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## GIS Solutions for Medium and Small Law-Enforcement Agencies

By Jay Kehoe  
Law Enforcement

In the last decade, computer crime mapping has emerged as one of the most important innovations in American police work. Advances in computer technology and in the rapidly expanding field of Geographic Information Systems (GIS) have coincided with innovations in crime analysis, investigation, and crime prevention. GIS and mapping software, once available only to agencies possessing mainframe computers, can now be easily loaded on the laptops carried in patrol vehicles and therefore can be used by even small and budget-constrained police departments. The innovations demanded by community and problem-oriented policing require that departments incorporate a geographic, spatial, or local focus, and emphasize the importance of integrating crime-mapping techniques into departmental management, analysis, and enforcement practices.

Although crime mapping has become the new “hot topic” in law-enforcement circles, there are several questions still being asked, among them the following: How can it be used to assist the police officer on the street to do his or her job better? What resources are available to small or medium agencies that once were available only through the high-priced records-management systems used by larger agencies? Who needs to be educated, and to what level, to anticipate the future information needs of law-enforcement agencies?

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## First-Responder Accreditation: The Pros and Cons

By Ashley Paul Moore  
Standards

*“Never, never, never believe any war will be smooth and easy, or that anyone who embarks on the strange voyage can measure the tides and hurricanes he will encounter. The statesman who yields to war fever must realize that, once the signal is given, he is no longer the master of policy, but the slave of unforeseeable and uncontrollable events.”*

~ Sir Winston Churchill (1874 - 1965)

For the past several years, members of Congress and Bush Administration officials have debated the need for establishing a comprehensive set of national standards to regulate state and local terrorism preparedness programs. Proponents say that a set of recognized and federally supported standards could significantly improve the capabilities of the nation’s first-responder community to counter a terrorist attack involving chemical, biological, radiological, nuclear, and/or improvised high-yield explosive (CBRNE) weapons.

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**GIS Solutions for Medium and Small Law-Enforcement Agencies**

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Municipalities across the country are now working on various stages of implementing GIS projects related to the engineering, planning, and zoning particulars as well as the general infrastructure of their own communities. Law-enforcement agencies can tap into the vast new resources of information now available to power such programs as Community Policing Beat Book – a free program funded by the National Institute for Justice (NIJ) – and provide a wealth of practical mapping information directly to the officer in the field. The availability of this new resource will enable the officer to have at his or her fingertips the GIS information needed not only for traditional crime mapping but also for emergency scene management and other purposes.

**A Wealth of Helpful Data, and Easy to Use**

The Community Policing Beat Book is an easy-to-use resource that gives an officer access to electronic maps that display an abundance of helpful data about the community, provides tools for recording and mapping various types of information, and facilitates simple search-and-query functions. These and other applications – which are designed for use either in the field on a laptop or in-car computer, or at the station – can be “personalized” by the officer for his or her own uses.

The most important operational question usually asked, of course, is this: What does a Geographic Information System offer to the first responding patrol officer? There are several answers to that question, among them the following:

Immediate access to mission-critical information – i.e., information that has been compiled by various governmental and quasi-governmental agencies, for a variety of different reasons relevant to their own organizational missions and responsibilities.

Municipal taxpayer information – usually collected by local assessors, and providing up-to-date information about the owner or owners of any particular building and/or any given parcel of land within the community, along with specific descriptive contact information about each, and almost any other information recorded on the tax rolls of any community.

Information related to easements for essential services such as power transmissions, water supply, telephone and data communications, and sanitary services; typically, such information is displayed in a visual format that makes it immediately helpful to the officer.

Imaging, either actual aerial photographs or scale drawings – these can be overlaid with geographic points of reference, the location of underground utilities, and even elevation contours to help the officer better visualize the terrain in the area. Starting with an aerial view of an entire community, the officer can “drill-down” to view a single parcel of property, or specify a given radius of properties from a central, definable point.

Other infrastructure information – e.g., building outlines, the location of roads and parking lots, fire roads, driveways, and even fences and storm drains.

Natural resources in the area—lakes, ponds, streams, wetlands, and forests all can be referenced, frequently with trails and fire-access roadways visible that usually are not included on average maps.

Alarm registrations – including information on the types of alarms, activation points, floor plans, and emergency contacts.

Vehicle information and dog-licensing and weapons-permits data and other information routinely collected within any municipality.

#### **A Broad Spectrum of Potential Scenarios**

The best perimeter positions for a bank-robbery response can be quickly coordinated through the use of GIS by viewing building plot plans to identify lines of sight, and interior floor plans to identify entrances and exits. Interior building plans can be easily accessed for critical tactical planning. Roadways and the surrounding terrain can be quickly viewed to identify potential avenues of escape and/or determine the best means of capture.

Another scenario develops when a simple motor vehicle accident causes the spill of toxic chemicals on the roadway. GIS technology can be used to instantly identify all drainage avenues, waterways, and elevations within various distances from the crash site, assisting responding personnel to effectively contain potential sources of contamination and minimize environmental damage and/or to determine the size of an already contaminated water system.

Yet a third scenario would be followed if a child wanders into a wooded area and becomes lost. At the initial scene, the officer can use his or her vehicle as a hasty command post and access the geographic information system to view scalable aerial photographs showing all local structures and the local terrain as well as trails and other geographic points, thus narrowing the scope of the search and minimizing the amount of manpower likely to be required.

A mundane search for a barking dog at two o'clock in the morning also could be easily narrowed by accessing dog-licensing data to find information about the addresses of owners as well as the breed and sex of all of the registered canines in a tightly defined area.

Small to medium jurisdictions require a scale of implementation that can be successfully – i.e., affordably – supported and maintained. These jurisdictions differ from larger ones in many ways. The expectations of law-enforcement management, the nature of staffing, and the need for technical support may differ considerably. Developing the support network needed by smaller-jurisdiction crime analysts may be critical for long-term success, but does not have to be expensive. Frequently, the expertise needed for implementation and use of GIS information is already available in other departments of the same municipality that are using GIS data for other important tasks not directly related to law enforcement.

The two-step solution here is first to determine what and how much GIS information is needed by the law-enforcement agency, and then to work in close coordination with the municipality's other departments to harvest that data on a continuing basis for the benefit of the law-enforcement personnel.

Several GIS programs to help law-enforcement agencies and/or to assist in the training needed to develop and implement programs are available, free of charge, for those agencies willing to invest the time needed to develop their in-house expertise. The National Institute of Justice is the research and development agency of the U.S. Department of Justice. The National Law Enforcement and Corrections Technology Center (NLECTC) is a program of NIJ's [http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/nij/about\\_sci.htm](http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/nij/about_sci.htm) Office of Science and Technology. NLECTC currently offers funded training programs through its Crime Mapping and Analysis Program (NLECTC Rocky Mountain – see [www.nlectc.org/cmap/](http://www.nlectc.org/cmap/)). Funded training also is available through the National Counterdrug Training Center in Indiantown Gap, Pa., and at Volk Field, Wis. (see [www.counterdrug.org/frames.html](http://www.counterdrug.org/frames.html)).

The Community Policing Beat Book was created using ESRI's MapObjects, and its development was supported under an award from the National Institute of Justice of the Department of Justice. The Community Policing Beat Book can be downloaded at [www.esri.com/industries/lawenforce/product-services/beatbook.html](http://www.esri.com/industries/lawenforce/product-services/beatbook.html)

## **First-Responder Accreditation: The Pros and Cons**

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Amy Smithson of the Henry L. Stimson Center remarked, for example, during a House Committee on Government Reform hearing in October 2001, that “The prerequisite for institutionalization is standards, and all of the response disciplines ... [have] expressed an abundance of frustration over the absence of standards and protocols to guide them. Standards command the attention of rescue and healthcare personnel because they are the backbone of accountability.”

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## First-Responder Accreditation: The Pros and Cons

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By now Congress, the Government Accountability Office, and the White House's own preparedness officials should be able to assure the public that first responders nationwide can handle an adversary's attack with at least some reasonable level of competency. As noted in *Defeating the Jihadists: A Blueprint for Action*, by Richard A. Clarke, America's local and state emergency responders are on the front line when it comes to homeland security. However, although certain first-responder standards are now required in most areas of the country, these standards are not yet universal. Evenly applied, though, nationwide standards could be of critical importance, given the central role likely to be played by first responders in managing the immediate response to a terrorist attack and the probability that their efforts in the initial minutes following such an attack might well determine how many lives will be saved and how quickly order is likely to be restored.

The nation's emergency responders, like military field medics, have been asked to place themselves in harm's way to defend and rescue the wounded on the most likely battlefields of the 21st century. However, since the Defense Against Weapons of Mass Destruction Act of 1996, billions of dollars have been invested in preparedness programs, and national, state, and local counterterrorism training exercises have been carried out for many years, and have been thoroughly documented. But there still is no comprehensive readiness assessment available that can be used to validate the effectiveness of specific programs or exercises.

### Is First-Responder Accreditation Really Needed?

In a 1 October 2002 DHS (Department of Homeland Security) press release on Grants and Funding for Fiscal Year 2004, the department acknowledged the need for a national first-responders training accreditation program. The same press release noted that the DHS Homeland Security Science and Technology division would be allocated \$39 million to develop a database of homeland security-related training as well as the performance standards offered by private-sector organizations within the first-responder community that have focused on the development of standards.

There is little if any agreement on what agency, or private-sector organization, should be assigned the responsibility for developing – and evaluating – first-responder accreditation standards. Currently, private educational accrediting associations, both regional and national, usually develop and promulgate evaluation criteria and then conduct peer

evaluations to assess whether or not a specific institution should be permitted to offer its programs to the public. It seems reasonable to suggest that institutions that develop CBRNE responder programs – arguably a much more important responsibility – also should be evaluated by a government agency and should meet the preferably rigorous preparedness criteria set by that agency.

The same process should be used to evaluate organizations and institutions at all levels – state, local, and federal – of government, including the Department of Homeland Security itself, as well as contractors and consulting firms working in the preparedness field. As an interesting side note, it should be noted that even the U.S. Department of Education does not accredit educational institutions and/or programs.

The Office of Domestic Preparedness, the Department of Health and Human Services, the Department of Justice, and the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) all develop and maintain various sets of responder-training and/or terrorism-preparedness criteria, and have participated in a broad spectrum of standards development programs – none of which, however, have been nationally accredited.

On the other hand, educational institutions, such as colleges and universities, can and have adopted programs similar to those mentioned above and offer credit for training completed. The fact that this credit is an option is due primarily to the influence of such respected organizations as the National Association of Emergency Managers, the International Association of Fire Chiefs, and the Commission of Accreditation on Ambulance Services (CAAS). CAAS and other accreditation standards might be useful as a template to use by the agency or organization eventually responsible for the accreditation of first responders.

### Why Is Accreditation Important?

Accreditation, it is generally agreed, is the key – in any professional field – to assessing the quality of institutions, programs, and services, measuring them against agreed-on standards, and determining whether specific institutions, and/or individuals, meet those standards. Because there are two types of accreditation, institutional and programmatic (or specialized), the accreditation standards should fit a definitive baseline:

Institutional accreditation reassures potential students that an institution is both credible and competent, and that its administrative body, training resources, employees, and services have met certain minimum standards.

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Programmatic, or specialized, accreditation scrutinizes particular schools and/or programs within a larger educational institution – e.g., law schools, medical schools, and nursing programs that are affiliated with a major university. There are standards by which the types of programs offered are measured; in general, such programs are developed by professionals involved in each branch of learning and reflect what an individual must know and be capable of performing successfully within the specialized profession.

An excellent example of what might be required for counterterrorism programs is the Hazardous Waste Operations and Emergency Response standard, inelegantly called HAZWOPER, which was put into effect in March 1990. HAZWOPER training addresses several elements of hazardous materials response, including some specifically relevant to CBRNE incidents. For example, it identifies the necessary elements – e.g., lines of authority, site security, and evacuation procedures – of an acceptable emergency-response plan. It also establishes standards for different levels of training competency – e.g., the increasing levels of capability required to be qualified as a technician, a specialist, and/or an incident commander. Reasonable but well-monitored regulations specify the gradually increasing knowledge, skills, and abilities the responder must possess at each level. HAZWOPER also sets standards for personal protective equipment, decontamination gear, refresher training, and the medical surveillance of first responders.

There already are several nongovernmental organizations that have the responsibility of accrediting public safety agencies. Among them are the Commission on Fire Accreditation International (CFAI), the Commission on Accreditation of Law Enforcement Agencies (CALEA), and the Joint Commission on Accreditation of Health Organizations (JCAHO). Even though these organizations develop preparedness standards, their focus in the past was on general improvement of the agencies they monitor. They now also evaluate the facility emergency management and terrorism preparedness programs of those agencies.

State and local officials throughout the United States are divided on the issue of requiring accreditation for emergency-service providers. Advocates believe that achieving accreditation validates the need for standard processes that define emergency-services capabilities and ensures that reasonable levels of both quality and uniformity are met. However, opponents commonly

criticize the process as too time-consuming and costly, and claim that accreditation is not a viable way to measure readiness. Regardless of the arguments for and against, the establishment of a reasonable set of standards, coupled with periodic organizational-compliance assessments, should at least upgrade the level of capability required and at the same time improve the odds of saving more lives in the wake of any terrorist attack or other catastrophic event.

### Cruel Facts, and a Possible Solution

At the heart of most national terrorism preparedness proposals, the most important task is almost always to define the minimum essential capabilities that should be expected of emergency responders, rather than create another bureaucracy for accreditation of first-responder training programs. The cruel fact is, though, that there now are no clearly defined national standards for determining the essential capabilities required of first responders, and no way to assess past and/or current progress toward domestic preparedness at the federal, state, or local levels.

However, the Homeland Security Grant Enhancement Act of 2005 offers a possible resolution to the quandary. The Act creates a “Homeland Security Information Clearinghouse (HSIC),” under the purview of the Office of State and Local Government Coordination (OSLGC) that would, among other things, collect and disseminate information on voluntary standards that might be adopted for preparedness training, equipment, and exercises. The Clearinghouse also would provide information to state and local governments about homeland security grants, the technical assistance available, best practices ideas, and how federal funds might be used for facility emergency management and terrorism preparedness training programs. The logical next step might be, therefore, to assign the development of standardized accredited first-responder training programs to the same agency. These programs could use one of three processes (outlined in Executive Order 12866, U.S. Congress, Office of Technology Assessment, Global Standards: Building Blocks for the Future, and P.L. 104-113, sec 12(d)(1); 110 Stat. 783) to develop the standards needed – the de facto process, a voluntary consensus process, or a regulatory process (the latter would require approval and monitoring by OSLGC/HSIC). Following is a brief summary of each process:

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*De Facto Process.* Sometimes first responders will gradually adapt the way they operate to fit the best practices learned through experience and interaction with other responders. Although de facto standards allow states and localities greater discretion in developing and implementing the standards that best meet their individual needs, an inconsistent or untimely approach could result in incompatibilities with national standards, ultimately minimizing efficiencies in time and cost.

*Voluntary Consensus Process.* The National Technology Transfer Advancement Act of 1995 states that, "To the extent practicable," all federal agencies and departments "shall use, for procurement and regulatory applications, standards that are developed or adopted by voluntary consensus standards bodies." Many nongovernmental organizations, such as the National Fire Protection Association (NFPA), influence the development of preparedness standards through the Voluntary Consensus Process.

*Regulatory Process.* In situations wherein standards are not being developed and/or implemented in a timely manner, or when existing standards are inadequate, federal, state, and/or local governments can require that a mandatory regulatory process be established to resolve the situation.

Proponents argue that adopting voluntary consensus standards for regulatory purposes could and should lead to greater acceptance and implementation. On the other hand, a number of circumstances can render the process ineffective, including a dominating regulatory agency, stakeholders who are unsatisfied with their level of representation, and/or cumbersome administrative processes. Moreover, regulatory standards must be updated from time to time – to keep pace with advances in technology, for example – if they are to retain their legitimacy.

Robert Kupperman and Darrell Trent, the authors of *Terrorism: Threat, Reality, Response*, point out that the conflict between terrorists and governments is not a zero-sum game. It is, rather, a much more complex contest, rich with mixed strategies. When faced with the credible prospect of a mass-destruction attack, every concessionary move made by a government is not only tactical but also potentially strategic. Ideally, of course, in the event of an actual threat, there will be enough time to locate and disarm the specific instrument of destruction – and, as in many popular books and television programs, also capture the terrorists.

In the real world, the final result might be considerably different.

## EMS in the Fire Service—A New Trend in Patient Care

By Rob Schnepf  
Fire/Hazmat

*Biological weapons are in essence a medical problem, and thus require a medical solution. The ultimate goal of bio-defense is to prevent suffering and loss of life. If biological weapons have minimal impact on the well being of their targets, they are ineffective and thus cease to be a threat. Therefore, we must concentrate on developing appropriate medical defenses."* Dr. Ken Alibek, former deputy director of Biopreparat, the former Soviet Union's now-defunct biological weapons program.

Dr. Alibek defected from the Soviet Union in 1992 after working in the USSR's biological weapons program for over twenty years. Since then, he has served as a consultant to numerous U.S. government agencies, offering his expertise in the areas of medical microbiology, biological weapons defense, and biological weapons nonproliferation. His book, *Biohazard*, published in 2000 (by Arrow Publishing, a division of Random House), recounts with chilling accuracy the story of the largest covert biological weapons program in history. The book also discusses the development and use of biological weapons, and provides the reader with detailed information about the consequences of an attack with such weapons – eye-opening information, to say the least.

Experts in the biological weapons field say it is all but certain that some terrorist group is already attempting to create a unique chemical formula, or drug-resistant strain of a bacteria or virus, that could be unleashed without warning on innocent citizens of any number of countries, including the United States. Largely because of that possibility, America's first responders – including policemen, firemen, and EMS (emergency medical services) personnel – are preparing for the worst while at the same time trying to improve their own ability to respond to any event involving weapons of mass destruction (WMDs).

In addition to preparing to cope with acts of terrorism, however, first responders also must be mindful of the several other types of "routine" chemical emergencies that occur every day.

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## EMS in the Fire Service—A New Trend in Patient Care

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There are approximately 100,000 chemicals of various types registered in the United States, and thousands more are developed each year. Most are commercial and household products, or chemicals used in farms and gardens or for industrial purposes. Most are produced, transported, and used in the United States itself – but many also are exported overseas. Inevitably, there are a certain number of accidental releases and exposures – and some intentional ones as well. Whether accidental or intentional, when such releases occur the local fire department is usually the first of the first responders to arrive on the scene and begin the process of containing the release while also starting to provide patient care, if such care is needed.

### An Unfortunate Deficiency

Unfortunately, most current HAZMAT (hazardous materials) training programs, at the technician and specialist levels, are deficient in their teaching of such topics as the recognition and treatment of chemical and biological exposures. The same is true for most paramedic training programs.

Currently, fire departments of all sizes throughout the United States are taking a number of steps to bridge the skills gap in the critical area of treating those who have been exposed to chemical releases. New training programs, typically called hazmedic or toxmedic, focus on such specifics as how to recognize the signs and symptoms of certain types of exposures; there also is additional emphasis on antidotes, and on the medical management of acute chemical exposures. The goal of much of this training is to teach students how to recognize the signs and symptoms of acute chemical exposures and other poisonings, and to give the prehospital care provider the tools needed to treat such exposures. Generally speaking, a well-trained hazmedic should have the ability to, among other things:

Identify the setting of, or potential for, a chemical exposure or other toxicological exposures (such as an exposure to a biological-warfare agent).

Render appropriate and timely treatment for toxic industrial chemical exposures, and/or exposures to various weapons of mass destruction.

Recommend specific decontamination procedures to minimize the negative health effects caused by chemical and biological exposures.

Serve as a special toxicological resource on any incident in this field ranging from a mass-casualty attack to a single-patient incident.

In some fire-department response systems, those designated as hazmedics have a background in hazardous materials and, in addition to being licensed paramedics, also may be trained to the level of hazardous materials technician. Other fire departments opt to keep the two separate – the hazmedic is a licensed paramedic who receives the additional toxicological training needed to deal with hazmat incidents, and perhaps responds on an ambulance, or as a member of a paramedic-level engine company, but may not have completed any hazardous-materials training beyond the operational level. There are in any case a large number of implementation options – each department or agency involved must decide what works best for its own people.

There are several ways to obtain hazmedic training – for which, somewhat inexplicably, no national standards have yet been set. First, an agency may choose to conceive and implement a curriculum that is developed internally. This option may prove time-consuming, but it has the advantage of permitting maximum customization. The availability of a well-qualified subject-matter expert is the key to making this option not only workable but cost-effective as well.

### Turnkey Training Available Through the NFA

If a turnkey training method is preferred, any department or agency interested may want to consider the program offered by the National Fire Academy (NFA) in Emmittsburg, Md. The NFA program offers a two-week class that emphasizes basic chemistry, chemical substances, and the medical management of chemically exposed patients. Following, from the NFA website, is the course description:

“This two-week course is designed for paramedic personnel who have an Advanced Life Support (ALS) emergency medical responsibility at hazardous materials incidents, and it promises a rigorous experience for the student. In-depth chemistry, as it relates to hazardous materials, the medical management of victims, and the development and management of the hazardous materials components of the medical support system are the three primary focuses of this course. Toxicology and decontamination procedures are covered from an advanced EMS [emergency medical services] viewpoint. Strategies for safe emergency medical interaction with contaminated victims are discussed in detail”

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For more information on the NFA course, “Advanced Life Support Response to Hazardous Materials Incidents” [course code 0247], consult the United States Fire Administration website (<http://www.usfa.fema.gov>).

Another training option is available at the University of Arizona Health Sciences Center in Tucson, Ariz. The center offers an intensive 16-hour program, called Advanced Hazmat Life Support (AHLS), that trains participants to rapidly assess hazmat patients, recognize several basic toxic syndromes, apply the poisoning treatment paradigm (a patented method to determine the appropriate course of action for treating an exposed patient), demonstrate the ability to medically manage hazmat patients, and identify specific antidotes for various exposure scenarios.

The AHLS program is offered several times a year both at the University of Arizona and at other sites throughout the United States. For additional information about the program consult the center’s website (<http://ahls.org>).

From a national perspective, the value of providing more, and better, hazmed training extends well beyond Alibek’s advice to “develop adequate medical defenses” against weapons of mass destruction. Such programs, if well planned and carefully implemented, will provide an important “add on” to existing paramedic training programs that will enhance and expand the ability of individual paramedics, as well as the departments or agencies they work for, to provide better and more comprehensive medical care to the community they serve.

## State Defense Forces: An Untapped Resource

By Brent C. Bankus  
Military Support

Because of the high operational tempo of the nation’s active-duty forces and federalized reserves in recent years it is far from certain if there will be enough trained personnel available to carry out the many duties and responsibilities likely to be assigned to the U.S. military in future times of crisis affecting the American homeland. One potential source of additional manpower to help in the Global War on Terrorism, particularly the homeland-security missions, is what are called the State Defense Forces (SDFs), an asset frequently neglected by national and state contingency planners, many of whom may be unaware that such units even exist.

But they do, and they represent a high-quality asset that might well be needed in the foreseeable future, particularly if the nation’s armed services continue to deploy their active and reserve forces to such current trouble spots as Iraq, Afghanistan, and the Philippines—while also using them for other missions of long standing in Kosovo, Bosnia, the Korean Peninsula, and the Sinai.

With counterterrorism experts virtually unanimous in their belief that the real question about “the next terrorist attack” is a matter of “not if, but when,” it may be time to consider how SDFs can be used to relieve the pressure on the active-duty units, including the Guard and Reserve forces already mobilized.

### Continuity and Capability Both

SDFs were first used extensively early in the twentieth century when the National Guards of many states were mobilized and deployed overseas in both combat and support roles. The governors of the states suddenly bereft of Guard units were not prepared to cope with local disasters, either natural or manmade, of any consequence, so they directed the formation of replacement units—state defense forces, in other words. One of the earliest uses of SDFs was during the Mexican Border Campaign of 1916-17. SDF units also were used to good effect in World Wars I and II and in the Korean War.

Prior to the 1980s, the SDFs usually were called Home Guards or State Guards. Although modeled after the National Guard in form and function—with infantry the dominant branch—they were intended to be for state use only.

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The infantry designation was used primarily because most if not all SDF missions were of the type usually assigned to infantry units—e.g., the guarding of critical infrastructure sites, and the use of small-unit tactics. Because there was a preponderance of prior-service or even retired military personnel, including many former National Guardsmen, in the SDF ranks, these replacement units represented a force significantly experienced in state contingencies and thus were able to provide a valuable continuity of service to the citizens of those states fielding such units.

World War II proved to be the high water mark for the SDFs, with all but four states organizing and using these so-called “replacement” National Guard units. For four critical weeks after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor on 7 December 1941 more than 13,000 Home Guard troops nationwide were on duty protecting critical infrastructure sites such as dams, electrical plants, bridges, and defense factories.

Although never called upon during the war for actual combat missions, many state Home Guard units ably carried out such traditional National Guard missions as infrastructure security; they also were used to help settle labor disputes and to assist local law-enforcement agencies. Because they were theoretically vulnerable to invasion and/or “another” surprise attack, some states—California, for example—kept a number of Home Guard units on state active duty for the duration of the war.

### High Value for a Modest Cost

There are now SDF units available in 22 states and in Puerto Rico. Recognized under Title 32 of the U.S. Code, they operate under the direct control of their own state adjutant generals, and are regularly used to augment the National Guards of their home states—in such assignments as search-and-rescue missions, the provision of legal and medical services, and various duties in emergency operations centers. They also are available for missions similar to those carried out by their predecessors of the early 1900s, such as responding to disasters and protecting critical infrastructure.

Some SDFs have fielded their own air units, and thus are able to use privately owned fixed-wing aircraft for a variety of missions ranging from search and rescue to assisting federal and state forest-service units. In response to the growing concern over Weapons of Mass Destruction, a growing number of SDFs have incorporated

nuclear/biological/chemical (NBC) courses in their training programs and/or have created their own NBC units.

The costs associated with maintaining SDFs are relatively modest, mostly because weekend and annual training programs are carried out almost exclusively on a volunteer non-pay basis—as are the actual missions to which the SDFs might be assigned. The general rule is that SDF personnel are paid only while actually serving on state active duty. In the immediate aftermath of the 9/11 attacks, for example, the SDFs that had been called up by Alaska and New York were paid only for the few weeks they were serving on state active duty (to augment the federalized National Guard forces of those states).

Their typical volunteer status makes it relatively inexpensive for a state to maintain its SDF as a force-in-being. Moreover, the minimal equipment required by most SDF personnel keeps maintenance and operational costs fairly low.

Despite their obvious value, SDFs receive little in the way of federal support. In principle, the Department of Defense and the National Guard Bureau both support the development and employment of SDFs as logical back-fill organizations that can be quickly called up in the absence of the National Guard. But the federal government has provided almost no funding support for SDFs. Similarly, Congress approved the legislation needed for the formation of SDFs, but at least some congressional leaders seem to believe that the states themselves should fund the SDFs, because the SDF units were created primarily to respond to state problems. The attacks of 9/11 showed, however, that state problems may very quickly turn into major federal problems. The same is true of natural disasters, of course, such as hurricanes and/or power outages.

There are several associated second-level effects caused by the lack of federal recognition, including the fact that SDFs are not permitted to procure excess federal equipment such as uniforms, and related personnel gear.

### Issues Still to be Resolved

Several other issues, in addition to federal recognition, must be resolved before the SDFs can be used as effectively as they might be. One involves the potential state liability for the actions of an SDF member while serving in a volunteer status. Training standards (and personal standards—e.g., individual height-and-weight requirements) also have to be addressed; a unit of SDF volunteers might well find it difficult to meet the necessarily more demanding standards set for regular Army units.

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## State Defense Forces: An Untapped Resource

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Another important issue is personal rank—especially the rank of officers—in SDF units, which frequently is much higher than might be expected for units that are relatively small in size. This is because many members of SDF units are retired former officers or non-commissioned officers who attained a relatively high rank prior to their retirement from active duty.

There also is little consensus on how SDF units should be organized and equipped. Although usually considered as potential replacements for National Guard units able to support state authorities in the preservation of life, the protection of property, and the maintenance of law and order, they would be called out principally during natural disasters. There are some, though, who believe that SDFs also should be trained for actual combat roles as well.

History has shown that, when they have been given adequate funding and training, SDFs can be and have been effective. As replacement units, SDFs have ably filled the void during critical wartime periods in the nation's history.

Given the numerous uncertainties related to the Global War on Terrorism, and in view of the continuing drain on the active-duty and National Guard and Reserve force structures, it might be prudent for federal and state homeland-security planners to explore the potential of the SDFs for future use. With a minimum investment, and the formulation of policies that allow for their effective use, the State Defense Forces could become an important new national-security asset.

## State Homeland News: Arkansas, New Jersey and Alaska

By Anthony Lanzillotti  
State Homeland News

### ARKANSAS:

#### Arkansas Department Of Emergency Management (ADEM)

The vision of the ADEM states, "The Arkansas Department of Emergency Management will be the recognized leader nationwide for state-level homeland security and disaster preparedness programs, policies, and procedures by 2010." In keeping with this vision, the ADEM has implemented a list of Suggested Protective Measures for its civilian population based on recommendations from the Department of Homeland Security.

ADEM has also posted information on disaster plans and supplies for its citizens on the [www.adem.state.ar.us](http://www.adem.state.ar.us) website, and includes a link to the Arkansas Department of Health (ADH). The ADH has formed the Bio-terrorism Command Center, providing training, continuing education, and preparedness information on biological agents to health and emergency services personnel in the state.

ADEM is continuously offering training classes to local emergency managers and first responders, city and county government officials, volunteer organizations, and private-sector personnel involved in emergency response. Courses being offered include National Incident Management System (NIMS), Incident Command System (ICS), Weapons of Mass Destruction, and Hazardous Materials training. The new "ADEM-PUB2" document provides detailed information on NIMS implementation and requirements to local and state government personnel.

### NEW JERSEY:

#### Counter-Terrorism Symposium

On February 19, 2005, the United States Marine Corps Reserve Association held a Counter-Terrorism Symposium at the Clarion Hotel and Conference Center in Atlantic City. This symposium was held in cooperation with the New Jersey Office of Counter Terrorism (OCT), the New Jersey Naval Militia Foundation (NJNMF), Regional Security Consultants, and a few other private businesses.

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## State Homeland News: Arkansas, New Jersey and Alaska

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Major General (USMC, Retired) George T. Garrett, Deputy Assistant Director of the NJ OCT, and Captain Ken Mallette of the NJ State Police Homeland Security Division were the keynote speakers. They described various programs throughout New Jersey related to emergency preparedness and homeland security initiatives, including the "TOPOFF" preparedness exercise planned for the spring. The "TOPOFF" exercise will simulate a bio-terror attack and require the participation of senior decision-making officials from multiple agencies at all levels of government, as well as private-sector professionals throughout New Jersey.

Professionals from various agencies and organizations throughout the state were in attendance, including medical services, police departments, private security, transportation, and the military. The eight-hour symposium covered various topics, including school security, NIMS/ICS compliance, IT Security, Vehicle Borne Explosive Devices, and a panel discussion featuring personnel from the U.S. Coast Guard, NJ State Police, NJ Motor Truck Association, New Jersey Business Force, and the Lessons Learned Information Sharing system.

### ALASKA:

#### Updated Exercise Schedule and New Quarterly Newsletter

The Alaska Department of Military and Veterans Affairs Division of Homeland Security and Emergency Management Exercise Team has just added a February 2005 Exercise Schedule Update. The Alaska Division of Homeland Security and Emergency Management Coordination Team are currently planning the "Alaska Shield" and "Northern Edge" exercises in conjunction with Northern Command and Joint Task Force Alaska. These exercises are scheduled for 14 August to 19 August 2005.

The Division of Homeland Security and Emergency Management (DHS&EM) publishes a quarterly newsletter, the "Alaska Prepared Quarterly." Volume 1 covers events between September 2004 and January 2005. The newsletter summarizes a few key events from the quarterly period, including the Alaska National Guard response to the city of Kaktovik's prolonged power outage, state and federal cooperation in response to the Bering Sea storm disaster, Tsunami preparation, and a Canadian cross-border terrorism exercise.

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