ensured proper steps were taken to guarantee all participants were treated ethically. The entire process can be duplicated using the study's documented steps and procedures.

A summary of results includes the need for training at the local level for emergency managers. Most participants stated that in-person training was the best model that produced the best results with collaboration and interaction between students. The primary need was ICS 300 and ICS 400, which all the state training officers mentioned being a popular request. Most responses note that classes in terrorism are not a priority because there are other agencies that would be the first responder. Consortium partners provide most training that relates to terrorism including Texas A&M Engineering Extension Service (TEEX) and New Mexico Tech. The most effective training method is in-person or residential, where individuals can interact better with each other. Virtual

training is practical for different types of training but should be limited to independent study training.

The main concern for the study was identifying enough participants to reach saturation. When the questionnaires were sent to the participants to gather initial information, many emails were invalid either because the individual left the position, or the email was incorrect. The emails were obtained from FEMA's public site of state training officers so, the assumption was the information would be correct. There was a total of nine invalid emails, which amounted to approximately 15% of the targeted population. This was a concern from the beginning of the study because it was known that there is a significant turnover of state training officers, and there was a possibility that additional participants might be needed from a different pool of participants.

Another area that ended up being an obstacle was identifying times for participants to conduct an interview. Many participants had hectic schedules, where it took a lot of work to identify times when both of our schedules were available. Most interviews were conducted in the evening and on the weekend. I also found out that emails sent to an official email address were ignored due to the potential participant needing to know the sender. An additional invitation email was sent a week after the initial invitation, and after negative replies, contacted many by phone to follow up on the email. After explaining to them the study's intent, many of the potential participants were glad to assist with the study, and interviews were scheduled.

There were no issues with the interview process; all participants had computers and could access Zoom, which was the central platform used to conduct the interviews.

The locations the interviews were conducted were in areas that were free from outside interference. The participants did not have any distractions throughout the interview, making for a quality experience to gather data.

Demographics

The participants in the study were state training officers selected from a roster obtained from FEMA on their official website. The questionnaire was sent to all 54 state training officers in the country and received 15 responses in the time allotted for the participants to respond. The primary data source was gathered from 11 state training officers who participated in the questionnaire and then took part in an interview. The other three participants who did not take part in the interview never responded to the follow-up email asking if they would have time to participate in an interview.

The 11 participants who did take part in the interview had a variety of characteristics that made it an overall representation of the profession. Of the 10 FEMA regions that states are located based on their geographic location, nine regions were represented by the participants. This was instrumental in receiving data from different regions where they experience other hazards and have additional training requirements. The average time in the position of state training officer was 4.7 years, with the longest tenure being 17 years and the newest in the position being less than 1 year. All participants had experience at the local emergency management office, and most had experienced activation of their emergency operation center and been part of a disaster operation.

The amount of time the state training officer worked with the local emergency management office varied depending on the size of the state office. Some of the participants worked in large offices where they had a large staff to support the many tasks, and a few had little support. The size of the state participants represented was different in geography and demographics, with some states having over 80 counties. The cities in the states the participants worked differed in population, with some not having a large inner city and more vegetation and farmland.

Data Collection

Data were collected from state training officers throughout the country who responded to a questionnaire and then, if selected, participated in an interview. A questionnaire was sent to all 54 state training officers in the country, and 15 responded in the time allotted. Of the 15 responses from the questionnaires, 11 state training officers were contacted and participated in an interview. The other three participants who did not take part in the interview never responded to the follow-up email asking if they would have time to participate in an interview.

Each participant was sent the questionnaire through an email with the consent form and given 2 weeks to respond. There was a limited response in the initial 2 weeks so the questionnaire was resent, and another week was provided for response. After the 3 weeks provided for participants to respond to the questionnaire, enough participants were received to evaluate and analyze the responses and identify dates for an interview. The interviews were conducted over three weeks, both in person and over Zoom. Each interview ranged from 25 to 45 minutes, with each participant providing enough data

where a follow-up interview was not required. Two interviews were conducted in person at the participants' work location, but most were conducted over Zoom in the participants' office or home location. The interviews worked around the participant's and interviewee's schedules, resulting in interviews occurring on weekends and after office hours.

Data were collected and recorded similarly with both the questionnaires and the interviews. The questionnaires were sent to participants using Survey Monkey and were again cataloged and analyzed when submitted. The questionnaire consisted of 12 questions, and when completed and returned, the information was collected and sorted within Survey Monkey. The data collected from the questionnaire were divided into two separate areas, demographic information, and primary emergency management responses to a series of questions. The data were recorded and could be examined in several ways to identify commonalities and trends.

The data retrieved from the interviews were recorded using Zoom and then transcribed using a transcription service. The participants were notified that the interview would be recorded, and the information would be available to see the similarities when coded. The interviews were transcribed and were further placed in NVivo for the analysis of data to identify trends.

There were no variations in the data collection from the plan presented in Chapter 3. The goal was to receive more respondents from the questionnaire so there would be a larger pool of participants to identify to interview; however, the number of participants that were interviewed was enough to reach saturation. The goal was to receive 30-40

responses to the questionnaire, which would be 56-74% of the total number of state training officers in the country. Receiving 14 responses was still a good number totaling 26% of the total number of state training officers the questionnaire was sent.

There were no unusual circumstances encountered in the data collection. All the documented protocols were followed with each participant, and no deviation from the interview questions. All interviews were between 25 and 45 minutes in length, and no issues with internet connection or disruptions. All the interviews were conducted where no interruptions could occur, making the process run smoothly without error.

Data Analysis

All participants provided valuable data that answered the interview questions and, ultimately, the research questions. All data uploaded into NVivo produced different themes and categories, but the program was able to show percentages of the keywords and phrases, which was crucial for breaking down the data into specific themes. Placing all interpreted interviews into a database that identified themes and keywords was vital to quickly sort through all the interviews and data. From the data, the main categories and themes that continued to show were training, communication, consortium, and modules. These were the main categories where information could be placed to sort further, showing similar themes. Once the main categories were identified, breaking these units into smaller categories was necessary, which included specific training, instruction techniques and platforms, and names of consortiums used by the states. This was the smallest data set that was needed to do an analysis that could provide answers to the research questions.

Three categories that emerged from the analysis, which were training, training module, and consortium. Each participants provided information that produces the three themes, each broken down into specific categories. The training was a category that emphasized on being able to communicate, which is why ICS300 and ICS400 were important training classes. Another category playing an important role in response for responders is understanding the emergency operation center, which was why EOC Interface or EOC skillset emerged as a common theme. The Advanced Professional Series and Professional Development Series (APS/PDS) mentioned by the participants as a need for responders. The final main theme was NIMS courses which all hazard position-specific training and all provide a basic overview of vital information.

Training modules were the main category, and three specific themes emerged: in-person, virtual, and hybrid (combination of in-person and virtual) training modules. To break down each even further identified specific areas, in-person training can occur from the office where the state emergency management office is located to the local emergency offices or other classroom venues. The virtual training module has several coded categories that include the specific platform, including Zoom, TEAMS, Adobe, and WebEx.

Consortium was another central theme identified when coding the data. This was in connection with the many emergency management partners involved in training. Categories from this theme included Texas A&M Engineering Extension Services (TEEXs), Energetic Materials Research and Testing Center at New Mexico Tech University (EMRTC), National Center for Biomedical Research and Training (NCBRT)

at Louisiana State University, and the Center for Domestic Preparedness (CDP).

Additional categories were identified from these categories: specific training areas provided by each of these areas, terrorism, bomb identification, HAZMAT, explosives, cyber security, incident management, and identification of suspicious individuals.

All interviews were very similar in how the questions were answered and the data collected from the participants. Only minor areas in the data could be described as discrepant cases. The region or location participants were located produced different threats which are only pertinent to their place. This was not an issue since the main research question asked what the biggest threat and it was answered. The case could not be removed because the data produced viable information combined with the other data from other interviews, created a larger picture of the threat that could be an issue but not currently. The location of the participant not only produced different threats but responding to the threat required a few different training courses, which were not mentioned by other participants. Being able to sort through the data to understand the information may be discrepant, but it is also valuable when the analysis was completed to answer the research questions.

Evidence of Trustworthiness

Credibility

The use of reflective triangulation for both the participants and the interviewer was used to establish credibility. Each participant provided information to the interview questions because of their understanding of the profession and what would be best for improving training. The participants had experience with the phenomenon and have

worked with others in the profession to know what types of threats they face, and the training required to improve upon the profession. All participants understood the study's intent and provided excellent feedback to the interview questions, with most of the participant's responses being consistent. The ability to collect data from participants that have lived and understood the phenomenon produced data that was consistent without participants making irrelevant or discrepant data. Being able to collect the data from the participants without having a preconceived outcome is what adds to the credibility of the study. The data were collected consistently from each participant and analyzed to produce the results. All data was collected using Zoom, which made the data collected consistent with the interview questions. Each participant had a deep understanding of issues and where improvements could be made to better the profession moving forward.

Transferability

The transferability strategy identified in Chapter 3 was thick description that used the experiences of state training officers (STO) to provide information on the phenomenon they understand to produce data that can be analyzed and repeated. This study interviewed 11 participants with the same background and understanding of the emergency management profession that worked in the same positions. The participants' information concluded that any additional participants would produce similar responses. There are 54 STOs in the country, and a good portion of these individuals was interviewed to have saturation. The only issue of transferability would be to identify other STOs that would participate in the study. If those STOs are identified and provided the same interview questions, the consensus would create similar results. The elements that

identified the STOs can all be used in similar circumstances to produce information that would be similar. Information on how to contact STOs is public record and was obtained through several sites. The data and results would be transferable to all emergency managers because the main issue identified is essential to the organization's success. Each of the STOs were from different regions; however, the data received produced similar results on what is the best training model and what threats they face, and the training needed.

Dependability

The data were collected in a systematic manner that is easily understood for others to follow and recreate. The first portion of data collection was identifying the participants for the interview. To maintain confidentiality, the potential and actual participants are captured on a spreadsheet with individual names replaced by numbers. This was done over a questionnaire sent to all potential participants through Survey Monkey. The information from the questionnaires was collected and placed on an Excel spreadsheet with all responses so the data could be analyzed. All interviews were recorded through Zoom, where the raw data was collected and sent to a transcription services provider to produce accurate data. The interview data was uploaded in NVivo, where a computer analysis took place, and data coding occurred, producing the results for this study. Manual analysis was also done using highlighting features in Word to identify the themes and categories. The questionnaire and interview data are all saved to my computer, where others can review the information. An external reviewer from a

local university was used to check the processes, from the identification of participants to the results of the study.

Confirmability

Using an audit trail helped maintain confirmability within the study. One adjustment that did not affect the outcome of the results was the limited number of STOs that responded to the questionnaire. This made it where there was no selection of participants for the interview because only 14 responded to the questionnaire and, 11 agreed to participate in the interview. Transferability identified saturation occurred with the 11 participants, so collecting additional information from other STOs was not necessary. When codes and themes were revealed through NVivo, the ability to go back to the actual raw data to review them to see if what was being identified was correct in context. Documenting the actual results and not personal beliefs or predeterminations was an important factor in using an audit trail to show specifics on how data was collected, analyzed, and result produced.

Study Results

Participant 1 response to research question 1 believed the training model(s) that are most effective at preparing first responders varied depending on the location and individual being trained. Feedback provided by students identified in-person training as being the most preferred, with independent study as the least desirable. The difference in generations also played a role in the effectiveness of training. Younger individuals tend to embrace online learning, whereas older students dislike the virtual environment and find in-person training the most effective. Many areas within the state are remote, or

individuals cannot leave their place of work for extended periods making virtual learning a more preferred method of learning (Participant 1, personal communications, October 28, 2022).

When asked questions related to research question 2, what are the most crucial threat areas in which responders should be trained, participant 1 had a wide variety of areas of concern. Everything was centered around the Emergency Management Professional Grants (EMPG) program, which dictates much of the training received. There was not one specific threat that was identified, but for the agency to prepare responders for a wide range of possible threats. Emergency Operations Center (EOC) centric training was needed because COVID showed gaps where improvement could be fixed through EOC training. Communication was an area that needed constant reinforcement where individuals should receive training. Training individuals with ICS courses are always requested, with ICS300 and ICS400 being the main courses constantly needed throughout the state.

Participant 1 expressed that most of their instructors are volunteers and not paid for their services making it difficult to find instructors. The ability to utilize consortium partners from the Center for Domestic Preparedness (CDP), New Mexico Tech, and Texas A&M Engineering Extension Services (TEEX) offers a variety of classes that can prepare responders for a variety of threats to include terrorism, recognizing bombing material, and hazardous material response.

COVID identified other ways to conduct training because prior to the pandemic, there was no virtual training being conducted in the state (Participant 2, personal

communication, November 4, 2022). Now that virtual training has been introduced in the state, the answer to research question 2 on which training model(s) are most effective at preparing first responders would depend on the situation. Participant 2 continued to conduct training during the pandemic by embracing virtual training either through Zoom or TEAMS; however, now that the pandemic is over, they have not conducted any virtual training and have returned to all in-person training. Participant 2 expressed the younger generation is more inclined to embrace virtual training because they have grown up using computers and virtual technology, while the older generation still likes to hold a hard copy of the material in their hands.

The most crucial threat areas in which responders should be trained depends upon the county and what they include in the Multi-year Training and Exercise Plan (MYTEP). Most of the training is reliant on EMPG funding, so the main course can be taken to complete the task book or the Advance Professional Series (APS). Most of the requested training includes ICS300 and 400, along with other ICS classes. PIO training has been a big push in the state with the new requirements to apply for the advanced PIO course. All hazard position-specific training is requested for individuals that work in the EOC, along with EOC interface training. Participant 2 mentioned that they use the emergency management consortiums to provide training that focuses on terrorism and terrorism-related topics. All training for responders comes through the STO, so many classes are requested by different agencies throughout the state, including sending people out of state for training.

The training model(s) most effective at preparing first responders before COVID was strictly in-person training. There was no virtual platform, and one had to be built from scratch, so training could continue during the COVID lockdown. Participant 3 mentioned they have gone back to in-person training and do not conduct virtual training unless there are unforeseen circumstances. The state conducts training identified through its implementation plan based on a regional design. This model allows individuals to attend in-person training at a specific region which makes travel to one of these sites less than a two-hour drive. The ability to conduct in-person training had prevented many issues that were encountered when the state was conducting virtual training, from Wi-Fi issues to students not being able to get behind the firewall. I have seen students have better engagement and have a dialogue within their classes that I did not see during the virtual offering (Participant 3, personal communication, November 4, 2022).

Participant 3 mentioned there were many threats the state must deal with, but the most crucial threat areas in which responders should be trained are how to handle natural disasters. Also, many college and professional sporting events that require planning. There are no specific requirements for responders to be taught other than those required for certification purposes. The ability to leverage consortium partners to bring classes that identify vehicle improvised explosive devices (IEDs), how to properly conduct vehicle searches, and vehicle-borne devices identification are necessary training during specific events. Other areas that would be beneficial to train responders would be HAZMAT training to identify different types of biological and chemical hazards. Another big area

of recent concern mentioned was the need to prepare for a cyber-attack which has become more common, resulting in the state having a cyber disruption team.

Participant 4 had a solid opinion about in-person training and the importance that it holds by bringing together individuals through networking and the collaboration that occurs. In-person was the training model that is most effective at preparing first responders. Even though virtual training enhances accessibility, the participant expressed a belief about the value and effectiveness of virtual training, especially when it comes to specific training (Participant 4, personal communication, October 28, 2022). The ability to bring together individuals from different parts of the country is essential, and virtually might be a good fit; however, individuals come away with a greater sense of appreciation when they are in person, and that isn't easy to replicate in a virtual setting. Talking to the younger generation of emergency managers, participant 4 found that they are not intimidated by the technology, but they also prefer in-person training because of the interaction. Participant 4 found it interesting after talking to other STOs at a conference that many felt the same way that in-person training was what their constituents all were requesting.

The leading area participant 4 mentioned as the most crucial threat area in which responders should be trained are the NIMS-related classes. Hence, individuals have a baseline and then identify specific training areas. All responders are trained differently, emergency managers are trained differently from police and fire, but they all should have the same basic core training where they all can communicate, and the NIMS training bridges this gap. Another big area of emphasis is cyber, which is dictated by higher in the

state as being critical to effectively prepare and respond if needed. Participant 4 mentioned they use the emergency management consortium quite a bit for classes on combating domestic terrorism, extremism, bombing prevention, and overall terrorism. The ability to pull together all the information from the counties within the state and identify the most requested training that will fill the most seats is what is looked at.

Participant 5 believes in-person training is the training model most effective at preparing first responders. The ability to conduct as many in-person, hands-on, scenario-based training is what participant 5 tries to accomplish in their state. The training model for adult learning should be a scenario followed by a lecture and then practice the teaching to drive home the point (Participant 5, personal communication, October 27, 2022). During COVID, the state had to adjust to the restrictions in place, so the ability to conduct virtual training was a link that would allow the state to continue to conduct training. After the pandemic, virtual training was no longer undertaken and returned to all in-person training.

The focus on the most crucial threat areas in which responders should be trained varies depending on the responder. Police and fire have different requirements than emergency managers; however, the one commonality would be NIMS training; the ICS300 and ICS400 are courses that is conducive to all participants. Much of the training is dictated by the EMPG funding, but after those classes, the state still offers many other courses to support the counties. The ability of responders to understand the basics was a reason to hold the National Emergency Management Basic Academy in the state twice a year. APS classes are an area that training revolves around so individuals can complete

certification. Participant 5 expressed that they do not specifically deal with terrorism, but everything they do relates to the terrorism threat. The ability to effectively negotiate with cyber by identifying and recognizing that a complex coordinated attack is occurring. The need to have all hazards training so that once you identify and recognize the threat, how do you connect the dots to explain the overall picture.

Participant 6 mentioned the training model most effective at preparing first responders would be in-person training. Virtual training is practical when self-paced, but instructor-led virtual training was difficult, especially when you do not have a dedicated system to present virtual training. Talking to students and reading after-action reviews (AARs) of classes, the comments where students would rather be in a room where they can have discussions and hear other remarks without having to monitor a chat room. Participant 6 still believes virtual training can be beneficial if a class is short in duration (less than two days) because the resources necessary to bring together students throughout the state are challenging, along with students not being able to leave their counties for extended days (Participant 6, personal communication, October 28, 2022). The difference between the older and younger emergency manager and the preferred method of training is split between older individuals wanting in-person training and younger individuals preferring virtual.

The most crucial threat areas in which responders should be trained, identified by participant 6, would be community resilience training. The ability to meet the needs of each county to support the community they serve is critical in what training should be delivered. Different classes with a curriculum that has core capabilities and operation

coordination are beneficial at all levels. The NIMS refresher training, along with ICS300 and ICS400, is very popular in the state. Participant 6 mentions that having classes that work with the identified threat posed in the state is imperative to keep responders prepared. The state's main threats are hurricanes and tornadoes, which are the scenarios incorporated into their training. Other areas of emphasis when it comes to training involve the consortiums with training HAZMAT, bomb identification, IED classes, and suspicious behavior training.

Participant 7 mentioned COVID was a big driver to move towards virtual training and this was not the most effective training model for preparing first responders. Face-to-face training works the best with individuals retaining material along with networking with peers. Participant 7 did see a need for virtual training to reach individuals in rural areas or individuals that cannot take three or four days away from the office, which virtual training is able to fill the gap (Participant 7, personal communication, November 2, 2022). Virtual training is still used in the state because of the value added to reach more individuals, which also saves money on having to pay for travel and lodging. The younger emergency managers are more likely to embrace virtual training; however, there was a consensus face to face training was preferred by most. The ability to network and communicate with peers was valuable, where feeling many attending virtual training could hide behind the screen and not add any value to the training.

The most crucial threat areas in which responders should be trained, according to participant 7, are classes identified each year through a planning workshop. This addresses the gaps and different core capabilities to include classes that make up the

APS, debris management, local and volunteer management, and other catastrophic-type courses. Other gaps identified were specific to the region and the threats faced, both present and future, which work with stakeholders with classes on mass care, community care, and volunteer donations management. Other areas of concern are threats to infrastructure, with cyber-attacks being more prominent across the state. Classes that improve coordination within the emergency management community are ICS classes, ICS EOC Interface classes, operational coordination, and EOC skill sets like mobilizing the faith-based community. The use of outside trainers from the emergency management consortium partners is an asset that brings training to the state that could not have been accomplished without their assistance.

Participant 8 identified in-person training model as the most effective at preparing first responders but does not favor one over the other. Virtual training has been successful, but all depend on the instructor's level of proficiency in working online with the technology and how they are able to engage the students (Participant 8, personal communication, October 26, 2022). Virtual training offers individuals the ability to have sidebar conversations without disrupting the class and able to continue to follow along with the instruction. Virtual training allows individuals who would normally be reluctant to speak up in an in-person classroom are more likely to engage in conversation through the chat. Some areas are very remote, and individuals do not have a computer they can take to training if the in-person class asks for students to use a virtual manual. Participant 7 recognizes there are positive and negatives for both virtual and in-person training and need to work with each student to identify the best option for them to attend.

When the yearly training plan is put together from information gathered from the local and tribal jurisdictions, the most crucial threat areas in which responders should be trained focus on foundational courses. The ICS300 and ICS400, and the G191 and 2300 EOC skill sets, are always requested and valuable training. The public information course is a course that is asked for a lot due to it being a prerequisite for the advanced PIO course. With EMPG-funded positions, the state requires those personnel to take 20 hours of training (resident or independent study) to maintain currency. For specific staff positions, a requirement is to complete NIMS and PDS courses. Most of the requested training is similar throughout the state, with mitigation and public assistance courses in demand. The use of consortium partners to deliver training is essential, but most of the courses are tailored to law enforcement (Participant 8, personal communication, October 26, 2022).

Participant 9 must look at the entire state and determine the training model(s) most effective at preparing first responders. While most of the participants say in-person training is the most beneficial, where students can interact more to reach a greater audience and get the information out, virtual training has been the best method (Participant 9, personal communication, October 31, 2022). With a limited training budget, it is not cost-effective to hold all classes in person, with most of the jurisdictions in remote areas traveling great distances. The ability of the state to hold virtual training has had mixed reviews from the students, but the ability to train individuals who would not usually be able to attend in-person training has been invaluable. Participant 9 has embraced virtual training which has little impact on how different generations of

emergency managers respond to training. Everyone understands the need to get the whole community trained, and the best option to accomplish this task is through virtual training.

With the state being so remote, participant 9 identified the most crucial threat areas in which responders should be trained logistics and supply chain management, cybersecurity, mass care, and NIMS NQS training. Collectively throughout the state, the most requested training is the ICS300 and ICS400 classes. These classes go across the emergency response spectrum from police, fire, EMS, and emergency managers. The EMPG funding dictates a lot of training, such as the NIMS and PDS courses, along with courses required for position task books. Being a remote state, the consortium partners in New Mexico, Texas, or Alabama have a significant role in training where the state can send individuals for training on HAZMAT, tactical response, and terrorism-related courses. The state uses exercises to bring together virtually all the stakeholders to test their plans and identify shortfalls.

Participant 10 explained the training model effective at preparing first responders would be in-person training. The interaction between students and instructors with in-person training is more fluid, where the virtual environment, there some technical issues like time delays can be when answering questions to bad internet that keeps dropping people from the class. In-person training is more interactive between students, which allows for feedback and the experiences brought to the training where others can understand better by absorbing the environment. Participant 10 expressed that many virtual classes are geared toward the emergency components like ICS300 and ICS400. These classes are for more senior-level managers that only have little time to be away

from their offices, so the virtual class works well when the class can be conducted on the weekend or after work hours. Most individuals prefer in-person learning, with most older students would only want in-person, whereas younger individuals like in-person but are also open to virtual training. The goal of the state is to have a hybrid model where individuals would complete the prerequisites and foundational portions of the class virtually and then physically come to class to execute what they have learned (Participant 10, personal communication, October 31, 2022).

Participant 10 uses historical disaster data along with their training plan to identify the most crucial threat areas in which responders should be trained. Each region in the state has a different threat, and the plan identifies the training for each area but the common theme in all regions is the need for incident command training ICS300 and ICS400 along with G2300 EOC interface training. Participant 10 mentioned COVID hindering training because the focus was the response to the pandemic, and other training that generally took place never occurred. This has increased the need for incident command, response, volunteer donations, and active shooter response. The state utilizes the consortiums to conduct training related to terrorism and hazardous materials; such course includes a medical response to bombing incidents, counterterrorism or anti-terrorism, and physical and cyber security training.

Participant 11 is an advocate for the in-person training model and believes they are most effective at preparing first responders. Independent study places a big role in training but should only be used to pass the information on updates or refreshers on specific topics. Participant 11 mentioned, “we all talk about the fact that emergency

management is based on building relationships with others, and I think that is best accomplished where you are working together in a classroom” (Participant 11, personal communication, October 27, 2022). The ability to train emergency managers is vital to the job’s success. A few years ago, most of the emergency managers were coming from the fire and police professions. They were trained in similar areas and understood the basic terminology, whereas today, emergency managers are coming straight from college without the basic understanding and foundations of the profession. This is why in-person classes are so important so everyone can get together and share experiences (both young and old) of emergency management.

Before 9/11, there was a much bigger focus on port and cargo security, government and critical facilities protection, and other mitigation efforts. After 9/11, the crucial threat areas in which responders should be trained changed, and it was more of an all-hazards approach to training. There was a lot more focus on terrorism with HAZMAT training and how to identify potential threats. Emergency managers must deal with many threats and being prepared at the Emergency Operation Center (EOC) is imperative to how the response to these incidents is handled. That is why participant 11 believes the EOC interface and other position-specific courses to prepare the EOC staff is where successful response occurs. The ICS300 and ICS400 help ensure that everyone speaks the same language and have similar objectives.

Figure 1

Areas Responders Should be Trained

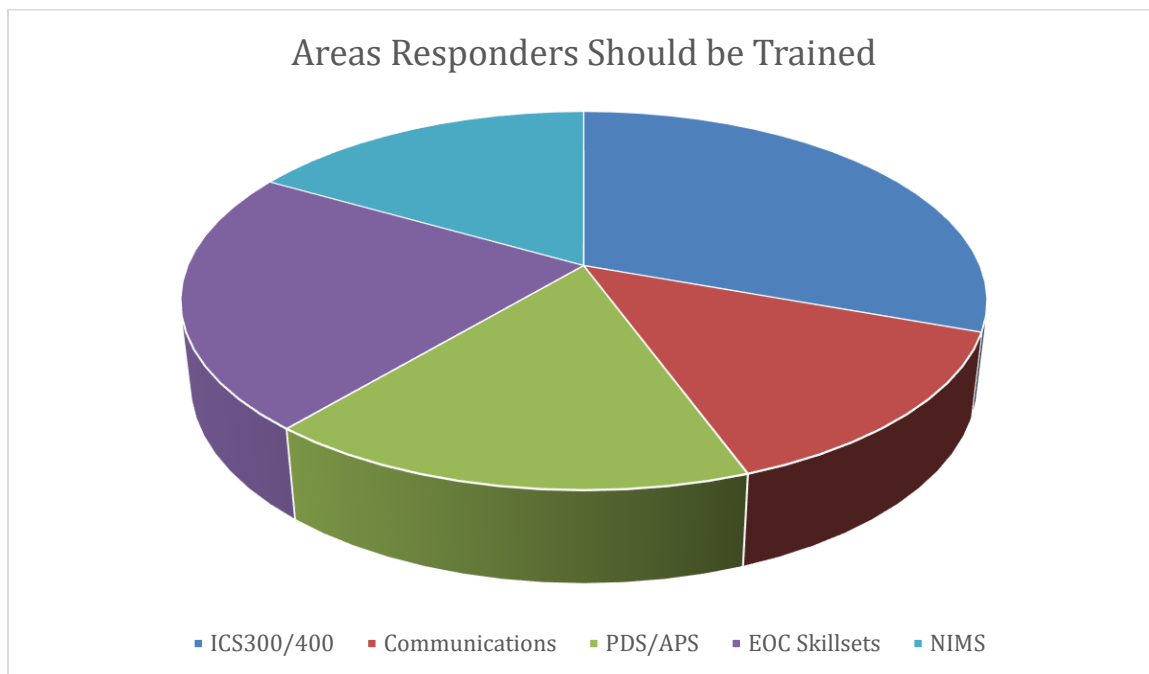
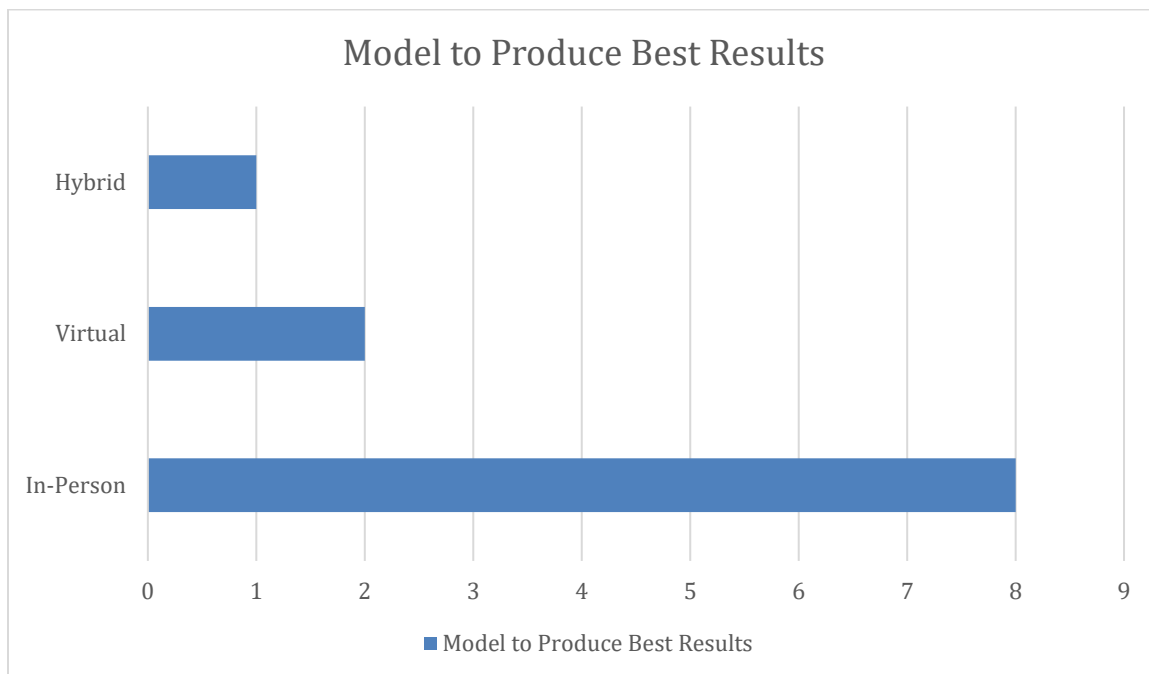


Figure 2*Model to Produce Best Results*

Summary

The first research question what training models are most effective at preparing first responders varied in different ways; however, the overall findings were in-person training was the best model to present training. All STOs mentioned that the COVID pandemic made them reevaluate the way they trained, and the need to transition to virtual training was necessary to maintain training in the jurisdiction. When the pandemic was declared over, only two states said they kept virtual training, but all participants said they went back to in-person training. Some common themes the participants mentioned was in-person training was the preferred method is it allowed students to better network with

other jurisdictions, better interaction between students, and the ability not to be distracted by work-related issues while on the computer.

With this said, different generations of emergency managers reacted differently to the type of platform, with older individuals preferring in-person training, while the younger generation embraced virtual training but overall would choose to be in the classroom. A couple of participants that have continued to use virtual training have done so because of the vast areas of their state and the areas between cities. Virtual training allows for all locations to participate in training with limited strain on budgets and time away from their jurisdiction.

The participants had a variety of answers on what the most crucial threat areas in which responders should be trained with the region the STO is located dictated the threat. There were many common threats the participants mentioned including natural disasters (hurricanes, tornadoes, wildfires) but also some that were regional or state-specific, like cyber security and terrorism. Within the threat came the need to respond to these threats, and the participants had similar responses on what training should be conducted for responders to adequately respond to these threats.

The ability of responders to properly communicate is key which all participants mentioned as key to a proper response. The need for incident command training and EOC skillset training was a top priority for all participants. All participants mentioned ICS300, ICS400, and G2300 are all placed on their training, with classes being held monthly to meet the demands of the jurisdictions. The participants said the ability to ensure the whole community is included in training which includes mass casualty and volunteer

training. Another training included in most of the states was training offered by the emergency management consortiums, which provides terrorism training, IED identification, and HAZMAT training.

While conducting the data analysis, the results were consistent with the two research questions. The results identified the best training model to produce the best results was in-person training. The ability to be in the same classroom and work together between students and instructors was essential to the knowledge presented. Networking was a strong reason in-person training was embraced by the STOs, noting the need to work together and share ideas between jurisdictions could not be accomplished in a virtual environment effectively. In-person training helped to isolate students better from the distractions that occur during virtual training. Students can provide their full attention without worrying they will be pulled away from training to work on office-related matters.

The COVID-19 pandemic was a significant driver of virtual training; as a need for training still existed, there needed to be a way to continue to conduct training without lowering the standards. Most of the STOs mentioned their state does not have a learning management system (LMS) to conduct virtual training. Training was presented virtually with online platforms not designed for virtual training but more for meetings and seminars like Zoom, Adobe, TEAMS, and WebX. A couple of STOs have embraced virtual training as a primary model in their state for various reasons. The most consistent basis was the need to conduct training in a large area with small amounts of people. Budgets were also smaller in these states for training, making it expensive to have

students travel to the training site. Virtual training allowed the states to conduct training throughout the state on a limited budget without limiting who could attend due to location. The STOs who have embraced virtual training, have determined that the benefits outweigh the risks and held very few in-person classes. While these STO use virtual training, and it has increased the training they are able to provide to individuals who would not usually be able to attend training, the STOs who have turned away from virtual training had a different opinion. The most significant concern was students were not actively engaged in training, and they were able to hide in the virtual background. Not being able to see the students (even through video), the ability to understand if someone is appropriately retaining the information is difficult to obtain.

The difference in generational emergency managers was mentioned, and which training model they embraced. This produced a variety of results, with the majority identifying both young and old emergency managers prefer in-person training; however, the younger generation was more open to virtual and did not have any issues if they had to attend these training events. The older emergency manager felt more comfortable with in-person training with the ability to physically communicate with peers, along with having paper copies of materials to use. Many need to become more familiar with the virtual platforms used or the technology, which makes it challenging to engage and embrace the training. STOs see the younger emergency manager using computers and technology their whole life, making it easier for them to interact in the virtual classroom. They seem to be able to multitask better, where they can pay attention virtually and seem to be doing other tasks.

When it comes to the threats faced and how to best respond to them varied on the location of the STOs. Each region has threats specific to its location, but the overall preparedness aspect is very similar in all regions. Understanding the need for everyone to communicate and work together identified similar training needs throughout the country. This included ICS and EOC Skillset training. When an incident occurs, emergency managers must come together to respond, which involves communication. STOs identified ICS300 and ICS400 as training most requested in their jurisdictions and EOC skillsets as training which is requested quite a bit. The need for specific training for police, fire, and EMS personnel is also high on the training plan, but most of the training involves the whole community, like ICS, PIO, EOC skillset, and combined training.

Using questionnaires and interviews, data was collected, coded, and analyzed to produce viable data that was used to identify commonalities where interpretations and recommendations were made. As we transition to the final chapter, the information gathered from state training officers can now be interpreted and recommendations made on what can be done better for the emergency management profession. By making recommendations, the ability to create social change within the profession will help to better prepare responders making communities more able to be prepared, mitigate, respond, and recover from all hazards.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

All emergencies and disasters are local, so there needs to be an emphasis placed on local emergency management training. Numerous studies have explored the need for training or education, but the literature never addresses the specifics or notates the exact curriculum. Major disasters are a reality and can occur in any of the states and territories of the United States. Properly trained emergency managers will benefit the community and its citizens by having individuals with the knowledge and experience to handle disasters. The results of this study will not only benefit the local emergency management office by having qualified individuals, but also benefit the community knowing they have the most qualified individuals in the positions.

The nature of the study was qualitative design using phenomenological theory and semi-structured interviews. Qualitative research begins with studying emergency managers to determine the most effective training and education classes for better handling disaster situations. Interviewing participants in the study identified trends that can improve training and education for local emergency managers. This qualitative analysis helped pinpoint the classes or training that benefits the local emergency manager to effectively manage major disasters.

Emergency management is a relatively new profession that requires adequately trained individuals to evaluate and react to hazardous situations, whether minor or severe. Training is an essential facet in any profession because it helps one gain the qualifications, knowledge, and skills in a particular area of interest. Training and

education can be received through colleges, universities, and federal agencies that all have different curricula.

Information from the participants was gathered and analyzed to determine common and unique terms and phrases that correspond to the research questions. Participants' expertise in the emergency management profession was quantitatively analyzed through questionnaires and interviews. Empirical data developed specific themes that were used to compare participants' responses that can be tied back to the research questions. The information gathered from the questionnaires prioritized specific training or education requirements identified by the research participants to improve the curriculum for new emergency managers to handle major disasters effectively. Quantitative research produced the best results from the participants that identify their reasoning for specific training or educational requirements for local emergency managers.

Education and training are vital to the local emergency manager, but personal experience is just as necessary. Identifying what emergency managers deem critical after a disaster can be as crucial as training before an incident. Being new to the profession requires a basic understanding of what type of training is needed to have comprehensive knowledge of the scope of the job. Understanding the best method to train individuals to produce the best results is equally important as knowing the critical areas to be trained. Gathering information from emergency managers that have experience with disasters helped to identify specific topics for training and/or education.

Findings to each research question were identified through the interpretations of the data. Each participants provided enough information to conclude each research question. The first research questions had a range of responses from in-person, virtual, and hybrid training models. Each of the models has a benefit and was used by all the participants; however, most of the participants recommend in-person training as the method of instruction. If the country were in another pandemic where it became necessary to shut down in-person training, the need to fall back on virtual training would be needed. In-person training was better received by older emergency managers, but the younger individuals would embrace the model even if they felt more comfortable with virtual training.

In the areas emergency managers should be trained, there was a consensus among all participants: ICS training was at the forefront of preparedness. Communication was a vast area that needs to be addressed so all responders could effectively communicate with each other. Other areas participants agreed on were training on EOC skillset and NIMS training. All participants had a great interest in the emergency management consortiums available for the states to use to increase the types of training that can be offered.

Interpretation of Findings

The interpretations of the findings discovered the best training model that is most effective at preparing first responders is in-person training. Virtual training does provide a valuable tool for state training officers to use in the time of crisis or when the state is so large, and participants in the training are spread out; however, all data falls back to in-person training being most effective.

There were 11 participants interviewed, and the majority stated in-person training was the most effective method. The reasons varied depending on the specific state and their location in the country. Most mentioned in-person training provided better interaction between instructors and students along with student-to-student collaboration. The ability to conduct virtual training required instructors to have more experience from the common in-person platform of instruction. Participants mentioned the student's age did not influence which training model they preferred. Both older and younger individuals prefer in-person training, but the younger generation can adapt better to the technology required for virtual training.

Previous literature did mention virtual training and how students produced better results improving critical thinking skill with web-based teaching method Priawasana et al. (2020). This would require students to have previous knowledge of the subject matter, which many taking emergency management classes are new and are in the learning phase of development. Lindell (2013) and Nepal et al. (2012) expressed the need to reach many vulnerable populations and areas in remote regions where training would be difficult for them to attend. The study confirmed some of the literature where virtual training may be needed to reach individuals unable to participate the in-person training. Most of the literature mentioned the ability to properly train individuals as the most important part of preparedness. Still, much of the literature needs to go further into detail as how the training should be conducted.

The findings for the most crucial threat areas in which responders should be trained varied depending on the region. Natural disasters happen throughout the county;

however, each part of the country has its specific hazards they must prepare and respond to. Another concern was cyber security and the increased risk of attacks on their infrastructure and computer systems. The unanimous consensus among state training officers was that communications training was invaluable regarding overall disaster preparedness, response, and recovery.

All participants provided similar data on what emergency managers should be trained. The ability to communicate was essential when responders are at the scene or the EOC monitoring the situation. Each participant mentioned specific threats they must prepare for many of them natural disaster (hurricanes, wildfires, tornadoes, floods, etc.). A few participants had special events that occurred each year that required additional training that dealt with terrorism or other man-made hazards. The results of the information provided by the participants showed the need for ICS, NIMS, and EOC skillset training so everyone could talk and understand each other. All participants mentioned the emergency management consortium's value in providing training they would not normally be able to hold in their state.

Throughout the literature, there was a common theme that continued to show up including the need for responders to communicate at a disaster. Literature shows emergency preparedness programs, such as the national mutual aid system NIMS (DHS 2005), have helped to establish common terminology, systems, and equipment for utilization in joint governmental ventures (Edwards, 2007). Many other studies examined the issue and problems faced during 9/11 and Hurricane Katrina and found a commonality between the two was the lack or inability to communicate (Gooden et al.,

2009). Hendriks & Bassi, (2009) described what was found in the study disaster response is local, and each region has a specific response and training need.

Limitations of the Study

The participants in the study were selected from a random list of state training officers and those who participated in the study were all interviewed with the same questions. The study's limitations identified in Chapter 1 remained the same, and the data collected from the participants produced a list of training that would better prepare emergency managers. Each participant based their answers on facts and methods used by their organization to identify training requirements throughout their state. The participants did not provide information based on an opinion that could not be validated.

The use of semi-structured interviews facilitated a more fluid discussion that allowed for follow-up questions. This did not cause any issues because each participant could stay focused on the original question and provide valuable feedback. Recording each interview provided a tool to monitor how each interview was conducted to identify any unwarranted bias that may have occurred. The study was able to use emergency managers that worked at the local level of government to produce results the study intended. The data collected created a list of training that would benefit the local emergency manager to handle major incidents effectively.

Recommendations

The study identified training or education that would benefit emergency responders to handle disasters effectively. Numerous studies have explored the need for training or education, but the literature never addresses the specifics or notates the exact

curriculum. This study is intended for organizations to see that there are courses that can better prepare emergency responders. The use of state training officers gave a perspective from different states on what their specific goals and objectives are each year. Most states conduct a yearly emergency management plan that includes all jurisdictions within their state to identify what training is most relevant. Studies in the literature review discussed the importance of communication and the ability of each agency to share information. Still, the literature failed to discuss specific training that would improve upon their conclusions. From natural disasters, active shooter incidents, and other man-made incidents the need for local jurisdictions to have a plan in place and have the responders properly trained so the citizenry will not be at a disadvantage when disaster strikes.

The consensus within this study was a great need for communications training. When disasters occur, communication is vital for leadership to understand what has happened and how to disseminate information back to the community to ensure life and property are protected. This was important for the state training officers and their ability to bring training that would benefit their stakeholders in protecting their communities. ICS training is offered through residents and independent study classes. These classes range from beginner-level to senior-level emergency managers allowing for progressive development depending on position and experience. ICS is the model tool for command, control, and coordination of a response and provides a means to coordinate the efforts of individual agencies as they work toward the common goal of stabilizing the incident and protecting life, property, and the environment. This study was operationally specific, which is why all the training and classes are either FEMA-specific or from one of the

emergency management consortiums. Another area where communication is essential is the EOC, which is why many of the participants hold EOC skill set training to assist individuals and jurisdictions who desire to develop or improve their EOC. Another training was targeted towards specific events like HAZMAT training, EOD recognition, cyber security, and identifying suspicious individuals. This training is equally important; however, the amount of times states may hold this training is rare or they will send individuals to the training sites to become subject matter experts. The information gathered for this study was from practitioners in the states who have experience in what would be most important. No college or university was included in this study, so identifying specific college level classes that would help emergency responders would have to be accomplished in a future study.

The result of this training has an overarching audience to include federal, state, local, tribal, territorial, and academic. Each participant will review the study's results so they will all identify similarities in their training plan and how it compares to others throughout the country. This study can be published in numerous emergency management periodicals and magazines to broaden the information emergency managers can use to prepare their responders better. All the classes identified in this study are only recommendations, and each state may have specific training requirements that will better prepare them for hazards. All training recognized in this study are either from FEMA or one of the emergency management consortium partners, which makes them easy to find.

Implications

Properly trained emergency managers are critical for communities to prepare, respond, and recover from all hazards. Emergency managers need a basic understanding, and this education and training should be like any degree or training in any part of the United States. There have been numerous natural and man-made disasters in the last 20 years that have shown an inability to predict how one of these events will unfold properly. Understanding prior events will help to prepare not only emergency managers and government officials but the same community they are there to protect in times of need. A better prepared community will understand the impact that might occur if they do not have a proper plan. This starts at the local level of government, with emergency management offices understanding the hazards and risks in their community. A well-prepared local emergency manager will assist the community in understand the need for a viable plan that will prepare them for the next disaster without initially relying on the government.

Communication greatly impacts how citizens within their community respond to specific hazards. We have learned from previous disasters the lack of communication or the inability for leaders to make quick and sound decisions can determine how individuals react. The need for emergency managers to be trained properly will help improve how the community responds to the government in times of disaster. Training emergency managers improve the organization and the community by having properly informed citizens. We have learned from the literature in chapter 2 that a lot of individuals in the community suffered or perished because of communication that failed

to reach many individuals. Studies have shown communication before, during, and after an event is critical to how the community reacts.

Emergency managers have a difficult job preparing for disasters, but this does not only include how to handle the incident but how to train the community properly, so they are prepared when disaster strikes. This is a complex process because many individuals distrust the government or are not included in the planning process. A study identified undocumented individuals or those who have a limited English vocabulary are more wary of the government. Social change will take time, but emergency managers must understand the demographics in their community to serve their needs better. When emergency managers prepare their yearly plan, it must include community outreach which is providing professional services, or services of specific expertise, to a group of people who may not otherwise have access to those services. Community outreach through Public Service Announcements (PSAs) is always a quick way to get a message out on a specific topic. The ability of the government to get its message out quickly will have a lasting effect on the individual in the community. A plan is an important part of preparedness that needs to be disseminated to every citizen in the community. This study identifies different training that will help emergency responders handle disasters, including preparing the community. Social change will happen over time if emergency management continues to communicate with the community they serve and provide clear and precise information on hazards and risks they may encounter.

The methodological implication of the study only used state training officers, which are experts in their profession, but could have used additional individuals to

provide a different perspective. Getting participants with a specific purpose within emergency management allowed the study to receive data from individuals with similar duties and responsibilities in each state they represent. State training officers care deeply about the communities they represent and having correctly trained responders will effect social change through experience and education.

The use of elaboration theory within the study showed the ability to start with introductory courses and progress to more advanced courses based on the individual's experience. This was demonstrated in the study, with participants discussing the best model to use when conducting training was in-person. This model benefited all taking training with everyone not at a disadvantage because they are unfamiliar with technology. Everyone starting at the same point in the training is determined by the experience of the participant; some may need to start at the beginning, whereas others could begin with more advanced courses. One could argue virtual training could be just as beneficial, but the students would have to have a basic concept of online learning or be prepared to start with a basic online refresher.

Understanding the relationship between the different models used in the study can create positive social change by improving upon the method used to train emergency managers, thereby increasing the knowledge gain. A better-trained emergency manager will be able to provide better service to the community through increased knowledge of the resources available. This will increase the public's knowledge of resources and tools available when a crisis arises. With future studies, the same theory could be used, but additional emphasis placed on different levels of training and how emergency managers

retain knowledge. Another issue could compare in-person training and virtual training and the impact each has on different generations of emergency managers.

There has been a lot of change throughout the years on the purpose and role of emergency management but the overall goal to protect the citizens and communities has remained the same. As the profession moves forward, understanding the needs of the community and what is needed to do to provide those services will determine how successful we are when the next disaster arrives. This study identifies several courses that benefit emergency managers to make them more effective. Communication has been one of the overarching themes in this study, which is essential to the success of any organization. Still, emergency management deals with protecting lives within the community they represent.

Communities affected by a disaster rely on their public officials to quickly and effectively communicate information that will help them in their time of need. Communication needs to move between emergency management and the community. Training emergency managers on how to communicate properly is essential for success throughout the disaster. Understanding the community, they represent and how to get their message out effectively will create a positive change within the community. Everyone in the community will feel more empowered because they understand how to prepare for different hazards, they may encounter through communication from their local emergency management office.

Conclusions

Emergency management has been around for many years, evolving to the profession we know today. Having appropriately trained emergency managers is necessary to aid the community they serve. Previous literature identified emergency managers need training to be most effective but failed to elaborate on specific training. This study provides specific training for emergency managers that previous studies have missed or failed to cover. The results of this study provide an overarching view of state training officers and the training they hold in their state for responders.

Training for emergency responders improves an individual's level of awareness for specific areas and hazards, improves an individual's skill in places to make them an expert, and improves an individual's motivation to perform their job. These areas make a community more resilient by having properly trained individuals to provide information to the citizens. Communication is the most significant area of concern for state training officers which is why they provide training on a regular basis. If responders cannot effectively communicate with each other, they become ineffective, and failure to communicate with the community can have devastating results.

Specific training is essential, but the way training is conducted can affect how responders are prepared. In-person, the effectiveness of virtual, and hybrid training can be debated but understanding how each individual responds to the training produces the best results. This study discusses these training models with the participants, and a variety of information make similar results on the effectiveness of each. Each model has

a purpose, and the state needs to determine what is best to produce results where the responder will be most effective to the community's citizens.

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