

FM 3-28

CIVIL SUPPORT OPERATIONS

AUGUST 2010

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**HEADQUARTERS
DEPARTMENT OF THE ARMY**

Chapter 3

Provide Support for Domestic Disasters

This chapter discusses the first primary civil support task—provide support for domestic disasters. The doctrine in this chapter builds on chapters 1 and 2. The discussion begins by explaining the general nature of a disaster. It then explains how civil authorities fulfill their responsibilities for responding, starting from the lowest level of government and eventually incorporating support from military forces. It discusses National Guard support for disaster response operations, followed by federal military support for disaster response operations. It briefly explains military and civilian operational phases. It concludes with an extended discussion of doctrinal considerations specific to disaster response.

THE NATURE OF A DISASTER

3-1. There is an adage among emergency responders that “every disaster has a zip code.” This is a reminder that any disaster is both a personal and a community experience for the victims. After a disaster, the affected communities often experience a collective shock that inhibits the local response, compounded by the destruction. Until Soldiers have been part of a disaster response effort, the misery and loss experienced by the victims—and the degree of disruption that inhibits even the most basic services—lie beyond their experience. Only combat operations create similar effects within civilian communities, and even then the destruction may not equal the aftermath of a tornado or hurricane. The compensating factor for Soldiers is that no operational experience is likely to produce the same sense of satisfaction as assisting their fellow citizens’ recovery, even though the mission is exhausting and often frustrating.

3-2. A disaster can strike anytime, anywhere. It can take many forms—a hurricane, an earthquake, a tornado, a flood, a fire or a hazardous spill, an act of nature, or an act of terrorism. It may build over days or weeks, or it may hit suddenly and with no warning. Every year, millions of Americans face a disaster and its terrifying consequences. A disaster can quickly produce an overwhelming demand for resources and reduce the ability of local, state, and tribal governments to respond effectively. A disaster can result in many deaths and injuries or cause extensive damage to critical infrastructure. Besides hurricanes, earthquakes, and floods, potentially devastating events include large, powerful winter storms, regional droughts, and contagious disease outbreaks. Naturally occurring plant and animal disease strains reaching epidemic infection levels could have a devastating effect on the nation’s food supply and the economy. The destruction of or inability to access communications systems, transportation, and shelter may further complicate governments’ ability to assist the victims.

3-3. Natural or manmade disasters may start a chain of subsequent disasters such as chemical spills, biological hazards, and potentially explosive material. Each subsequent disaster creates a cascading chain of harmful effects. For example, a chemical spill caused by a tanker truck accident on a bridge over a flooded major river causes numerous complications. The chemical enters the potable water system and compounds the effects of the flooding on waterborne shipping traffic. The food supply is contaminated as the chemical is deposited on flooded cropland. Lack of sanitation after flooding can cause serious diseases to appear.

3-4. Military support in response to a disaster varies from loaning equipment to local authorities to committing major units of the National Guard and regular and reserve military components. At the peak of the response to Hurricane Katrina, over 75,000 military personnel from the regular and reserve components supported civil authorities at the local, state, and national level.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR DISASTER RESPONSE

3-5. The primary responsibility for responding to domestic disasters and emergencies (also called incidents) rests with the lowest level of government able to manage the response. As discussed in chapter 2, if a situation exceeds local capability, local authorities first seek assistance from neighboring jurisdictions, usually under a mutual aid agreement. Requests work their way up from the lowest level to the highest level, as each lower level's resources become insufficient. If the capabilities of neighboring jurisdictions are overtaxed, or responders anticipate additional requirements, they go to the state for assistance. If state capabilities prove insufficient, state authorities then ask for assistance from other states under existing agreements and compacts (including requests for support from nonfederalized National Guard units). In a smaller incident, state authorities normally exhaust state resources, including support from states within their region, before requesting federal assistance.

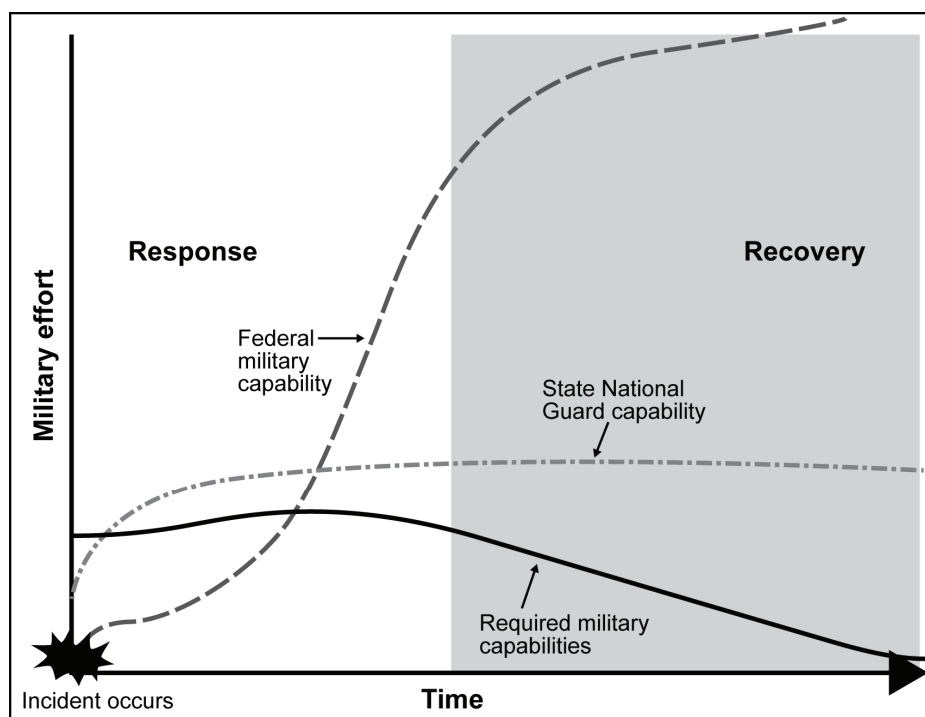


Figure 3-1. Military forces required for a typical incident

3-6. For most incidents, a state's National Guard capabilities are sufficient; no additional military support is needed. Studies show that more than 90 per cent of declared emergencies require no federal military forces, even in incidents requiring significant support from the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA). Figure 3-1 illustrates this using a solid line for the total military effort needed, and dotted lines representing the military capability that state National Guard and federal military forces can generate. Given advance warning, the capability gap can be reduced. It may also be reduced through immediate response authority (see figure 3-2, page 3-3) of federal military forces from nearby installations.

3-7. A catastrophic incident always exceeds the immediate capability of responders at every level. The effect of the disaster on local responders—disaster victims themselves—compounds the requirements. Although a formal request under Robert T. Stafford Disaster Relief and Emergency Assistance Act (commonly known as the Stafford Act) for federal assistance follows the process illustrated in chapter 2, in practice, the President commits federal aid simultaneously with the governor’s commitment of state resources. Based on initial assessments from the Department of Homeland Security and supported combatant commander, the Secretary of Defense authorizes support from federal military forces. Even before the formal authorization, the combatant commander places available forces on alert. After the state’s civilian and National Guard responders arrive, federal military forces fill the capability gap until national resources can meet requirements. Figure 3-2 illustrates the requirements in a major catastrophe as a solid line and the relative capabilities of the National Guard and federal military forces as dotted lines.

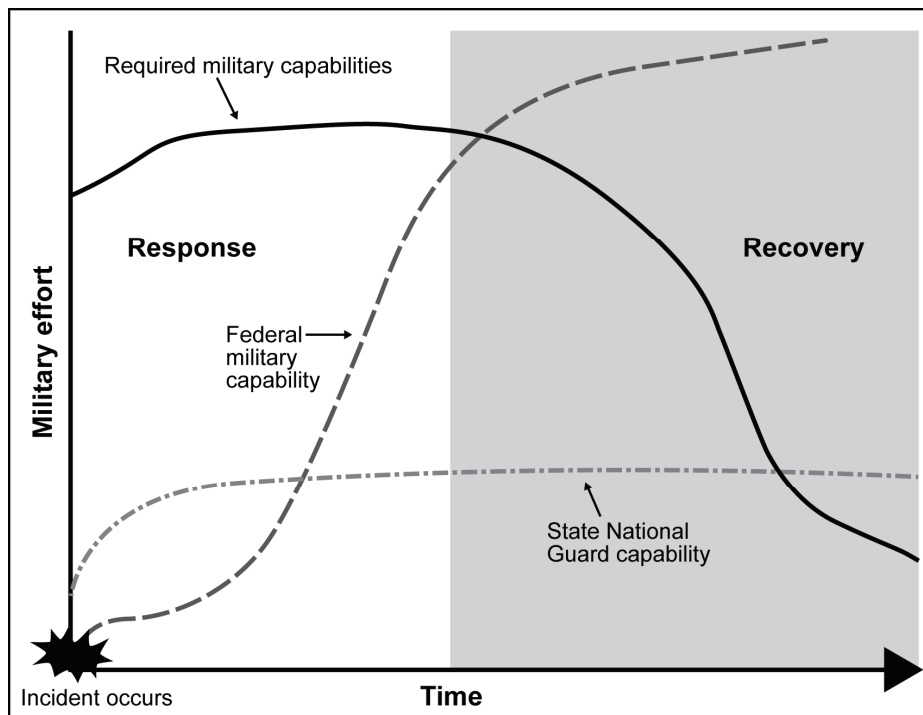


Figure 3-2. Military forces required for a catastrophic incident

3-8. To close the initial capability gap, federal military forces support response and recovery efforts (usually led by FEMA) as fast as they can deploy. The capability gap, though it will decline quickly, may remain until the bulk of federal military forces arrive. Deploying and receiving large forces in disaster areas takes time; initial response will always lag requirements. Means of deployment must be re-tasked from other commitments. (Even in a major catastrophe, however, the federal military support available will rapidly exceed the need.) During the initial deployment period, commanders should expect criticism from media representatives who demand to know why more is not being done. Despite this, commanders do everything within their scope of authority to ensure that unity of effort is achieved.

3-9. Civilian agencies will eventually reach their full capacity, recovery will begin, and military forces will no longer be needed. Transition for military forces usually follows the reverse order of alert and deployment. Federal military forces redeploy to their home stations first. Any of their remaining missions pass to federal agencies (usually executed by civilian contract), National Guard units, and state agencies. However, should conditions deteriorate, the President can increase federal military support at any time. As state and local agencies recover, National Guard units begin to redeploy, with priority normally given to National Guard units assisting from other states under mutual aid agreements. Until the governor is satisfied that citizens' needs can be met by civilian means alone, that state's National Guard forces continue to support local authorities in a reduced, "steady state" posture by rotating units and personnel.

INITIAL RESPONSE FROM LOCAL AND STATE AUTHORITIES

3-10. Before and during an incident, city, county, and tribal emergency managers assess their jurisdictions' ability to respond. They consider the incident commanders' assessments, experience with similar incidents, training based on the National Incident Management System (NIMS) and the National Response Framework (NRF), estimates developed from the National Planning Scenarios, and advance coordination with their counterparts in adjacent states or territories. They determine if they will need support from outside their jurisdictions.

3-11. In some types of disasters, such as hurricanes, there is a warning period—sometimes up to a week. This allows planners to initiate evacuations, pre-position supplies, and mobilize additional responders. Unfortunately, many disasters occur with no warning. Local emergency manager request assistance from adjacent jurisdictions and state officials as soon as possible when a disaster strikes unexpectedly. Prior planning and preparation, coupled with support from outside the disaster area, mitigates the effects of the incident somewhat. Local officials from adjoining communities normally have agreements in place that authorize their first responders to provide emergency assistance when requested. Similar agreements allow commercial services, such as utilities, to assist their counterparts across an entire region. However, adjacent communities may be unable to provide assistance if the incident also affects them.

3-12. When local authorities determine they will not be able to manage the response through support from their neighbors, they request assistance from the state. The state activates its emergency operations center, and representatives from state emergency support functions (see chapter 2 for more information about emergency support functions, known as ESFs) report to it. The state emergency operations center normally initiates operations from its permanent offices. However, the governor or state emergency manager may displace it if the permanent location is affected by the disaster and would degrade the response, or if the governor needs to be closer to the disaster area. The latter is particularly true in the larger states, when movement by air may require refueling stops.

NATIONAL GUARD DISASTER RESPONSE

3-13. When any municipality or county activates an emergency operations center, it notifies the state emergency manager. The state emergency manager then passes a situation report to the joint force headquarters—state and then to the National Guard watch desk. The adjutant general or a designated representative may deploy a liaison team from the joint force headquarters—state to assess and monitor the situation. A National Guard liaison team is likely to deploy if the situation is unclear and has the potential to require additional resources. If the adjutant general anticipates local authorities needing additional assistance, the joint force deploys additional teams.

3-14. National Guard commanders may provide immediate response to a local community, but under state laws. The local emergency managers may have contingency agreements in place with local armories and nearby National Guard training installations. Alert for the National Guard begins with the activation of the alert roster—usually initiated by full time Guard personnel. This alerting message is the notification the Guard members receive to report to their home station. The National Guard local commander is not a permanent full time member and is alerted by his or her alert roster. The supporting commander assesses the situation within the larger context of the likely state response. Soldiers committed locally in an immediate response may be needed for a larger call-up of National Guard forces by the governor. The local commander may limit the immediate assistance in order to support higher priority missions. Frequently, National Guardsmen muster at their units even before an official alert order; their experience enables them to anticipate quite accurately when they will be needed. The Tennessee National Guard’s response to damaging tornadoes in 2008 provides an example of a state response.

Tennessee National Guard Responds to Tornadoes

Strong tornados struck Arkansas, Tennessee, Kentucky, Mississippi and Alabama in February, 2008. Two thirds of Tennessee suffered damaging storms. Tornadoes killed 32 people, injured 149, and destroyed over 750 homes, making it the worst storm to hit the state in 75 years. Many of the counties hit by the storm were overwhelmed with storm debris and lacked the means to clear roads and initiate response and recovery operations. Macon, Sumner, and Trousdale counties reported a swath of destruction over a mile wide. The storm nearly destroyed some communities. The Tennessee Governor called out the National Guard to help in the recovery efforts.

The 230th Engineer Battalion, Tennessee National Guard, received the alert to deploy within 48 hours. Their mission was to support the Tennessee Department of Transportation. The Tennessee National Guard deployed 27 large dump trucks, eight large bucket loaders, troops with chain saws, and a logistics support package. Over a two-week period, the unit collected, hauled, and dumped over 9,000 cubic yards of debris.

The Joint Force Headquarters–State

3-15. Under National Guard Regulation 500-1, each state maintains a joint force headquarters–state (JFHQ–state) to unify command of its Air and Army National Guard forces. The JFHQ–state functions as the joint staff for the adjutant general, who directs the state National Guard’s operations. The JFHQ–state co-locates with the state’s emergency operations center and allocates resources to National Guard forces. One of the most important functions of the JFHQ–state is coordinating requests for assistance by state National Guard forces. Simultaneously, the JFHQ–state provides situation reports to the National Guard Bureau joint operations command center in Washington D.C. During a disaster response, however, most states exercise operational control of their deployed forces through a joint task force headquarters in the operational area.

3-16. The adjutant general alerts state National Guard forces through emergency communications networks that tie together subordinate National Guard armories, installations, and commanders. Based on standing contingency plans, the adjutant general organizes one or more joint task forces formed around one of the state’s battalions or larger sized units. This may be a brigade headquarters with Air National Guard personnel and state civilians. Although other states have different arrangements, the support follows similar patterns. The adjutant general supports the governor, and the JFHQ–state supports the state emergency operations center. The joint task force exercises operational control of committed forces and works with the

civilian incident command organization (see chapter 2) on-scene. Figure 3-3 illustrates the relationships between civilian command organizations and National Guard echelons during a large, state-level multijurisdictional disaster response, as used in Illinois. This example shows a joint task force. In some states, the military response may include only Army National Guard, and the force headquarters may be a task force. A civilian *area command* may not be needed, depending on the extent of the disaster (refer to chapter 2).

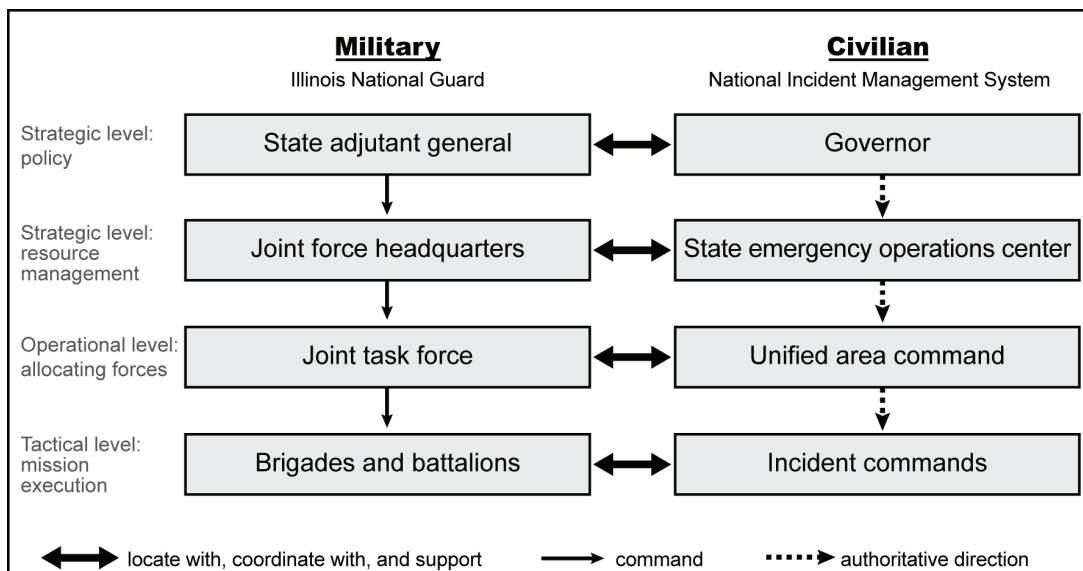


Figure 3-3. State response and National Guard echelons—Illinois example

3-17. Even in states where the adjutant general is also the state emergency coordinator, National Guard forces remain in support of civil authority. State constitutions echo the principles in the Constitution of the United States and respect the authorities of elected and appointed officials within their jurisdictions. The relationship between National Guard leaders and their civilian counterparts may intertwine considerably. This occurs for practical reasons and also because National Guard and state officials work closely together for years and often form teams to respond to incidents.

3-18. When a disaster involves many counties, such as in a hurricane or major winter storm, the affected state may employ several area commands and incident commands. The adjutant general organizes joint or single Service task forces and places them in direct support of the area commands. This streamlines the command and control process by allowing the civilian incident commanders to pass requests for assistance directly to supporting task force commanders, who then issue fragmentary orders to the appropriate units. Task force commanders inform the JFHQ—state of their status and pass on requests for reinforcements or additional equipment and sustainment. This arrangement capitalizes on mission command and individual initiative. Figure 3-4, page 3-7, illustrates the relationships of National Guard task forces to incident commands.

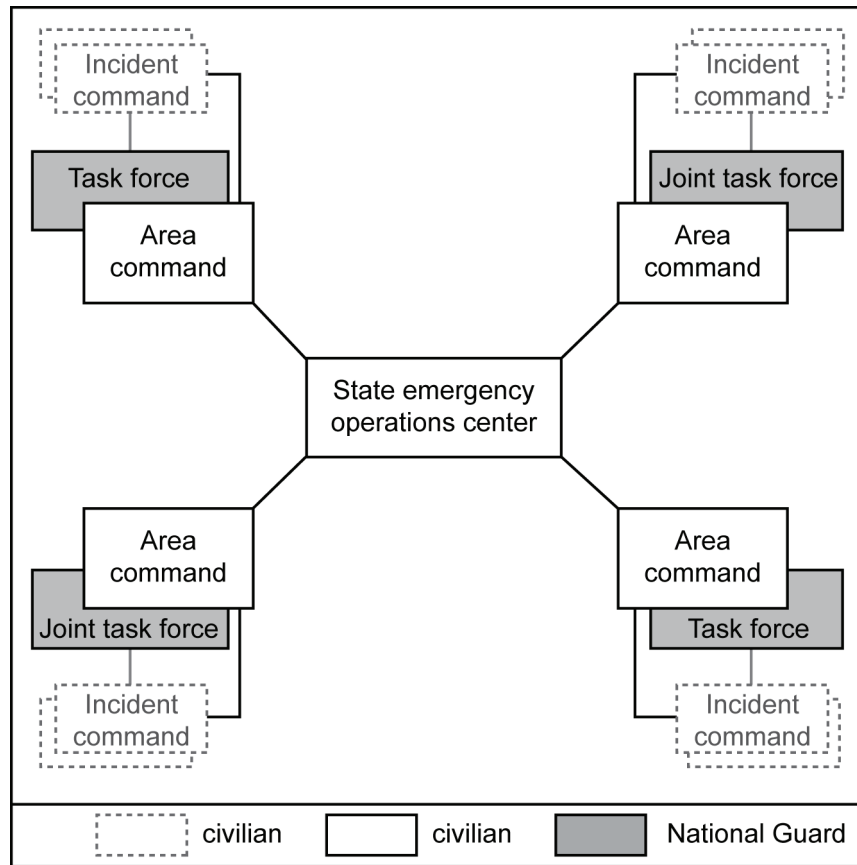


Figure 3-4. Relationship of National Guard forces to area commands

Planning Considerations for State National Guard Units

3-19. State National Guard contingency planners consider several factors when preparing for potential disasters. Some factors are common to Army unit planning, but several are unique to the National Guard. These include—

- Proximity of the unit to the disaster.
- Deployed personnel and equipment.
- Distribution of tactical units.

Proximity Of The Unit To The Disaster

3-20. The closer the unit's armory is to the disaster, the more rapidly it can respond, and the more familiar key leaders will be with the area and local civilians. However, the unit is also more likely to suffer in the disaster, with some or all of its capability severely degraded.

Deployed Personnel And Equipment

3-21. National Guard units deploy overseas more frequently today than at any time during the Cold War. The adjutant general continually updates plans based upon the availability of forces within the state. By coordinating with adjacent states and the National Guard Bureau for support under assistance agreements (see paragraphs 3-24 to 3-29), the adjutant general manages the state's disaster response capabilities. If a disaster strikes and one of the state's units is preparing for deployment but not yet federalized, the governor

may commit the unit to the disaster, under state control. The adjutant general works through the National Guard Bureau to coordinate adjustments to deployment and training schedules.

Distribution of Tactical Units

3-22. Unlike the Regular Army, the various tactical units that make up the brigades and divisions of the National Guard are widely distributed. Units are not necessarily co-located with their heavy equipment. For example, a National Guard brigade combat team may have its battalions distributed across armories throughout the state. In some cases, one of the battalions may belong to another state's National Guard. Disaster response plans within each state adjust task-organizations based on availability of forces, proximity of units to one another, and unit equipment. Early in the response, a task force may consist of small units from many units, and larger forces gradually assemble their table of organization and equipment configuration.

3-23. National Guard planners also assess requirements against capabilities they will provide during civil support operations. These include security; chemical, biological, radiological, nuclear, and high-yield explosives consequence management; communications; logistics; engineer support; medical support; transportation; aviation; and maintenance. Refer to National Guard Regulation 500-1 for additional discussion.

Emergency Management Assistance Compact

3-24. The Emergency Management Assistance Compact (EMAC) grew out of several states helping each other after Hurricane Andrew in 1992. The EMAC is a comprehensive agreement similar to a treaty between nations. It establishes a legal framework for interstate mutual aid. The National Emergency Management Association administers the EMAC. All states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands are members of EMAC. For more information, see Web site <http://www.emacweb.org/>.

3-25. When incidents occur, governors enter into contractual agreements between their states based on prior EMAC arrangements. States request assistance on an EMAC request form (known as a REQ-A). On the form, requesting states provide details about support sought from neighboring states, including costs for reimbursement. Requesting states prepare a separate request to each neighboring state from whom they seek support. Support under EMAC requires an emergency declaration from the requesting state's governor but not from the President of the United States.

3-26. If National Guard forces support another state based on an EMAC agreement, they normally serve in a state active duty status. National Guard forces do not serve in Title 32 status unless approved by the Secretary of Defense. The EMAC does not pertain to federalized National Guard forces, in Title 10 status.

3-27. Article XIII of the EMAC prohibits EMAC agreements for using National Guard forces from one state for civil disturbance or law enforcement operations in another state. This type of support requires a separate memorandum of understanding. The Gulf States have executed memoranda with each other for civil disturbance and law enforcement support. The terms of their agreements cover the use of armed National Guardsmen from another state, including command relationships, immunity, carrying and loading of weapons authority, law enforcement authority, and training on state rules on the use of force requirements.

3-28. State National Guard forces provide their interstate support agreements to the National Guard Bureau. Because the Bureau monitors the status of the total National Guard force, it can identify resources to match requirements and assist with the details. In an emergency, the National Guard Bureau in Washington, DC, assists with additional agreements between states, but the respective governors must execute their memorandum of understanding concerning the use of out-of-state forces.

3-29. Whenever state National Guard forces respond in support of another state, each state's joint force headquarters ensures the following coordination requirements are met:

- The memorandum of understanding specifies the duration of the commitment with the supported state. (Most National Guard commitments are for 30 days.) The agreement normally specifies the “time on station” and excludes mobilization, movement, and demobilization time. The supported adjutant general specifies the command relationship between the gaining unit and the supporting unit. The preferred relationship is operational control, with specific coordinating instructions concerning logistics and health service support.
- The supporting state retains administrative control throughout the deployment.
- The supporting unit deploys with a minimum of 72 hours of sustainment.
- The agreement must clearly specify the authorities for law enforcement duties granted by the supported governor and approved by the supporting governor.
- The gaining state designates and operates the reception, staging, onward movement, and integration facility and procedures for all incoming units and personnel from supporting states.
- The supporting unit commander provides the gaining unit commander with a complete unit status report when the unit arrives, and updates it according to the gaining unit’s standing operating procedure. Forces avoid needless operational and administrative difficulties by ensuring accurate status reporting.
- The supporting unit brings or maintains access to any professional licenses necessary (such as medical or veterinary licenses) for personnel provided under a mutual aid agreement that are not validated under EMAC. The supported state must specify which licensing requirements are waived or restricted.
- Both states agree to the documentation needed for reimbursable expenses and procedures not covered in National Guard regulations.
- The gaining and supporting unit commanders coordinate actions related to disciplinary matters. Unless modified by the respective governors, Soldiers remain subject to their state’s military codes.

FEDERAL MILITARY DISASTER RESPONSE

3-30. Federal military forces provide support during emergencies and incidents in two general categories. The first is immediate response authority, under which an installation commander may assist a local community in an emergency. This support is limited in time and scope. The second category is in response to a Presidential declaration of emergency or disaster. In the latter case, federal military support may range from installation support up to commitment of major portions of the Regular Army.

IMMEDIATE RESPONSE AUTHORITY

3-31. Although federal military forces are seldom first responders, they can support local authorities in an emergency, under immediate response authority. In the absence of a federally declared disaster, installation commanders and responsible officials from Department of Defense (DOD) may provide support to save lives, prevent human suffering, and mitigate great property damage. This includes mutual aid for fire protection and immediate response as directed by the Secretary of Defense. This response must be consistent with the Posse Comitatus Act. (See chapters 5 and 7 for more about the Posse Comitatus Act.) The Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff standing execute order for DSCA (referred to as the CJCS DSCA EXORD) dated 14 August 2009 states—

When time does not permit prior approval from higher headquarters, local military commanders, or responsible officials of other DOD components, may in imminently serious conditions, upon request from local authorities, provide support to save lives, prevent human suffering, or mitigate great property damage. Such immediate response should be provided to civil agencies on a cost-reimbursable basis, but requests for immediate response should not be delayed or denied because of the inability or unwillingness of the requester to make a commitment to reimburse the Department of

Defense [DOD]. Commanders, or responsible DOD, officials will report all actions and support provided through the appropriate chain of command to the National Military Command Center (NMCC), . . . and provide a copy to the Geographic CCDR [combatant commander]. After 72 hours of employment, respective military departments will coordinate continued operations with the Geographic CCDR.

CJCS DSCA EXORD, 14 August 2009

3-32. According to Section 1856a of Title 42, United States Code (USC), each agency charged with providing fire protection for any property of the United States may enter into agreements with local fire-fighting organizations (including nearby military installations) to provide assistance in fighting fires. This includes personal services and equipment required for fire prevention, the protection of life and property from fire, fire fighting, and emergency services. Emergency services include basic medical support, basic and advanced life support, hazardous material containment and confinement, special rescue events involving vehicular and water mishaps, and extractions from trenches, buildings, or confined spaces.

3-33. Requests for assistance under immediate response authority usually go directly from local civilian authorities to local military commanders. Requests may also go to DOD officials. The installation commander may provide all assets with the exception of those that have a potential for lethality. The Secretary of Defense must approve deployment of weapons and munitions, including bayonets. Deployed forces remain under military command and function in direct support of the requesting local authority. Typical missions include—

- Search and rescue.
- Evacuation, decontamination, fire-fighting, medical treatment, restoration of medical capabilities and public services.
- Removal of debris, rubble, or hazards to permit rescue or movement.
- Recovery, identification, and registration, and disposal of the dead of deceased persons.
- Detecting, assessing, and containing a chemical, biological, radiological, nuclear, or high-yield explosives incident.
- Collecting, safeguarding, and distributing essential food items and supplies.
- Damage assessment.
- Communications.
- Explosive ordnance disposal.

Note: The installation senior commander will not approve any civilian jurisdiction request for law enforcement support outside the installation, including interdicting vehicles, conducting searches and seizures, making arrests or apprehensions, surveillance, investigation, or undercover work.

FEDERAL MILITARY FORCES DISASTER RESPONSE—PRESIDENTIAL DECLARATION

3-34. Usually, the commitment of federal military forces for civil support operations follows a presidential disaster declaration under the Stafford Act. After the disaster declaration, a primary federal agency (usually FEMA) coordinates with the defense coordinating officer (DCO) to prepare a request for DSCA and submit it to the DOD executive secretary. (See paragraphs 2-94 to 2-100 for details about the DCO.) However, a federal coordinating officer may initiate the request, or another federal agency could request federal military support. In addition, the President may bypass the usual request process and order the military to provide support. Figure 3-5, page 3-11, illustrates the usual process that leads to committing federal military forces. Paragraphs 3-45 to 3-48 provide more information about how requests for assistance develop into mission assignments.

3-35. Concurrently with the DSCA request to joint director of military support, the appropriate combatant commander, either United States Northern Command (USNORTHCOM) or United States Pacific Command (USPACOM) develops the concept of operations and support and submits a request for forces to

the Joint Staff. The Secretary of Defense designates the supported combatant commander and any supporting combatant commands. When validated, the request for forces becomes an order to the supporting combatant commanders to provide the forces. In support of this process, the Army Service component commander coordinates with Department of the Army and United States Army Forces Command (for most Army units) concerning required capabilities.

3-36. Based on the Army force generation process, the United States Army Forces Commander and Department of the Army identify the required forces to the supporting combatant commander (normally United States Joint Forces Command). The Secretary of Defense specifies the command relationship of forces to the gaining combatant command, either operational control or attached. The Secretary of the Army may direct modifications to administrative control; if not, administrative control remains with the providing Army headquarters.

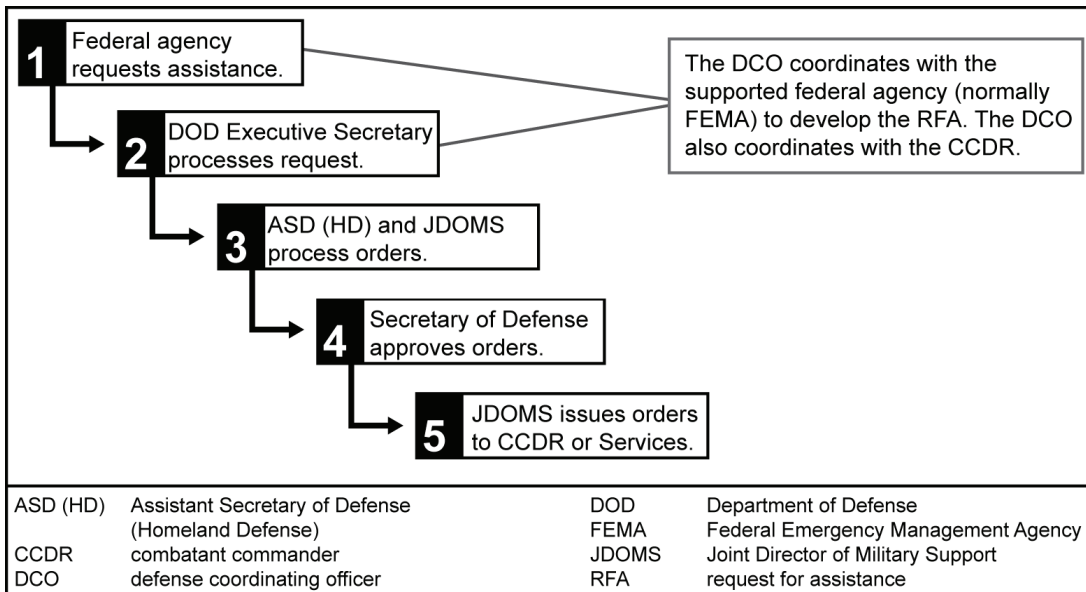


Figure 3-5. The federal request for assistance process

3-37. If approved by the President, the Secretary of Defense may mobilize National Guard forces for federal service. These forces pass to the operational control of the gaining combatant commander. National Guard units conducting DSCA in federal military (Title 10) status change their administrative control to the gaining Army Service component command—usually United States Army North (USARNORTH). However, the Army Service component commander coordinates with the providing adjutant general to continue as much of the administrative control support as feasible through the respective states. The Secretary of Defense may also direct the Service secretaries to place selected installations in a support relationship to the supported combatant command.

3-38. For any federal military force operating in the USNORTHCOM area of responsibility, the joint force land component commander determines the required capabilities and the appropriate command relationships, depending on the situation. The determination of command and control arrangements is one of the most important joint force land component command decisions. Figure 3-6 illustrates an example of USNORTHCOM structure for DSCA.

3-39. If the requirement for federal military support only consists of a small number of troops, the joint force land component commander may place the detachment under operational control of the DCO, rather than a joint task force. The joint force land component commander provides the DCO with any additional assets to support the detachment. The DCO coordinates missions with the federal coordinating officer and issues orders to the detachment commander. The DCO and staff—the defense coordinating element—coordinate for support through the joint force land component command and other federal agencies.

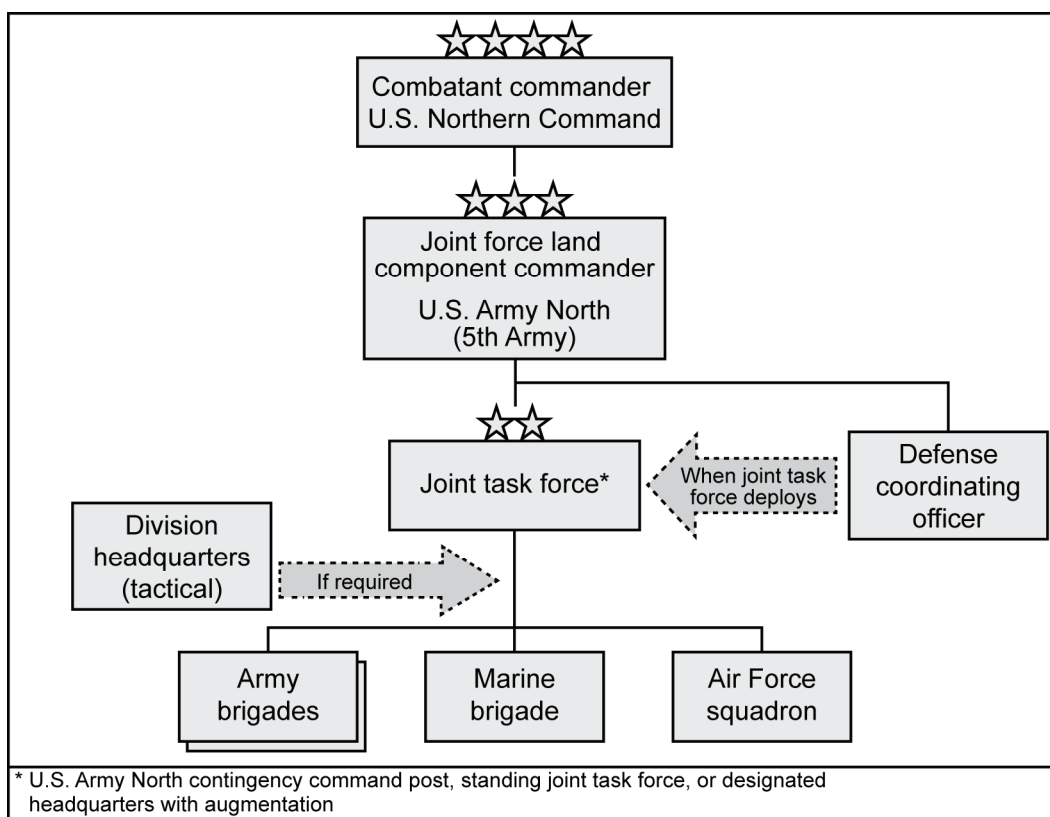


Figure 3-6. Example of USNORTHCOM structure for DSCA

3-40. Anything larger than a small element necessitates more extensive command and control than the joint force land component command and defense coordinating element can provide. Within the USNORTHCOM area of responsibility, the combatant commander and USARNORTH assesses the command and control requirements needed to control federal Army and other federal military land forces. The USNORTHCOM commander decides whether to commit Joint Task Force–Civil Support. USARNORTH may employ either of its two contingency command posts as a joint task force or land component command; conversely, it may designate an incoming headquarters as the joint task force or land component.

3-41. The USNORTHCOM commander identifies the base support installation. The base support installation is normally a DOD installation with an airfield and suitable support facilities. The base support installation is the domestic equivalent to a theater base in other areas of responsibility. The base support installation becomes the aerial port of delivery and joint reception, staging, onward movement, and

integration facility for the Army forces. USARNORTH establishes and controls the joint reception, staging, onward movement, and integration facility, usually at the base support installation or very near it. In addition to joint reception, staging, onward movement, and integration, the base support installation may become a training facility and principal supporting base for the federal relief efforts. If a suitable DOD installation is not nearby, USNORTHCOM may request permission to use a National Guard base. However, National Guard bases usually support no more than one or two battalions at a time and may require extensive additional military and contract support. (See chapters 8 and 9 for more information about sustainment.)

3-42. Both USNORTHCOM and USARNORTH routinely deploy situational assessment teams to disaster areas in advance of a decision to commit federal military forces. These teams deploy to the incident area and come under the operational control of the DCO. The DCO facilitates coordination and information sharing between the assessment teams and the various emergency support functions. If required, the DCO can coordinate for information sharing between the assessment team, the state emergency operations center, and the JFHQ—state. Because DCOs work full-time in their FEMA regions, each DCO is usually well-acquainted with state emergency managers, state coordinating officers, and state emergency preparedness liaison officers. Once the assessment team provides its findings to its parent headquarters, it becomes part of the defense coordinating element. As part of the defense coordinating element, the assessment teams continue to provide situation updates to their former headquarters through the DCO's situation report.

3-43. USNORTHCOM or USARNORTH also sends liaison teams to DOD installations nearby to assess the potential basing requirements. If deployment of federal military forces is likely, USARNORTH deploys a contingency command post to the vicinity of the joint (interagency) field office. From there, the command post coordinates requirements between the DCO and USARNORTH, assists the defense coordinating element, and begins the process of tying in military command and control with the joint field office.

3-44. The liaison team members achieve efficiency by combining interpersonal skill with professional competence. If the situation is severe enough to require federal military forces, civilians at the joint field office and a state emergency operations center will be under great stress. Bringing newly arrived federal military personnel up to speed may seem like an additional burden in a chaotic situation. Before deployment, the liaison teams and the contingency command post coordinate through the DCO with senior federal and state officials. They obtain as much information as possible. Upon arrival, the liaison team leaders further coordinate through the defense coordinating element in order to support civilian incident commanders and deployed National Guard forces.

3-45. In situations other than a disaster, a federal agency or state government may request DOD assistance. The request follows the same general process as an emergency under the Stafford Act. However, requests for assistance in circumstances other than a declared emergency or disaster come under the Economy Act. This law prohibits the use of DOD capabilities in lieu of similar capabilities within the requesting agency or state. The law also requires the supported agency to reimburse DOD for all operating expenses. Tactically, the Stafford and Economy Act have no significant effect on operations.

MISSION ASSIGNMENTS

3-46. Federal military forces receive their missions when they arrive in the disaster area. Within the (civilian) joint field office, ESF coordinators analyze the requirements and capabilities in coordination with the federal coordinating officer and DCO. Together, they identify potential requests for assistance from federal military forces. The DCO determines if the requests are feasible. The DCO also assesses whether the requests are appropriate—evaluating resources and legal issues. If the requests meet the criteria (listed in paragraph 3-46), the DCO submits the requests according to the process illustrated in figure 3-5.

3-47. Beginning with the DCO and continuing through the chain of command, each request for DOD assistance receives an evaluation based on six factors (sometimes referred to by the acronym CARRLL):

- **Cost.** Who will pay or reimburse DOD for the assistance rendered?

- **Appropriateness.** Who normally provides and is best suited to satisfy the request for assistance? Is it in DOD's interest to provide the assistance? Have other options been considered to meet the request? Is DOD the best provider of the requested assistance under the circumstances?
- **Readiness.** Does the assistance have an adverse impact on the responding unit's ability to perform its primary readiness, training, deployment missions?
- **Risk.** What is the potential health or safety hazards to federal military forces and their equipment, vehicles, or aircraft? Can these risks be mitigated?
- **Legality.** What is the legal authority that permits or prohibits the requested assistance?
- **Lethality.** Is there any potential for lethal force to be used by or against Federal military? If yes, has the Secretary of Defense authorized the carrying of weapons?

3-48. The defense coordinating element performs a critical function by performing a modified mission analysis on each request for assistance. First, they determine if the request for assistance expresses the right mission. Often this means translating civilian terms into military terms. Second, they translate the approved mission assignment into a mission tasking order, suitable for the joint task force to analyze and execute. Ideally, the federal coordinating officer and DCO determine what capabilities are required, not how to do the mission, allowing mission command. The joint task force commander translates the mission tasking order into an operations order that allows the joint task force maximum flexibility. For example, rather than asking the joint task force for "one UH-60 helicopter to fly the federal coordinating officer and FEMA Director at a specific date and time and location", the DCO may revise it into a mission tasking order, to "provide command and control aviation support to the federal coordinating officer."

3-49. Broader issues of support may require discussion among the members of the unified coordination group (see paragraph 2-79) and military commanders. When required, the federal military joint task force commander and the state joint task force commander participate in the discussions with their respective DCO or state coordinating officer, but their inclusion is not required.

PHASES OF DISASTER RESPONSE OPERATIONS

3-50. The NRF divides disaster response into three broad phases: prepare, respond, and recover. USNORTHCOM plans for DSCA use six phases: shape, anticipate, respond, operate, stabilize, and transition. (Army doctrine does not specify operational phases. See Field Manual (FM) 3-0, chapter 6.) Figure 3-7 illustrates the relationship between the NRF phases and the USNORTHCOM phases. Commanders conducting civil support operations should be familiar with these phases and understand their relationships. USARNORTH applies the USNORTHCOM phases for sustainment planning (see chapter 8).

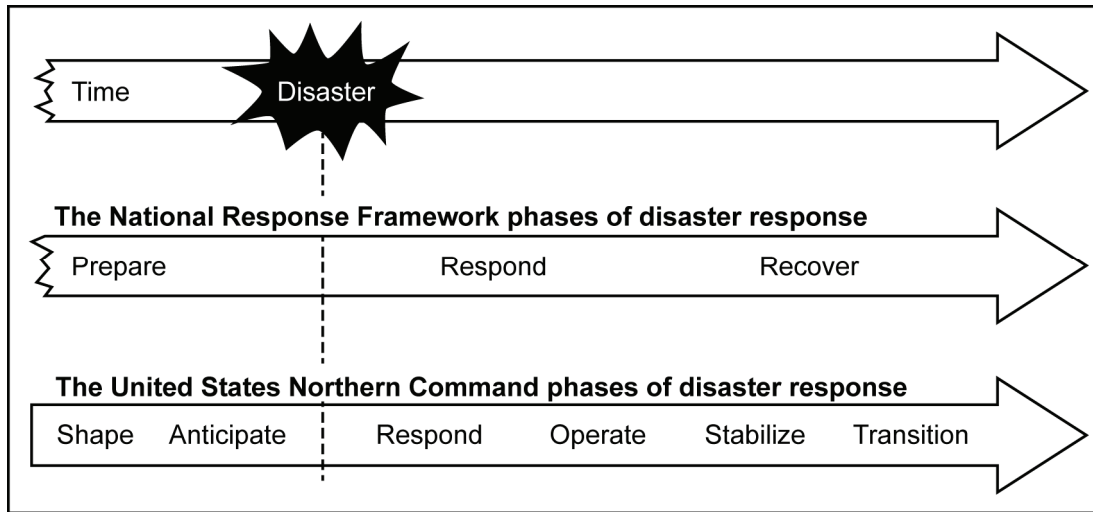


Figure 3-7. USNORTHCOM and National Response Framework phases of disaster response

3-51. Phase 0 (zero), shape, refers to continuous situational awareness and preparedness. Actions in this phase include interagency coordination, planning, identifying capability gaps, conducting exercises, and public affairs activities. USNORTHCOM plans synchronize Phase 0 activities, which are ongoing.

3-52. Phase I, anticipate, begins with the identification of a potential DSCA mission, a no-notice incident, or when directed by the President or Secretary of Defense. This phase ends when federal military forces deploy or when the determination is made that federal military forces are not needed. Phase I is completed with deployment of the DCO, the defense coordinating element, emergency preparedness liaison officers, and other required personnel.

3-53. Phase II, respond, begins with the deployment of initial federal military response capabilities. This phase ends when federal military forces are ready to conduct operations in the joint operations area. This phase is completed when sufficient forces are deployed to accomplish the mission.

3-54. Phase III, operate, begins when federal military forces commence operations. Phase III ends when federal military forces are close to completing their missions and no further requests for assistance are anticipated.

3-55. Phase IV, stabilize, begins when military and civil authorities decide that federal military support will scale down. Military and civil authorities establish criteria for transition to civilian management of the response without federal military support. Phase IV is successful when all operational aspects of mission assignments are complete and federal military support is no longer needed.

3-56. Phase V, transition, begins with the redeployment of remaining federal military forces. This phase ends when federal military forces have redeployed and operational control is returned to their parent commands. Phase V is complete when federal military forces have transitioned all operations back to state National Guard forces or civil authorities.

PLANNING SUPPORT FOR CIVILIAN EMERGENCY MANAGERS

3-57. Early in an operation, a catastrophic disaster may overburden the civilians managing the response. Urgent requirements force emergency managers to concentrate all their efforts on the next 24 or 48 hours. Longer planning horizons may become a low priority. Army planners can support civil authorities by offering to develop long-term plans. Before offering to support long-term planning, the senior commander must earn the trust and confidence of civilian leaders. Army commanders always keep in mind that they serve in a supporting role. Once accepted, Army planners help the civilian staff develop a phased plan (keeping in mind NRF phases) with an achievable end state. Similar assistance, offered where needed in

the joint field office or within other parts the incident command system (such as incident command posts and emergency operations centers), contributes to effective unified action.

TRANSITION FROM MILITARY TO CIVILIAN SUPPORT

3-58. The Army's role in disaster response ends as soon as practical. The ultimate task of federal and state disaster response efforts is to assist the local community in returning to self-sufficiency. When directed by the federal coordinating officer or state coordinating officer, Army forces complete their mission assignments and turn over responsibility for further efforts to civilian agencies and commercial enterprise. Commanders coordinate with appropriate interagency and military groups (including joint field offices, emergency operations centers, incident commands, and defense coordinating elements) to avoid gaps in necessary support. The goal of the recovery effort is to allow state authorities to control as much of the long-term recovery as feasible and return federal forces to their parent installations.

3-59. In addition, commanders at every level keep in mind the human aspects of the transition to civilian organizations and account for it in their assessments. In a disaster, Soldiers form friendships and professional relationships with civic and group leaders with whom they work. Communities form a relationship with the Soldiers they see every day. When military units are near the end of a mission, they need to coordinate the transition with their civilian counterparts. Each situation is different, but commanders make sure they plan for the human aspects of transition as well as the details of transferring missions.

3-60. National Guard forces may supplant federal military forces as communities begin to recover. This is likely in incidents involving immediate response authority. Federal military forces that arrive immediately at an incident site may be relieved by National Guard forces as the latter reach the scene. In other cases, federal military forces may receive a mission assignment to replace National Guard units so that state National Guard forces can enforce public order, while federal troops take over humanitarian efforts. The transition between federal military forces and state National Guard forces is planned and coordinated through the joint field office between the federal coordinating officer, DCO and state coordinating officer. In addition to specific coordination requirements specified in fragmentary orders, the outgoing and incoming commander exchange information on the situation and environment.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR DISASTER RESPONSE OPERATIONS

3-61. In this section and in succeeding chapters, FM 3-28 discusses operational and tactical considerations for civil support operations. This discussion includes selected considerations organized by the Army doctrinal concepts of battle command and the elements of combat power. The emphasis is on tactical considerations that require additional planning and on measures that complement civil support operations or distinguish them from stability operations.

3-62. FM 3-28.1 discusses many other tactical considerations. Commanders and staff can also find related information in Center for Army Lessons Learned, National Guard Lessons Learned, and Joint Lessons Learned publications. The USNORTHCOM Web site, <http://www.northcom.mil/>, also provides a portal for extensive reference material.

BATTLE COMMAND

3-63. Battle command drives the operations process in civil support just as battle command drives it in full spectrum operations overseas. Commanders understand, visualize, describe, and direct while assessing and leading. However, certain aspects of civil support require a different command perspective than combat situations. The most obvious is the lack of a thinking, adaptive enemy. Although Soldiers may encounter some criminal behavior by civilians during civil support operations, from the Soldier's perspective the civilians are citizens and not enemy combatants. Commanders also adjust the way they understand, assess, and lead, adapting the particulars of battle command to domestic operational environments.

Understand

3-64. Command in civil support begins with understanding the operational environment. Understanding the physical environment, particularly in the aftermath of a disaster or terrorist attack, requires first-hand knowledge. To achieve this, commanders travel to their subordinate's location to get their subordinate's assessment of the situation and measure that against personal observation, just as they would in combat. Reports and statistics may be useful summaries of activity but cannot convey the actual impact of the incident on the community. Commanders speak with citizens throughout the area and ascertain for themselves the situation in the community. They make sure their subordinates do the same. There is no substitute for face-to-face discussions to build understanding of the situation at a human, neighborhood level and then assemble that level of understanding into an appreciation of the larger situation.

3-65. To understand the environment, commanders need to know their role and that of their units within the environment. Commanders begin with their own chain of command. In many operations, the task organization combines units and headquarters that have not worked together previously. For many of the Regular Army units, this may be their first deployment in a domestic emergency. The command arrangements for civil support will differ from those used in combat operations. Commanders at each level meet with their seniors and subordinates early and often. As soon as they understand their military organization and commanders' intent, they do the same with leaders of other military forces and the civilian agencies. This parallels how commanders develop understanding in stability operations—the role of that unit within the larger context. Military forces are there to support citizens, working in conjunction with local, state and federal authorities.

Assess

3-66. Commanders stress assessment of the situation to their staffs and subordinates. They build situational awareness through coordination with supported and supporting agencies, other military forces, volunteer organizations, and contacts with the media. On the ground, leaders are certain to encounter misinformation and rumors, particularly in the early stages of response. Inoperable and incompatible communications, overloaded incident command centers, distraught citizens, and exaggerated or inaccurate news media coverage contribute to confusion. Although it may not be battle command as FM 3-0 defines it, the chaos surrounding a disaster poses challenges found in combat situations. Commanders keep in mind that the effectiveness of civil support depends not on the success of military missions, but on the effectiveness of the civilian agencies in meeting the citizens' needs.

3-67. Initial assessment is vital. The initial assessment provides the responding commander with information and recommendations to make timely decisions for the response. Initial assessment identifies specific needs on the ground and actual coordination requirements, including but not limited to items covered in local, state, and federal disaster plans. Prior planning and exercises are invaluable, but disasters never occur exactly as anticipated. The initial assessment provides information to help verify on-the-ground conditions. This information helps the commander make required decisions in order to provide the most effective military support for civil disaster response. During the initial assessment, the commander may determine that an existing plan fits a very different incident and can rapidly orient the unit on measures developed in response to that scenario, adapted for the situation.

Earthquake Plans Adapted to an Ice Storm

In February of 2009, a severe ice storm paralyzed western Kentucky. The storm left more than 100,000 citizens, many in rural areas, in dire circumstances. They had no electric power, no way to call for help and all the roads were blocked by broken trees. The Adjutant General of Kentucky, who was also the state's emergency manager, did not have a specific plan for a winter storm of this severity. However, he did have plans for dealing with an earthquake. He quickly realized that the effects of the ice storm were similar to those predicted for the earthquake. He ordered civilian responders and National Guard emergency forces to adapt the plan they had rehearsed in March of 2008 as part of an emergency response simulation. Subordinates took the initiative and executed ice storm relief effort based upon plans for a major earthquake. BG Heltzel, adjutant general of Kentucky, attributed the success of the relief effort to prior planning, even if it was for a very different emergency than actually occurred.

Lead

3-68. In civil support operations, commanders focus not only on their subordinates, but on their civilian counterparts. They work to develop trust and confidence between military and civilian personnel. This is an art, and it depends on human qualities. There is no checklist for how to do this, but it is essential for commanders to promote unified effort. Military commanders begin by demonstrating their willingness to support and not take charge of the various field offices. Close cooperation and honesty break down friction. Army leaders look for interagency shortfalls in personnel, communication, and situational awareness, and offer assistance if available. They stress that their Soldiers and personnel are there to help and to learn, and they demonstrate it by personal example.

COMMAND AND CONTROL OF MILITARY FORCES DURING DISASTER RESPONSE OPERATIONS

3-69. Probably the most challenging aspect of civil support is the command and control adjustments required to adapt Army forces to their supporting role within a multiagency environment. Specific areas that require attention include command and support relationships, command post operations, and communications, liaison, and control measures.

Parallel Command

3-70. In many large-scale civil support operations, state National Guard and federal military forces operate in overlapping areas but under separate chains of command. The parallel command structure is one of the means to enhance unity of effort, but its success depends on continuous coordination between all of its components. Within a parallel command structure, there is no single force commander and therefore no unity of command in the military sense. Both the federal and state militaries retain control of their respective forces. Decisions regarding the operation require the collective effort of all participating leaders: state and federal governmental leaders, and state and federal senior military leaders. These leaders collaborate within the NRF to develop common goals, unify their efforts, and accomplish the mission. Figure 3-8 shows an example of a parallel command structure.

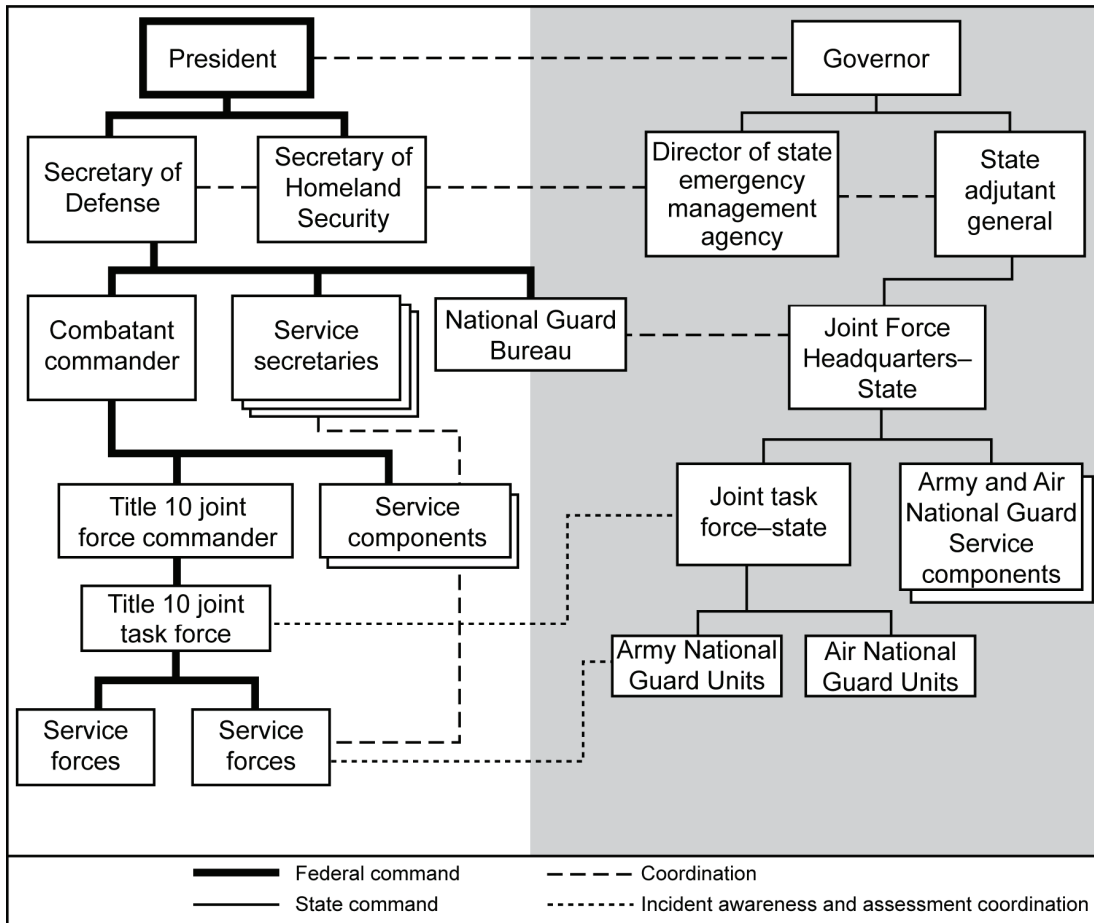


Figure 3-8. Example of parallel command structure

3-71. The challenge in using a parallel command structure for DSCA is its dependence on the efficient and effective use of available forces by the state and federal military chains of command. Therefore, its effectiveness depends on a close working relationship between commanders. Physically co-locating command posts or exchanging high-quality liaison officers at the command posts facilitates this coordination.

Command in Multistate Disasters

3-72. A major catastrophe such as a major earthquake may affect several states simultaneously. This makes a coordinated national response imperative. The military commitment could involve thousands of Soldiers from every component. Within the affected states, all National Guard forces will support their respective state’s first responders. However, in a multistate disaster, existing agreements for support from adjacent states may be overridden by the extent of the catastrophe. The National Guard Bureau will work with all unaffected states to coordinate for additional National Guard forces to deploy and reinforce the state National Guard forces within the affected states.

3-73. A multistate disaster will require FEMA to activate at least one joint field office per state. In those states where federal military forces join the response effort, a DCO will operate within each joint field office. In order to oversee the multiple responses FEMA may expand the regional coordination center within the disaster area (if still operational) to direct the regional response efforts. Note that DCOs from other FEMA regions would have to deploy to joint field offices established in each state since the regional DCO remains with the regional coordination center and principal federal official. The Department of

Homeland Security and FEMA would coordinate the National response efforts from the National Operations Center in Washington, DC.

3-74. Figure 3-9 illustrates command and control for a very large federal military forces response to a major catastrophe in the continental United States. In this hypothetical response, an earthquake on the scale of the 1811 New Madrid Quake (see vignette on page 3-20) strikes a region of the United States, devastating a three state region (states A, B, and C). State B suffers the greatest damage, including severe damage and large loss of life within a major metropolitan area. Other states beyond state A, B, and C are affected, but their state National Guard forces can meet military requirements. Supporting combatant commands, principally United States Joint Forces Command, provide federal military forces to USNORTHCOM.

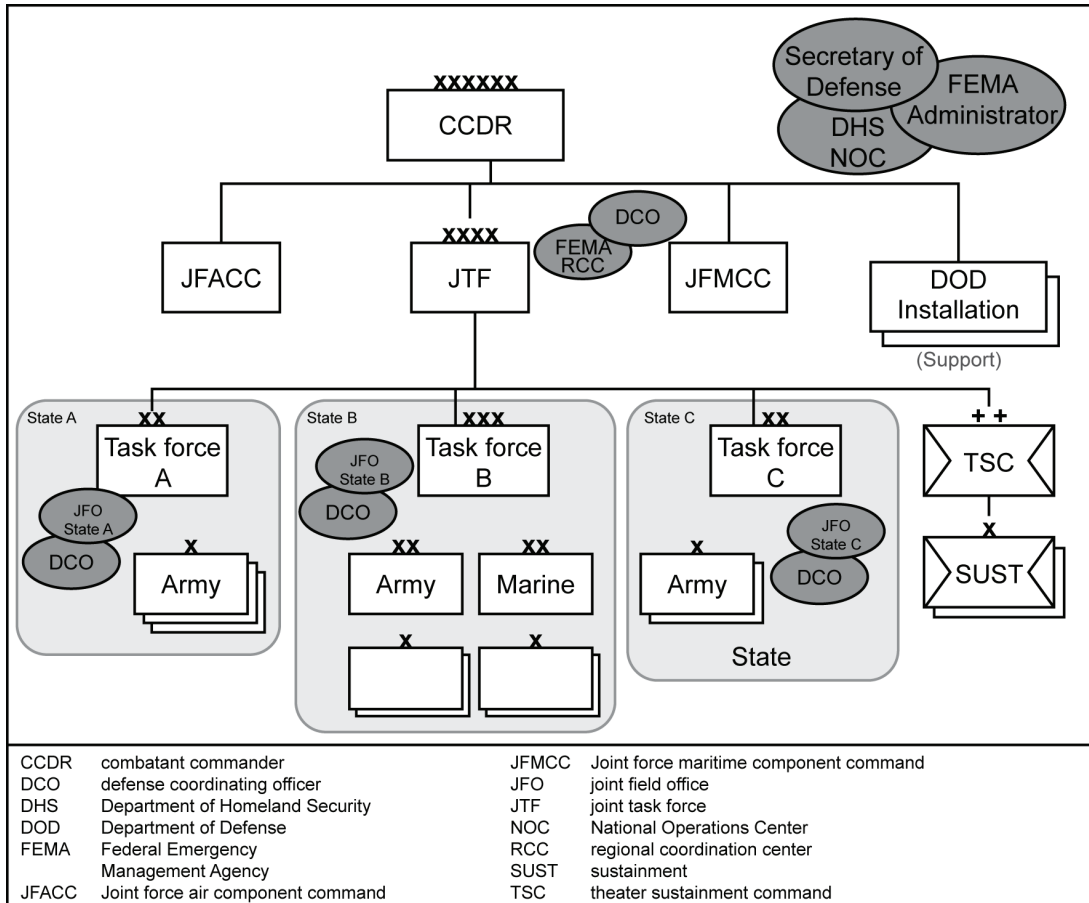


Figure 3-9. Multistate disaster requiring major commitment of federal military forces

The New Madrid Earthquake

In 1811 a massive earthquake devastated the Mississippi Valley region near modern Carbondale, Illinois. The quake was so violent that the Mississippi River reversed its course for a period and sections of the surrounding valley “liquefied” from the shaking. The quake was powerful enough to ring church bells on the East Coast of the United States. Other severe earthquakes followed in succeeding months. If the New Madrid Quake were to occur today, it could devastate several states along with major cities such as St. Louis and Memphis and shatter transportation and energy infrastructure crossing the Mississippi River. Today the New Madrid Earthquake scenario features prominently in FEMA and state planning for catastrophic disasters.

Command and Support Relationships

3-75. Command and support relationships require careful attention. Military forces remain under military chain of command, but state National Guard and federal military forces have different chains of command. Unless directed by the President as specified in law, the chains of command remain separate. Although the chains of command remain separate, the forces are often intermixed geographically.

Note: The U.S. Army Corps of Engineers operates separately from both state National Guard forces and federal military forces. The United States Army Corps of Engineers is the ESF coordinator for ESF #3 and receives priorities from the joint field office directly. Federal military forces may also receive mission assignments under ESF #3, but they remain under the joint task force’s command.

3-76. National Guard commanders may enhance unity of effort through judicious use of support relationships, which differ from command relationships under Army doctrine (see FM 3-0, appendix B). For example, the joint task force-state may place a National Guard company in direct support of a local incident commander. The National Guard commander receives his priorities directly from the incident commander, but retains operational control over all Guardsmen in the company.

3-77. Federal military forces are attached or under operational or tactical control to the federal military joint task force. The joint task force commander further task-organizes subordinate units based on mission assignments, normally specifying operational control by the gaining headquarters. Administrative control remains with the original providing component headquarters, subject to modification by the Secretary of the Army.

3-78. Support relationships can facilitate unified action when federal military and state National Guard forces operate in the same area, subject to mission assignments. Following requests from FEMA or the state, a federal military installation or unit may support a National Guard force, particularly in cases where the federal installation is supporting FEMA efforts. However, because the command lines remain separate, any supporting relationship requires approval by both DOD and the affected state's adjutant general, in coordination with their respective federal and state coordinating officers.

Command Post Operations

3-79. Command post operations pose different challenges from those encountered in a stability operation. Whenever possible, the joint task force headquarters should co-locate with their supported civilian coordinating officer. The state joint task force positions itself within or near the state emergency operations center, and the federal military joint task force co-locates with the joint field office. This eases communications challenges between the joint task force and the DCO. In practice, the joint field office positions itself near the incident area (50 to 100 miles away). If locating the joint field office near the state emergency operations center does not degrade support to the incident area, the federal coordinating officer will do so.

3-80. In some instances, it is not feasible to locate the federal military joint task force command post near the joint field office. The most practical solution is for the joint task force headquarters to remain at the base support installation (see chapter 8). The commander employs a small, mobile command post as a tactical command post to allow face-to-face contact with subordinate commanders while maintaining situational awareness between the DCO and joint task force main command post.

3-81. Similar considerations apply for subordinate units. Units position their command post close to their civilian counterpart's field facilities. If the civilian agencies have multiple facilities from which they are coordinating their response, the tactical unit selects a command post that provides rapid access to civilian locations by foot or vehicle. Units select command post facilities in coordination with their higher headquarters that—

- Allow communication with the higher and subordinate commanders. Disruption of civilian communications and the limitations of tactical radios become the primary considerations.
- Allow rapid road movement between higher and subordinate command posts
- Comply with requirements of state and local officials. Normally, the controlling joint task force headquarters negotiates contracts with local agencies for facilities, whether an existing structure or field location. Unit commanders may recommend a suitable facility based on advance party reconnaissance, but the approval remains with civilian authorities.

3-82. Access to the military command post should be as unrestricted as possible, consistent with force protection posture. Civilian officials and news media require frequent access. If space permits, the staff should designate an area where visitors can observe the command post, coordinate with various staff officers, and obtain reports. If the unit requires a work area for classified information (this seldom occurs), physically separate it from the rest of the tactical operations center and restrict access. Keep in mind that the local, state, and federal agencies all operate on unclassified networks; therefore, reports sent to any civilian agencies must be unclassified.

3-83. In the initial stages of operations, units deploy and operate their command posts in accordance with their standing operating procedures. As soon as practical, the commander should adjust the staff functions to align with the incident command system. This realignment will assist other agencies that coordinate with the unit and save time when processing requests and information. Initially, this can be as simple as placing the appropriate sections together and hanging an incident command system functional designation from the ceiling. Commanders should give careful consideration to their intelligence staff section. One option is to consolidate the S-2 and S-3 functions under the S-3 as the operations section. This can assist the commander in complying with the restrictions on intelligence in domestic environments. (See the discussion of intelligence in paragraphs 3-115 to 3-121, and in paragraphs 7-40–7-52.)

Communications

3-84. Based on studies conducted by the National Communication System and real world incidents (such as 9/11 and Hurricane Katrina), there is a high probability that commercial wired and wireless communication infrastructure will be highly saturated for an indeterminate period. This is due to several factors such as a higher than normal percentage of usage due to first responders, personnel staying home from work or school and personnel attempting to locate information on their loved ones potentially involved in the incident. Depending on the incident, there could also be a large percentage of the commercial communication system degraded or destroyed (electromagnetic pulse and cell towers being destroyed, for example). Power to cell phone towers remains problematic for an extended period due to back up batteries and generators shutting down communication nodes. Units cannot assume that wired (landline phones etc) or wireless communications will be functional during an incident and must plan for alternate forms of both communication and power without relying on the commercial communications system. Units should consider bringing additional iridium telephones (including dialing instructions, directory, battery charger, and case) to support civilian partner communications needs. Providing satellite telephones (with training) to key civilian leaders can greatly enhance communications and coordination.

3-85. Other communications equipment may be incompatible among various organizations. USARNORTH deployable headquarters have communications systems that are compatible with civilian and military communications systems, as do many National Guard forces. Regular Army and Army reserve

forces may have a range of communications capabilities, including legacy systems such as mobile subscriber equipment, newly fielded tactical command and control systems such as command post of the future, and developmental systems. Initially, federal military units may need to provide communications equipment and network access to civilian responders until the civilian communications grid is restored.

3-86. Upon alert, communications officers verify the communications systems required. They obtain frequency lists approved by FEMA and the Federal Communications Commission through their controlling joint task force headquarters. If a unit system is incompatible with local emergency systems, and gaining headquarters, the unit should coordinate with the gaining combatant command and DCO for additional capability for its liaison teams. Units plan for expedient communications that include—

- Liaison teams with unit-compatible communications deployed to the gaining headquarters and supported incident commander or civilian incident command post.
- Satellite telephones. Satellite telephones such as iridium can provide voice communications regardless of the state of the local cellular telephone network or power grid.
- Couriers. A Soldier with a high mobility vehicle can drive to a command post and deliver messages and orders. If roads are passable, a rental or General Services Administration vehicle is more efficient. A very expensive alternative is a helicopter.
- Additional signal units and capabilities. Communications officers should identify ground radio relay as well as single channel satellite communications requirements to ensure they are included in the force package.
- Use of the internet. Most communications will travel via commercial telephone networks or the internet. Signal planning must include the ability to access commercial internet, commercial telephone, and video teleconference (VTC) networks. With internet access (wireless or landline), virtual private network (VPN) software, and Army Knowledge Online (AKO) addresses, units can create a command and control network able to handle almost all of their requirements.

3-87. Federal military units should be prepared to integrate communication systems with civilian agencies. Commanders should not assume that military tactical radio equipment would be able to communicate with civilian equipment, due to equipment differences, spectrum requirements, and the geography at the incident. Interoperability should include radio bridging devices that can connect varied devices such as tactical radios to cell phones, and sharing data through a common information management plan. Army forces that support civilian responders in the field (such as medical, logistics, and aviation) must be able to communicate with civilian responders in order to receive instructions and coordinate. When assisting civilian first responders, federal military units will not only be responsible for communicating with other military units, but also with supported civilian responders. Available technology will assist in bridging these capability gaps. For example, radio bridging equipment allows military tactical equipment to communicate with common civilian radio equipment.

Liaison Officers

3-88. Deployed units supporting the disaster need many liaison officers. Commanders plan for additional liaison teams as part of the force package. During relief efforts in Hurricane Katrina, for example, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers and other engineer units requested and obtained officers from United States Army Training and Doctrine Command and United States Army Forces Command to increase their liaison capability. Depending on connectivity, these officers can be very effective when equipped with a laptop, cell phone, and rental car. However, they will require satellite-based communications to coordinate in incident areas where the cellular communications are not working.

3-89. In addition to unit requirements, the DCO is inside the joint field office with a defense coordinating element to provide technical expertise and coordination. When required, the DCO requests augmentation for the defense coordinating element from the supported combatant commander. The DCO deploys emergency preparedness liaison officers to National Guard headquarters and military installations to serve as liaison between state National Guard and federal military forces and installations.

3-90. Differences in equipment, capabilities, doctrine, rules for the use of force, and law are some of the interoperability challenges that mandate close cooperation by supporting forces. State National Guard and federal joint task force headquarters should exchange qualified liaison officers at the earliest opportunity. The primary function of the liaison officer is coordination to increase situational understanding. Commanders ensure liaison officers or teams deploy with sufficient communications equipment to permit real-time communication between their respective commanders. Commanders ensure liaison officers are operationally proficient, innovative, tenacious, diplomatic, and have the authority to speak for their parent commander.

Areas of Operations

3-91. National Guard commanders normally use *areas of operations* (see Joint Publication (JP) 3-0) as a primary control measure in disaster response. Before assigning an area of operations, commanders consider the factors described in paragraphs 3-92 to 3-95.

3-92. Unlike combat operations, assignment of an area of operations does not determine the supported commander. It only delineates the area in which a military unit concentrates its support to civil authorities. Legal responsibilities remain with the established jurisdictions unless modified by the governor or the President.

3-93. Commanders should designate areas of operation based upon civilian administrative boundaries such as precincts, municipal boundaries, and county lines whenever possible. Within those boundaries, deployed units should support civil authorities as specified in their mission assignments. Wherever possible, commanders align a specific unit within a civilian jurisdiction. For example, a National Guard rifle company may support a police precinct. Its area of operations would be the precinct boundaries.

3-94. The area of operations for a joint task force–state should coincide with the declared disaster area. The governor normally requests disaster declarations based on county jurisdictions. National-level support, directed by FEMA, will encompass the same area.

3-95. The federal joint task force commander may establish a *joint operations area* (see JP 3-0) to aid in control of federal military forces. Federal military forces do not normally receive an area of operations. They operate in general support of the federal civilian agencies across the disaster area, providing functional support such as distribution of supplies, support to hospitals and shelters, and movement of personnel. An exception may involve an incident occurring on federal lands, when Army units have responsibility for support within a defined area such as a canyon or lake. Another exception involves incorporation of supporting installations within the joint operations area. The joint force commander may extend the joint operations area to include supporting military installations.

PROTECTION DURING DISASTER RESPONSE OPERATIONS

3-96. There are many important considerations related to protection. Safety is just as important in civil support as in other elements of full spectrum operations. Composite risk management is one of the processes commanders use to integrate these and other protection considerations. Appendix B provides a more detailed discussion of safety. Other important considerations include rules for the use of force, restrictions on weapons, and force health protection.

3-97. Rules for the use of force prescribe graduated levels of force used against citizens in a domestic environment, based on the citizen's behavior and threat posture. They share with the more commonly known rules of engagement one fundamental—Soldiers may use lethal force if they are in imminent risk of death or major injury. Beyond that, they differ. Rules of engagement are permissive and intended to allow commanders to fight enemy combatants and avoid inflicting unnecessary losses on noncombatants. Rules for the use of force are restrictive and intended to restrict lethal and nonlethal force according to the risk. A classified Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff instruction (CJCSI) establishes policies and procedures for *standing rules for the use of force* (SRUF) for all federal military forces conducting civil support and certain other missions. (See appendix B of JP 3-28 for a discussion of these policies and procedures as they relate to civil support. See also the current CJCS DSCA EXORD.) The joint task force commander may