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Program Planning Guide

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PROGRAM PLANNING GUIDE



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This paper presents a step by step procedure for planning a relief or reconstruction program.

1. DETERMINING HOW AND WHERE TO INTERVENE

The first step in program planning is to decide how and where the agency can be most helpful. This activity is called disaster assessment. There are two types of assessments, damage assessment and needs assessment. For most relief and reconstruction programs, needs assessment is the most important.

Once the basic needs have been identified, they should be quantified. Agencies should be careful not to become too overly involved in surveying, but should attempt to gather a rough estimate of percentages of families requiring different types of assistance. Care should be taken not to over-estimate demands. "A count needs to be taken of the reserves of food, medicine, clothing and building materials existing within the community, and of the capacity of the victims to help themselves and each other. Rarely will everyone in the area be stricken, and of those who are, not all will take advantage of the relief offered."¹

The next step is to determine what gaps exist in the overall assistance picture. Agencies should remember that other relief organizations will also provide aid and their plans should be taken into account before the agency decides which activities it will undertake in any particular area.

A technique used by INTERTECT to help agencies decide what assistance they will provide are the Gap Identification Sheets shown in Figures 1 and 2. By using these sheets, an agency can determine whether or not assistance is needed and if another agency is providing it.

2. INITIAL STEPS IN PROGRAM PLANNING

Once an agency has decided on a certain course of action, the next step is to precisely define what the program hopes to attain and to establish a framework for guiding the decisions that will be required in subsequent activities. To do this, an agency first sets its policies, establishes goals and objectives, and finally selects the strategies and approaches by which the objectives will be attained. The process sounds simple, and in fact, it is. Yet it is surprising how many agencies fail to utilize these practices and flounder because no one is sure precisely what the goals of the program are.

¹: Assessment of Victim Needs, by Alan J. Taylor, INTERTECT, 1979

A. Setting Policies

Policies shape the response. They provide the framework, or the standard, by which choices are measured. Setting policies is one of the easiest of all the program planning steps, but unfortunately is the one which is the most often neglected. Ideally, an agency that repeatedly responds to disasters, sets its policies as part of its preparedness activities, and thus, when a disaster breaks, those involved in the initial program have some guidance to structure their decision-making.

The following policies, which are derived by the CRS staff in the Dominican Republic to guide their housing reconstruction program following hurricanes Frederick and David in 1979, demonstrate how simple a policy framework can be:

- (1) To support and expand local actions or groups
- (2) To conduct all activities in such a way as to meet development goals
- (3) To maximize all expenditures through recapture of funds, extension of buying power, multiple objective planning
- (4) To give priority to people who are not eligible for any other form of assistance (or to those one step up)
- (5) To rely on appropriate technology
- (6) To spend majority of funds within the project areas
- (7) To give priority to _____ area or _____ sector.

Once policies are set, every time a choice needs to be made, it can be reviewed against the policies set by the organization to determine whether or not it "fits."

B. Objectives

Identification of the objectives of the program is the next step in planning. This does not need to be overly complicated. Each objective can be put in a narrative form and should describe what the agency hopes to obtain by each action or set of actions in each part of the program or sector of activity. The objectives set for the CRS program in the Dominican Republic were:

- (1) To upgrade the standard of housing within the project area
- (2) To provide increased job opportunities
- (3) To improve local skills or diversify them
- (4) To provide alternate income to people whose economic livelihood has been hurt by the storm
- (5) To restore or develop new equitable marketing systems within the project.

The identification of objectives is the time to discuss how programs in different sectors can be tied together to attain broader results. An agency should strive for balance and consider more than one way of attaining a particular objective.

C. Goal Setting

Goal setting is the quantification of the objectives. The purpose of goal setting is to determine how much assistance is going to be provided and how many beneficiaries will be recipients.

Some examples of goals from the CRS program:

- (1) To reach 25% of the low income people within the project area
- (2) To provide 1000 loans, 5000 subsidies, 1000 grants in the project area
- (3) To increase the margin of safety in the housing affected by this program by 50%.

The establishment of realistic goals requires much forethought and discussion. At this point the agency must balance its desire to help against a realistic assessment of the organization's capabilities.

D. The Determination of Strategies and Approaches

The determination of strategies and approaches is the final step in planning a relief or reconstruction program.

To differentiate between the two terms, a strategy is the plan for attaining the goal, while an approach is the method used. To help further clarify the differences between the two terms, consider the following example: In order to provide replacement housing following a disaster, the strategies open to an agency are:

- To provide indirect assistance by stimulating the housing industry;
- To provide direct assistance by giving loans and grants;
- To provide direct assistance by establishing a housing program.

Assuming that the strategy chosen by the agency is to establish a housing program, some approaches that might be available include:

- Provide the needed construction materials and tools;
- Provide materials and technical assistance in an aided self-help construction program;

- Establish a construction team and build frames and roofs of houses and leave the remainder of the construction and finishing details to the homeowner;
- Establish a construction team and rebuild complete replacement houses for a designated number of people in the project area.

The selection of one strategy or approach should not preclude the adoption of others, if the resources of the agency allow. It is especially important that approaches should be balanced and complimentary.

3. SETTING UP THE PROGRAM

Once planning is complete, the process of putting it into operation begins. This entails allocating resources, developing the management component, and initiating the projects.

A. Resource Allocation

The allocation of resources, especially money, is one of the most difficult choices that an agency will face. It is important to balance the program and to develop an appropriate "mix" of activities. The following sets of concepts are helpful to know. The first describes ways in which funds can be stretched, thus they are known as funding concepts.

- (1) Linking to other programs - This is the simplest and most effective way to expand the capabilities of an organization. The methods usually considered are cost sharing, pooling of resources, or contributing matching funds.
- (2) Recoverable funding - In recoverable funding, all or a portion of the funds distributed are returned to the program (usually for reinvestment in the program). The most common examples are the use of revolving loans and sales or subsidy schemes. Recoverable funding increases the number of people who can be served and extends the "service" of the cash originally committed.
- (3) Maximization of buying power - This refers to the practice of selectively spending money so that either the programs' or the beneficiaries' financial power is extended. For example, an agency can use its money to guarantee loans from normal financial institutions to clients that normally would not be eligible instead of using its own resources to make the loans. In this manner, \$100,000 could be used to guarantee up to \$1,000,000 or more in loans, thus increasing ten-fold the buying power of the money the agency has on hand. At the individual level, an example of maximizing expenditures is the use of coupons or redeemable certificates

(such as food stamps) to increase the buying power of the people. In this way, the resources of the agency are "piggy-backed" with the resources of the victims.

(4) Multiple objective planning - In multiple objective planning, expenditures are targeted so that more than one objective is reached with each activity. At its most sophisticated, it is the placement of money in the community in such a way that the majority of the funds will stay in the community or at least pass through several hands before leaving. A sample scenario: a work project is established to repair a road damaged by the disaster, people are paid in cash and coupons redeemable in local markets only, the workers spend the money and help stimulate recovery of the market, which in turn buys goods from the farmers affected by the disaster. The objectives reached: repair of a road, provision of capital to the victims, the victims' buying power is extended, the market is stimulated, an economic unit (the market) is assisted, and finally, the farmers (victims themselves) are assisted. The number of contacts handling the money: three

The second set of concepts describes some guiding principles for balancing a program.

(1) Concentration of resources - In order to have the maximum effect on a community, a program should concentrate its resources in a specific geographic area. The size should be such that funding activities are complimentary. Expenditures in one sector can have an effect on other sectors in the same community. If an agency is funding a housing program in one community and an agricultural recovery program in another, the result will be less effective than if they were in the same community. Also the overall cost will be higher.

(2) Balance between family and community assistance - In certain situations it is possible to coordinate so that both families and communities receive assistance concurrently and a degree of balance is attained. Yet, because full recovery is not complete until all sectors are restored to normalcy, thus assistance in the form of community projects, especially following large disasters in remote rural areas may be required. As a rule of thumb, approximately one-fourth to one-third of the project funds should be used for labor intensive community projects.

(3) Loan to grants ratio - When direct assistance is provided to families, the financial capabilities of the average family to be served should be considered before deciding on the financial approach. A good balance between loans and grants is approximately 80 - 20. It should be remembered that grants or donations are non-recoverable and an assistance program will soon be out of business if this course is pursued. For Integrated Recovery Programs a suggested balance is 40% subsidies, 30% loans, 20% community assistance projects and 10% grants.

4. PROGRAM MANAGEMENT

The next step in setting up a program is to establish the management apparatus. Activities include establishment of a Table of Organization (or organigram), developing a budget and hiring the staff and consultants. The more professional agencies have organized project management systems which provide a sequenced guide for the staff to follow.

Whatever method an organization chooses for managing its program, there are several aspects of each activity which should be considered.

A. Establishing a Table of Organization

A Table of Organization is the instrument for organizing the staff, establishing lines of authority, establishing a hierarchy of responsibility and for establishing lines of communication. Care must be taken to ensure that decision-making is not inadvertently restricted and that the flow of information is not inhibited.

Here are some helpful hints for establishing a organigram:

(1) Form should follow function - This means that the structure of an organization should be built around the activities that are going to be conducted. To do this, the staff classifies all the activities which are related by either function or by the skills or compatibility of skills necessary to carry out a set of tasks. Administrative tasks, for example, should be assigned to administrative staff. Operational tasks should be assigned to operational units or personnel with operational skills, tools, or other capabilities.

(2) The organigram should encourage participatory management - While decision making and clear lines of authority are required, there must be appropriate mechanisms which give the people access to decision makers and encourage participation at the highest levels. This can often be accomplished by establishing citizens' advisory committees or boards at the upper levels of the program and project are a committees at the lower levels. By developing mechanisms for participation by the victims, the flow of information from the community to the program staff is facilitated.

(3) Retain a reasonable span of control - A common weakness of many Tables of Organization is that key people are assigned too many responsibilities. In management, this is known as exceeding the "span-of-control limits." Span-of-control is the number of subordinates or activities that any one person can control or supervise effectively. It has been found that each individual has a limit as to how many different activities he can coordinate at any one time. The absolute maximum is seven. For most people, the span-of-control limit is between three and five. Thus, when setting up an organigram, care should be taken that the

number of subordinates or activities that an individual is required to supervise does not exceed this limit.

(4) Establish shortcuts - In establishing an organigram, the planner should ensure that there are channels which allow those at the lower echelons of a program to have access to the upper echelons and persons in authority. In industry, this is handled by the establishment of workers committees or unions and trade guilds. The larger a program, the more important it is for the people who are doing the work to have a voice in the program and a representative or advocate at the highest levels. Because of the nature of relief programs, the higher turnover of staff and the mix of expatriates and local people, staff problems are higher than in most organizations. By developing a place for workers to participate on a regular basis, in the organigram, a program will run much more smoothly.

B. Staffing

Staffing of a relief program is another activity which requires careful consideration. In the initial aftermath of a disaster, there is usually an abundance of volunteers for emergency programs. The majority of these are victims and they can be hastily organized to carry out the relief activities. (The more sophisticated activities such as epidemiological surveillance, initial damage assessment, and restoration of lifelines is normally carried out by predesignated agencies or officials according to a disaster response plan.)

In the later phases of a disaster, a different type of staff is normally needed to carry out recovery and reconstruction programs. Additional skills will be required, both in administration, as well as certain technical skills, and a greater degree of sophistication in overall program planning and management will be necessary. The bulk of the actual field work, of course, will still be carried out by the victims themselves and persons recruited from the project area or the surrounding area.

At the end of the emergency, a change in staffing will be necessary. Most emergency activities can be carried out by volunteers, longer term reconstruction and recovery staff will require salaries. The failure to prepare for this transition can delay the program. When persons in key positions quit to return to their normal work, time, money, and momentum can be lost while waiting for replacements. Many agencies are disappointed that people do not seem to want to volunteer for the longer term activities, but in reality, people should not be expected to work without pay. Agencies who are committed to using volunteers or payment schemes which pay in kind, such as food-for-work, often find it difficult to operate beyond the transition period.

Another staffing question is what to do with expatriate volunteers. Under most circumstances, the majority of the relief work should be

carried out by local personnel. In certain positions, trained professionals may be needed and often they cannot be found within the community. Thus, the hiring of expatriates may be required. Organizations should attempt to rely as much as possible on local personnel. Over-reliance on expatriates is a source of irritation to the local people, especially when there are racial, linguistic, cultural or economic differences. Many Third World people find it damaging to their pride to find that outsiders do not believe that they can handle the situation without outside help. This can be a subtle obstacle to achieving project goals and agencies should be sensitive to this feeling.

Several suggestions for staffing are:

- (1) Do not hire an expatriate when a local person with the same skills is available.
- (2) A proper balance between local and expatriate staff should be achieved. Local personnel must be included at all levels, not just the lower ranks.
- (3) Only expatriates with technical skills should be placed in a position as an advisor. Expatriates in advisory positions should be assigned local counterparts. The expatriates tasks should be defined in terms of training, advising and organizing rather than as performing unassisted tasks.
- (4) Equitable and equal salaries should be paid to both expatriates and local personnel.²

A final question that arises in relation to staffing is the use of technical personnel and consultants. The choice of whether or not to use a consultant is always difficult, and experience and results are varied. For the most part, a consultant's performance depends on his previous experience, and at present, there are very few consultants who have extensive field experience in the actual preparation and execution of post-disaster programs. Without this base of experience, it is difficult for them to be effective. The use of academics and technicians from non-disaster-oriented firms, for example, has generally met with poor results.

The problem is that there are few consultants who can be chosen at random and assigned to a disaster. Agencies should assess what type of services may be required and develop linkages with consultants before a disaster strikes. Consultants should receive orientation and training about disasters and the operating methods of the organization. By doing so, both the program and the consultant will be more effective.

². Relief Operations Guidebook, Chapter 2. Published by INTERTECT, 1973.

C. Budgeting and Monetary Control

Budgeting for post-disaster programs is usually a trial and error process. Relief agencies rarely know precisely how much money they have to operate with, and this, coupled with uncertainties awaiting disaster assessment, make it difficult to allocate financial resources. Thus, simple, accurate systems which facilitate budgeting and cost control are important considerations.

Many agencies tend to develop their final budgets early in a program. In some agencies, where rigid financial policies exist, a quickly prepared budget may inadvertently become an instrument which restricts the program.

The most realistic way to overcome budgeting problems is for an agency to establish a policy on how and when it will commit its funds in each phase of the disaster. For example, some agencies place a significant portion (up to 75%) of all funds received from initial appeals into a contingency fund for use in longer term programs during reconstruction. This allows the field staff to develop more realistic budgets in the later stages of recovery.

Whatever approach is used, a budget must be flexible and allow for inflation of local prices. If it is formulated during the initial stages of a disaster, a large portion of the total budget should be left in uncommitted contingency reserve so that the field staff can adapt to the changing situation and respond to unmet needs.

Many agencies experience difficulty with monetary control and have trouble accounting for funds. Usually this is because they do not utilize accounting systems that are adapted to a disaster situation. Good field accounting requires (a) a simple field-accounting system that is easy to use, easy to carry and places the emphasis of trust on the user, (b) training in how to use the system before disaster strikes, (c) a system that recognizes the need for flexibility as well as simplicity. Several agencies have recently begun to utilize simplified field account books which have built-in impression pads so that duplicate or triplicate records can be prepared and maintained.

D. Project Management Systems

For agencies conducting large-scale or complex projects, a method for managing, sequencing and monitoring activities and progress is needed. Most programs consist of a number of separate activities, or operations which are related to each other in varying degrees. Some activities cannot be started until other activities are completed, while some can. A management tool that can be used to show the sequence and relationship between various operations is the flow chart. Business and industry have long used methods such as bar charts, CPM and

PERT¹ for planning and managing projects and these techniques can be adapted for disaster programs.

A flow chart is a network diagram that graphically depicts the project activities and puts them in a logical order. Flow charts highlight the "critical path"² and activities that must be administered to help keep a project on schedule. Program managers, using flow charts, can monitor progress and determine when it is necessary to speed up certain activities or operations to complete the project on time. Using a flow chart, it is possible to understand how the parts of a project should fit together. A program coordinator and his staff can visualize how the different activities of the project relate to each other and test the logic of proposed actions. Furthermore, the network diagram is an excellent method to show workers the plan of the project and their role in relation to others.

Flow charts can be used two ways:

- (1) To plan a program where the resources and events and objectives are known in advance, and/or
- (2) To illustrate a plan for responding to a situation which has not yet developed.

The benefits of flow-charting become apparent as soon as the charts are prepared. Most important is that the agency is forced to formulate a plan for the entire project. This planning process is itself worthwhile. If properly developed, a flow chart is instrumental in project management and control.

5. MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Monitoring is the process of watching the program to ensure it is operating smoothly. Incoming information is used to determine the performance of the program against objectives. Things to monitor are: whether or not the program is proceeding according to schedule, the flow of cash, overall performance of staff and the overall performance of the program. Monitoring is used to identify bottlenecks and obstacles that cause delays. It is a continuous process and provides the basis for making adjustments while the program is in progress.

Evaluation is a detailed review of the program upon completion of an important milestone or at the end of a specified period. Evaluations should

1. The critical path is defined as that sequence of dependent operations from the beginning to the end of a project which requires the greatest amount of time.

2. CPM - Critical Path Method, PERT - Project Evaluation and Review Techniques

be carried out both during and after the program. The purpose of evaluation is much broader than monitoring. It determines whether or not the program approach is valid and assesses the impact of the program on the community. Another purpose of evaluation is to help agencies develop a basis of information and derive lessons learned which will help the agency in its future activities.

6. WINDING DOWN (OR KNOWING WHEN TO QUIT)

Terminating program activities can be more difficult for agencies than would be expected. Most programs end when the goals have been achieved. Another method is to end activities when a particular phase of the disaster ends. Thus, when a particular phase ends, activities in that period should be phased out.

Certain activities are only appropriate during particular phases. As a general rule, relief (charity) programs should end with the emergency. Rehabilitation or transitional programs should end shortly after people have returned home or have gone back to their regular work. Reconstruction programs should be phased out, either when all activities are back to normal or when it is obvious that processes initiated by the program can continue without further support from the agency. Because of the funding procedures for many agencies however, funds may just be arriving when a phase ends, and if they are earmarked or already committed for activities in that phase, a program may just be starting when events dictate that it should be ending.

By timing relief programs to events, agencies can exert some influence over the time it takes to recover. If programs continue which are inappropriate to the particular phase, the recovery time will be increased.

7. COMMON PROBLEMS IN PROGRAM PLANNING

An analysis of program planning in a relief operations reveals twelve common errors or failures.

- Common Problems in program planning: The vast majority of relief reconstruction programs are conducted without the establishment of formal goals or objectives. Often there are vague pronouncements or statements such as, "To help the victim," or, "To reconstruct houses". Until a program has established where it is going, it is going to be difficult to determine how to get there.
- Failure to Establish Policies to Shape Program Planning
- Failure to Fully Involve the Local People in the Planning Process
- Failure to Examine the Complete Range of Options: Too often, an agency selects the first approach that comes along. Usually, this is a matter of not taking enough time to explore the choices, or unfamiliarity with the alternatives.

- Selection of only One Strategy or Approach to Problem Solving
- Failure to Balance the Project: A balanced project is one which meets a variety of related needs. For example: a housing reconstruction program that provides training on improved construction techniques, job opportunities for local builders and craftsmen, employment opportunities so that local people can gain the funds necessary to participate in the program, and supplementary programs designed to improve the sites and services (sanitation, etc.) would be considered a balanced program. One that simply provides a replacement for a damaged house would not.
- Overextension: Programs become overextended by (1) trying to meet too many needs, (2) trying to meet the needs of too many people, or (3) trying to meet the needs in too broad an area.
- Failure to Consider the Long-Term Impact
- Failure to Select a Management Model that Fits the Objectives of the Project
- Failure to Develop a Management Plan
- Failure to Properly Budget a Project
- Failure to Obtain Proper Technical Inputs

8. COMMON PROBLEMS IN PROGRAM EXECUTION

The following problems are commonly found in the execution of relief programs:

- Overloading the local organization with too much work or money.
- Concentration on the products, not the process
- Failure to support local organizations
- Failure to concentrate resources where the agency is most effective
- Staying in relief too long
- Failure to utilize local resources
- Failure to mitigate the recurrence of the disaster
- Failure to develop local capabilities

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Fig. 2 (Sheet 1 of 3)

GAP IDENTIFICATION (EMERGENCY OPS.)

ACTIONS	PLAN	AGENCY	PERSON RESPONSIBLE	ALTERNATE	COMMENTS
Phase I (1st 24-48 hours)					
A. Coordination					
B. Disaster Assessment					
1. Initial Emergency Needs (Victims)					
2. Damage Assessment and Blockage ID					
3. Survey of Available Facilities					
4. Epidemiological Surveillance					
C. Search and Rescue					
1. Coordination					
2. Assignments					
3. Supplies					
4. Records					
D. Security					
1. Police					
2. Military					
E. Emergency Operations					
1. Lifelines					
a. Hospitals					
B. Electricity					
c. Transport					

Fig. 2 (Sheet 2 of 3)

GAP IDENTIFICATION (EMERGENCY OPS.)

ACTIONS	PLAN	AGENCY	PERSON RESPONSIBLE	ALTERNATE	COMMENTS
d. Roads					
e. Water					
f. Sanitation					
g. Sanitation					
h. Others					
2. Emergency Relief					
a. First Aid					
bc. Food for Relief Workers					
c. Food for Victims					
d. Material Aid					
e. Fuel					
f. Shelter Operations					
F. Information Dissemination					
1. Coordination					
2. Verification					
Phase II					
A. Coordination					
B. Detailed Assessment					
1. Interim Victim Needs					

Figure 2 (Sheet 3 of 3)
 GAP IDENTIFICATION (EMERGENCY OPS.)

ACTIONS	PLAN	AGENCY	PERSON RESPONSIBLE	ALTERNATE	COMMENTS
2. Detailed Damage Survey					
3. Priority Repairs I.D.					
4. Epidemiological Reports					
5. Vital Statistics					
6. Estimate of Economic Loss/Damages					
7. Inventory of Resources					
C. Relief Program					
1. Interum Aid					
a. Food					
b. Materials					
c. Shelter					
d. Tools					
e. Economic Assistance					
f. Jobs Programmes/Work Schemes					
D. Salvage Ops					
1. Equipment Recovery					
2. Materials Recovery					
E. Other Ops.					

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Figure 1 (Sheet 1 of 5)

GAP IDENTIFICATION (PRE DISASTER)

ACTIONS	PLAN	AGENCY RESPONSIBLE	AUTHORITY TO ACTIVATE PLAN GIVEN BY	PERSON RESPONSIBLE	ALTERNATE	CHECKED BY
I. <u>Coordination</u>						
A. National Government Coordination						
B. Local Coordination						
C. Press Coordination						
D. International Coordination						
E. Volag Coordination						
II. <u>Communications</u>						
A. Telegram						
B. Radio (in- country)						
C. Radio (ex-country)						
D. Telex						
III. <u>Warnings and Evacuations</u>						
A. Authority						
B. Warning Dissemination Coordination						
C. Warning Dissemination Local Level						
D. Support for Evacuations (trucks, buses, etc.)						
E. Shelter for Evacuees						
F. Supplies for Evacuees						

GAP IDENTIFICATION (PRE DISASTER)

ACTIONS	PLAN	AGENCY RESPONSIBLE	AUTHORITY TO ACTIVATE PLAN GIVEN BY	PERSON RESPONSIBLE	ALTERNATE	CHECKED BY
IV. <u>Critical Facilities Protection</u>						
A. Communications						
1. Key Installations						
2. Equipment						
3. Supplies for Repairs						
B. Electric Power						
1. Key Installations						
2. Equipment						
3. Supplies for Repairs						
C. Security						
1. Installations						
2. Equipment and Vehicles						
D. Public Works Department						
1. Installations						
2. Equipment and Vehicles						
3. Materials and Supplies for Repairs						
E. Vital Government Offices						
1. Buildings						
2. Communications						

Fig. 1 (Sheet 3 of 5)

GAP IDENTIFICATION (PRE DISASTER)

ACTIONS	PLAN	AGENCY RESPONSIBLE	AUTHORITY TO ACTIVATE PLAN GIVEN BY	PERSON RESPONSIBLE	ALTERNATE	CHECKED BY
3. Security						
4. Supplies						
5. Records and Valuable documents						
F. Search and Rescue Participants						
1. Vehicles						
2. Routes						
3. Equipment and Supplies						
G. Medical Facilities						
1. Installations						
2. Power and Light						
3. Supplies and Equipment						
4. Emergency Support Staff						
H. Water System						
1. Installations						
2. Equipment and Vehicles						
3. Supplies for Repairs						
4. Emergency Supply Containers						
I. Sanitation System						
1. Installation						
2. Equipment and Vehicles						

Fig. 1 (Sheet 4 of 5)

GAP IDENTIFICATION (PRE DISASTER)

ACTIONS	PLAN	AGENCY RESPONSIBLE	AUTHORITY TO ACTIVATE PLAN GIVEN BY	PERSON RESPONSIBLE	ALTERNATE	CHECKED BY
3. Supplies for Repair						
J. Airports						
1. Installations						
2. Communications/NAVAIDS						
3. Fueling						
4. Aircraft Protection						
K. Port Facilities						
1. Wharves and Warehouses						
2. Equipment						
3. Tugs						
4. Customs Materials						
L. Other Critical Facilities						

Fig 1. (Sheet 5 of 5)

GAP IDENTIFICATION (PRE DISASTER)

ACTIONS	PLAN	AGENCY RESPONSIBLE	AUTHORITY TO ACTIVATE PLAN GIVEN BY	PERSON RESPONSIBLE	ALTERNATE	CHECKED BY
<p>V. <u>Special Problem Facilities Groups</u></p> <p>A. Dams</p> <p>B. Refineries</p> <p>C. Irrigation Installations</p> <p>D. Areas Where Warnings Must Be Hand Carried</p> <p>E. Fishermen</p> <p>F. Key Industries</p> <p>G. Areas, Industries Likely To Experience Secondary Affects</p>						