CITIZEN PREPAREDNESS CAMPAIGN: INFORMATION CAMPAIGNS INCREASING CITIZEN PREPAREDNESS TO SUPPORT CREATING A ‘CULTURE OF PREPAREDNESS’

by

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March 2007

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Citizen preparedness has been a requirement since the events of September 11, 2001 and was reinforced as a necessity after Hurricanes Katrina and Rita in August 2005. Although National Strategy documents outline the requirement for citizen participation in national preparedness the requirement is through volunteerism using the Citizen Corps. There are currently readiness programs being conducted through the Citizen Corps, Department of Homeland Security and the Federal Emergency Management Agency but they are not coordinated across the federal state and local or proactive in nature. Proactive Information Campaigns using core and supporting elements can be one methodology to increase citizen preparedness to support the creation of a ‘Culture of Preparedness’, which includes citizen participation along with the all levels of government and the private sector. Homeland Security stakeholders can use the Information Campaign Model developed to formulate proactive information campaigns to increase citizen preparedness.
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ABSTRACT

Citizen preparedness has been a requirement since the events of September 11, 2001, and was reinforced as a necessity after Hurricanes Katrina and Rita in August 2005. Although National Strategy documents outline the requirement for citizen participation in national preparedness the requirement is through volunteerism using the Citizen Corps. There are currently readiness programs being conducted through the Citizen Corps, Department of Homeland Security and the Federal Emergency Management Agency but they are not coordinated across the federal state and local or proactive in nature. Proactive Information Campaigns using core and supporting elements can be one methodology to increase citizen preparedness to support the creation of a ‘Culture of Preparedness’, which includes citizen participation along with the all levels of government and the private sector. Homeland Security stakeholders can use the Information Campaign Model developed to formulate proactive information campaigns to increase citizen preparedness.
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I. INTRODUCTION

A. PROBLEM

Since the events of September 11, numerous calls for “all hazards” preparedness have crescendoed. The definition of “all hazards” preparedness is preparedness for domestic terrorist attacks, major disasters and other emergencies.\(^1\) Most recently, the ineffectual response efforts surrounding Hurricane Katrina have refocused the nation’s effort towards preparedness. This new effort includes increasing citizen preparedness, which is viewed as an integral part of creating a culture of preparedness. The Federal Response to Hurricane Katrina Lessons Learned Report states, “A new preparedness culture must emphasize that the entire nation—federal, state and local governments; the private sector, communities and individual citizens—shares common goals and responsibilities for homeland security.”\(^2\) In other words, homeland security is built upon a foundation of partnerships, which includes a shared understanding of at least four concepts:

- The certainty of future catastrophes
- The importance of initiative
- The roles of citizens and other homeland security stakeholders in preparedness; and

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• The roles of each level of government and the private sector in creating a prepared nation."

The refocus after Hurricane Katrina has led to the realization that “preparedness is inextricably intertwined with our national security, counterterrorism and homeland security strategies.” The goal of our national strategies requires citizen participation in homeland security. The intent for domestic preparedness initiatives is to improve preventive efforts and to facilitate response and recovery after a crisis event. Although ongoing efforts such as Ready.gov, the Citizen Corps and some state and local programs increase citizen preparedness, the strategies and goals have not been met, as currently outlined in the National Preparedness Goal. This deficit stems from two issues. First, an integrated, comprehensive and deliberate governmental approach to inform, educate and engage the American people does not exist. Second, due to a variety of factors, the American people do not understand their role in homeland security, as evidenced from survey data discussed at length in Chapter II.

Data gathered in recent years provides insight into the attitudes of citizens on preparedness issues. It shows citizens are interested in being educated on preparedness

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4 Ibid., 65.
issues. Other data provides evidence that although citizens are interested, many have not taken the actions to become better prepared. The interest in preparedness versus actual preparedness actions suggests a gap between preparedness requirements, citizen attitudes and actual citizen preparedness. Homeland security must mitigate these gaps to improve preparedness efforts. In order to fulfill the requirements contained in the homeland security strategies and documents, individual citizens must be educated and engaged on issues of preparedness with the intention of increasing individual citizen preparedness. Homeland security stakeholders must educate and engage citizens on the importance of preparedness and how being prepared can assist citizens, their communities, and the nation. Although leading individual citizens to take necessary preparedness actions will be difficult, it enhances the ability to create a culture of preparedness and enables the nation to maximize it efforts.

B. RESEARCH QUESTION

If National Homeland Security Documents require citizen preparedness and participation in support of national preparedness, how can the United States best inform, educate and engage individual citizens to increase citizen preparedness to achieve and create a true culture of preparedness?

7 Emergency Preparedness Wisconsin: Results of Five Focus Groups; Hart, The Aftershock of Katrina and Rita.
8 Ibid., 1.
C. SIGNIFICANCE OF RESEARCH AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This paper examines if actual requirements exist for citizens to be prepared for “all hazard” threats. It will also examine the use of developing information campaigns to narrow the gap between stated goals and actual preparedness. This thesis will provides the core and supporting elements for formulating a successful information campaign; and synthesizes these concepts into an information campaign model for homeland security stakeholders to develop proactive successful citizen preparedness information engagement and strategies. This thesis also examines two examples of successful information campaigns and provides suggestions for educating and engaging the public. Finally, it provides a generic example of how to use the information campaign model by designing a campaign.

National strategies, directives, reports, plans and goals articulate this requirement for citizen participation. Throughout this thesis the concept of using proactive information campaigns to engage individual citizens on preparedness takes into account how it can be applied to increase citizen preparedness towards “all hazards” homeland security threats. If one of the present and fundamental premises of all levels of government is to create a culture of preparedness, which includes a role for individual citizens in order to meet “all hazard” threats, then one key task for the federal, state and local governments is to inform, educate and prepare citizens as to the nature and scope of the threat, specific actions,
roles, and responsibilities of individual citizens on emergency plans and other similar emergency preparedness information.

D. LITERATURE REVIEW

September 11 changed the public dynamic in reference to their role in ensuring the security of the nation. National strategies and directives formulated after September 11 emphasize the importance of the American public in homeland security and preparedness. The National Strategy for Homeland Security states an element of homeland security is to mobilize the American society and recognizes the crucial role of state and local governments and private institutions in securing our homeland.\(^9\) The strategy also calls for the formation of the Citizen Corps, an organization that serves as the mechanism to mobilize the American people to support homeland security. Homeland Security Presidential Directive-8 (HSPD)-8 (National Preparedness) defines preparedness as “all-hazards” preparedness, which encompasses preparedness for domestic terrorist attacks, major disasters and other emergencies.\(^10\) In addition, it recognizes that citizen participation is an essential element in supporting a successful strategy.\(^11\) The theme of citizen participation is reinforced in the President’s Homeland Security Advisory Council: Statewide Template Initiative, which identifies citizen participation as a guiding principle through “…volunteer service,

\(^11\) Ibid., 5.
activities preparedness, education and awareness."\textsuperscript{12} Lastly, the National Preparedness Goal identifies a key task for federal agencies. They must foster "...active citizen participation and involvement in preparedness efforts and periodically review and identify best practices for integrating citizens into local preparedness efforts."\textsuperscript{13}

The national strategies, plans, directives and goals document the need to involve the American populace in security and preparedness, but limited action has been taken to realize this objective. The formation of the Citizens Corps has not translated to a better prepared American public. Additionally, this program has not been given a high priority. The FY06 budget for the Citizen Corps totals only 19.6 million dollars.\textsuperscript{14}

Amanda Dory highlights the requirement to educate and involve the American populace in homeland security, while using incidents such as the Anthrax attacks, the D.C. sniper, and SARS to support her views. She further points out the limited, confused, and often contradictory effort on educating the public to the range of terrorism threats.\textsuperscript{15} The Public Preparedness: A National Imperative symposium report of 2004 extensively discusses the requirement to


involve ordinary citizens to realize the preparedness goals identified in HSPD-8. The report cites two surveys conducted by the American Red Cross and Council for Excellence in Government. They address the low level of public awareness that Americans have for disaster preparedness and the lack of specific measures to better prepare themselves.\textsuperscript{16} The report also discusses the barriers to effective public preparedness due to communication issues such as the general nature of the messages and the apparent lack of public concern.

When discussing issues such as informing, educating and engaging the public on preparedness and civil security issues, authors like Amanda Dory and Jo Anne Brown cite the Cold War civil defense programs as a place to garner best practices and lessons learned. They highlight mechanisms such as utilizing outreach programs, educational activities and divergent methods of engagement to provide a basic understanding of the threat and the public’s role in better preparing against the threat.\textsuperscript{17}

As a means of addressing the mechanics of informing the public, a body of literature discusses engagement strategies, such as strategic communications and information campaigns. Strategic communication is a relatively new term that has many functions in common with information campaigns. The Defense Science Board report “Strategic Communications”, Jeffery B. Jones’ article “Strategic Communications: A Mandate for the United States,” and Major Marshall Eckuland’s article “Strategic Communication: How to Make it Work?” address strategic


\textsuperscript{17} Dory, “American Civil Security,” 37-52.
communication issues. These articles focus primarily on strategic communications within a federal context and address the aspects of informing, educating and engaging foreign audiences on the war on terror. There is very little emphasis on examining the aspects of strategic communications in a domestic setting.\textsuperscript{18} In addition, the Congressional Report “Public Diplomacy: A Review of Past Recommendations” discusses strategic communications in terms of a foreign audience and criticizes the Office of Global Communications and the Strategic Communications Policy Coordinating Committee for their ineffectiveness to coordinate strategic communication at the Federal level.\textsuperscript{19}

Information campaigns are similar in nature to strategic communications in that they consist of the same elements. Strategic communications involve other aspects, such as Public Diplomacy, Public Affairs, Psychological Operations and Military Information Operations. Information campaigns that are geared towards the U.S. public do not contain all these elements.\textsuperscript{20} The two terms, however, are used interchangeably in many venues.

Researchers and authors have highlighted that formulating a solid strategic communication effort or information campaign is not easy. Numerous aspects must be considered as part of any campaign. Some of the more important aspects of any information campaign include:


\textsuperscript{20} Vitto, Defense Science Board Task Force, 11.
The nature of the message to be provided to an audience

The nature of the audience the campaign is trying to reach

The objectives of the campaign

The methods to be used to relay the message

The manner in which the campaign is evaluated.

Other significant obstacles to a successful information campaign are the level of research and detail that must be produced. Gathering sufficient details to support the campaign’s objectives is time consuming and challenging.21

This wider body of literature provides at length many examples of previously conducted information campaigns on a variety of topic areas such as HIV/AIDS, Seatbelt safety, Domestic Violence, Drunk Driving, and Anti-smoking. The literature evaluates these campaigns and assigns them varying degrees of success. The federal government has conducted some campaigns such as the HIV/AIDS campaign, and grass root organizations such as Mother’s Against Drunk

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Driving have conducted others. Examples of preparedness information campaigns include Ready.Gov and FEMA websites.

The literature criticizes some information campaigns, citing failed or less effective campaigns due to a variety of reasons. Herbert Hyman and Paul Sheatsley cite as one failure the lack of accounting for psychological factors when formulating a campaign. These factors include motivation, interest/apathy on the subject, prior attitudes, and in general not understanding the audiences the campaign is trying to reach. Dorothy Douglas, Bruce Westley and Steven Chaffee cite previously conducted information campaigns. The war bond drives during a wartime economy produced little to no change on the public’s knowledge that war bonds were intended to curb inflation. The authors discuss the failure of this campaign and others by citing factors such as methods of dissemination, individual barriers and preconceived attitudes that are difficult to change. They also emphasize the point that just because information is increased or made available does not automatically translate into or guarantee changes of attitude or behavior.

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26 Ibid., 480.
In general, the literature acknowledges that information campaigns formulated correctly can be an effective tool used by the government and by private and public organizations. In one particular case, a test in two similar communities used an information campaign directed towards increasing education on mental retardation. The study showed that an information campaign can expand knowledge as well as change fundamental attitudes. As Mendelsohn asserts, one of the likely reasons for the campaign’s effectiveness lies with the individuals’ prior interest in the subject. The organization running the campaign must understand the audience they are trying to reach and the campaign’s ultimate objective. They must employ innovative methods to conduct the campaign.

This thesis synthesizes the core and supporting elements of formulating successful information campaigns from previous research and interviews conducted with emergency management professionals on preparedness education issues; examines two successful information campaigns; and then use the information campaign model to formulate a generic preparedness campaign. The contribution of this thesis comes from identifying the core and supporting elements to formulate a successful information campaign and synthesizing these elements into a working model for homeland security stakeholders or other organization to use in order to develop and execute proactive citizen preparedness campaigns. Two information

27 "An Information Campaign that Changed Community Attitudes," 487.
29 Ibid., 51-52.
campaign examples are analyzed, and the particular core and supporting elements contributing most to their success are highlighted.

The intent is to demonstrate how these core criteria and supporting elements contributed to the campaigns success. The campaign’s statistics demonstrate that information campaigns can be effective tools to motivate the public to support and participate in homeland security, specifically in relation to preparedness. Finally, a generic information campaign example is included, using the information campaign model formulated throughout this thesis. This example allows homeland security professionals to better visualize and understand how to implement this model to formulate a successful information campaign.

Providing the American public with coordinated, continuous, truthful and credible information campaigns discussing the public’s role in preparedness, prevention and response to natural and man-made disasters will have a positive impact on homeland security in the long-term. It illustrates a practical component for sustaining and achieving the intent of the homeland security strategy and supporting documents.
II. HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

A. FROM CIVIL DEFENSE TO HOMELAND SECURITY

Homeland security and citizen preparedness are not new concepts. In fact, homeland security is an updated version of civil defense. Citizen preparedness was viewed as a component of civil defense, and should also be addressed as a part of the homeland security mission. This chapter provides some historical perspective on citizen preparedness from the beginning of civil defense through the current level of preparedness. Discussing the Civil Defense program and its efforts towards citizen preparedness during the Cold War can provide some parallels for Homeland Security today, even though Civil Defense was directed towards a single threat and Homeland Security is directed against all hazards. In addition, it provides the reader with the insight that increasing citizen preparedness presents a challenging proposition.

Throughout our nation’s history, those in government, first responders and even individual citizens have answered the call to protect our nation from external and internal threats. Civil defense originated prior to the United States becoming directly involved during World War II. President Roosevelt described America as being in “…a state of unlimited emergency.”\(^{30}\) In May 1941, President Roosevelt created the Office of Civil Defense (OCD) to oversee and assist American communities with protecting themselves

against an international threat. After World War II and beginning with the Truman Administration, civil defense evolved to focus on countering the Soviet Union’s nuclear threat. Truman signed the Federal Civil Defense Act of 1950, providing the foundation of civil defense into the early 1990s. The civil defense program addressed the pre-attack preparedness and post-attack recovery components of a nuclear confrontation. During the 1950s and 1960s, the federal government focused on security from international threats, while state and local governments retained responsibility for natural and other disasters.

The Federal Civil Defense Administration (FCDA) and the Office of Civil Defense, both part of the civil defense structure, conducted education and engagement programs during the Cold War to prepare individual citizens for a nuclear threat. The types of education programs were varied. For example, the FCDA partnered with the film industry to develop the Duck and Cover films that were shown in theaters using Bert the Turtle. The purpose of this film was to show individuals and especially children actions to take if a nuclear attack occurred. In addition to showing the Duck and Cover film in theaters, the FCDA partnered with schools to show the film and conduct Duck and Cover drills. FDCA also worked with schools to develop

31 "From Civil Defense to Emergency Management," City of Fort Collins.
33 Dory, U.S. Cold War Civil Defense, 11.
a civil defense curriculum for students. Individual citizens received the Office of Civil Defense’s “Personal and Family Survival Book” for preparedness information and safety measures against a nuclear attack. The FCDA provided Civil Defense with wallet-sized reminder cards summarizing civil defense preparedness information for individuals such as preparing a home shelter, an emergency kit with specific items required, a list of things to do and what warning signals mean. In 1958 the Office of Civil Defense and Mobilization announced a radiological defense high school program, partnering with the Office of Education, state education departments, and state civil defense directors. High schools received a CD V-755 kit to assist them in incorporating radiological defense education into the curriculum and to improve radiological detector distribution around the nation.

Despite this emphasis on public readiness, as Irwin Redlener and David Berman discovered in survey data of overall civil defense participation, citizens were not motivated to participate in civil defense emergency preparedness either during World War II or through the Cold

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They found in fact that only 9 percent of the adult population actively participated in civil defense programs during the Second World War. Another 9 percent signed up but were not active participants. During the same time frame, only one third of citizens knew where to go during an air raid and 58 percent said they had not thought about it at all. Other data collected during various years from World War II until 1978 also lends support to the claim that citizens were less motivated than would be expected with education efforts being conducted by civil defense organizations. A 1960 Gallup poll asked people about bomb shelters. The results were as follows: 71 percent of people favored each community having a public bomb shelter; 21 percent said they had given thought to building a bomb shelter; and 38 percent would be interested in building a bomb shelter if the cost was under $500. This depicted a significant change in attitudes towards building personal bomb shelters up from 2.4 percent in 1953. Although this only displays a change in attitude and not behavior it is significant. Two Gallup polls conducted a month apart show that in July 1961 only 5 percent of people had made any changes in the home to protect it in case of a nuclear attack. One month later 7 percent of those polled said they had made plans or considered preparing their home in case of nuclear attack. A two percent change in just one

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month on preparedness issues is significant since during other campaigns 3-5 percent changes were seen annually.\textsuperscript{43}

Although the data from the civil defense era would suggest information campaigns were not optimal to achieving their goal, full data is still lacking. For instance, no baseline polling data for citizen participation exists prior to the 1950’s campaigns because it was either not conducted or published. Also the major emphasis of the civil defense information campaigns, especially those conducted by the FCDA, was to educate children in schools and children are not participants in Gallup polls.\textsuperscript{44}

Another possible explanation for the data showing a lack of citizen preparedness could relate to the fact that after the end of World War II scientists and the book \textit{Hiroshima} discussed in depth the dangers of a nuclear attack. Given the gruesome nature of the bombing and its effects, people may have believed no amount of preparedness on their part could save them in the event of a nuclear attack.\textsuperscript{45}

Finally, much of the new data published since the 1978 poll on information campaigns cataloguing the successful components required to develop a successful campaign was not available to developers during the 1950s and 1960s. Therefore, the limited success of the civil defense campaigns does not necessarily discredit their use for homeland security.

The data gathered from the Cold War era did not specifically reference citizen preparedness along the lines of emergency kits or family plans, but rather overall civil

\textsuperscript{43} Seatbelt Safety Campaign (1985-present).


\textsuperscript{45} Oakes, 33-49.
defense participation, bomb shelters and home preparedness, which makes it difficult to conduct a direct comparison to data gathered recently. However, enough information on a lack of citizen participation and preparedness allows one to draw a parallel between citizen participation during the Cold War and today.

Beginning in the late 1960s, the emphasis on citizen participation in civil defense diminished as all levels of government slowly took additional responsibilities for citizen safety and security. First, the federal government assumed responsibility for shelter and evacuations programs in the event of a nuclear attack, while state and local governments retained the responsibility for safety and security in the event of a natural disaster. A further civil defense policy change occurred in 1979 when President Carter signed Executive Order (E.O.) 12148, which formed the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA)—an agency responsible not only for nuclear threats but all hazards. FEMA also took over complete responsibility for all hazard preparedness, response, and recovery functions from various agencies such as FCDA and the Office of Civil Defense and others that had held such responsibilities during previous decades. The civil defense program was terminated; Congress repealed the Federal Civil Defense Act of 1950 in 1994.

From the early 1990s until September 11, 2001, FEMA handled natural and man-made disasters under E.O. 12148. If it was difficult to mobilize citizens in the midst of World War II and the beginning of the Cold War with its


47 Dory, U.S. Cold War Civil Defense, 10-19.
nuclear standoff, one can postulate that it will be much more difficult to energize citizens today to assume an integral role in and responsibility for their own preparedness with the current amorphous threat of terrorism and severe natural disaster events.\(^\text{48}\)

The terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001, revealed a new enemy and the importance of a secure nation. The Department of Homeland Security was formed by law in 2002 to lead the efforts to secure our nation.\(^\text{49}\) Additionally, the Department of Homeland Security, as well as the Department of Defense, Federal Bureau of Investigation, individual states, and others are responsible for the formulation of new strategies, laws, and policies which focus their efforts to counter the terrorist threat. Although the initial focus of the Department of Homeland Security was defending against a terrorist threat, it quickly became apparent that the initial focus was too narrow. An “all hazards” approach to include natural and other man-made disasters was adopted.\(^\text{50}\) Hurricane Katrina hit the Gulf coast in August, 2005, underscoring the need for citizen preparedness during natural disasters. The Federal Response to Hurricane Katrina Lessons Learned study describes the requirement to instill a “Culture of Preparedness” in the nation. It includes as one pillar


increasing citizen preparedness for all hazards.\textsuperscript{51} The strategy and presidential directives written after 9/11 identify citizen participation and preparedness as an important aspect of supporting homeland security. To better understand the expectation of citizen involvement in homeland security, the next section reviews these specific documents: \textit{National Strategy for Homeland Security}, \textit{Homeland Security Presidential Directive – 8} and the \textit{National Preparedness Goal}.

B. HOMELAND SECURITY DOCUMENTS

1. The National Strategy for Homeland Security

Following the events of September 11, 2001, and the creation of the Department of Homeland Security, many documents were formulated in relation to homeland security. Each of the documents discussed in this section has in common the requirement for citizens to participate in preparing the nation against all threats, natural and man-made. The overall objective of the first document, the \textit{National Strategy for Homeland Security} (NSHS), released in September 2002, was to mobilize our entire society. This document recognizes the crucial role that state and local governments, the private sector and the American people each have in securing our nation.\textsuperscript{52} The NSHS emphasizes emergency preparedness and response to minimize damage and recover from future terrorist attacks. The main focus of emergency preparedness is to better prepare first responders, emergency management, government agencies, and

\textsuperscript{51} White House, \textit{The Federal Response to Hurricane Katrina Lessons Learned}, 1-151.

public health organizations. In addition there was discussion of mobilizing citizens\textsuperscript{53} by building a Citizens Corps. Similar to the civil defense efforts during World War II, the Citizens Corps would mobilize and train individual volunteers related to preparedness and for response and recovery support against a terrorist attack. The premise is that if the Citizen Corps assists individual citizens in preparing to help themselves and their neighbors in response to a local attack, it would save lives. The main objective of the Citizen Corps is to prepare and mobilize citizens through volunteer programs such as the Citizen Emergency Response Team (CERT) and Medical Reserve Corps (MRC).\textsuperscript{54} This document does call for citizens to participate in preparedness, response and recovery, but purely through volunteerism.


In addition to the National Strategy for Homeland Security, various Homeland Security Presidential Directives have been published in support of homeland security against all hazards. Homeland Security Presidential Directive–8 (HSPD–8) (National Preparedness), published in December 2003, discusses policies to strengthen the preparedness of the United States to prevent and respond to threatened or actual domestic terrorist attacks, major disasters and other emergencies by requiring a national domestic all hazards preparedness goal. HSPD–8 establishes a mechanism for improved delivery of federal preparedness assistance to state and local governments and outlines actions to

\textsuperscript{53} National Strategy for Homeland Security, 41-43.
\textsuperscript{54} Ibid., 45.
strengthen preparedness capabilities of federal, state and local entities.\textsuperscript{55} As does the National Strategy, HSPD-8 also discusses citizen participation in relation to preparedness. Specifically HSPD-8 states, “The Secretary shall work with other appropriate federal departments and agencies as well as state and local governments and the private sector to encourage citizen participation and involvement in preparedness efforts.”\textsuperscript{56} In conjunction with HSPD-8 there are two other presidential directives, Management of Domestic Incidents (HSPD-5), which discusses the requirements for a National Response Plan and a National Incident Management System, and Critical Infrastructure Identification, Prioritization and Protection (HSPD-7) which focuses on protecting the nation’s critical infrastructure.\textsuperscript{57}

3. National Preparedness Goal

The interim National Preparedness Goal, directed by HSPD-8 in December 2003, was released in December 2005. This document explains how the federal government proposes to strengthen the preparedness of the United States to prevent, protect against, respond to, and recover from terrorist attacks, major disasters, and other emergencies.

\textsuperscript{55} Homeland Security Presidential Directive-8, National Preparedness, 1-5.
\textsuperscript{56} Ibid., 1.
The goal establishes a vision, capabilities, and priorities for national preparedness\(^{58}\) of which citizen preparedness is an essential aspect. The \textit{National Preparedness Goal} (GOAL) is to achieve and sustain risk-based target levels of capability, to prevent, protect against, respond to, and recover from major events, and to minimize their impact on lives, property, and the economy through systematic and prioritized efforts by federal, state, local, and tribal entities, their private and non-governmental partners, and the general public.\(^{59}\)

The GOAL defines target level specific to the resources and requirements of each jurisdiction. The GOAL also recognizes that national preparedness is a shared responsibility among federal, state, local governments, the private sector, and individual citizens. Governmental agencies are responsible for leadership; however, the GOAL emphasizes the requirement to involve private sector and citizens where appropriate. The GOAL’s four mission areas include prevention, protection, response and recovery.\(^{60}\)

The GOAL adopts a risk-based all hazard and capabilities-based approach to preparedness. The risk-based approach allows officials to design preparedness for risks specific to their community and based on the impact and likelihood of a natural or man-made disaster. The capabilities-based approach enables officials to decide what capabilities are required to achieve a desired


\(^{59}\) National Preparedness Goal, 1-7.

\(^{60}\) Ibid., 1.
measurable outcome.\textsuperscript{61} The end result is that the GOAL does not advocate a one-size-fits-all approach to preparedness.

Within the \textit{National Preparedness Goal Target Capabilities List}, a supporting document to the GOAL, there are capability requirements for citizen preparedness, as well as outcomes to measure successful citizen preparedness. They are listed in Figures 1 and 2 below.

\textsuperscript{61} National Preparedness Goal, 4.
<table>
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<th>Performance Measures</th>
<th>Metrics</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percent of citizens educated and trained in UNIVERSAL all-hazards capabilities³</td>
<td>An annual increase of 5% until 80% of population is educated and trained</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of citizens who are aware of heightened jurisdictional threat levels</td>
<td>An annual increase of 5% until 80% of citizens maintain awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of citizens who know the relevant immediate response for technological, natural and terrorist incidents</td>
<td>An annual increase of 5% until 80% of citizens maintain knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of citizens within the jurisdiction who are alert to unusual behavior in others that might indicate potential terrorist activity and understand appropriate reporting procedures</td>
<td>An annual increase of 5% until 80% of citizens maintain skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of privately held critical infrastructure computer owners who implement appropriate virus protections and act on virus alerts</td>
<td>5% annual increase until 80% of owners achieve implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of households that conduct pre-incident preparation – to include maintaining a communication plan, disasters supplies, and a practicing evacuation/shelter-in-place</td>
<td>5% annual increase until 80% of households maintain pre-incident preparation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of citizens prepared to evacuate or relocate to designated shelter</td>
<td>5% annual increase until 80% of population is prepared</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of jurisdiction’s population knowledgeable of workplace, school, and community emergency plans</td>
<td>5% annual increase until 80% of population maintains knowledge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. Citizen Preparedness Measures (From the Interim National Preparedness Goal Target Capabilities List)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Target</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percent of citizens prepared to shelter-in-place and have emergency supplies on hand as advised by local authorities</td>
<td>5% annual increase until 80% of population prepared to shelter in place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of citizens trained in basic first aid</td>
<td>5% annual increase until 80% of population maintains skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of citizens educated and trained in RISK-BASED capabilities for high-threat incidents in their area, to include natural hazards, technological hazards, and terrorism</td>
<td>An annual increase of 5% until 72% of population (80% of those living in high-threat area) are educated and trained per appropriate hazard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of citizens who knew the appropriate detailed response for specific high-threat incidents in their area, to include multiple incidents where appropriate</td>
<td>An annual increase of 5% until 72% of population (80% of those living in high-threat area) have specialized awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of population trained in CBRNE and decontamination procedures</td>
<td>5% annual increase until 46% of population (80% of those living in urban areas) maintain skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of population with risk-based life-saving skills</td>
<td>An annual increase of 5% until 72% of population (80% of those living in high-threat area) maintain specialized skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of households, businesses, and schools that have implemented mitigation measures to protect property from specific high-threat</td>
<td>5% annual increase until 72% households, businesses, and schools (80% of those in high-risk area) have implemented mitigation measures</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2. Additional Performance Measures (From the Interim National Preparedness Goal Target Capabilities List)

These figures articulate the outcomes desired for citizen preparedness under the GOAL in order to prepare, prevent, recover, and respond to both natural and man-made
disasters. The National Strategy for Homeland Security identifies preparedness as including citizen participation through volunteerism. Additional Presidential Directives further emphasize this point. The GOAL further defines citizen responsibilities and roles. These efforts, however, do not capture the level of interest of citizens in supporting the strategy.

There is a clear linkage between the envisioned strategy contained in the NSHS and the GOAL as it relates to citizen preparedness. The common view is to approach citizen preparedness primarily through volunteerism and the Citizen Corps.
C. CURRENT CITIZEN ATTITUDES AND PREPAREDNESS

Citizen participation is vital to the success and fulfillment of Homeland Security Strategies. This section examines citizen preparedness issues such as concern about hazards, interest in learning about preparedness, and the current state of citizen preparedness. It is an attempt to measure current trends in citizen involvement to support homeland security. If the government or other homeland security stakeholders are looking to educate and engage citizens on the issue of preparedness, it is important to understand current attitudes towards preparedness in order to assist in developing education programs. It is also important to know the current status of citizen preparedness so those who desire to increase citizen preparedness understand the starting point from which they will work.

1. Are Individual Citizens Concerned and Interested?

Surveys and focus groups indicate that citizens are concerned about all hazard threats, natural and man-made. They desire to learn more about what they can do to prepare for these incidents, whether they are tornados, earthquakes, terrorist events, public health emergencies, or other hazards. One national survey conducted in 2004 by the Red Cross and Wirthlin Worldwide revealed that people were concerned about terrorism, particularly the probability that another terrorist attack could occur within the next year. Of the 1,001 adults surveyed, 76 percent believed there would be another terrorist attack, and 50 percent thought that an attack would occur near their location. Of those surveyed, 84 percent believe that
if all Americans were prepared for all types of disasters, the resulting effect would be strengthened national security.  

In 2004, the Wisconsin Division of Public Health initiated some focus groups to assist with composing a preparedness pamphlet and to gauge the status of citizen preparedness, looking at both citizen disaster concerns and steps they had taken to prepare for emergencies. One of the principal findings was that, although citizens expressed concern about a wide range of possible disasters, few had given any thought to or made any preparations for such disasters. Focus groups participants identified the following concerns in order of frequency or likelihood of occurrence: natural disasters such as tornadoes or severe weather; terrorism such as hijacking or bombings; bioterrorism outbreaks of diseases such as SARS or West Nile virus; and man-made disasters such as hazardous material spills. In addition to voicing these concerns, they stated they would like to learn more about emergency preparedness. Interestingly, they highlighted the importance of learning about specific actions they could take, rather than receive just typical general information about emergency kits, family plans, and other general preparedness measures.

During the Psychology of Fear class, specifically looking at homeland security issues, Dr. James Breckenridge

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63 Emergency Preparedness Wisconsin: Results of Five Focus Groups, 3.
64 Ibid., 7.
65 Ibid., 8.
highlighted the deep concern of individual citizens about terror attacks and the threat of terrorism. In addition, he discussed that individual citizens were interested in learning what they can do to mitigate the threats and effects of terrorism.⁶⁶ The conclusion to be gleaned from this data is that the majority of individual citizens are concerned about terrorism threats, one of the “all hazard” threats as defined by HSPD-8, and they are willing to learn more about how to prepare for these emergencies.

Additionally, one could surmise that citizens are most concerned with the kinds of disasters that are most likely to affect their environment—likely depending on where they live within the United States. For example, those living in California are more likely concerned about earthquakes and wildfires, while those in New York City are more likely concerned about terrorism or a blackout.

2. The Scorecard: How Prepared are We?

The data above seems to indicate that the majority of Americans are concerned about threats to their safety. It also suggests a willingness to be prepared. Determining, however, the willingness versus some measure of actual preparedness is essential to gauge whether the intent of the strategy (citizen preparedness) is being achieved. The following data is taken from surveys conducted between 2004 and 2006. One survey was nationwide; the others were conducted in a city attacked on September 11, 2001 and a state where unexpected disasters have occurred.

The Red Cross and Wirthlin Worldwide survey reveals that 18 percent of those surveyed are aware of their

⁶⁶ Jim Breckenridge, Psychology of Fear, In-class discussion, September 2006.
state’s emergency plans; 19 percent are aware of their local emergency plans; 50 percent are familiar with their disaster plans at their workplaces; 50 percent of parents know the disaster plan for their children’s school or daycare; 34 percent sought information about what to do in the event of a disaster or developed a plan for communicating with their families; 30 percent had taken training in civil preparedness, first aid, or CPR; 10 percent have family emergency plans and disaster kits in addition to training in first aid; and 20 percent feel very prepared for a catastrophic event.67

In 2005, the New York City Office of Emergency Management collected data that offered other figures on citizen preparedness. More than half the respondents indicated that they felt informed or were very informed about what to do in an emergency. Only 14 percent indicated that they had an emergency plan that included two meeting places for family members, multiple exit routes, and copies of the plan. For an emergency kit, 36 percent of respondents said that they had all the required items. Fifty-two percent reported having only some supplies, but only 16 percent indicated that they had “to go” bags packed with copies of important documents, emergency contact information, medicines, and other vital items.68

In 2004-2005, the Washington Office of Emergency Management conducted a survey on preparedness. Of those responding, 45 percent indicated they had a plan in place, 44 percent knew what to do if asked to shelter in place in case of an emergency such as a biological event, and 49

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percent of parents indicated their children knew what to do during an emergency if they were not present.\textsuperscript{69}

These groups of surveys reveal some differences in the state of citizen preparedness. Clearly these differences between the survey data can be attributed to the way the surveys were conducted and/or variations in the questions asked. For instance, in the New York survey, when respondents were asked about an emergency kit, after answering yes, a follow-up question listed the items to extrapolate what respondents considered to be part of a full emergency kit. The follow-up information reveals that most respondents did not have enough water for 72 hours, thereby reducing the number of those surveyed with a complete emergency kit to 36 percent.\textsuperscript{70} This data suggests there are some states making progress towards increasing citizen preparedness. However, the state surveys presented were conducted in large city centers or cities previously attacked. Citizens in these areas may have more motivation to become prepared. There does not appear to be any data from surveys or focus groups conducted in other states such as Iowa, Kentucky, or Wyoming where a catastrophic event or terrorist attack has not occurred. Simply put, no measure currently exists to indicate the status of citizen preparedness nationwide. Survey data gathered from all 50 states and four territories would more accurately reflect the actual level of citizen preparedness nationwide.

In examining the data above, we see that progress has been made in some preparedness areas in the last two years. However, homeland security professionals still have a long

\textsuperscript{69} A Quarterly Review, 7.

\textsuperscript{70} How Prepared are we, New York (New York: Center for Catastrophe Preparedness and Response New York University (2006), 2.
way to go in increasing citizen preparedness to the levels outlined in the National Preparedness Goal Target Capabilities List. Figures 1 and 2 outline the performance measures in the Target Capabilities List, which are between 72 and 80 percent. The percentages provided through current survey data above are only between 36-50 percent, and other areas highlighted in the Target Capabilities List were not covered within any of the above surveys. Even if the best case scenario were that 50 percent of Americans had an emergency kit, family plan, and were informed about threats to their community, 50 percent would still not be achieving a minimum of preparedness. This data also suggests that a higher percentage remain unfamiliar with state or local emergency plans, or specific information of what to do during an emergency.

Another area worth examining is the attitudes of those within government and emergency preparedness on the issue of citizen preparedness and participation. Tim Murphy, director of Oregon’s Emergency Management and chairman of the National Emergency Management Association (NEMA) preparedness committee has said, “public education about hazards, response plans and preparedness measures gets much less focus than it should.” He also said, “You’ve got to reach everybody you can. It doesn’t matter what we do, if we don’t provide education to the public, it won’t work.” The events witnessed during Hurricane Katrina would seem to indicate that this is the case. Although ongoing efforts persist to educate the public on citizen preparedness, other homeland security priorities, such as border security

72 Bentley, "Raising Public Awareness about Disaster Response," 22.
or bioterrorism initiatives, receive greater attention. Hurricane Katrina has put more emphasis on citizen preparedness priorities.\textsuperscript{73} Citizen preparedness is now one of the top eight priorities in the \textit{National Preparedness Goal} according to the \textit{Target Capabilities List}.
\textsuperscript{74} Tim Murphy further states, “You can have all the toys and tools. You can have an exceptional plan, but if the public doesn’t understand it, it’s just going to fall apart.”\textsuperscript{75} NEMA President Bruce Baughman, director of Alabama Emergency Management Agency has stated, “The more disaster awareness and public education is accomplished ahead of time, the better the outcome during a disaster.”\textsuperscript{76} Governor Jeb Bush emphasizes “creating a culture of preparedness” and further states, “Providing clear and consistent direction to citizens before, during, and following a disaster is key to emergency preparedness and an effective response. Government cannot be the sole responder. Prepared citizens are better equipped to provide for the safety of their families, reduce damage to their homes, and recover more quickly from a disaster.”\textsuperscript{77}

\textsuperscript{73} Bentley, “Raising Public Awareness about Disaster Response,” 22.
\textsuperscript{75} Bentley, \textit{Raising Public Awareness about Disaster Response}, 22.
\textsuperscript{76} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{77} Bentley, \textit{Raising Public Awareness about Disaster Response}, 22.
III. EDUCATE AND ENGAGE CITIZENS ON PREPAREDNESS/PARTICIPATION

A. INTRODUCTION

Citizen preparedness represents a critical component of the national strategy. Additionally, survey data indicates that citizens are willing and able to fulfill their role in national preparedness. Pre-incident communication and education is essential for event survival and recovery. Information campaigns offer one methodology to sustain critical pre-event education and awareness over the long term. Information campaigns are a powerful way to raise citizen preparedness to the levels envisioned in the national strategy.

In order for a proactive information campaign to successfully create citizen preparedness, it must be both focused and easily understood by all levels of homeland security stakeholders. Even so, an information campaign alone does not create the requisite level of citizen preparedness. An information campaign only works when coupled with additional resources such as training courses and local preparedness exercises.

B. INFORMATION CAMPAIGNS

Information campaigns are not a new concept. Past information campaigns have informed the public about a wide variety of subjects, including personal safety (seat belt

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use), the safety of others (second hand smoke reduction), and environmental issues (recycling).

For the purposes of this study, an information campaign is defined as a multi-faceted media mechanism that has the potential to increase an individual’s knowledge, attitude, and/or behavior, and to change that individual’s preparedness for a threat of any kind. Examples of these media mechanisms include education programs, public service announcements, public or private rallies or events, and public relation efforts. These types of campaigns must work their way through three tiers of change. They first focus on helping an individual gain new knowledge; then they help the individual use this increased knowledge to fundamentally change his attitude; and finally they let this new attitude support a change in behavior. Given this multi-faceted mechanism and three tiers of change, a successful campaign must be carefully planned and executed.

Successful information campaigns have significantly affected a wide range of social issues including crime prevention, the environment, and drunk driving. They have also supported public health initiatives such as anti-smoking, and accelerated implementation of new laws such as seatbelt use. These successful campaigns could serve as a

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model for the creation of information campaigns to support homeland security issues.  

Some of these information campaigns were run by the government in partnership with non-profit organizations. For example, the National Transportation Highway Safety Administration partnered with the Ad Council to promote seat belt use. Other successful government-managed campaigns have addressed drunk driving, second hand smoke, and the environment. Non-governmental organizations like the American Cancer Society and Mothers Against Drunk Driving have also spearheaded information campaigns to educate the public and change attitudes and behaviors about drunk driving, anti-smoking, and breast cancer awareness.

Experts in the government, the non-profit sector, and in the private sector agree on core criteria and supporting elements that information campaign strategists and implementers should follow to develop successful information campaigns. These core criteria include pre-development information gathering; creation of specific and measurable objectives; audience assessment; theme and message development; and selecting dissemination methods and means of evaluation. Supporting elements are determination of stakeholders and creation of partnerships;

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location and procurement of resources; and definition of benefits, consequences, incentives and enforcement.82

C. CORE CRITERIA FOR A SUCCESSFUL INFORMATION CAMPAIGN

Crisis communications remain tactically vital to convey factual and relevant information regarding ongoing natural and man made disasters. Associated pre-incident information campaigns are also vital, but in a more strategic and deliberate way. Campaigns can fundamentally change behavior and increase preparedness for a wide range or crises and can be implemented far in advance of an event. However, for a campaign to be effective, it must contain clear strategic objectives, audience assessment, theme and message development, and dissemination and evaluation methods. Figure four illustrates these core elements essential for developing a successful information campaign and is discussed at length in this section.

1. Pre-development Actions

A number of pre-development actions lay the groundwork for any successful information campaign. These actions help determine the topic of the campaign, evaluate the context and importance of the topic, and clarify why people should first listen and then act. One mechanism to assist in these actions is an accurate and well thought out benchmark assessment.

A benchmark study must be conducted prior to developing any campaign. Information a benchmark study provides reflects insight into level of, knowledge of,
attitude toward, and current behavior regarding various preparedness issues of the target audience and provides base comparison data for follow-up evaluations.\textsuperscript{83} This knowledge is vital to selecting the focus and the breadth of the campaign topic. If this campaign’s goal is to increase citizen preparedness through instilling a culture of preparedness, then understanding the current level of citizen preparedness is critical if not fundamental to any homeland security preparedness efforts.\textsuperscript{84}

This paper presupposes that the topic of the information campaign is overall citizen preparedness. If a government or other group decided to create such an information campaign, it is critical for campaign planners to undertake a benchmark study to determine how focused or broad the campaign should be. This paper assumes that the campaign is broad, and contains many specific information sub-campaigns including general hazard information on wildfires, flash floods, hurricanes, chemical spills, public health incidents, and terrorism related matters.

Once a topic for a specific information campaign is chosen, it is critically important to understand the context in which this information campaign will take place. It is essential to get the target audience to listen to a

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{enumerate}
\item \textsuperscript{83} Evaluating Public Information Campaigns on Drugs: A Summary Report, 8.
\item \textsuperscript{84} Gantz, Fitzmaurice and Yoo, Seat Belt Campaigns and Buckling Up: Do the Media make a Difference? 1-12; Weiss and Tschirhart, Public Information Campaigns as Policy Instruments, 82-119; Maibach, Social Marketing for the Environment: Using Information Campaigns to Promote Environmental Awareness and Behavior Change, 209-224; Evaluating Public Information Campaigns on Drugs: A Summary Report, 8.
\end{enumerate}
\end{footnotesize}
citizen preparedness campaign.85 A huge number of factors compete for the audience’s attention every day in the form of commercials, news, radio, and TV programs. Other information campaigns absorb the audience’s attention, such as crime, drug abuse, unemployment, the economy, and housing. Any preparedness information campaign will compete with all the other information directed towards individual citizens.86 Because public service information campaigns must compete with everyday messages, the context of the campaign and its messages must be conveyed in such a manner as to gain the audience’s initial attention and keep it.

2. Objectives

An objective is a clearly defined, decisive, and attainable set of goals that leads a campaign to the intended end state.87 For example, if the end state is overall citizen preparedness for a wide variety of disasters, an objective to support this end state might be for every citizen to understand the need for an emergency kit, and for 70 percent or more of these citizens to assemble a full kit.

Setting clear and attainable objectives during the development of an information campaign is essential for a number of reasons. First, creation of objectives provides a logical structure to a campaign. Second, objectives help to define the media components of a campaign. Third,


86 Weiss and Tschirhart, Public Information Campaigns as Policy Instruments, 86.

objectives can help determine the critical audience and partners in the endeavor. Finally, objectives help create the measurement tools to evaluate the success of the campaign. Since objectives help create the backbone of any campaign, they must be developed before other criteria are examined.

Both the short-term or long-term objectives of any campaign must be explicit, realistic, specific, reasonable, and measurable. When developing objectives of a campaign, the following are some of the critical questions:

- What specific objectives will support the end state of the specific information campaign?
- Is the campaign intended to just increase knowledge, to change a person’s attitude, or to change a person’s behavior, or any combination?
- Are the objectives going to be short-term or long-term in nature or both?
- Are the objectives able to be measured?

For instance, assume this citizen preparedness information campaign addresses the need for emergency kits. The specific objectives of the campaign could be:

- Educate 100% of the target audience about why having a full emergency kit is important
- Explain clearly what items are found in an emergency kit
- Explain how and where emergency kits are stored

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• Explain how long a kit lasts and when the components must be replaced
• Educate a target of 1,200 people in a specific six-month period
• Create measurement tools to determine who understood the education
• Set a goal that 70% of those educated will create or purchased a kit
• Create measurement tools to determine who created or purchased a kit

These objectives can be measured during the campaign in order to evaluate success. The exact instruments to measure a campaign are discussed later in this section.

3. Audience Assessment

Audience assessment and definition is a crucial aspect of developing information campaigns. Deciding exactly the audience to reach is essential because a one-size information campaign does not fit all. One of the first actions in conducting an audience assessment is to outline the demographics and psychological attributes of the target audience or community.\textsuperscript{89} It is important to note that the words "target audience" or "community" can convey various meanings. For instance, a target audience or community can refer to an actual local municipality, a specific military group, a work place, mass transit commuters, and/or at-risk population. Once the campaign planner lays out the general demographics and psychological attributes of the community they seek to inform, they must continue to focus more

\textsuperscript{89} Mendelsohn, Some Reasons Why Information Campaigns Fail, 52.
narrowly to determine the exact characteristics of the target group selected. Levels of education, religion, language, culture, residential area, disabilities, and/or economic factors are but a few points to consider.90

Characteristics represent just one of the key information audience assessment criteria. It is also critical to identify and evaluate inherent audience barriers. Examples of these group and individual barriers include:

- A belief held by an individual that he or she is already prepared
- Individual and group apathy
- A belief that “it won’t happen to me”
- A feeling that an individual is too busy to think about or take action
- Belief that an individual cannot afford to purchase items such as an emergency kit
- Inability to view taking action as advantageous
- Incompatibility of the campaign message with current beliefs or perceptions
  - Example-focus groups members in Wisconsin said they would not take any preparedness measures because they believe whatever happens is God’s will91

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90 Weiss and Tschirhart, Public Information Campaigns as Policy Instruments, 82-119; Public Communication Campaigns, 95; Rice and Akin, Public Communication Campaigns, 96.

91 Emergency Preparedness Wisconsin: Results of Five Focus Groups, 16.
• Individuals do not see that taking action creates any observable results

• Feeling that nothing they do will protect them, their family, or their community

• A belief that the responsibility for safety and security belongs to the government or another entity or person\textsuperscript{92}

Several examples illustrate how critical target audience evaluation is to developing a solid campaign. At a very high level, Colorado Springs, Colorado, looks like a well-defined mid-sized, conservative, mountain state community. However, when one looks more closely at this area, it includes both rural and urban dwellers, who have different perspectives on a variety of issues. Some residents live on the open plains, while others live in wooded mountainous terrain. The city and surrounding area serves a large and varied religious population, with several national level organizations headquartered there. It supports a high-tech civilian workforce and a significant military presence.\textsuperscript{93} Understanding the demographics of this complex and diverse area is critical to creating a successful preparedness campaign that effectively touches all these audience components. These demographics must be taken into consideration when creating a campaign.

San Antonio, Texas, is another diverse city with its large Hispanic community, many recent immigrants. This

\textsuperscript{92} Public Preparedness: A National Imperative, 15; Emergency Preparedness Wisconsin: Results of Five Focus Groups, 15-16.

\textsuperscript{93} Personal Interview, Emergency Preparedness Manager for El Paso County Jim Mesite, September 2006, Colorado, tape recording.
audience possesses potential language and cultural barriers. An understanding of these dynamics is necessary to overcome obstacles that might prevent the campaign’s message reaching its intended audience.\footnote{Personal Interview, 911 Emergency Regional District Director, San Antonio, Chris Cook, September 2006, Colorado, tape recording.} A campaign conducted only in English on English-speaking television channels excludes citizens who speak Spanish or only watch Spanish television. Also, immigrants from countries with corrupt governments might mistrust a campaign that employs government officials as spokespeople.

Audience assessment must include special needs or at-risk populations such as the mentally disabled. A campaign planner must grasp the population’s living arrangements. Do they live at home with caregivers or are they on their own? How does the degree of disability impact their ability to hear the campaign message and take action? The ability of the severely disabled to “participate” is dependent on the participation and education of their caregivers and institution workers.

For a preparedness action such as evacuation, the information campaigns that target the mentally disabled might have to be designed differently for the general population. A high-functioning mentally disabled person living alone would likely respond to a similar message given to the general public. A lower-functioning mentally disabled person living with a caregiver at home might respond to a different message, and perhaps be partially dependent on the caregiver’s education and capability of taking action. A poorly-functioning mentally disabled
person living in an institution would not respond at all and remains completely dependent on the institution having a preparedness plan.

Once a specific audience is chosen, planners determine how the target group or community receives and processes information. Some of the key questions, in addition to those already mentioned, include:

- Who does the audience find credible as a messenger—spokesperson—representative of the government, youth, celebrity, religious leaders, or local civic leaders?
- Who do they associate with locally who might be likely to spread the message?
- What media sources do they read or listen to?
- Where do they meet or congregate?
- What groups are they associated with, like a church or AARP, that could help spread the message or might create barriers to it?
- What other education or action changes have they recently adopted or rejected?
- What barriers might keep them from getting the message or taking action—affordability—convenience, apathy, fear, etc.?

Determining and assessing the target audience represents a challenging and difficult but critical process. Knowing the target group or community assists in formulating themes and crafting messages, and deciding what dissemination methods to use for the information campaign. As Weiss and Tshirhart state, “The better the campaign
designers specifies the target audience, the better tailored the campaign can be to that audience’s demands and interests."\textsuperscript{95}

4. Theme and Message Development

The campaign messages are the specific tools that educate the audience, target group, or community and spur individuals to action. Message development begins with theme development, and themes are determined by reviewing the objectives.

For example, if the information campaign focuses on pandemic influenza (PI) preparedness, and an objective is to provide knowledge about what constitutes a pandemic, a message on the 2003 SARS outbreak would be insufficient, since this was not a pandemic. Formulating messages that provide information about past PI outbreaks of 1918, 1957 and 1968 would be more effective.

a. Keep it Simple Stupid (KISS)

Campaign messages must be clear, credible, and easy to understand and remember. Campaign messages with long, technical, and complicated messages will be too difficult for people to connect with, listen to, and absorb.\textsuperscript{96} Campaign planners designing messages and content should adhere to the familiar KISS principle—Keep It Simple Stupid.\textsuperscript{97} It is critical for planners to understand that the “simple” in KISS refers to the audience’s perspective, not the planner’s perspective. Although developers may

\textsuperscript{95} Weiss and Tschirhart, Public Information Campaigns as Policy Instruments, 82-119; Public Communication Campaigns, 86.

\textsuperscript{96} Public Preparedness: A National Imperative, 14; Weiss and Tschirhart, Public Information Campaigns as Policy Instruments, 86.

\textsuperscript{97} Weiss and Tschirhart, Public Information Campaigns as Policy Instruments, 82-119.
believe that a message is simple, the intended audience may not clearly understand the message.

Weiss and Tschihart provide an excellent example of this discrepancy from the campaign that advised residents to evacuate after the Mt. Saint Helen’s eruption. The developers thought the message was clear, but audience members did not understand. Residents received the message that something was wrong, but many did not follow the instruction broadcast by emergency agencies. This situation may reflect a lack of message clarity or the message content not matching with the audience’s prior knowledge. This campaign was not a success.98

Once the planners develop a simple message, it is essential to create an appropriate delivery medium based on an understanding of how the audience processes stimuli.99 For example, if education and action are the focus of a pre-hurricane evacuation campaign, the messages must explain why it is important to leave when directed and how to evacuate, all in a format that is easy to understand and remember. Campaign developers need to know how to convey this information in a written format, perhaps by reviewing how other information is effectively digested and acted upon by this particular audience. They might find that a simple bullet format works best to let them know:

- Who has the authority to give the order for mandatory evacuation?
- What are the main or alternate evacuation routes?

98 Weiss and Tschirhart, Public Information Campaigns as Policy Instruments, 87.
99 Ibid.
• How the lane configurations and directions of the roads will change during an evacuation.

• Who can they call for more information before an evacuation and during an evacuation?

Providing these messages in a simple format familiar and useful to the audience makes the campaign more likely to lead to effective action during an incident.100

b. Credibility

The target audience must find the campaign messages credible. The components of credibility for both the message and the delivery vehicle or person include truthfulness, accuracy, believability, and plausibility. If the target audience finds a message to be propaganda, false, or inaccurate, the campaign will fail.101

Therefore, gaining the attention and the trust of the target audience must be a high priority. Since many campaigns are long-term projects, this trust can be difficult to maintain. Clear objectives support the long-term success of the campaign by keeping the focus on audience trust and message credibility. This strategy remains especially important at times when the long-term success of a campaign might be put in jeopardy for what appears to be a harmless short cut.102

c. Educating Without Increasing Fear

Simple, credible messages help support successful information campaigns. These campaign messages educate people on the issues and suggest actions for them to take


101 Weiss and Tschirhart, Public Information Campaigns as Policy Instruments, 87; Public Preparedness: A National Imperative, 23.

102 Ibid.
to reduce risk and assist in personal and community responses. However, campaign planners must realize that the populace can become alarmed once the issues are brought to the public’s attention. In addition, individuals and groups may resist some of the action strategies. Therefore, campaign planners must build strategies into their plan. Messages that could create panic or fear without associated mitigation strategies should be avoided.\textsuperscript{103}

A pandemic influenza (PI) campaign, for example, could teach an audience about the chance of a PI occurring, how serious the situation might get, and what individuals can do if a PI happens. However, new influenzas that might cause a pandemic have no current treatment, cure or vaccine. Once the mutated strain of the virus is transmitted easily from human to human, a vaccine can be created, but that takes at least six months to develop. Once a vaccine is developed, only a limited supply is available so distribution is handled according to a predetermined list. A truthful message therefore tells the audience that if a PI hits, many people might die.

A message that only contained this dire information certainly informs the audience of the seriousness of a PI, but could instill overwhelming fear and hopelessness because the message is very negative and disconcerting.\textsuperscript{104}


The good news is the audience will likely hear the message, since, human beings are much more powerfully influenced by negative information that by positive . . . The greater emotional force of negatively valenced materials will result in a negativity bias that pervades human perception, impression formation, attention, judgment and decision making, frequently in ways that appear irrational. Negative information tends to be construed as more informative and influential than positive data . . . Research suggests that negative messages indicating the presence of risk are evaluated as more trustworthy than positive messages communicating the absence of risk.105

However, this educated and fearful populace might not take the appropriate actions to prepare for a pandemic or deal with a pandemic if it did occur.106 This reaction could incite an effect the opposite of what is intended by the campaign. It is important to educate, but in a way that brings appropriate action. “Panic is caused by fear, and fear is a consequence of ignorance. Thus the solution to the problem of panic is public information about the effects...and what can be done to prepare for them.”107 Even though fear can be a motivator,108 campaign developers must walk a fine line between gaining people’s attention by presenting them with the facts of a serious situation that could cause fear while still helping the audience see that

106 Oakes, The Imaginary War: Civil Defense and American Cold War Culture, 34.
107 Ibid., 38.
they can make a difference in the outcome by taking appropriate mitigating steps.\textsuperscript{109}

An effective approach to the PI example might be to balance each piece of education with a corresponding action. Steps the audience could take to mitigate the effects of a PI include frequent hand washing, reducing contact with those who may be affected, seeking medical attention if they begin to feel ill, and to self-quarantine until a vaccine or treatment is available. Planners could also provide reminders that the World Health Organization, the Centers for Disease Control, and other organizations and government entities are closely monitoring and tracking potentially infectious virus strains to detect viral mutations and human-to-human transmission, epidemics, and pandemics will be detected as early as possible.

Balancing information and mitigating actions best supports an information campaign about citizen preparedness towards terrorism. The current information provided to citizens is overwhelmingly negative, depicting the bombing and carnage in Iraq, images of the Twin Towers collapsing, and reports that our actions in Iraq have created more domestic terrorism. Balancing these messages with more positive messages reduces this fear and helps the populace put things into perspective, such as the fact that the risk of being killed by a terrorist incident is no more likely than being struck by lightening.\textsuperscript{110} Planners could further


reduce fear by providing concrete mitigating actions for citizens to reduce their personal exposure even more.

**d. The Necessity of a Tagline**

A tagline is a short statement or series of statements that summarize the essence of the campaign. Most information campaigns have a tagline, because a tagline provides a consistent anchor over the long term. For instance, the Ad Council’s Seatbelt Safety campaign tagline was, “You can learn a lot from a Dummy.” Another example is the forest fire prevention campaign tagline, “Only you Can Prevent Forest Fires.”

An overall tagline for citizen preparedness campaigns could be, “Do Your Part! Be Prepared! Save Lives and Strengthen Communities.” This tagline effectively serves the overall citizen preparedness campaign because it consistently affirms that the citizens’ role in preparedness saves lives and strengthens communities.

**5. Methods of Dissemination**

Dissemination methods must support and be appropriate for the messages. Dissemination methods include the media, such as internet, television, radio, newspapers and periodicals; spokespersons; speechmakers; and information from events. The methods chosen must reflect the specific community, characteristics, and how information is best received in that community.

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111 Ad Council, Historic Campaigns.

112 Weiss and Tschirhart, Public Information Campaigns as Policy Instruments, 91.
A variety of factors help planners determine the right method of dissemination for the campaign, audience, and messages. The first of these factors is audience learning style.

**a. Audience Learning Styles**

People learn in different ways. Auditory learners learn best by listening or hearing the information. Visual learners learn best by reading or seeing. Kinesthetic learners learn best by doing. Most people learn by a combination of all these learning styles but have a preferred style. Planners must create messages for these different styles and choose the dissemination method that best matches the style.

Additionally, differing audiences rely on different venues to gain information. Some audience members rely on local or national news, their church, or the Internet. If campaign developers understand the best venue to reach particular audiences, they can more easily choose effective methods of dissemination.

**b. Credibility and Trust**

Campaigns often convey information through celebrities, government officials, subject matter experts, or people who have personal experience with the subject of the campaign. These spokespersons must have credibility with the audiences to affect behavior.\textsuperscript{113} The campaign planners must take into account not only who the audience trusts, but the venue where the audience normally accesses their information. For instance, if the target group trusts their local pastor and gets their information from their church, then attempting to reach this target audience by

\textsuperscript{113} Weiss and Tschirhart, *Public Information Campaigns as Policy Instruments*, 87; *Public Preparedness: A National Imperative*, 23.
using a government representative through a television public service announcement might be ineffective on both counts. If a government official or subject matter expert (SME) delivers the message, then the developers might include both the expert and the pastor. The local church might hold a town hall meeting chaired by the pastor with a panel that includes the expert.

Many people trust celebrities, whether or not the celebrity is knowledgeable in the subject area. According to Dr. Breckenridge, Oprah Winfrey is a trusted source by 8 percent of the population.\textsuperscript{114} Oprah therefore represents an opportunity to reach a large segment (24,000,000) of the population via her television show or using her as a spokesperson through some other form of media. When a campaign message is presented by a source the audience finds credible, it creates a more effective message.\textsuperscript{115}

c. Methods to Choose

Methods for reaching an audience include the Internet, CD-ROMs and DVDs, radio, television, school curriculum, spokespersons, speeches, town hall meetings, public service announcements, billboards, flyers, video games, cartoons, testimonials, or any combination of the above. Any of these methods can be used today.\textsuperscript{116} Examples of how planners could use these methods might be:

\textsuperscript{114} Jim Breckenridge, in-class discussion, September 2006.

\textsuperscript{115} Weiss and Tschirhart, Public Information Campaigns as Policy Instruments, 87.

Television:

• Formulate a cartoon similar to the cartoon character Bert the Turtle used in the Duck and Cover films and comic books for civil defense during the Cold War in order to target children.\textsuperscript{117}

• Air television public service announcements featuring celebrities airing during primetime shows such as Survivor, American Idol, Lost, and Desperate Housewives

• Create Spanish language public service announcements during Spanish Channel soap operas to provide viewers with information on a variety of topics such as public health or safety to provide preparedness information.\textsuperscript{118}

The Traffic Seat Belt safety campaign provides a creative example of how television can provide pertinent and valid information. Campaign planners developed a national drivers test and partnered with CBS to debut this test on television. The test allowed the target audience to compare their driving skills to the average in private. After the test viewers received information on improvement programs within their community so those who felt they needed it could take advantage of these programs.\textsuperscript{119}

Internet:

• Although websites are an avenue, they are passive in nature, so developers should choose this method to

\textsuperscript{117} Brown, "A is for Atom and B is for Bomb: Civil Defense in American Public Education," 1948-1963.

\textsuperscript{118} Interview with Chris Cook.

\textsuperscript{119} Mendelson, Some Reasons Why Information Campaigns can Succeed, 54.
target an audience who is already motivated on the topic of preparedness

• Pop-up windows represent potential partners with noted internet sites to host preparedness messages

• Formulate interesting videos and upload them onto You Tube

• Host a chat room or start a blog to discuss preparedness issues and provide education

Interactive Media and Events:

• Develop a video game, similar to Sym City or Risk, and market it in schools for children to play and learn about preparedness, while having fun

• Create and distribute preparedness DVDs, partnering with celebrities or people who are survivors of an incident to appear in the DVD

• Partner with computer companies to put a 30 second preparedness clip on the front end of their software. The clip activates when the customer starts the loading process

• Host town hall meetings, hold preparedness fairs, or design workshops to discuss preparedness issues

Pamphlets/Billboard/etc:

• Develop a pamphlet and distribute it through the mail to residents. The pamphlet can be included with electric bills

• Construct readiness billboards on major highways

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120 “Fortifying Florida”; Seattle Project Impact.
• Place messages on items people use every day, such as water bottles, beer cans, bottles, and cigarette packages

The only limits on how to disseminate information are the campaign planner’s imagination and how the methods support the objectives. Some methods like town hall meetings, school curriculum, blogs, or speeches allow the audience to interact with those providing the information, to ask questions, voice concerns, and provide feedback that other methods do not permit. Other methods like DVDs, websites, pamphlets, billboards, and messages on packages are one-way and passive communication methods. A single method or incorrect method, however, will be ineffective or less effective in achieving the campaign objectives.121 A campaign is more effective using various methods at the developers’ disposal than relying on one specific method.122 In addition, the inability to effectively target, gain trust, or ensure the optimum venue for an audience results in an ineffective information campaign that wastes time and resources. Audience, message, and methods must work closely together to achieve the campaign’s objectives.

121 Weiss and Tschirhart, Public Information Campaigns as Policy Instruments, 86.
122 Ibid, 86 and 91.
d. Pre-screening

Once the developers formulate the messages and tie them to the objectives, and choose the methods of dissemination, they can evaluate the campaign’s effectiveness by using a test audience, similar to the target audience, to gauge whether the information campaign will be successful.¹²³ This technique is consistent with the way a manufacturer may conduct testing of a product to a particular group of customers before releasing a new product. This technique provides insight into campaign shortfalls, what requires reassessment, or what objectives will be met via the current plan. Using a sample audience to initially gauge if the campaign will be successful does not eliminate the requirement to evaluate the overall campaign to ensure it meets all its objectives.

6. Evaluation

Once a specific or overarching information campaign is fully developed, running, and completed, the planners must conduct an evaluation to measure success of the campaign. This evaluation should be compared to the benchmark study initiated prior to the campaign being developed and conducted.¹²⁴ The success or failure of a campaign is usually judged by whether its objective(s) are met, such as whether behavior has been modified or if there is a 5 percent increase in households with family plans. There are also other indicators of success. For instance, a clear change in culture could occur, as was the case of drunk driving.

¹²³ Weiss and Tschirhart, Public Information Campaigns as Policy Instruments, 87; Maibach, Social Marketing for the Environment: Using Information Campaigns to Promote Environmental Awareness and Behavior Change, 216.

¹²⁴ Evaluating Public Information Campaigns on Drugs: A Summary Report, 8.
driving, which intuitively indicates this campaign’s success. When the Ad Council, the National Highway Transportation Safety Administration, and Mothers Against Drunk Driving campaigns were initiated, the attitude towards drunk driving by most people was one of ambivalence. After 25 years the society and culture have changed and now looks down on people who drive while intoxicated. Designating a non-drinking driver was not a normal occurrence 25 years ago.

Changes to laws and regulations that support the campaign correspond with a change in societal attitudes and behaviors.\textsuperscript{125} For example, as the attitude towards smoking has changed over the years, so have laws such as the ones that restrict smoking in restaurants, bars, or other public areas. The overall objective of the seatbelt safety campaign was to increase the use of seatbelts. When the campaign started, only 10% of people wore a seatbelt. Today, 80% wear a seatbelt. In addition, 49 states have passed seatbelt laws, such as Colorado’s click it or ticket. Twenty-two states have primary seat belt laws, and the rest have secondary laws. Primary laws allow law enforcement to pull over a car if drivers and/or passengers are not wearing a seatbelt.\textsuperscript{126} This law eliminates the requirement of another moving violation to occur prior to a law enforcement officer ticketing a person for not wearing a seatbelt. Culture, attitudes, and behaviors have changed


over the years on the subject of seatbelt safety. Attitudes and behavior towards seat belts changed through a combination of public awareness and law enforcement. Law enforcement and penalties will be addressed later.

In addition to a campaign meeting its objectives, passing new laws, and clear behavior changes, other data can demonstrate campaign success. Companies that sell the product joining the campaign can act as a force multiplier. Drunk driving campaigns where companies like Anheuser Busch and other liquor companies promote the use of designated drivers and the need to drink responsibly in their commercials manifests this theory.

D. SUPPORTING ELEMENTS

In addition to the core elements, the formation of a successful information campaign requires supporting elements. These supporting elements are stakeholders and partners, resources, benefits and consequences, and incentives and enforcement. Figure 5 depicts the supporting elements that are discussed at length in this section.

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1. **Stakeholders and Partners**

   As the campaign planners develop the core elements they must identify actual and possible stakeholders and partners to support the information campaign are or could be. Stakeholders have a stake in the target audience’s understanding of the certain aspect of citizen preparedness. For example, if the topic is pandemic influenza (PI), the initial stakeholders are the emergency management, public health officials, homeland security officials, medical facility administrator, law enforcement, and fire department, to name a few. These stakeholders
also participate in some form or fashion in the development of the information campaign. Partners assist in either formulating or disseminating the information campaign, or both. Again using PI as the example, marketing professionals, non-profit organizations, chambers of commerce, faith based groups, news media, television, radio, internet providers, psychiatrists, and others are partners. The stakeholders and partners for specific information campaigns can change throughout the development and running of an information campaign and must be re-evaluated continually.\textsuperscript{128}

2. Resources

As with any program, resources are an issue for information campaigns about citizen preparedness. Government budgets at all levels are limited and taxation to increase funding is unpopular. Currently a full-fledged preparedness campaign similar to the seat belt campaign has not taken hold. The Readiness Campaign (Ready.gov) and the Citizen Corps are funded at the national level totaling approximately $48 million out of a $33 billion DHS budget.\textsuperscript{129} Budget allocations for general emergency management preparedness exist at the state and local levels. Providing an initial budget or increasing current funding to run proactive citizen preparedness information campaigns requires resources diverted from other programs or existing homeland security grant structures. If those trying to increase citizen preparedness have limited resources, then robust proactive information campaigns may

\textsuperscript{128} Public Preparedness: A National Imperative, 30-34; Public Communication Campaigns, 35-36.

\textsuperscript{129} Website on 11is and FEMA budget report.
not be formulated. Cooperation with stakeholders and partners can provide other avenues to increase funding for or reduce the cost of campaigns. For example, in many of the Ad Council information campaigns, marketing and advertising firms produced the messages pro bono, and television and radio stations provided free air time during popular programs at peak times.\textsuperscript{130}

3. Benefits and Consequences

In addition to composing messages to support the objectives, information campaign developers must consider the benefits and consequences of citizen preparedness, making some or all of them a part of the information campaign. Benefits and consequences are two sides of the same coin. Benefits represent those positive outcomes that will happen as a result of taking actions, and consequences are negative outcomes that will happen if an action is not taken.\textsuperscript{131}

\textbf{a. Benefits}

The benefits of increasing citizen preparedness through education and awareness include instilling a sense of control and empowerment within individual citizens before, during, and after an incident, and assisting more


\textsuperscript{131} Maibach, Social Marketing for the Environment: Using Information Campaigns to Promote Environmental Awareness and Behavior Change, 212; Public Preparedness: A National Imperative, 20-21.
quickly in responding and recovering from a disaster.\textsuperscript{132} Information campaigns instill a sense of control by providing people with information such as how to evacuate their area, what sheltering in place is, and specific actions to take during an incident. This information assists people in staying calm and allows them to help in the response and recovery process and strengthening their communities.\textsuperscript{133}

Second, increasing citizen preparedness saves lives, by people evacuating when ordered, and/or people having enough food, water, and other emergencies supplies to care for themselves and their family until government or first responders can provide additional resources. This preparedness reduces the number of people needing rescue and those needing sustenance support after a disaster.

Finally, pre-incident information campaigns build trust between the government and individual citizens saving lives and also resources.\textsuperscript{134} For instance, educating the public in a hurricane-prone state on what to do during a mandatory evacuation includes:

- Where they will get the information on the mandatory evacuation, what is meant by a mandatory evacuation order, and who will declare the evacuation

- What are the procedures to follow?


\textsuperscript{133} Butler, Panzer and Goldfrank ed., \textit{Preparing for the Psychological Consequences of Terrorism}, 220.

\textsuperscript{134} Breckenridge and Zimbardo, “The Strategy of Terrorism and The Psychology of Mass-mediated Fear.”
• What are the routes available from where they live?
• Items they should have in their to-go bag; what is a to-go bag?
• Why is it important they follow the mandatory evacuation when declared?
• If they do not have personal transportation, how they will be evacuated?

Building trust is important because evidence supports the claim that some people will not comply with a mandatory evacuation order no matter what, as evidenced by the following statement. “Fear mixed with cynical distrust can also undermine compliance with public safety and other security instructions during a crisis. Several studies have observed a troubling percent of Americans who report they would ignore or disobey the recommendations of authorities during a terrorist attack.”135 The latest data from a 2006 New York University survey and Hurricane Katrina last year also supports this assertion for natural disasters. The New York University survey states that at least 15 percent of those who live in New York said they would not evacuate when directed. If one just looks at New York City, 15 percent equates to 1,200,000 people remaining within the city during an event.136 Depending on the incident hitting New York City, resources at all levels of government could quickly be exceeded to conduct search and rescue for those in immediate need. If some of those who stay behind are not in immediate peril but do not have supplies to survive for any amount of time, resources

135 Breckenridge and Zimbardo, 7.
required to perform life saving missions could be redirected to provide food and water to those unprepared. This could result in a greater loss of life and complicate relief efforts.

During Hurricane Katrina many of those requiring rescue in the aftermath did not evacuate either because they waited too long to follow the mandatory order or decided not to leave regardless of the order. The total number of people needing rescue, including those who did not evacuate by choice, was 33,000.\textsuperscript{137} Only 55 percent of the 33,000 belonged to the population that had no means of transportation to depart the area and were told by the government to go to the Superdome or Convention Center. This means 45 percent of those who were rescued could have departed the area in their own transportation. Resources expended to save these people would not have been required.\textsuperscript{138} The resources used to save 45 percent of the individuals were in addition to the other resources and monetary spending required to feed, shelter, and clothe people, and rebuild homes and other infrastructure due to the disaster. If each search and rescue mission’s average cost was let say $3,000, the savings of not having to rescue 45 percent of those stranded by Hurricane Katrina would equal $44,550,000. Although in relation to the billions of dollars spent, this amount may not seem like a large savings, the money could have been spent and resources could have put towards other requirements instead of rescuing individuals who should not have been there.


\textsuperscript{138} Bentley, \textit{Raising Public Awareness about Disaster Response}, 23.
Again, a pre-incident information campaign provides an avenue to educate the public early and often. This mechanism builds trust that may help reduce the number of people who as of today in New York say they will not evacuate no matter the government’s direction. This opinion is probably not unique to New Yorkers, as evidenced by those who decided to stay behind on the Gulf Coast during Hurricane Katrina. An effective pre-incident preparedness campaign can help mitigate these factors.

However, just because pre-incident preparedness education has been provided to individual citizens whether for a hurricane, earthquake, terrorist attack, or other event does not mean that when the incident occurs it will happen exactly as described. In many instances, events will be different. People have to cope with the unexpected but have the capability to adapt because of prior education. It is also important to provide realistic expectations to citizens during pre-incident education. Without providing realistic expectations about what the government, first responders, emergency management, and others can do to include citizens, officials could be setting citizens and communities up for failure. Unrealistic expectations contributed to the chaos that ensued after Hurricane Katrina made landfall. The local, state, and national government did not provide realistic expectations of response and recovery capabilities.

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139 How Prepared are we, New York, 3; Bentley, Raising Public Awareness about Disaster Response, 23.

140 Federal Response to Hurricane Katrina; News coverage during the event; personal knowledge working the incident.
b. Consequences

The consequences of citizens not being prepared can include loss of life for the reasons stated above such as redirecting resources to provide sustenance supplies to stranded people or having to rescue more people because they did not follow the mandatory evacuation order. Citizens may panic during an incident because of a lack of knowledge and understanding in preparedness measures, plus having unrealistic expectations in response and recovery capabilities in relation to an incident.141 For example, a lack of information and education on the subject of bioterrorism could cause a great deal of panic due to extreme fear and confusion. According to the focus groups in Wisconsin, report members received little information on what to do during a bio-terrorism attack. The health system will be overwhelmed, and far more people are exposed, thereby increasing loss of life.142

The benefits and consequences listed above are provided to the public through an information campaign either within the context behind why the topic is important or specific messages formulated to be disseminated to target groups by various methods. If the campaign does not resonate with people that there are positive and negative outcomes correlated by action or inaction, then convincing individual citizens to be better prepared is unlikely. It is insufficient to provide information about how to be better prepared to the public; benefits and consequences


142 Emergency Preparedness Wisconsin: Results of Five Focus Groups, 1-33.
must be part of the story. If the “How tos,” benefits and consequences are built into the information campaign, individual citizens will change attitudes and behaviors. Unfortunately, this scenario is not always the case. Some people need additional instruments in order to actually take action. These instruments include incentives and enforcement measures.

4. Incentives and Enforcement: The Carrot and the Stick

Incentives and enforcement measures can provide additional support to information campaigns. These are additional mechanisms that can be crafted to support the campaign’s overall objectives.

a. Incentives

A positive way to encourage people to comply with the campaign’s desires is by providing incentives to individuals beyond the benefits discussed above. Incentives are usually tangible items that personally benefit the individual or community. Some examples include:

- Tax incentives at the state and federal level for emergency and to-go kit items.
- An awards program for communities that are well-prepared, including an infusion of money for education programs or other community oriented projects.
- Recognition at the state and local level for best practices within those communities used to increase citizen preparedness and another for the greatest gain in citizen preparedness in the last year.
• Partnering with insurance companies to give premium breaks to policy holders who take action to make their home safer from disasters like a hurricane. Citizens who intend to evacuate when ordered prevent fewer belongings such as a car being damaged in a disaster. Make it a requirement in homeowner’s insurance policies to have three days of emergency supplies.¹⁴³

Developers can formulate many other incentive programs. These incentives offset arguments that it is a monetary burden to buy emergency supplies. Incentives prove great motivation for communities to take action.

b. Enforcement

Some enforcement programs to support information campaigns on citizen preparedness include:

• Fines: Actually charge people for the cost of the rescue because they require rescue during an incident due to not evacuating when a mandatory order was given. Charge stranded victims who require provisions like food and water who could have afforded an emergency kit prior to the incident, but did not prepare one. This enforcement program is similar to what occurs today when first responders such as the fire department must rescue a person who put themselves in danger. For example, a person goes mountain climbing without the correct equipment or does not return prior to sundown and gets stuck on a ledge. The fire department rescues the stranded mountain climber from the ledge and then promptly gives the person the bill for the rescue.

• Have emergency management officials or representatives conduct random house inspections for any items the government allows a person a tax break on, for instance emergency kit items. This check and balance system provides oversight for those claiming to have purchased the items and the government.

• Pass new legislation making it illegal to stay behind in a jurisdiction when a mandatory evacuation has been ordered. This legislation could include a hefty fine and community service versus jail time.

• Pass legislation making it mandatory for all households to store three days of survival supplies prior to the household permits being signed off or some similar requirement that can be implemented with oversight.

• Tie grant funding to having state and local proactive citizen preparedness campaigns\textsuperscript{144}

Using most of the enforcement options listed above to assist in increasing citizen preparedness just adds insult to injury to the victims of an incident. Careful consideration should take place before passing legislation or setting new policy. Tying grant funding to state and local citizen preparedness campaigns does not further injure individuals suffering after an incident.

Figure 6 presents the synthesis of the core and supporting elements into a complete information campaign.

\textsuperscript{144} Chuck Enaff, “Focusing In” Safety Belt Education (1985-Present); Drunk Driving (1983-Present).
model that homeland security stakeholders and other organizations can use in order to formulate successful information campaigns.

![Information Campaign Model](image.png)

**Figure 6. Information Campaign Model**

**E. CONSISTENT AND LONG TERM**

Preparedness campaigns cannot be haphazard or intermittent. The campaign must be delivered on a regular basis. The campaign frequency and length is dependent on how quickly the messages educate and change behavior, the available delivery vehicles, and the ability of the audience to receive the message.
Regardless of the frequency, the campaign messages must be consistent. On a positive note, consistency helps the audience assimilate and retain the messages and builds an understanding that leads to behavior change. On a negative note, lack of consistency often leads to the type of confusion that makes education difficult. Even when education has taken place, inconsistent messages prevents audience members from changing behavior or taking action.

Consistency of messages and how they build upon each other is critical during information campaigns, since they are typically very long-term commitments. It normally takes a significant amount of time to create a behavior, and even more time to change entrenched behavior. Creating a culture of preparedness is likely to take years or even decades, much as similar information campaigns on topics such as drunk driving and seatbelt safety.\(^{145}\)

Campaigns that are not long-term often do not work. Efforts to increase preparedness frequently take place in communities after a devastating incident such as a hurricane or flood. Many times these efforts are not sustained. Intense but short campaigns do not change long-term behavior. Preparedness messages must be consistently provided to the audience over time and not sporadically to achieve higher levels of preparedness.\(^{146}\)

The current preparedness campaign suffers from a similar lack of consistency and commitment. The messages

\(^{145}\) Historic Campaigns.

are being provided via free public service announcements. These announcements typically occur very early in the morning (6:30) or late at night (22:00) on radio stations that might not reach the target audience.\textsuperscript{147} Even additional initiatives like Ready.gov and other websites reach only a certain audience. While the messages may provide education, they are not broadcast widely or often enough to demonstrate any real impact.

Several simple ways provide leverage leading to a long-term commitment to create impact. In El Paso County, the local media airs preparedness messages during wildfire season and cold weather hazards. The emergency management office has formed good relations with the television and radio media. For example, when bad weather occurs quickly in the eastern part of the county where tornadoes are common, the Emergency Preparedness Manager immediately contacts a local radio station to provide notification for people to stay home. The emergency management official makes the actual announcement and provides clear information directly to the public.\textsuperscript{148} Forming a long term relationship with the media through consistent planning and engagement supports information campaigns within El Paso County.

A citizen preparedness campaign must be long-term for the information and associated behaviors to become part of the fabric of society. The majority of the Ad Council campaigns formulated after World War II—seatbelt safety, drunk driving and forest fire prevention—are either still running after twenty or more years, or ran for long

\textsuperscript{147} Personal Knowledge, heard PSA spots only during these times.
\textsuperscript{148} Interview with Jim Mesite.
Seatbelt safety campaigns using crash test dummies and fire prevention efforts using Smokey the Bear became a part of society. The successful quasi-information campaign School House Rock—an education cartoon airing Saturdays on ABC during the 1970s and 1980s that focused on topics like grammar, counting, and courtesy—changed behavior because it delivered a consistent message over a very long time.150

Creating a consistent and long-term campaign does not imply that everything must happen all at once at the beginning. A phased approach works well and may even be preferable. Since information campaigns must increase knowledge, change attitudes, and change behaviors, a phased approach to achieve all three makes sense, with one phase building up to the next. For example, once citizen knowledge is increased, the campaign works to change attitudes towards a subject. The final phase changes citizens’ fundamental behaviors to be more prepared. Phasing this type of a campaign is a viable strategic approach to planning.151

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IV. SUCCESSFUL INFORMATION CAMPAIGN EXAMPLES

A. SUCCESSFUL INFORMATION CAMPAIGNS

Safety Belt Education and Drunk Driving Campaigns exemplify the utilization of the core and supporting elements discussed in Chapter III. In discussing these two campaigns, this section highlights some of the core and supporting elements that most supported the success of these campaigns.

1. Safety Belt Education Campaign

Background: The Ad Council promoted driving safety, one of the first civilian issues addressed after World War II. Although this campaign started in 1946, it was not until the National Highway Transportation Safety Administration partnered with the Ad Council in 1985 to launch the Safety Belt Education Campaign that the emphasis placed on this issue at the national level increased. This campaign started with the overall goal of increasing the use of safety belts to save lives.152 The costs associated with traffic accidents are not only the fatalities and/or serious injuries they cause but the costs to employers and taxpayers.153 For instance, Norman Mineta, U.S. Secretary of Transportation stated in testimony, “The 80 percent safety belt usage will save 15,200, prevent 330,000 serious injuries and $60 billion in economic costs associated with

152 Safety Belt Education (1985-Present).
traffic related crashes, injuries and deaths every year. The Safety Belt Education Campaign provides an example of a long-term campaign that succeeded because it had clear objectives, audience/messages and methods, and enforcement and evaluation. The Honorable Jeffery Runge administrator for the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration stated during testimony that

The National Occupant Protection Usage Survey conducted in June 2003 recorded an unprecedented 79 percent safety belt use rate. The reason for this unprecedented increase is clear. Click It or Ticket, NHTSA’s priority safety belt campaign, reached new levels of implementation. Click It or Ticket works because it is high visibility law enforcement activity combined with public awareness.

Objectives: The Ad Council and NHTSA overall campaign goal remains to increase safety belt usage to save lives: first in getting adults to use safety belts, then increasing the use of child safety seats, and finally booster seat usage for young children. The specific campaign objectives consistently supported the overall end state.

Audience/Messages/Method: The campaign initially encouraged vehicle passenger to use safety belts, featuring Vince and Larry, two crash test dummies dramatizing what could occur when one does not wear a seat belt. The public service announcement tagline was, “You can learn a lot from


a dummy...Buckle your safety belt.” In 1995, the campaign altered their focus to a new target audience, parents and caregivers, to ensure they used a seat belt and buckled their children in the back seat no matter how short the trip. In 1999, the campaign shifted again to target part-time safety belt users. The tagline of the campaign was, “Buckle Up. Always.” The messages shown in the public service announcements demonstrated that crashes can happen close to home, often through no fault of the driver. The method chosen was to show graphic crashes. In 2004, the campaign changed focus again to address the staggering 90 percent of all children who should be restrained in a booster seat.157 The current “Buckle Up America.” Campaign focuses specifically toward cultural audiences like African Americans and target audiences such as those who travel during holidays like Thanksgiving. Finally the “Buckle Up America.” Campaign provides to state and local jurisdictions promotional activities, planners, and materials, which can be used and/or modified for each particular jurisdiction’s target audience characteristics.158

**Enforcement:** States passing mandatory seatbelt laws assisted in increasing safety belt usage nationwide. In addition, tying highway funding to seatbelt laws motivated states to actually pass mandatory seatbelt legislation.159

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Evaluation:  The National Highway Transportation Safety Administration has developed technical reports on such topics as Safety Belts and Hispanics in the years 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, and 2004.\textsuperscript{160} They also have done numerous technical reports on seatbelt usage among teens, African Americans, and rural truck drivers.\textsuperscript{161} They use these statistics to focus on different target groups throughout this campaign. For example, NHTSA targets rural drivers through the Partners for Rural Traffic Safety Action Kit program. The NHTSA and the National Rural Health Association developed this program in 1996 to increase safety belt use. In 15 of the 16 communities, safety belt use increased significantly, on average a total of 13.4 percent. The highest percentage of change, 21.6\%, occurred in Manistique, Michigan. Communities that executed this program conducted pre- and post-observational surveys.\textsuperscript{162}

2. Drunk Driving Prevention Campaign

Background:  Mothers Against Drunk Driving (MADD) was founded in 1980 by two grieving mothers, Candy Lightner and Cindy Lamb. Candy’s 13-year old daughter was killed by a drunk driver in a hit-and-run, and Cindy’s five-month old daughter became the youngest paraplegic due to a drunk driving accident. These grieving mothers brought this


\textsuperscript{161} Ibid.

problem to the attention of the nation. Prior to 1980 and the founding of MADD, drunk driving was culturally acceptable, and the penalties for drunk driving were inconsistent, minor, or not enforced.\textsuperscript{163} At its inception, MADD was a small grassroots campaign of the few survivors and victims of drunk driving. The deaths annually for drunk driving-related accidents was 30,000, and this equated to alcohol being involved in 60 percent of fatal crashes.\textsuperscript{164} This grassroots organization has grown over the past two and a half decades to 600 chapters and approximately two million members and supporters.\textsuperscript{165} This grassroots campaign effort spurred another parallel effort by the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration and the Ad Council, which has been conducted from 1983-present. The efforts of these parallel campaigns have reduced drunk driving related fatalities by 40 percent, down to 17,000 annually, and saved over 300,000 lives.\textsuperscript{166} MADD has also assisted numerous survivors with their victim support program.\textsuperscript{167} A Gallop poll conducted in 1994 in relation to drunk driving provided the following results: 70 percent of respondents knew of MADD as an organization working to stop drunk driving; 85 percent of respondents believed MADD had been very effective or somewhat effective at making the

\textsuperscript{163} Davies, 25 Years of Saving Lives, 9.
\textsuperscript{164} Ibid., 9.
\textsuperscript{167} Davies, 25 Years of Saving Lives, 9.
public aware of the negative consequences of drunk driving; and 75 percent of respondents believed MADD’s efforts decreased the number of drunk drivers on our roads.  

1998 polling data from the Roper organization documented acceptance of the designated driver concept: 53 percent of adult drinkers have either served as or used a designated driver.  

End state and objectives: The overall end state of both the MADD grassroots and the partnered Ad Council and NHTSA campaigns is to reduce drunk driving, resulting in lives saved. The MADD campaign has other specific objectives such as increasing the drinking age nationwide, lowering the illegal blood alcohol content level to .08 nationwide, increasing penalties for drunk driving, and changing laws for victim rights. They have met many of these goals, and they continue to adapt throughout the campaign. The Ad Council and NHTSA also has specific campaign objectives, but their objectives are aimed at empowering their audiences to take action to reduce drunk driving. They encourage people to take personal responsibility for not drinking and driving and promote having friends take part in stopping friends from getting behind the wheel after drinking. Both campaigns advocate a designated driver. 


Messages: The MADD campaign compiled statistics and made them compelling to politicians and the nation. The campaigns did not merely state that drunk driving kills and injures millions but they provided a human context by displaying photographs and testimonial about the victims and the survivors of these tragic but avoidable incidents. The Ad Council and NHTSA also provides compelling messages through their public service announcements. They visualize a car crash by crashing two mugs together and having the breaking glass signify a crash. They also show the victims killed by drunk drivers through videos and photographs.171

Enforcement: The MADD campaign was very instrumental in getting legislation passed to enforce and limit drunk driving. They advocated increasing the drinking age to 21 nationwide. In 1984, President Reagan signed the Uniform Drinking Age Act, and it was adopted in all 50 states by 1988. In 1988, the Omnibus Anti-Drug Act was signed and extended the same compensation rights offered to other crimes to all victims of Driving While Intoxicated incidents. The Alcohol Beverage Act was passed requiring manufactures to put warnings on containers. In 1995, Congress passed the Federal Zero Tolerance Law tying highway funds to the passage of state-level zero tolerance laws. Congress passed the national .08 blood alcohol content measures, and it was passed in all 50 states by 2004.172

Feedback: MADD and the Ad Council and NHTSA campaigns fully used feedback mechanisms to gauge whether their

171 Mothers Against Drunk Driving, Drunk Driving Prevention (1983-Present), 2.

campaigns were working. These feedback mechanisms were mostly conducted through surveys. The MADD campaign conducted Gallup surveys asking questions on a variety of topics related to drunk driving. They also conducted and released the national rating of the states surveys. MADD used the surveys conducted by other organizations on traffic safety (e.g. the NHSTA) to examine changes in fatalities caused by alcohol, and they saw a steady reduction until 2000. The NHTSA has also conducted surveys and used polling data to gauge the reduction of drunk driving related incidents. Both of these campaigns took this information and re-evaluated the direction of their campaigns, making adjustments for different audiences, changing messages, changing objectives, and other aspects. For instance, in 1989, the MADD campaign targeted teenagers and youths trying to reduce underage drinking. In 1996, they announced this initiative as a new focus of the campaign. In 1990, MADD released its “20 by 2000” plan to reduce the portion of traffic fatalities that are alcohol-related by 20 percent by 2000. In 1999 MADD released its higher risk driver program targeting repeat offenders, high BAC drivers and those driving on a suspended license.\footnote{Mothers Against Drunk Driving, \textit{MADD Milestones: 1980-2005}, 9.}

The Ad Council and NHTSA also made adjustments during their campaigns. For example, in 1990, they changed their public service announcement from, “Drinking and driving can kill a friendship.” to “Friends don’t let friends drive drunk.” This campaign strategy evolved from just a personal responsibility issue to make it everyone’s responsibility to stop drunk driving. In 1994, a public service announcement poignantly illustrated the consequences of
letting someone drive drunk by featuring stories, photographs, and home videos of real people who were killed by a drunk driver. The overall end state for the MADD campaign recently changed in November 2006 to eliminate drunk driving, not just reduce it. Currently no information is available on whether the Ad Council and NHTSA will also change their end state. However, NHTSA has endorsed MADD’s new nationwide campaign. MADD has adjusted its end state in response to the trends of stagnation and, in some areas, increases, in drunk driving related deaths and serious injuries since 2000.

**Conclusion:** Although only a few criteria and elements included in the model are addressed, both campaigns used other elements such as partnering, stakeholders, benefits and consequences, and others. The two campaigns are successful due to having clear objectives, knowing their target audience(s), formulating compelling and simple messages, and conducting evaluation of the campaign continually, allowing developers to assess the campaign and make changes where required. A Gallop poll conducted in 1994 in relation to drunk driving provided the following results: 70 percent of respondents knew of MADD as an organization working to stop drunk driving; 85 percent of respondents believe MADD has been very effective or somewhat effective at making the public aware of the negative consequences of drunk driving; and 75 percent of respondents believe MADD’s efforts decreased the number of drunk drivers on our roads today. In addition, the

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developers use the supporting elements such as partnerships, enforcement, and benefits and consequences. Even though these two campaigns do not target citizen preparedness, they share aspects similar to a citizen preparedness campaign, such as being national in scope, long-term in nature, and important to saving lives. These campaigns therefore suggest that proactive information campaigns can work in increasing citizen preparedness.
V. CONCLUSION

A. INTRODUCTION

Citizen preparedness is a vital component of homeland security. It is articulated in the highest level of national strategy and can be used to better prepare and build a more resilient national preparedness effort. Information Campaigns are one methodology to increase citizen preparedness. An information campaign model, using the core and supporting elements can be used by campaign developers to formulate a proactive informational effort. Using the information campaign model depicted in figures 6 and 7 a generic example will be formulated to highlight how an information campaign can be crafted specifically for citizen preparedness. It is important to note, however, an actual campaign would really be the product of many stakeholders and partners.
Figure 7. Information Campaign Model

B. EXAMPLE

Step 1—Overall End state: The overall end state for this campaign is citizen preparedness. The definition of citizen preparedness is:

- Citizens have the ability to take care of themselves and their family for a certain period of time, currently 72 hours
  - Families have a family plan and exercise that plan
  - Citizens understand incident plans and their role in execution
  - Citizens understand the importance of being prepared
Step 2--Decide on a topic for the information campaign that supports the overall end state: The topic for this campaign is general preparedness. The initial stakeholders are the Department of Homeland Security, Federal Emergency Management Agency, and The Department Health and Human Services. Partnerships under consideration are the Ad Council, the National Emergency Management Association, and the National Governors Association and marketing firms who do pro bono work. The tagline is, “Do Your Part, Be Prepared! Save Lives and Strengthen Communities.” The context connects to the tagline by explaining that individual citizens being prepared can save lives and strengthen communities to respond and recover from an incident.

Step 3--Core and supporting elements: The following section formulates the bulk of the specific campaign. It walks through the core criteria described in Chapter III: Objective, Audience Assessment, Theme and Message Development, Methods of Dissemination, and Evaluation. The supporting elements are also addressed but are intertwined within the core elements.

Objective(s):

• Individual preparedness is clearly defined

• Individual citizens understand why preparedness is important

• Individual citizens understand why 72 hours sustainability is required

• Individual citizens know exactly what items constitute an emergency kit
• Individual citizens understand what a family plan is and the criteria required to formulate an effective plan

• Citizen Preparedness messages provided daily

• The role of citizens in preparedness fully understood

Audience(s): Audience definition examines characteristics. Broad characteristics are: urban versus rural; high versus low economic status; risk population; English-speaking versus other languages; and cultures including American, Hispanic, African American and Asian. These characteristics combine to formulate target audiences. Some examples of target audiences for this campaign are: urban, middle class, English and Spanish speakers; urban, low income, English and Spanish speakers; children ages 4-8 who speak English; and school-age children. Once the target audiences are chosen, the focus shifts to identifying possible barriers for these target audiences such as apathy, preconceived attitudes on roles and responsibilities, concerns about money, and people believing they are too busy. Once these barriers are identified they are taken into account when developing messages and methods of dissemination.

Message(s):

Theme 1—What is citizen preparedness?

Message 1 - Individual citizen preparedness is being able to take care of yourself and your family for a certain amount of time.
Message 2 - Understand how to shelter in place, evacuate when ordered, and individual citizen’s roles for executing incident plans.

Theme 2 - Family preparedness

Message 1 - A family plan is important. It is a pre-incident plan to ensure your family knows what to do in an emergency and how to contact each other if separated.

Message 2 - The following criteria make a family plan: clothing; important papers; a rally point if members are separated; an out-of-town phone number if members cannot make it to the rally point; and the evacuation destination.  

Message 3 - A family plan needs to be practiced regularly for ease of execution when the time comes.

Message 4 - Not having the originals of important documents will make it more difficult to recover from an incident.

Message 5 - The incident does not need to be a natural disaster like a hurricane. It could be a school shooting or a house fire that happens when some family members are not at home.

Theme 3 - Preparedness is everyone’s responsibility.

Message 1 - Individual citizens have a role in local state and national preparedness in order to better respond and recover to any “all hazard” incident.

Message 2 - Individual citizens are part of a larger team of responders in a disaster.

Message 3 - In some situations individual citizens are the first responder.

Message 4 - Incidents occur at the local level and affect individual citizens. Being prepared saves lives and strengthens communities.

Theme 4 - Why is citizen preparedness important?

Message 1 - Individual citizen preparedness can save lives and strengthen communities. Specific examples are provided.

Message 2 - This leads to more effective response and a quicker recovery.

Message 3 - Over time, preparedness leads to a resiliency within our nation to endure any hazard, natural or man-made.

Theme 5 - Why do citizens need a 72-hour kit, and what is an emergency kit?

Message 1 - Individual citizens whose lives are in peril receive attention first.

Message 2 - Individuals must be self-sufficient for 72 hours because many incidents occur with little or no warning. Supplies may not be pre-positioned and it takes time to move capabilities in the area for response.

Message 3 - Individual citizens who have provisions for 72 hours are not in harms way and allows first responders to save those in peril.
Message 4 – An emergency kit includes: a flashlight, extra batteries, battery-operated radio, batteries, non-perishable food for each member for 72 hours, enough water for each member for 72 hours (one day supply for an individual is one gallon of water), change of clothing for three days (account for time of year), blanket or sleeping bag, first aid kit, whistle to signal for help, can opener, sanitation supplies, certified copies of important papers, and medication.177

Message 5 – Tax benefits available for items purchased for an emergency at the state and federal level. All tax benefits under citizen preparedness can be found at www.taxbenefit.gov. In addition, this information is also available by contacting your state and local emergency management departments.

Theme 6 – Mandatory Evacuation

Message 1 – Mandatory evacuation with warning occurs no less than 48 hours prior to the incident; evacuation without warning occurs as soon as possible.

Message 2 – Evacuation normally happens in phases to reduce congestion.

Message 3 – Know your primary and secondary evacuation routes. These can be found at www.evac.org or in the front of your phone book. Routes are color coded.

Message 4 - Citizens need to comply with mandatory evacuation orders to save lives and reduce monetary costs.

Message 5 - Mandatory evacuation orders are provided via the radio at 91.1 AM and 103.8 FM, television with closed caption, and via e-mail to cell phones.

Message 6 - For special needs and at-risk population requiring transportation, please register using one of the following methods: the internet at www.trans.gov, pre-paid registration card in the phone book,¹⁷⁸ or the at the bottom of your electric bill.

Message 7 - Both sides of the designated outbound highway(s) will be one-way starting 24 hours prior to an incident.

Message 8 - Citizens need to have a to-go bag assembled with copies or originals of important documents, food, water, change of clothing, flashlight, medication, and other items as required.

Method(s): Since messages on preparedness will be heard by individuals’ every day the campaign will use a variety of methods. The various methods include television, radio, newspapers and television news, interactive computer ware like videos, CD-ROMs, DVDs, games, etc, and the internet. Partnerships for disseminating the messages can be television networks, celebrity spokespersons, radio stations, non-governmental agencies, faith-based groups, and internet providers. Some examples of how this campaign is actually designed follows:

¹⁷⁸ Linn County Iowa program.
Television

• Develop a readiness cartoon to be broadcast on television. The cartoon’s main character is Ready Squirrel with her gang Skeptical Snake, Reactive Rabbit, and Fearful Ferret. In addition to the main cartoon characters, recognizable guest cartoon characters like Curious George, Sponge Bob, Ariel, etc. make appearances. The campaign uses this cartoon to disseminate messages developed above.\textsuperscript{179} The campaign developers partner with the Ad Council, Pixar, Disney, cable, and other stations like the Cartoon Network, ABC, NBC, and CBS.

• Developers broadcast 30-45 second spots discussing the messages during high profile shows like Survivor, American Idol, Lost, CSI, etc. Popular actors such as Angelina Jolie, Oprah Winfrey Brad Pitt, and Ellen DeGeneres can help provide the messages. Campaign developers partner with NBC’s The More You Know spots and CBS’s CBS Cares spots\textsuperscript{180} that are already broadcasted. ABC currently does not have a similar venue to CBS Cares or NBC’s The More You Know to plug into. However, wanting to get preparedness messages out, the campaign developers can assist ABC in creating a similar venue to CBS and NBC. In addition,


partnerships with Spanish television such as Telemundo can provide similar information to Hispanic populations.

**Radio**

People spend a lot of time in their cars so getting the preparedness messages played on the radio is important. The messages are short and easy to remember, so the messages above may require slight modification because people will not be able to write anything down. Partners for this portion of the campaign include NPR; country, rock, rap, alternative and Spanish stations; other talk radio shows; Ad Council; celebrities like Oprah Winfrey, Julia Roberts, Brett Favre, Michael Jordan; and famous Spanish celebrities. For example, a finished product is a short spot discussing a family plan using messages such as, “Keep your family safe! Know when to leave, know what to take, know where to go and know who to call.”

**Newspapers/magazines**

Formulate partnerships with major newspapers and magazines such as the *Wall Street Journal*, *New York Times*, *Newsweek*, *People*, and *The Washington Post*. This medium allows for more space and specifics to be discussed through ads or editorials to provide the messages. It is also better to use the print medium for a complicated message.181 One could take pictures of the aftermath of hurricanes and use statements made by famous people who assist the survivors who were stranded. Another option involves using testimonials from survivors about not having required supplies, family plans, or important documents during this

181 Weiss and Tschirhart, Public Information Campaigns as Policy Instruments, 87.
disaster, and how adversely they were affected because of their lack of preparedness. These first-hand accounts by survivors represent some of the most powerful messengers. ¹⁸²

Internet

This medium currently has sites such as Ready.gov where people can go for general emergency information and checklists. While internet sites provide a variety and wealth of information, the median is more of a passive activity. The public pulls information from the internet; it is not pushed to the public. Other partnerships one could form in this median are with companies such as AOL, Google, You Tube, and Ask.com. Preparedness messages are presented in pop-up windows for people to read while surfing the internet. The pop-ups must be clear, simple, and easy to remember. For example the pop-up reads, “Do Your Part. Be Prepared! Save Lives and Strengthen Communities. Do you have a family plan or emergency kit? Click here for more details.” This method of dissemination uses the internet as a push mechanism for messages on preparedness and then allows a person to find out even more information once you gain their attention.

Cinemas

Partner with cinema companies as a venue to provide minute-long public service announcements developed in conjunction with the Ad Council and other stakeholders and partners. To provide an incentive for cinema companies to assist, offer possible tax breaks at the state and local level. These public service announcements play right before each movie showing and a phone number and website

are provided at the end for more information. Cards are available at the concession stands listing specific actions for citizens to take and hazard information. This method hits a diverse array of target groups and the messages are different depending on the area they are played in. Developers plan at least five different public service announcements to reach diverse audiences. Citizens find out about incentive programs and volunteer opportunities through these messages. Since most cinemas today have advertisements in slide format, and some cinemas show short film spots or video commercials prior to all movies, this strategy is easily accomplished. For example, CINEMARK cinemas in Colorado Springs show advertisements, play music, show a short film called First Look about what is going on in Hollywood and finally show commercials prior to the feature film. On January 2, 2007, a public service announcement on crime prevention with McGruff the Crime Dog was played through the sound system.183

Schools

The Office of Public Education, along with other stakeholders, partners with school districts to provide education on “all hazards” and citizen preparedness to students. The curriculum developed discusses the general hazards and threats, risks to individual citizens, the role of individual citizens, what children can do to help their family prepare, and how their efforts can save lives and strengthen communities. These materials provide a starting point, which can be modified to each individual school district. Also the state sponsors an essay contest on

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citizen preparedness/hazardous incidents for students at the middle and high school level. A ceremony and prizes recognizes 1st, 2nd, and 3rd places statewide. Another school competition program rewards the best community preparedness project statewide and a ceremony and plaque will be given to the 1st and 2nd place schools.184

The other steps in the information campaign must be evaluated to ascertain if they achieve the objectives and overall end state. Some ways to measure and evaluate the success of this campaign include the use of surveys, focus groups, and a blog. For this campaign, evaluations are collected and assessed on a semi-annual basis for surveys, and focus groups and the blog are continuous.

**Surveys**

Surveys are not very interactive because the questions are developed by those who usually produce the campaign without any other assistance and the answers are restricted to the specific questions asked. Data is then compiled and results are published. They compare this data to the benchmark survey and if the percentages indicate that people are better prepared, the information campaign is deemed a success.

**Focus Groups**

A more interactive method uses focus groups because it provides interaction between the groups and those conducting the campaign. These groups are used to find out how effective each campaign is: television, radio, radio, radio.

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newsprint, or the internet. Have the participants seen the messages, paid attention, and acted accordingly? How many times a month did participants hear about citizen preparedness, and did it increase an understanding of the importance of being prepared? What is a family plan and what are its components? What is an emergency kit and what are its components? If the campaign was not effective, why not and what suggestions do the groups have to improve them? A way to make using focus groups even more effective in the evaluation process is to choose these groups prior to running the campaign. Developers can conduct a specific benchmark assessment on these groups providing a basis for comparison.¹⁸⁵

Blog

Developers configure a blog to gather data from a much larger audience and allow people to comment at their convenience. At the start up of the blog an on-line survey will be conducted. This particular blog poses questions or discusses issues linked to the current campaign and starts a discussion to garner opinions from participants on its effectiveness. The use of a blog may be less helpful in getting exact data to compare to a benchmark study; however, it provides huge insight into what people are looking for, if the campaign missed the intended objectives or figure out if anyone is listening. Getting people to listen to preparedness messages over other information is critical, and if they are willing to comment on the campaign it is likely they are listening and interested.

¹⁸⁵ Emergency Preparedness Wisconsin: Results of Five Focus Groups, 1-33.
The evaluation portion has two purposes. First, it is used to specifically measure the effectiveness of the information campaign in reference to its objectives. Once this first stage is completed, the second purpose allows the developers to review the direction of the campaign and decide if any aspect of the campaign should be modified or if the campaign is still valid because the objective(s) have not been fully achieved.

C. CONCLUSION

Homeland security documents called for citizens to participate in preparedness issues. In addition, it was evident that citizens are interested in being educated on preparedness issues and taking action to become better prepared. The current level of citizen preparedness does not meet the most recent goals outlined in the Interim National Preparedness Goal Target Capabilities List and there is a considerable gap to overcome. The suggested methodology of information campaigns is raised as a viable approach to reducing or eliminating in total this gap. Additionally, core criteria and supporting elements in developing successful information are discussed. These elements are then synthesized into an information campaign model, which offered homeland security stakeholders a method to follow for formulating successful proactive information campaigns. As with any model a situation or specific jurisdiction might need to modify the model to fit within required parameters. The successful Safety Belt Education and Drunk Driving information campaigns proved that proactive information campaigns are an effective and a viable instrument to be used in increasing citizen
preparedness. For examples of current preparedness programs that can support a citizen preparedness campaign see Appendix 1.
APPENDIX: PREPAREDNESS PROGRAMS

A. MASS TRANSIT COMMUTER TRAINING

Washington D.C. Emergency Management is reaching out to mass transit community members to assist in helping better prepare for possible disasters. They are conducting a homeland responder training program to train mass transit commuters on responding to an incident on the mass transit system whether it be accidental or deliberate. The video below provides further details on how the emergency management agency reached out to regular commuters as well as commuters who were already CERT certified to provide knowledge and train citizens on how to respond to an incident and assist others in responding, such as directing an evacuation of the train or applying first aid. The premise behind conducting this training is the reality that citizens on the mass transit commuter trains will be the first people able to respond initially. Having commuters on the mass transit understand how to administer first aid, exit a train car without electricity, and other vital information will assist in reducing other commuters fear and limiting panic during an incident, saving lives. Reaching out to other target audiences to recruit members to be trained and educated in response actions similar to this example will only strengthen communities and save lives.

186 Homeland Responder Newsletter and accompanying video.
B. INFORMATION BOOKLETS

Vermont Releases a Radiological Information Booklet to Farmers: The Vermont Agency for Agriculture partnering with the Department of Health and Emergency Management prepared a new guide for keeping the food supply safe in case radiation is released from the Vermont Yankee nuclear plant or a terrorist attack. The booklet was distributed to farmers in a 60 mile radius of the plant. The guide provides information on the risks of nuclear fallout and the difference between radiological exposure and contamination. The booklet then outlines steps farmers can take to keep plants, animals and people safe before and after exposure.187

C. CONSORTIUM, TASK FORCES OR OTHER GROUPS

Maryland Spearheads Multi-State All Hazards Consortium: The consortium is designed to improve preparedness in the Mid-Atlantic Region by allowing State emergency management officials to share strategies and integrate plans. The States participating include Delaware, Maryland, North Carolina, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Virginia and West Virginia. The District of Columbia is also participating. The consortium allows private companies, public safety agencies, universities, volunteer organizations and faith-based institutions to collaborate to improve preparedness.188 The Consortium


conducts annual forums where participants discuss issue of preparedness, evacuation planning, best practices and other topics. Second annual forum was held in Baltimore 25-27 October 2005. The common goal is getting better prepared for natural disasters and terrorism.\textsuperscript{189}

D. SPECIAL NEEDS AND AT RISK POPULATION

\textbf{Preparedness Education for Low-Income Residents}: Seven states will participate in a pilot program to bolster terrorism preparedness levels in low-income communities. Community Action Partnership Land Security program is providing funding in order to establish local resource centers, broker relationships between low-income community leaders and first responders, facilitate presentations by local government representatives and coordinate efforts to organize local volunteer emergency preparedness and response teams.\textsuperscript{190}

\textbf{North Carolina Trains Seniors for Disaster Preparation}: North Carolina Commission on Volunteerism and Community Service conducted disaster preparedness training workshops for seniors at 33 community centers across the state. The workshops were funded by a grant through the Homeland Security Volunteerism Program, grant funds were also used to create homeland security volunteerism consortiums comprised of local leaders in 12 counties. During the workshops seniors learned how to create a family disaster plan, prepare a disaster emergency kit and use


local emergency management offices. The program is a one-hour disaster/homeland security preparedness training program that has three components 1) The role of local Emergency Management offices, 2) The importance of a family preparedness plan, 3) The importance of disaster supply kit. The program provided a disaster preparedness checklist for senior citizens and at the end of the workshop seniors were awarded a certificate of appreciation.\textsuperscript{191}

The workshop program exceeded all goals: provided training sessions at 71 senior centers, trained 1,658 seniors and of the 95\% of seniors trained they signed a written agreement to train another person. The program is continues with 40 more senior centers already scheduled, as well as, extending the outreach to AARP chapters.\textsuperscript{192}

**Linn County Iowa’s Program to Evacuate Individuals with Special Needs:** Linn county Emergency Management has developed a plan for evacuating individuals with special needs through a volunteer program, which compiles information on individuals who feel they may need special assistance and enter this information into a database. The database is cross-walked with the country’s Geographic Information Systems (GIS). This allows emergency personnel to quickly determine the location and specific needs of individuals during a disaster and better coordinate providing assistance. This program was initiated in 1993


\textsuperscript{192} "Effective use of Senior Volunteers in Homeland Security Activities (North Carolina Program)," North Carolina Emergency Management, 2.
in partnership between Linn County EMA and the local nuclear power plant, the Duane Arnold Energy Center. Until this program, those with special needs were not addressed in the possible evacuation of over 200,000 due to a variety of incidents. The goal of the special needs registration program is to provide emergency personnel with the necessary information to locate and evacuate individuals with special needs during an emergency or disaster.

The Program estimates 20% of the population has trouble receiving warning messages from traditional source and additional methods must be addressed.

Registration is simple and accessible: The primary means of registration has applicants fill out and return a postage-paid 5x7 card distributed in telephone books and partnering with community service groups that work with the elderly and special needs clients such as Visiting Nurses Association, Meals on Wheels, etc. In addition, residents can register by phone.

The database has been used numerous times in training exercises and has been used on a limited basis for instance during recent flooding, the special needs database successfully identified registrants living in low-lying areas that had been targeted for potential evacuation. Participants received as much notice as possible about the situation.
The cost of the program is minimal. The primary cost associated with this program is postage and printing. The postage-paid registration cards cost approximately $5,000 per year.\textsuperscript{193}

E. EXERCISES OR DRILLS

Kentucky Holds Earthquake Preparedness Week: 1-8 February 2006 was earthquake preparedness week in Kentucky. Some of the activities included a townhall meeting with panel discussion with members of the Emergency management and scientific communities, training course for volunteers, statewide Duck, Cover and Hold Drill primarily for schools, however there was a desire for private residents, small and large business, industry and government offices to also consider how they would respond to an earthquake.\textsuperscript{194} In addition, Kentucky Emergency Management provided specific information on how to prepare for a disaster available at http://www.kyem.ky.gov/programs/Earthquake/default.htm.

F. OUTREACH, FAIRS, WORKSHOPS, AND PARTNERSHIPS

Florida Conducts Hurricane Preparedness Town Fairs: Florida Town Fairs help residents to strengthen their homes against hurricanes and reduce their homeowner’s insurance premiums. The State brought together insurance companies, home improvement stores, emergency managers and non-profit organizations and private sector partners to participate in

\footnotesize{\textsuperscript{193} "Linn County, Iowa's Program to Evacuate Individuals with Special Needs," Lessons Learned Information Sharing, https://www.llis.dhs.gov/member/secure/getfile.cfm?id=8612 (accessed November 22, 2006).}

these town fairs. Each town fair is free and open to the public. Insurance companies provide advice to homeowners to strengthen their homes against wind damage; by taking recommended steps owners are eligible for discounts and credits on their premiums. Homeowners can also apply for grants to protect their homes through the "My Safe Florida Home" project. In addition, homeowners can apply for free home inspections that will offer tips and ideas on how to strengthen their home. Governor Bush states, "Fortifying Florida is essential for instilling a 'culture or preparedness.' The goal of the town fairs is to empower people with the information they need to make critical decisions about protecting their home and reducing their insurance premium."  

**Virginia Department of Management's 2006 Hurricane Media Tour:** Virginia Department of Emergency Management (VDEM) conducted a Hurricane Preparedness Media Tour in August 2006 to raise public awareness of preparedness issues during the latter months of hurricane season. Two senior emergency management officials traveled to local news providers and gave an on the record interview about hurricane preparedness and planning. During the interview the state coordinator of emergency management and the director of the Hampton Roads STC provided a 10-minute briefing session to emphasize major hurricane preparedness themes derived from talking point created by the emergency management department. The remainder of the time was spent responding to specific media questions. The flexibility of

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this format allowed the coordinator and the director to tailor each interview to their audience’s particular interests or concerns. To initiate these interviews VDEM’s public outreach coordinator sent an e-mail to reporters who worked regularly with VDEM, assignment editors, or other editors. They targeted Virginian newspapers with the largest circulation; local talk-and-news-oriented radio and television stations; and the Associated Press. The idea was involving different types of media the resulting coverage would reach all segments of the population. The talking points outlined what the state government has done to prepare for hurricane season and then stressed steps that Virginians should take to prepare for hurricane season. This was part of their “It Could Happen To You” hurricane preparedness campaign.197

The tour helped VDEM build relationships with local new providers. Two months after the tour, VDEM responded to severe flooding in the southeastern city of Franklin. Local reporters remembered VDEM’s public’ outreach coordinator from his work during the Media tour, which facilitated VDEM’s public communications efforts during the emergency. The meetings provided media personnel with a deeper understanding of hurricane preparedness and the region’s hurricane response plans; this will more likely result in the communication of accurate safety instructions to the public during a crisis.198


Seattle Project Impact: Seattle Project Impact is a public-private partnership committed to making Seattle a disaster-resistant community. The program is possible due to a grant from the Federal Emergency Management Agency. The program has four areas of concentration home retrofit, School retrofit, hazard mapping and business disaster mitigation. Some of the activities of Seattle Project Impact were presentations at conference, business, rotary meeting; plus neighborhood events co-hosted with project partners, and classes were provided for homeowners and contractors about structural home retrofitting. In addition, Disaster Saturday’s are held the first Saturday of April and/or October, which is co-hosted by Seattle Disaster Aid and Response Teams and Seattle Project Impact. These workshops are free to the public, are held in different city neighborhoods and workshop content continually changes to provide the most updated information. Activities include displays, workshops, hand-on demonstrations and more.199

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