PERCEPTIONS OF DISASTER PROFESSIONALISM IN MEXICO: ADDING A NEW PUBLIC MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE TO EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT

Heriberto Urby, Jr., B.A., M.B.A., M.Ed., J.D.

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APPROVED:

David A. McEntire, Major Professor
Abraham D. Benavides, Committee Member
James M. Kendra, Committee Member
Robert Bland, Chair of the Department of Public Administration
Thomas Evenson, Dean of the College of Public Affairs and Community Service
James D. Meernik, Acting Dean of the Robert B. Toulouse School of Graduate Studies
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This study investigated the perceptions of emergency managers regarding the degree of emergency management professionalism in Mexico and how it can be improved. The disaster of the Mexico City earthquake of 1985 was used as the starting point for this case study, as the prospects for more-frequent and more-intense disasters lend credence to the need for improved professionalism and, thus, effectiveness among emergency managers in the future.

An expansive framework of emergency management professionalism mechanisms (or characteristics) and an additional compilation of new public management components (or values) were devised from the extant literatures found within the respective emergency management and public administration fields. The theory advanced by this study is that by integrating new public management components with emergency management mechanisms, professionalism in Mexico will improve and, thus, emergency managers will become more effective.

Qualitative field research was the methodology employed and it included interviews with 35 emergency managers in Mexico in corroboration with documentary evidence, to ascertain emergency managers’ perceptions of professionalism in Mexico. The findings of this study determined that emergency managers in Mexico are implementing many of the mechanisms of professionalism but fewer new public management components. This study posits that by integrating new public management components with emergency management professionalism mechanisms, professionalism in Mexico will improve and will increase emergency managers’ effectiveness.
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Overview of Study and Preview of Chapter

This study investigated the degree of professionalism in the field of emergency management in Mexico, and how professionalism may be improved in this particular nation. Several characteristics of professionalism previously discussed by emergency management scholars were incorporated into one expansive framework. This dissertation also examined public administration principles, derived specifically from new public management theory. Many components from this theory were suggested for integration with the characteristics of emergency management professionalism to recommend how emergency managers in Mexico may improve professionalism and, thus, become more effective and responsible. Thus, the main contribution of this study demonstrates that by incorporation of new public management components with emergency management professionalism characteristics, professionalism in Mexico will improve and emergency managers will become more effective. This is so, even though emergency managers may need to question (from time to time) which new public management components are even applicable to emergency management.

This chapter first defines the term “emergency management” and explains the occupation’s importance in terms of the rising numbers of disasters and the increased devastation prevalent in recent years. The need for professionalism to meet challenges of risk management is also discussed and the term “professionalism” is defined.

Next, the hazards and vulnerability of Mexico generally are set forth, as is a discussion of the 1985 Mexico City earthquake in terms of its impacts on Mexico and her people. Thereafter, concrete examples are provided identifying why (with regard to the 1985 earthquake) mitigation
was inadequate, preparedness was lacking, response was problematic, recovery was slow, and how such problems relate to professionalism in Mexico. Finally, as it will be shown that all of these challenges justify the need for a study on professionalism in emergency management in Mexico, this study is timely and theoretically and practically salient.

Focus of Study

This dissertation focuses on perceptions of the degree of professionalism that exists today in Mexico. Professionalism, in the emergency management context, refers to the characteristics required to exhibit the necessary knowledge, expertise, competence, and skills to try to prevent disasters and prepare for response and recovery operations. In order to help gauge this professionalism, this study reviews previous writings on professionalism by various scholars and compiles many of their findings into one expansive list from the many characteristics of professionalism. The list developed in this study contains the theoretical standard and benchmark by which emergency managers’ degree of professionalism may be analyzed and compared.

This kind of effective emergency management occurs when emergency managers attain and exhibit a degree of professionalism that helps produce a successful emergency management system in that country and, thus, an effective and responsible emergency manager that can be successful in time of crisis when the immediate disaster or eventuality actually occurs or threatens to occur. Professionalism can be demonstrated as the essence of good practices and outcomes. Characteristics of professionalism can be related to mitigation and preparedness, response, and recovery that help emergency managers become more effective. Also, emergency
management literature discusses characteristics of professionalism that further enable the emergency manager to fulfill his or her responsibilities, and also to demonstrate effectiveness.

**Emergency Management and Emergency Managers Defined**

Like so many other terms in the field, there are many definitions that have been given for the term “emergency management” through the years. However, this study relies principally on the definition that follows. Emergency management is the “the discipline and profession of applying science, technology, planning and management to deal with extreme events that can injure or kill large numbers of people, do extensive property damage, and disrupt community life” (Hoetmer, 1991, p. vxii).

Thus, by using this definition of emergency management, it can be argued that emergency managers are professionals in the emergency management field whose job it is to try to reduce and/or prevent risks of disasters. Moreover, emergency managers are those individuals who coordinate the activities of local, state, federal or national agencies and organizations to employ principles and techniques (e.g., applicable to preparedness, mitigation, response, and recovery) as approaches to disasters (Drabek, 1991). They are, as Drabek contends, “professionals dedicated to the protection of citizens and their communities that might be impacted by disasters” (2004a, Session 1, p.10). McEntire describes emergency managers “as public servants who employ knowledge, techniques, strategies, tools, organizational networks, and other community and external resources to reduce the occurrence of disasters and successfully deal with their impacts in order to protect people, property, and the environment” (McEntire, 2006, p. 169). Rubin (2005) stated that an emergency manager prevents deaths, injuries, property loss, and social disruption during emergencies, disasters, or catastrophes. This
is all the more important as emergency managers will take on rising, and more deadly, disasters in the years to come (Mileti, 1999).

Some years ago, E. L. Quarantelli, an eminent scholar of emergency management, predicted that “we are going to be faced with more and worse disasters in the future no matter how much disaster preparedness and personnel we have or could improve in any realistic sense” (Quarantelli, 1992, p. 24). Yet, in spite of this prediction, other scholars and practitioners believe that more can still be done to mitigate damage from, and prepare for, disasters. Both of these approaches help lessen the loss of life and property damage that is, most unfortunately, common in times of crises.

Also of unfortunate significance, many nations are not fully capable of dealing with disasters. For instance, on too many occasions, Mexican emergency management officials have been caught ill-prepared for such devastations (e.g., natural disasters such as earthquakes) and seemingly without the degree of professionalism needed to tackle these unfortunate events. Due in large part to this indictment of emergency managers, one thing seems clear: professionalism is needed in Mexico to minimize (i.e., reduce) all the consequences of major disasters such as occurred with the powerful earthquake of 1985.

Phases to Emergency Management

To more fully understand professionalism, it is also helpful to acquire a basic knowledge of the four approaches essential to practicing emergency management and how they impact (as discussed below) emergency managers’ professionalism. Mileti has stated that “In current thinking, human adjustments to disasters take place throughout a cyclical process that has four stages: preparedness, response, recovery, and mitigation” (Mileti 1999, p. 22).
Preparedness involves a readiness to cope with disaster situations which cannot be avoided. This involves warning the affected population, developing an operational plan of action and an organization to manage and coordinate that action, the training of personnel in rescue and relief techniques, the stockpiling of supplies and the earmarking of funds for relief operations (Brown, 1979, p. 34). According to Mileti, preparedness requires “building an emergency response and management capability before a disaster occurs to facilitate an effective response when needed” (Mileti, 1999, p. 22). Examples of preparedness include “emergency operations plans, warning systems, emergency operation centers, emergency communications networks, emergency public information, mutual aid agreements, resource management plans, and training and exercises for emergency personnel” (Hy and Waugh, 1990, p. 19).

Response, succinctly put, is “the actions taken immediately before, during, and after a disaster occurs to save lives, minimize damage to property, and enhance the effectiveness of recovery” (Mileti, 1999, p. 23). Examples of response include “emergency plan activation, emergency instructions to the public, emergency medical assistance, manning operations centers, reception and care, shelter and evacuation, and search and rescue” (Hy and Waugh, 1990, p. 19).

Recovery will bring about “short-term activities to restore vital support systems and long-term activities to return life to normal” (Mileti, 1999, p. 23). Examples of recovery include “debris clearance, contamination control, disaster unemployment assistance, temporary housing, and facility restoration” (Hy and Waugh, 1990, p. 19). The goal is to rebuild the community as quickly as possible.

Mitigation “refers to the policies and activities that will reduce an area’s vulnerability to damage from future disasters” (Mileti, 1999, p. 23). Examples of mitigation include “building codes, disaster insurance, land-use management, risk mapping, safety codes, and tax incentives
and disincentives” (Hy and Waugh, 1990, p. 19). The objectives are to prevent disaster, minimize chance for disasters or reduce losses. According to Gall and Cutter (in Rubin, 2007, p. 196),

Mitigation activities cover a large suite of measures: structural solutions, such as dams, levees, and stream channel modifications; economic efforts, such as insurance or financial incentives; and educational approaches, such as training and public awareness campaigns. The most common mitigation tools are hazard identification and mapping, building codes and enforcement, land use planning, insurance, and structural controls.

These same authors have said that “To decide on a locally adequate and effective measure, local mitigation planners should take the following steps”:

- Rally support for mitigation efforts among local leaders
- Assess the local risk portfolio
- Identify appropriate mitigation actions
- Develop a comprehensive plan of action
- Implement the plan
- Monitor and evaluate the plan’s effectiveness (Gall and Cutter in Rubin, 2007, p. 196).

The four phases to disaster management listed above, if taken seriously and acted upon by emergency managers should help alleviate somewhat the consequences of disaster and the complexity for managing them effectively. Therefore, the need for professionalism exists so that emergency managers can do phases well, because by exhibiting characteristics of emergency management professionalism, the phases will be effectively accomplished and, thus, done well as has been stipulated above. In other words, with improved professionalism, emergency managers are better able to implement the aforementioned phases, and, thus, increase their chances of becoming more effective and responsible.
Hazards and Vulnerability of Mexico

In the past, in Mexico, the field of emergency was populated by people with a military background. Many of these people were mostly first responders with little or no training or experience. Today, emergency management in Mexico has become more of a specialized field. However, there still exist many persons with a diverse variety of backgrounds, and many who do not exhibit the military or first responder characteristics so prevalent early in the history of emergency management in Mexico.

The quest to increase professionalism in Mexico requires an understanding of the disaster context in this country. Mexico is a country that has experienced a large number of disasters. These disasters (associated with floods, earthquakes, tornadoes, volcanoes, hurricanes, wildfires, and mudslides) have often occurred with little or no warning. Other hazards (like famines, environmental pollution, and increased ozone levels), and people’s irresponsible activities and behaviors that have caused technological demise (with fires and explosions, and catastrophic industrial explosions), have made vulnerability more problematic in the twenty-first century than previous epochs.

Besides the imminent danger of earthquakes in seismic-prone Mexico City and in Central Mexico, there are additional dangers as in the case where millions of people live dangerously close to volcanoes. Other types of disasters abound in Mexico, for example, flooding in Monterrey Nuevo Leon (1988), and explosions in Guadalajara Jalisco (1992) and other regions of Mexico. Mexico also endures hurricanes that hit the Pacific coast of Mexico as well as the Yucatan peninsula, which cause great human loss and property damage along, for example, the coastal resort areas of Acapulco, Los Cabos, and Cancun – to name a few.
Other serious disasters in Mexico include tornados, floods, wildfires, droughts, mudslides and relatively moderate tsunamis. Man-made hazards emanate from grave endemic environmental pollution, fires, and catastrophic industrial explosions created by mishandling of dangerous and hazardous materials. Recently, another hazard, H1N1, more commonly called swine flu, said to have originated in Mexico in 2009, caused worldwide concern and had health authorities worried in many countries, across several continents. Many people have died due to having contracted Swine Flu, and the pandemic remains a viable threat for all of humanity. Recent reports of a shortage of the H1N1 vaccine served to exacerbate the concern world-wide over this deadly pandemic, although fears are diminishing now.

The vulnerability that exists in the Mexican nation is enhanced by Mexico’s geography, not to mention being caused by densely-populated urban centers (e.g. Mexico City, Guadalajara, Monterrey, and other large cities like Puebla). For these very reasons, Mexico and its people have been, and are, exceedingly vulnerable to disasters. This vulnerability was evidenced dramatically with the earthquake that struck Mexico City in 1985, which affected many major parts of central Mexico City that stand on “saturated mud and clay soils that are particularly unstable” (Puente, 1999). Much of modern-day Mexico City was constructed on an intricate system of aqueducts built in the 16th century and much of the ground in downtown Mexico City is composed of lake sediment. Thus, even earthquakes with epicenters recorded many miles away from the central zone of Mexico City (such as the 1985 Mexico City earthquake whose epicenter was located in the Pacific Ocean) have caused major loss of life and great damage in this densely populated central region of Mexico.

Puente has remarked that Mexico is “Crossed and encircled by numerous geological faults and straddling several tectonic plates, [and] the Mexican republic is one of the world’s
most seismically active” (Puente, 1999). Lateral slipping and a process called subduction allow earthquakes to affect Mexico, and these phenomena have occurred for centuries. These mostly occur because “Major continent faults such as the San Andreas cross the entire country, while regional and local faults fracture much of the intervening country” (Puente, 1999). One account of these fault lines that have plagued the country throughout its history follows:

Mexico experiences frequent earthquake and volcanic activity. In fact, it’s one of the most active regions on earth. This is due to a large portion of the Mexican landmass being situated on the edge of several plates. Under the Pacific Ocean, off the coast of southern Mexico, the Cocos plate is slipping under the North American Plate. This subduction is forcing the ocean floor downwards and the molten lava is rising up through the weaknesses in surface rock. The northern part of Mexico, off the Gulf of California, is situated on the Pacific plate. The North American plate and the Pacific plate are rubbing against each other and creating a slip fault. This is the southern extension of the San Andreas Fault in California (Mexico Earthquake September 1985).

This fault slipped recently (e.g., California area in 2004), illustrating the active nature of earthquakes in Mexico.

Unfortunately, nature is only a part of the problem. One scholar has described the attitudes of the Mexican population toward these hazards in the following way:

It is sometimes argued that the population of Mexico has historically accepted natural calamities as part of normal life. Many individuals have exhibited traits of passivity, resignation, or stoicism in the face of hazard. Though victims were undoubtedly grievously distressed of such misfortunes was high, the effects were usually limited. This situation changed radically after 20 September 1985. Not only was the earthquake’s magnitude unprecedented in Mexico City, it shook local society to such an extent that manifold everyday problems of marginalization, poverty, unemployment, anarchy, and pollution were eclipsed for a considerable period. Both government and civil society were surprised by the results (Puente, 1999).

Due, namely, to a fatalistic attitude (as noticed on some of the interviews conducted for this study) on the part of many Mexicans, including some emergency managers, about the inevitability of disasters in their country, much of the damage that possibly could have been prevented or mitigated is not. Thus, many people whose lives could have been saved are not, and
much property damage that could have been avoided or reduced is not. It should be stated also
that “researchers commonly assert that culture is a major reason for rising disaster vulnerability.
Our values, attitudes and practices are leading to greater losses each decade” (McEntire, 2004, p.
16). Therefore, we are appropriately reminded that:

In the emergency management realm, for instance, we note a trend of rising disaster
losses and frequently witness uncoordinated and haphazard response and recovery
operations. Therefore, our desired objectives are to reduce the probability or impact of
disaster, and improve post-disaster functions should one of these deadly, destructive and
disruptive events take place (McEntire, 2004, p. 2).

Outcome and Impact of the 1985 Earthquake

Earthquakes occur on a regular and consistent basis in the Mexico City area and
vulnerability translates to disasters. One event in particular, the devastating Mexico City
earthquake of 1985, measured 8.1 on the Richter scale. It still looms ever-large in Mexico’s
history of disasters. This one disaster alone, more than others, was a watershed case for Mexico
because it illustrated first-hand the consequences of the lack of disaster preparedness and the
complexity involved for managing disasters effectively. This catastrophic earthquake caused up
to 10,000 deaths, although some estimates have been as low as “over 4,200 dead” (Waugh, 2000,
p. 64). Property damage was estimated in excess of four billion U.S. dollars (US$), and was said
to have “brought down many of the government’s new, supposedly earthquake-proof buildings,
exposing shoddy construction and the widespread government corruption that fostered it”
(Mexico Guidebook 2008). Waugh confirmed this assessment when he said, “The Mexico City
earthquake in 1985… raised questions about the safety of buildings previously considered
disaster resistant” (Waugh, 2000, p. 64).

Notwithstanding the problematic unstable ground upon which Mexico City sits and poor
construction of buildings, the Mexican government also drew heavy criticism for its seemingly
“nonexistent” relief effort, and for their otherwise especially noticeable incompetency and failure to deal with major catastrophic events – especially the earthquake which struck Mexico City in 1985. Inam asserts that “Initially, the Mexican government was caught off guard by the earthquake. In fact, President Miguel de la Madrid admitted that the administration had failed to coordinate efforts adequately” (Inam, 2005, p. 63). While the Mexican government eventually took control over the dire situation by employing its military to cordon off the devastated areas, it was evident to observers and reporters alike that, in effect, Mexico had “virtually no operational contingency plan in case of a crisis situation” (Inam, 2005, p. 63).

Obvious to many observers of the 1985 Mexico City earthquake disaster was that mitigation was inadequate, preparedness was lacking, response was problematic and recovery was slow. Vigo and Wegner, in one of their case studies, stated that:

> Mexico City, in 1985, evidenced a lack of disaster planning, with the exception of a Federal response plan and some very specific emergency response plans within some local organizations. Mexican organizations also displayed a total lack of vertical or horizontal integration. One immediate outcome of this lack of planning and integration was confusion regarding who was, or should be, in charge of the response, immediately after the earthquake. Another outcome was the predominantly independent manner in which various organizations became involved in response activities (Vigo and Wegner, 1994).

These same authors have asserted that “it took three days before formal organizations were in charge of the response” (Vigo and Wegner, 1994). Also, in Mexico City, “damage estimate was done haphazardly. Initial assessments of the damage did not indicate an attempt by organizations to prioritize or triage structures in terms of SAR, which stands for response characterized by Search and Rescue. Organizations and volunteers initially responded on the basis of proximity” (Vigo and Wegner, 1994).

Moreover, Vigo and Wegner have surmised that much of the reason why response was problematic in Mexico City in 1985 with respect to the infamous earthquake was because:
Intra-organizationally, response organizations in Mexico City had very little idea of what sub-organizational branches of the organization were doing. This was also true interorganizationally. What resulted was, on the one hand, a lot of duplication of effort, and on the other, a number of functional gaps (Vigo and Wegner, 1994).

Due in great part to the lack of response and inadequate mitigation, some have reported citizen dissatisfaction and criticism of government and its emergency management system’s handling of the 1985 devastation. In spite of Quarantelli’s findings to the contrary, it is nonetheless believed that with professionalism (as this term is defined in this study) emergency managers will become more effective to tackle inevitable events, and help change Mexico’s emergency management system for the better. Therefore, more must (and can) be done to reduce vulnerability in this country.

In sum, the apparent failures of emergency management throughout Mexico City and the surrounding regions exposed a likely lack of professionalism (e.g., little or no education, training, or experience, etc.). McEntire has stated that “a lack of professionalism among emergency managers make[s] us vulnerable to disaster” (McEntire, 2004, p. 16). Consequently, professionalism is needed to minimize the consequences of a major disaster as powerful as the Earthquake of 1985. Thus, the need to study professionalism (and the need for professionalism in Mexico after the earthquake) has become more evident, and has become a topic of utmost salience, in the days and years since the 1985 Mexico City earthquake occurred.

Professionalism: A Topic of Salience

The quest for improved disaster management begins with professionalism because emergency managers must have the appropriate knowledge, skills, and credentials to mitigate, prepare for, respond to, and recover from events that are sure to occur. This is a major reason why this study on professionalism is so important. Furthermore, as is quite evident in the
emergency management literature, professionalism is seemingly the sine qua non requirement that helps emergency managers to become more effective.

As used throughout this study, professionalism (the primary topic of this dissertation) refers to the term “professional,” which has generally been defined as (1) a career that is followed to acquire income; (2) to be engaged in employment that requires specialized knowledge; (3) an expert in a particular occupation; and (4) a person involved in a recognized discipline or field (McEntire, 2004). In the context of emergency management, the word “professional” implies that one has acquired the necessary knowledge and skills to help communities prevent disasters and prepare for response and recovery operations. However, the term goes beyond specific careers and specialized knowledge” (McEntire, 2004). Waugh has also stated that “A more professional cadre of emergency managers with technical expertise, political skill, and interpersonal skills might also help” (Waugh, 2000, p. 157).

This dissertation focuses on professionalism, that is, on the characteristics that help make emergency managers professional. The focus, therefore, is not on a profession per se but on professionalism. To better understand professionalism, it may be helpful to distinguish between a paraprofessional and what it means to be a professional. Paraprofessional duties refer to a form of work comparable with many components of professional work (e.g., education, training, and experience). However, Green states that paraprofessional work “does not have its own unique body of knowledge” (2000, p. 31). He further posits that this main difference:

places the paraprofessional in a subordinate position to members of the profession which does control the knowledge. Examples would include the pre-hospital paramedicine (with the knowledge of medicine controlled by physicians) and paralegal (with the knowledge of law controlled by lawyers) paraprofessions (Green, 2000, p. 31).

This research project delves into perceptions of professionalism in Mexico, and adds a new public management (i.e., a post-bureaucratic paradigm) perspective to emergency
management. The study is conducted nearly twenty-five years after this catastrophic 1985 Mexico City earthquake occurred, and also ponders future possibilities for emergency management professionalism congruent with effectiveness and responsibility requirements needed by emergency managers for this new millennium. In sum, emergency managers must take steps to increase their professionalism and, thus, increase their effectiveness and responsibility.

While the large death toll, the property damage, and the devastation wrought by disasters are not always unavoidable, it is also apparent that the parties responsible (mainly the government through their emergency managers) were incapable of proactive and effective action in the 1985 Mexico earthquake. Mitroff has stated that “A lack of preparation is essentially a recipe for disaster. Leaders must proactively and rigorously prepare their organizations for a broad range of potential crises” (Mitroff, 2007, p. 275). Regretfully, that preparation and needed response were sorely missing during the 1985 Mexico City earthquake. Without professionalism first being achieved, however, it is doubtful whether emergency managers can ever expect to become effective, responsible, and successful in the achievement of their goals.

The consequences of disasters and the complexity of managing them, has heightened the demand for increased professionalism in Mexico and in other high-risk places where people are also especially vulnerable. These natural threats and other prevalent hazards have hastened and caused many to discuss the need to improve emergency management through professionalism. This study adds to this discussion.

For example, as regards education levels of emergency managers in Mexico, their experiences are diverse. Some have 4-year baccalaureate degrees in engineering, physics, and a plethora of other disciplines. Others have less education but have more experience and training
in different aspects of the field of emergency management. A number of scholars exist in Mexico who have written (and continue to write) about emergency management issues and related matters.

From the list of interviewees interviewed for this study, for example, many emergency managers were highly educated (e.g., held a 4-year college degree but not in emergency management per se) and others had become practitioners of emergency management without formal education in the field and had been promoted through the ranks until they had attained the expertise in the position they currently held. Some lower-level emergency managers (e.g., those responsible for carrying out simulation exercises in their business or organization) had obtained this responsibility through a patronage appointment or because they had the favor of someone in higher positions of authority who themselves had been appointed.

As for emergency management programs available in the country of Mexico, no program in emergency management per se could be found. However, there are a number of university programs available in Mexico that relate to emergency management practice, for example, in urban planning and public administration (even some colleges) and/or programs.

Even though some progress has been made through the years by Mexico with respect to its emergency management system, more can, and must, be done to alleviate the death and destruction that is far-reaching and so prevalent in that country. For the above reasons and especially that Mexico is trying to professionalize after the 1985 Mexico City earthquake, there is an urgent need to study professionalism in Mexico before another major disaster takes place.

Incorporation of New Public Management

Characteristics of emergency management professionalism (such as membership in a
professional association, codes of ethics, certifications, education, training, experience, etc.)
compel emergency managers to adhere to Weber’s ideal-type bureaucracy (e.g., complete with
structure, hierarchy, centralization, etc.). To a point, adherence to Weber’s ideal-type
bureaucracy is fine because emergency management systems are inherently bureaucratic in
nature and have to be in order for systems, through their managers, to perform effectively in
times of crises. However, on the other hand, a post-bureaucratic framework (e.g., new public
management theory) that is not so structured and rule-driven can also be incorporated. This will
give emergency managers more flexibility, give more decision making authority to their
employees, and allow for overall systemic decentralized authority, etc.

The current study advances a complimentary approach from the bureaucratic paradigm of
the 20th century, to a post-bureaucratic, new public management, paradigm for the 21st century.
New public management, with its post-bureaucratic framework and characteristics, may help
promote emergency management professionalism (the more structured and controlled
bureaucratic framework). A concerted effort by public officials to synthesize principles of
professionalism and new public management may bolster the effectiveness of emergency
managers. This dissertation explores how this integration is feasible; the expression of an idea
whose time has come.

Thus, my theory for this study is that professionalism mechanisms (i.e., characteristics)
integrated with components (i.e., values) of new public management are jointly needed for
professionalism to exist (and improve), for emergency managers to become more effective (i.e.,
for effectiveness to increase). Part of this study will determine whether new public management
theory informs the field of emergency management, or should do so, by having an influence on emergency manager professionalism in Mexico.

Research Questions

The extant literatures on professionalism in emergency management and professionalism in public administration have allowed me to determine the appropriate questions for this study. The main question in the dissertation is: What is the degree of professionalism among emergency managers in Mexico and how can it be improved?

In order to answer this question, several secondary questions become evident.

a. Do emergency managers in Mexico incorporate the mechanisms for professionalism as described by emergency management scholars?

b. Do emergency managers in Mexico incorporate the principles of new public management (NPM) as described by public administration scholars?

Three propositions are therefore relevant to this study.

• Proposition 1 (P1): To increase the degree of professionalism in Mexico, the practical adoption of mechanisms for professionalism should be encouraged.

• Proposition 2 (P2): To increase the degree of professionalism in Mexico, the practical adoption of new public management principles should be encouraged.

• Proposition 3 (P3): By integrating new public management principles with the mechanisms for emergency management, professionalism in Mexico should increase and, thus, emergency managers should become more effective.
Outline of the Study

In order to answer the aforementioned questions and examine related propositions, this dissertation has been divided into several chapters. Chapter 2 describes the evolution of professionalism in emergency management delving into scholars’ work on the subject (especially Drabek’s prior work in 1987, Wilson’s in 2000, Blanchard’s in 2005, and of the scholars who devised the *Principles of Emergency Management* in 2007). It then expands the formal advancement requirements toward an emergency management profession through a framework comprised of many mechanisms. In this chapter, an expansive professionalism theoretical standard devised for this current study is introduced.

The next chapter, Chapter 3, follows with the literature in public administration that can help inform professionalism through a detailed discussion of new public management. Also discussed is how the field of emergency management may need to rely upon new public management principles for emergency managers to become effective and responsible. The respective literatures of chapters 2 and 3 also helped inform the interview questions asked of interviewees (i.e., informants) which are found in Appendix A of this research study.

Chapter 4 contains an overview of the methodology employed in this study that included a discussion of my intention to travel to Mexico to conduct the research and to seek out findings for this study. Through field research (i.e., interviews and documentary data), perceptions of professionalism in Mexico were obtained from 35 emergency manager informants in the 3 largest Mexican cities: Mexico City, Guadalajara, and Monterrey.

Thereafter, Chapter 5 continues with a report of the findings of the study based on interviews with emergency managers conducted in the country of Mexico, and any documentary
evidence that also helps to inform this study. According to Singleton and Straits (2005, p. 364), “this form of analysis stresses the accuracy and completeness of the description of unique, complex events.”

Chapter 6 includes the analysis and implications of the findings. At this juncture of the study, it should become apparent which emergency management professionalism mechanisms have helped to improve professionalism in Mexico, which components of NPM have been integrated and have had an impact (or perhaps should have more of an impact) on emergency management professionalism mechanisms, and which NPM components have yet to be integrated (that perhaps should be) with emergency management professionalism mechanisms to bring about a greater degree of professionalism and, thus, help (or that could help) emergency managers become more effective. The integration of NPM components with emergency management mechanisms to produce an increased degree of professionalism helps inform how emergency management professionalism in Mexico may be improved and, thus, emergency managers may become more effective.

Chapter 7 (the last chapter) provides conclusions and also gives recommendations for future research. This last chapter includes a summary once again of the findings of this study and the main conclusions of this research project are emphasized and reiterated. How emergency managers improve professionalism and, thus, may become effective and responsible, is summarized. Specifically, concluding remarks on emergency managers’ perceptions of professionalism in Mexico, and a look at how adding a new public management perspective to emergency management mechanisms help to improve professionalism and, thus, effectiveness are included.
Potential Contributions of the Study

This study is required to determine perceptions of the degree of emergency management professionalism in Mexico. The increased complexity and frequency of hazards make this study imperative in order to help us understand professionalism, which leads to greater effectiveness through better planning, collaborating, and coordinating of efforts among all relevant stakeholders before, during, and after a disaster strikes. The professionalization of emergency managers in Mexico is an important and major undertaking to improve emergency management not only in Mexico, but around the world. Participants and interviewers may likewise benefit from this study. Both can obtain new knowledge about general emergency management in Mexico that can prove productive when carrying out emergency management tasks. Thus, several theoretical and practical benefits exist as to why this study is needed.

In sum, while there was an expectation for some professionalism to result through the theoretical standard of the professionalism mechanisms presented in this study and, subsequently, effectiveness and responsibility, this study also inquired as to how emergency managers can become even more professional through an integration of the principles of new public management to the field of emergency management professionalism and to the mechanisms themselves. This is an important contribution to the literature as in the past most emergency managers have not particularly known how to accomplish what needs to be done to become effective. This has been especially evident in times of crises and in instances where a lack of professionalism was clearly apparent.
CHAPTER 2
PROFESSIONALISM IN EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT

Introduction and Overview of Chapter

This chapter discusses the evolution of professionalism in emergency management in general, as “Professionalism within emergency management is critical to its success” (Ward and Wamsley, 2007, 234). By delving into (Drabek’s (1987), Wilson’s (2000), Blanchard’s (2005), etc.) prior work on professionalism, this research study points out the need to expand the requirements of emergency management professionalism as set forth by all these authors into an expansive (i.e., consisting of one long list) theoretical standard. Also set forth is the background information to later address the first of two secondary questions: Do emergency managers in Mexico incorporate the mechanisms for professionalism as described by emergency management scholars?

The Field Emerged and Professionalism

Authors in emergency management have said that emergency management has changed over time (see Table 2.1) and that the development of the field constitutes a distinct profession. For example,

The changes in the field of emergency management signal the development of a distinct profession. A “profession” emerges as occupational groupings mature and there is an identifiable body of technical knowledge. Members begin to identify with colleagues in other jurisdictions or even nations, develop standards of conduct and professional practice, and establish minimum professional qualifications and experience. That process is well underway in the field of emergency management and, in the twenty-first century, emergency management agencies and policy making will increasingly be guided by professionally trained and educated officials (Stanley and Waugh, 2001, p. 697).

However, for many years of the 20th century, emergency management as a field developed without professionalism since, apparently, occupational groupings had not yet
matured, a body of technical knowledge was yet to be identified, standards of conduct and professional practice had not developed, nor had minimum professional qualifications and experience been established. Yet, emergency management has gone from one end of the spectrum to the other with regards to disaster management responsibility. For example, in the latter part of the nineteenth century, emergency management emerged with little government involvement and without professionalism. In the early years of the twentieth century, the government (in order to protect the health and safety of its citizens) took “a more proactive role in involving the public in national issues” (Canton, 2007, p. 20) and professionalism emerged. Throughout this expansion of federal involvement in emergency management, the professionalization of the field developed due to the important responsibilities of emergency managers and other emergency management personnel.

Consequently, some characteristics of an effective manager have unfolded as follows:

- Effective emergency managers are action oriented and committed to their tasks and responsibilities
- Effective emergency managers are self-confident; and focus on saving lives and reducing the loss of property and economic stability
- Effective emergency managers are risk-takers who act out of educated intuition
- Effective emergency managers are extremely knowledgeable
- Emergency managers stimulate and encourage the involvement of all persons (McBride-Jones, 1992).

In the development of a course for emergency management, McEntire (2007) discussed Blanchard’s emergency manager stereotypes and new generation emergency managers (Session 12). Table 2.1 depicts these distinct frameworks side-by-side:
Table 2.1

Comparison of Emergency Manager Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Blanchard’s Past Emergency Manager Stereotypes</th>
<th>New Generation Emergency Managers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“The Way of the Past”</td>
<td>“The Present and Future”-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not college educated (no 4-year degree)</td>
<td>College educated, many with EM degrees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White middle- to late-middle aged</td>
<td>Younger, proactive; upwardly/geographically mobile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emergency management is second or third career</td>
<td>EM is career of first choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bureaucratic</td>
<td>Technologically more capable and adept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isolated from community served</td>
<td>More diverse and more culturally sensitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job was obtained other than with emergency management competencies</td>
<td>More professional and knowledgeable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emergency management career spent in on jurisdiction</td>
<td>Broader range of working contacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disaster response planning orientation: Reactive, command and control style, works primarily with emergency services, plans for (not cooperatively with) peers in jurisdiction, and plans are primarily disaster-response oriented</td>
<td>Risk-based approach to emergency management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimal access to top decision-makers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has not done a: risk assessment, mitigation plan, strategic plan</td>
<td>Does strategic planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does not read disaster research literature</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is neither well paid nor well funded</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operates with a knowledge base that is: experiential (learns on the job), by consensus (with others who learned on the job), based primarily on past practice, has not joined an emergency management professional association, and is resistant to change</td>
<td>Knowledge base: science and research; joins professional organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catalyst for a safer America</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Adapted from Blanchard (2002); McEntire (2007).
This dichotomy between the old and the new approaches is worthy of note because it highlights the evolution of emergency management professionalism in America within the last few decades.

The Evolution of Professionalism in Emergency Management

To understand professionalism, one must first know what defines something as a profession. According to Lynn,

A profession is an occupation that is esoteric, complex, and discretionary. It requires theoretical knowledge, skill, and judgment that others may not possess or cannot easily comprehend. Theory-grounded knowledge is the basis of most professions and it is acquired through higher education. A profession embodies self-directing work. A profession occupies a position of legal or political privilege, or both, that protects it from competing professions (2008, p. 31).

Myers stated that the concept of profession was brought up first in the 1920s by Professor Carr-Saunders, who also pointed out that “There is no single immutable definition of a profession but there is much interest and importance attached to the notion of professionalism” (Myers, 2008, p. 3). Myers does, however, define a profession as follows:

A profession can be described simply as a vocation that involves some branch of advanced learning. It can be likened to a learned society or club, the existence of which provides members with a mechanism by which they can capture control over an area of expert work. There are few associations more important or powerful than those formed by professional[s] (Myers, 2008, p. 3).

Another well-known scholar, Freidson, posits that:

“Profession,” “professionalization,” and “professional” are all extremely ambiguous words, much of their stubborn imprecision hinges on their confusing and sometimes incompatible multiple connotations. But there is no other word in the English language which can be used to represent an occupation so well organized that its members can realistically envisage a career over most of their working years, a career during which they retain a particular occupational identity and continue to practice the same skills no matter in what institution they work (Freidson, 1994).

While there are several perspectives to describe the professions, this study will emphasize a functionalist perspective taken principally from Carr-Saunders’ largely functional point of
view that “described professionalization in terms of specialized skill and training, minimum fees and salaries, formation of professional associations, and codes of ethics governing professional practice (Margolis, 2005, p. 24). In *The Professions* published by Carr-Saunders and Wilson (1933), these authors proposed:

that professions were functionally different from other occupational groups because they consisted of organized bodies of experts who uniquely applied highly complex and esoteric knowledge in different areas. Professions also had formal educational systems typically consisting of prerequisites, rigorous training, and examination prior to entry. Carr-Saunders and Wilson noted that professions typically developed and enforced a code of ethics or behavior upon its members (Margolis, 2005, p. 24).

Other authors built upon Carr-Saunders and Wilson’s work over a period of 50 years. A list of traits of the profession developed to include: a substantial body of unique knowledge, a national association, a code of ethics, prolonged period of specialized training, sense of calling/lifelong commitment, mastery of a discipline of great social import, a scientific journal, and self regulation (Margolis, 2008, p. 25). According to Freidson, “the dominant emphasis of the work tends to focus on the special character of the knowledge and skill of the profession, the prolonged specialized training, and the professionals special ethical or altruistic orientation toward their clients” (Margolis, 2008, p. 25). Finally, “The functionalist approach persists today in the rhetoric of many occupational groups as they attempt to convince their membership, colleagues, or society in general that they deserve the coveted title of profession” (Margolis, 2005, p. 26).

Various Scholars’ Frameworks of Emergency Management Professionalism

This research delves into various scholars’ professionalism frameworks, which form the basis of the list of professionalism mechanisms developed in this study. This list comprises a set of 21 mechanisms taken together from prior research on the subject of professionalism.
developed by Drabek (1987), Wilson (2000), Blanchard (2005), and the 12 emergency management scholars who worked on and devised *Principles of Emergency Management* (2007). These authors’ works represent good exemplars of how different authors have treated the subject of professionalism in emergency management up to now. Each scholar’s work on professionalism demonstrates the way each has analyzed a limited number of mechanisms, and treated them separately and apart from their peers’ list of mechanisms. The current work is important, then, because it puts together in one place the mechanisms that prior scholars have counted on as making up the characteristics of professionalism.

The seminal work on professionalism by Thomas Drabek (1987) is taken up first. Thereafter, the study by Jennifer Wilson (2000) will be discussed to distinguish how the present study goes further than previous, more limited, frameworks on professionalism. Blanchard’s (2005) work is expanded upon as well, as is the concept of “professionalism” as posed by the scholars of the *Principles of Emergency Management* (2007). These scholars’ professionalism mechanisms frameworks have been developed into one expansive list and theoretical framework for this study. Thus, the list of mechanisms provided by the current study could help accomplish this valuable goal.

**Drabek’s Study on Professionalism**

Drabek’s (1987) study, *The Professional Emergency Manager*, looked at three characteristics of success: professionalism; individual qualities and emergency management activities. Drabek’s study is significant because it asked “what qualities should an effective emergency manager possess?”

According to Drabek’s (1987) empirical research, successful emergency managers
exhibit professionalism and individual qualities. Characteristics of “professionalism” include: coordination, knowledge, and commitment, and recognition by professional groups external to the community. Individual qualities include: personality attributes, communication skills, unique personal skills, and disaster experience. The assumption is made that most emergency managers can increase their qualities or characteristics through training and education. This, in turn, will enhance emergency managers’ ability to be effective.

Drabek also found that effective emergency managers display professionalism in various ways:

- The successful managers are like the stage managers. They work as mediators or facilitators, helping others make things happen
- They integrate and coordinate the activities of a lot of people and organizations in the community
- They know how to reconcile differences and compromise for the greater good of the community
- Effective emergency managers also display specialized job knowledge: awareness of current and pending legislation, familiarity with regulations, and a working knowledge of the federal, tribal, state, and local agencies associated with emergency management, and
- Tenacity is also displayed by emergency managers in the face of small budgets and limited authority. In Drabek’s study, emergency managers’ determination to get the job done despite obstacles contributed to their success (Drabek 1987).

From his investigation, Drabek was able to determine that an emergency manager “is a professional. He was a professional in his previous job and he brought that professionalism with him to this particular area” (Drabek, 1987, p. 99). Furthermore, Drabek learned that effective emergency managers have “had experience with a variety of disasters…actual disasters had provided them with opportunities to prove their capabilities—both personal and organizational” (Drabek, 1987, p. 100). Drabek’s suggestion was for an effective emergency manager to “Get all the knowledge he can; get literature and talk to some of the experienced directors…Get in touch
with other places around the country and find out what they are doing” (Drabek, 1987, p. 243). Drabek also determined that effective emergency managers are perceived as “exceedingly knowledgeable…has attended a lot of schooling and has built a sense of expertise…his coordinating skills rest very much on his long-term knowledge of agencies” (Drabek, 1987, p. 94).

Drabek envisioned future emergency managers as effective because of the following qualities: increased professionalism (e.g., formalized credentials and training), an improved public image, and increased status (Drabek, 1987). In addressing the progress of the emergency management field toward professionalizing, Drabek (1987) stated:

In part, this reflects the growing complexity of this occupation, a result of societal changes, especially recent legal decisions regarding liability, and the widespread adoption of new technologies that place large segments of the population at risk. Needless to say, the complexity of the local manager’s job varies greatly by the location and size of the community…Like other occupations that have been professionalized during the past century, emergency managers of the future must articulate a set of specialized skills and knowledge. Career paths will be broadened; nor is the military the primary access route. New and additional training programs must be initiated, both by specialized entrepreneurs and traditional academic institutions. All such ventures, however, must reflect the political reality of the primary hiring agencies—state and local governments (Drabek 1987, p. 241).

Drabek also found that successful emergency managers were admired as professionals as they were perceived as having specialized knowledge. Moreover, these emergency managers understood emergency management law and regulations, and were aware of the many organizations involved in dealing with disasters. Some of these emergency managers were certified by professional organizations such as the National Coordinating Council of Emergency Managers (now the International Association of Emergency Managers). Drabek demonstrated that most of the emergency managers he studied had strong skills in terms of facilitating,
integrating, coordinating, etc., and were willing and able to work with others to obtain results and outcomes.

In sum, Drabek defined and elaborated upon several characteristics of professionalism. Specifically, some of Drabek’s most important characteristics for this study include: coordination, knowledge, education, training, experience, mediation, integration, reconciling, compromise, specialized job knowledge, professional certification, and tenacity.

Wilson’s Study

Jennifer L. Wilson’s (2000) work covered professionalism in the United States and Florida and she provided additional information to elaborate on Drabek’s study. Wilson (2000) conceptualized emergency management professionalism as two mechanisms only: (1) how accreditation intends to ensure that state emergency management agencies are capable to perform standardized essential emergency management functions with a minimum level of proficiency; and (2) how certification intends to ensure that future entrants have passed through an appropriate system of selection, training, and socialization to fit a standardized professional mold (Wilson, 2000, p. 15).

Wilson (2000) used criteria from the sociology of professions to substantiate her view “that emergency management as a trade has reached the necessary institutional maturity to advance toward a profession” (Wilson, 2000, p. 226). As mentioned, Wilson studied emergency management professionalization through two processes: accreditation and certification. She studied Florida “because the state’s emergency management system is well established and one of the most important within the nation” (Wilson, 2000, p. 8). She pointed out that in the last century Florida has experienced more hurricanes than other U. S. states. Wilson also noted: “In
addition, Florida has one of the fastest growing populations in the country, placing more people and property at risk to a multitude of hazards, especially hurricanes” (Wilson, 2000, p. 8).

Moreover, Wilson (2000) remarked that while emergency management is not yet a profession, it “is tending toward a profession – it is professionalizing” (Wilson, 2000, p. 230). Wilson (2000) directly claimed that “Emergency management accreditation and certification are the mechanisms currently employed to accomplish professional status” (Wilson, 2000, p. 230). Yet, she never made the claim that professionalism had been attained, and her study dwelt only on Florida and the United States. As such, she did not make any other claims, or generalizations, about professionalism toward any other countries or states.

Quite ironic and revealing in Wilson’s study was her statement that “there is the possibility that emergency management will never reach professional status” (Wilson, 2000, p. 230). She based her statement on the fact that certification processes for emergency managers are contrary to other leading professional fields (e.g., law and medicine). For example, she discussed how doctors and lawyers have to take state board examinations and be licensed to practice their profession in a particular state. Her point was that this process is different from what is expected of emergency management professionals. Wilson further stated that in spite of certification and accreditation efforts that have been made to professionalize emergency management as a field, there are other obstacles to consider:

unregulated certification processes such as the lack of an accreditation process of emergency management degree programs; no requirement of a specialized college degree or passage of a state regulated professional association exam to enter the practice; limited autonomy of state and local emergency managers for collaborative decision-making with the executive authority; and limited autonomy due to the strong political nature of disaster situations (Wilson, 2000, p. 242).

In sum, Wilson contended that her two mechanisms alone (e.g., accreditation and certification) were all that are needed to be “used to create an emergency management profession
and thus act as axes around which the field of emergency management is organizing” (Wilson, 2000, p. ix).

Wilson (2000) concluded her study as follows:

This study does not intend to provide a definitive projection of the fate of emergency management professionalization. Emergency management development and professionalization is an on-going endeavor and this work presents the first comprehensive analysis of this process. Overall, this dissertation offers a new theoretical perspective to understand the evolution of emergency management and its current professionalization path. This basic research provides the frame of reference to further pursue the analysis of an increasingly significant labor trade in our nation. As disasters continue to threaten our society, the importance of emergency management and its degree of efficiency and effectiveness will be increasingly evident (Wilson, 2000, pp. 243-244).

The current study would add: As disasters continue to threaten our society, the importance of professionalism in emergency management is crucial to emergency manager effectiveness.

Blanchard’s Characteristics of Professionalism

Blanchard (2005), a well-known emergency management scholar, has stated that the evolution of emergency management has developed from a field that emerged without professionalism (e.g., where many emergency management personnel did not have a bachelor’s degree, much response to disaster was reactive not proactive, and where an attitude existed that any one could handle emergency disasters). He argues that emergency managers now value professionalism so that they can become more effective in their responsibilities.

Some characteristics of professionalism that Blanchard explored, among others, include: a minimum education of a bachelor of arts or bachelor of science degree, response to disaster in a proactive (not reactive) fashion, and acquiring a career based on credentials (not political favoritism). According to Blanchard, for emergency management practitioners to enhance professionalism, they must also possess three foundational building blocks: education, training,
and experience. He claims that, ideally, a professional emergency manager is one who has:

- Attained a baccalaureate or graduate degree in emergency management
- Passed state regulated emergency management association exam
- Occupies a position entitled “emergency manager”

Blanchard compiled his list of mechanisms under the title of Technical Skills and Standards (i.e., Tools of the Trade) as follows: “Professional Standards, Procedures, Certifications, Organizations” (Blanchard). However, in 2005, Blanchard provided several characteristics of professionalism for emergency managers: 1.) Systematic body of knowledge, 2.) Common core of entrance requirements, 3.) System for advancement, Dissemination of knowledge, 4.) College degrees in subject area, 5.) Recognition that “On The Job Training” is insufficient, 6.) Identification of minimum standards, Certification, 7.) Standards of conduct or ethics, 8.) Professional societies, and 9.) Public and professional recognition and respect. What is very noticeable about Blanchard’s ideas on the need to enhance professionalism is his constant exhortation that a more professional emergency management cadre is required. McEntire (2004, p. 1) has also emphasized this point in his writings on emergency management.

**Principles Scholars’ Professionalism**

Each of the foregoing scholars, (Drabek, Wilson, and Blanchard), developed their own respective framework for what constitutes the characteristics of professionalism in the emergency management field. The working group of scholars in the *Principles of Emergency Management* article dated September 11, 2007 set forth their own eighth principles of emergency management.

These scholars stated that “A profession, as opposed to a discipline or a vocation, has
certain characteristics, among which are:” Code of ethics, Professional associations, Board Certification, Specialized body of knowledge, and Standards and best practices (Principles, 2007). Examples where these scholars added other characteristics of professionalism are represented by ethical practice (i.e., code of ethics), public stewardship, and continuous improvement, which are also incorporated into my list.

The Present Study and Professionalism

This dissertation thus contributes to the extant literature in the field of emergency management by going further than previous scholars’ individual, more limited, sometimes more disparate, frameworks on professionalism. Due to the many diverse frameworks and their non-uniform treatment by the various scholars, there is a need to combine the various lists that other scholars have put together. The main reason one framework of 21 mechanisms of professionalism was compiled in this study is because none of the previous frameworks are contained in one place nor have they ever been compiled together into one framework by any of the disparate authors. Thus, my current list has been taken from a combination of scholars’ characteristics of professionalism and collated into one list for this study. Before now, no such list makes up the most comprehensive list of emergency management professionalism mechanisms available. My list accomplishes that much needed purpose.

More mechanisms must be implemented, practiced and enforced by each emergency manager so that a higher degree of professionalism and, thus, effectiveness will result. Thus, the theoretical standards framework (i.e., 21 mechanisms) in the present study goes further than either of the aforementioned scholars’ prior work and lists the required pertinent emergency management professionalism mechanisms so that all countries’ emergency managers can employ
them (especially Mexico for this study) as a useful and pragmatic theoretical standard of professionalism.

All of these scholars’ previous respective frameworks have been taken at face value and as valid as there appears to be no reason to doubt them, there is some overlap between them, and a combination of these frameworks have been incorporated into one expansive theoretical framework and benchmark standard for this study. Therefore, in order to justify an expansive theoretical standard of emergency management professionalism, all of the findings regarding the professionalism characteristics as prescribed by the aforementioned emergency management scholars and practitioners who have made their own “short lists” up to this time are accepted as valid and incorporated into one list in the present study.

The present study enhances upon Drabek’s, Wilson’s, Blanchard’s, and other scholars’ requirements to help make an emergency manager professional, and explores reasons as to why the attainment of more mechanisms may improve professionalism and, thus, help the emergency manager in Mexico become more effective and responsible in times of crises.

The current study’s list may not be an exhaustive representation of every mechanism, characteristic, or strategy ever thought of or written about. However, these 21 mechanisms have been chosen because they substantively represent (i.e., in one framework) what it means for an emergency manager to exhibit a degree of professionalism in any country. In any event, this list may represent well what it may or may not take to be professional or what emergency management as an emerging profession may be referred to or thought as when the word “professionalism” is used to indicate a certain or particular meaning. “Just as the profession of emergency management is undergoing a massive transformation,” (McEntire, 2004, p. 14) these mechanisms have undergone, and may still undergo, some transformation themselves through
the respective process, processes, or frameworks individual authors have carved out for
themselves, or may yet draw out in the future.

Now, employing a theoretical standard of emergency management professionalism
mechanisms, the perceptions of emergency managers of the degree of professionalism in Mexico
and how it can be improved will be explored. Also, in the subsequent section, the 21 mechanisms
incorporated into this one study are listed and discussed more fully.

An Expansive Theoretical Standard of
Emergency Management Professionalism

For purposes of this study, the mechanisms of professionalism (21 in number), taken and
compiled from various emergency management scholars’ prior work as described earlier, are the
following:

- Autonomy of practice
- Board Certification
- Code of Ethics
- Compromise
- Continuous Improvement
- Coordination
- Education and Training
- Facilitators
- Intergovernmental
- Integration
- Mediators
- Membership in Professional Association
• Outcomes  
• Planning  
• Reconcile  
• Results  
• Science and knowledge-base  
• Specialized knowledge  
• Standards and best practices  
• Stewardship  
• Tenacity  

They are listed alphabetically (but not in terms of importance), as it is my contention that each mechanism is equally important (at least for this study). Also, the degree of importance of each mechanism to professionalism is not a question this study delves into and could easily be the focus of another future study. Table 2.2 shows the list of the 21 emergency management professionalism mechanisms along with a definition or statement describing each one.

Table 2.2

Emergency Management Professionalism Mechanisms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mechanism</th>
<th>Definition/Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy of Practice</td>
<td>Professions and, thus professionals, are given the exclusive right to determine who can legitimately do its work, and how the work should be done (Freidson, 1970a).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Board Certification</td>
<td>Intends to ensure that future entrants (into a field) have passed through an appropriate system of selection, training, and socialization to fit a standardized professional mold (Wilson, 2000).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code of Ethics</td>
<td>Is often adopted by a profession and promulgated by a government agency responsible for licensing a profession; an ethical code “expresses principles and practices of behavior” (Sylves, 2008, p. 267).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compromise</td>
<td>This mechanism allows emergency managers flexibility to use creative and innovative approaches in solving disaster challenges; emergency managers are able to persuade others to consider variations in tactics or procedures that may help them adapt quickly to rapidly changing and frequently unclear situations (Principles, 2007).</td>
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<td>Continuous Improvement</td>
<td>Is attained through a combination of continuing education, training, experience, membership in professional associations, attending conferences related to hazards, disasters and what to do about them (Blanchard, 2007).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordination</td>
<td>Involves the all important duty of interrelating the various parts of work. To coordinate also means “to integrate the activities of a lot of people and organizations in the community (Drabek, 1987). According to Drabek, an emergency manager’s coordinating skills rest very much on his long-term knowledge of agencies. Finally, disasters create the need for coordination among fire departments, law enforcement agencies, hospitals, ambulances, military units, utility crews, and other organizations. This requires, however, inter-agency communication networks (Mosby, 1989).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Training</td>
<td>Obtaining educational credentials and experience area central theme of importance to the emergency manager because it contributes to the credibility of the profession. While education is an option, emergency management training is perceived by emergency managers as the most important educational experience (McBride-Jones, 1992, p.60). “Training reduces the potential for panic, chaos, and confusion that so often are a part of the reaction to a crisis” (Sikich, 1996, p.245). Moreover, Training involves any and all activities related to the transfer of knowledge about the functions of components of the all-hazards system. This includes, but is not limited to, formal classroom-type training, hand-on training, discussions, meetings, conferences, and so on. In order to qualify as training, the session must be properly documented. Training considerations address both the response and the management parts of the system. [italics in original] (Sikich, 1996, p.245).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitators</td>
<td>Help others make things happen (Drabek, 1987).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integration</td>
<td>Relates to coordination (see above). Blanchard avers the following about integration: Emergency managers are not lone rangers who can do it all alone. Emergency management can only be accomplished via the successful efforts of emergency managers working with members of other organizations as an advocate for the integration of hazard and disaster concerns into those organizations. (Blanchard, 2007, p.21). Blanchard further comments that “integrated” as a concept, “remains as a fundamental principle of the profession” (Blanchard, 2007, p.21). Finally, Blanchard states these crucial words about this professionalism mechanism: Social science research concludes that the most effective disaster response is one that utilizes in-place organizations and disaster response structures and procedures. This is one reason why it is important to integrate emergency management into those organizations and to make it as routine as possible. (Blanchard, 2007, p.21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intergovernmental</td>
<td>Many and varied governmental entities deal with each other, usually with varying roles, responsibilities, and levels of influence (O’Toole, 2007); stress on private sector styles of management practice (Hood, 1991). But, according to Blanchard, Emergency management is an intergovernmental shared responsibility of local, State, Tribal and Federal government. Its framework is both top-down as well as bottom-up – meaning that the theory and practice of emergency management has been significantly shaped by contributions from all levels of government. (2007, p.13).</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<td>Mediators</td>
<td>Help others make things happen (Drabek, 1987). In other words, emergency managers provide necessary resources for technical task completion and often mediate between technical and institutional subsystems. They can also work as mediators to assist parties in communicating their positions, clarifying them, but not necessarily imposing solutions on these parties.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Membership in Professional Association</td>
<td>Government-enforced standards which help ensure a minimum level of proficiency for emergency managers and/or state emergency management agencies (Wilson, 2000).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcomes</td>
<td>Related to effectiveness, in that this is reached when an organization is successful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>Working out in a broad outline the things that need to be done and the methods for doing them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reconcile</td>
<td>Emergency managers know how to reconcile (i.e., bargain and negotiate) differences and compromise for the greater good of the community (Drabek, 1987).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td>Related to effectiveness, in that this is reached when an organization is successful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science and knowledge-based</td>
<td>In Blanchard’s Fundamentals of Emergency Management (Outline), “Professional emergency management is science and knowledge-based – a full-time occupation which requires education, training, experience and continuous improvement” (Blanchard, 2007, p. 11).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialized knowledge</td>
<td>Effective emergency managers are aware of the current and pending legislation, familiarity with regulations, and a working knowledge of the federal, tribal, state, and local agencies associated with emergency management (Drabek, 1987).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standards and best practices</td>
<td>“[S]tems from wisdom gained from practice. If followed in accord with the social scientific approach, this approach may help produce scholarship that is a basis for practice” (Sylves, 2008, p. 264).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenacity</td>
<td>Displayed by emergency managers in the face of small budgets and limited authority; emergency managers’ determination to get the job done despite obstacles (Drabek, 1987).</td>
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Discussion about the Mechanisms of Professionalism

These 21 mechanisms serve as the theoretical standard to determine the perceptions of 35 emergency managers of the degree of emergency management professionalism existent in the country of Mexico. These are further described as follows.
Autonomy of Practice

Autonomy of practice refers to professions and, thus, professionals, given the exclusive right to determine who can legitimately do its work, and how the work should be done (Freidson, 1970a). It also encompasses emergency managers thinking on their own without the need for approval. For this to occur, autonomous practice requires empowerment (i.e., staff has a high degree of ownership where results can be obtained). Autonomy requires empowerment, yet empowerment requires some autonomy also (Hayhurst 2007).

Board Certification

The certified emergency manager (CEM) status is related to education and training, as well as to standards and best practices (see below) as follows:

The certification process sponsored by the National Coordinating Council on Emergency Management will serve as the guide for future growth and maturity in the program. The Certified Emergency Manager (CEM) status will become more important for anyone who is serious about maintaining his or her status or becoming an emergency management professional. The CEM recertification process should require demonstration of continued growth as a professional based on education and training that keeps pace with the demands of the profession (Moore in Miniter 1994, pp. 9-10).

Waugh expands this discussion further by stating:

the Certified Emergency Manager (CEM) program permits individuals to achieve professional certification by demonstrating a minimum level of education, specific training in emergency management, and experience in the field. To maintain certification, individuals must continue their training and education. As in most professional certification programs, the process permits the “grandfathering in” of those experienced in the field, but lacking the desired formal education and training. IAEM currently offers a certification program for emergency managers without four-year college degrees, but it may be expected that a bachelor’s degree will become a minimum requirement in the future, and that other educational and experiential requirements will increase (Waugh, 2000, pp. 15-16).
Code of Ethics

An ethical code is important in emergency management, or in any occupation, because it “Expresses principles and practices of behavior. Often adopted by a profession and promulgated by a government agency responsible for licensing a profession. Violations of these codes may be subject to remedies that are administrative (for example, loss of license), civil, or criminal” (Sylves, 2008, p. 267).

In emergency management, no single code of ethics has been agreed upon for the profession. However, the code of ethics of the International Association of Emergency Managers with emphasis on respect, commitment and professionalism is the general standard for emergency managers [emphasis in original] (Principles Article 2007). It is generally agreed that professions normally possessed and enforced a code of ethics or behavior (Abbott 1988; Grist 2007).

Perhaps one reason it has been difficult for emergency managers to come together and adopt an ethical code to guide the behavior of their members is because emergency managers as a group have not been shown to be very homogeneous. They have typically come from all walks of life and occupations that make it difficult for uniformity and consensus to exist among such a wide and diverse group of people.

Compromise

Compromise allows emergency managers the flexibility to use creative and innovative approaches in solving disaster challenges; emergency managers are then able to persuade others to consider variations in tactics or procedures that may help them adapt quickly to rapidly
changing and frequently unclear situations (Principles, 2007). Compromise may be undertaken for the greater good of the community (Drabek, 1987).

Continuous Improvement

Blanchard (2007) described the world of hazards and disasters as ever-changing. In essence, emergency managers were to “dedicate themselves to a lifetime of learning and continuous improvement” (Blanchard, 2007, p. 25). Therefore, Blanchard asserted that continuous improvement is attained “Through a combination of continuing education, training, experience, membership in professional associations, attending conferences related to hazards, disasters and what to do about them” (Blanchard, 2007, p. 25).

Coordination

Coordination involves the all important duty of inter-relating the various parts of work. To coordinate also means “to integrate the activities of a lot of people and organizations in the community” (Drabek, 1987). Also, according to Drabek, an emergency manager’s coordinating skills rest very much on professionalism exhibited through his long-term knowledge of agencies. Moreover, disasters create the need for professionalism through coordination among fire departments, law enforcement agencies, hospitals, ambulances, military crews, utility crews, and other organizations. This requires, however, inter-agency communication networks (Mosby, 1989).

Education and Training

McBride-Jones has stated the following about education and training:
Obtaining educational credentials and experience are a central theme of importance to the emergency manager because it contributes to the credibility of the profession. While education is an option, emergency management training is perceived by emergency managers as the most important educational experience (McBride-Jones, 1992, p. 60).

In addressing the future of emergency management (i.e., “What shall we be?”), Moore has stated:

Whatever the structure, funding, and authorities of the emergency management program in the future, it is apparent that continued education and training will be required for the emergency management professional. The emergency manager’s job is moving from an operational role to an administrative one. With this significant shift, the emergency manager will move in wider circles to interact with decision makers and impact policy for a much more proactive program. New responsibilities will require more knowledge, skills, and abilities. (Moore in Miniter, 1994, p. 9)

Crews, who also wrote about emergency management, made this recommendation with regards to the education and training opportunities of emergency managers:

Anyone engaged in emergency management should continue with self-improvement, education, and training opportunities. Emergency Management requires an individual with a breadth and depth of professional experience in academia, government, business, or a volunteer organization specializing in emergency or disaster activities. A four-year college degree or equivalency is helpful with a major in Emergency Management, Public and/or Business Administration, Political Science, or Urban Planning. An advanced College Degree in these majors would be better. Leadership and management skills coupled with technical competency in communications, informational systems, and public speaking is a must. Having achieved that level of professional competence, peer recognition via certification is highly desirable! (Crews, www.disasters.org/emgold).

Training can be said to be an important aspect of professionalism, as “An emergency manager is responsible for the overall management and coordination of emergency management programs” (McBride-Jones, 1992, p. viii). This author went on to say the following about emergency managers and their training:

The position of the emergency manager is defined by law. This law obligates the emergency manager to provide effective leadership for ultimate protection and utmost preservation of the citizens, property, and assets in the jurisdiction. Trained emergency managers understand that the ability of the leadership role to mobilize and integrate total resources in the community is central to the community’s ability to cope with any disaster situation. This position also provides for expediency of recovery when disaster strikes so
that government and business services’ interruption is minimized; and employment, taxes, and profits are not radically affected (McBride-Jones, 1992, p. viii).

Training can help emergency managers in many ways because as McBride-Jones concludes, “Emergency managers, as leaders, must be able to influence the development of plans, policies, and procedures; mitigate the effects of disasters and emergencies; and coordinate the resources during a disaster” (McBride-Jones, 1992, p. viii).

Facilitators

The primary function of a facilitator to help improve professionalism is to manage disputes between two parties. Without a facilitator’s involvement, an organization would have no way of ensuring that each person within the organization knows what is needed to get done. Facilitators include those individuals that help others make things happen (Drabek, 1987).

Intergovernmental

Intergovernmental, as in intergovernmental relations, simply refers to the many and varied governmental entities that deal with each other, usually with varying roles, responsibilities, and levels of influence (O’Toole, 2007). According to Blanchard (2007, p. 13), “It takes all levels of government to ‘make emergency management work’ in the U.S. – and probably elsewhere as well.” Blanchard avers further that,

Emergency Management is an intergovernmental shared responsibility of local, State, Tribal and Federal government. Its framework is both top-down as well as bottom-up – meaning that the theory and practice of emergency management has been significantly shaped by contributions from all levels of government (Blanchard 2007, p. 13).

Finally, the point in emergency management on the necessity of professionalism gained through intergovernmental relations was framed by Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA)
Director David Paulison during a discussion on one of the lessons of Hurricane Katrina, where he stated: “we are all in this together.” The crux of his argument was that the emergency management system should be “one for all, and all for one” (Blanchard, 2007, p. 14).

Integration

Integration relates to coordination. Blanchard has stated the following about this mechanism:

Emergency managers are not lone rangers who can do it all alone. Emergency Management can only be accomplished via the successful efforts of emergency managers working with members of other organizations as an advocate for the integration of hazard and disaster concerns into those organizations. (Blanchard, 2007, p. 21)

Blanchard further comments that “integrated” as a concept, “remains as a fundamental principle of the profession” (Blanchard, 2007, p. 21). Finally, Blanchard states these crucial words about this professionalism mechanism:

Social science research concludes that the most effective disaster response is one that utilizes in-place organizations and disaster response structures that are as close as possible to routine organizational structures and procedures. This is one reason why it is important to integrate emergency management into those organizations and to make it as routine as possible (Blanchard, 2007, p. 21).

Mediators

Mediators include those individuals who try to settle disputes between people who are disagreeing with one another. It is a sort of “middle” position who tries to resolve or settle differences by working with all of the conflicting parties. Mediators include those individuals that help others make things happen (Drabek, 1987). In this way, mediation is similar to work done by a facilitator.
Membership in Professional Association

The International Association of Emergency Managers (IAEM) is the one organization with a truly global membership. The organization consists of 3,000 members and increases at the rate of 100 members per month. The organization is recognized as the professional organization of emergency management that is of major importance. The organization represents emergency managers and promotes an ideal of saving lives and protecting property losses. It accomplishes this by providing information, forming networks, and giving its professionals opportunities to excel. “The International Association of Emergency Managers, too, reiterates the importance of knowledge, skills and abilities pertaining to the preparedness and response portions of the emergency manager’s responsibilities” (McEntire et al., 2002, p. 11).

The emergency management field is growing, and the IAEM is growing as well. Thirteen IAEM regions exist throughout every continent of the world, except in Antartica. The networking provided especially by the IAEM provides its members with required professionalism and raises the bar of services that can be provided by it to its constituent members (IAEM).

Another organization to consider is the International Emergency Management Society (TIEMS), which is dedicated to developing and bringing the benefits of modern emergency management tools and techniques to society for a safer world (TIEMS, 2009 Website). TIEMS was established in the United States in 1993, and is a global organization with members from all over world which addresses main emergency and disaster management issues, among others by participating in research and development projects and other activities (TIEMS, 2009 Website). Waugh discussed the professionalization of the field of emergency management by linking emergency managers to various professional associations with whom they are associated.
As the field professionalizes, emergency managers are finding some commonality of interest with other public sector professionals. Many are affiliated with the Section on Emergency and Crisis Management of the American Society for Public Administration, the Council on Emergency Management of the American Public Works Association, the American Planning Association, and/or the International City/County Management Association (Waugh, 2000, p. 15).

Waugh continued his analysis of professionalism by naming other support organizations with whom emergency managers are also involved:

such as the International Association of Emergency Managers (IAEM) (formerly the National Coordinating Committee on Emergency Management), whose members are primarily from local agencies; the National Emergency Management Association (NEMA), whose members are largely senior officials from state agencies; and The International Emergency Management Society (TIEMS), whose members are drawn from all areas of the profession. The members of IAEM and NEMA are primarily from the United States, although international membership is increasing. The members of TIEMS are from all over the world and include social science researchers, as well as emergency managers and others with related administrative responsibilities (Waugh, 2000, p. 15).

Outcomes

Outcomes are goals or results being reached when an organization is successful. Outcomes are said to have been reached when the task at hand has been completed or is otherwise accomplished. Outcomes focus on results obtained rather than process-oriented directives that do not necessarily base their attention on results that are reached. Motivation factors for outcomes also focus on a more cooperative public, which is crucial for improved outcomes to occur.

Planning

Planning involves working out in a broad outline the things that need to be done and the methods for doing them. Generally, without planning, there is not much of an expectation of accomplishment. Planning occurs when local emergency plans have been devised, when hazards
that may affect a local area may be identified, when emergency communication plan and disaster supplies kit are developed and maintained, evacuation is prepared for, emergency public shelters are available, planned animal shelters exist, information is available for persons with disabilities, and there is in-depth information available on specific hazards including what one must do before, during, and after each hazard type (FEMA, 2004, “Are you Ready?” Guide).

Reconcile

One who reconciles brings two or more different aims, points of view of people into agreement, thus acting as one who settles or resolves disputes. Emergency managers know how to reconcile (i.e., bargain and negotiate) differences between parties to help reestablish a close relationship between them, and causing these former disputants to become friendly towards each other again.

Results

Results are goals or may be outcomes reached when an organization is successful. This occurs when an organization reaches its mission or when planned tasks have been accomplished. Results are very important for emergency managers to achieve, as they reflect on whether or not an emergency manager has been effective.

Science and Knowledge-Based

Blanchard describes this emergency management professionalism mechanism as follows:

“Professional Emergency Management Is Science and Knowledge-Based – A Full-Time Occupation Which Requires Education, Training, Experience and Continuous Improvement”
Specialized Knowledge

Drabek (1987) indicated that specialized job knowledge consisted of an awareness of current and pending legislation, familiarity with regulations, and a working knowledge of the federal, tribal, state, and local agencies associated with emergency management. Moreover, according also to Drabek (1987), the emergency manager of the future must articulate a set of specialized skills and knowledge.

Other scholars, for example, those who contrived the *Principles of Emergency Management* (2007), and mentioned above, have suggested the following framework of professionalism:

The knowledge base for emergency managers consists of three principal areas. The first is the study of historical disasters, particularly as it pertains to the community for which the emergency manager is responsible. Secondly, the emergency manager must have a working familiarity with social science literature pertaining to disaster issues. Third, the emergency manager must be well versed in emergency management practices, standards, and guidelines [emphasis in original] (Principles Article, 2007, p. 9).

The subsequent professionalism characteristic of standards and best practices is somewhat related to the above specialized knowledge mechanism.

Standards and Best Practices

Through the years, many approaches, styles and methods have been used to determine what constitutes standards and best practices. The best-practices approach “Stems from wisdom
gained from practice. If followed in accord with the social scientific approach, this approach may help produce scholarship that is a basis for practice” (Sylves, 2008, p. 264). The “many approaches, styles and methods” has changed in the past twenty years. For example:

Significant efforts in recent years, however, have tended to encourage a greater degree of standardization and uniformity in training for the graduate professional degrees within public administration, especially for the MPA degree. The National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) in 1988 was designated the accrediting body for the MPA degree by the Council on Postsecondary Education. (Stillman 1999, pp. 176-177)

Two principal standards employed in emergency management follow:

the principal standards used in emergency management are NFPA 1600 and the Emergency Management Accreditation Program (EMAP) Standard. These two standards provide the overarching context for the use of other standards and best practices [emphasis in original] (Principles Article, 2007, p. 10).

The Emergency Management Accreditation Program involves the following: “Building safer communities through standards of excellence.” As such, EMAP is a voluntary process based on collaboratively developed national standards. It is designed for local and state programs responsible for preventing, preparing for, mitigating against, and coordinating response and recovery from disaster.

EMAP’s approach:

- Looks at a jurisdiction’s whole program … not just the emergency management agency
- Assesses programs against consistent standards to demonstrate excellence and accountability
- Serves as a catalyst for building multi-disciplinary, multi-organizational system and improving continuity
- Strengthens preparedness and response system through program self-assessment
- Documentation, and independent peer review
- Provides a process for continuous quality improvement (EMAP Website).
Canton argues:

While NFPA 1600 and the EMAP Standard are voluntary, they are making progress toward being generally accepted in the emergency management community. This was greatly assisted by FEMA’s contracting with the EMAP Commission to develop a baseline assessment of state programs in 2005 under the National Emergency Management Baseline Capacity Assessment Program (NEMB-CAP) and the recommendation in the Homeland Security Grant Guidance that states moving toward adoption of the EMAP Standard. The federal fiscal year 2006 guidance for the Emergency Management Performance Grant requires that states use the EMAP Standard and the results of NEMB-CAP as a basis for developing work plans and performance evaluations (Canton, 2007, p. 25).

Stewardship

Stewardship is one of the components of one principle of emergency management: professional. According the Principles scholars, “emergency managers value a science and knowledge-based approach based on education, training, experience, ethical practice, public stewardship and continuous improvement” (Principles, 2007, 4).

Tenacity

Tenacity is displayed by emergency managers in the face of small budgets and limited authority. This trait is exhibited when emergency managers’ show a strong determination to get the job done despite obstacles (Drabek, 1987). In Drabek’s study, emergency managers’ determination to get the job done despite obstacles contributed to their success.

As can be seen the above list constitutes a transformative, integrative and expansive framework that encompasses a vast majority of the constituent parts of the professionalism mechanisms that others have said (in different listings, yet not in one combined framework), that at one time or another, have constituted professionalism in the emergency management field. Thus, as no one has provided a holistic list of the mechanisms for professionalism, this list is
provided as a helpful addition to the existing literature on emergency management professionalism.

Conclusion

In the past, different scholars have respectively concentrated on various combinations of mechanisms of professionalism. The various combinations of mechanisms analyzed by each scholar have more often than not taken account of only a modicum of the aforementioned twenty-one mechanisms. What is known is that no one has yet attempted to integrate into one framework the varied mechanisms looked at by prior scholars. This study accomplishes such an integration of emergency management professionalism mechanisms and, thus, makes a contribution to the literature in the emergency management field.
CHAPTER 3

PROFESSIONALISM IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Introduction and Assumption

This chapter discusses professionalism in public administration, the historical evolution of the field, and the public administration theory known as new public management. As was demonstrated in the prior chapter, the role of the emergency manager is becoming professionalized. One influential writer on emergency management and leadership has stated that “Emergency managers and the nature of their ability to influence the behavior and activities of the public are little known in the formal discipline of public administration and the social sciences” (McBride-Jones, 1991, p. 3). If this view is correct, it is hoped that the following chapter on the professionalism of public administration can help change that trend, and demonstrate how the field of public administration may also assist the field of emergency management and, as it relates to this study in particular, help inform emergency management professionalism all the more.

An assumption of this study is that even with the increased degree of professionalism exhibited by each emergency manager, or even by emergency managers in Mexico incorporating the mechanisms for professionalism as described by emergency management scholars, there is no guarantee that effectiveness and responsibility will result. That is why this study also explores the all-important perceptions of professionalism in Mexico by adding a new public management perspective to emergency management.
Evolution of Professionalism in Public Administration

Professionalism, at least public sector professionalism in the United States, “dates back to the reform era of the 1880s. Woodrow Wilson was one of the first to advocate the importance of public administration as a profession” (Chia and Wyman, 1999, p. 4). Professionalism in public administration was first discussed in depth at the start of the twentieth century. As mentioned in chapter 2, one of the earliest books on what it means to professionalize, titled *The Professions*, was published in the early part of the twentieth century in England by Carr-Saunders and Wilson. “Their findings helped to define the professions and gave insight into the process of professionalization other such studies would imitate and build on” (Grist, 2007, p. 21).

From the time of the origins of what is considered the academic discipline of public administration in the United States, with Woodrow Wilson’s 1887 essay, “The Study of Administration,” public administration was declared a self-conscious, professional field. Wilson’s most important theme was that public administration was a science of management and not a discipline premised on traditional politics.

Professionalism in public administration, like other fields, grew in the 20th century as primarily an outgrowth of the technological revolution. Stillman posits that “professionals were the creatures of the modern technological explosion, for they were functionaries ‘invented’ precisely to cope with technological challenges, changes, and impacts on modern society” (Stillman, 1992, p. 92). Lawyers, medical doctors, and even the clergy are likely candidates who may be a part of this category of functionaries.

Luke and Caiden have described the process public administration has gone through, as one that “has been transformed by an increasingly complex globalized environment” (Luke and
Caiden, 1989, p. 83). These authors present public officials as being interconnected and interdependent with one another at all levels of government. They posit that “since World War II and particularly in recent years, global interdependence has gained strength, permanence, and significance” (Luke and Caiden, 1989, p. 83). Stillman has described the global development of professionalism as:

rates of technological invention, global socioeconomic-military-political developments, applications of scientific expertise, standards of professional associations, selection of professional elites, opportunities for university education, and professional licensing and credentialing processes become critical aspects in defining the future directions of the theory and practice of public administration (Stillman, 1999, p. 106).

Stillman, noting Mosher, observed the need for professionals to manage this increased technological change in society as follows:

• A rising percentage of the public work force is made up of clusters of professionals in various public policy fields
• Increasingly key professionals provide a considerable share of the leadership within most agencies and units of government
• By their education, examination, accreditation, and licensing practices, professions control the content and direction of their own professional activities
• Professions, due to their size and leadership abilities inside government substantially influence public policy and the definition of public purposes
• In turn, professions serve to spawn other professional groups in government by subdividing their activities or inventing new activities
• Professionals decisively influence the distribution of power and status within organizations where they work and, as a consequence, the direction and quality of work, both their own as well as others’ (Stillman, 1999, pp. 93-94)

More pertinent to this study than even the implications of a technical and global development of professionalism, is a statement related to public administration made by Waugh, an emergency management scholar. He asserts that “The need for public administration research in emergency management is clear” (Waugh 162). Mosher, a public administration scholar, made
the field of public administration more aware of the strengths and effects of professional values and behavior. In his now classic work, *Democracy and the Public Service* (1968), Mosher traced the evolution of the U.S. civil service and confronted the issue of professionalism. Many years after the publication of this seminal piece, Stillman (1996) stated:

> All would agree that a profession, indeed a well-developed occupation, has an ethos that acts to shape the values and behavior of members. This ethos concerns actions pertaining to fellow professionals, clients, patients, employers, and perhaps humanity in general (Stillman, 1996, p. 464).

In 1967, Warren Bennis predicted in his *Organizations of the Future* “that organizations would have to be, of necessity, more responsible and flexible to these needs and, in consequence, decidedly less bureaucratic, less structured, and less rigid” (Shafritz, Hyde, and Parkes, 2004, p. 192). Just as importantly, Bennis “indicted present organizational formats as inadequate for a future that would demand rapid organizational and technological changes, participatory management, and the growth of a more professionalized workforce” (Shafritz, Hyde, and Parkes, 2004, p. 192). Bennis stated that Bureaucracy itself was vulnerable due to factors related to human error; rapid and unexpected change; growth in size where volume of organization’s traditional activities is not enough to sustain growth; and complexity of modern technology where integration of activities and persons of very diverse, highly specialized competence are required (Bennis in Shafritz, Hyde, and Parkes, 2004).

**New Public Management**

The reason new public management theory (NPM) has been selected to inform emergency management professionalism, is because:

the New Public Management is influential. It has replaced the old principles of public administration with a new set of principles, or doctrines. These are the doctrines of contracting out, decentralizing, greater discretion to managers, citizen or customer
choices, deregulating, organizing so that there is competition, and determining effectiveness according to outcome measurement. In applying these doctrines, the public manager must be a leader, an entrepreneur, and practice governance. But this leader/entrepreneur is still a bureaucrat. The irony is, therefore, that the New Public Management would banish bureaucracy; in fact, it replaces bad bureaucracy with good bureaucracy by calling it something else! (Frederickson and Smith, 2003, p. 124).

It must be reiterated, and highly emphasized, however, that the present study does not attempt to “banish bureaucracy” or necessarily replace it. In fact, this study seeks to integrate the strengths (and weaknesses) allowed by new public management to those bureaucracy tenets that have been kept mainly because of the nature and necessary purposes demanded by emergency management as a field.

New public management theory (i.e., with its requirements for decentralization, effectiveness, strategic planning, etc.) should be integrated with professionalism mechanisms (i.e., autonomy of practice, coordination, planning, etc.) for emergency managers to improve professionalism and for them to become more effective and responsible. New public management integrated with professionalism mechanisms assists emergency managers to improve professionalism and, thus, allows them to gain the effectiveness and responsibility they need in times of crises. However, it should be cautioned that new public management theory encompasses high normative aspects (i.e., how things should be) (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992). Thus, it may be necessary in a study such as this one to question new public management’s applicability in emergency management. For example, before emergency managers incorporate some components of NPM (i.e., budgeting, efficiency, privatization, contracting out, or competition), it may be necessary for emergency managers to learn whether any of these components are even applicable, or warranted, for implementation in emergency management in Mexico. It may be that these components, or more of them, may not be a “good fit” for emergency managers’ in this country.
“In the late 1990s a major reform movement entitled the new public management swept many of the industrialized nations. This movement stressed greater reliance on the private sector to deliver public services, more flexibility for public managers, and generally smaller government overall” (Meier and Bohte, 2007, p. 29). What began during the Reagan administration in the 1980s as a movement to make government smaller, and therefore more efficient, has become much more. New public management is discussed in greater detail, but first the reinventing government movement of the 1990s is given some deference because of its influence on tenets of new public management.

Reinventing Government

Osborne and Gaebler (1992), the two creators of the reinventing government (REGO) movement, stated the following with respect to the new public management. They argued “that customer-driven government is superior [may be the subject of some debate] to bureaucratic government, having the advantages of greater accountability, greater innovation, the possibility of generating more service choices, and less waste (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992, pp. 180-85). This statement supports the current study’s assumption as to why (in order to improve emergency manager professionalism and increase their effectiveness and responsibility) we may need to shift to new public management, a post-bureaucratic paradigm (i.e., which emphasizes a bottom-up approach, decentralization of power, and customer-driven/citizen participation), and that integrated with emergency management professionalism mechanisms helps emergency managers to become even more effective.

A significant part of the new public management is encompassed in the book, *Reinventing Government*, written by Osborne and Gaebler (1992). The reinventing
government movement is:

An extension of the New Public Management movement of the 1990s, a movement that offered low-level administrators more power and, informed by modern management consultants, concluded that organizations need to rediscover the importance of customer satisfaction. It also advocated broader governance, under which public and private sector organizations might work together under more cooperative or blended arrangements (Sylves 2008, p. 271).

There is more to the reinventing government movement, however. For example, reinventing government (REGO) is based on ten principles, which include:

1. A catalyst: directing activities more than running programs—that is, it should “steer more and row less”
2. Community-owned: involving and empowering clients and citizens
3. Competitive: encouraging and promoting competition in service delivery
4. Mission-driven: stressing overall goals while minimizing rules and requirements
5. Results-oriented: concerned more with outcomes and less with inputs resources used
6. Customer-driven: treating service recipients as valued customers
7. Enterprising: interested in earning as well as spending money
8. Anticipatory: preventing problems instead of merely curing them
9. Decentralized: flattening the organizational hierarchy to encourage more participation and teamwork among employees

To reiterate somewhat, this approach within the new public management is related to Wilson’s (1887) adage: “To run government like a business.” But this may be taking the idea too far for emergency management purposes, if one considers the recent fiascos attributable to Enron or British Petroleum. Essentially, according to Osborne and Gaebler, this business-like approach was to be accomplished “by substituting market competition – and marketlike incentives – the reformers believed they could shrink government’s size, reduce its
costs, and improve its performance” (Kettl, 2000a). This movement is related to professionalism through effectiveness requirements that incorporate values that government should steer and not row, should empower customers, and prevent waste and otherwise work to cut losses by being proactive. Also, the idea is promulgated in such ways that by using market mechanisms, government could obtain through various means the goals or ends sought to be achieved. Effectiveness, again, is demonstrated through outputs, a measure of the quality of that output (i.e., how well did it achieve the desired outcome?), results, and achievement of goals.

This last point was emphasized by Harold Wolman when he stated:

It is fair to say that the values underpinning the reinventing government approach, like those of Ostrom et al. and Savas, are primarily those of efficiency, but unlike the latter they are broader than more narrow economistic efficiency concerns. Instead the focus is on creating a government with the capacity to act effectively to achieve its objectives (Wolman, 1995, p. 156).

Barzelay and Armajani (1992), who in their seminal work, “Breaking through Bureaucracy,” also discuss a post-bureaucratic paradigm, include bringing about results citizens value. Their framework is similar to many of the components of the new public management that integrated with emergency management mechanisms of professionalism helps make the case why a post-bureaucratic paradigm may be welcome for the purpose of improving emergency management professionalism. In Barzelay and Armajani’s paradigm managers identify the mission, services, customers, and outcomes. They deliver value, build accountability, strengthen working relationships, understand and apply norms, identify and solve problems, seek continuous improvement processes, separate service from control, build support for norms, expand customer choice, encourage collective action, provide incentives, measure and analyze results, and enrich feedback (Barzelay and Armajani, 1992).

Pollitt has identified five important core beliefs of the new public management:
1. The main route of social progress now lies through the achievement of continuing increases in economically defined productivity

2. Such productivity increase will mainly come from the application of ever more sophisticated technologies

3. The application of these technologies can only be achieved with a labor force disciplined in accordance with the productivity ideal

4. Management is a separate and distinct organizational function and one that plays the crucial role in planning, implementing, and measuring the necessary improvements in productivity

5. To perform this crucial role, managers must be granted reasonable “room to maneuver” (i.e., “right to manage”) (Pollitt, 1990, pp. 2-3).

These five core beliefs are fairly theoretical in nature. However, “In an even more practical description, Linda Kaboolian notes that the new public management advocates administrative technologies such as customer service, performance-based contracting, competition, market incentives, and deregulation” (Kaboolian). Another important author, Hughes, posits that the new public management involves “a major cultural shift as the old management paradigm, which was largely process-and rules-driven, is replaced by a new paradigm, which attempts to combine modern management practices with the logic of economics, while retaining the core public service values” (Hughes, 2007, p. 14). Hughes, seemingly explicit about the theory, has emphasized that NPM is also about:

results, a focus on clients [citizens], outputs and outcomes; it would use management by objectives and performance management, the use of markets and market-type mechanisms instead of command-and-control style regulation, competition and choice, and devolution with a better matching of authority, responsibility, and accountability (Hughes, 2007, p. 14).

Moreover, according to Terry,

The development of NPM as a centerpiece for scholarly debate and practical administrative reform, if nothing else, has provided an expansive amount of literary fodder for which students of public affairs can analyze organizations and draw conclusions. Claims promoting or contesting a paradigm shift from a bureaucratic model
to a postmodern or post-industrialist construct (Lynn 1997) buttress the debate on one level, while the desire to inject (and conversely reject) public sector governance with private sector practices, values, and principles, kindles the discourse on another level (Terry, 2007, p. 70).

Another NPM writer, Christopher Hood, commented:

that the new public management moves away from traditional modes of legitimizing the public bureaucracy, such as … safeguards on administrative discretion, in favor of “trust in the market and private business methods…The ideas…[are] couched in the language of economic rationalism (Hood, 1995).

Donald Kettl added his particular argument to the dialogue and summarized new public management succinctly by stating that “Painted with the broadest brush, these reforms sought to replace the traditional rule-based, authority driven processes with market-base[d], competition-drive tactics” (Kettl, 2005, p. 3). Kettl asked questions on the new public management agenda in the following fashion:

How can governments find ways to squeeze more services from the same or smaller revenue base?

1. How can governments use market-style incentives to root out the pathologies of bureaucracy? how can traditional bureaucratic command-and-control mechanisms be replaced with market strategies that will change the behavior of program managers?

2. How can governments use market mechanisms to give citizens (now often called “customers”) greater choices among services—or at least encourage greater attention to serving customers better?

3. How can governments make programs more responsive? how can they decentralize responsibility to give frontline managers greater incentives to serve?

4. How can government improve its capacity to devise and track policy? how can government separate its role as a purchaser of services (a contractor) from its role in actually delivering services?

5. How can governments focus on outputs and outcomes instead of processes or structures? how can they replace top-down, rule-driven systems with bottom-up, results-driven systems? (Kettl, 2005, pp. 1-2).

Some important components (e.g., based on doctrine, meaning, and typical justification) of new
public management are summarized below in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Doctrine</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Typical Justification</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Hands–on professional management” in the public sector</td>
<td>Active, visible, discretionary control of organizations from named persons at the top, “free to manage”</td>
<td>Accountability requires clear assignment of responsibility for action, not diffusion of power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit standards and measures of performance</td>
<td>Definition of goals, targets indicators of success, preferably expressed in quantitative terms, especially for professional services.</td>
<td>Accountability requires clear statement of goals; efficiency requires “hard look” at objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greater emphasis on Output controls</td>
<td>Resource allocation and rewards linked to measured performance; breakup of centralized bureaucracy-wide personnel management</td>
<td>Need to stress results rather than procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shift to disaggregation of units in the public sector</td>
<td>Break up of formally “monolithic” units, unbundling of U-form management systems into corporatized units around products, operating on decentralized “one-line” budgets and dealing with one another on an “arms-length” basis</td>
<td>Need to create “manageable units, separate provision and production interests, gain efficiency advantages of use of contract or franchise arrangements inside as well as outside the public sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shift to greater competition in public sector</td>
<td>Move to term contracts and public tendering procedures; move away from military style “public service ethic,” greater flexibility in hiring and rewards; greater use of PR techniques</td>
<td>Rivalry as the key to lower costs and better standards; need to use “proven” private sector management tools in the public sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress on greater discipline and parsimony in resource use</td>
<td>Cutting direct costs, raising labor discipline, resisting union demands, limiting “compliance costs” to business</td>
<td>Need to check resource demands of public sector and “do more with less”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Decentralization is a standard value in one post-bureaucratic paradigm known as new public management. In order for emergency managers to exhibit more professionalism, this new public management component must be integrated into emergency management mechanisms of professionalism. To gradually break down a bureaucratic regime replete with a centralized structure and other constraining characteristics, post-bureaucratic components such as decentralization are an integral part of the former’s slow but sure diminished influence. In 1969, “Kaufman correctly saw that a modern, highly complex society needed new modes of representation to involve the public and ensure responsive administration. Kaufman accepted the notion that administrative decentralization could provide for greater local influence in public policy making” (Shafritz, Hyde, and Parkes, 2004, p. 192). In time, decentralization would become a standard value in the post-bureaucratic paradigms of the 1970s and later years. This has become so because decentralization “is more frequently justified in terms of effective popular participation in government” (Kaufman, 2004, p. 289).

In sum, the early writers of public administration stressed issues of organizational structure and efficiency. Later, theorists, and some practitioners balanced structural issues with behavioral concerns of individuals of an organization. Others have moved from behavior to structure and back again. More recent approaches have dwelt on the organization’s value structure, exemplified by new public management theory in this study. This theory emphasizes the many components, discussed below, of how public organizations should be organized (and managed) in contemporary society. These components constitute the bases for which new public management should be integrated to the professionalism mechanisms, to help reform the bureaucratic way emergency management and practitioner emergency managers operate; they
exist and work in a bureaucratic environment where top-down management and centralization are key components of governance. Application of NPM components to EM professionalism mechanisms would help give more flexibility and other positive features to emergency management systems. This major contribution to the literature made by the current study will be expanded upon below in greater detail.

In the present chapter, components from new public management are integrated with emergency management professionalism mechanisms to help emergency managers improve professionalism and, thus, to become more effective, responsible, and successful. Furthermore, the goal to study the field of public administration with a focus on one of its theories, new public management, is not to present an exhaustive overview of all principles or theories that may help inform the practice of the emergency management field or of emergency managers. The goal of presenting in this study just one theory of public administration is more in line with what was proposed by Frederickson and Smith in their seminal work, *The Public Administration Theory Primer*:

> Our goal, however, was not to present a comprehensive guide to all the theories successfully employed by public administration scholars. The goal was to present what we believe to be the key contemporary theories and to use them to demonstrate the importance of theory to scholarship and its importance in shaping applied practice. Whatever its failures, public administration theory can count among its successes its numerous contributions to increasing our systematic understanding of the public sector and to repeatedly providing public service professionals (albeit sometimes in a diluted, popularized form) useful guides for action (Frederickson and Smith 2003, pp. 246-247).

It is believed that by studying both the proposed professionalism mechanisms and new public management components, by integrating them, and applying these important and combined tenets to emergency management professionalism, a more systematic understanding of what improves professionalism and that can help emergency managers become more effective
and responsible, can be explored and may serve as “one useful guide for action” for emergency managers now and in the future.

Four Critiques of New Public Management

Even though new public management strives “for more flexible public organizations and more responsive interorganizational networks, guided by the key principles of accountability, responsiveness, and a commitment to outcome-based governance” (Peters, 1994), the theory, however, has not been without its detractors. For example, over the years at least 4 main critiques of new public management have developed due to the assumption that new public management actors “are self-interested and will seek to meet their own objectives unless they are monitored and provided with enough incentives to do otherwise” (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2003, p. 163). This reliance on economic rationality (which is devoid of shared values, loyalty, citizenship, and the public interest) is given “as the explanation of human behavior to the exclusion of other ways of understanding motivation and the human experience” (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2003, p. 163).

The four critiques of new public management are as follows. First, the NPM has been criticized as all hype and no substance. The second criticism has been the assertion that NPM has damaged the public service while being ineffective in its ability to deliver on its central claim to lower cost per (constant) unit of service. Third, is the assertion that NPM, in spite of its professed claims to promote the “public good” (of cheaper and better public services for all), is actually a vehicle for particularistic advantage. That is, that the NPM is a self-serving movement which promotes an elite group of “new managerialists” rather than the mass of public service customers or low-level staff. The fourth critique of the new public management is directed towards NPM’s
claim to be a public management for all seasons. Apparently, these particular critics do not believe that the NPM is all that Hood claimed this movement to be (i.e., a public management for all seasons) (Hood in Shafritz, Hyde, and Parkes, 2004).

As of now, however, the critics of new public management seem to be on the losing side of progress. For example, these critics will have to rebut (and contradict with evidence to the contrary) successes seen in New Zealand and other countries like the United States, Canada, and Great Britain where reform agendas pertinent to new public management have been, and are, taking place. While such reforms as those discussed below do not automatically ensure success, they are nonetheless difficult to overlook, and are a great part of the justification for why these critics’ views have not taken hold. For example:

- the government redeveloped its personnel system as an attempt to make top executives more performance-oriented; instituted a comprehensive performance measurement system based on a new process of measuring the productivity and effectiveness of government agencies; and reengineered its departmental systems to reflect the Labour administration’s commitment to governmental accountability (Denhardt and Denhardt, 2006, p. 403).

Again, these authors have stated the above on their way to a formidable discussion about new public service. However, due to the aforementioned reforms, it would seem that these critics and others have not done such a job with their critique of new public management arguments.

Compilation of 21 New Public Management Components

Just as a list of 21 mechanisms was compiled from the extant literature for emergency management professionalism, a list of 21 new public management components has been compiled from the extant literature found in public administration, as set forth below in Table

66
3.2. Specifically, new public management components chosen for this study from the extant literature in public administration are:

- Budgeting
- Collaboration
- Competition
- Continuous improvement
- Contracting Out
- Coordinating
- Decentralization
- Directing
- Effectiveness
- Efficiency
- Empowering
- Intergovernmental
- Management emphasis
- Organizing
- Outcomes
- Planning
- Privatizing
- Reporting
- Results
- Staffing
- Strategic planning
The representative list of 21 new public management components along with a definition or statement describing each one follows:

Table 3.2

*New Public Management Components*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Definition/Description</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Budgeting</td>
<td>includes all that goes with budgeting in the form of fiscal planning, accounting and control.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>the opposite of the Command and Control Approach and model; collaboration is characterized by bottom-up, non-hierarchical, non-authoritarian, post-bureaucratic (i.e., results trump rules), non-regimented, non-formalistic, non-scripted, non-catalogued, non-secretive systems and styles (Blanchard, 2007). According to the Principles scholars (2007, p. 7), collaboration occurs when “Emergency managers create and sustain broad and sincere relationships among individuals and organizations to encourage trust, advocate a team atmosphere, build consensus, and facilitate communication.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition</td>
<td>Osborne &amp; Gaebler state that when service providers must compete, they keep costs down, respond quickly to changes in demand, and strive to satisfy customers. They aver further that “competition drives us to embrace innovation and strive for excellence” (Osborne &amp; Gaebler, 1992, p. 79). According to these same authors, in the final analysis “Competition between teams – between organizations – build morale and encourages creativity” (Osborne &amp; Gaebler, 1992, p. 80). Thus, competition “holds the key that will unlock the bureaucratic gridlock that hammers so many public agencies” (Osborne &amp; Gaebler, 1992, pp. 79-80).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous</td>
<td>To produce an even more effective result and is self-sustaining, if the full promise of reinvention is to be realized (Starling, 2005).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contracting Out</td>
<td>a good example of this NPM component is where “The California Department of Transportation negotiated franchise agreements with four private consortia to build toll highways” (Osborne &amp; Gaebler, 1992, p. 29).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordinating</td>
<td>Involves the all important duty of interrelating the various parts of work. Disasters create the need for coordination among fire departments, law enforcement agencies, hospitals, ambulances, military units, utility crews, and other organizations. This requires, for example, inter-agency communication networks (Mosby, 1989).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decentralization</td>
<td>agency autonomy and independence within an organization and structural hierarchy.</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Definition/Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Directing</td>
<td>Stands for the continuous task of making decisions and embodying them in a specific and general orders and instructions and serving as the leader of the enterprise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effectiveness</td>
<td>The deal demonstrated by an organization that has been successful (i.e., has attained its contemplated outcomes and goals). Drabek (1987) states the following about effectiveness: future emergency managers will exhibit qualities of increased professionalism – including formalized credentials and training … improved public image … future emergency managers will enjoy increased status within the totality of emergency relevant organizations and heightened public awareness of their distinctive role. According to Osborne &amp; Gaebler (1992, p. 351), “Effectiveness is a measure of the quality of that output: how well did it achieve the desired outcome?” Thus, effectiveness is usually referred to as “doing the right thing” – that is, engaging in activities that actually help an agency reach its goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency</td>
<td>Maximum outputs derived from a minimum amount of inputs; according to Osborne &amp; Gaebler (1992, p. 351), “Efficiency is a measure of how much each unit of output costs.” Efficiency is usually referred to as “doing things right” – that is, not wasting public resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowering</td>
<td>Refers to managerial delegation to employees to have their own autonomy, budgetary authority, and responsibility for meeting the organization’s goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intergovernmental</td>
<td>many and varied governmental entities deal with each other, usually with varying roles, responsibilities, and levels of influence; stress on private sector styles of management practice (Hood, 1991).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Emphasis</td>
<td>According to Hood, this is “Hands-on professional management” in the public sector, which encourages active, discretionary control of organizations from named persons at the top, “free to manage.” The typical justification for this doctrinal emphasis is accountability that requires clear assignment of responsibility, not diffusion of power (Hood, 1991).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizing</td>
<td>the establishment of the formal structure of authority through which work subdivisions are arranged, defined and coordinated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcomes</td>
<td>Related to effectiveness, in that this is reached when an organization is successful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>Working out in broad outline the things that need to be done and the methods for doing them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Privatizing</td>
<td>Allows governments to “steer” rather than “row” (Osborne &amp; Gaebler, 1992). More specifically, E. S. Savas, a leading expert on privatization, “defines it as the act of reducing the role of government, or increasing the role of the private sector, in an activity or in the ownership of assets” (Starling, 2005, p. 410).</td>
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Table 3.2 (continued).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Definition/Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reporting</td>
<td>Is about keeping those to whom the executive is responsible informed as to what is going on.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td>Related to effectiveness, in that this is reached when an organization is successful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staffing</td>
<td>The whole personnel function of bringing in and training the staff and maintaining favorable conditions of work. “is the entire set of decisions and actions used to formulate and implement strategies that will provide a good fit between the organization and its environment so as to achieve organizational goals” (Starling, 2005, p. 247). Osborne and Gaebler look at different strategic planning processes that have different wrinkles but involve a number of basic steps. These are: Analysis of the situation, both internal and external; Diagnosis, or identification of the key issues facing the organization; Definition of the organization’s fundamental mission; Articulation of the organization’s basic goals; Creation of a vision: what success looks like; Development of a strategy to realize the vision and goals; Development of a timetable for that strategy; Measurement and evaluation of results (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992, p. 233; emphasis in original). These same authors claim that one other element, “a consensus,” is also needed as government has more voting stakeholders than a business. For change to occur, many stakeholders must agree with that change, plan, strategic mission, etc. (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion about the Components of New Public Management

Budgeting

Budgeting includes all that goes on with budgeting in the form of fiscal planning, accounting and control. Emergency managers use budgeting as an essential management tool, in an effort to do for the organization what is planned to be done and to survive financially. Thus, budgeting is also a crucial decision making tool for emergency mangers, which emergency managers must give careful consideration to because of rigorous implications of planning activity due in great part to budget constraints. This new public management component can
“introduce budgetary discipline” (Williams and Young, 1994, p. 87) which can help improve professionalism among emergency managers and help them to become more effective.

**Collaboration**

Collaboration is the opposite of the command and control approach and model. Collaboration is characterized by bottom-up, non-hierarchical, non-authoritarian, post-bureaucratic (i.e., results trump rules), non-negotiated, non-formalistic, non-scripted, non-catalogued, non-secretive systems and styles (Blanchard, 2007).

**Competition**

Osborne & Gaebler state that when service providers must compete, they keep costs down, respond quickly to changes in demand, and strive to satisfy customers. They aver further that “competition drives us to embrace innovation and strive for excellence” (Osborne & Gaebler, 1992, p. 79). According to these same authors, in the final analysis “Competition between teams – between organizations – build morale and encourages creativity” (Osborne & Gaebler, 1992, p. 80). Thus, competition “holds the key that will unlock the bureaucratic gridlock that hamstrings so many public agencies” (Osborne & Gaebler, 1992, pp. 79-80).

**Continuous Improvement**

Continuous improvement means that an even more effective result than usual is being produced. Starling describes continuous improvement as follows.

The habit of continuous improvement has to be built into all government agencies and has to be made self-sustaining, if the full promise of reinvention is to be realized. The assumption is that improving things a little bit at a time, has the highest probability of
success. The goal is to implement changes smoothly and to learn how to make future changes go even more smoothly (Starling, 2005, p. 426).

Contracting Out

Contracting involves an agreement between two or more parties, especially one that is written and is enforceable by law. In contracting out arrangements, this generally takes the form of assigning a job to someone outside one’s own organization. A good example of this new public management component in action is where the “California Department of Transportation negotiated franchise agreements with four private consortia to build toll highways” (Osborne & Gaebler, 1992, p. 29).

Coordinating

Coordination is an important function of the executive that involves the all important duty of inter-relating the various parts of work. Disasters create the need for coordination among fire departments, law enforcement agencies, hospitals, ambulances, military units, utility crews, and other organizations. This requires, for example, inter-agency communications networks (Mosby, 1989).

Decentralization

Decentralization in an organization is about agency autonomy and independence within that organization and its structural hierarchy. More specifically, decentralization allows service delivery agents in government agencies to act as self-directed decision makers, also the power to act on their best judgment and professionalism (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992). Thus,
decentralization may create more partnerships with community residents and move the concentration of power from the grips of the central bureaucracy (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992).

Directing

When a manager directs his staff, for example, this stands for the continuous task of making decisions and embodying them in specific and general orders and instructions and serving as the leader of the enterprise. The directing style of management is appropriate when a mandate from above describes what must be done and how it must be done. Directing is appropriate in emergency situations when time is of the essence, or where a task performer has limited experience (Thornton, 2005).

Effectiveness

Effectiveness is demonstrated by an organization (e.g., an emergency management system) that has been successful (i.e., has attained its contemplated outcomes and goals). “Effectiveness is often described as ‘doing the right thing’ – that is, engaging in activities that actually help an agency reach its goals” (Starling, 2005, p. 49). When emergency managers reach results, their goals or outcomes, they “save lives, prevent injuries, protect property and the environment” (Blanchard, 2007, p. 34). Drabek, on the other hand, states the following about effectiveness: future emergency managers will exhibit qualities of increased professionalism – including formalized credentials and training … improved public image … future emergency managers will enjoy increased status within the totality of emergency relevant organizations and heightened public awareness of their distinctive role (Drabek, 1987).
Efficiency

Efficiency in a system involves maximum outputs that are derived from a minimum amount of inputs. Blanchard has expanded on efficiency as being about “The ratio of the effective or useful output to the total input in any system” (2007, p. 31). “Thus, efficiency is often referred to as ‘doing things right’ – that is, not wasting public resources” (Starling, 2005, p. 49). In sum, efficiency is getting more done with less resources in the least (or optimal) amount of time.

Empowering

Empowering refers to managerial delegation to employees to have their own autonomy, budgetary authority, and responsibility for meeting the organization’s goals. This means equipping lower level managers and citizens to participate in decision making and other “supervisory” roles. Simply put, empowering someone means to support the development of their skills and enable them to provide leadership on issues of concern. Empowering someone offers them an ability to mobilize change and may also empower others to do the same.

Intergovernmental

Intergovernmental relations is about the many and varied governmental entities that deal with each other, usually with varying roles, responsibilities, and levels of influence; In these types of relationships, private sector styles of management practice are often stressed (Hood, 1991). Wilson and Oyola-Yemaiel intimate that today the function of emergency management requires a permanent, yet intergovernmental, “full-time program to co-ordinate a variety of resources, techniques, and skills to reduce the probability and impact of extreme events – and,
should a disaster occur, to bring about a quick restoration of routine” (Wilson and Oyola-Yemaiel, 2001, p. 119).

Management Emphasis

A new public management emphasis involves the act of getting people together to accomplish desired goals and objectives. An eminent public administration scholar of the early 20th century refers to this management emphasis as “the art of getting things done through people” (Follett). An emphasis on management concentrates on those actions taken to reach one’s intended goal. According to Hood, this is “Hands-on professional management” in the public sector, which encourages active, discretionary control of organizations from named persons at the top, “free to manage.” (Hood, 1991).

Organizing

Organizing is the establishment of the formal structure of authority through which work subdivisions are arranged, defined and coordinated. Starling describes organizing as “the grouping of activities necessary to attain a program’s objectives” (Starling, 2005, p. 316). When organizing in an organization takes place, work is divided into specific jobs and departments. Also, assignment of tasks and responsibilities are associated with individual jobs. Moreover, diverse organizational tasks are coordinated, jobs clustered into units, relationships among individuals, groups, and departments are established, formal lines of authority are likewise established, and organizational resources are allocated and deployed (Starling, 2005).
Outcomes

Outcomes refer to an end result; they are a consequence following from some action, dispute, or situation. They imply finality and reaching one’s goals, perhaps after a relatively long period has transpired. Outcomes are also related to effectiveness. That is, this new public management component is reached when an organization is successful. Outcomes focus on results obtained rather than process-oriented directives that do not necessarily base their attention toward results that can be reached. Motivation factors for outcomes also focus on a more cooperative public, which is crucial for improved outcomes to occur.

Planning

Planning relates to the contingencies and flexible processes of what lies ahead in a person’s or organization’s future. Plans constitute the objective to be met, and strategies that must be incorporated to meet them. Thus, planning involves working out in broad outline the things that need to be done and the methods for doing them. “Planning is reasoning about how an organization will get where it wants to go. Its essence is to see opportunities and threats in the future and to exploit or combat them by making decisions in the present” (Starling, 2005, p. 219; emphasis in original).

Privatizing

Privatizing, according to Osborne and Gaebler (1992), allows governments to “steer” rather than “row.” This means that supervisors and emergency management personnel can concentrate on getting the job done that is called for in the organization’s goals, and less time spent on less necessary, more menial, tasks that can easily be contracted out to the private sector.
To privatize also means to downsize or to reduce the overall size and scope of government activity (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992). According to Starling, the most advantageous contribution that increased privatization can produce is “an increasingly professionalized public-sector workforce” (Starling, 2005, p. 466). This author goes on to state two more important points in connection with this NPM component: E. S. Savas, a leading expert on privatization, “defines it as the act of reducing the role of government, or increasing the role of the private sector, in an activity or in the ownership of assets” (Starling, 2005, p. 410). The second point about privatization relates to the following:

The jobs that are easiest to replace with contracted services tend to be the blue-collar, clerical positions that are common to many organizations, public and private. As these positions are removed from the area of responsibility for personnel managers, the workforce that remains will be more and more professional (Starling, 2005, p. 466).

Reporting

Reporting can be best described about keeping those to whom the executive is responsible informed as to what is going on in an organization. For emergency managers, this should include keeping himself or his subordinates informed (usually through records, research data, and inspections). However, there are many ways that reporting can take place. What is crucial in reporting is for people in positions of authority to keep everyone in their organization informed about things that are going on or that likely will take place in the future, so that everyone can prepare for any and all eventualities that may come.

Results

Results are related to effectiveness, in that this component of new public management is reached when an organization is successful. Results are obtained when an organization reaches
its mission or when planned tasks are accomplished. The new public management stresses a results-orientation, and this can help emergency managers achieve improved professionalism for them to become more effective.

Staffing

Staffing includes the selection and training of individuals for specific job functions and putting them in charge with pertinent responsibilities. The staff in an organization is more commonly known as “the workforce,” and it constitutes the number of employed personnel in an organization or program. In sum, the staffing function of an organization embraces the whole personnel function of bringing in and training the staff and maintaining favorable conditions of work.

Strategic Planning

Strategic planning includes defining an organization’s mission, setting of objectives, and devising strategies in order for the organization to successfully operate in its environment. To accomplish this, the strategy must be put into action and performance must be evaluated and this performance information acted upon. Again, according to Starling, “Strategic management, then, is the entire set of decisions and actions used to formulate and implement strategies that will provide a good fit between the organization and its environment so as to achieve organizational goals” (Starling 2005, p. 247; emphasis in original).

Helpful to an understanding of new public management is the following illustration.
Table 3.3

Assessing New Public Management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elements</th>
<th>New Public Management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary theoretical and epistemological foundations</td>
<td>Economic theory, more sophisticated dialogue based on positivist social science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevailing rationality and associated models of human behavior</td>
<td>Technical and economic rationality, “economic man,” or the self-interested decision maker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conception of the public interest</td>
<td>Public interest represents the aggregation of individual interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To whom are public servants responsive</td>
<td>Customers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of government</td>
<td>Steering (acting as a catalyst to unleash market forces)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanisms for achieving policy objectives</td>
<td>Creating mechanisms and incentive structures to achieve policy objectives through private and nonprofit agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approach to accountability</td>
<td>Market-driven – The accumulation of self-interests will result in outcomes desired by broad groups of citizens (or customers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative discretion</td>
<td>Wide latitude to meet entrepreneurial goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assumed organizational structure</td>
<td>Decentralized public organizations with primary control remaining within the agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assumed motivational basis of public servants and administrators</td>
<td>Entrepreneurial spirit, ideological desire to reduce size of government</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Adapted from Denhardt and Denhardt, 2003, pp. 28-29.*

Not All NPM Components Helpful

It is important to reiterate at this juncture, however, that not all NPM components that exist are being espoused as helpful to emergency management professionalism. For example, this study has already mentioned that efficiency is not usually what emergency managers seek but effectiveness instead. There are many bureaucratic situations where efficiency is not a primary concern. For example, Meier and Bohte comment that “In other areas of public policy, efficiency concerns are irrelevant. How does one measure the efficiency of health research, or environmental protection, or even occupational safety in an unambiguous manner?” (Meier and Bohte, 2007, p. 7).
A second example where a NPM component might also not be applicable to emergency management is in the case of the budget. For instance, it is important for all emergency managers to carefully manage their budgets. At the same time, most emergency managers have very little fat in their budgets to begin with. Also, NPM says we need to rely on the private sector. This could help in terms of community mitigation and preparedness. Nonetheless, occasionally, the federal government has had the private sector write the national response plan (such as with Katrina) only to attain bad and/or unworkable results, certainly not any better outcomes than could have transpired had the federal government itself done the job.

Other examples where new public management components may not be applicable to emergency management are privatizing, contracting out, and competition. All of these components are normative and may exhibit too much of a business-like approach that would make application to emergency management situations unsuitable or ineffective. Emergency managers in Mexico will have to determine for themselves whether, and which, new public management components integrated with emergency management professionalism mechanisms will help improve professionalism in Mexico and, thus, increase their effectiveness.

Thus, even though there are some NPM components that probably should not be integrated, or are not easily integrated, to emergency management professionalism mechanisms, it is important to consider that there are other NPM components which will be discussed later in this study that clearly seem helpful to inform emergency management professionalism, or others that might do so if they were applied.

In sum, the bureaucratic paradigm (e.g., efficiency, control, authority, structure, etc.), as played out in an organization’s past, may have been reasonable during most of the twentieth century. However, times have changed and that is why there is a new movement afoot, viewed
through a post-bureaucratic paradigm (e.g., effectiveness, empowering, decentralization, strategic planning, etc.), represented in this study through new public management theory from which emergency managers may benefit in the twenty-first century.

Thus, the following statement taken from Frederickson and Smith bears repeating. Just as those authors concluded about several public administration theories, new public management, which represents only one public administration theory, will increase “our systematic understanding of the public sector and to repeatedly providing public sector professionals (albeit sometimes in a diluted, popularized form) useful guides for action” (Frederickson and Smith, 2003, pp. 246-247).

Summary

The information addressed in the last few pages has presented components that are characteristic of new public management. Before that, this chapter looked at new public management theory, and the reinventing government movement of 1992 (an integral part of the NPM), which itself added several components to new public management. The four critiques of NPM, and the reason for them, were also discussed.

This study that suggests an integration of new public management components with emergency management professionalism mechanisms seeks to increase “our systematic understanding of the public sector and to repeatedly providing public sector professionals (albeit sometimes in a diluted, popularized form) useful guides for action” (Frederickson and Smith, 2003, p. 247). The new public management is just one such useful guide for action from among various public administration theories available in the extant literature.
One benefit of compiling a list of 21 new public management components, after this study has already integrated all types of arguments on professionalism in the emergency management descriptive list, is that a new public management perspective to emergency management mechanisms is added. This is a major contribution to the existent literature, and constitutes a significant original development for both the emergency management and public administration fields.

In sum, a gap that this dissertation fills in the existing literature is the need to integrate new public management into emergency management practice. In other words, emergency managers need to apply new public management components to their emergency management professionalism mechanisms because of the former’s post-bureaucratic (i.e., more flexibility, more decentralization, less rules-driven and authority-bound, etc.) emphases, which integrated with the expanded mechanisms of emergency management professionalism, should enhance emergency managers’ professionalism, and allow them to become more effective. As emergency managers have not seemingly incorporated this type of thinking yet, or enough of it, it is time that they do so. Likewise, public administrators would do well to incorporate this type of thinking respective to professionalism and other issues of importance in the field of emergency management.
CHAPTER 4
METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter of the dissertation covers research design, information regarding the selection of interviewees for this study and where they came from, and how the data gathered was processed and used in this study, and how interviews were conducted. Moreover, more specifics regarding the interviews are provided, and the reader is also informed about the Institutional Review Board (IRB) process and related issues which pertain to the protection of human research participants in a study such as this one. Finally, how documentary evidence was used in this study is incorporated herein.

Research Design

The research design in this study is a qualitative case study used to determine the perception of emergency management professionalization in Mexico. There are several advantages of case study research as an approach to a qualitative study. For example, case studies are preferred for the “how” and “when” questions in use, when the researcher has little control over the events, and when the focus is on a phenomenon within some real life context (Yin 2003). A case study allows for understanding complex social phenomenon, even though usefulness more than wide generalization may ultimately be the result (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2002). In this study of the impact of professionalism mechanisms and new public management components on professionalism, the unit of analysis is individuals or, more precisely, emergency managers in Mexico (Singleton and Straits, 2005). Consequently, data gathering techniques (e.g.,
interviews and document analysis) were used in this study to answer the questions posed in this dissertation.

The primary question posed in this dissertation is as follows:
What is the degree of professionalism among emergency managers in Mexico and how can it be improved?

Secondary questions include:

a. Do emergency managers in Mexico incorporate the mechanisms for professionalism as described by emergency management scholars?

b. Do emergency managers in Mexico incorporate the principles of new public management (NPM) as described by public administration scholars?

Selection of Interviewees

To answer these questions and gather materials for this study, field research was conducted in the country of Mexico that included interviews with 35 emergency managers at the federal/regional, state and local levels in order to obtain their perceptions of professionalism in that country.

The interviewees (i.e., “informants”) for this study were selected from a population of names who represent emergency management personnel. Many of these interviewees were contacted by telephone and/or email, and arrangements were made to conduct the interviews in their home cities. Others’ names were obtained and those interviews were acquired based on snow-ball sampling (i.e., either after meeting with the emergency managers or after they were contacted by telephone or email, they were asked to provide additional contacts). 35 total participants were interviewed for about an hour and one-half (on average); 15 participants from
Mexico City and 10, each, from Guadalajara and Monterrey. Participants were mostly middle-aged white or mestizo (i.e., Mexican) males, although some participants were white or mestizo females. Some females were middle-aged as well (e.g., average common age was 38). All participants were fluent in the Spanish language, as is the interviewer. Most or all questioning (and elicited answers) were conducted in Spanish.

Reasons Particular Cities were Chosen

Thirty-five federal, state, and local emergency managers were selected and interviewed from the three largest cities in Mexico: 1) the capital city, Mexico City (Distrito Federal), 2) Guadalajara in the State of Jalisco, and 3) Monterrey, in the State of Nuevo Leon. In these cities, interviews were conducted with emergency management personnel at all levels of government (i.e., federal, state, and local) in the public sector. Since Mexico City is designated a “Distrito Federal,” emergency managers there provided a federal level perspective for this interviewer to explore. Guadalajara provided an emergency management emphasis on a state level (i.e., “Estado de Jalisco”) perspective. Finally, emergency managers in Monterrey presented a local level perspective for this study.

Megacity, Mexico City, and the next largest cities in Mexico (i.e., Guadalajara and Monterrey), were chosen for this study on emergency managers’ perceptions of professionalism, as these cities are regions that exhibit common characteristics. For example, due to the sheer size of their physical locations and populations, these cities all experience major physical and management problems. They also share experiences in the complexities of major urban problems. Finally, they each incorporate, individually, a “loci for research, innovation, and dissemination of new technologies, including successful institutional action” (Inam, 2005, p. 10).
Another justification for studying the largest cities in Mexico is the belief that they are the appropriate context in which to study the effectiveness of planning efforts (and the lack thereof during the 1985 Mexico City earthquake) by emergency managers and planning institutions. According to Inam, one can study and make findings on the subject at issue, in our case namely professionalism, because in the large cities:

These common challenges include sheltering and transporting of large populations as well as the continual threat of crises, whether natural disasters or humanly created ones. The ability to tackle crises -- unwelcome, unexpected, and sudden change -- is a critical, yet often overlooked, measure of planning effectiveness. (Inam, 2005, p. 8)

Finally, these three cities were studied because they are “cities of the future: large, diffuse, and dealing in the present with problems that many cities will face in the future” (Inam, 2005, p. 13). In several studies on professionalism, specifically, large regions, states, and larger cities have been the focus of the research for many reasons, not the least of which is what is provided in these places: at a minimum, advanced and more sophisticated manpower and equipment capabilities. Thus, as in many arenas within the public administration field, place matters. Place also matters on issues related to professionalism in emergency management (e.g., towns in close proximity to larger metropolitan areas obtain services and those further away may not). In sum, one would expect to find greater evidence of professionalism exhibited by emergency managers in larger areas than would be found, for example, in smaller cities.

How Interviews were Conducted

The specifics of the interviews were as follows: First, semi-structured, open-ended interviews served as an important data-gathering tool, as also used by Wilson (2000) in her study. A semi-structured interview is “a type of interview that, while having specific objectives, permits the interviewer some freedom in meeting them” (Singleton and Straits, 2005, p. 571).
Open-ended questions, also called “free-response questions,” are “survey questions that require respondents to answer in their own words” (Singleton and Straits, 2005, p. 567).

To the degree possible, the interviews followed the questions in the interview script of this paper (Appendix A), as well as other probing questions when appropriate. The answered questions were later coded, counted, or otherwise analyzed. For example, the EM mechanisms and NPM components were listed, along with pertinent questions from the interview script in Appendix A, and answers were placed under each heading. Answers obtained from the transcribed tape recordings, investigator’s notes, etc., were then listed under appropriate EM mechanisms and NPM components. These were then tabulated (i.e., counted) to determine the numbers (and percentages) of the findings for this study. Patterns (i.e., trends) of answers were especially noted, and special care was taken to not over- or under- estimate particular answers, partial answers, or even those answers that could be considered non-answers. From the answers that were obtained from these interviews, it was anticipated that the following findings for this paper could be determined: 1.) the perceptions of the degree of professionalism among emergency managers in Mexico; 2.) whether emergency managers in Mexico incorporate the mechanisms for professionalism as described by emergency management scholars; and 3.) whether emergency managers in Mexico incorporate the principles of new public management as described by public administration scholars.

To assist informants in answering the questions for this research in Mexico (especially as pertains to a secondary question of this study which asks specifically about new public management), the emergency managers interviewed were given the following information: The new public management is designed to give emergency managers more flexibility, to delegate more decision making authority to their employees, and allow for overall systemic
decentralized authority. The actual components of new public management used for this study were shown to the emergency managers, as were the actual mechanisms of emergency management professionalism. It should be recalled that the actual interview questions were formed with emergency management mechanisms and new public management components as the bases for the interview script and as the list of pertinent questions for this study.

This information could fairly be given to the interviewees since this study did not purport to determine whether emergency managers in Mexico know about new public management (it was assumed that they knew, although they actually knew only a little), but whether these managers incorporate the principles of new public management as described by public administration scholars. Also, this information was offered to emergency managers in Mexico to test 2 of the propositions for this study:

Proposition 2 (P2): to increase the degree of professionalism in Mexico, the practical adoption of new public management principles should be encouraged; and

Proposition 3 (P3): by integrating new public management principles with the mechanisms for emergency management (this is why these had to be known as well), professionalism in Mexico should increase and, thus, emergency managers should become more effective.

It should further be recalled that part of this study was designed to determine whether new public management theory informs the field of emergency management, or should do so, by having an influence on emergency management professionalism mechanisms in Mexico. These were just some of the reasons why interviewees were shown both the emergency management mechanisms and the new public management components used for this study.

Finally, the above was necessary as my theory for this study is that professionalism
mechanisms integrated with components of new public management is truly needed for professionalism to improve, and for emergency managers to become more effective. Thus, emergency managers needed to know what emergency management mechanisms and new public management components were involved in this study that are of importance.

IRB Process

Since human subjects were interviewed for this study, an application for initial review application, along with appropriate consent form (note – in this study an information notice was allowed instead of the informed consent), were submitted to the University of North Texas Institutional Review Board for their approval. Also required, was the certificate of completion whereby the National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research certifies that this researcher successfully completed the NIH Web-based training course Protecting Human Research Participants.

Also submitted to the IRB, was a basic set of interview questions designed for the interviews to explore the main research question and other related questions. The design of the questions was formulated for this research through a reading of the extant literatures on professionalism in emergency management and professionalism in public administration, and through a reading of Arksey and Knight’s (1999) seminal work titled, Interviewing for Social Scientists, and subsequent to consultation with members of the dissertation committee. The interview script for this study is found at Appendix A of this study. The IRB staff was informed of the intent to ask probing questions (when necessary), and a conversational tone to conduct the interviews; that best judgment would be employed when it came to the questions posed by this study and how to pose them (e.g., the form, order, and substance of the questions) in order to
obtain reliable and valid answers, and to ensure inclusion of all mechanisms and components of this investigative study.

To avoid bias, the IRB was advised that care would be taken not to interrupt or to sway answers (i.e., advertently or inadvertently) in any particular direction. Due to the sensitive nature of this topic on professionalism, procedures were used in order to reduce risk to informants. These included: that no information regarding subjects’ names or any other personal and/or identifying information would be released to any employer or to anyone. Care would also be taken not to ask any potential embarrassing questions, and cognizance at all times of interviewees’ body language and mannerisms which might connote discomfort or anxiety on the part of the interviewee. Should there be a need to do so (and this was the case on only a few occasions), questions were re-worded and diplomatic or more appropriate language was employed where able to do so.

The data gathering process was completed by tape-recording interviews, taking notes, performing a transcription of audio tapes, conducting a content analysis (i.e., “may involve the systematic description of either verbal or nonverbal materials”) (Singleton and Straits, 2005, p. 371), and then writing up the findings of the study. The exact words and phrases used by interviewees were jotted down as soon after the respective interview as possible. Again, the above-mentioned textbook was consulted for more specific guidelines about transcribing the data, meanings and data analysis, writing the report, and for disseminating the findings.

To complete the IRB process, upon submitting additional information and revisions to the IRB, in conformance with their request, official notification from the Chair of the University of North Texas (UNT) Institutional Review Board was received, that “The submitted protocol is
hereby approved for the use of human subjects in this study (see Appendix B for copy of IRB approval letter).

**Documentary Evidence**

A second method for this study involved the collection and review of documentary evidence (e.g., public documents and official records including archival information; private documents; mass media; physical, nonverbal materials; and social science data archives) (Singleton and Straits, 2005). Documentary evidence benefits the study in that it corroborates interview data, and serves to triangulate the findings “through different methods or even different kind of data for the same phenomenon” (Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2003). Documentary evidence was employed in the present study with the following admonition in mind: “An important clue when doing your fieldwork is to ask the same question of different sources of evidence. If all sources point to the same answer, you will have successfully triangulated your data” (Yin, 2003, 83). The specific findings in this regard will be discussed more fully in chapter 5 of this dissertation.

Many documents relevant to the questions this study attempts to answer were gathered in different locations: Universidad Autonoma de Mexico, the University of Guadalajara, and government offices where official documents are held for safekeeping.

The documents reviewed for this study pertained to, among others, the development of the evolution and history of emergency management in Mexico, codes such as the “Proteccion Civil in Mexico from 1888 to 2010,” standard operating procedures, and any other document that related to professionalism or its development in Mexico. Also, the internet served as an available resource.
One reason that documentary evidence is important to review and take into account in a study such as this one, is the following:

Laws, codes, and standards must be an integral part of the organization’s operating procedures, both emergency and nonemergency. The primary intent of these regulations is to protect and enhance the safety and health of personnel. However, this can be taken a step further to improve the services provided to customers. Compliance with laws, codes, and standards will lead to better procedures, enhance the public’s perception of the organization by providing a more efficient and effective operation, and help to ensure the safety of the members of the organization (Kipp and Loflin 1996, p. 57).

These data are used in this study to ground certain research assumptions and to support the interview data collected for this study. Thus, a historical analysis was conducted and qualitative data obtained through interviews and document analysis. This was done as an ongoing process of data collection (Wilson, 2000).

Another important reason documentary data are used is for triangulation purposes. Triangulation is one of the most important characteristics of case study which consists of collecting data through different kind of data for the same phenomenon (Merriam, 1998). Triangulation helps produce a more contextual portrait of the object under study, as well as a more complete and holistic view. The likelihood of misinterpretation and bias that could result from relying on only one data-collection method, source, or theory is also minimized.

Conclusion

To conclude, information was gathered, observations recorded (after determining what to observe and record), the data was analyzed, information organized, coded, ideas developed, and conclusions drawn and verified (Singleton and Straits, 2005). This research was directed toward
the development or “discovery” of theory. Thus, this grounded approach will advocate loosely structured research designs that will allow theoretical ideas to emerge from the field in the course of the study (Singleton and Straits, 2005).

In sum, a research design was developed for this study which included qualitative research based on interviews and documentary evidence. Appropriate Mexican cities and emergency managers within those cities were located in order to conduct the necessary interviews which would help answer the research questions posed. After the interviews were all completed, the data was summarized and ordered by identifying themes, concepts, propositions, and theories. Some aids used to identify patterns and gain insights included coding field notes, writing memos, asking questions, and counting (Singleton and Straits, 2005).

To entertain alternative explanations and perform validity checks, corroborative evidence (e.g., documentary evidence analysis) was employed where and whenever available. As previously mentioned, this corroborative evidence was included in the methodology and forms an important part of this study. The products of this research, descriptions and theoretical formulations, may be useful to other researchers seeking to understand professionalism and its progeny. Therefore, this work suggests what may be and, thus, “contributes to the cumulative work of science” (Singleton and Straits, 2005, p. 311).
CHAPTER 5
FINDINGS: INTERVIEWS AND DOCUMENTARY DATA

Introduction

This next chapter of the dissertation addresses the issue of professionalism as related to emergency management mechanisms and new public management components. An overview of emergency manager perceptions on professionalism on each of the 21 emergency management professionalism mechanisms and each of the 21 new public management components was provided. These findings constitute answer summaries obtained from the 35 emergency managers interviewed in 3 Mexican cities, and are made to help answer the 3 research questions posed in this study, and to test its 3 propositions. Information was forthcoming that assisted me in determining how professionalism in Mexico might be improved; also, the extent to which emergency managers in Mexico rely upon the various mechanisms for professionalism, whether any of the components of new public management theory are integrated with these emergency management professionalism mechanisms, and to what extent. The findings demonstrated that by application of emergency management professionalism mechanisms, professionalism in Mexico is improving somewhat, but that by integrating NPM components with the professionalism mechanisms, emergency managers in Mexico may improve professionalism even more and, thus, become more effective.

Next, the findings of this study are discussed for each of the emergency management mechanisms and new public management components that have previously been identified. The following framework for mechanisms and components, respectively, has been set forth (i.e., one-by-one), in order to explicate the perceptions of emergency managers’ professionalism in Mexico obtained from the personal interviews that were conducted as well as from pertinent
documentary (both informed by the interview script in Appendix A), thus serving to triangulate the findings derived from this study.

Findings on Emergency Management Mechanisms

Autonomy of Practice

When emergency managers exercise autonomy of practice, they are given the exclusive right to determine who can legitimately do the work (i.e., which staff members or others will actually perform needed chores). In other words, these emergency managers can choose from among their ranks of available personnel and determine who can best do the particular job that needs to get done on this particular occasion. These same emergency managers also determine how the work should be done. For this study, 20 of 35 (57%) emergency managers interviewed stated that autonomy of practice was important for the emergency management field and, specifically, for emergency managers to be professional.

In Mexico, emergency managers have experienced some autonomy on occasions. On other occasions they have felt constrained by orders from superiors or otherwise constrained by time. This has caused these emergency managers not always to be able to do a good job. Many of the interviewed emergency managers for this study said that they were in charge of quite a number of things, that they were responsible and accountable. Yet, each of them also recognized that Mexico’s very centralized and hierarchical system was both a “blessing and a curse”. On one hand centralized help was and should be available. On the other hand, many emergency managers felt that the only autonomy they experienced (if this was indeed autonomy), was “to go it alone,” as no help was volunteered or otherwise given.
Board Certification

Some (i.e., a rather small number) emergency managers interviewed were working toward this aspect of emergency management professionalism credentialing, called board certification. There was general consensus by virtually all those interviewed that international, federal, and/or state board certification such as might be provided by a state like Jalisco for the Guadalajara emergency managers (not just local organizational certification) was necessary to exhibit occupational professionalism and a minimum level of expertise. Though many of the emergency managers interviewed did not hold federal or state board certification (not even the majority of the emergency managers in Guadalajara Jalisco), nor had they earned international professional certification through the certified emergency manager program of IAEM, the vast majority of emergency managers recognized and agreed that “Professionalism certification demonstrates the achievement of a minimum level of expertise and encourages continued professional development through periodic recertification” (Principles, 2007).

Code of Ethics

Codes of ethics are often adopted by a profession and promulgated by a government agency or a professional association responsible for licensing a profession. However, this did not seem so prevalent among the Mexican emergency managers interviewed for this study. While ethical violations may be prosecuted in some countries, emergency manager informants in Mexico declared that they were not aware of any civil or criminal sanctions meted out against anyone either in the past or recently for failure to adhere to a code or codes of ethics. Thus, codes of ethics seemed to be somewhat of a formality only, perhaps theoretically imposed yet not so much adhered to as a practical matter.
A real problem seemed to exist in Mexico with regard to codes of ethics as emergency managers were rather reserved about expressing what code or code of ethics they ascribed to, and even whether an ethical code was, in their opinion, important in emergency management, or in any occupation. Far too many respondents (25 in all or 71%) did not emphasize codes of ethics as necessary expressions of principles and practices of behavior. Even the emergency managers who expressed a belief in ethics on a personal basis and within an immediate organizational context (i.e., their organization followed at least a “local” code of ethics) were not transparent about what code was followed if any.

In emergency management, no single code of ethics has been agreed upon for the profession. Only 8 of 35 (23%) emergency managers agreed that they had only begun to consider adhering to the code of ethics of the International Association of Emergency Managers with emphasis on respect, commitment and professionalism as the general standard for emergency managers [emphasis in original] (Principles Article 2007). It is generally agreed that professions have normally possessed and enforced a code of ethics or behavior (Abbott 1988; Grist 2007). However, as stated, the majority of the emergency manager respondents in this study did not even possess or seem to enforce a code of ethics or behavior other than what might be required (and granted) by their immediate supervisor or within their particular organization.

Compromise

Compromise, a mechanism that is used seemingly little in Mexico, was favored by 25 of 35 (71%) emergency managers interviewed. However, many of these 25 emergency managers and the 10 (29%) who did not give an opinion whether they favored or disfavored this mechanism, admitted that often there is little room for creativity and innovation in solving
disaster challenges. They felt that even if they could convince their subordinates to a standard operating procedure or strategy in place while reacting to unclear situations, their (i.e., superior’s) autonomy to give subordinates this discretion was circumvented by upper-level emergency management leaders at the top of Mexico’s political “closely-structured” hierarchy.

Continuous Improvement

Continuous improvement includes continuous education, training, and experience. Also, membership in a professional association, attendance at hazard-related conferences and what to do about them are important. Continuous improvement was a huge concern among the emergency managers interviewed, and each one mentioned the necessity (and the benefits) of continuous improvement programs in Mexico and around the world.

The vast majority (32 of 35, 91%) of emergency managers interviewed for this study stated that they were very interested in continuous improvement and that they constantly tried to improve themselves through education and training. When asked about professional association membership, answers were less than favorable. These emergency managers did indicate quite strongly, however, that they understood, as Blanchard noted, that “The world of hazards and disasters is not a static one – it is ever changing, and thus those who work in emergency management must dedicate themselves to a lifetime of learning and continuous improvement” (2007, 25).

Coordination

Documentary data from Mexico revealed that the first law, Ley de Proteccion Civil, was published in 1996. The intent of this legislation was to carry out coordinated actions at
protection as well as recovery of the population when dangers and hazards occur. This law is significant because it established the National System of Civil Protection (SINAPROC) in Mexico, which is designed with the broad objective to protect individuals and society in the event of a disaster. However, a majority of the emergency managers interviewed for this study recognized that just because such a law exists, does not mean that the law is implemented or enforced, nor does it necessarily ensure that coordination will result. Mexican emergency managers interviewed had a plethora of coordination procedures at their disposal (e.g., those established and published such as by “Proteccion Civil”), however it should be recognized that each procedure is based on a centralized system and also is intended to operate contiguous to the type of disaster (e.g., earthquake, volcano, flooding, etc.) each procedure is intended to protect. Thus, coordination is not ensured.

Education and Training

In Mexico, education and training exist both in principle and in practice. However, much of education and training emphasis addressed by the emergency managers interviewed for this study stressed education and training for the public not so much what was required from emergency managers or emergency management personnel. In any event, it was clear that all 35 (100%) emergency managers interviewed have educational and training programs available through their organizations and sometimes through other rigorous training outside their own organizations that takes place from time to time. For example, some emergency managers stated that they have participated in training programs in other countries, including the United States. However, these training programs had become less frequent because of funding concerns. In other words, some emergency managers could not continue to pay for trips and conferences out
of their own pockets. Simply stated, they just did not make enough money to finance these programs themselves.

When these interviewees were prodded further about training, typical responses on improving training included the following: “All training can certainly be improved. Perhaps additional drills would help.” Another answer representative of the majority of responses was “we train our responders to respond to emergencies. However, we can always use more training to be better prepared to respond.”


Facilitator

An emergency manager who facilitates action on the part of subordinates or peer agency representatives helps these subordinates make things happen. Many of the same problems addressed by roughly 75% of the emergency managers for this research project that were mentioned as to compromise and other mechanisms, were restated when it came to the ability of superiors to facilitate emergency management activities of their subordinates under the present “rather stringent” emergency management system in place in Mexico today.

Integration

Integration may deal with harmonious laws and policies, and may also include working with other organizations and among all levels of government. With integration, established
organizations and disaster routine structures interact as close to routine organizational structures and procedures as possible. According to the *Principles of Emergency Management* scholars, however, “Emergency managers ensure unity of effort among all levels of government and all elements of a community” (Principles, 2007, 6).

There was a keen recognition among the emergency managers interviewed for this study, especially the local emergency managers of Monterrey that local emergency plans must always be synchronized with federal/centralized government (i.e., higher-level) plans and programs. All 10 (i.e., 100%) of the Monterrey informants (here only one city’s informants are involved) agreed that there existed an interdependence between federal, state, and local emergency management needs and fulfillment of those needs through provision of funds and resources. A significant number of these informants (i.e., 7 of 10, or 70%) emphasized that without integration of these plans resources would be delayed or, worse yet, might never arrive. These Monterrey emergency managers especially demonstrated an understanding that “plans at all levels of local government must ultimately be integrated with and support the community’s vision and be consistent with its values” (Principles, 2007, 7).

In Mexico City and Guadalajara, the concern among the emergency managers did not dwell on integration aspects. However, both sets of managers were keenly aware of Mexico’s centralized and hierarchical structure. The latter tended to be the focus of their attention, not integration relationships and dealings between different levels of government as much. Integration was seemingly assumed or somewhat taken for granted. There was recognition among them, however, that especially at the local level (of much importance to most emergency managers in Mexico) emergency programs needed to be integrated with other levels of government. Even the emergency managers from the “distrito federal” (i.e., Mexico City)
recognized that while they constitute a sort of “federal force” of emergency managers, local levels of integration with higher levels of government was seemingly still paramount.

Intergovernmental

All the interviewees in this study agreed that Mexico’s intergovernmental relations included the federal, state, and local levels of government, and that all three levels were crucial to Mexico’s emergency management system’s inner-workings because of their complex yet interdependent relationships. Mexico is a federal republic with three levels of government: federal/regional, state, and municipal (i.e., local). From the time of the Mexican revolution (1910-1917), Mexico’s party structure has included “a form of corporatism embracing, and increasingly controlling from above, organized labor, the rural small land-holders, and the urban petty bourgeoisie” (Inam, 2007, p. 159). One level of government cannot ignore the other, and each must work together to accomplish intergovernmental goals that are crucial to each respective level of government. Indeed, interviewees agreed that Mexico’s “highly centralized administrative and political structure transformed a local crisis, the earthquake in Mexico City, into a national phenomenon” (Inam, 2007, p. 160).

Mexico’s highly centralized governmental system (and quite noticeable from the list below) has been studied by Inam and others, who relied on the following composition of the Junta de Gobierno (Council of Governance) of the RHP program to reflect highly centralized recovery efforts and federal institutions’ key roles:

- Jefe del Departmento del Distrito Federal (Chief of the Department of the Federal District)
- Secretario de Desarrollo Urbano y Ecologia (Minister of Urban Development and Ecology, or SEDUE)
• Representative of the Secretaria de la Contraloria General de la Federacion (Ministry of the Comptroller General of the Federation, or SECOGEF)

• Deputy Minister of the Secretaria de Programacion y Presupuesto (Ministry of Budget and Programming, SPP)

• Deputy Minister of the Bank of the Secretaria de Hacienda y Credito Publico (Ministry of Finance and Public Credits, or SHyCP)

• Deputy Minister designated by the Secretaria de Gobernacion (Ministry of the Interior, or SG)

• Director General of Banco Nacional de Obras (National Public Works Bank, or BANOBRAF)

• Director General of Fondo de Vivienda (National Housing Fund, or FOVI) (Inam, 2007, p. 160)

Mediators

When an emergency manager serves as a mediator, help is given to parties and others such as subordinates within the organization so that they can make things happen. In other words, emergency managers provide necessary resources for technical task completion and often mediate between technical and institutional subsystems. Moreover, they can also work as mediators to assist parties in communicating their positions, clarifying them, but not necessarily imposing solutions on these parties.

Some of the emergency managers interviewed for this study (15 of 35, 43%) stated clearly that they often served as mediators in a variety of capacities. Several of the others (i.e., 9 of them, or 26%) mentioned that they often took a “hand’s off” policy toward many matters that could possibly be resolved through mediation. These emergency managers’ opinions, along with the apparent acquiescence of many of the remaining 11 (or 31%) emergency managers interviewed, hinged on the importance afforded the individualism of each worker, to act in the manner each sees fit to handle the situation or to otherwise be effective. Thus, in these instances,
individualism qualities were paramount to the perceived interference that might take place if mediation tactics were employed by leadership and/or superiors.

Membership in Professional Associations

Members of professional associations enjoy a certain amount of clout and deference from governments and federal agencies that “rank among the bureaucracy’s most effective clients” (Gormley and Balla, 2008, p. 121). This is especially true when members’ associations “speak with one voice” (Gormley and Balla, 2008, p. 122).

The International Association of Emergency Managers (IAEM) is the one organization with a truly global membership. The organization consists of 3,000 members and increases at the rate of 100 members per month. The organization is recognized as the professional organization of emergency management that is of major importance, yet among the interviewed respondents from Mexico only minor inroads have been made by even a handful of them to join the IAEM. The organization represents emergency managers and promotes an ideal of saving lives and limiting property losses. It accomplishes this by providing information, forming networks, and giving its professionals opportunities to excel.

Yet, Mexican emergency managers are only today beginning to take notice of this most important association. This was the case even though “The International Association of Emergency Managers, too, reiterates the importance of knowledge, skills and abilities pertaining to the preparedness and response portions of the emergency manager’s responsibilities” (McEntire et al., 2002, p. 11). Several emergency managers agreed with this view.

Though the emergency management field is growing, and the IAEM is growing as well, there are only thirteen IAEM regions that exist throughout every continent of the world, except
in Antartica. Some 13 (or 37%) emergency managers interviewed for this study recognized that networking provided especially by the IAEM provides members with required professionalism and raises the bar of services that can be provided to constituent members. Some of the interviewed emergency managers did belong to professional local associations (i.e., those provided “in-house” by their respective local organization), with very few belonging to federal, state and other professional associations.

Another organization to consider is the International Emergency Management Society (TIEMS), which is dedicated to developing and bringing the benefits of modern emergency management tools and techniques to society for a safer world (TIEMS, 2009 Website). Membership in TIEMS was nonexistent by the various emergency managers interviewed for this study. In all fairness, however, TIEMS was established in the United States in only 1993, and is a global organization with members from all over world which addresses main emergency and disaster management issues, among others by participating in research and development projects and other activities (TIEMS, 2009 Website). Therefore, perhaps a little more time must pass before Mexican emergency managers may become full partners with TIEMS.

These findings are somewhat disheartening. This is especially significant when one considers that Wilson (2000) placed an inordinate amount of emphasis for professionalism on membership in professional associations and her second characteristic, certification. In fairness, though, her study was limited to Florida and the United States – and did not look at other states or countries.

Outcomes

Emergency managers in this study stated that outcomes are reached when organizations
are successful. Success is measured (not necessarily quantitatively), but by pre-set goals that have been ultimately met. For this study, 34 of 35 (97%) emergency managers interviewed said that their organizations were successful because outcomes were frequently reached. However, each of these managers agreed that outcomes could be more easily attained if coordination efforts among them were improved, more “hands-on” training took place, and if more funding was available for them to do their jobs more effectively. They also said that they should be given more management flexibility, as too much power for decision making still sits within the higher echelons of government and the bureaucracy of Mexico.

Planning

Another significant finding verified by several of the interviewees concerned planning:

In 1983 the Mexican government had engaged in a probability study of crisis situations in order to be well prepared. This study resulted in the creation of an emergency unit made up of four components: (1) a center of information and data processing, (2) field operations to be directed by the Mexican military, (3) research and development efforts, and (4) future studies. The fundamental objective of the study, and the resulting recommendations, was to maintain stability during any foreseeable crisis situation. However, a dramatic fall in crucial oil revenues to the Mexican government shortly before the earthquake caused cutbacks in the recommended crisis situation response framework and within fifteen days of the 1985 crisis in Mexico City the only parts that functioned were the operations conducted by the military (Inam, 2005, p.177).

In spite of the failure to curtail the devastating effects of the 1985 Mexico City earthquake for reasons stated above, all 35 (100%) interviewee-informants confirmed that they believe that with careful planning emergency managers can anticipate and influence future events. Respondents offered a few solutions with respect to planning but, even so, were not too specific regarding the “what” and “how” of their planning. Instead, more generalizations were provided instead (e.g., “we plan…,” “we do planning…,” and “we have goals to meet…,” etc.).
Reconcile

Emergency managers consider that when bargaining and negotiating take place, differences are reconciled and this allows for compromise for the greater good of the community. This was one area where all 35 emergency managers agreed that much was being done, however more could be done. Apparently, reconciling was still in a nascent state, and more is needed to train emergency managers to reconcile differences between disparate parties. Thus, all agreed that there should be a concerted effort placed on this mechanism that dealt with bargaining and negotiating, and that more training was the key to development of these skills. The consensus answer from these emergency managers was that they knew they should attempt to reconcile differences between stakeholders before problems got to be more difficult. However, they also recognized that many times reconciliation was an assumption taken for granted. Nonetheless, agreement by these emergency managers stemmed from a willingness to facilitate reconciliations between differing parties thus allowing compromise for the greater good of all.

Results

Results are similar to outcomes, in that success of operational activity, etc., is determined by when pre-set goals of an organization have been reached. Results are different from outcomes also, in that sometimes some results obtained are not in line with pre-set goals of an organization. Emergency managers interviewed for this study averred that positive results were often obtained in Mexico, especially with the changes that have been made to the emergency management system since the Mexico City earthquake of 1985. However, most of these emergency managers (i.e., approximately 70%) declared that results were often reached without the help of appointed bureaucrats high up in the hierarchical structure or, as one emergency manager stated, “in spite
of their help!” For example, this might occur where emergency managers might have to take some other course of action more beneficial (and effective) to the situation at hand, while still receiving bureaucrats’ instructions that are offer no real assistance for resolution of the problem faced momentarily.

Science and Knowledge-Based

The Principles scholars addressed this emergency management professionalism mechanism under the classification principle, “professional.” These scholars agreed that “emergency managers value a science and knowledge-based approach based on education, training, experience, ethical practice, public stewardship and continuous improvement” (Principles, 2007, p. 4).

General consensus was reached among the interviewed emergency managers that scientific knowledge about technological advances and new findings in the field were of particular importance to increase manpower capabilities and the predictive capabilities about disasters in Mexico. Agreement was forged among all the emergency managers that a scientific knowledge-base was key to discovering cause and effect relationships that were crucial to pinpoint disasters and hazards in advance, and to help with mitigation, preparedness, response, and recovery efforts before, during, and after a crisis occurred. Even with all the scientific advances and science-based knowledge emergency managers had attained over the years, there was still recognition among them that gaps existed, and that efforts such as those with the CENAPRED (discussed in the very next section) in Mexico City should continue.

For example, the majority agreed that there were gaps in capacities related to, as Waugh described, “design, finance, and administer effective programs” (Sylves and Waugh, 1996, p.
These emergency managers agreed with Waugh’s reasoning that “there is still a compelling need to invest in research in order to understand and manage hazards better and to reduce risk” (Sylves and Waugh, 1996, p. 350).

Specialized Knowledge

The Centro Nacional de Prevencion de Desastres (CENAPRED) [National Center of Disaster Prevention] is the technical arm of emergency management in Mexico and provides many educational programs which are implemented through courses, conferences and seminars. The mission of the CENAPRED is to prevent, to alert and formulate the culture of self-preservation by reducing risk to the population in the face of natural and man-made threats to life and property. This is principally accomplished through investigation, monitoring, capacity-building, and diffusion. The vision of the organization is to be a center of excellence in the prevention of disasters that contributes to sustainable development, orientates its forces toward a society less vulnerable and a nation more secure as it faces natural and man-made phenomena (CENAPRED, Preface, p. 7).

That Mexican emergency managers and government officials take great pride in specialized knowledge was made evident by my trip to CENAPRED (“National Center of Prevention of Disasters”) at the Universidad Autonoma de Mexico in Mexico City, where 2 emergency managers for this study were interviewed. Perceptions from these emergency managers spoke volumes about how the CENAPRED was directly related to specialized knowledge, and the attainment of specialized knowledge, by emergency managers and others in this country. This trip to CENAPRED was very productive as it was evident also from direct observation that this institution is a vital part of Mexico’s emergency management system,
providing scientific and technical expertise on a plethora of levels and ranges. Also obtained at
the CENAPRED for this study was documentary data, especially that pertaining to a Secretary of
information of activities 2008 of CENAPRED newly reflects the grand capacity that the Center
has to produce and disseminate knowledge, to investigate and decipher technological
advancements applied to the prevention of disasters, empower society with the material and
technical emergency information necessary and administratively strengthen and promote said
activities in the national and international venues, always with a standard of quality and an equal
measure of performance (CENAPRED, Preface, p. 6).

CENAPRED (made up of many highly specialized departments in substantive and
support areas) also provides many educational programs which are implemented through
courses, conferences and seminars. The vision of the organization is to be a center of excellence
in the prevention of disasters that contributes to sustainable development, orients its forces
toward a society less vulnerable and a nation more secure as it faces natural and man-made
phenomena (CENAPRED, Preface, p. 7).

In sum, the CENAPRED provides the technical and scientific support so recognized by
the emergency managers interviewed for this study (i.e., as demonstrated by their perceptions of
the interrelationship between the CENAPRED and attainment of specialized knowledge, and by
direct observation obtained via the visit there), and epitomizes the “specialized knowledge”
emergency management mechanism so necessary to professionalism in Mexico.

Standards and Best Practices

Mexican emergency managers consulted for this study appeared to lack standards and
best practices. For example, while many were highly experienced and had held their work positions in the organization for many years, few, if any, possessed a degree of standardization and uniformity in training such as an MPA degree. Few (less than 50%) appeared to know much about NFPA 1600 or EMAP, or whether they could even be a part of those organizations.

Stewardship

All 35 (100%) emergency managers interviewed showed genuine concern for good stewardship of responsibility, material resources, and funds with regard to each individual’s particular organization and respective accountability requirements. However, there were murmurings of abuses of stewardship with emergency managers who “take advantage of the situation,” and impede progress by accepting bribes or otherwise circumvent legal processes in place (e.g., land-use regulations, etc., especially noticed in Monterrey) by and through their illegal or unethical behavior. However, there were many illustrations given by emergency managers in all 3 cities of situations where officials, especially elected public officials, allow people to build higher and higher up the mountains (or other areas where people may live and become subject to mudslides), causing grave vulnerability problems for all these inhabitants.

Tenacity

The tenacity of Mexican emergency managers to get the job done effectively was firmly entrenched in everyone’s desires who were interviewed for this study. One emergency manager after another one spoke with pride about their country’s culture, heritage, and the tenacity of its people. Virtually every respondent addressed this emergency management professionalism mechanism by pointing out that they, their subordinates, and other emergency management
personnel worked tirelessly and, much too often, with limited resources to get the job done. The consensus among all emergency managers interviewed was that, even so, the work was generally done well. It is significant to note that each of these emergency managers included themselves when referring to those who exhibited tenacity among their ranks, because as one interviewee mentioned, “tenacity and the hard work must begin with us leaders!”

Findings on New Public Management Components

Budgeting

Budgeting activities of emergency managers include fiscal planning, accounting, and control. Budgeting, especially in the planning process, is needed in order to allocate needed resources so that implementation may be ensured.

Thirty of the 35 (86%) interviewees addressed budget concerns as most important to emergency management and the processes involved for effective execution of performance. These 30 emergency managers acknowledged in one form or another that budget cuts that affected programs of any type in Mexico (particularly in their respective region) would have a negative impact on the people of Mexico, and on the disaster management programs in place at the time of this research and even later.

Collaboration

The Mexican emergency managers interviewed for this study described collaboration as a necessary part of effective cooperation that is sorely needed between emergency managers and pertinent emergency management personnel. Indeed, collaboration was often referred to as an attitude of cooperation between individuals and entities, and likened to that of an organizational
culture with norms, shared ideas, and the unity and cooperation to coordinate emergency management functions effectively.

A good many organizational emergency managers interviewed felt that a team approach was lacking. However, it was recognized that this team aspect “engenders trust, cooperation and understanding” (Principles, 2007, p. 8). Overall, all 35 (100%) emergency managers interviewed agreed that more collaboration was needed to avert disasters or at least to minimize the risks borne by them. Collaboration was necessary for emergency managers to prepare for these eventualities. Thus, collaboration between emergency management personnel was often mentioned or alluded to by many as a key factor to consider when faced with the prospects of increasing, more intense, hazards faced by Mexico in the not-too-distant future.

In sum, a high majority (i.e., 25 of 35, 71%) of informants agreed that their country (and countrymen) may not be able to control or eliminate natural disasters. However, there was agreement among these informants that by working together, and through an improvement in professionalism, Mexico could become a safer place to live. It was often stipulated that for this occur, however, emergency managers and emergency management personnel and the citizenry must continue activities (such as those provided by mechanisms and components discussed in this study). In these way, Mexican emergency managers would be able to improve their professionalism and, thus become more effective, so that they are better prepared to face challenges, protect human lives, and minimize (as much as possible) costly property damage.

Competition

Osborne and Gaebler (1992) stated that governments that are entrepreneurial in nature tend to promote competition when it comes to service providers. To be exact, they “promote
competition between service providers (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992, p. 19).

This did not appear to be the case with emergency managers in Mexico, as cohesion (i.e., the degree to which members of a group are uniformly committed to the group and its goals) took precedence over factors related to competition. For example, 16 (46%) of the interviewees for this study seemed confused (perhaps surprised) by a question that inquired about competition. This was a new public component that seemed foreign to these emergency managers. Some inquired as to why they would be asked about “competition” (i.e., they seemed even oblivious to this NPM component) when other questions only pertained to compromise and coordination. Still, others within this same group intimated that they were interested in the sharing aspects (not competitive aspects) between levels of government and disparate organizations. The other 19 (57%) interviewees seemed to take this question in stride, and did not have anything specific or substantial to say about it one way or the other.

Continuous Improvement

A majority (32 of 35, or 91%) of emergency managers interviewed for this study mentioned that continuous improvement was crucial for developing emergency management capacity in their country. All agreed that continuous improvement was required where needs were identified, planning must be done, and training and education must take place. For these informants, continuous improvement seemed to mean that training and education should be geared toward what to do in case of an incident (of disaster) and what to continue doing even while no incident is imminent.

Moreover, these 32 emergency managers agreed that after implementation of policies and plans take place, there must be a valid evaluation period to assess the success or failure of the
operation. Many of the 32 emergency managers claimed that this evaluation period took place within their particular organization. Along with an evaluation process, a review period of all processes in the overall operation was needed to ensure thoroughness and goals met and that emergency managers had been effective in meeting those goals.

The documentary data found to assist with the continuous improvement effort in Mexico, was a World Health Organization-sponsored documentary film for local advocacy aimed to target a wide variety of audience. The 9-minute film illustrates, for example, what a safe hospital is and the factors that put facilities at risk. This is one way that emergency managers benefit from continuous improvement, by educating themselves about the prospective risks of disasters and hazards and trying to do something about them before they occur.

Contracting Out

Very few services were ever contracted out to private firms by the organizations whose emergency managers were interviewed for this study. Only 3 of 35 (9%) respondents claimed any participation in contracting work out to private firms. When contracting out was used, it was mainly by emergency managers who only contracted out services that involved food preparation and menial cleanliness chores in and around their physical structure (e.g., buildings). These 3 interviewees acknowledged contracting out as important and necessary because, as one of them said, this way, “personnel can do what is most important toward fulfilling their responsibilities” [related to emergency management]. In other words, it was clear that at least for these emergency managers if they did not have to put their personnel to work on what they considered “menial chores,” the personnel would be available to tackle emergency situations if and when they arose (and not be diverted in their duties by other, more menial, tasks somewhat unrelated to the main
mission of the organization).

The remaining 32 respondents were either not contracting out or did not have an opinion as to why they did not do so, at least not at the present time. For example, these interviewees used their own internal personnel to conduct the services instead of contracting out to private firms. If funds were available to do so, several of the “non-contracting” interviewees said they might consider contracting out in the future. These informants felt that funds were sorely needed to accomplish contracting out type transactions with the private sector or non-governmental organizations. As funds were not forthcoming for this purpose, contracting out was not practiced.

Even so, more than half of all interviewees (18 of 35, 51%) said that they thought money would be saved when they kept the work within the organization and they did not contract out to private firms or entities. However, no figures to substantiate this claim were provided by any of the informants nor was it apparent that any such figures existed. Seemingly, before contracting out becomes prevalent in Mexico, the issue of “saving money” without it will first have to be researched and resolved.

Coordinating

The *Principles* scholars’ definition for coordination “refers to a process designed to ensure that functions, roles and responsibilities are identified and tasks accomplished” (*Principles*, 2007, p. 7). Emergency managers must “synchronize the activities of all relevant stakeholders to achieve a common purpose” (*Principles*, 2007, p. 8). Coordination requires that emergency managers seek agreement among disparate agencies and determine a common purpose that all can help to achieve (*Principles*, 2007).
Many of the interviewees (20 of 35, 57%) stated that coordination was better in Mexico since the 1985 Mexico City earthquake, but that more coordination was needed. One interviewee, in particular, commented that “communication (between agencies) is necessary for coordination effectiveness to take place between officials in the prevention or “elimination” of risks. Several respondents confirmed that since 1985, manuals explaining what to do and how to coordinate the plans already in place are available. Also, there exist different plans according to the disaster that may be involved. However, many acknowledged that many of the manuals provided were designed to benefit the general public – not specifically emergency managers (although it was recognized that these manuals were still readily available for virtually everyone).

A majority of all informants (30 of 35, 86%) felt that more external and internal coordination was necessary for emergency managers to do better, and in order for Mexico’s emergency management to be first rate. In other words, most felt that coordination of activities could be done better.

Many informants objected, however, to a volunteer response of coordinating and developing processes for mobilizing, utilizing and demobilizing disaster relief. The reason most often given for the lack of interest in a volunteer force was that virtually all of these volunteers were not certified emergency managers. One informant said that “many, if not all, of these volunteer groups did not have appropriate certification credentials and, thus, would not even be considered to help out unless they could produce credentials!” In Mexico, this was taken to mean any “localized” credentials or other permits that allowed one to “legally” respond to an emergency situation. It was apparent that these emergency managers required credentials at least comparable to what they themselves possessed, in many cases, these same “local” credentials.
Moreover, many of these respondents displayed a “disaster within a disaster” mentality because, as one respondent stated, “we have to feed, clothe, and house them!” The general feeling expressed was that many of these volunteers impede coordination efforts by legitimate emergency managers and first responders and, thus, progress is not made as smoothly or as fast as it could be. In point of fact, “un-credentialed volunteers are not welcomed,” said another interviewee. All of the emergency managers downplayed the significance many times big numbers of volunteers serve during the aftermath of a disaster.

Decentralization

The general consensus among all 35 (100%) informants was that Mexico has historically maintained a tradition of a highly centralized government with respect to their disaster management system. Thus, all emergency managers for this study responded that, throughout Mexico, they are dependent upon national government capabilities (and command instructions). Many of the Mexico City respondents, for example, were emphatic that even in Mexico City, where some local power, autonomy and authority has existed for the past few years, and where disaster management systems have been more locally driven, support still comes from reliance upon high levels of government. Even so, in a decentralized emergency management system, delegation of authority is given to other managers.

To determine whether the NPM component of decentralization is being utilized by emergency managers in Mexico, it would ultimately have to be discovered if these emergency managers were “embracing participatory management” (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992, p. 20).

Only a few emergency managers interviewed believed that they could reasonably embrace true participatory management at this time, mainly because of Mexico’s strongly-
bureaucratized (and inflexible) emergency management system.

Directing

Directing involves the continuous task of emergency managers to make decisions embodied in specific and general orders given to subordinates, and serving as a leader of the enterprise. The mission of emergency management systems and emergency managers is to protect communities from threatened or actual threats, natural and/or man-made. They can do this by directing others to make sure that all activities are coordinated and integrated. Of the emergency managers interviewed, over 50% stated that they directed many of the activities in which their subordinates were involved. However, many of the responses also spoke to empowering these employees and others obliged to take their orders from these emergency managers, to handle tasks themselves without direct intervention by a superior (i.e., to the point where directing might only be used in those instances where truly necessary).

Effectiveness

A vast majority of emergency managers in Mexico interviewed for this study (30 of 35, 86%) expressed a need for a “new imperative” to increase professionalism among their ranks so that effectiveness could be improved. This improvement in effectiveness would result in reducing the incidences of disasters (e.g., mitigation) and better responses on the part emergency managers (e.g., response) and other approaches that avert or otherwise prevent risks. Ultimately, this imperative of effectiveness would ensure competition, expertise, and continuity in an organization’s operations. It was felt that this was the best way to quell the politics that still runs rampant in such a centralized system as Mexico’s.
Documentary data that helps to foment effectiveness pertains to the Law of the Professional Career Service in the Federal Public Administration. This system of service of career professionals (SPC, Sistema de Servicio Profesional de Carrera in Mexico), established in 2003, is a public policy which is key to the professionalization of public services. Through professionalism, and through strict adherence to the provisions of the public policy as stipulated emergency managers become more effective in their treatment of public hazards and disasters. This translates into a better offering of services to the citizenry. This system permits administration of human resources among the institutions subject to the Law of Professional Career Service and guarantees it entry, development and permanence into the Federal Public Administration in terms of merit and equality of opportunities; toward a showing of transparency and the rule of law (spc.gob.mx website).

Efficiency

According to at least 10 (28%) of the emergency managers interviewed, Mexico and other developing countries too often lack sufficient funds and material resources. This is the most important limiting factor for running efficient emergency management systems. Moreover, 15 (another 5 or 14% more than the 10 mentioned above) of the 35 emergency managers interviewed felt that the real problem is the lack of management expertise in the organization of the available funds and resources, and the lack of trained staff.

Empowering

Empowerment helps employees achieve continuous improvement and involves giving them responsibility for service activities so that they can make decisions or take action without a
supervisor, or anyone’s, prior approval. If employees are empowered, then the empowering managers and their empowered employees can take positive actions to achieve higher quality and performance.

Thus, empowering subordinates was a keen concern of interest among the emergency managers interviewed for this study. As a group, almost to a person, they wished to capacitate their subordinates and other pertinent emergency management personnel to enable them to accomplish increased administrative duties. Many (i.e., roughly over 50%) wished to develop expertise and specialization within the ranks, “to replace those who retire or die,” said one interviewee. For empowerment to take place, some emergency managers interviewed said that an incident command system was needed.

According to another emergency manager, employees (i.e., subordinates was a term also used) did not know what they were supposed to do in time of crisis, because of the lack of a strong emergency incident command system. This was a significant, albeit ironic, comment in view of the recognition by most of the emergency managers interviewed of Mexico’s emergency management system’s very bureaucratic nature. The overall lack of empowerment of subordinates, motivated yet another interviewee to volunteer that this was the reason (in his opinion) “why so many of his personnel were promoted based on federal labor law (i.e., seniority and patronage) rather than on that subordinate’s capacity to do the work – and do it well.”

The general consensus among informants was that Mexico’s centralized administrative governmental system did not lend itself well to empowering subordinates. If subordinates could not be empowered, then it was obvious that these emergency personnel could not “empower citizens by pushing control out of the bureaucracy, into the community” (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992, p. 19). There was general agreement among some of the informants that this situation
would have to change in the future if Mexico expected its emergency management system to progress forward well into better part of the 21st century. Apparently, this needs to ring true if Mexico is to embrace many of the new public management components to assist emergency managers in becoming more professional and, thus, more effective and responsible.

All in all, after further analysis of the interviews of emergency managers for this study, it has become perhaps more apparent that these emergency managers were discussing a “transfer of incident command” situation, which is actually what they desired, and this will be more completely explained appropriately in chapter 6, the Analysis and Implications section of this dissertation.

Another interviewee said without apparent fear of reprisals, “that the government historically had shown little or no ‘voluntad’ on things related to emergency management.” In other words, this respondent and several others agreed, said that political will on the part of Mexico’s upper echelon was either not present or at least did not show itself sufficiently enough.

Intergovernmental

The intergovernmental problems posited by the various emergency managers were very much based on a “place matters” emphasis. For example, in the Mexico City federal district the jurisdictions that were availed of any help were those closest to the inner-city facilities that are available to respond in times of crises. Several emergency managers interviewed in Mexico City recognized that this was a bigger issue than government officials wish the public to believe. These emergency managers were emphatic that this situation constituted a “big problem” because many areas not in close proximity to services or those with fewer inhabitants were just not served.
In Guadalajara, the emphasis was on a more state-wide dependence as the federal government resources are located far away to help avert disaster or for help to arrive on time when disaster strikes quickly and without warning (e.g., as with the 1992 gas explosion of devastating proportions in Guadalajara). Thus, even though there is some intergovernmental interdependence between regions and agencies located near Guadalajara, this city must mainly employ self-reliance in time of crisis. Guadalajara has grown in its capacity to handle disasters by “themselves,” and now relies more and more on their statewide capacities and expertise to respond to diverse emergency events. They are also well-capacitated to help neighboring states that are in close proximity, and “often do so”, according to one important high-ranking emergency management official in this city.

In Monterrey, located in the upper, northern, part of Mexico, still further from Mexico City than Guadalajara, local residents must mostly fend for themselves (i.e., a “fend-for-yourself” federalism) in times of disaster and not wait around for a federal response which may be too late to avert disaster in any event. Emergency managers in Monterrey agreed that they must do more to handle their particular problems (e.g., flooding, land-use predicaments, and other peculiar hazards experienced by this “fortified” mountainous area).

A majority (8 of the 10, 80%) emergency managers interviewed in Monterrey expressed dismay (dare I say anger) at the fact that governmental (i.e., bureaucratic) officials had allowed many people to build high up in various mountain areas, apparently oblivious to existing land-use and building code enforcement provisions that help reduce the risk of mudslides and other hazards that emanate from too much use of concrete and “deforestation.” Several alleged that
illegal kickbacks were paid to government officials to allow building on those mountains, which only served to exacerbate the anger exhibited against those who had violated land-use and building codes in the first place.

These are important aspects of intergovernmental cooperation between governmental entities and agencies, so much so that the Principles scholars stated as follows.

Efforts such as land-use planning, environmental management, building code enforcement, planning, training, and exercises are required and must emphasize vulnerability reduction and capacity building, not just compliance. Emergency management is progressive and not just reactive in orientation. (Principles, 2007, p. 6)

Management Emphasis

A management emphasis in NPM is necessary to hold a top person in charge of an organization accountable for what happens within that organization. There must be a clear assignment of responsibility for accountability to be determined, and diffusion of power does not operate to assist with this task. NPM has an inherent management emphasis which encourages action and which maintains a discretionary control of an organization from a named person at the top, “free to manage.”

The emergency managers interviewed for this study, while seemingly not so clear on the above propositions about new public management, were nonetheless keenly aware that their type of enterprise involved the important five phases of emergency management (prevention, mitigation, preparedness, response, and recovery). It is important to note that earlier in this dissertation only 4 phases (or approaches) were discussed. The reason for this is that agreement exists among some emergency management scholars that the “prevention” phase is part of mitigation. However, in Mexico and in other Latin American countries, “prevention” is often
mentioned by emergency managers as a primary objective to strive for and on which to educate citizens – children and adults alike. Mexican emergency managers have each recognized that these 5 phases assisted and guided them in making not only good decisions, but in making the right ones. This was the management emphasis with which they were familiar.

Organizing

As mentioned in chapter 3, organizing is the establishment of the formal structure of authority through which work subdivisions are arranged, defined and coordinated. Starling described organizing as “the grouping of activities necessary to attain a program’s objectives” (Starling, 2005, p. 316).

Of the 3 cities visited for this study, organizing was most prevalent in Mexico City. This was plainly evident in all the simulation exercises that were planned every year. These exercises are a form of organizing before a crisis occurs (i.e., part of the preparedness process). For example, before the earthquake of 1985 there were no simulations (simulacros) that emergency personnel and residents alike were supposed to take part in. Today, Mexico City’s emergency management system requires at least three simulacros per year. These are serious undertakings which are strenuously organized, but not always taken seriously by the general populace. Some may not agree, however, that an exercise is a form of organizing. Still, there is an attempt by emergency managers and other personnel to organize as many people to take part in them as possible. Yet, even with all the emphasis on simulacro exercises especially in Mexico City, all 15 (100%) of the Mexico City informants acknowledged that exercises are only a part of a larger range of organizing activities needed that allow emergency management personnel and the public to respond to and recover from emergencies.
The 15 Mexico City interviewees were well aware of the importance of each *simulacro*, the dates of the year each was to take place, and what was expected of them and their organization. In other words, directions seemed clear as to how to proceed before, during, and after these *simulacro* activities. Purportedly, this organizational activity would transfer positive results (i.e., in terms of lives saved and property damage minimized) at the time an actual disaster strikes. Thus, *simulacros* were highly publicized well in advance, and emergency managers knew about them and were busy getting the word out to virtually everyone.

The purpose of each *simulacro* was so that the public could be trained and organized on what to do in case of a disaster, where to take cover during a disaster, and to learn other pertinent information that might be important depending on the type of disaster each *simulacro* trained them for. However, it is worthy to note that only half of Mexico City’s interviewees agreed that these *simulacros* were effective or believed that they could really help during time of crises. One interviewee commented somewhat pessimistically that “we will not know the efficacy of said *simulacros* until another major earthquake (or other major catastrophe) strikes Mexico City again. Then, we will know for sure!” Perhaps some of this attitude can be attributed to the fatalism culture experienced by many Mexicans that was discussed earlier.

Interesting about the latter emergency manager’s comment (discussed in the last paragraph), is that it is in line with what one historian has noted about disasters in general.

it is much easier *after* the event to sort the relevant from the irrelevant signals. After the event, of course, a signal is always crystal clear; we can now see what disaster it was signaling since the disaster has occurred. But before the event it is obscure and pregnant with conflicting meanings (Gormley and Balla citing Wohlstetter, 2008, p. 180).

Outcomes

Osborne and Gaebler, following Savas (1987), looked inductively at how all levels of
government could best deliver services to their citizens and customers. Thus, this emphasis on outcomes was to form the basis of new public management (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992). These authors commented that entrepreneurial governments “measure the performance of their agencies, focusing not on inputs but on outcomes. They are driven by their goals – their missions – not by their rules and regulations” (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992, p. 19; italics in original). Thus, outcomes are related to goals. It has also been argued that outcomes could be explained as organizational structures and procedures which led to predictable behavior and political bargaining among top officials (Starling, 2005).

Among the emergency managers interviewed for this study, the majority agreed that their goals were driven by their rules and regulations. In this way, outcomes and goals seem somewhat synonymous. Yet, these emergency managers recognized that outcomes in Mexico were much dependent on how officials higher up in the government hierarchy determined (usually in advance) how disaster risks and management should be handled in the event of a disaster or a calamity.

Consensus among these public managers (i.e., roughly over 80%) was that they must achieve outcomes that will support an organization’s mission, and justify why the goals chosen to reach those outcomes were created in the first place.

Planning

One scholar has described planning as follows:

Planning must be viewed as a process that tests propositions (such as routines) about the most effective means of coping with social problems, reassessing and redefining both the problems and the components of development projects as more is learned about their complexities, and about the economic, social, and political factors affecting the outcome of a proposed course of action. Complex social experiments can be partially guided but never fully controlled; thus, institutional procedures must be flexible and incremental,
facilitating social interaction so that those groups most directly affected by the problem can search for and pursue mutually acceptable objectives (Rondinelli, 1993, p. 18).

Several interviewees responded to probing questions about planning. They answered that what is done as to planning is what people are used to. This is done to maintain some consistency and so as not to bring in too many innovations with which the populace may not be familiar. These answers conformed to Naomi Stolarski’s (i.e., formerly in the Coordination of Investigation and Integration of the Document of the Renovation of Popular Housing (RHP) program) statement in relation to the issue of planning: For example, what is done is what people are already used to, in order to gain their confidence (Inam, 2007).

Thus, 15 (43%) interviewees stated that innovations were not to be introduced during a crisis situation but only routines to which the populace and emergency managers were accustomed, in order to avoid confusion and so as not to add complexity to an already existent crisis situation.

As documentary data used to enforce the interview data on planning, the official evaluation and report of the RHP program in Mexico City was consulted. This report recognizes how useful institutional routines are in crisis situations, how crucial time is, and how critical it is “to have recourse to already tested tools, techniques, and technologies – such as institutional routines – that can be adapted to the specific conditions of place, time, and nature of crisis impact” (Inam, 2007, p. 181).

Privatizing Mexico, with regard to privatization appears to go the way of Drucker, its first advocate that more governance (related to NPM in the current study), not less, is needed. Drucker stated this argument as follows:
We do not face a “withering away of the state.” On the contrary, we need a vigorous, a strong, and a very active government. But we do face a choice between big but impotent government and a government that is strong because it confines itself to decision and direction and leaves the “doing” to others. [We need] a government that can and does govern. This is not a government that “does”; it is a not a government that “administers”; it is a government that govern. (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992, pp. 47-48; italics in original).

Seemingly, in Mexico, emergency managers (32 of 35 or 91%) are still content to have the government provide the resources and services that are needed for performance to take place. Until this mindset changes (which may be possible over time), privatizing of public services to the private sector does not seem forthcoming in the near future. Thus, it was obvious that, in Mexico, very few emergency managers use (yet alone seem to believe) that nongovernmental agencies or private enterprises should provide goods and services that were previously, or are now, provided by government.

Reporting

Emergency managers interviewed (i.e., all 35, 100%) were in agreement that they kept their subordinates apprised of present situations and changes and of the future situations and changes they were aware were forthcoming. In other words, these emergency managers were of the opinion that they reported to their subordinates by keeping them informed about what is (or is going to be) going on in their organization. They all emphasized that since they were responsible for their workers (i.e., subordinates and staff), they owed them a duty to report information about present and/or future contingencies.

Results

All emergency managers reported they felt that within their organization positive results
were obtained when it came to performance by their organization and its members. No hesitancy was ever expressed or connoted by demeanor of these emergency managers that anything other than results (being obtained) was the case, although no confirming evidence was forthcoming. Roughly, over 75% of the Mexico City informants admitted, however, that results on another earthquake of the magnitude of the one in 1985 would not be known until another earthquake of that magnitude occurs. Nonetheless, optimism was expressed that many changes have been made for the better since then, and that better results due to preventive measures towards a minimization of risks is expected.

Staffing

In this study, as a group, emergency managers wished to capacitate their subordinates, and other pertinent workers, and to enable them for increased administrative duties. Most (i.e., approximately ¾) wished to develop expertise and specialization within the ranks. To reiterate, one interviewee volunteered that this was (in his opinion) why so many of his personnel were promoted based on federal labor law (i.e., seniority and patronage) rather than on that subordinate’s capacity to do the work – and do it well.

From documentary data in Mexico, there is a new culture of change evident to professionalize public services consistent with the following (translated from Spanish): “Develop a professional government, capable of attracting and retaining the best women and the best men, to the ends of capacitating them and evaluating them permanently, so that they may act always responsibly and effectively toward the citizenry” (SPC Website).
Strategic Planning

Perhaps one of the most important characteristic of this set of components is that these managers do strategic planning, which according to Starling (2005) incorporates the entire set of decisions and actions to formulate and implement strategies to provide a good fit between the organization and its environment to achieve organizational goals.

In public administration, strategic planning remains a fundamental activity for public managers. It should remain ever-so in emergency management. Strategic planning is important so as to improve a program or an organization’s effectiveness, and contemplates questions such as “what can be done today to ensure that the desired future will be achieved?” or “what do we desire the future to look like?”

Unfortunately, a mere 12 of 35 (34%) emergency managers interviewed for this study gave strategic planning high marks. Few communicated that they often attempt to match organizational objectives to anticipated demands of the environment (i.e., their thinking is geared toward the future). These emergency managers seemed genuinely concerned to also match organizational capabilities (or capacities) to produce a plan of action (even plans of action was suggested) that will ensure achievement of organizational objectives.

Summary

To summarize, this chapter has served to report the findings of the study based on interviews of emergency managers informed by the interview questions (i.e., the interview script in Appendix A). Thus, all findings were obtained from the personal interviews conducted in the country of Mexico, and from documentary evidence that also helped to inform this study. According to Singleton and Straits (2004, p. 364), and to reiterate, “this form of analysis stresses
the accuracy and completeness of the *description* of unique, complex events.” Thus, documentary data corroborates the findings propounded by interview data obtained from the 35 emergency managers who participated in this study.

Thus, the findings below have led me to the following conclusions:

- It is evident that while many mechanisms are implemented among emergency managers in Mexico, much more can be done to improve professionalism. Emergency manager perceptions of professionalism in Mexico do not emulate the reality of the state of emergency management there that these findings bear out.

  With regard to new public management, these findings demonstrate that only some of the components are utilized (and to a lesser extent than the mechanisms), and many more NPM components could be integrated (and implemented) with emergency management professionalism mechanisms to improve emergency manager professionalism and effectiveness in Mexico. Moreover, emergency managers in Mexico must receive education and training on many of the new public management components (i.e., what they are and how they could work in Mexico).

Overall, these findings have supported all 3 propositions related to this study set forth in Chapter 1 of this dissertation:

- Proposition 1 (P1): To increase the degree of professionalism in Mexico, the practical adoption of mechanisms for professionalism should be encouraged.

- Proposition 2 (P2): To increase the degree of professionalism in Mexico, the practical adoption of new public management principles should be encouraged.
• Proposition 3 (P3): By integrating new public management principles with the mechanisms for emergency management, professionalism in Mexico should increase and, thus, emergency managers should become more effective.
CHAPTER 6
ANALYSIS AND IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

The intent of this chapter is to emphasize that the integration of NPM components with emergency management mechanisms should increase the degree of professionalism in Mexico. Moreover, this integration will also help inform how emergency management professionalism in Mexico will continue to be improved so that emergency managers can become more effective. Finally, the perceptions of professionalism in Mexico obtained from the 35 emergency managers interviewed for this study, adds a new public management perspective to emergency management mechanisms – “suggesting what might be and contributing to the cumulative work of science” (Singleton and Straits, 2005).

Analysis of Emergency Management Professionalism Mechanisms

Next, an analysis of the emergency management professionalism mechanisms was conducted and implications made (as ascertained from the findings in this study) with regard to emergency managers’ perceptions of emergency management professionalism in Mexico, and conclusions gathered whether emergency management mechanisms alone fully account for improved professionalism among emergency managers in Mexico.

Autonomy of Practice

There is a need in Mexico for emergency managers to be given more autonomy of practice. The Mexican government’s centralized structure is so bureaucratic (i.e., rules-bound and authority-driven) that emergency managers are restricted from managing freely. In the past,
the limited autonomy has been due to the strong political nature of disaster situations (Wilson, 2000). This system, in effect, impedes progress. Thus, autonomy of practice is an area which calls for definite improvement in Mexico that should be worked on in the immediate future.

Board Certification

Mexican emergency managers possess too few certifications. Therefore, the country of Mexico, through its government officials, must do more in the future to ensure that emergency managers acquire necessary board certifications, national, state and international, to demonstrate professionalism and, thus, improve emergency management effectiveness in this nation. Efforts now ongoing to increase international emergency management certification by many emergency managers must continue and accelerate, for change to come quickly to Mexico, especially since this type of certification has been more prevalent to demonstrate professionalism in emergency management.

Code of Ethics

Codes of ethics are not prevalent in Mexico. It was apparent that it has been especially difficult for emergency managers to come together and adopt an ethical code to guide the behavior of their members. This is probably due to the reason that these managers as a group have not been shown to be very homogeneous. This is true in Mexico, as emergency managers have typically come from many occupations and walks of life. It has also been difficult for uniformity and consensus to exist among such a wide and diverse group of people as Mexican emergency managers.
Yet, emergency managers must be more aware of the existence of codes of ethics and attempt to incorporate the tenets contained within these codes, both in practice and in theory. Emergency managers in Mexico should also incorporate public administration ideas propounded by Stillman that “a well-developed occupation, has an ethos that acts to shape the values and behavior of members” (1996, p.464). Any negative implications that codes of ethics may have for Mexican emergency managers should be dispelled through an education campaign as soon as possible.

Compromise

Emergency managers in Mexico must continue to compromise for the greater good of the community, which helps increase professionalism and effectiveness in this country. Mexican emergency managers must be allowed the flexibility to use creative and innovative approaches in solving disaster challenges. They must more frequently and more ably persuade others to consider variations in tactics or procedures that help others adapt quickly to rapidly changing and frequently unclear situations.

Continuous Improvement

Continuous improvement was found prevalent as a mechanism strived for among the emergency managers interviewed for this study. Yet, this emergency management mechanism (and new public management component) can still be improved. Especially pertinent for improvement to take place is an emphasis on the last stage of the public policy process: evaluation and review. While the formulation and implementation stages, which are complex, may yet need further consideration among emergency managers in Mexico, they would do well
to continue to ensure thoroughness through the meeting of goals that can assist emergency managers with their effectiveness. This could be accomplished through regular and further evaluations and reviews.

Coordination

Many of the emergency managers interviewed for this study were in agreement about coordination efforts in Mexico. That is, that there must be better coordination of activities among emergency managers by integrating the activities of a lot of people and organizations. The first law “Ley de Proteccion Civil” of 1996, discussed in the findings of this study, represents a good start. However, while the findings of this study confirm that emergency managers are trying to coordinate activities between them for more substantial results, and that they are doing a better job of it, there is still room for improvement and this is a crucial area for emergency management personnel to address and work on in the future. Seemingly well understood by Mexico emergency managers, however, were words such as those stated by Haddow and Bullock: “Successful coordination and cooperation can lead to great success and many lives saved, but infighting, turf battles, and nonparticipation can lead to confusion and even cause a second disaster” (2006, p. 221).

Drabek (1991) stated that emergency managers coordinate the activities of local, state, federal or national agencies and organizations to employ those principles and techniques of disasters. After all, in the final analysis, emergency managers must be professionals dedicated to the protection of citizens and communities impacted by disasters (Drabek, 2004). To reiterate, emergency managers coordinate the activities of a lot of people and organizations in the community (Drabek, 1987). Thus, professionalism will improve and emergency managers in
Mexico will become more effective when NPM components continue being integrated with EM mechanisms.

Education and Training

Emergency managers in Mexico are continuing their education and training. However, there are still gaps between those who are diligently accumulating more hours of education and training and those who are not motivated, or otherwise unable to do so. For example, the Mexican government can do more to help emergency managers pay for these courses and training, as this study also found that there are too many emergency managers who have to pay their own way for these courses, as well as for trips to and from training conferences. Virtually all emergency managers who were interviewed said they were not paid sufficiently to cover the costly expenses related to continuing education and training.

Facilitator

Emergency managers must continue to facilitate processes among and within themselves to improve emergency management professionalism in all of Mexico, to help produce more effective emergency managers for the 21st century. They must facilitate all types of processes and behavioral approaches so that everyone who participates in the emergency management system can do the job through improved professionalism and increased effectiveness.

In this study, too many emergency managers were found to state that their work as a facilitator needed to improve so that could truly help make things happen (but especially so each person within the organization knows what is needed to get done). Thus, Mexican emergency managers need more education and training on just what it takes to become a good facilitator,
and this is recommended so that facilitators may continue to make things happen and each person within the organization knows what is needed to get done.

Integration

Indeed, (in Mexico), the integration of activities and persons of very diverse, highly specialized competence are required (Bennis 2004). According to Drabek (1987), emergency managers integrate the activities of a lot of people and organizations in the community. In Mexico, this must continue being the case. Plans at all levels of government must be integrated with and support the community’s vision and be consistent with its values. Thus, for integration to exist, the interdependence quality between all levels of government was recognized by emergency managers as needing to exist. The findings in this study bear out that for the emergency manager informants all levels of government are important and need to be integrated for professionalism and effectiveness to prosper. This is so even though many of the informants recognized that the local level of government deserved special emphasis (purportedly because this level is so close to citizens who are many times truly the “first responders”).

Intergovernmental

Vertical fragmentation appears somewhat of problem in Mexico. This phenomenon “occurs when federal, state, and local officials fail to coordinate [i.e., one of the ways IGR relationships between levels of government are formed and continue to interact with one another] their respective actions with one another” (Sylves, 2008, p. 13). The interview answers for this study made it evident that federal officials act independently and are somewhat ambivalent with regard to state and local levels of government. Conversely, states and local governments have
often acted on their own without waiting for a federal response of any kind especially when
distances between the affected area and Mexico City are great.

Mexican emergency managers must be ever-vigilant to the over-centralization of federal
level decision making. However, even though states and local governments should intend to
effectuate their own authority and autonomy, they must not continue ambiguous to the benefits
(e.g., funding and other assistance) which may be available from the national government and
should avail themselves of such help when necessary.

Mediators

Mediation took place only among a few of the emergency manager informants for this
study. More must be done in Mexico to involve other emergency managers who only take a
“hands-off” policy and even others who are otherwise ambivalent. The benefit for mediation
should be explored and can be enhanced through education and more training for these
emergency managers.

Thus, emergency managers must continue to mediate differences among and within
themselves, and with divergent stakeholders and stakeholders’ interests, to improve emergency
management professionalism in all of Mexico and to help produce more effective emergency
managers. Examples where mediation may be useful are where employees, subordinates and
personnel cannot (or do not) distinguish between differences in their roles or duties from one
another or where disputes exist between parties as to where (and on what) money can and should
be spent.
Membership in Professional Associations

Emergency managers have been either reluctant or unable to enter into many memberships in professional associations. Mexico has just begun to take an interest in the international association, and only a few emergency managers interviewed had taken an interest or begun the process to become a member. Thus, much more can be done in this area, and this is something that should be worked on right away.

Outcomes

Emergency managers in Mexico demonstrated a willingness and ability to work with others to obtain outcomes. For example, many expect better outcomes in the face of impending dangers, certainly better than those obtained in years past (e.g., with the 1985 Mexico City earthquake). Outcomes are crucial in emergency management and must continue to be pursued for emergency managers to attain a greater degree of professionalism and for them to become more effective.

Planning

The findings in this study reveal that planning must be more definitively set forth by emergency managers and emergency management personnel, and more concrete examples of planning must be forthcoming as well. Specifics are needed, and emergency managers must realize that, because of more frequent and intense disasters, gone are the days for generalities such as were given for this study (e.g., “we plan…,” etc.).

Planning for more frequent and intense disasters in Mexico for the 21st century is a must. Disaster policy in Mexico is implemented through planning activities that must begin way in
advance of an impending catastrophic event, and continue during and after, as “Planning work in
disaster policy is never finished” (Sylves, 2008, p. 218). This is true in every nation, and Mexico
is not excluded.

Reconcile

Drabek (1987) acknowledged that emergency managers know how to reconcile
differences for the greater good of the community. However, the problem in Mexico, like
perhaps in many other countries, is that emergency managers just do not do it, or not to any great
extent. Thus, emergency managers in Mexico reconcile differences (e.g., through counseling,
advice, etc.) for the greater good of the community, which helps increase professionalism and
effectiveness in this country. They must also recognize that when problems are left to fester, this
only serves to exacerbate problems which may only help to defeat professionalism and
subsequent demonstrations of effectiveness.

Results

As implied in McEntire’s (Section 10) study, emergency managers in Mexico
demonstrated willingness and an ability to work with others to get results. This should continue
as now is the time in Mexico for results to triumph over rules. Performance of plans is a must,
and emergency managers must continue to ensure that they and their supporting staff obtain
results on previously planned contingencies.

Science and Knowledge-Based

Mexico has made great strides to enhance its science and knowledge-base emergency
management system. For example, CENAPRED was inaugurated in 1990 and is located at the scientific-rich and prestigious Mexico City national university known as Universidad Nacional Autonoma de Mexico (UNAM). CENAPRED, which was decreed by legal mandate, has as its objective the promotion of professional capacity and technical training in materials and to disperse methods of preparation and self protection to those among the Mexican society most vulnerable to disasters. Mexico’s CENAPRED has gone a long way to establish Mexico’s very competent technical and scientific community of experts (and materials). Nonetheless, efforts ongoing to improve these aspects of the emergency management system in this country must continue, and funds provided by the government, for essential progress to continue.

COMESCO, Consejo Mexicano de Ciencias Sociales (Mexican Council of Social Sciences), is another group formed in Mexico in 1990, designed for policymakers to be able to make decisions based on more reliable and competent information provided by experts.

In sum, emergency managers in Mexico should continue to rely on a science and knowledge-base discipline for many aspects of their emergency management system.

Specialized Knowledge

As has been discussed in this study, an emergency manager displays specialized job knowledge. For instance, Drabek (1987) acknowledged that emergency managers are aware of current and pending legislation, they have familiarity with regulations, and also a working knowledge of federal, tribal, state, and local agencies associated with emergency management. Thus, specialized knowledge (separate and apart from scientific and technical knowledge) is also required of all emergency managers. Mexican emergency managers should continue to increase their specialized knowledge to improve their professionalism and, thus, their effectiveness in
dealing with impending natural and man-made hazards that are sure to become more intense and more frequent.

Standards and Best Practices

Professionalism is comparable to, and is the essence of standards and good practices and outcomes related to mitigation and preparedness, response, and recovery that help emergency managers become more professional. These characteristics of professionalism further enable the emergency manager to fulfill his or her responsibilities more effectively. In Mexico, emergency managers have begun to improve professionalism through standards and best practices (e.g., some procedures and processes such as “simulacros” and other training essentials, etc.). However, more can be done. By continuing to improve in this regard, and by adding this and other NPM components to EM professionalism mechanisms, professionalism can and will improve and, thus, also effectiveness.

Stewardship

Emergency managers in Mexico have not always managed well when it comes to hazards and disasters. In the future, emergency managers, key stewards of the emergency management system in virtually every country, must be held to a high standard of responsibility “in whole or in part for disaster mitigation, preparedness, response, and recovery within his or her government jurisdiction or organization” (Sylves, 2008, p. 267). Mexican emergency managers must continue being good stewards in all aspects of the emergency management system, in order to save lives and minimize other losses which occur from disasters, hazards, and calamities.
Tenacity

Emergency managers in Mexico have shown great tenacity for getting the job done. This has been true even while resources and funding for doing so have been limited or otherwise nonexistent. Yet, all emergency managers must continue to demonstrate their tenacious spirit (e.g., by promoting improvements related to professionalism) all of the time – not have just a select few of them who are mostly self-motivated and more prone to doing so.

Tenacity is an area where all emergency managers in Mexico can do better, and the government can help to assist with the necessary implements and materials for emergency managers exhibit more professionalism in order to become more effective. Drabek’s idea was not just to get the job done, but also to do it well. He further mentioned, which is significant, that an emergency managers’ determination to get the job done despite obstacles can contribute to their success (Drabek 1987).

In sum, emergency managers in Mexico must continue to implement the many mechanisms of emergency management to help improve professionalism and for emergency managers to become more effective. Yet, as these mechanisms are not sufficient to accomplish these purposes, new public management theory has been incorporated into this study.

Analysis of New Public Management Components

Next, each of the new public management components are analyzed. This is done in the quest to improve emergency management professionalism in Mexico. This analysis also validates the assumption of this study that by integrating new public management components with emergency management professionalism mechanisms, professionalism in Mexico will improve and emergency managers will become more effective.
Budgeting

Budget matters must continue to improve in Mexico. However, it should be recognized yet again that emergency managers only have some limited control over this particular “function of the executive,” as many of the funds for emergency management in the country of Mexico emanate from higher leadership and power sources within their centralized hierarchy of authority. Even so, cognizance should be taken that the emergency managers cannot (and do not) control what is allocated since funds emanate from the higher authorities in the government.

Collaboration

The collaboration process among emergency managers in Mexico needs improvement because no longer can Mexico count on a strict rules-bounded Command and Control approach. The time is now for Mexican emergency managers to employ bottom-up, non-hierarchical, non-authoritative, post-bureaucratic measures that are non-regimented and non-formalistic. Clearly, for Mexico’s emergency management system to improve through more collaborative efforts (i.e., where everyone brings something to the table), the benefits of doing so should far outweigh the costs. In this country, it is evident that they do.

Thus, collaborative efforts among emergency managers can be integrated with emergency management professionalism mechanisms such as coordination and intergovernmental relations, for example, to help improve professionalism among emergency managers in Mexico. Collaboration may also aid to facilitate communication, and bring about more cooperation between different individuals and organizational sectors within the emergency management system in Mexico. In sum, the collaboration processes essential to effective
emergency management can only be maintained when information is shared and all shareholders are involved in decision making.

Competition

Competition is an area where it is apparent that much more work is needed in Mexico. Emergency managers must seek to understand what is at stake and enlist market and other private sector experts (e.g., entrepreneurs, contract specialists, etc.) to teach them what benefits might be forthcoming from this tactic. Emergency managers must allay their fears, at least their perceptions, that competition and market-driven forces have produced cities and systems that are dysfunctional if not anarchic and unequal (Puente 1999). They must learn that cohesion (e.g., what emergency managers in Mexico desired) and competition (e.g., what emergency managers in Mexico did not desire) can co-exist (e.g., through mutual understanding and cooperation), and that they are not necessarily mutually exclusive concepts.

Competition is a new public management component that Mexican emergency managers can, and should learn more about (i.e., by being shown how competition can, and will, benefit their organizations), to determine if this component should be integrated with emergency management professionalism mechanisms to improve professionalism among emergency managers in Mexico, and help them to become more effective.

Continuous Improvement

Mexican emergency managers can stand to upgrade their continuous improvement capacity so that incremental increases can turn into greater improvement, and success can be achieved. Continuous improvement is ever-necessary in Mexico and other developing countries.
With continuous improvement, the following scenario can hopefully be averted. For example, in the 1985 Mexico City earthquake some hospitals did not escape the disaster. Much damage occurred to hospital and other medical facilities and, worse yet, medical and technical experts perished leaving the center of Mexico City without much needed medical assistance in the early periods of this devastating disaster. Continuous improvement efforts on the part of emergency managers in Mexico would save lives and minimize costly property damage.

Contracting Out

Only a handful of emergency managers showed an interest in contracting services to the private or non-profit sectors. Contracting Out is an area that more emergency managers should look into, and costs-benefits analyses made to determine the efficacy of such endeavors, in order to free up emergency workers to better do their own jobs. Thus, emergency managers in Mexico should be educated and trained on the benefits related to contracting out. If there are positive outcomes from contracting out, this component should be implemented by emergency managers. If not, then emergency managers would be justified not to implement this contracting out component of new public management.

Coordinating

Coordinating is a new public management component that has been incorporated with emergency management professionalism mechanism (e.g., coordination), but could be used more. For example, in the past plans were not in place to develop processes for mobilizing, utilizing and demobilizing volunteer response and relief efforts. Some helpful suggestions for
how coordinating (the NPM component) can assist with emergency management professionalism, is for emergency managers to consider the following:

- Match volunteers to the needs of the particular crisis
- Determine in advance to use volunteers in the response and relief effort
- Arrange in advance for volunteers’ health and safety needs
- Foment an understanding among emergency managers that volunteers will show up at a disaster whether asked to or not (web search of coordination definition)

In sum, instead of looking at individual volunteers or volunteer groups as a “disaster within a disaster,” emergency managers can resolve to employ their services because, in the final analysis, volunteers’ sheer numbers may help alleviate with the work involved in a huge disaster, especially if the coordination process is done prudently.

Decentralization

Decentralization or a flattening of the organizational hierarchy is needed in Mexico to encourage more participation and teamwork among employees. According to Kaufman, decentralization “is more frequently justified in terms of effective popular participation in government” (Shafritz, Hyde, and Parkes, 2004, p. 289).

From the findings obtained in this study, Mexico’s emergency management system is too centralized and should be decentralized. Decentralization as prescribed by the new public management is something that emergency managers must promote for these managers to become more professional and, thus, more effective. Also, more participation and teamwork efforts should be incorporated into Mexico’s emergency management system. Finally, the organization should try to meet more stakeholders’ needs rather those of the bureaucracy. Decentralization allows flexibility to exist especially during those times when it may be most necessary.
Directing

According to Osborne and Gaebler (1992), to direct is to steer more and row less. What this means simply is that the government, or in our specific case, emergency managers, can serve as a catalyst directing activities more than running programs. Emergency managers in Mexico felt they should be relieved of the obligation to direct their subordinates, as they had tendencies to empower them more. Nonetheless, this new public management component would be well worth extending further in Mexico as directing activities is still of much importance in Mexico. Thus, directing of subordinates should continue, until such time that subordinates and other emergency management personnel can demonstrate time and again that there is little or no need for it any longer.

Effectiveness

Wilson (2000) posits that as disasters continue to threaten our society, the importance of emergency management and its degree of effectiveness will be increasingly evident. Effectiveness is determined according to outcome measurement. The findings of this dissertation study make it imperative that emergency managers in Mexico continue to improve their effectiveness (e.g., through results and/or outcome orientations) that occur by increasing emergency management professionalism. This study has advocated that new public management components integrated with emergency management professionalism mechanisms can help achieve this goal.

Efficiency

Emergency managers in Mexico seem to be working at close to maximum efficiency in
some areas. While most emergency managers interviewed agreed that they could use more resources including more funds to do their jobs, generally there was a minimum amount of inputs being employed for a maximum of outputs produced. Thus, as for efficiency, there is little need to improve it at this time.

Even so, it probably would be beneficial for emergency managers in Mexico when integrating components of the new public management, more specifically, efficiency, to heed the words of Williams and Young: “To achieve efficiency in the public services, is to encourage competition and markets; privatize public enterprise; reform the civil service; by reducing over-staffing; introduce budgetary discipline; decentralize administration; and make greater use of non-governmental organizations” (1994, p. 87).

Empowering

Emergency managers in Mexico are empowered to a point, due to the strict bureaucratic nature of Mexico’s political system. They would like more empowerment, so that they, in turn, might be able to empower their subordinates and delegate greater authority to them. Mexican emergency managers recognize that Mexico’s organizational structure which was created to deal with disasters exhibits a highly bureaucratic system based on an organizational chart all the way up to the President of the Republic. The Mexican President is the central figure with ultimate decision making authority on all matters of prevention and response disaster strategy in Mexico. There are many departments within the hierarchy, and it is clear that many leaders exist.

However, lower-level emergency managers desire and need the autonomy to make on-the-spot decisions when necessary and to delegate authority as needed to competent and well-meaning subordinates and other personnel. They should not be blamed or judged harshly when
they have taken reasonable measures to avert disaster, especially when there has been no time to alert authorities in higher positions of authority. Most times, it is just not feasible to do so.

Thus, the Mexican government should empower its emergency managers to act in the public interest when action is required and when it is feasible for emergency managers to do so, and to enable them to empower their subordinates and emergency personnel to reach goals called for in the Mexican emergency management system’s vision and mission to assist its citizenry.

Intergovernmental

As disaster policy and emergency management involve intergovernmental relationships between different layers of government, Mexican emergency managers across these layers of government must avail themselves of interactions and to the benefits which accrue from the exchange public and even private organizations provide. Social and political interdependence throughout Mexico demands that emergency managers and other emergency personnel network with other such professionals at different levels of government to help increase professionalism, albeit with support and regulation of government, which would inevitably help them produce more effective results.

Management Emphasis

The management emphasis of new public management makes a shift to this post-bureaucratic paradigm essential (e.g., the onus is on emergency managers not only to make good decisions but the right ones) because it involves a bottom-up approach, decentralization of power, and customer-driven/citizen participation and, for this study, helps improve professionalism and, thus, enables emergency managers to become more effective. Thus, what is
needed is not a “top-down” system as are found in more centralized bureaucratic environments but rather the integration and application of NPM components with emergency management professionalism mechanisms as this study proposes.

This would likely give more flexibility and other positive features to an otherwise fairly static and highly-controlled Mexican emergency management system. Flexibility is a benefit in an era such as today when nations face new and unforeseen threats from a plethora of sources. A customer-driven government [might be tried in Mexico as it] is superior to bureaucratic government, and allows for advantages pertaining to greater accountability, greater innovation, possibly generating more service choices, not to mention less waste (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992). This is in line with what NPM proponent Kettl espoused when he said that NPM reform sought to replace traditional rule-based, authority-driven processes with market-base, competition-drive tactics (Kettl, 2005).

Finally, with respect to this new public management component, emergency managers would do well to heed Pollitt’s (1990) words: to perform the management role, managers need “room to maneuver.” By room to maneuver, he meant the “right to manage.”

Organizing

Organizing is needed in Mexico so as to bring about more professionalism and, thus, effectiveness for emergency managers. Osborne and Gaebler’s (1992) reinventing government movement encourages and promotes competition in service delivery. This component of NPM, while seemingly existent now in Mexico, can continue to be fostered to create professionalism and effectiveness among emergency managers in this country. An organized emergency
management force in Mexico would be instrumental for improved professionalism among emergency managers and lead them to become more effective.

Outcomes

Mexico’s system of emergency management is interested in outcomes, although more can and should be done to ensure that outcomes are forthcoming as per pre-existing goals of the organization set in advance. Outcomes are determined by the quality of that output (i.e., how well did it achieve the desired outcome?). For example, with the newly-developed simulation exercises in Mexico City, outcomes could be measured by the number of lives saved and the property damage minimized in the event of a real disaster.

Planning

Mexico’s emergency management organizations must continue to display vertical or horizontal planning. The lack of planning such as existed during the 1985 Mexico City earthquake only wrought confusion and virtual chaos for at least the first 3 days of that particular disaster. During such times, one may rarely know who is in charge or who should be in charge. Planning in 2010, and beyond, will require emergency managers to continue these efforts both intra-organizationally and inter-organizationally. Thus, a comprehensive plan of action must be developed, the plan must be implemented, and emergency managers must continue to monitor and evaluate (on an ongoing basis) the plan’s effectiveness.

Mexican emergency managers were anticipatory in their analysis of their emergency management system. In other words, their concern was with preventing problems rather than merely curing them. This is in line with the reinventing government movement proposed by
Osborne and Gaebler (1992). Thus, integrating NPM components with EM professionalism mechanisms to improve professionalism would help prevent problems in Mexico rather than just curing them. This integration of components and mechanisms would improve the professionalism of emergency managers in Mexico and help to bring about more effectiveness.

Privatizing

Emergency managers should find instances where privatizing of services might be more productive for their organizations. Far too little privatizing was employed by the emergency managers interviewed for this study, and they should look into increasing the opportunities for doing so, when the benefits for doing so far exceed the cost involved. Thus, more education and training is needed for emergency managers to learn specifically how privatizing helps or hurts their organization.

Reporting

The findings in this study related to reporting stated that all 35 emergency manager informants kept their subordinates and other emergency management personnel apprised of what is happening. It is clear, however, that yet more reporting of results is necessary in Mexico. It seems somewhat disingenuous of these emergency managers to say that they have a perfect record where reporting is concerned, yet not seemingly as productive in other areas. Thus, emergency managers must continue to apprise their staff of where they stand professionally and whether they have become more effective. Reporting must be coordinated to avoid duplication of efforts. While redundancy in public administration in general may be a good thing, too much
redundancy in reporting may be wasteful and unproductive. Reporting can assist the government and all emergency managers and personnel in Mexico to know how to continue to educate the citizenry of the country and help reduce perceptions and behaviors that in the past have allowed for less than effective outcomes.

Thus, these professionals may be better able to prevent or reduce risks and reduce peoples’ vulnerabilities to disaster. They may possibly be able to avert many disaster losses when it comes to saving lives and minimizing property damages. All of these suggestions can help to foment a discussion (and to create a culture) in Mexico about what can truly be called Mexican emergency management professionalism, not just mere talk about emergency or risk management.

Results

Results and outcomes are related. However, there are differences. To be results-oriented, then, is to be concerned more with outputs and less with inputs or resources used. It also means stressing overall goals while minimizing rules and requirements, and adhering to values of a mission-driven organization. Mexico’s emergency management system is interested in results (i.e., performance). These would be more available and forthcoming if stakeholders were allowed to participate more and if teamwork efforts were more noticeable.

However, the findings for this study demonstrate that emergency manager informants were always positive about the results their particular organizations obtain. However, it is not difficult to see how these hopeful expectations may turn sour if results are not much improved in the event of another earthquake of the severity of 1985 or another serious disaster. For results to
occur more readily, the organization should meet the needs of stakeholders. This new public management component would definitely help enhance professionalism among Mexico’s emergency management ranks, and also help promote the effectiveness of these emergency managers.

Staffing

There are still many questions emergency managers must answer when it comes to staffing. However, with emphasis as shown in the findings of this study on developing expertise and specialization within their ranks emergency managers are on the right track. These skills will do much to help emergency management personnel to do their jobs, but more than that, it will equip them to act responsibly and effectively. This strengthens the whole organization and helps provide improved professionalism to emergency managers themselves, and increases their overall effectiveness.

Strategic Planning

More strategic planning is needed among emergency managers in Mexico. The findings of this research bear out the importance of this “process that helps organizations be responsive to the dynamic, changing environment of today’s emergency management milieu” (Sturgis in Pinkowski, 2008, p. 572).

Thus, emergency managers in Mexico must continue to develop strategic plans (i.e., that incorporate future technologies and technical assistance) that translate into goals, objectives, and measures that can be tracked and emphasized. In Mexico, as in many other places, the strategic planning process involves several complex steps that take into consideration many constituents
and circumstances for current and future organizational decision making. However, emergency managers must keep their focus mostly on the future as this aspect is inherent in what it means to be a strategic planner.

Sturgis is correct about strategic planning when he states: “It is important when developing a strategic planning process for emergency management that specific items are taken into consideration to necessitate the argument for funding and the ability to show proven success” (Sturgis in Pinkowski, 2008, 572).

Discussion

The chapter’s intent was to describe how the field of emergency management and, especially, practitioner emergency managers, may need to rely upon both emergency management professionalism mechanisms and new public management principles to improve professionalism and, thus, become more effective and responsible. This was accomplished through an integration of 21 new public management values (discussed in chapter 3) with the 21 professionalism mechanisms (discussed in chapter 2), that have been devised and developed from the extant literatures in each field. Table 6.1 presents only a list of the two frameworks (i.e., EM professionalism mechanisms and new public management components) for those new public management components that are already being implemented in emergency management practice, as found in both fields’ literatures.

Some overlap (i.e., duplication or redundancy), allowed and promoted in the public administration field, exists between the components on the right column and mechanisms on the left column, as some components of new public management are already being implemented by emergency management personnel in developing emergency management professionalism.
through the various mechanisms. Similarly, some other components (i.e., values), for example, those not shown in Table 6.1, are possibly being under-used or are not being implemented at all in some cases. Some implications for emergency management professionalism are discussed in the final chapter of this study.

Table 6.1

*Some EM Professionalism Mechanisms and NPM Components Implemented*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EM Professionalism Mechanisms</th>
<th>NPM Components</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Continuous Improvement</td>
<td>Continuous Improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordination</td>
<td>Coordinating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intergovernmental</td>
<td>Intergovernmental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td>Results</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.2 provides a list of how strongly, moderately, or weakly each of the mechanisms and components are being implemented in Mexico as derived from the findings of this study.

Table 6.2

*Implementation: EM Professionalism Mechanisms and NPM Components*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EM Professionalism Mechanisms</th>
<th>Strong</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Weak</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy of Practice</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Board Certification</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Code of Ethics</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Compromise</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous Improvement</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordination</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Training</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitators</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integration</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intergovernmental</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mediators</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Membership in Professional Association</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*(table continues)*
Table 6.2 (continued).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EM Mechanisms</th>
<th>Strong</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Weak</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Outcomes</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reconcile</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science and knowledge-base</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialized knowledge</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Standards and best practices</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Stewardship</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tenacity</td>
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<td>X</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NPM Components</th>
<th>Strong</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Weak</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Budgeting</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Competition</td>
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<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous Improvement</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Contracting Out</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coordinating</td>
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<tr>
<td>Decentralization</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Directing</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<td>Effectiveness</td>
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<tr>
<td>Efficiency</td>
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<tr>
<td>Empowering</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intergovernmental</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Management emphasis</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Organizing</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Outcomes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
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<td>Privatizing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reporting</td>
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<tr>
<td>Results</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Staffing</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Strategic Planning</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Summary

This study demonstrates that emergency management mechanisms alone have not fully accounted for improved professionalism among emergency managers in Mexico. For example, when informants answered the questions (a) “On a scale of 1 (being the lowest) and 10 (being the highest), what is the level of professionalism in your particular organization?” and (b) “What is the level of professionalism of emergency managers in your country?” -- 30 out of 35 (86%) perceived their organization and emergency managers between a 6 and an 8 (on average). Informants rated their own organizations or agencies slightly higher (i.e., usually 1 point higher) than the rating that was given to emergency management professionalism nationwide. Only 3 of the 35 (9%) informants said that 9 (very high) was the level of professionalism for both their organization and emergency managers in Mexico. Only 2 of the 35 (6%) informants said that a 2 (very low) was the level of professionalism in both their organizations and of emergency managers in their country of Mexico. Thus, based on the findings and the analyses of this study, which were obtained from perceptions of professionalism from 35 emergency managers in Mexico, it is evident that Mexico’s degree of professionalism (on scale of 1-10) stands closer to a 6.

Finally, this scale, along with other answers elicited from the interviewees in this study, add credence to the argument adduced for NPM components’ integration with EM professionalism mechanisms to improve professionalism among emergency managers in Mexico and, thus, their effectiveness for getting the job done.
CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

This concluding chapter summarizes the purpose of this dissertation, to reiterate main contributions to the emergency management and public administration literatures, general contributions, the weakness of the study, recommendations for further research, and final comments.

The purpose of this dissertation was three-fold:

1. To examine perceptions of the degree of professionalism among emergency managers in Mexico and how it can be improved.

2. To examine whether emergency managers in Mexico incorporate the mechanisms of professionalism as described by emergency management scholars.

3. To examine whether emergency managers in Mexico incorporate the principles of new public management (NPM) as described by public administration scholars.

Before reviewing this study’s general contributions, it is perhaps fitting to state what this dissertation has accomplished by its two main contributions to the literature:

1. To propose a list of 21 mechanisms (taken from various scholars’ “short lists”) as a theoretical standard of emergency management used to measure professionalism in Mexico (or in any other country). This list is now available in one place for easy access by all who would wish to benefit from the framework.

2. To propose that new public management theory be integrated with professionalism mechanisms to improve emergency management professionalism in Mexico, so that emergency managers may become more effective and responsible.

Contributions of the Study

This study determined the degree of emergency management professionalism in Mexico through the perceptions of 35 emergency managers in Mexico City, Guadalajara, and Monterrey (the three largest cities in Mexico), and how some emergency managers were using emergency management professionalism mechanisms to improve professionalism. It also suggested how
professionalism in Mexico could be further improved by the incorporation of new public management components with emergency management professionalism mechanisms.

Several practical benefits were demonstrated as to why this study was needed. Academics and practitioners alike are now more likely to understand the benefits of professionalism, which leads to greater effectiveness through better planning, collaborating, and coordinating, etc., of efforts among all relevant emergency managers before, during, and after a disaster strikes. Thus, emergency managers can gain improved professionalism in order to handle impending dangers more effectively. This may prove productive when carrying out emergency management. To reiterate briefly, the study of emergency management professionalism in Mexico is an important and major undertaking to improve emergency management not only in Mexico, but around the world.

Moreover, this study should also help to improve emergency management professionalism in Mexico through possible implementation and practice of the many mechanisms of professionalism. As shown in this study (e.g., by answering the primary question of this study that the degree of professionalism among emergency managers in Mexico is at a 6), the professionalism mechanisms studied have not been substantially sufficient to bring about the necessary professionalism needed for greater emergency manager effectiveness and responsibility in Mexico. Thus, the additional contribution of this study (i.e., an integration of NPM components with EM professionalism mechanisms) was investigated and constitutes a major contribution to the discussion on how professionalism in Mexico may realistically be improved.

Specifically, with respect to this important contribution of the study, inquiry was made as to how emergency managers can become even more professional through an integration of the
principles of new public management to the field of emergency management professionalism and on the mechanisms themselves. In the past, most emergency managers have not always known how to accomplish what is needed, especially in times of crises and in instances where a lack of professionalism has been particularly evident. This study has helped inform this process by demonstrating that by incorporating new public management components with emergency management professionalism mechanisms, professionalism in Mexico can be improved and, thus, emergency managers may become more effective.

Therefore, principles of new public management which over the years have tended to influence efficiency were integrated with the many mechanisms of professionalism to help determine how emergency managers in Mexico can become more professional and, thus, more effective and responsible. Recommendations have now been made possible as to whether any of these principles are helping inform emergency management as a field (and which others should help more), to assist emergency managers to become more effective and responsible practitioners in Mexico for the foreseeable future.

Recommendations for Further Research

The current study has demonstrated that the country of Mexico holds great promise for improvements to its emergency management system. But the political will must be forthcoming, and government officials and others must help emergency managers in Mexico (i.e., with moral, political, and financial support) reach their goals. However, this study has shown that since 1985 (i.e., when Mexico did not perform well in the earthquake) some changes toward professionalism have been made, yet much can still be done. This study has described professionalism in Mexico today. It has strongly been suggested that Mexico integrate (i.e., implement) NPM components
with EM professionalism mechanisms to improve professionalism and increase emergency manager effectiveness. Emergency managers in Mexico should continue to grapple critically to see if new public management components are always applicable to emergency management. A suggestion for future comparative studies that emergency managers learn from, could conceivably help catapult Mexico to first-world status in fewer years that might be necessary. These undertakings would greatly shape this fine country’s promising future as an exemplary nation with a first-class emergency management system, that other nations might then wish to emulate. A few suggestions on how this change might soon be forthcoming follow.

- Develop future studies that would investigate which EM professionalism mechanisms have a more positive impact on professionalism (i.e., which mechanism, or mechanisms, more strongly effect professionalism in Mexico). Emphasizing certain “more important” mechanisms might enhance professionalism in this country

- Develop other studies that investigate which NPM components have a more positive impact on EM professionalism mechanisms to help improve professionalism and, thus, the effectiveness of emergency managers in Mexico. Likewise, emphasizing certain components with the most impact on professionalism would further enhance professionalism in Mexico

- Develop an understanding of professionalism between academicians and practitioners so that the concerns of each may be better understood and linkages between them and their work may be established

- Develop texts in emergency management that favor and provide for enhancement of administrative and management ideas (i.e., acceptance of concepts from public administration as a field)

- Develop texts (in the emergency management and public administration fields) that address the concepts of professionalism and effectiveness, and that provide a better understanding of emergency management as a field for public administration scholars and others to comprehend

- Produce articles written on professionalism and submit to appropriate journals – both devoted to emergency management and public administration respectively. In other words, more studies on emergency management professionalism are still needed and would be welcomed as this topic is both timely and salient. Thus, the topic should be studied for many years to come.
Final Comments

This study has provided scholars and practitioners with an expansive list of emergency management mechanisms compiled from various scholars’ work on professionalism. Second, this paper has demonstrated that it is appropriate to integrate new public management components with emergency management professionalism mechanisms for emergency management professionalism to improve in Mexico and so that emergency managers may become more effective, responsible, and successful public servants.

In sum, this paper reminds practitioners that they must continue to work hard on academicians’ suggestions on how to improve professionalism, and academicians must help teach emergency management practitioners how to increase their professionalism and, thus, improve their effectiveness. (The Public Manager org.)

In the final analysis, it is how emergency managers and public administrators, as well as academics in both fields, effectuate this nexus between the EM mechanisms and the NPM components that will determine emergency managers’ outcomes and results. Subsequent reviews of these EM mechanisms and NPM components should shed light on just how well the integrated mechanisms and components (discussed throughout this paper), may increase professionalism among emergency managers and just how effective they may become. The passage of time and further research on the subject should provide more definitive answers on the “when” and the “how” (i.e., key components of case studies) of professionalism that this current research has introduced.
APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW SCRIPT
Questions on professionalism:

Preface: Set the interviewee at rest (i.e., warm-up question and/or statement): explain purpose of interviews; anticipated outcomes for us and the pay-back for the informant; rules of confidentiality etc.

1. What sort of meaning does the word ‘professional’ have for you?

   Probe answer for examples, elaboration, etc.

2. Could we turn to your work as an emergency manager? Could you help me to see what is professional about your work as an emergency manager?

   Probe to see how far categories used in (1) and (2) apply.

3. Could we turn to another aspect of your work, for example, how you measure effectiveness, outcomes and results?

   Probe to see how far categories used in (1) and (2) apply.

4. Can you call to mind a recent episode or incident that has involved you acting as a professional and tell me about it, please?

   Probe: What is there about that incident that shows you acting as a professional?

5. Suppose you were involved in the appointment of a new colleague. You had to choose between two candidates. What criteria would you use in judging which of the two was the more professional?

6. Have there been any changes in the professional standing of emergency managers over the past ten years?
Questions related to the following model --


• Autonomy of practice- Are you given the exclusive right to determine who can legitimately do work, and how the work should be done?

• Board Certification- Does your occupation require any certification(s) for membership in a group or groups? Do you hold any Board certification? If so, which ones?

• Code of Ethics- What codes of ethics are ascribed to, if one exists for your occupation? To what code of ethics do you ascribe, if one exists for your occupation? Do you ascribe to a Code of Ethics?

• Compromise- Do you have flexibility to use creative and innovative approaches in solving disaster challenges? Are you able to persuade others to consider variations in tactics or procedures that may help them adapt quickly to rapidly changing and frequently unclear situations?

• Continuous Improvement- What does continuous improvement mean for you in this position? Has continuous improvement been attained through a combination of continuing education, training, experience, membership in professional associations, attending conferences related to hazards, disasters and what to do about them?

• Coordination- How do you interrelate the various parts of work?

• Education and Training - What education and training have you attained? How did you prepare yourself to reach this position of responsibility?
• Facilitators - Do you facilitate to help others make things happen? How? Do you facilitate any activities, for example, between the Red Cross and Nonprofits?

• Integration - What interactions do you have (i.e., how do you integrate) with other agencies?

• Intergovernmental - What is the informal organization? Any informal networks? Where does your organization fit in the organizational chart? To whom do you report? Who is your hierarchical supervisor? Are you your own boss?

• Mediators - What activities do you employ to mediate differences between subordinates, organizations, intergovernmental levels of government?

• Membership in Professional Association - Do you belong to any professional association(s)? Do you belong to any professional association? If so, which ones?

• Outcomes - What performance measurements are in place for you to determine when results or outcomes have been attained? Is your system of emergency management interested in results and outcomes? How so, how are they obtained?

• Planning - How do you work out in a broad outline the things that need to be done and the methods for doing them?

• Reconcile - How do you bargain and negotiate differences? How do you compromise for the greater good of the community?

• Results - How do you know when you or your organization has reached its goals? How do you know when your organization has been successful?

• Science and knowledge - What is the specialized knowledge aspect to the profession? (Examples: professionalism emergency management is a full-time occupation requiring education, training, experience, and continuous improvement).
• Specialized knowledge- What is your specialized job knowledge? Are you aware of current and pending legislation, regulations, federal, tribal, state, and local agencies associated with emergency management?

• Standards & best practices- What are these in your field or occupation? What are your standards and best practices in your field or occupation? What wisdom has been gained from the practice of emergency management?

• Stewardship- How does an emergency manager exhibit good stewardship over people and materials as regards Mexico’s emergency management system?

• Tenacity- How do you demonstrate your determination to get the job done despite obstacles?

Questions related to the following model --

II. New public management components ("post-bureaucratic model") – “NPM is a way of reorganizing public sector bodies to bring their management, reporting, and accounting approaches closer to (a particular perception of) business methods” (Dunleavy and Hood 1994).

• Budgeting- What control (i.e., decision making ability) do you have in the budget process? Do you have any control as to how the funds are allocated?

• Collaboration- How do you create and sustain broad and sincere relationships among individuals and organizations to encourage trust, advocate a team atmosphere, build consensus, and facilitate communication?

• Competition- How is this practiced, if it is? Do you agree that competition drives us to embrace innovation and strive for excellence? Does competition unlock
“bureaucratic gridlock”?

- **Continuous Improvement**- Do you believe continuous improvement produces an even more effective result and is self-sustaining (if full promise of reinvention is to be realized)?

- **Contracting Out**- What types of arrangements exist? Do you believe contracting out arrangements may be beneficial for your organization? Why? Why not?

- **Coordinating**- What interactions do you have (i.e., integrate) with other agencies? What about with Red Cross, for example? Other non-profit organizations? What does coordination consist of for you? Do any interagency communication networks exist for your organization?

- **Decentralization**- What is the importance of agency autonomy and independence within your organization or structural hierarchy? Is your emergency management system decentralized or centralized? What participation and teamwork efforts, if any, are incorporated? Does your organization meet the needs of the customer (i.e., stakeholders) or the bureaucracy?

- **Directing**- How do you make decisions and specify them to your organization (i.e., specific and general orders and instructions)? As leader of the enterprise?

- **Effectiveness**- How do you assess whether your organization has been successful? Reached results? Attained contemplated outcomes and goals? Are there guidelines to follow? Is your system of emergency management interested in results and outcomes? How so?

- **Efficiency**- Is it important for there to exist maximum outputs from a minimum amount of inputs?
• Empowering- How do you accomplish this, if you do? Do you delegate duties to employees? Do you empower them to act, based on their own autonomy?

• Intergovernmental- What is the informal organization? Any informal networks? Where does your organization fit in the organizational chart?

• Management Emphasis- What activities do you implement to demonstrate that you are in charge and/or that authority (for your organization) emanates from you?

• Organizing- Do you establish the formal structure of authority through work divisions in your organization? How so?

• Outcomes- Has your organization reached its goals? What performance measurements are in place for you to determine when results or outcomes have been attained? Is your system of emergency management interested in results and outcomes? How so?

• Planning- Do you work out in broad outline the things that need to be done and the methods for doing them?

• Privatizing- When do you feel this is appropriate? In what instances, if any, do you contract out or privatize any services? Do you feel it is ever appropriate, with relation to an activity, to reduce the role of government or to increase the role of the private sector?

• Reporting- How do you keep those to whom you are responsible informed as to what is going on?
• Results- How do you know when you or your organization has reached its goals? What performance measurements are in place for you to determine when results have been attained?

• Staffing- How do you bring in and train the staff and also maintain favorable conditions of work?

• Strategic Planning- “is the entire set of decisions and actions used to formulate strategies that will provide a good fit between the organization and its environment so as to achieve organizational goals” (Starling, 2005, p. 247). Thus, do you implement strategic planning strategies? Why? Why not?

III. Open-Ended Questions, as needed:

On a scale of 1 (being the very lowest) and 10 (being the very highest), what is the level of professionalism in your particular organization? Of emergency managers in your country? (Preliminarily and as a prerequisite to this question): discuss with interviewee generally the researcher’s mechanisms of professionalism and the new public management components pertinent to this study)

Close by asking whether there is anything the informant wishes to add about the professional nature of emergency management in Mexico.

Conclude the interview.
APPENDIX B
IRB LETTER
OFFICE OF THE VICE PRESIDENT FOR RESEARCH AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

August 11, 2009

Heriberto Urby, Jr.
Department of Public Administration
University of North Texas

Re: Human Subjects Application No. 09309

Dear Mr. Urby:

As permitted by federal law and regulations governing the use of human subjects in research projects (45 CFR 46), the UNT Institutional Review Board has reviewed your proposed project titled “A Public Administration Perspective of Emergency Management in Mexico: An Examination of the Role of the New Public Management in the Development of Emergency Management Professionalism.” The risks inherent in this research are minimal, and the potential benefits to the subject outweigh those risks. The submitted protocol is hereby approved for the use of human subjects in this study. **Federal Policy 45 CFR 46.109(e) stipulates that IRB approval is for one year only, August 11, 2009 to August 10, 2010.**

Enclosed is the consent document with stamped IRB approval. Please copy and use this form only for your study subjects.

It is your responsibility according to U.S. Department of Health and Human Services regulations to submit annual and terminal progress reports to the IRB for this project. The IRB must also review this project prior to any modifications.

Please contact Sheila Bourns, Research Compliance Administrator, or Boyd Herndon, Director of Research Compliance, at extension 3940, if you wish to make changes or need additional information.

Sincerely,

[Signature]

Patricia L. Raminski, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Chair, Institutional Review Board

PK:sb

CC: Dr. David McEntire
APPENDIX C

LIST OF INTERVIEWEES
List of Interviewees (i.e., “Informants”) (by organization and/or occupation, at several locations throughout respective cities) --

Mexico City – 15 emergency managers interviewed:

- Firefighter Inspector
- Firefighter Sergeant
- Firefighter (Paramedic)
- Security “Brigadista” at an inner-city hotel
- “CENAPRED” emergency manager
- “CENAPRED” security officer
- Red Cross Coordinator
- Legislative Assembly emergency manager
- “Delegacion Cuauhtemoc” (Proteccion Civil) emergency manager
- “ERUM” Search and Rescue emergency manager
- “ERUM” Search and Rescue coordinator
- Emergency Operations Center emergency manager
- Emergency Manager, representative of emergent organization known as “TOPOS”
- “Ministerio de Salud” Health Ministry emergency manager
- “Proteccion Civil” Civil Protection emergency management official

Guadalajara – 10 emergency managers interviewed:

- Firefighter in management capacity
- Firefighter in operational capacity
Civil Protection Headquarters of Jalisco – emergency manager in upper management

Red Cross emergency official

Hotel emergency manager (different duties from “Brigadistas” in Mexico City)

Police official with emergency management duties and capabilities

University of Guadalajara emergency manager

Emergency Operations Center emergency manager

“Departamento de Salud” Health Department emergency manager

“Jalisco” government building emergency management official

Monterrey – 10 emergency managers interviewed:

Fire station commander in one of the areas of the city

“Proteccion Civil” emergency manager

Police official with emergency management expertise and specialization

Search and Rescue emergency manager

Red Cross Coordinator

Hospital emergency manager coordinator

Security official at a central hotel (to compare Mexico City and Guadalajara emergency management systems)

Emergency manager from adjacent “colonia” to city

Emergency manager at the city’s “Presidencia” (City Hall and Mayoral Offices)

Emergency Operations Center emergency manager
LIST OF REFERENCES


Federal Civil Defense Act of 1950, Public Law 920, 81st Congress.


