EMERGENCY MANAGERS' PERSPECTIVES OF RECRUITING, TRAINING, AND INTEGRATING VOLUNTEERS FOR A DISASTER

by

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Abstract

Disasters are increasing in intensity and frequency throughout the world, causing public safety organizations to become more involved in disaster management. The purpose of this qualitative case study was to examine county emergency managers' perspectives of recruiting, training, and integrating volunteers for a disaster. Research has shown when disaster volunteers are not properly recruited, trained, and integrated into disaster planning they can negatively impact efforts to save lives and protect property. This qualitative case study is likely the first study to examine county emergency managers' perspectives of recruiting, training, and integrating volunteers for a disaster to save lives and protect property. This study used POSDCORB as the theoretical framework and the concepts of disaster management and volunteer management to answer the principal research question, "How do county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster?" This study also used one-on-one, face-to-face, semi-structured interviews to gather data about county emergency managers' perspectives on how they recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster. During the course of the study there were eight emergent themes: (a) planning for volunteers, (b) organizing volunteers, (c) staffing volunteers, (d) directing, (e) legal issues, (f) coordinating and integrating volunteers, (g) directing volunteers, and (h) training volunteers.

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my Lord and Savior Jesus Christ and the host of family, friends and parishioners at the Tabernacle of Faith Christian fellowship and the students in A Little Bit of Help Inc. I dedicate this project to my mother Essie L. Mitchell and to my father Willie F. Carley. You taught me the importance of education and instilled values and virtues that shaped and molded me into the man I am today. My wife, TroyLynn Carley; I could not have completed this journey without your unyielding love and support. You stood by my side, made sacrifices, provided moral support and encouragement, instilled confidence, and reassured. My siblings; Darrius, Willie, and Christian; you believed in me and made me believe I could accomplish anything. Thank you for the constant encouragement and support throughout all my life endeavors. There would be no Dr. Willie K. Carley without you.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Problem

America is a country with a rich history of volunteerism spanning from the colonial period to the current day. Historically, public safety officials struggled to effectively organize and manage volunteers (Helsloot & Ruitenberg, 2004). The United States is rich with historical examples of volunteerism. For example, volunteer firefighters in Philadelphia in 1736 under the guidance of Benjamin Franklin, established the first volunteer firefighting company in Philadelphia, to manage volunteer donations to aid people (USDHS, 2010, p. 2). During the Civil War, American woman volunteers made bandages, shirts, and towels to help the soldiers (p. 2). Brudney and Gazley (2009) argued there is a need for voluntary organizations such as the American Red Cross, Salvation Army, Mennonites, Medical Reserve Corps, and volunteer organizations active in disasters (VOADS). On April 21, 1998 President Clinton, in his Presidential proclamation, gave tribute to the spirit of volunteerism and its roots in America's past (p. 7). The increase in the number and intensity of disasters in the United States during the last decade (i.e., Tropical Storm Lee, Hurricane Irene, Hurricane Katrina, Hurricane Rita and Hurricane Sandy) resulted in government public safety agencies response with an increase in assistance from volunteer organizations (Clukey, 2010).

Practitioners Perry and Lindell (2003) argued similar to Villagran, Wittenberg-Lyles and Garza (2006) that public safety officials should plan in advance for volunteers to handle a multitude of emergencies. The problem is when volunteers are not properly planned for they can

negatively impact response efforts to save lives and protect property (Elledge, Boatright, Woodson, Clinkenbeard, & Brand, 2007; Henstra, 2010; Pinkowski, 2008; Points of Light, 2002; Reisman & Howard, 2008). Therefore, the purpose of this research is to study how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster. Bordens and Abbott (2007) stated "the primary goal of research is to generate information to apply directly to a real-world problem" (p. 4). Helsloot and Ruitenberg argued part of the challenge to public safety officials is the general mistrust of volunteers by trained emergency first responders. First responders prefer to work with trained and certified individuals or groups such as the American Red Cross, Operation Blessing, and the Salvation Army. For the purpose of this study, the term volunteer as defined by the National Incident Management System (NIMS) means "any individual or organization accepted to perform services by the lead agency, which has authority to accept volunteer services when the individual or organization performs services without promise, expectation, or receipt of compensation for services performed" (USDHS, 2008a, p. 149).

Background of the Study

Immediately after the impact of a disaster volunteers are needed to assist with the response and recovery of personnel and property. Therefore volunteer organizations such as volunteer organizations active in disasters (VOADs) and National Volunteer Organizations Active in Disasters (NVOADs) provide aid during and after a disaster Wachtendorf, Brown, and Holguin-Veras (2013). While Wachtendorf, Brown, and Holguin-Veras encourages volunteers and volunteer agencies to assist in disaster impacted areas there remains little research about recruiting, training, and integrating of volunteers for a disaster. Argothy (2003); Michel (2007)

and Wilson (2000) argued after a disaster strikes, people are spontaneous, compassionate, sympathetic, and want to help other people and assist local, state, and federal government in disasters. For example, in response to the 1989 and 1994 California earthquakes thousands of volunteers converged at disaster sites overwhelming local emergency response units (Office of Emergency Services, 2001). In 1999, volunteers in northwestern Turkey assisted in the response and recovery efforts to a devastating 7.4 earthquake which lasted for 45 seconds and killed over 17,000 people. The majority of trapped victims of the earthquake were rescued by their neighbors (Edwards, 2009, p. 257). Next, in 2001, volunteers from around the United States responded to Ground Zero at the World Trade Center in Manhattan, NY to assist public safety officials with the search and rescue of survivors (Tierney, 2003, para. 3).

Hurricane Katrina (2005) resulted in thousands of volunteers descending upon the Gulf Coast region to provide disaster rescue and relief assistance to public safety officials. Finally, in 2011 after the Tohoku earthquake in Japan, hundreds of volunteers came forward to lend a helping hand to the survivors and government rescuers. Fackler (2011) stated "many Japanese traded in their vacations for grueling volunteer work in tsunami-ravaged communities" (para. 1). Tucker (2011) argued after any disaster "expect a flood of volunteers to respond rapidly to marshal their energy to help" (p. 4). Volunteers demonstrated over the years their value in providing additional assistance as needed when called upon. Nagabhushanam and Sridhar (2010) argued citizens demonstrate altruistic behavior to volunteer when a disaster occurs. Therefore, it is important for public safety officials to effectively incorporate volunteers into their disaster preparedness plans (Henstra, 2010; Pinkowski, 2008; Points of light Foundation, 2002). According to Craig Fugate, the current FEMA administrator:

> Volunteer organizations are an important part of every community, which makes them equally important to the nation's emergency management team; it is the faith-based and non-profit groups that know their communities best, and by strengthening the partnerships between us, we can help keep the people we serve safe. (USDHS, 2011a, para. 2)

Henstra (2010) and Pinkowski (2008) argued the disaster management literature abounds with public safety officials' failures to effectively plan for and manage a large number of volunteers. However, further, review of the literature revealed little or no research on how volunteers were planned for, organized, directed, and coordinated into U.S. federally declared disasters. It should be noted most of the literature found concerning volunteers was about international disasters; and how volunteers respond and assisted in response and in the recovery of their community (Fackler, 2011; Shieh & Deng, 2011; Tucker, 2011).

Statement of the Problem

The increased frequency and intensity of disasters requires public safety officials to plan and prepare to respond to save lives and property; according to Mintz and Gonzalez (2013) "a number of weaknesses were identified in the reviews, including the ability to coordinate and deliver mass care services following catastrophic disasters" (p. 34). The increase in disasters often overwhelms local, state, and federal public safety officials who lack resources and support personnel, to assist responders forcing public safety officials to turn to volunteers (Rowel, Mercer, & Gichomo, 2011). However the integration of volunteers and volunteer organizations in a disaster event is often overwhelming for public safety officials who have not planned for, organized, directed, or coordinated volunteers (2011). Therefore, the problem is when volunteers are not properly planned for, organized, directed, and coordinated they can negatively impact response efforts to save lives and protect property (Elledge, Boatright, Woodson, Clinkenbeard,

& Brand, 2007; Henstra, 2010; Pinkowski, 2008; Points of Light, 2002; Reissman, & Howard 2008). Current literature lack empirical studies on the perspective of county emergency managers on how they plan for, organize, direct, and coordinate volunteers in disasters; therefore, the research purpose for this study is to examine how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster.

Rowel, Mercer, and Gichomo (2011) argued if volunteers are not planned for, organized, directed, and coordinated lives can be lost. Orloff (2011); United Nations (2005); and Victor (2003) agreed with Rowel, Mercer, and Gichomo argued untrained volunteers contribute to an unsafe and chaotic environment which place first responders as well as disaster survivors at risk. Further, Reissman and Howard (2008); Shieh and Deng (2011) argued public safety officials do not effectively plan for, organize, direct, and coordinate volunteers for disaster events. Harris (2007) held the lack of planning for integrating volunteers by local public safety officials' often results in the exacerbation of a disaster event resulting in the loss of life. Furthermore, Donahue and Tuohy (2006) argued when individuals on their own initiative respond to a disaster without the knowledge and permission of public safety officials these individuals complicate the command and control of a disaster and often put first responders at increased risk. Similar to (Donahue & Tuohy, 2006; Lam, Lin, Tsai, Choy, & Chiu, 2007; Majchrzak & More, 2011; Shieh & Deng, 2011) argued volunteers, if not managed properly hinder response and recovery operations exacerbating a disaster event.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to examine how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster. The proposed study will provide

county emergency managers, volunteer coordinators, and public safety leaders with current information about recruiting, training, and integrating volunteers through planning, organizing, directing, and coordinating within their community. The theoretical framework concept briefly discussed for this study will be discussed in detailed within Chapter 2.

Rationale

Disaster preparedness and response in the U.S. involving volunteers has evolved immensely (Clukey, 2010). The rationale for conducting this study is to examine how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster to expand the body of knowledge of planning for, organizing, directing, and coordinating volunteers for disasters. Therefore, the study is relevant to disaster management researchers and practitioners responsible for the difficult task of integrating volunteers into the response phase of a disaster (Helsloot & Ruitenberg, 2004; St. John & Fuchs, 2002). It is also important for public officials and emergency managers to share their perspectives with leaders and managers of volunteers who are involved in emergencies and disasters. This study provided county emergency managers, volunteer coordinators, and public safety leaders with current information about the importance of planning, organizing, directing, and coordinating volunteers for a disaster within their community.

Nature of the Study

The nature of the study was to capture the perspectives of county emergency managers on how they plan, organize, staff, direct and coordinate volunteers for disasters. The participants of this study were full-time employed county emergency managers in the state of New York responsible for disaster management planning and integration of volunteers within their county.

Data collected using a self-developed interview guide to answer nine open ended questions during face-to-face one-on-one interview with 10 county emergency managers; therefore a qualitative case study approach was more appropriate than a quantitative approach. No follow-up interviews were conducted. Emergency managers in this study had extensive emergency services experience to include volunteer management experience.

Significance of the Study

A review of the literature found limited research that examined how county emergency managers plan for, organize, direct, and coordinate volunteers before, during and after a disaster (Fernandez, Barbera, & Van Dorp, 2006; Helsloot & Ruitenberg, 2004; Kaji, Coates, & Fung, 2010; Orloff, 2010). This study addressed the gap in the research by examining county emergency managers' perspective on how county emergency managers manage volunteers before and during disasters. This study was likely the first study to examine county emergency managers' perspectives on how volunteers are plan for, organize, direct, and coordinate volunteers through recruiting, training, and integrating volunteers for a disaster within their community to save lives and protect property. The results of this study should provide county emergency managers and other public safety officials with information about planning and preparing volunteers to deploy to a disaster. The significance of this study was to examine public safety training, policy and response of disaster volunteers at the local level. Perspectives of local emergency managers' best practices and lessons learned about recruiting, training, and integrating volunteers provided a depth of valuable information to improve volunteer programs throughout the U.S. Finally, the results from this study provided information to improve

procedures and policies to protect volunteers who deploy to disasters by better understanding how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster.

Definition of Terms

The following conceptual definitions are provided to clarify the meanings of the terms used in this study.

Affiliated Volunteer: "Individuals associated with an organization and voluntarily perform services who are often trained by an organization." (Orloff, 2011, p. 234)

Convergent Volunteer: "Convergent, a volunteer who self-deploy." (Planning Guide Lines, 2008)

County Emergency Manager: "An individual who is assigned to oversee the emergency management and public safety programs and activities within their local jurisdiction." (ICDRM, 2007, p. 19)

Disaster Management: "Disaster management is the process of forming common objectives and common values in order to encourage participants to plan for and deal with potential and actual disasters." (Blanchard, 2008, p. 293)

Emergency: "An incident whether natural or man-made that requires responsive action to protect property or life." (USDHS, 2008a, p. 138)

First Responder: "Individuals who in the early stages of an incident are responsible for the protection and preservation of life, property, evidence, and the environment, including emergency response providers as defined in Section 2 of the Homeland Security Act of 2002." (ICDRM, 2007, p. 19)

Major Disaster: "Means any natural catastrophe (including any hurricane, tornado, storm, high water, wind driven water, tidal wave, tsunami, earthquake, volcanic eruption, landslide, mudslide, snowstorm, or drought), or, regardless of cause, any fire, flood, or explosion, in any part of the United States, which in the determination of the President causes damage of sufficient severity and magnitude to warrant major disaster assistance under this Act to supplement the efforts and available resources of States, local governments, and disaster relief organizations in alleviating the damage, loss, hardship, or suffering caused thereby." (USDHS, 2007, p.2)

Mitigation: "Activities providing a critical foundation in the effort to reduce the loss of life and property from natural and/or manmade disasters by avoiding or lessening the impact of a disaster and providing value to the public by creating safer communities." (USDHS, 2008a, p. 143)

Planning: "A systematic process to engage the whole community as appropriate in the development of executable strategic, operational, and/or community-based approaches to meet defined objectives." (USDHS, 2011d, p. 5)

POSDCORB: "the acronym POSDCORB stands for planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting which represents the functional responsibilities of a chief executive officer." (Gulick, 1936, p. 9)

Preparedness: "A continuous cycle of planning, organizing, training, equipping, exercising, evaluating, and taking corrective action in an effort to ensure effective coordination during incident response." (USDHS, 2008a, p. 145)

Recovery: "The development, coordination, and execution of service- and site-restoration plans; the reconstitution of government operations and services; individual, private-sector, nongovernmental, and public assistance programs to provide housing and to promote restoration; long-term care and treatment of affected persons." (USDHS, 2008a, p. 146)

Recruitment: "A process of actively enrolling a volunteer into the local area volunteer management system." (Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye, & Darcy, 2006, p. 149)

Response: "Activities that address the short-term, direct effects of an incident." (USDHS, 2008a, p. 145)

Screening: "An ongoing process designed to identify any person whether paid or unpaid, volunteer or staff who might harm children, youth or other vulnerable persons or who may cause harm to the organization." (Volunteer Alberta, n.d, para. 1)

Spontaneous Volunteer: "An individual who arrives without affiliation to an organization following a disaster." (Orloff, 2011, p. 246)

Training: "Planned activities which support and improve individual and organizational performance and effectiveness, such as on-the-job training, career development programs, professional development activities or developmental assignments." (Blanchard, 2008, p. 195)

Unaffiliated Volunteer: "Individuals who offer to help or self-deploy to assist in emergency situations without fully coordinating their activities." (USDHS, 2011c, p. 1)

Volunteer: "Any individual or organization accepted to perform services by the lead agency, which has authority to accept volunteer services when the individual or organization performs services without promise, expectation, or receipt of compensation for services performed." (USDHS, 2008a, p. 149)

Volunteer Coordinator: "An individual responsible for coordinating and managing volunteers for their agency or community." (USDHHS, 2010, p. 2)

Volunteer Management: "The application of Human Resource Management (HRM) functions that deal with the planning, recruitment, screening, orientation, training and support, performance management and recognition of organizational volunteers." (Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye & Darcy 2006, p. 149)

Volunteer organizations active in disaster (VOAD): "Is an umbrella organization whose mission is to provide emergency services to the community through the use of trained volunteers." Examples of VOADs include: The American Red Cross and many church-related agencies such as The Salvation Army, Mennonite Disaster Services, or the Southern Baptist Disaster Relief. Most, if not all, of these organizations have registered nonprofit (501(c) 3) status, and many belong to the National Voluntary Organizations Active in Disaster (NVOAD). (USDHS, 2010, p. 2.3)

Assumptions and Limitations

Assumptions

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010) "assumptions are so basic that, without them, the research problem itself could not exist" (p. 62). This study has three types of assumptions theoretical, methodological and topical.

Theoretical Assumptions. Within this study it was assumed that the narrow view of POSDCORB: planning, organizing, staffing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting provided the theoretical foundation underpinnings to guide this study. According to Sinclair (2007) "at the beginning of a research study it is recommended to consider relevant theories to support the chosen topic" (p. 39).

Methodological Assumptions. Within this study there were three methodological assumptions. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010) "a case study methodology is used to gather data relative to a single individual program, or event, for the purpose of learning more about an unknown or poorly understood situation" (p. 108). First, it was assumed the research design selected for this study will guide the investigator in the process of collecting and analyzing data. Second, the research design selected for this study will capture the perspective of each research participant on how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for disasters. Trochim (2006) argued "the credibility criterion involves establishing that the results of qualitative research are credible or believable from the perspective of the participant in the research" (para, 3). Third, it was assumed the instrument designed is valid and reliable to answer the research question.

Topical Assumptions. Within this study there are three topical assumptions. First, the topical assumption for this proposal, county emergency managers are involved with recruiting, training, and integrating of volunteers during a disaster to save lives and protect property. Second, county emergency managers were considered the most knowledgeable about their disaster management and volunteer management programs within their county. Third, the literature research conducted supports this study and represents the objectives of the study

accurately. Trochim (2006) argued "the credibility criterion involves establishing that the results of qualitative research are credible or believable from the perspective of the participant in the research" (para, 3).

Limitations

The study has four limitations. First, the study was limited to the perspectives of county emergency managers' in the state of New York who are responsible for the management of volunteers within their counties. Public safety leaders within a county may provide their perspective on how volunteers are recruited, trained and integrated in disasters. However, for this study it has been determined that the county emergency manager is responsible for his or her county's emergency management program. County emergency mangers were determined to be the most knowledgeable person to communicate how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for disasters. The study was limited by the lack of previously collected data about the perspectives of county emergency managers on how they recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster.

Scope and Delimitations

Scope

The population study comprised of county emergency managers in the state of New York. The respondents answered the research study question, "How do county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for disasters?" The state of New York provided a unique environment to study how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteer for a disaster due to the history of disasters within the state. The scope of the study was

limited to county emergency managers from one particular state to ensure the study remained cost effective and completed in a timely yet relevant manner.

Delimitations

The current study was restricted to county emergency managers who were considered most knowledgeable about disaster management were asked to participate in the study. Emergency managers in general were not selected to participate in this study due to their limited authority to manage disasters for their county and limited authority to recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster. Because the study's emphasis is on the perspectives of county emergency managers, it is limited in generalizability. However, the results provided a starting point for additional research from emergency management and volunteer management agencies.

Summary and Organization of the Remainder of the Study

Chapter 1 provided the foundation and the underpinning for this qualitative case study. The study examined county emergency managers' perspectives on how to plan for, organize, direct, and coordinate volunteers for a disaster to answer the research question; "How do county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster?" The background for the study was outlined and the case study method briefly discussed. The purpose, problem, and study's research question, the nature of the study, and the importance of this study were provided.

This chapter defined conceptual terms used in this study and outlined the scope of the study to include the limitations, delimitations, and assumptions. Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature on function elements of administrative theory known as POSDCORB as it applies to disaster management. Chapter 3 outlines the research design of this study, the population,

methodology, as well as threats to feasibility, credibility, and confirmability of the study. An overview of the institutional review board process, field notes, informed consent, and ethical considerations involved in the study is also described in Chapter 3 of this study. Within Chapter 4 of this study is organized as follows: (a) descriptive statistics of the respondents', (b) data management, (c) data collection, (d) data analysis, (e) study results, (f) biases of the researcher, and (g) summary. Within Chapter 5 of this study is organized as follows to provide a summary of the results, discussion and interpretation of the results, discussion of the conclusions, recommendations for practice, policy recommendations, and limitations of the study, recommendations for future research, and chapter summary and conclusions.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The purpose of this current study was to examine how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster. This chapter begins by discussing the theoretical framework of the function elements of administrative theory known as POSDCORB. The literature review has five sections beginning with the description of the literature review methodology and a synthesis of existing literature on three topic areas and their application for county emergency managers on how they plan for, organize, direct, and coordinate volunteers for disasters through the prism of; (a) the function elements of administrative theory known as POSDCORB, (b) volunteerism, and (c) two case studies involving volunteers within two historical disasters to provide a rich depth case study research on volunteers' response to a disaster. The literature review concluded with a discussion regarding gaps in knowledge.

Methodology for the Literature Review

According to Kowalczyk and Truluck (2013) posited "a literature review is a great way to summarize information published regarding a specific topic" (p, 219). Therefore, the purpose of a literature review is to summarize information published on how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster through planning, organizing, directing, and coordinating. A seven-step literature review processed recommended by Creswell (2009), included the following: identified key words; searched key words using library databases; located approximate 50 articles books, or other sources; skimmed sources and determined

relevance; designed a literature or conceptual map; drafted summaries of most relevant sources; and assembled literature review thematically. Initially, the following words were used in numerous ways to guide the literature review search: The following words were used to search for relevant articles: *Administrative theory, administrative management, management*, *disaster management, disaster theory, disaster management theory, volunteer management, volunteer management, POSDCORB, volunteers, volunteerism, volunteer management and emergency preparedness, volunteer coordinator and emergency management, spontaneous volunteer management, volunteer management theory, volunteer recruiting for a disaster, recruiting volunteers for a disaster, volunteer training for a disaster, integrating volunteers for a disaster and volunteers in disasters.* It is also important to note the literature review included a search of several government and university library databases. The selected words were the beginning point for the literature review in researching the literature for this study the following databases were used: Academic Search Premier; EBSCOhost; Business Source Complete; The Cumulative Index of Nursing and Allied Health Literature (CINAHL); Educational Resources, Information Center (ERIC); Health and Psychosocial Instruments; International Security and Counter Terrorism Reference Center; SocIndex; Google Scholar; FEMA; Homeland Security Digital Library; Library-Information Science and Technology Abstracts; PsycArticles, PsycBooks, PsychInfo, Regional Business News, SocIndex with Full Text, ProQuest Dissertations and Theses, Mental Measurements Yearbook with Tests in Print offered by Capella University; and full text offered by Capella University.

Theoretical Framework

At the beginning of a research study it is recommended to consider relevant theories to support the chosen topic (Sinclair, 2007, p. 39). The relevant theory selected for this qualitative study was administrative theory function elements known as POSDCORB to provide theoretical framework. Therefore, the theoretical elements and principals of POSDCORB were used to better understand and answer the research problem "how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrates volunteers for a disaster." According to Sinclair (2007) "A theoretical framework can be thought of as a map or travel plan" (p. 39).

POSDCORB

In 1935 Luther Halsey Gulick, a social scientist, coined the term POSDCORB "to call attention to the various functional elements of the work of a chief executive" (Gulick, 1936, p. 13). Gulick also posited "it is believed that those who know administration intimately will find in this analysis a valid and helpful pattern, into which can be fitted each of the major activities and duties of any chief executive" (p, 13). Leaders within public administration and organizational management often use the narrow view of POSDCORB to identify the works of a manager (Chalekian, 2013; Berry, 2010). According to Melton, Walker, and Walker (2010), managers utilize the functional elements of POSDCORB to manage day-to-day activities. According to Chalekian (2013) stated the acronym POSDCORB "stands for planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting which represents the functional responsibilities within public administration" (p. 1). For this study the functional elements POSDCORB found within administrative theory were used to understand the concepts and principals of how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster.

Planning. Local, state and federal executives and chief executives within public safety such as county executives and county emergency managers use planning as a day-to-day activity. According to Gulick (1936) planning within POSDCORB "is working out in broad outline the things that need to be done and the methods for doing them to accomplish the purpose set for the enterprise" (p, 13). Therefore, the purpose of planning is to provide a clear direction for staff to accomplish designated goals and objectives of the organization. Once the vision and direction of a department or organization has been solidified then organizations can begin design and estimate the resources and activities needed to accomplish the mission (Randazzo, 2014, p. 4). For example according to the Department of Homeland Security the plan to guide the local, state and federal public safety agencies was the National Incident Management System (2008).

> The National Incident Management System (NIMS) provides a systematic, proactive approach to guide departments and agencies at all levels of government, nongovernmental organizations, and the private sector to work seamlessly to prevent, protect against, respond to, recover from, and mitigate the effects of incidents, regardless of cause, size, location, or complexity, in order to reduce the loss of life and property and harm to the environment. (USDHS, 2008a, p.1)

County emergency managers and volunteer coordinators utilize planning as a human relations as a systematic process to develop strategic goals, objectives and agendas within the National Preparedness Goal (2011d). Planning for volunteers is incredibly difficult because public safety officials, county emergency managers, and first responders' inability to determine the required resources for an unknown event. Therefore, identifying resource within volunteer management planning should be based on threats and vulnerabilities within a jurisdiction

(USDHS, 2008, p. 32). When developing a county disaster management plan, it was recommended by researchers Helsloot and Ruitenberg (2004) for county emergency managers and public safety officials to anticipate in advance the need for volunteers. Further, researchers Helsloot and Ruitenberg (2004) argued, “planning for emergency situations must be aimed at demands directly from the field, instead of at the demands from a go between actors” (p. 105).

Government officials and emergency management practitioners argued within the National Preparedness Goals (2011) ”planning is considered an essential part of the disaster management and the management of volunteers during a disaster to prepare for, prevent, mitigate, respond, and recover from an emergency or disaster” (p. 3). Local and state officials are considered responsible for planning for the safety of their staff and volunteers deployed to a disaster site. Therefore, according to Perry and Lindell (2003) it is imperative to improve disaster planning to allow for the appropriate incorporation of volunteers into the response phase (p. 53). Similar, Fernandez, Barbera, and Van Dorp (2006) argued, “Planning for volunteers should be systematic and methodical and based on valid assumptions of the actions people are likely to take” (p.11). Therefore, in concert with disaster literature recruiting volunteers to assist in the response and recovery of a community is an important part of planning for an emergency or disaster.

Planning for the recruitment of volunteers is an essential part of disaster management and volunteer management. According to Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye, and Darcy (2006) the process of actively enrolling and recruiting volunteers occur in all aspects of the disaster cycle. The screening and recruitment of volunteers prior to a disaster provides public safety officials and first responders with a pool of volunteers that can be trained and readied to assist upon request

during or after a disaster (Drabczyk, 2007). Based on the literature, by Brudney and Gazley (2009) local and state public officials and first responders rely on the American Red Cross, Medical Reserve Corps, and various other volunteer organizations to support their disaster response and relief efforts. In addition, Brudney and Gazely posited the American Red Cross has an excellent reputation as a reliable disaster volunteer agency who recruits volunteers to prepare and respond to disasters. Without volunteers, the cost and manpower for local and federal governments to manage a disaster would be a significant (Haski-Leventhal & Cnaan, 2009; UN Volunteers, 2005). When examining the concept of recruiting volunteers for a disaster, Haski-Leventhal and Cnaan (2009) stated:

> Volunteers make a significant contribution to American society. Each year, about one-half of all American adults volunteer in some capacity; of this estimate 84 million adults, 25 million donate five or more hours per week and generate services worth more than $239 billion annually (as cited in Independent Sector, 2006). (p. 61)

The challenge to recruiting volunteers to help when a disaster occurs is people working on various jobs affiliated with competing community volunteer groups (Haski-Leventhal & Cnaan, 2009). Therefore, county emergency managers who plan to attempt to recruit and train volunteers for their county may face individuals already listed as helping the American Red Cross, Salvation Army, their local fire departments, ambulance units or other community volunteer organizations. However, it was recommended for county emergency mangers to facilitate target recruiting to all members of the community to obtain volunteers (Fernandez, Barbera, & Van Dorp, 2006; Haski-Leventhal & Cnaan, 2009). Fernandez, Barbera, and Van Dorp (2006) argued that recruiting volunteers requires emergency managers to harness the power of every individual through education, training, and volunteer service.

McFarlane (2010), similar to Fernandez, Barbera, and Van Dorp (2006) argued, "There are many facets to building and implementing a robust recruiting strategy" (para. 1). McFarlane held any planning to recruit volunteers should take into account business needs, organizational culture, and the type of skills needed (para. 1). Word of mouth was noted as a very effective recruitment tool used to rapidly spread information from individual to individual to volunteer during a disaster (McFarlane, 2010). Often Citizen Corps Councils and county emergency managers look for creative ways to spread the word about disaster preparedness and their recruiting efforts through the use of websites, which provide access to-ready-to-use templates, posters, web banners and traditional and social media to recruit volunteers (Drabczyk, 2007). Witesman (2009) emphasized that properly recruited and managed disaster response volunteers can be an asset in an emergency situation, but they can also increase demands on public managers. Therefore, a thorough screening of volunteers is required and should be addressed by every county emergency manager.

Organizing. Every organization requires structured authority to manage their day to day activities. According to Gulick (1936) organizing within POSDCORB "is the establishment of the formal structure of authority through which work subdivisions are arranged, defined, and coordinated for the defined objective" (p, 13). Organizations, agencies, and departments within the field of public safety and emergency management have a formal structure of authority to organize their command and management of subdivisions known as the Incident Command System (ICS).

ICS is used to organize on-scene operations for a broad spectrum of emergencies from small to complex incidents, both natural and manmade. The field response level is where

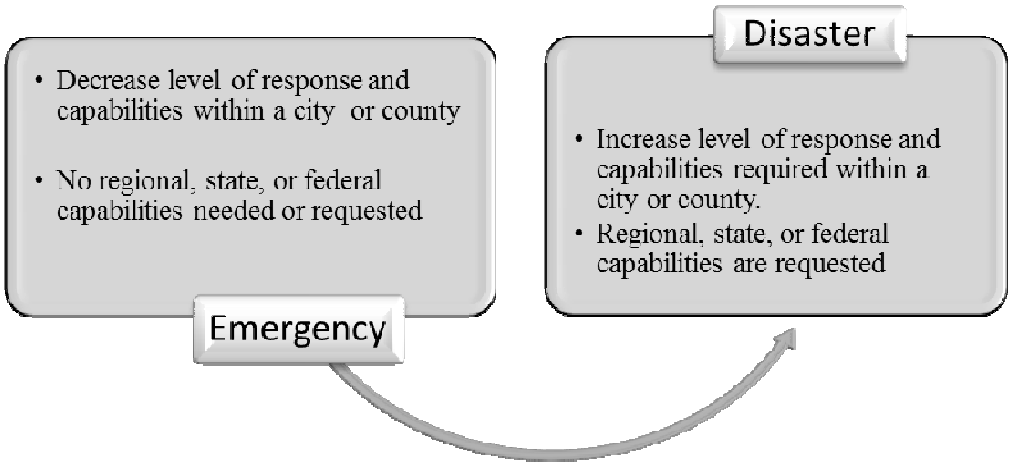
> emergency management/response personnel, under the command of an appropriate authority, carry out tactical decisions and activities in direct response to an incident or threat. Resources from the Federal, State, tribal, or local levels, when appropriately deployed, become part of the field ICS as prescribed by the local authority.
>
> As a system, ICS is extremely useful; not only does it provide an organizational structure for incident management, but it also guides the process for planning, building, and adapting that structure. Using ICS for every incident or planned event helps hone and maintain skills needed for the large-scale incidents. (USDHS, 2008a, p. 46)

Response activities performed before, during, and after a disaster response such as recruiting, training, and integrating volunteers in a disaster are critical to save lives, protect property and the environment, and to meet basic human needs required during a response (USDHS, 2008a; USDHS, 2008b). Historically, response activities involve organized trained first responders, neighbors, and volunteers. Government literature such as HSPD 5 (2003); USDHS (2008a); and the USDHS (2008b) argued disaster management activities such as planning, organizing, staffing, coordinating are often classified as a tiered or scalable level of response, which requires county emergency managers and public safety officials to closely work with disaster volunteers. State, tribal, and local governments, in conjunction with their voluntary organization partners are responsible for ensuring the effective integration and management of volunteers within impacted zones (Wachtendorf, Brown, & Holguin-Veras, 2013, p. 513). For example, researchers Bills, Dodson, Stellman, Southwick, Sharma, Herbert, and Katz (2009); Edwards (2009); and Kapucu (2008) documented public safety and volunteer personnel such as firefighters, law enforcement, emergency medical services, and response stakeholders responded

from local communities should provide needed assistance to save lives and resources in New York City after the 2001 terrorists attacks.

Organized volunteers who respond to emergencies and disasters were considered cost effective because they provide community and psychological support to increase resiliency within their community (UN Volunteers, 2005). The resiliency of a community relies heavily on matching volunteers and charitable organizations to assist in a tiered response of volunteers to assist first responders in accordance with the Hager and Brudney (2011); USDHS (2008b); and USDHS (2008). A tiered response outlined in USDHS (2008a) allowed for the resources within a disaster site to be managed appropriately to prevent duplication and waste. Volunteer organizations such as the American Red Cross, the Salvation Army, and the Catholic Charities USA according to the disaster literature often coordinated their tiered response efforts through volunteer management practices of planning, recruiting, screening, orientation, training, and supporting functional activities of volunteers to be successful (USDHS, 2010). Figure 1 illustrates tiered and scalable response levels required to respond to an emergency or disaster (USDHS, 2008b).

Figure 1. Tiered and Scalable Response for Emergencies or Disasters



From the National Response Framework, by the United States Department of Homeland Security, (2008), FEMA Publication P-682 (Catalog Number 08011-1). Adapted with Permission.

Staffing. Further, staffing within POSDCORB according to (Gulick, 1936) "is the whole personnel function of brining in and training the staff and maintaining favorable conditions of work" (p, 13). Public safety officials and county emergency managers are tasked with recruiting staff and training personnel within their emergency operation centers (EOC) to determine the right person for the right job (Allen & Bryant, 2014, p. 55). Through structured interviews and weighted applications Allen and Bryant argued it is possible to collect biographical data and draft questions concerning one's life and work experience, opinions, values, and attitudes to determine if a staff member or volunteer's knowledge, skills, and abilities are compatible with an organization tenets (p, 56). Staffing in POSDCORB is similar to screening in volunteer management "as an ongoing process designed to identify any person whether paid or unpaid, volunteer or staff ability to perform a specific job or function for their organization" (Volunteer Alberta, n.d, para. 1).

Directing. According to Gulick (1936) the term directing within POSDCORB "is the continuous task of making decisions and embodying them in specific and general orders and instructions and serving as the leader of the enterprise" (p, 13). Public safety officials and county emergency managers are expected to make timely decisions in accordance with their local plans, policies, and procedures such as their; comprehensive emergency management plans (CEMP) and memorandum of agreements (MOA) during an emergency or disaster within their jurisdiction to mitigate the impact of a hazard to save lives and property (HSPD 5, 2003; USDHS, 2008a; USDHS, 2008a). Both the USDHS (2008a) and USDHS (2008b) provided a detailed a holistic approach to emergency management collaboration with guidelines on how to integrate volunteers into disaster preparedness plans.

Nationally, local public safety officials, county emergency managers, and first responders are unable to predict the number of volunteers who will respond to a disaster. Therefore, it is recommended for county emergency managers and public safety officials to automatically plan for volunteers prior to an emergency or disaster (Ministry of Civil Defence & Emergency Management, 2006). The National Voluntary Organizations Active in Disasters (NVOAD) is very active in directing, recruiting, training, and integrating volunteers to respond to disasters (Herzog, 2007, p. 592). Figure 2 displays an example list of National Voluntary Organizations Active in Disasters (NVOAD) national members who are dedicated to assisting individuals and communities in disasters who may appear within a county during or after a disaster (USDHS, 2010).

Figure 2. Examples of National Voluntary Organizations

Adventist Community Services	Mennonite Disaster Service
American Baptist Men	Mercy Medical Airlift
American Radio Relay League, Inc.	National Association of Jewish Chaplains
American Red Cross	National Baptist Convention USA
Billy Graham Rapid Response Team	National Emergency Response Team
Brethren Disaster Ministries	National Organization for Victim Assistance
Catholic Charities USA	Nazarene Disaster Response
City Team Ministries	Presbyterian Disaster Response
Convoy of Hope	REACT International, Inc.
Episcopal Relief and Development	Samaritan's Purse
Feeding America	Save The Children
Feed The Children	Society of St. Vincent DePaul
Foundation of Hope - ACTS World Relief	Southern Baptist Convention/NAMB
Habitat for Humanity International	The Salvation Army

From Developing and Managing Volunteers Independent Study Course 244a, by The United States Department of Homeland Security, 2006. Adapted The material is available online at http://training.fema.gov/emiweb/downloads/IS244.pdf.

Coordinating. The term coordinating within POSDCORB according to (Gulick, 1936) is defined as "the all-important duty of interrelating the various parts of the work" (p, 13). Bringing people and resources together to mitigate and incident is cumbersome and takes enormous planning (Brudney & Gazely, 2009). Gulick argued, in order for organizations to coordinate resources and tasks effectively they have to (a) define the job to be done, (b) provide a director to see if the job is done, (c) determine how the job should be divided, and (d) establish a clear line of authority between the directors and the workers (p, 11). The role of county emergency managers within the disaster cycle is to coordinate resources for responders and various stakeholders within their jurisdiction. However, the role of coordinator is still unclear, undefined and may vary (Brudney & Gazely, 2009; Call, 2010; Gerber & Robinson, 2009; Kapucu, Garayev, & Wang, 2013).

The history of coordinating the integration of volunteers into a disaster within the United States dates back to the bucket brigades during the early years of colonization in America (afirepro.com, n.d). However, preventing and prohibiting volunteers from integrating into a disaster remains an area of concern among practitioners and scholars (Helsloot & Ruitenberg, 2004; St. John & Fuchs, 2002). Volunteers, while an asset in an emergency situation, according to Witesman (2009) "can also increase the demands on public managers" (2009, p. 6). According to USDHS (2010) county emergency managers, against their will, are forced to integrate volunteers into a disaster to support first responders (p. 2.6). White House (2005) posited before a disaster strikes, county emergency managers should be involved in recruiting and training of volunteers to ensure they are integrated effectively during a disaster to assist in the planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and coordinating of resources to save lives and protect property. All preparedness activities within the disaster cycle phase are designed to save lives and to prevent further damage to property (Kapucu, 2008, p. 244). With that being said, similar to National Response Framework (2008) "preparedness activities consist of identifying personnel, training, and equipment for a wide range of potential incidents, and development of jurisdiction-specific plans for coordinating and delivering capabilities when needed for an incident" (p. 9).

Reporting. Reporting within POSDCORB according to (Gulick, 1936) is defined as "keeping those to whom the executive is responsible informed as to what is going on, which thus includes keeping himself and his subordinates informed through records, research and inspection" (p. 13). Communication, information management, and accountability are three critical elements managers are responsible for. One of the primary responsibility of an executive and especially a county emergency manager is providing federal, state, and local officials

accurate information to communicate a common operating picture during a hazardous incident. According to Melton, Walker, and Walker (2010) "the ability to communicate the goals of an organization to subordinates is optimal for organizational success and might translate into a positive working environment in the organization" (p. 142). With that being said, the span of control for reporting may differ from organization to organization due to the type of work assigned to county emergency managers; however, the number should be limited to what the organization consider to be manageable (Gulick, 1936; USDHS, 2008a; USDHS, 2008b). According to the USDHS (2008a);

> The number of resources for which a supervisor is responsible, usually expressed as the ratio of supervisors to individuals. Under the National Incident Management System, an appropriate span of control is between 1:3 and 1:7, with optimal being 1:5, or between 1:8 and 1:10 for many large-scale law enforcement operations. (p. 147)

Budgeting. Finally, budgeting within POSDCORB according to (Gulick, 1936) is the "with all that goes with budgeting in the form of fiscal planning, accounting and control" (p. 13). County officials often give their county emergency manager executives fiscal responsibility to manage their day to day and future activities based on the number of previous disasters; however according to Kreuger, Jennings and Kendra (2009) "it should be obvious that some correlation exists between disaster management and funding yet little research has been conducted on emergency management budgeting" (p. 3). For this study reporting and budgeting within POSDCORB will not be discussed. Within this study POSDCORB provided the theory for this qualitative study. However, the concepts and global function of disaster management and volunteer management were presented to better understand how disaster management concepts:

preparedness, response, mitigation, and recovery; in conjunction with the concepts of volunteer management: recruiting, screening, orienting, and training connect to the theoretical concepts of POSDCORB.

Case Studies

Researchers Bernard & Ryan (2010); Stake (1995); and Yin (2009) posited case studies are real world examples of key points, and actions which bring credibility to a chosen topic. Practitioners such as Blanchard (2008) argued "a disaster, whether natural, human, or technological is an event which requires resources beyond the capability of the local community require a multiple-agency response" (Blanchard, 2008, p. 275). With the increasing number of disasters during the last decade, local, state, and federal governments are increasing their response to disasters where volunteers played a vital role (Clukey, 2010; Worrall, 2012). Along with the benefits of involving volunteers, there are also challenges; some real and some perceived (Wachtendorf, Brown, and Holguin-Veras, 2013). The September 11, 2001, terrorists attack on the World Trade Centers in New York City and Hurricane Katrina in 2005 were two major disasters which provided specific examples of the challenges county emergency managers and public officials are faced with by using volunteers. Therefore the two case studies chosen to provide examples of volunteers in disasters for this study were the September 11th Terrorists Attack and Hurricane Katrina.

September 11th Terrorists Attack

Based on 9/11 Commission Report (2004) the most unprecedented terrorist attack in the history of the United States occurred on September 11, 2001, when the following four domestic flights; United flight 93, United flight 77, United flight 175, and American Airlines flight 11

were hijacked by terrorists and crashed in Pennsylvania, the Pentagon, and into World Trade Center Towers 7 and 14; all flights were headed to California. At approximately 8:46 a.m., American Airlines Boeing flight 11 crashed into World Trade Center 7 North Tower, followed by a second aircraft United flight 175 which crashed into the South Tower 14, minutes later (History.com, 2012; Reissman & Howard, 2008). Due to the intense heat from 10,000 gallons of burning fuel, the north and south towers collapsed killing a total of 2,665 people. The death toll included the following; 2,251 building occupants; 343 New York City Firefighters; 23 New York City Police Officers; 37 Port Authority officers; 81passengers, and 11 crew members; the highest death toll in Americas' history (Argothy, 2003; Reissman & Howard, 2008; 9/11 Commission Report, 2004).

According to Tierney (2003) in 2001, volunteers from around the country responded to Ground Zero in Manhattan, New York; thousands of volunteers, firefighters, police officers, construction workers, search and rescue personnel, and their rescue dogs provided assistance in looking for survivors (para. 3). It was reported to the New York City Office of Emergency Management (NYCOEM) volunteers gathered in front of Pier 40 along the Hudson River and created a temporary site to distribute items and equipment to emergency response personnel at ground zero without being registered with neither New York City Office of Emergency Management (NYCOEM) or with an affiliated organization (Melloan, 2001; Voorhees, 2008).

In addition to local support providing supplies and equipment for the removal of debris, medical support organizations and individuals from throughout the United States came together to assist. For example, the National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) of the Center for Disease Control conducted medical screening, physical exams, mental health

screenings, and chest x-rays for workers at the disaster site (Bills et al., 2009). According to Orloff (2001), "volunteers demonstrated altruistic and valor behavior by creating an impromptu triage site for those who needed minor medical care at the Park Avenue Armory and Stuyvesant High School in Lower Manhattan, across the street from the twin towers" (p. xxii). Also, a prominent nationally known disaster volunteer organization, Disaster Psychiatry Outreach (DPO) provided mental health care during the recovery period from September 12th through November 20, 2001. According to Pandya, Katz, Smith, Ng, Tafoya, Holmes, & North (2010):

> The DPO is a non-profit organization founded in 1998 to provide volunteer psychiatric care to people affected by disasters and to promote education and research in support of this mission. Based in New York City, it developed its expertise and protocols across several disasters prior to 9/11. The explicit goal of DPO is to supplement existing mental health counseling available from the American Red Cross. (p. 2)

At 9:38 a.m., hijacked commercial airliner United flight 77 crashed into the United States Pentagon located in Arlington County, Virginia. The death toll at the Pentagon consisted of 189 people, which consisted of 64 people aboard the airliner and 125 people inside the Pentagon. Volunteer organizations, such as the American Red Cross, the Salvation Army, and others were instrumental in bolstering the morale of first responders and communities emotional wellbeing throughout the National Capital Region (Eversburg, 2002; 9/11 Commission Report, 2004). Finally, United Airlines flight 93 crashed in an open field in Shanksville, Pennsylvania, taking the lives of 39 people, which consisted of two pilots and five flight attendants, and 32 passengers. Today, it is unclear exactly how many passengers willingly volunteered to help prevent the four hijackers from carrying out their mission to fly United Airlines flight 93 into the White House; however they will be remembered. The response to United Airlines flight 93 from local first responders, similar to other responses on September

11th, left many volunteers wanting to help. Approximately, four years later, America as a nation faced another challenge with a devastating natural hazard name Hurricane Katrina (2005).

Hurricane Katrina

On August 25, 2005, a tropical storm named Katrina by the National Hurricane Center developed into a category one hurricane on the Saffir-Simpson Hurricane Scale. Hurricane Katrina made landfall over Florida and eventually developed into a category five hurricane on August 28th over Louisiana. The widespread effects of high winds and storm surges of 15 to 19 ft. in eastern New Orleans, St. Bernard Parish, and Plaquemines Parish; storm surges of 10 to 14 ft. in western New Orleans along the southern shores of Lake Pontchartrain caused approximately 400,000 people to be displaced and 1,833 fatalities throughout the gulf coast; Louisiana, Mississippi, Texas, and Florida. Katrina's total damage is estimated at $108 billion dollars (Elledge, Boatright, Woodson, Clinkenbeard & Brand, 2007; Knabb, Rhome, & Brown, 2005).

Given the extensive amount of physical damage and economic strife, Hurricane Katrina triggered the need for an unprecedented amount of volunteers' and workers' response to the Gulf Coast region of the United States by the American Red Cross, totaling approximately 73,000 new volunteers (Swygard & Stafford, 2009; Villagran, Wittenberg-Lyles & Garza, 2006). The men and women who volunteer to support the state and national efforts are often times untrained but willing to help. For profit, not for profit, faith-based organizations, and even college students contributed to the response and recovery efforts of the Gulf Coast (Clukey, 2010; Lemieux, Plummer, Richardson, Simon, & AI, 2010; Smith, 2012). According to the White House (2005), the North American Mission Board sent 9,000 members of the Southern Baptist Convention

from 41 states to serve in Texas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, and Georgia. Approximately 14,000 Citizen Corps volunteers supported the response and the recovery efforts around the country. Local churches established hundreds of "pop up" shelters to house storm victims (White House, 2005).

According to White House (2005):

> Nearly every national, regional, and local charitable organization in the United States and many from abroad, contributed aid to the victims of the storm. Trained volunteers from member organizations of the National Volunteer Organizations Active in Disaster (NVOAD), the American Red Cross, Medical Reserve Corps (MRC), Community Emergency Response Team (CERT), as well as untrained volunteers from across the United States, deployed to Louisiana, Mississippi, and Alabama. (para, 69)

The federal government recognized the efforts of volunteers during the response and recovery from Hurricane Katrina and classified the actions and efforts of nongovernmental agencies as extraordinary (Federal Response to Hurricane Katrina, 2006, p. 63).

Gaps in Research and Recommended Bridges

After a review of the literature, there was little to no research provided specifically on how county emergency managers recruited, trained, or integrate volunteers into disasters. This makes it difficult to understand local county emergency managers planning and preparedness efforts to influence the use of volunteers. Therefore, there is a significant gap in disaster management literature surrounding the use of volunteers during a disaster by county emergency managers. As previously stated in Chapter 1, Henstra (2010) and Pinkowski (2008) argued disaster management literature abounds with public safety officials' failures to effectively plan for and manage a large number of volunteers. It should be noted most of the literature found concerning integrating volunteers in disasters were about international disasters; and how

volunteers respond and assisted in response and in the recovery of their community (Fackler, 2011; Shieh & Deng, 2011; Tucker, 2011).

Helsloot and Ruitenberg (2004) explained volunteers play a critical role in saving lives and protecting property during and after a disaster. Given the limited resources available at the federal, state, and local levels it is imperative to become successful at recruiting, training, and integrating volunteers in disasters or emergencies within a community. Success, however, will require new levels of cooperation and commitment to partnership among the volunteer sector, professional first-responders and all levels of government. While this may be a challenging goal, the priority and long-term value of this work cannot be denied.

Summary

Chapter 2 provided a review of the literature on administrative theory functions POSDCORB: planning, organizing, staffing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting. Two case studies were presented to highlight the uniqueness of volunteerism and the type of disasters which can occur and solicit the need to recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for an emergency or disaster. POSDCORB provided the human resource framework to address how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate staff for a disaster. However, the disaster management and volunteer management literature fail significantly short of the theoretical concepts to understand the vast amount of proactive and reactive activities required by county emergency managers to recruit, train, and integrate volunteer for a disaster. Chapter 3 outlines the details of the research design of the current study's methodology. The study population, sample, data collection procedures, and analysis in addition to, credibility, and confirmability and ethical issues.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to examine the research question "how county emergency managers' recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster." This chapter describes the evaluation of practical research design, background description for a case study methodology, the researcher's philosophy, the study population and sample, data collection and analysis procedures. Finally, this chapter outlined the ethical considerations, credibility and the confirmability of data and a summary.

Evaluation of Research Methodologies

For this study both quantitative and qualitative research strategies were considered however, a qualitative research strategy was selected allowed for the breadth and depth of participants' perspectives to be captured. Within the research community both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies are well known and accepted research methodologies (Arghode, 2012; Hoe & Hoare, 2012; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Nuttall, Shankar, & Beverland, 2011). According to Arghode (2012) "while quantitative research is rooted in the positivist paradigm, qualitative research is based on phenomenological/interpretivist paradigm" (As cited in Firestone, 1987). Nuttall, Shankar, and Beverland (2011) argued qualitative research designs allows researchers to investigate and understand cultures, tell stories, and to provide a deep and often contextual, emotional understanding of peoples' motivations and desires (2011). Therefore

the researcher selected a qualitative research methodology to allow the breadth and depth of the participants' perspectives to be captured.

Qualitative Case Study

Qualitative case studies have a history in social science research, which crosses several different disciplines (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2009). A research design guides the investigator in the process of collecting and analyzing data. Research design is also characterized as a blueprint of the research to enable the researcher to identify solutions to four problems: whom to study, what to observe, when to make observations and how to collect data (as cited by Philliber, Schwab, & Samsloss, 1980). After an evaluation of the research designs, combined with a thorough understanding of this study's research problem, a case study was the best design for this study. Stake (1995) argued that a case study is a strategy of inquiry which explores a program, event, activity, or process action of one or more individuals. Qualitative case studies generally involve the use of multiple data collection strategies. For instance, interviews, and existing documents may all be needed to converge on a specific set of facts (Yin, 1981a and 1981b). Typically, such issues as how a decision was made will involve evidence from all of these types of sources. Each type requires a different data collection strategy, and the merging of evidence from all sources also must occur in a systematic manner.

For this study, a qualitative case study permitted inquiry to understand functional elements of POSDCORB; the concepts of disaster management and volunteer management from the perspective of county emergency managers on recruiting, training, and integrating volunteers for a disaster to be examined (Creswell, 2009; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; McGloin, 2008; Merriam, 2009). Yin (1984) defined the case study method as "an empirical inquiry which

investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used" (p. 23). Leedy and Ormrod (2010), argued "a case study methodology is used to gather data relative to a single individual program, or event, for the purpose of learning more about an unknown or poorly understood situation" (p. 108). Yin also argued qualitative case study allows complex issues or objects to be understood by detailing experience to what is already known through previous research. Social scientists in particular use qualitative case studies to examine contemporary real-life situations and provide the basis for the application of ideas and extension of methods (2009).

In support, many well-known case study researchers, such as Tesch (1990), Stake (1995) and Yin (1984) argued for the viability of case study research and even provide techniques for organizing and conducting case study research. Researchers often use a single case study design or a multiple case study design for organizing and conducting case study research (Yin, 2009). However, in opposition several researchers Giacomini (2001), Mays and Pope (2000) argued the case study methodology does not provide a way to establish reliability or generality of the findings; however, Gelo, Braakmann and Benetka (2008) argued the academic literature is rich with researchers who used a case study design to study real life situations, issues.

This study used a qualitative case study design with a single unit of analysis; county emergency managers. According to Yin, a single case study (unit of analysis) is the study of one person or one particular group. Multiple case studies are the study of more than one person or people within one or more groups (p. 29).Therefore, the research problem was to study how one group (county emergency managers) recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster. While

many volunteers are trained, many are untrained and not adequately prepared to work in a disaster environment (Orloff, 2011; United Nations, 2005; Victor, 2003). Reissman and Howard (2008); Shieh and Deng (2011) argued emergency management officials routinely do not effectively integrate volunteers into a disaster event. The main unit of analysis for this case study is the county emergency managers who are responsible for disaster management planning and volunteer management within their jurisdiction. The use of the case study method for this study allowed for an in-depth description and analysis of a single entity, the unit of study (county emergency managers) within the boundary of one particular program volunteer management.

Researchers' Philosophy

Within this study the functional elements of POSDCORB and their applicability to the study were examined through the philosophical lens of social constructivism. Social constructivism according to Creswell (2009) "is built on formed interactions of others and their historical and cultural norms which influence individuals' lives and decisions" (p. 8). By viewing this study from a social constructivist perspective allowed for a better understanding on how county emergency managers perceived and apply recruiting, training, and the integration of volunteers for a disaster.

As an emergency manager for the Department of Veteran Affairs with over 10 years of experience in emergency management, the researchers possess experience preparing and planning, responding to, and managing disasters. Given the researchers' background and training in preparing and planning for incidents and emergencies, there is an understanding of the need to plan for, organize, staff, and direct volunteers before, during, and after an incident. As an emergency manager the researchers' experience contributed to the philosophy of the researcher.

However due to the researchers' lack of involvement with county emergency managers' disaster planning, and management of volunteers before and during a disaster, allowed for a strategy of inquiry to examine county emergency managers' perspectives of recruiting, training, and integrating volunteers for a disaster. Nonetheless, in order to conduct this study the researcher had to refrain interjecting personal thoughts and views based on prior experience into the study by being objective. A brief discussion of the importance of social constructivism to this study is in the next section.

Social Constructivism

Social constructivism emphasizes the development of social learning principles such as; interactions, relationships, activities; and prior knowledge which impact learners within their environment through the use of tools, textbooks, friends, teachers, and prior social and cultural concerns (Schreiber & Valle, 2013). According to Andrews (2012) "social constructionism originated as an attempt to come to terms with the nature of reality. It emerged some thirty years ago and has its origins in sociology and has been associated with the post-modern era in qualitative research" (para. 2). In addition, Andrews argued "social constructionism accepts that there is an objective reality. It is concerned with how knowledge is constructed and understood; it has therefore an epistemological not an ontological perspective" (para. 25). For this reason, the researcher served as the learner during the collecting of the records, documents, and face to face interviews to gain a better understanding of the information provided by each research participant when answering the nine interview questions located in Appendix B. Therefore, within this study the researcher used a social constructivist approach to achieve theoretical sensitivity while interviewing county emergency managers to better understand the use of

volunteers in a disaster, and the value of volunteers within a county in response to a disaster (Papineau, 2012).

Study Population and Sample

Study Population

The study population for this qualitative case study consisted of 64 current county emergency managers from the state of New York County Map. Each county within the state of New York has one county emergency manager (N= 64) who is responsible for emergency management, which includes a plan to incorporate disaster volunteers during a disaster. The researcher obtained a list of potential participants for this study by accessing the state of New York publically available at: http://www.dhses.ny.gov/oem/contact/#HQ. The rationale for selecting the study population was based on the three reasons (a) accessibility to New York State county emergency managers were cost effective and convenient, (b) county emergency managers are responsible for the coordination and management of the resources to manage emergencies and/or disasters within their counties, (c) local disasters require county emergency mangers to be proactive in their disaster planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and coordinating resources.

From January 2010 to December 2011, 17 Presidential-declared disasters and 22 State-declared disasters such as earthquakes, hurricanes, snow storms, and attempted terrorist attacks occurred within one or more counties within the state of New York (USDHS, 2013a). New York State has numerous air, land, and sea access routes, which make the state vulnerable to natural and human-made disasters (USDH, 2011d). Therefore, it was appropriate to conduct this study in the state of New York and to interview New York State county emergency managers.

Sample Population

Yin (2009) recommends "6-10 cases of the population to replicate the findings" (p. 54). Based on the recommendations from Yin (2009); Mertens (2010); and Neuman (2006), the sample population for this study consisted of 10 New York State county emergency managers. To narrow the sample from 64 county emergency mangers to a sample population of 10 potential participants, convenient sampling was used. Assigned to each New York State county emergency manager was a unique number P01 through P64. Numbers P01 thru P64 were placed into a fishbowl and all counties were selected and ranked by order of selection. All selected numbers and corresponding names were written down in order of selection. The first 10 counties that agreed to participate in the study were selected to be the study sample. If any time the selected potential participants could not participate or at some point a participant withdrew from the study; the next numbered county emergency manager to agree to participate in this study would have been selected.

Further, to obtain official agreement to participate in this study the researcher sent each potential participant an email requesting each participant to provide in writing on their organizational letterhead a signed and dated letter stating (a) their willingness to voluntarily participate in this study, and (b) approval to conduct the one-on-one, face-to-face interview in a secure office at their emergency management county office, (site approval). Further, participants were requested to fax or email their letter on organizational letterhead (Appendix I). This process was completed to ensure informed consent from the study population could be obtained. No collection of data was obtained, only a letter stating the willingness of potential participants to volunteer and participate for this study. The potential participants' identity remained secured and

confidential. Once the Capella's Institutional Review Board IRB approved the study, an email was sent to 10 potential individuals to schedule and face to face interview.

Field Test

The interview guide consisted of nine open ended questions which were field-tested by four subject matter experts and one qualitative researcher. The field test was performed by contacting subject matter experts whose expertise aligned with the study population in emergency management. Each subject matter expert had a minimum of 10 years' working experience in the field of emergency management. A majority of respondents reported education beyond high school (See Table 4) in Chapter 4. Each subject matter expert received an email a copy of the interview questions, requesting their feedback of the wording of the questions, the sequence of the questions, and the content of the questions as stated. The experts were asked to provide their feedback and recommendations to improve the interview guide to align with the research question, "How do county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster?" within five business days of receipt of email.

The interview guide was modified per the input from the subject matter experts. Six questions remained unchanged but questions one, two, and six were changed slightly to improve the wording and prevent confusion. The experts made the following recommendations to three questions; for question one, the word "you' was removed from the sentence to make the sentence grammatically correct. Question two, the phrase "alongside" was removed and replaced with the word "with" to prevent confusing the research participants. Question six was changed by deleting the phrase "please explain." Last, added to the interview guide was a working definition

for the term “volunteer.” The recommendations from the subject matter experts improved the interview guide.

Data Collection Procedures

According to Yin (2009) case study evidence can come from many sources such as; documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant-observation, and physical artifacts. For this qualitative case study four data collection methods were used to examine the perspectives of the New York State county emergency managers to answer the study’s research question “How do county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster?” consisted of (a) one-on-one face-to-face interviews, (b) self-developed Interview Questionnaire (c) secondary data such as documents, after action reports, literature and pamphlets provided by the participant and (d) field notes to obtain rich research data.

Interviews

Potential participants were scheduled for one-on-one, face-to-face, semi-structured interviews. The interviews occurred at each participants’ local county emergency management office in a private and secure area (site), mutually agreed upon by both the participant and the researcher. The private secured setting provided the needed privacy for the researcher to conduct a semi-structured interview. Semi-structured interviews are the most common type of interviews used in qualitative case studies where the researcher is free to use predetermined questions for collecting data (Doody & Noonan, 2013, p. 30). Each participant interview conducted lasted between 45 to 60 minutes. Each interview began with (a) the researcher introduction, (b) the purpose of the interview, (c) building of a rapport; and (d) the signing of the confidentiality and privacy and consent form. Each participant was asked to sign and date the consent form prior to

being asked any interview question and provided a copy of the consent form; the researcher kept a copy of the signed documents. Participants were informed that the study would not mention any participants' name(s) or any organizations name to assure confidentiality. A unique identifier was used for each participant on the interview transcripts so that the individual participant remained confidential.

If, at any time during the interview, participants had requested to stop answering questions, the interview would have been stopped immediately. A list of mental health professionals within the participants' community was available for each participant during the interview. All interviews were audio-taped with the permission of the participants. Two audio tape recorders were used, so if one did not work there was a backup.

Interview Questionnaire

A nine question interview questionnaire (Appendix B) guided each unstructured interview to allow for a dialogue to occur between the participant and the interviewer. The interviewer and the participant engaged in open discourse throughout the interview process. Each participant was encouraged to provide open discourse to allow the participant to relax and answer the interview questions openly and honestly (Doody & Noonan, 2013). A list of probing questions was available (Appendix C) to use during the interview to elicit additional information from the participants, should the participants had a hard time answering any of the interview questions.

Documents

Documents such as after action reports from a community exercise, literature, and pamphlets were requested from each respondent to (a) corroborate and augment evident from

other sources and (b) provide better insight on "how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers during a disaster." Next, federal government documents such as: United States Department of Homeland Security Target Capability List, National Incident Management System, National Response Framework, and Homeland Security Presidential Directive-5 were retrieved from the Federal Emergency Management website located at http://www.fema.gov provided a better understanding of the federal government's guidance for county emergency managers. Finally, documents such as; the New York State Article 2-B and New York State Homeland Security Strategy retrieved from the NYS Department of Homeland Security and Emergency Services website located at http://www.dhses.ny.gov provided a clear perspective of the expectations and training offered by the NYS Department of Homeland Security and Emergency Services (NYSDHSES) for county emergency managers. Merriam (2009) argued "documents are, in fact, a ready-made source of data easily accessible to use as a path to inquiry that can only be observed through direct observation and interviewing" (p. 141).

Field Notes

During each interview field notes were developed to supplement the structured interview to obtain additional information such as: nonverbal cues, body language, physical actions, and demeanor of each participant during the interviews as appropriate. The field notes format also allowed the researcher to conveniently reconstruct key words, phrases, themes, and patterns stated during the interview. Each participant was very cordial, dressed professionally, and appeared to be in good spirits. Participants during the interview were seated across a medium-sized table while engaged in casual conversation. Significant comments provided by the participants were recorded on a note pad by the researcher to expound on during the interview.

Researchers such as, Doody and Noonan (2013) argued "note taking during the interview has the potential to disrupt the interview if not done correctly" (p. 31). Field notes constructed after the interview began with the time, place, and purpose of the study interview (Merriam, 2009). All participants were assured privacy and confidentiality.

Data Security

Once all interviews were completed, a file was constructed for each interview. The following information was placed in each file: (a) letter of participation emailed to each participant, (b) informed consent agreement, (c) field notes or any additional notes made by the participant during the interview, (d) the transcription of the interview constructed by the researcher, along with any additional information the participant provided during and after the interview. The data was stored in a locked file cabinet in the office of the home of the researcher. The researcher is the only person having access to the files to maintain confidentiality.

Data Analysis Procedures

The goal of this research study was not to explain how or why county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster; but to examine how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster. Additionally, the goal of this research study was not to trace intricate patterns or chain of events over an extended period of time. In fact, nor was it the intent of the researcher to analyze multiple cases. For this study, all documents provided by the participants and interviews were coded using the participant's unique identifier (P01 thru P10) to ensure confidentiality. All interviews were transcribed within one week after the interview to minimize the potential for inaccuracies (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2009). A thorough reading and re-reading of the interview transcripts,

secondary documents, and field notes provided the opportunity to analyze data. Qualitative data analysis according to Bernard and Ryan (2010); Braun and Clarke (2006); Merriam (2009); and Tesch (1990) is the process of examining and re-examining text for themes and patterns within a narrative.

Thematic Analysis

Thematic analysis was selected for this study to identify, analyze, and report patterns and themes derived from data (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 6). Researchers Braun and Clarke also posited "thematic analysis is independent of a theoretical approach which provides a flexible approach to analyzing complex data rich in detail" (p. 5). Further, "themes or patterns within data can be identified in one or two primary ways by using (a) an inductive or bottom up approach or (b) by using a theoretical or deductive top down approach" (p. 12). According to Bernard and Ryan (2010) "themes come both from data (an inductive approach) and from our prior theoretical understanding of whatever phenomenon we are studying (an a priori, or deductive approach)" (p. 55). To conduct the qualitative analysis a revised version of Braun and Clarke's (2006) six steps thematic analysis was selected (See Table 1).

Table 1

The Thematic Analysis

Phases	Steps in current study	Analytical steps in current study
Phase 1: Familiarizing yourself with your data	• Read and re-read the documents, notes, and interview transcripts. • Writing down ideas and potential coding schemes, and continue through the entire coding/analysis process.	Actively read and re-read the data collected.
Phase 2: Generating initial 'codes'	• Review the initial list of notes, codes, and ideas generated from the data. • Develop initial codes from the data.	Identify which codes of the data that appears interesting and can be easily linked to the research question.
Phase 3: Searching for themes	• Review the list of initial codes generated. • Sort the different codes into potential groups (themes).	Determine how different codes come together to form an overarching theme. • Determine if there is enough data to support the initial theme.
Phase 4: Reviewing themes	• Develop and refine the set of initial themes by reading the collated data for each theme to see where they appear to form a pattern.	• Decide whether the initial themes should be combined or divided into one or more themes. • Determine if the themes are clear and fit together while at the same time distinct.
Phase 5: Defining and naming themes	• Define and further refine and analyze the final themes.	Determine the essence of the theme and clearly define their applicability to the study.
Phase 6: Producing the Report	• Write up the findings of the analysis.	Provide a concise, coherent, logical, non-repetitive, and interesting account of the data. Include and account of the documents, records and interview transcripts.

The initial steps for this qualitative case study consisted of the Braun and Clarke's (2006) six steps thematic analysis. First, the researcher became increasingly familiar with data by

reading and re-reading the data collected such as: documents, notes, and interview transcripts, research question and the theoretical concepts of POSDCORB to generate initial codes. Next, it was important to eliminate non-relevant data and evaluate relevant data. According to Namey, Guest, Thairu, and Johnson (2007) the objective of data reduction was to eliminate data not relevant to the analysis at hand—or to identify data relevant to the study to reveal patterns (p. 139). For example, the baseline pattern of planning was identified between the theoretical elements of POSDCORB aligned with all the interview questions, 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9 (See Table 2). The theoretical concepts and principals with an asterisk were not applicable to this study.

Table 2

Data Reduction Table

Research Question	Theory Administrative Theory	Interview Question
How Do County Emergency Managers Recruit, Train, and Integrate Volunteers for Disasters?	Planning	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9
	Organizing	2,35,6,7,9
	Staffing	2,8,9
	Directing	4,5,6,7,9
	Coordinating	2,34,5,6,7,8,9
	*Reporting	No questions were asked on reporting or Budgeting
	*Budgeting	

Next, within initial codes were generated from data collected from the: documents, notes, and interview transcripts, research question, and the theoretical concepts of POSDCORB, disaster management, and volunteer management. Initial codes emerged from identifying key terms, phrases, patterns, and segments of words highlighted from the data collected were written on the margins of the interview transcripts, field notes, and secondary documents such as

government documents and reports provided by the participants and transposed to an excel spreadsheet (Bernard & Ryan, 2010; Braun & Clarke, 2006; Merriam, 2009; Tesch, 1990). Once familiar with the data collected and the initial codes transposed to the Excel spreadsheet the next step was to proceed to search for additional themes. The review of initial codes and search for additional themes were performed concomitantly. It was determined there was enough data to support overlapping and combining of the initial themes.

Initial themes developed were refined by re-reading the collated data for each potential theme and placed in an excel spreadsheet to see if data appeared to form a pattern or not. Themes identified were once again reviewed, revised, and grouped accordingly to capture the essence of the themes to clearly connect (a) the research question, (b) theoretical concepts, (c) interview questions, and (d) the research participants' answers to demonstrate their applicability to the study. An example of the axial coding is displayed in a matrix to provide a concise, coherent, logical, non-repetitive, and interesting account of the data (See Table 3), (Bernard & Ryan 2010; Tesch, 1990). Data analyzed were coded manually by the researcher. Finally, producing the report is discussed in detail within the results section of Chapter 4.

Table. 3

Coding Framework

Research Question	Interview Question	Data	Segmented Words and Phrases	Initial Codes
How do county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster?	How do you or your organization recruit for volunteers specifically for disasters?	Respondent (P01): For disasters we don't; I can't honestly say we try to recruit for volunteers we use the fire and EMS services… Our recruits often recruit their friends and people within their circle	I can't honestly say we try to recruit for volunteers we use the fire and EMS services. Our recruits often recruit their friends and people within their circle	1. We don't recruit directly 2. We recruit through referrals 3.Teams recruit their members 4. Recruit through individual agencies 5. Flyers, word of mouth
		Respondent (P03): umm, we don't, is really the quick answer.	We don't, is really the quick answer.	
		Respondent (P04) teams like our medical reserve corps and other persons…are recruited by word of mouth, face book, or social media	teams like our medical reserve corps and other persons…are recruited by word of mouth, face book, or social media	
		Respondent (P05): other teams like our HAZMAT they recruit specifically by targeting people with the skills that would benefit the team	Recruit specifically by targeting people with the skills that would benefit the team.	
		Respondent (P06): We actually have an active recruitment campaign to recruit volunteer fire fighters and EMS personnel; we do television spots, the program sponsor students in the community college for tuition	We actually have an active recruitment campaign to recruit volunteer fire fighters and EMS personnel;	
		Respondent (P07): On the county website no, each individual agency does their own outreach.	Individual agencies recruit does their own outreach	
		Respondent (P08): We have a flyer and we do public health fairs and we do recruitment and preparedness education at those events and we get some recruitments a lot of it is word of mouth.	Flyers, word of mouth	

Note. The researcher collected the words and phrases from the secondary documents and transcripts provided by the research participants. From "Analyzing Qualitative Data: Systematic Approaches" Bernard, R., and Ryan, W. 2010. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Document Analysis

Within this study documents and field notes were examined to provide a better understanding of (a) how the functional elements of POSDCORB (planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and coordinating, reporting, and budgeting) were used by county emergency managers to answer the research question "How do county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster, and (b) to identify patterns and themes. To conduct document analysis of the documents obtained by the researcher content analysis was used to analyze the documents received from the county emergency managers. Latent analysis was used to analyze field notes which were generated by the researcher during the structured interviews.

Documents

Documents were examined using content analysis. Hsieh and Shannon (2005) defined content analysis as "a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns" (p.1278). Mayring (2000) furthering Hsieh and Shannon definition, held content analysis of qualitative data involved empirical, methodological controlled analysis communication by using content analytic rules and a step by step process, with no regard for quantification. Therefore, the following secondary documents; after action reports from a community exercise, literature, and pamphlets were provided by county emergency managers. Government documents such as: United States Department of Homeland Security Target Capability List, National Incident Management System, National Response Framework, and Homeland Security Presidential Directive-5, New York State Article 2-B and New York State Homeland Security Strategy were analyzed using Bernard and Ryan (2010) content analysis' seven steps; (a) formulate research

question, (b) select questions, (c) create a set of codes (themes) aligned with the research question, (d) pretext questions, such as this study's field text, (e) apply codes to study participants, (f) create case by case variable matrix from texts and codes and, (g) analyze the matrix using appropriate level of analysis. All documents were analyzed to identify themes, patterns, and to provide answers to the study's research question "How county emergency mangers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster." Merriam (2009) argued "documents are, in fact, a ready-made source of data easily accessible to use as a path to inquiry that can only be observed through direct observation and interviewing" (p. 141).

Field Notes

Field notes were used as a self-check to be elaborated upon the analysis of the interview. This study used latent coding to mark the paragraphs of the participants' key words and phrases of the field notes. Coding of respondents words and phrases allowed for themes to be developed. Coding is an interpretive technique which help organize data while allowing for the interpretation of data. Most coding requires the analyst to read data which involves interpretation; reading for meaning, taking context into account, and identifying the presence of constructs or themes (Bernard & Ryan, 2010). Further, coding of the field notes provided the researcher the ability to find themes in text, even if certain words were not be apparent and are not there (2010). In addition, for this study, analysis consisted of randomly selected paragraphs of text to ensure all themes were captured. However, once the themes captured reach saturation and no new themes were forthcoming the sampling was terminated (Merriam, 2009; Ryan, 2010).

Credibility and Confirmability

During this study to affirm credibility, multiple data sources, triangulation, and checks of data were used. To create credibility and confirmability the researcher used a clear systematic well-documented process. Trochim (2006) argued "the credibility criterion involves establishing that the results of qualitative research are credible or believable from the perspective of the participant in the research" (para, 3). In this study to insure confirmability, information was provided to allow for others to judge the adequacy of the processes used within the case study and to determine if the findings were derived accurately from the data. Robson (1993) argued confirmability is congruent with objectivity. However, according to Trochim (2006) in order to establish credibility and confirmability, the collection of data and its results had to be accurate, believable and replicable.

For this study, a thorough analysis of the qualitative data from the participants' interviews was conducted. To establish credibility and confirmability four operational measures included: a) strictly focused on the research question when conducting the study, b) maintained a chain of evidence by meticulously documenting the interviews with each research participant, c) reviewed thoroughly participants answers, d) frequently referenced the volunteer management and donations target capability list developed by the Federal Emergency Management Agency (USDHS, 2011b) (Appendix G) to better understand the use of volunteers in a disaster (USDHS, 2011c).

Informed Consent and Ethical Considerations

This research was conducted in compliance with Capella University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) as an Exempt Category Two Research. All necessary ethical precautions

were taken to ensure the integrity of the research process and that no harm would come to any participant in this study. County emergency managers were invited by email to willingly volunteer to participate in this research study. The invitation letter requested participants provide in writing on their organizational letterhead, which included a) their willingness to voluntarily participate in this study, and, b) approval to conduct the interview at their county emergency management office, in a secure office.

The participant invitation email outlined the purpose of the study, the researchers' contact information, the committee chairs' contact information, and Capella University's IRB approval to conduct the study. Participants were informed in writing participation is voluntary and their identity remained anonymous. There will be no identification of any individual names or organizations in this study. All precautions were taken to protect the participants' identities and no names of any organization or study participants were released or published. Participants were informed the term "county emergency manager" would be used in the study but no identification of their organization, or any individual will be published. Only the researcher knows the names of the participants and has access to the interview data, notes and interview tapes. Participants were coded using a numeric system P01 thru P10 when referring to their answers to the interview questions.

An informed consent form and a copy of the interview guide questions were provided via email with the initial invitation email to each participant prior to the interview. The informed consent form outlined the risks/benefits of the research, procedures of the research, the purpose of the research, voluntary nature of the research participation, the participants' right to stop the interview at any time, and procedures used to protect the confidentiality of the participants. The

researcher took every precaution to ensure the research was conducted ethically and morally and that no harm comes to any participant.

All participants signed and dated the informed consent form at the beginning of the interview after the researcher went over the form. Once the participant signed and dated the consent form, a copy was provided to the participant each participant and a copy is being maintained in the researchers file for seven years. In order to participate in the study, the participant had to sign and date the informed consent form. Potential participants who did not wish to sign the informed consent form were not able to participate in the study and the interview was terminated.

All files (paper and electronic to include all flash drives, audio recordings, hard copy files, notes and papers) were protected and placed into a locked file cabinet in a secure office where only this the researcher has access. Only the researcher has access to the computer password, which was memorized. The researcher will keep all electronic and paper files for seven years and after seven years destroy all paper and electronic files by burning. All precautions and destruction of data will be in accordance with Capella University and federal policies after seven years.

Summary

In summary, the proposed study used a qualitative case study to examine county emergency managers' perspectives of recruiting, training, and integrating volunteers for a disaster to answer the research question "How do county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster." A qualitative research design, allowed a form of inquiry, which centered attention on the individual meaning and the importance of understanding the

intricacy of the circumstances (Creswell, 2009; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Merriam, 2009). This section explained the step-by-step procedures of the research design. The researcher's philosophy, research design, methodology, data collection, analysis procedures, informed consent, and ethical concerns were addressed. The next chapter will display the data processing and analysis procedures and present the findings.

CHAPTER 4. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to examine and answer the study's research question "How do county emergency managers' recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster?" This study used a qualitative case study design with a single unit of analysis; county emergency managers. The researcher used several data sources such as: face to face semi-structured interviews, government documents, after action reports from a community exercise, literature, and pamphlets provided by county emergency managers for volunteers (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Merriam, 2009; Yin, 1984, 2009). A review of administrative theory function elements known as POSDCORB as detailed in Chapter 2 provided the theoretical framework for county executives use of planning, organizing, staffing, directing and coordinating measures to manage personnel. Therefore, the theoretical elements and principals of POSDCORB were used to better understand and answer the research problem "How county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrates volunteers for a disaster."

There is no universal accepted strategy to manage and integrate volunteers in disasters Drabek (2007) and Alexander (2007) therefore; the findings from this study should expand disaster management research on recruiting, integrating, and training volunteers for disasters. This chapter is organized as follows: (a) descriptive statistics of the respondents', (b) data management, (c) data collection, (d) data analysis, (e) study results, (f) biases of the researcher, and (g) summary.

Descriptive Statistics of Respondents

The target population for this study were county emergency managers located in the state of New York (*N*=64). Yin (2009) recommends "6-10 cases of the population to replicate the findings" (p. 54). This study's sample consisted of 10 (*n*=10) county emergency managers who managed a county emergency management program in the state of New York. The study participants' demographics included; (a) age, (b) emergency management experience, and (c) education. Half of the respondents (50%; 5/10) were between ages 60-65; (30%; 3/10) were between ages 50-59, and (20%; 2/10) were between ages 30-49. When analyzing respondents' overall disaster management experience it totaled 298 years with an average of 30 years per respondent. Nine of ten respondents (90%; 9/10) reported their career began as first responder. One respondent reported 10 years of military experience. A majority of respondents reported education beyond high school: one of ten respondents (10%; 1/10) had a master degree; four of ten (40%; 4/10) had a bachelorette degree; two of ten respondents (20%; 2/10) had an associate degree; while two of ten respondents (20%; 2/10) possessed a high school diploma, and one respondent had a doctorate degree in sociology. Table 4 is a summary of the respondents' demographics.

Table 4

Respondents Age, Emergency Management Experience, and Education

Respondent	Age	Emergency Management Experience	Education
P01	58	40	Bachelor
P02	34	10	Bachelor
P03	60	40	High School
P04	62	43	Masters
P05	61	38	Doctorate
P06	58	32	Associate
P07	53	33	High School
P08	60	40	Bachelor
P09	65	45	Associate
P10	40	10	Bachelor

Data Management

Research began with a review disaster literature surrounding the historical use of volunteers in disasters within the United States to better understand how volunteers were perceived by public safety officials and the emergency management community when responding to or recovering from a disaster. The literature by (Clukey, 2010; Drabek, 2007; USDHS, 2013a; Helsloot & Ruitenberg, 2004; Perry & Lindell, 2003; Rice, 2011; Villagran, Wittenberg-Lyles & Garza, 2006) examined various disasters in the United States from 1953 to 2013. The data for this research as previously stated includes archival records, government documents, after action reports from a community exercise, literature, and pamphlets provided by county emergency managers for volunteers (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Merriam, 2009; Yin, 1984, 2009). The hallmark of case study research was the use of multiple data sources, a strategy

which enhanced data credibility (Patton, 1990; Yin, 2003). Each data source was one piece of the "puzzle," to better understand how the functional elements of POSDCORB align with the research question "How do county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster."

All respondents answered each interview question which provided rich detail from their own individual perspective. No one respondent's answers dominated this study's findings. Each interview lasted between 45 minutes to 60 minutes and no interview was interrupted. Data gathered including respondents' in-depth answers to the interview questions provided the foundation for this study's inquiry. Each respondent provided rich textual account on how volunteers within their jurisdiction were recruited, trained, and integrated for disasters. The data when analyzed produced a series of patterns, themes, and concepts to understand how the functional elements of POSDCORB aligned with the research question "How do county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster. (Bernard & Ryan, 2010; Yin, 2009).

Data Collection Methods

Yin's three principles of data collection: (a) using multiple sources of evidence, (b) create a case study database, and (c) maintain a chain of evidence (2009) was used to maintain data integrity. A systematic search for pertinent documents surrounding (a) POSDCORB (b) disaster management, and (c) volunteer management was an important part of the data collection because documents corroborated and augment evidence from other sources. Notes were made in the margins of each document along with analytical comments which required additional analysis. The respondents' extensive emergency management experience coupled with their education

provided a breadth and depth of knowledge, experience, and progression of responsibility within disaster management and volunteer management.

Upon approval of the Institutional Review Board (IRB), data were collected from ten interview participants' face-to-face semi-structured interviews guided by a nine question interview guide (see Appendix B). Probing questions (see Appendix C) were available to help the respondents to clarify their answers and to provide rich in-depth information. Answers from respondents included a dearth of information including their opinions, facts, experiences and perspectives surrounding management of disaster volunteers. The researcher promoted a relaxed atmosphere which allowed the respondents too freely, candidly, and openly respond to each question while elaborating on management of disaster volunteers.

Prior to conducting each interview the researcher informed each participant of the purpose of the interview. Each participant was informed neither their name nor the name of their county would be identified or published in the study. Verbal and written consent were obtained from each participant to conduct and record the interview. Once the participant signed and dated the informed consent agreement, a copy of the consent form was provided to each participant and a copy filed by this researcher. Also, the participant was informed he or she could terminate the interview and withdraw from the study at any time with no penalty. To ensure confidentiality all interviews were conducted in a mutually agreed upon location. To protect the privacy and confidentiality of each participant, participants' names received a code from P01 to P10.

During the interview the researcher took highly descriptive field notes which described the demeanor and behavior of the respondents. Field notes captured key highlights and themes contained within the interview, assisting with the determination that sufficient interviews were

conducted. The researcher's field notes provided value toward analysis of data as they provided reminders to jog the researcher's memory during the analysis phase of this study. Field notes supplement the digital voice recordings made during the interview to allow the researcher to record non-verbal information provided by the participant (Neuman, 2006). Each interview was recorded using a Sony ICD-BX112 Stereo Digital Voice Recorders (SDVR). No recording equipment failures occurred.

To minimize omission of data; each interview was transcribed as soon as possible by the researcher listening closely to respondents' tape recordings and taking detailed notes for the analysis of content and classification of common themes (Bernard & Ryan, 2010). Immediately after transcribing the interviews, a copy of the transcript was sent to each respondent to review for accuracy, reliability, completeness, and content. The transcripts summarized responses to the questions and captured key points made by the interviewees. Only one respondent's transcript required correction for a minor word grammar issue. Replies from each respondent were saved as a hard and electronic copy in file format on the researcher's computer. Each respondent received a list of counselors that they could contact at their own expense, if they developed stress because of participation in this study.

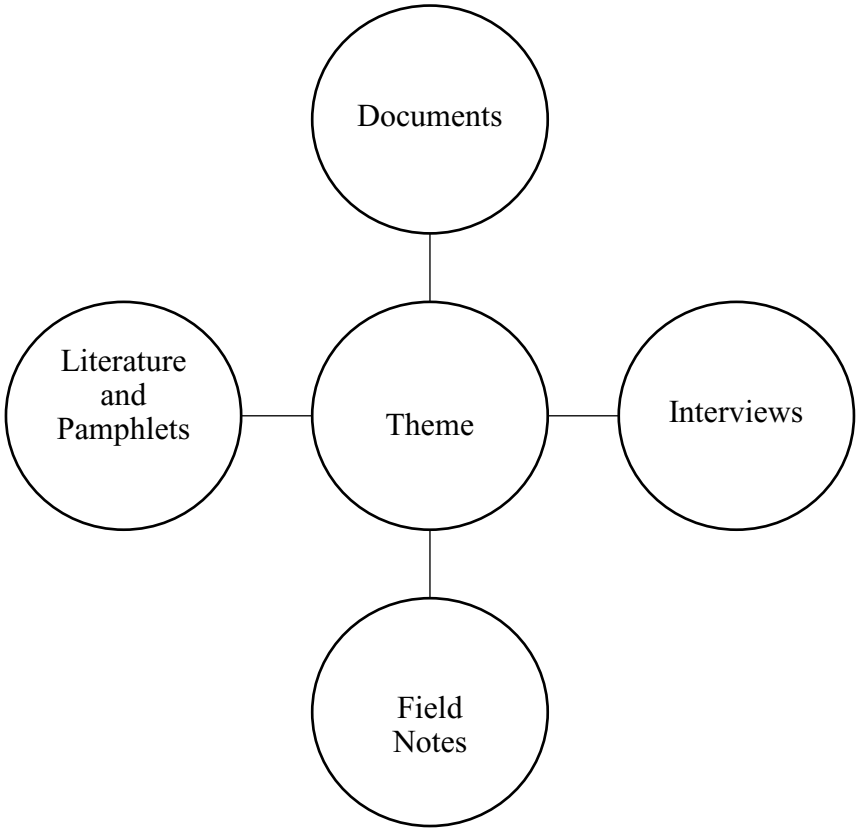
Analysis of the Data

This section describes data preparation and analysis. The unit of analysis was county emergency managers from the state of New York who were current county emergency mangers. Yin (2009) strategy for case study data analysis ensured data were analyzed and presented formally and explicitly, in a variety of data arrays to understand the functional elements of POSDCORB, recruiting, training, and integrating of volunteers for a disaster. Therefore, when

collecting data, the main idea was to “triangulate” or establish converging lines of evidence to make the findings as robust as possible (p. 9). Within this study data from field notes, literature, pamphlets, documents, and interviews were used to triangulated or establish converging lines of evidence to establish themes and patterns. Figure 3 is an example of data source triangulation.

Figure 3.

Data Source Triangulation



Note: Figure 3. Above is a diagram of data source triangulation. Adapted from “Yin, R. (2009). Case Study Research. Design and Methods. Copyright 2009 by Sage Publications Inc.

Within this study, Braun and Clarke’s (2006) thematic analysis six steps for analyzing qualitative studies was used to: (a) familiarize oneself with the data, (b) generate initial ‘codes’, (c) search for themes, (d) review themes, (e) define and name themes, and (f) produce a report.

Next, content analysis was used to analyze the following documents; after action reports from a community exercise, literature, pamphlets and government documents provided by county emergency managers. Content analysis' seven steps presented by Bernard and Ryan (2010) are; (a) formulate research question, (b) select questions, (c) create a set of codes (themes) aligned with the research question, (d) pretext questions, such as this study's field text, (e) apply codes to study participants, (f) create case by case variable matrix from texts and codes and, (g) analyze the matrix using appropriate level of analysis. Finally, latent coding was used to mark the paragraphs of the participants' key words of the field notes. Coding of respondents words and phrases allowed for themes to be developed. Coding is an interpretive technique which helps organize data while allowing for the interpretation of data. Most coding requires the analyst to read data which involves interpretation; reading for meaning, taking context into account, and identifying the presence of constructs or themes (Bernard & Ryan, 2010). Coding provided the researcher the ability to find themes in text, even if certain words were not be apparent and are not there (2010).

As a result of this case study analysis themes were identified and patterns were matched which involved "examining, categorizing or otherwise recombining evidence to draw empirically based conclusions" (2009, p. 136). Pattern matching "compared empirically based patterns with a predicted one (or with several alternative predictions) to strengthen research internal validity" (2009, p. 136). Pattern matching increases the internal validity of a qualitative case study (1984). Quotations from interviews, chronologies, and narrative questions-and-answers were set apart from the research interpretive analysis. Data was repeatedly reviewed, catalogued, and analyzed to identify key words, terms, phrases, and themes surrounding POSDCORB, recruiting, training,

and integrating. Further, the researcher separated the evidence from the researcher's interpretations of the data. To understand the data better, data was sorted using an excel spreadsheet which contained: (a) participant's unique identifier, (b) a list of each of the interview questions, (c) participant's responses, (d) labels for codes, and (e) final themes. Braun and Clarke's (2006) thematic analysis six step strategy for analyzing qualitative studies strategies were the bullwork of this study's fair treatment of data, analytic conclusions, and alternative interpretations.

Analysis of the data included initial coding of the repeat words thus fostering the clustering of participants' responses into categories, patterns, and themes as outlined in table 5. The final coding framework involved: (a) selecting themes from meaningful statements, (b) summarizing themes into categories, (c) assessing reliability by systematically checking the accuracy of coding by the researcher, (d) assessing the validity in the case of disagreement through confirmation, by returning to the original text to find examples of themes and resolution through listening to interviews, and (e) reassessing the validity and finalizing the results by returning to the disaster management literature (Bernard & Ryan, 2010). For a list of the final themes (See Table 6). Because it is important to protect confidentiality of participants, the coding framework does not include full words and phrases.

Themes were identified until the researcher was unable to find new themes and saturation was complete (Bernard & Ryan, 2010, p. 71). Once major categories were identified, the researcher combined like words and terms into categories and filtered the responses. Bernard and Ryan (2010) argued, "Looking for themes in written material typically involves pawing through text and marking them up with different color pens. Using themes in this study was an acceptable

practice to conduct qualitative research. The goal of the researcher was to better understand the data by grouping and conceptualizing the words with like patterns and/or characteristics. The analysis procedure of filtering and organizing data developed into eight main themes: (a) planning for volunteers, (b) organizing volunteers, (c) staffing volunteers, (d) directing volunteers, (e) legal issues, (f) coordinating and integrating volunteers, (g) recruiting volunteers and (h) training volunteers. The creation of categories and themes provided answers to the research questions, which corresponded to the study (Merriam, 2009). The researcher made every attempt to make certain data came together to better understand the complete case, not the numerous parts of the case, or the contributing factors. No analysis software was used in this study. A careful review of the data was completed to ensure all relevant evidence and rival explanations were examined. For a list of the final codes (See Table 5). For a list of the final codes (See Figure 4).

Table 5

Final Coding Framework

Initial Coding Framework	Final Coding Framework
Plans to prepare What really drives planning Plans, Agreements	Planning for Volunteers
Incident Command System Refer volunteers to the local volunteer agencies	Organizing Volunteers
Fire Fighters, Emergency medical personnel, Hazardous Material personnel Manpower	Staffing Volunteers
Response and Recovery Activities Supervisor responsibilities for paid and unpaid for: fire Fighters, emergency medical personnel, hazardous material personnel	Directing Volunteers
Liability Workers Compensation Protection Policy	Legal Issues
Call in Assign and team up the group of volunteers Local teams Relationships/Partnerships	Coordinating and Integrating Volunteers
Word of mouth Advertisement Friends Recruit Friends	Recruiting Volunteers
Exercises State Instructors County Instructors Events	Training Volunteers

Note. Collected words and phrases from the initial coding of data reduced from categories into a final coding framework. Adapted from "Analyzing Qualitative Data: Systematic Approaches" by Bernard, R., and Ryan. Copyright 2010 by Sage publications, Inc.

Figure 4

Final Themes Captured

1. Planning for Volunteers
2. Organizing Volunteers
3. Staffing Volunteers
4. Directing Volunteers
5. Legal Issues
6. Coordinating and Integrating Volunteers
7. Recruiting Volunteers
8. Training Volunteers

Note. Collected words and phrases from the final coding of data were reduced from categories into final themes. Adapted from "Analyzing Qualitative Data: Systematic Approaches" by Bernard, R., and Ryan. Copyright 2010 by Sage publications, Inc.

Study Results

Themes of Significance in the Responses

The study results revealed eight themes: (a) planning for volunteers, (b) organizing volunteers, (c) staffing volunteering, (d) directing volunteers, (e) legal issues, (f) coordinating and integrating volunteers, (g) recruiting volunteers, and (h) training volunteers. The term volunteer within this study was defined as "any individual or organization accepted to perform services by the lead agency, which has authority to accept volunteer services when the individual or organization performs services without promise, expectation, or receipt of compensation for services performed" (USDHS, 2008a, p. 149).

Theme One: Planning for Volunteers. All respondents (100%; 10/10) agreed planning as defined by the Federal Emergency Management Agency (2011) should "engage the whole community as appropriate, in the development of executable strategic, operational, and/or community-based approach to meet defined objectives" (p. 5). Further, all respondents (100%; 10/10) acknowledged they are responsible for county level planning to request volunteers from

the state to augment their towns, villages, and municipalities upon request. All respondents (100%; 10/10) argued community planning for volunteers is best when organizations collaborate. One respondent reported "twice a year we meet with the American Red Cross and the local government representatives to review their mass care procedures to open and close shelters within our towns, villages, and municipalities." In addition, another respondent stated "we meet once a month with our community partners emergency managers and Medical Reserve Corps to discuss their shelters and medical support operations during a disaster." The remaining eight of ten (80%; 8/10) respondents reported they only meet when required with their villages, towns, and municipalities' emergency managers, public safety officials, and volunteer agencies representatives to discuss updates or revisions to their established shelter operations plans, policies, and procedures to ensure effective coordination during incident response. The following are textual descriptions provided by two respondents about a community base approach to manage volunteers.

P04: It is much better for you the township, the village, the city to be prepared in your own right to handle let's say the first 72 hours of an event before you can even think about the cavalry arriving. So, one of the things we've do here is a fairly good job of recruiting. Helping towns and municipalities recruit at the municipal level local emergency managers who then recruit local people locally to be a part of their emergency response team. So, if I was to do a diagram here at the county we have 19 townships we have two cities and then we have 8 villages and then within each one of these the local people appoint a person who is like a liaison unto us. This person in their own community goes and recruits people for sheltering/other things.

P07: If we can get an agency to administer the plan I would like each community to take ownership of their small local volunteer pods. The local people knows what their local capabilities are and specialize expertise they have. I think we could build this internal spider web network of volunteers.

All (100%; 10/10) respondents reported they also support a culture of community resilience within their county by attending local emergency managers and volunteer agencies

representatives strategic planning meeting to discuss: (a) the roles, responsibilities, and expectations of volunteers during a disaster; (b) the process to request volunteers during a disaster from adjacent counties within and outside of their region; (c) the process to request additional volunteers and resources from the State of New York and the federal government, and most importantly, (d) pros and cons of volunteers working with first responders during a disaster.

Theme Two: Organizing Volunteers. All respondents (100%; 10/10) use the incident command system (ICS) as their organization structure of authority to organize the command and management of their staff and volunteers before, during and after a disaster. The following textual description were provided by four respondents about their use of the Incident command system to organize command and management of their staff and volunteers before, during, and after a disaster.

P02: They provide air sport or they can actually currier people if we had to. Just as importantly they are well trained in ICS we use them at our reception centers if were to evacuate are because of radiologic incident they would check people in and see if they are contaminated. We have a role for them in our eoc.

P04: We follow very closely here on a day to day basis the use of the ICS command system. All our volunteers are used to dealing with it every day regardless if it's a simple car accident or a major disaster, there is an incident commander, we follow the structure they are taught the structure so when the big one hits the structure is the same.

P05: They're all trained in ICS and they're all trained in NIMS so they speak the same language and understand how logistics, operations, plans, and finance fit together. So if needed they can plugged in down at the local level.

P06: Respondent: for the most part if it's during the actual event and an engineer was to come and say I can do an assessment on that structure for you it would be up to the liaison officer under our incident command system to make phone calls to verify who this person is or is not. Or it would be up to our EM office. One time we had a tanker truck over turn and there was an individual who could have looked at the tank and gave us an assessment; that was tasked to the emergency management office and we had to call to the company who this gentleman said he worked for to verify who he was, which we were able to do. We verified his credentials. We said fine we can give you a safety

briefing then we escorted him down to the site to do the assessment on the vessel. It's very difficult.

Theme Three: Staffing Volunteers. The study findings revealed county emergency managers work with their villages, towns, and municipalities to respond to, recover from, and mitigate the impact of disasters within their county with the assistance of volunteers. All respondents (100%; 10/10) defined volunteers as "any individual or organization accepted to perform services by the lead agency, which has authority to accept volunteer services when the individual or organization performs services without promise, expectation, or receipt of compensation for services performed" (USDHS, 2008a, p. 149). Significant to the study's findings during the one-on-one interviews were three categories of volunteers used to staff disaster sites and emergency operation centers: (a) emergency service volunteers, (b) volunteer agencies, (c) and spontaneous volunteers.

Emergency Service Volunteers. Historically, volunteers within emergency services play a significant role in the staffing of emergency operations centers during an emergency or disaster. All respondents (100%; 10/10) characterized unpaid firefighters, hazards materials specialists, and emergency medical services personnel as volunteers. The following textual description were provided by four respondents about emergency service volunteers within their emergency services departments.

P01: We have 24 fire departments they are all volunteer with the exception of XYZ that has paid drivers. We have 17 ambulance squads of those five are independent. That means they are corporations and 10 are fire departments EMS two are paid.

P06: "In our county we have a 100% volunteer fire service and a partial volunteer EMS service."

P09: There are 16 EMS agencies which mean they are independent corps and some of them are tax corps which mean they have a tax base they run on. Fire departments there are 40 of them who all are volunteer. There are no career. Thirty six of them are fire districts and four are independent fire companies who sell their services to the township. We have about 1500 active fire fighters and about 350 EMS people in the county.

P10: We do have some volunteer EMS although that becomes a definitional issue. At one point going back ten or 12 years; right now I have 14 ambulance corps. Four of them are proprietary, three of them are still being handled by the volunteer fire department and the remainder are not for profit corporations. All of the independent not for profits call themselves volunteers but they hire paramedics around the clock, they hire drivers around the clock, they are essentially commercial only, they're not for profits.

Volunteer Agencies. County emergency managers, villages, towns, and municipalities rely on their local volunteer agencies' specialties such as sheltering, mass feeding, and debris removal in the management of an emergency or disaster. All respondents (100%; 10/10) reported their organizations' often collaborate with their local volunteer agencies, organizations, and business within their jurisdiction through meetings, drills, and exercises. However, respondents also acknowledged volunteers agencies are often a second thought in their response to a disaster. The following textual description was provided by one respondent about their county's involvement with volunteer agencies.

Interviewer: Ok, so how does your organization collaborate with other volunteer agencies, organizations, and businesses within your area of responsibility to recruit, train and integrate their volunteers for a disaster? Provide specifics about your collaboration efforts?

P01: We have certain long standing agreement with the agencies such as the Red Cross with well-defined roles within the county's plan and well defined in their plans. If we need to operate a shelter or mass care center they are there to assist and augment us or they will run it or we will assist them depending on the circumstances.

Interviewer: "Ok, do you have other non-governmental organizations you deal with"?

P01: Occasionally the Salvation Army, that's about it. We deal with others on a case by case bases depending on if there is a strong nongovernmental agency with a strong presence among a community and that community is affected by a disaster obviously we will work with them.

Interviewer: "Ok, so do you have consistent meetings? Or do you have schedule meetings? How do you meet with them"?

P01: They are invited in when we have planning meetings or meetings to discuss our change of plans or exercises, things of that nature. But we meet to discuss operations as needed. Some of these relationships are decades old. We understand what each other roles are so there is no need to start a relationship the relationship is already long standing.

Spontaneous Volunteers. The term spontaneous volunteers was characterized as an individual or organization who arrives without affiliation to an organization following a disaster (Orloff, 2011, p. 246). All respondents (100%; 10/10) agreed during and after emergencies and disasters spontaneous volunteers usually emerge without notice. As stated in Chapter 1, national, and local public safety officials, county emergency managers, and first responders are unable to predict the number of volunteers who will respond to a disaster. The following textual description was provided by two respondents about their county's management of spontaneous volunteers.

Interviewer: How do you manage spontaneous volunteers who show up during an ongoing disaster event"?

P05: "We keep a roster of them through 211."

Interviewer: "what's 211"?

P05: 211 is a volunteer program ran by the United Way; if people choose to volunteer their services we will try to plug them into whomever may need their services. We as the county do not accept spontaneous volunteers to support county operations. We don't generally need that manpower. But for instance if we know that the red cross needs volunteers we will turn them to the red cross or the local municipalities.

P07: Typically what we do every time we have a disaster; we always have a spontaneous volunteer. We quickly establish a mechanism at the local level to accept them. So we either charge, I say charge and I use that word carefully. We grab a local faith base organization that's very active who doing feeding, whose doing welfare checks and we worked out with them to say 12 to 15 people who want to volunteer in their local community that has just called up or shown up and we integrate them into that assisting system so it becomes one hub and someone takes on that responsibility locally and then we feed assignments to that hub and that keeps people busy. Often it may be a municipal representative; the librarian may take great interests in it and then she has the comprehensive lists of places that were impacted and they want to go out and do welfare checks and then they become that coordinator if you will locally.

Theme Four: Directing Volunteers. The study findings revealed county emergency managers are responsible for directing requested resources within their assigned jurisdictions by n incident commander or lead agency located within the impact area to respond to, recover from, and mitigate the impact of disasters (Peerbolte & Collins, 2013). According to Gulick (1936) the term directing within POSDCORB "is the continuous task of making decisions and embodying them in specific and general orders and instructions and serving as the leader of the enterprise" (p. 13). All respondents (100%; 10/10) reported they are responsible for overseeing the day to day activities of their paid and unpaid firefighters, hazards materials specialists, and emergency medical services personnel; however, the amount of personnel and departments varied. Three of ten respondents' (30%; 3/10) textual description stated;

P03: Being a county emergency manager I am also the county 911 coordinator we have the HAZMAT under our department and we have EMS under our department we're spread very thin. Just the way it is.

Interviewer: You don't have fire?

Respondent: "No, fire is not under me. We do have a bureau fire and fire coordinator at this time."

P07: I wear two hats I am the fire coordinator and the appointed emergency manager. My deputy is the appointed ems coordinator and deputy director for EM. I also run the training division for fire and he runs the training division for EMS under those blankets; and I also have a full time 911 coordinator who oversee the 911 system everything to addressing to implementation, technology, public safety, and communications.

P09: "No, I have enough to do with the fire departments, ems and the agencies within our jurisdiction."

Theme Five: Legal Issues. Respondents identified the following two legal barriers which prevent them from directing volunteers; liability and workers compensation. All respondents (100%; 10/10) reported their county officials do not want the legal obligation to be liable for the medical cost and workers' compensation in the event a volunteer is injured while volunteering during a disaster. Three of ten respondents' (30%; 3/10) textual description about their county officials unwillingness to take the chance of liability and workers compensation.

P03: All our counties up here are in the same boat when it comes to that issue of liability. And it does hinder the use of wanting to create volunteer groups.

P06: If someone shows up here and wants to help in a brush fire on the hill and I want to help, less you are a member of the uniform services and trained, I do not feel comfortable placing them in harm's way. If I'm uncertain about you-you are more of a liability than an asset. So, once we could verify who you are. We have that a lot; now with students going to Rockland who are members of the Cornwall fire department and say it folks like you are shorthanded and I want to provide my assistance in a fire. If they have gear and an identification card which would identify them as either an exterior are interior fire fighter might be put to work possibly. It's not worth the risk. Even myself as a volunteer fire fighter is skeptical of offering my services outside of my area. God forbid if you get hurt; you would have that question of who is covering you and did you receive the proper permission from that organization to fight that fire or are you just another goodwill person who suddenly stopped and you fell and broke your leg. Should I get workers comp? They would say you did not do this for us you stopped and helped these people; that was a nice thing for you to do but our organization was not called in. You would hate to be tied up in legalese but that's what has to be in the back of your mind. You don't want to put yourself in harm's way or your organization in harm's way, more importantly you don't want to put the people who you are trying to assist in harm's way. If we put someone out there say who should not be in the situation they are in we've now has made the situation worst.

P07: Liability, the county does not want to absorb the liability of having a team; there is always ways around that stuff, the county attorney at that time which we had a transition in the last four months. So it may be something that comes back to the table, but at the time the county was not willing to do it.

All respondents (100%; 10/10) held county officials and public safety officials would consider staffing volunteers in their emergency operation center and at the disaster site if the state would indemnify the counties, towns, villages, and municipalities of any liability. More specifically, one respondent reported "liability is major concern that needs to be address by the state; counties are unwilling to incur the cost of liability for volunteers." Also, all county emergency managers (100%; 10/10) provided information on New York State's Law Article 2-B which authorizes them to use emergency response personnel employed by or supporting their county's emergency response duties. All respondents (100%; 10/10) agreed directing and placing volunteers into specific roles improves assimilation into a disaster response unit.

Theme Six: Coordinating and Integrating Volunteers. All respondents (100%; 10/10) agreed coordinating and integrating volunteers into disaster management organizations requires an understanding of the volunteer's roles, leadership, service delivery, and support. Keeping track and maintaining accountability of volunteers is necessary and requires a detailed plan to integrate volunteers into a chaotic, unstable, and fluid situation. Two respondents provided a textual transcription about how they integrate volunteers in a disaster using the incident command system to maintain accountability and structure.

P01: Interviewer: So when you have volunteers how do you integrate them in a disaster? I know you say go see the Red Cross or the town but now you need to integrate them into the disaster what role do you play? Do you play as a coordinator or are you the IC or anything like that to say we need volunteers over here or over there?

Respondent: If it's a large scale disaster logistically we would manage it from the EOC. Someone may say the town of xyz need some help and then we would talk with the Red Cross or local fire department and say do you have anyone who could cut trees or provide a particular service.

Interviewer: So, the towns will call you and you would let the towns know what type of volunteers are available to provided assistance?

Respondent: When different organizations pop up and no one knows them when can coordinate them with the towns more than anything.

Interviewer: Ok, that is important because if they go straight to the town and one town becomes inundated with a lot of volunteers or resources and the other town don't have any.

Respondent: Right.

P04: We follow very closely here on a day to day basis the use of the ICS command system. All our volunteers are used to dealing with it every day regardless if it's a simple car accident or a major disaster, there is an incident commander, we follow the structure they are taught the structure so when the big one hits the structure is the same. The essential task of coordinating, integrating, and motivating volunteers is important.

Theme Seven: Recruiting Volunteers. All respondents (100%; 10/10) reported as county emergency managers they are responsible for referring volunteers to individual municipalities, emergency managers, and public safety officials to include their local volunteer agencies such as; the American Red Cross, Salvation Army, Mennonites, and Catholic Charities. All respondents (100%; 10/10) argued the best way to recruit volunteers for a disaster or an emergency was 'by word of mouth'. All respondents (100%; 10/10) agreed word of mouth and personal contact was important; however, in addition to word of mouth and personal contact, respondents also supported the recruiting efforts of agencies by distributing flyers, participating in radio broadcasts, and announcing recruiting efforts on websites, attending and speaking at local sponsored events such as receptions, luncheons, dinners, and award ceremonies. The

following are textual descriptions provided by four respondents discussing recruitment through referrals, word of mouth, and advertisement.

P01: We would refer them on to the local jurisdiction which is the local fire departments or EMS we also which we highly recommend contact the Red Cross which has a volunteer recruitment program.

P03: So the team is made of firemen and a few EMS folks I believe that do, the EMS side of HAZMAT. We have a standing opening I guess you would say for anyone who wants to join the HAZMAT team; we really don't advertise it or anything it just word of mouth throughout the fire service. We are a small fire service, so that's not hard to do. We currently have a team of 23 which is pretty good for a specialized team like HAZMAT where there is a lot of training involved. You know, like I said it's basically word of mouth type for recruiting.

P06: We actually have an active recruitment campaign to recruit volunteer fire fighters and EMS personnel; we do television spots, the program sponsor students in the community college for tuition reimbursement as long as they are an active member of a volunteer fire or EMS agency in the county. Our recruiting efforts are primarily are focused on those two services here in the county.

P05: Each division within our department is responsible for recruiting volunteers; for me specifically it's my incident management team, the Radiological monitoring team and our RACES team. Which is our Radio Amateur Communications Emergency Services so basically HAM Radio. It's a terrible acronym. It's a national acronym RACES, so it's not unique to Orange county. We also use volunteers in the fire coordinator capacity and EMS coordinator capacity.

Today with the emergence of the internet and social media five of ten (50%; 5/10) respondents often use their emergency management website to help agencies direct and recruit volunteers (See Table 6).

Table 6

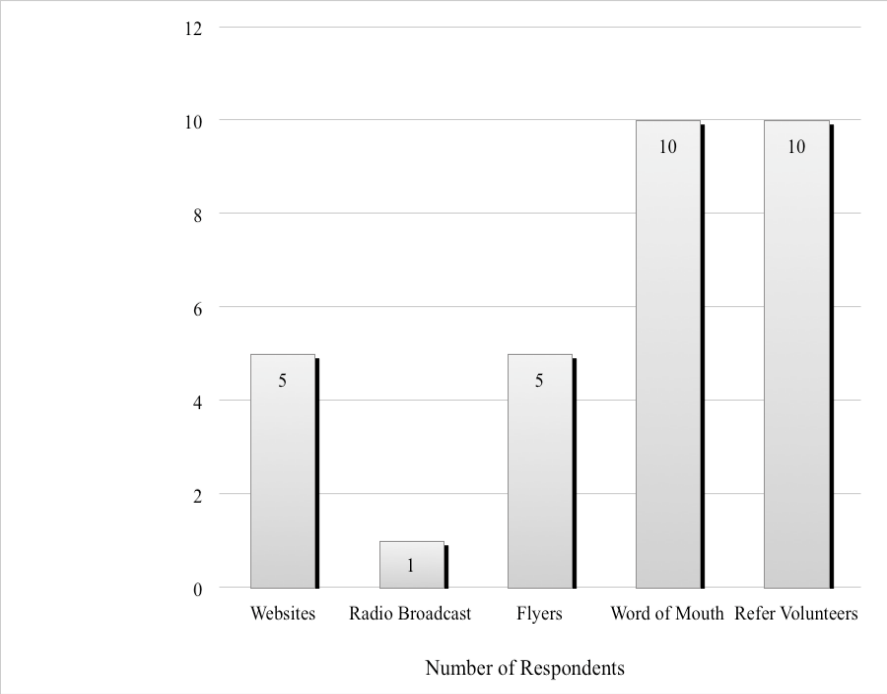
Information Reported From Respondents

Respondents	Does the county use their website to recruit volunteers?	The county has a separate emergency management website
P01	Yes	Yes
P02	Yes	Yes
P03	Yes	Yes
P04	No	Yes
P05	No	Yes
P06	No	Yes
P07	No	Yes
P08	No	Yes
P09	Yes	Yes
P10	Yes	Yes

Respondents held understanding the make-up of the community help to direct and recruit volunteers. All respondents (100%; 10/10) held during disasters local volunteers respond to neighbors providing perspectives, experience, and help. Table 7 displays respondents' answers to various methods they use to recruit volunteers.

Table 7

Respondents' Methods Used To Recruit/Refer Volunteers



Nine of ten respondents (90%; 90/10) held volunteer agencies such as the American Red Cross, Salvation Army, and Mennonites are not listed in their county's plan to refer or to recruit volunteers. Staff associated with the American Red Cross, Salvation Army, and the Mennonites to name a few are considered potential volunteers to give their time and talents in any particular community. In contrast, one respondent stated "a technique that does not work well if people are uncertain about volunteering is to push them too hard to volunteer."

Theme Eight: Training Volunteers. Training was identified by all respondents (100%; 10/10) as important to disaster management and volunteer management. All respondents (100%; 10/10) reported the types of training volunteers receive to prepare staff and volunteers to operate

in a disaster environment were; basic to intermediate medical, administrative, debris removal, light to heavy construction, perimeter control, and logistics management training. Nine of ten (90%; 9/10) respondents' revealed basic firefighters and emergency service personnel receive approximately 87 to 100 hours of formal training by New York State Office of Fire Protection and Control and county instructors. All respondents (100%; 10/10) characterized their emergency service personnel as firefighters, hazards materials specialists, and emergency medical services as trained volunteers. The following are textual descriptions provided by three respondents about the training of their emergency service volunteers as firefighters, hazards materials specialists, and emergency medical services personnel.

P07: The state supplies four state fire instructors and we also have a county fire instruction program as well as we do ICS education. The state has a fire academy however, each county is appointed a number of state fire instructors based on their size. It's the state curriculum that we use and they are coordinated through myself in terms to what classes they are going to teach. We maintain the fire training facilities located here just down the road. We can supplemented with the county fire instructors the state credentials them to teach and pays them to teach and we tell them what to teach and give them the supplies to do it. We have ten EMS instructors that work for us who are not full time they are contracted with the county. We fund that through reimbursement from the state by the number of passing students. So each level gives a financial reimbursement for each student that passes so we can maintain the equipment and instructor's pay.

P09: We have a basic course for fire fighters that is around a 100 hours that is called fire fighter one. We also have another course which is for scene support those two courses are setup in such a way that fire fighter one you are not only fighting the fire from outside of the structure but go inside. They train you how to: wear an air pack, how to work with safety ropes, and how to work in teams. Scene support are fire fighters who do not physically go into the building but would bring ladders and set the ladders up, ventilate the building from outside, help run hoses all that kind of stuff. It's like a two sided deal you do not have that many people to go really to go inside. But you need lots of people on the outside.

P10: It takes me 87 hours to train a raw recruit so he will almost look lies a fire fighter he knows how to put his costume on, he puts his boots on, he put his pants on, he puts his coat on, he puts his helmet on and he knows which end of the air pack goes up and down. But he doesn't know anything yet. We've just literally made him aware of what a fire fighter looks like. It's going to take a couple more years of real mentoring, tutelage taking him inside burning buildings and giving him a sense of this is how it's done and giving him self-confidence before he's a fire fighter.

Further, respondents held the key to efficiency in disaster response requires more than specialized equipment; the effectiveness of training requires the presence of a trained first responders as well as a trained volunteers. For example, one respondent stated "you can have all the specialized equipment in the world, without someone proficient in operating the equipment is useless." Because civil societies volunteer groups play a significant role in disaster response and do not just supplement the effort of government agencies; in many situations, they are the actual "first responders" till the arrival of first responders to the scene. Several respondents held proper training in disaster response for volunteers can have a multiplier effect on their efficiency in the performance of that role. Several respondents mentioned during super storm Sandy "the need for a pool of trained volunteers to respond to the disaster." All respondents (100%; 10/10) argued with proper training and education, civilian volunteers expand the resources available to county emergency managers, as well as states and local communities. Respondent one of ten state (10%; 10/10) stated;

P05: When you look at the scope of the amount of training volunteer fire fighters have to go through or the amount an EMT or Paramedic has to go through that's a significant amount of training and years of experience to make those individuals affective.

All respondents (100%; 10/10) were consistent in their answers that individuals who volunteer to work during a crisis/disaster can receive free training from the American Red Cross, Medical Reserve Corp, Salvation Army or other organizations active in disasters to obtain the required skills to help build capacity for first responders. The following is the textual description

provided by one respondent about the use of training provided the federal, state, and local programs allowed for the opportunity to use volunteers.

P06: We utilize the FEMA training that is online, such as the intro to emergency management and donation management programs. We just completed a training two weeks ago on damage assessment; how do you go about conducting a damage assessment, what are the key things the folks at FEMA are looking for when they come down to see if they are going to give you that presidential declaration or not. We actually had FEMA folks come in and do that here we also had a training last week on logistics management. New York has a regional catastrophic planning group which received a grant to work with Pennsylvania. Primarily region 2 area has developed a training program, they were up here last week did a full day training on handling logistics, setting up a point of distribution and point of receiving materials. How best to set a staging area up and how best to facilitate the movement of the product. Those programs are open to any of the community members. They are free of charge we do not charge them anything; they just have to commit their time to the training. We look to do things that are timely but I find having them to come in if we are meeting monthly it is better served and the interest level stays up. Something current and we try not to have the meetings to be stagnant after a while it gets boring and these people are action oriented and they want to see how to do it. One time we shuffled boxes and different products between two locations just to go through the process. We try to identify strengths and weakness they got more out of doing it than just sitting there and being not active.

Significant to this study, respondents identified three key goals of training disaster volunteers. First, goal was to save lives; second, to save property; and third, to take full advantage of both human and material resources. All respondents (100%; 10/10) held training is important to building volunteer's skills and increasing their knowledge to strengthen networks and encourage collaboration and the sharing of information. One respondent provided an after action report of their county's table top exercise conducted for community volunteers. The October 2012 report detailed 21 volunteers who played a significant role in shelter operations during the exercise. Further, documented are the exercise participants' comments from the after action review about training:

(a) the need for more shelter training became apparent, (b) highlighted the need for better

mutual-aid agreements with near-neighbors MRCs, (c) good to have so many people participating, (d) good scenario it made you think about what you would do under those circumstances, (e) it was great teaming up with other MRC volunteers and gaining additional sheltering experience, (f) we need to clarify our roles with our partner agencies and (g) the exercise raised questions about coverage over long periods of time. This is an area we have not had to contend with but need to consider.

All respondents (100%; 10/10) held training furthers the understanding of volunteers' responsibility to prepare for a disaster which included: (a) workplace preparation; (b) phone support or intake and dispatch volunteers; (c) fire safety; (d) hazardous materials; (e) terrorist incidents; (f) basic courses for medical personnel and para medics; and (g) light aspects of emergency search and rescue work to include training courses in search and rescue for dogs and dog handlers. Also, all respondents (100%; 10/10) discussed the various levels of training, provided for their first responder volunteers offered by the state and local governments which were: (a) basic training accessible to most disaster workers; includes general information and skill development, (b) intermediate/medium training for experienced disaster workers; information is technical but applicable to a broad number of disciplines, and (c) advanced training in specialized functions for experienced disaster workers; information is technical, specific to certain job or responsibility, and assumes the participant understands disaster terminology and principles. Disaster training courses for volunteers similar to first responder training are rated according to difficulty; the higher the difficulty level and the more complex the knowledge presented. Organizations who conduct various types of training mentioned by the respondents were the American Red Cross, Medical Reserve Corp, and the Office of Fire Prevention and Control. All respondents (100%; 10/10) stated training offered by Office of Fire Prevention and Control is consistent throughout the State of New York. For the Office of Fire and Prevention and Control offered training (See Table 8).

Table 8

Types of specialized training offered by the Office of Fire and Prevention and Control (OFPC) for volunteers in search and rescue

Basic Level	Medium Level	Advanced Level
Essentials / FF1 - 01-05-0019	MLSCC - 01-04-0040	I-400 - 01-05-0032
I-200 - 01-11-0034	MSCO: Tools - 01-04-0057	Advanced Rope I - 01-04-0003
Mask Conf. - 01-05-0031	I-300 - 01-11-0033	Advanced Rope II - 01-04-0004
AVET - 01-04-0001	Interior Shoring - 01-04-0058	Concrete Breaching - 01-04-0011
Rescue Tech Basic - 01-04-0032	Exterior Shoring - 01-04-0059	Advanced Trench - 01-04-0005
Conf. Space Aware - 01-04-0014	Void Search and Rescue - 01-04-0060	I-400 - 01-05-0032
Conf. Space Rescue - 01-04-0013	Rescue Heavy Rigging - 01-04-0028	Advanced Rope I - 01-04-0003
BSCO - 01-04-0055	Basic Trench Collapse - 01-04-0009	Advanced Rope II - 01-04-0004
BTCC - 01-04-0061	Interm. Rope Rescue - 01-04-0028	Concrete Breaching - 01-04-0011
Haz-mat Ops - 01-09-0071	WMD Concepts - 01-09-0064	Advanced Trench - 01-04-0005
Haz-Mat Tech - 01-09-0039	WMD Tactical Consid. - 01-09-0066	

Note. Types of training offered by the Office of Fire Prevention and Control. Within the state of New York for emergency response personnel. Adapted from New York State Division of Homeland Security and Emergency Services. Office of Fire Prevention. Retrieved from http://www.dhses.ny.gov/ofpc/training/.

Another respondent addressing training stated “our county participates in annual full scale exercises with the local government, American Red Cross, Salvation Army, and other volunteer organizations active in disasters to facilitate collaboration, coordination, and integration of volunteers in a disaster.” Another respondent reported “FEMA offers several courses to facilitate collaboration between volunteers our county office and the local villages,

towns, and municipalities called the Community Specific Integrated Emergency Management Course (IEMC).” Various trainings offered by the IEMC for local, state, and federal agencies within the same jurisdictions consists of the following: communication, debris management, public/private collaborations for mitigation, federal roles in disaster response, and community services to increase trust and experience between first responders, volunteers, and public officials. The Integrated Emergency Management Course (IEMC) is a 4 ½ day course for emergency managers, elected officials, first responders, and volunteer agencies. According to the Federal Emergency Management Agency (USDHS, 2013b) states, the intent of the IEMC is to “build awareness and skills needed to develop and implement policies, plans, and procedures in an emergency operations center (EOC) to protect life and property through applications of sound emergency management principles in all phases of emergency management” (para. 2). For a complete list of topics by the Community Specific Integrated Emergency Management Course (IEMC) (See Table 9).

Figure 5. Training List

Preparedness and Response topics include:
Public Policy in Emergency Management
Media Role in Disaster Response
Information and Intelligence Management
Orientation to: Emergency Management, Fire Service, Law Enforcement,
Emergency Medical Services, and Public Works
Mass Care and Sheltering
Federal Roles in Disaster Response
Disaster specific issues for earthquakes, hurricanes, hazmat incidents, and terrorism
Recovery and Mitigation topics include:
Mitigation and Recovery Policy Issues
Intergovernmental Roles/Actions
Emergency Information and Media Affairs
Situation and Damage Assessment
Debris Management
Documentation of the Recovery Process
Hazard Mitigation Initiatives and Case Studies
Public/Private Collaborations for Mitigation
Long-term Recovery Development

A List of The Various Training by Topics Offered for The Community Specific Integrated Emergency Management Course Offered by The Federal Emergency Management Agency. Adapted with Permission.

Biases of Researcher

The researchers' background consists of 20 years of experience in the United States Army and eight years' of experience as an emergency manager within the Department of Veterans Affairs in: (a) exercise planning, (b) collaboration with local, state and federal entities within emergency management, (c) incident command systems and continuity of operations planning as a train-the-trainer for the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA). However, the researchers' lack of involvement with county emergency managers' disaster planning, and the management of volunteers before and during a disaster, which allowed for a strategy of inquiry to examine county emergency managers' perspectives of recruiting, training, and integrating volunteers for a disaster.

Within this study every effort was made to present an unbiased approach to the research. Data collection for this study relied on a self-developed interview guide questionnaire, which consisted of nine questions (see Appendix B). The interview guide was field-tested by four subject matter experts and one qualitative researcher to increase the value of the questions and minimize researcher bias of the wording, content and order of the questions. Research was conducted in an ethical and methodical way to allow respondents to provide an account of the county emergency managers' perspectives on how to recruit, train, and integrate volunteers during a disaster. The respondents' explanations provided six themes on how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster.

Summary

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to examine county emergency managers' perspectives of recruiting, training, and integrating volunteers for a disaster. This study answered

the research question, “How do county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster?” Data collection consisted of (a) one-on-one, face-to-face interviews, (b) self-developed Interview Questionnaire, (c) documents, reports, and (d) field notes provided by the participants for this study revealed the role of the county emergency manager is to build relationships, to support and assist their towns, villages, and municipalities in the functional elements of POSDCORB (planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and coordinating) recruiting, training, and integrating volunteers to work alongside first responders. Within this qualitative case study eight significant findings were identified (a) planning for volunteers, (b) organizing volunteers, (c) staffing volunteering, (d) directing volunteers, (e) legal issues, (f) coordinating and integrating volunteers, (g) recruiting volunteers, and (h) training volunteers. County emergency mangers work concomitantly with their local governments and nongovernment organizations to plan and mange volunteers during a disaster. County emergency managers are very concerned with the training volunteer receive to prepare them to work alongside first responders. Nongovernment agencies have a significant role in disaster management and volunteer management within their community. County emergency managers’ involvement with volunteer organizations varies significantly between county governments. Chapter 5 is a summary of the research findings, conclusions, and recommendations for how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter summarizes and discusses the results of this qualitative case study to answer the research question; "How do county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster?" This qualitative case study collected data from multiple sources such as (a) one-on-one face-to-face interviews, (b) a self-developed Interview Questionnaire, (c) secondary data such as documents, after action reports, literature and pamphlets provided by the participant, and (d) field notes to obtain rich research data. After conducting data analysis the eight significant themes emerged: (a) planning for volunteers, (b) organizing volunteers, (c) staffing volunteering, (d) directing volunteers, (e) legal issues, (f) coordinating and integrating volunteers, (g) recruiting volunteers, and (h) training volunteers. Respondent's interviews, interview questionnaire, literature and pamphlets, documents, and field notes provided the basis for summaries, conclusions and recommendations. This chapter includes a summary of the results, discussion and interpretation of the results, discussion of the conclusions, recommendations for practice, policy recommendations, and limitations of the study, recommendations for future research, and chapter summary and conclusions.

Summary of the Results

Summary of the Results

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to examine county emergency managers' perspectives of recruiting, training, and integrating volunteers for a disaster. The study's findings

answered the research question “How do county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster.” The relevant theory selected for this qualitative study was administrative theory functional elements known as POSDCORB (planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting) to provide the theoretical framework. Therefore, the theoretical elements and principals of POSDCORB were used to better understand and answer the research problem “How county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrates volunteers for a disaster.” The functional elements of POSDCORB provided the social construct and pragmatism to examine how county emergency managers plan, organize, direct, and coordinate volunteers before, during, and after a disaster; which influence how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster.

A review of the literature revealed little to no research on how volunteers were recruited, trained, or integrated into local, state and federal declared disasters. This made it difficult to understand local county emergency managers planning and preparedness efforts to manage the use of volunteers in a disaster. Therefore, there is a significant gap in disaster management and volunteer management literature surrounding recruiting, training, and integrating of volunteers for a disaster. As previously stated in Chapter 1, Henstra (2010) and Pinkowski (2008) argued disaster management literature abounds with public safety officials’ failures to effectively plan for and manage a large number of volunteers. It should be noted most of the literature found concerning integrating volunteers in disasters were about international disasters; and how volunteers respond and assisted in response and in the recovery of their community (Fackler, 2011; Shieh & Deng, 2011; Tucker, 2011).

Volunteers play a critical role in saving lives and protecting property during and after a disaster (Helsloot and Ruitenberg, 2004). Given the limited resources available at the federal, state, and local levels it is imperative to become successful at recruiting, training, and integrating volunteers in disasters or emergencies within a community. Success will require new levels of cooperation and commitment to partnership among the volunteer sector, professional first-responders and all levels of government. While this may be a challenging goal, the priority and long-term value of this work cannot be denied. Also, noted in this study and within disaster literature volunteers are often solicited by all levels of government which range from government agencies such as (the federal government, the state, and local municipalities) to help in disasters. Further, volunteers organizations such as (the American Red Cross, Salvation Army, Catholic Charities and Mennonites to name a few) are often solicited to help in disasters ; because they are better prepared to manage volunteers for deployment to a disaster area (Brudney & Gazley, 2009; Perry & Lindell, 2003; Villagran, Wittenberg-Lyles & Garza, 2006).

The identification of eight emergent themes were significant because no study was found which identified and provided rich detail about the planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and coordinating of volunteers by county emergency managers which directly affect how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster. Respondents' answers highlighted the need to educate first responders about disaster volunteers and underlying principles of disaster management and volunteer management. To reiterate the problem statement, when volunteers are not properly recruited, trained, and integrated into county emergency managers' comprehensive emergency management plans they can negatively impact public safety response personnel response efforts to save lives and protect property (Elledge,

Boatright, Woodson, et al 2007; Henstra, 2010; Pinkowski, 2008; Points of Light, 2002; Reissman, & Howard, 2008). Finally, two case studies (Hurricane Katrina and September 11, 2001World Trade Center Terrorist Attacks) were presented to highlight the uniqueness of volunteerism and the type of disasters that can occur to solicit the need to recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for an emergency or disaster.

Discussion and Interpretation of the Results

The results of this study were consistent among the research participants' perspectives and academic literature on how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for disasters using the functional elements of POSDCORB (planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting) as a guide. Further, the results of this study were consistent with current disaster management research on volunteers (Fernandez, 2007; Fulton, 2011; Jarret, 2013; Majchrzak, & More, 2011) which advocates volunteers are important to the local level; however, management of volunteers by local governments were often flawed. Volunteers have a role to play in disaster preparedness, response and recovery (Fulton, 2011, p. 48). In addition, (Fernandez, 2007; Fulton, 2011; Jarret, 2013; Majchrzak, & More, 2011) also argued volunteers bring a wealth of knowledge, and an in-depth understanding of the various cultures and circumstances of their community which can heighten cultural sensitivity. During disasters heightened sensitivity allows for people with very different backgrounds to understand, respect, and cherish one another's differences, as well as their similarities.

As previously stated, the identification of eight emergent themes: (a) planning for volunteers, (b) organizing volunteers, (c) staffing volunteers, (d) directing volunteers, (e) legal

issues, (f) coordinating and integrating volunteers, (g) recruiting volunteers, and (h) training volunteers were significant to this study; because no study was found which identified and provided rich detail about the planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and coordinating of volunteers by county emergency managers directly affect, how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster. These finding are worth noting to fully understand the expectations of the agencies responsible for responding to a disaster in advance.

Theme One: Planning for Volunteers. The study findings revealed county emergency managers often collaborate with their local volunteer agencies, organizations, and business within their jurisdiction through meetings, drills, and exercises. County emergency managers' strategy to plan and prepare volunteers to work with first responders during a disaster starts with a bottoms up approach. A bottom up approach posited by Pandey and Okazaki (n.d) consist of "lower levels of government working with upper levels of government to address their challenges and difficulties" (p. 3). Nonetheless, it was determined volunteers agencies and spontaneous volunteers were often a second thought in each county's response to a disaster. The study findings indicated the majority of the county emergency managers interviewed lack planning for volunteers within their local comprehensive emergency management program, by not assessing the availability and readiness of the local resources (volunteers) who are most likely required during an incident to correct any shortfalls. In accordance with the National Response Framework (2008) "it is the responsibility of the emergency manager to coordinate all components of the local emergency management program, to include assessing the availability and readiness of local resources most likely required during an incident and identifying and correcting any shortfalls" (p. 16). Further, according to New York State Homeland Security

(2009) National Priorities and State Strategic Goal is to "strengthen emergency planning, citizen and community preparedness through comprehensive disaster planning efforts and by partnering with volunteer and non-profit groups to improve community and individual preparedness for any disaster" (p. 3). The research revealed county emergency managers were familiar with the concept of planning as an essential part of disaster management and volunteer management to prepare for, prevent, mitigate, respond and recover from an emergency or disaster.

County emergency managers were also familiar with the volunteer management and donations target capability list provided by the federal government designed to assist state and county officials with the planning and management of volunteers and acquired resources. Disaster literature provided by the Federal Emergency Management Agency (2010) argued for state, tribal and local governments to develop and implement plans to manage volunteers.

> State, tribal, and local governments have primary responsibility, in coordination with VOADs, to develop and implement plans to manage volunteer services and donated goods. DHS/FEMA recommends that States and local jurisdictions develop and strengthen a Volunteer and Donations Management ESF/Support Annex in their State and local emergency plans.
>
> These plans should detail volunteer and donations management-related outreach and education programs, procedures to activate mutual aid such as the Emergency Management Assistance Compact, communications and facilities management, a Volunteer/Donations Coordination Team, a call center, relevant points of contact, safety and security, and demobilization. Planning should be a cooperative effort among all of the VOADs and emergency management/response agencies in a community. (p. 5.4)

As previously stated, the volunteer management and donation target capability list is not a written plan but a guide for county officials and volunteer coordinators to assist them with their volunteer management planning. County emergency managers selected not to use the volunteer management and donations target capability list as a primary resource guide; resulting in their

lack of planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting for volunteers. After further evaluation it was determined county emergency managers were not required by the federal government or New York State to have or implement a volunteer management and donation plan.

Theme Two: Organizing Volunteers. The study's findings revealed all respondents used the incident command system (ICS) as their mechanism to organize and structure the command and management of their staff and volunteers before, during and after a disaster. According to Gulick (1936) organizing within POSDCORB "is the establishment of a formal structure of authority which work subdivisions are arranged, defined, and coordinated for the defined objective" (p. 13). Overwhelmingly, the majority of the county emergency managers organize volunteer agencies and spontaneous volunteers within their jurisdiction by directing them to their local volunteer agencies located within their villages, towns, and municipalities. By directing volunteer agencies and spontaneous volunteers to local villages, towns, and municipalities allows for the receiving volunteer agencies responsible for their response and recovery activities to properly organize their personnel to prevent over or under staffing. State, tribal, and local governments, in conjunction with their voluntary organization partners are responsible for ensuring the effective integration and management of volunteers within impacted zones (Wachtendorf, Brown, & Holguin-Veras, 2013, p. 513). Finally, as previously stated in Chapter 2 according to the National Incident Management System (2008):

> ICS is used to organize on-scene operations for a broad spectrum of emergencies from small to complex incidents, both natural and manmade. The field response level is where emergency management/response personnel, under the command of an appropriate authority, carry out tactical decisions and activities in direct response to an incident or threat. Resources from the Federal, State, tribal, or local levels, when appropriately deployed, become part of the field ICS as prescribed by the local authority.
> As a system, ICS is extremely useful; not only does it provide an organizational structure for incident management, but it also guides the process for planning, building, and adapting that structure. Using ICS for every incident or planned event helps hone and maintain skills needed for the large-scale incidents. (p. 46)

Theme Three: Staffing Volunteers. County emergency managers work with their villages, towns, and municipalities to respond to, recover from, and mitigate the impact of disasters within their county with the assistance of volunteers. Organized volunteers who respond to emergencies and disasters are considered cost effective because they provide community and psychological support to increase resiliency within their community (UN Volunteers, 2005). Emergency managers encounter various types of volunteers to plan, organize, staff, direct, coordinate, report, and budget for. To this point, initially the researcher did not anticipate the various types of volunteers within the state of New York; which determined how county emergency managers interact with volunteers to staff their emergency operation centers, to respond to, recover from, and mitigate the impact of disasters within a county. The following three types of volunteers emerged from this study were; (a) emergency service volunteers, (b) volunteer agencies, (c) and spontaneous volunteers to staff other volunteer agencies and emergency operation centers.

Emergency Service Volunteers. Emergency service volunteers within this study were characterized as unpaid firefighters, hazards materials specialists, and emergency medical services personnel. Emergency service volunteers within the State of New York play a major role in the staffing of emergency operation centers and the response to emergencies and disasters

to support incident management (on-scene operations) activities (USDHS, 2008a, p. 139). Emergency service volunteers serve as the man power designated by their county to respond to, and mitigate the impact hazards within their jurisdiction. Holdeman (2012) argued "volunteers come with a high degree of experience and technical expertise. They help wherever their skill sets matched up, such as answering phones, helping to develop situational awareness and leading coordination or logistics efforts" (p. 64).

County emergency managers are responsible for managing both paid and un-paid emergency services personnel within their jurisdiction. This was a significant finding for this study because managing volunteers day to day influences how county emergency managers view and interact with paid un-paid emergency services volunteers. Throughout the study all the respondents often referred to their emergency service volunteers not as volunteers but as firefighters, hazards materials specialists, and emergency medical services personnel. This detail revealed a closer relationship between the emergency service volunteers versus the volunteer agencies and spontaneous volunteers. By having emergency service volunteers subordinate to county emergency manager explains why the county emergency managers referenced emergency services volunteers more than their volunteer agencies and spontaneous volunteers. To demonstrate the importance of emergency services volunteers, the state of New York awarded $390,000 in grants for volunteer firefighters and emergency service personnel for recruitment and retention New York State Division of Homeland Security and Emergency Services (2013). Therefore underscoring the value and the need for emergency services volunteers in the villages, towns, and municipalities.

Volunteer Agencies. In addition, to emergency service volunteers, county emergency managers rely on local volunteer agencies' such as the American Red Cross, Salvation Army, Catholic Charities, and the Mennonites for their specialty assistance. County emergency manager acknowledged the value in training and collaborating with their volunteer agencies through meetings, drills, and exercises. Several respondents acknowledged having memorandums of agreement with various volunteer agencies to support their disaster response efforts. Disasters broadly impact communities, private, non-governmental, faith base organizations, local, state, and federal public safety agencies; therefore, government agencies and private citizens must prepare to cope for a disaster or a major incident (USDH, 2012). However, it was determined throughout the study county emergency managers should continue to meet, drill, and conduct exercises with their local volunteer agencies more regularly on how to recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster.

Spontaneous Volunteers. The study findings revealed county emergency mangers did not have a clear written or well thought out plan on how they would manage spontaneous volunteers. All the respondents in concert with the disaster literature noted spontaneous volunteers are often unpredictable and they recognized the possibility for spontaneous volunteers' convergence during emergencies or disasters. Practitioners Argothy (2003); Michel (2007) and Wilson (2000) argued after a disaster people are spontaneous, compassionate, and sympathetic wanting to help other people and assist local, state, and federal government in disasters. Therefore, county emergency managers are encouraged to expect and plan for their convergence (Ministry of Civil Defense & Emergency Management, 2006; USDHS, 2008a; USDHS, 2008b).

Theme Four: Directing Volunteers. As previously stated, Gulick (1936) stated the term directing within POSDCORB "is the continuous task of making decisions and embodying them in specific and general orders and instructions and serving as the leader of the enterprise" (p. 13). During an emergency or disaster county emergency managers are considered lead agents within their jurisdiction responsible for directing resources and personnel within a disaster impact zone when requested by their, villages, towns, and municipalities (Jensen, Bundy, Thomas, & Yakubu, 2014; Krueger, Jennings, & Kendra, 2009). The types of resources and personnel directed by the county emergency managers may vary county to county ranging from paid to unpaid personnel. With that being said, according to New York State Department of Homeland Security Strategy (2009);

> Local elected officials, emergency managers, law enforcement and other first responder agencies have the ultimate responsibility for protecting and preparing their communities, and the vast majority of response resources rest with local government, not with the State. In addition to the traditional preparedness and response functions, homeland security has broadened the role of local government to help protect critical infrastructure and prevent the next act of terrorism by sharing information on threats and suspicious activities and other relevant law enforcement information. (p. 6)

Theme Five: Legal Issues. Significant to the study was the emergence of two legal issues liability and workers compensation which emerged during the interviews with the respondents. Human resource issues such as liability and workers compensation for personnel is often the responsibility of the county executives. County officials refuse to incur additional medical and legal costs to insure disaster volunteers, which may be injured while volunteering their services in response phase or recovery phase of a disaster. Hence, the lack of written plans to guide the integration of volunteers. However, county officials were willing to incur the additional medical and legal costs to insure emergency services volunteers who participate in

their day to day emergency response and recovery activities. In accordance with the United States Department of Labor Fair Labor Standards Act (2013) full-time emergency service personnel employed by the county, villages, towns, and municipalities are eligible for workers' compensation if injured while assisting during a disaster. In contrast, (2013) unpaid volunteers who volunteer or donate their services are not considered employees; therefore ineligible for workers' compensation.

Theme Six: Integrating Volunteers. As previously stated, there is no universal strategy or accepted standards to manage and integrate volunteers into a disaster, Perry and Lindell (2003) argued similar to Villagran, Wittenberg-Lyles and Garza (2006) that public safety officials should plan in advance for volunteers to handle a multitude of emergencies. With that being said, the study findings revealed volunteers are integrated into disasters through individual self-deployments and volunteer agencies (Fackler, 2011; Nagabhushanam & Sridhar, 2010; Shieh & Deng, 2011; Tierney, 2003; Tucker, 2011). County emergency managers along with disaster literature demonstrated a clear understanding of the value and need for volunteers to have common characteristics, knowledge, skills, abilities, and experience to properly integrate into a disaster to work alongside first responders. However, in concert with this study's findings and disaster literature county emergency managers are often overwhelmed and lack the ability to demonstrate their strategy to integrate volunteers with the skills, associations, and experience for a disaster (Rowel, Mercer, and Gichomo, 2011). Special challenges often exist when working in a disaster environment where human resources are much more limited and people are integrated into chaotic, unstable, fluid situations (Helsloot & Ruitenberg, 2004; St. John & Fuchs, 2002).

Volunteer organizations active in disaster such as; the American Red Cross, Salvation Army, Catholic Charities, and the Mennonites are well known for sheltering, mass feeding, and debris removal and are considered essential stakeholders within the field of emergency management (Cwiak, 2011). Volunteer organizations active in disaster rely on local and government officials to provide situation awareness information and guidance before deploying their assets to the impacted disaster sites; where preparing and responding to disasters by local officials is often hampered by insufficient and lack of resources and personnel (Cone, Weir, & Bogucki, 2003).

Theme Seven: Recruiting. County emergency managers are expected to direct personnel and resources before, during, and after an emergency or disaster (Jensen, Bundy, Thomas, & Yakubu, 2014). With that being said, county emergency managers have no legal obligation to recruit volunteers before, during, or after a disaster. The recruitment of volunteers for a disaster was determined to be the responsibility of the individual volunteer agencies and local villages, towns, or municipalities impacted by the disaster. However, according the New York State Homeland Security Strategy (2009) Goal 7 to Strengthen Emergency Planning, Citizen and Community Preparedness: Objective 7.9 it is suggested for local emergency management agencies to "Identify, recruit and train disaster response volunteers by partnering with non-governmental, community-based and faith-based organizations, in accordance with respective CEMPs" (p. 3). County emergency managers determined the most effective recruiting technique was, recruiting "by word of mouth" to rapidly spread information from individual to individual to volunteer during a disaster. With that being said, county emergency managers also included several common recruiting techniques such as: distributing flyers, receptions, luncheons, dinners

and award ceremonies. Nevertheless, it was determined through this study county emergency managers are not responsible for recruiting volunteers for a disaster.

Theme Eight: Training Volunteers. Study findings revealed county emergency managers argued training is important to (a) build volunteer's skills, (b) increase their knowledge to strengthen networks, (c) encourage collaboration, and (d) share information. County emergency managers consistently voiced the need for a pool of trained volunteers to respond to disasters. Further, all respondents argued with proper training and education civilian volunteers can expand the resources available for county emergency operations center as well as their local communities. Disaster training courses for volunteers were similar to first responder training which were rated according to difficulty; the higher the difficulty level, the more complex the knowledge presented. The various levels of training discussed were: (a) basic training accessible to most disaster workers which included: general information and skill development, (b) intermediate/medium training for experienced disaster workers; information is technical but applicable to a broad number of disciplines, and (c) advanced training in specialized functions for experienced disaster workers; information is technical, specific to certain job or responsibility, and assumes the participant understands disaster terminology and principles.

Organizations within their areas who conduct various types of training mentioned by county emergency managers were; American Red Cross, Medical Reserve Corp, and the Office of Fire Prevention and Control. The types of training county emergency managers suggested volunteers should have to prepare them for a disaster were: (a) administrative training on workplace preparation, (b) phone support or intake and dispatch volunteers, (c) fire safety, (d) hazardous materials and (e) terrorist incidents, (f) basic courses for medical personnel and para

medics and (g) light aspects of emergency search and rescue work to include training courses in search and rescue for dogs and dog handlers. Further, volunteers should not be limited to the categories suggested by county emergency managers but expanded to meet the needs of their communities. Historically, the training needs of a community are often centered on social needs such as, mental health counseling, substance abuse counseling, temporary local housing outside of the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) and the assistance with locating lost or separated family members and much more.

County emergency managers from time to time participated in drills and exercises to collaborate with other volunteer agencies, organizations and businesses within their jurisdiction. It was determines within this study spontaneous volunteers outside of emergency services and volunteer organizations active in disasters were often not trained nor did they have the emergency management skills to be recruited, trained, or integrated into a disaster.

Discussion of the Conclusion

It is too premature to fully understand the social or the economic impact this research study might have, however, it provides a good depth of information. The findings show county emergency managers can be an intricate part of a community's volunteer management program. The thought of county emergency managers recruiting, training, and integrating volunteers in a disaster to assist their citizens, could be viewed as an early step to a long term strategy to analyze preparedness against volunteerism. The theoretical concepts of POSDCORB (planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and coordinating, reporting, and budgeting) was an excellent theoretical framework to better understand how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster. The concepts allowed the researcher to understand the value

of POSDCORB in relation specifically to recruiting, to training, to integrating volunteers in disasters. With that being said, the findings within this study revealed the need for county emergency managers to improve their planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and coordinating of disaster volunteers.

Recommendations for Practice

Within this section are seven recommendations for the emergency management field of practice. First, emergency management researchers ought to explore planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and coordinating to illustrate the activities required for emergency managers to guide them within the disaster cycle. By exploring the functional elements of POSDCORB with the disaster cycle according to Gulick (1936) "it is believed that those who know administration intimately will find in this analysis a valid and helpful pattern, into which can be fitted each of the major activities and duties of any chief executive" (p. 13). Second, county emergency managers should be more proactive and consistent in conducting drills and exercises with other volunteer agencies, organizations and businesses within their jurisdiction. According to Somers and Svara (2009) "broadly speaking, exercises represent constructed opportunities to test the operating procedures specified und a plan taught in the training phase. Exercises are considered a form of training in the sense that individuals are rehearsing response measures" (p. 187).

Third, county emergency managers ought to consider having a specific role in managing volunteers during a disaster. For example, county emergency managers should be able to direct and steer volunteers during an emergency or disaster to accomplish the disaster's mission objectives. Helsloot (2008) posited "With command and control is usually referred to centralized

steering of management with the objective to optimize the collaboration of involved professional or parties" (p. 173). Fourth, county emergency managers should develop a volunteer management plan to guide their volunteer management practices. According to Henstra (2010) "A local government that has planned for the coordination of emergent volunteers is better prepared for an emergency than one that has not" (p. 187). Fifth, county emergency managers should utilize all the resources available to them by the federal and state government and private, not-for-profit volunteer agencies to develop a comprehensive volunteer management program. In concert with the NYS Article 2-B (2009) comprehensive emergency management programs are to have "plans to coordinate the use of resources and manpower for service during and after disasters and to deliver services to aid citizens and reduce human suffering resulting from a disaster" (para, 7).

Sixth, the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) should offer hands on training and support to state and local county emergency managers on the management of volunteers. Finally, FEMA should consider developing a volunteer management and donations program guidance in conjunction with their current volunteer management and donations literature to improve the management of volunteers to work with or alongside first responders in response to future disasters. According to Jarret (2013) "Community engagement can lead to a deeper understanding of the unique and diverse needs of a population, including its demographics, values, norms, community structures, net- works, and relationships" (p. 22). The current volunteer management and donations program guidance only identifies targeted capabilities.

Policy Recommendations

Given the rich history of volunteerism within the United States and internationally within this section are three policy recommendations: First, it is recommended for county officials to become increasingly involved in their jurisdiction's emergency management and volunteer management program. Somers and Svara (2009) posited "they must integrate the anticipation and management of emergencies into their overall leadership and management roles" (p. 181). Next, federal and state officials should mandate or highly suggest guidelines for a county's emergency management programs to demonstrate community's resilience through training and exercises to receive funding. The Federal Government may provide assistance in the form of funding, resources, and services. According to the National Response Framework (2013) "Federal departments and agencies may execute interagency or intra-agency reimbursable agreements in accordance with the Economy Act or other applicable authorities" (p. 29). Finally, the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) should consider making it mandatory for the federal, state, and local levels of emergency management to have a volunteer management and donations program (USDH, 2010). With that being said, "Federal departments and agencies respect the sovereignty and responsibilities of local, state, tribal, territorial, and insular area governments while rendering assistance that supports the affected local or state governments" (p. 27).

Recommendations for Future Research

Within this section are three recommendations for future research; first expand the study population within this study to the towns, villages and municipalities' volunteer coordinators and agencies to explore how they recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster. By expanding

the study population to the towns, villages, and municipalities' volunteer coordinators and agencies allows for a better understanding of (a) how county emergency managers interact and collaborate with their community from stakeholders from their perspective and (b) allows for a better understanding of the expectations volunteer coordinators and their agencies have of a county emergency manager. McGuire and Silvia (2010) posited "the public manager of the current era must regularly and skillfully navigate a multitude of actors and programs in the intergovernmental system" (p. 279). Failure to skillfully navigate the multitude of actors and programs in the intergovernmental system will lead to or foster complacency among emergency managers planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and coordinating of volunteers; which directly affects how they recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster.

Next, future research should examine the effectiveness on how the federal and state emergency management agencies prepare local emergency preparedness government officials in volunteer management. For example, in 2005, 73,000 volunteers responded to the request of the American Red Cross to Hurricane Katrina and Hurricane Rita working with public safety responders to save lives and protect property (Villagran, Wittenberg-Lyles & Garza, p. 87). Acknowledging there is no universal strategy or accepted standards to manage and integrate volunteers into a disaster, however, Perry and Lindell (2003) argued similar to Villagran, Wittenberg-Lyles and Garza (2006) that public safety officials should plan in advance for volunteers to handle a multitude of emergencies. Finally, based on this study's findings future research should explore the impact of volunteers on a county to determine the need for additional staff and funding to manage a volunteer management and donation program within a county. The

National Response Framework (2013) posited "Generally, federal assistance and funding are provided to meet specific emergency needs or to help prevent a catastrophe from occurring" (p. 28). Volunteers within emergency services play a significant role in the staffing of emergency operations centers during an emergency or disaster. Local and state officials are responsible for planning for the safety of their staff and volunteers deployed to a disaster site. Therefore, it is imperative to improve disaster planning to allow for the appropriate incorporation of volunteers into the response and recovery phase of a disaster (Perry & Lindell, 2003, p. 53).

Chapter Summary and Conclusion

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to examine New York State county emergency managers' perspectives of recruiting, training, and integrating volunteers for a disaster. This was one of the few qualitative if not the first to examine the perspective of county emergency managers to recruit, train and integrate volunteers for a disaster. A qualitative case study approach provided a comprehensive approach to the concurrent examination of administrative theory functional elements of POSDCORB, disaster management, and volunteer management. This study provided a framework to expand disaster management and volunteer management by capturing the perspectives of county emergency managers to improve disaster preparedness and response by examining the following eight emergent themes: (a) planning for volunteers, (b) organizing volunteers, (c) staffing volunteering, (d) directing volunteers, (e) legal issues, (f) coordinating and integrating volunteers, (g) recruiting volunteers, and (h) training principal research question; "How do county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster?"

The study findings were supported by the current literature, however little literature was provided on how county emergency managers recruit, train and integrate volunteers in a disaster. The results of this study yield data rich in detail about how county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster which can contribute to the management of volunteers before, during and after a disaster. Since this approach has not been used before to examine how county emergency managers recruit, train and integrate volunteers for a disaster provides a new reason for synthesis of the elements of disaster management and volunteer management to be examined further. The findings revealed that recruiting, training and integrating volunteers in a disaster can potentially lead to determining an overall level of preparedness, thus enabling county emergency managers to make improvements to their disaster management and volunteer management plans and strategies. County emergency managers and volunteer coordinators concerned with improving their disaster management and volunteer management plans may find this research valuable.

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APPENDIX A.

Statement of Original Work and Signature

I have read, understood, and abided by Capella University's Academic Honesty Policy (3.01.01) and Research Misconduct Policy (3.03.06), including the Policy Statements, Rationale, and Definitions.

I attest that this dissertation or capstone project is my own work. Where I have used the ideas or words of others, I have paraphrased, summarized, or used direct quotes following the guidelines set forth in the APA *Publication Manual*.

Learner name and date	Willie K. Carley September 9, 2014
Mentor name and school	Dr. Thomas E. Poulin, PhD, Capella University

APPENDIX B. INTERVIEW QUESTIONS GUIDE

The instrument used for this study is a self-developed, nine open-ended questionnaire guide to answer the research question: "How do county emergency managers recruit, train, and integrate volunteers for a disaster?" The following questions will be answered from your perspective as an emergency manager and thus guide the interview.

1. How does your organization you recruit volunteers for a disaster? Please explain specific methods your organization uses such as communications, flyers etc. please provide additional detail on what works and what does not work?

2. How does your organization plan and prepare volunteers to work alongside first responders during a disaster? Please fully describe any training or exercises.

3. What type of training do volunteers in your county receive to prepare them to operate in a disaster environment? Describe fully all training.

4. How are county volunteers integrated into a disaster? Provide examples.

5. How does your organization collaborate with other volunteer agencies, organizations, and businesses within your area of responsibility to recruit, train and integrate their volunteers for a disaster? Provide specifics about your collaboration efforts?

6. How do you manage spontaneous volunteers who show up during an ongoing disaster event? Please explain?

7. How does your organization use the volunteer management and donations target capability list? Please provide specific examples.

8. Does your county have a Community Emergency Response Team (CERT)? If yes, How are CERT members trained, recruited and integrated into disasters? If not, please explain why not.

9. Is there anything we have not talked about concerning volunteers in disaster management that you would like to add?

APPENDIX C. PROBING QUESTIONS

Examples of probing questions that will surround this study that can be used during the interviews are:

To seek additional information if something is vague or unclear.

Please elaborate, and explain what exactly did you mean by that?
Could you tell me more about that?

To understand the purpose of why something was said to get at the underlying meaning

Why did you say that?
What were you thinking about when you said that?

To understand the relevance if the participant seems to be going off topic, the relevance can be checked.

How is what you are saying related to what I asked?
Is that relevant to the question I asked?

The completeness and accuracy can be checked by probing for more details or by checking against information you already have.

Is there anything you would like to add?
How do you know that is true?
How does that compare with what you said before?

An effective way of getting more detail is simply by asking the same question in a different way or by rephrasing the same question (repetition).

APPENDIX D. VOLUNTEERISM HISTORICAL DISASTERS LIST

VOLUNTEERISM IN THE U.S.: A LONG AND PROUD TRADITION	
The Colonization of America	(1607-1781)
New American Frontiers	(1782-1850)
The Civil War Period	(1851-1899)
Industrialization and the First World War	(1900-1919)
The Great Depression and World War II	(1920-1945)
Post World War II, through the Vietnam War,	(1946-1969)
HISTORICAL DISASTERS	
The Johnstown Flood	1889
Hurricane and Storm Surges in Galveston, Texas	1900
San Francisco Earthquake	1906
Mine Disaster of Cherry, Illinois	1909
The Great Mississippi Flood	1927
The Major Drought of	1930-1931
Anchorage Alaska Earthquake	1964
Hurricane Camille	1969
Hurricane Hugo	1989
Hurricane Andrew	1992
The Midwest Floods	1993
The Oklahoma City Bombing	1995
Hurricane Marilyn	1995
2001 World Trade Center Terrorist Attacks	2001
Hurricane Katrina & Rita	2005