Brief Histories of

U.S. Government Agencies

Volume Four

Compiled and Edited by

Michael Erbschloe

Connect with Michael on LinkedIn

Table of Contents Volume Four

Table of Contents Volume Three

Table of Contents Volume Two

Table of Contents Volume One

About the Editor

Michael Erbschloe has worked for over 30 years performing analysis of the economics of information technology, public policy relating to technology, and utilizing technology in reengineering organization processes. He has authored several books on social and management issues of information technology that were published by McGraw Hill and other major publishers. He has also taught at several universities and developed technology-related curriculum. His career has focused on several interrelated areas:

- Technology strategy, analysis, and forecasting
- Teaching and curriculum development
- Writing books and articles
- Publishing and editing
- Public policy analysis and program evaluation

Books by Michael Erbschloe

Social Media Warfare: Equal Weapons for All (Auerbach Publications)
Walling Out the Insiders: Controlling Access to Improve Organizational Security (Auerbach Publications)
Physical Security for IT (Elsevier Science)
Trojans, Worms, and Spyware (Butterworth-Heinemann)
Implementing Homeland Security in Enterprise IT (Digital Press)
Guide to Disaster Recovery (Course Technology)
Socially Responsible IT Management (Digital Press)
Information Warfare: How to Survive Cyber Attacks (McGraw Hill)
The Executive's Guide to Privacy Management (McGraw Hill)
Net Privacy: A Guide to Developing & Implementing an e-business Privacy Plan (McGraw Hill)

Introduction

This book provides a brief history of U.S. Government agencies that were retrieved from the agency websites and other sources. The purpose is to preserve that documentation. The editor is not attempting to copyright public documents. This book also shows how government agencies help organizations and individuals. Grants are one example as well as housing loans and employment assistance.

What is a Grant from the Government? A grant is one of the ways the government funds ideas and projects to provide public services and stimulate the economy. Grants support critical recovery initiatives, innovative research, and many other programs listed in the Catalog of Federal Domestic Assistance (CFDA).

The federal government typically awards grants to state and local governments, universities, researchers, law enforcement, organizations, and institutions planning major projects that will benefit specific parts of the population or the community as a whole.

Contrary to what you might see online or in the media, the federal government does not offer grants or “free money” to individuals to start a business, or cover personal expenses. However, the government offers federal benefit programs designed to help individuals and families in need become self-sufficient or lower their expenses.

Use the federal government’s free, official website, Grants.gov rather than commercial sites that may charge a fee for grant information or application forms. Grants.gov centralizes information from more than 1,000 government grant programs to help states and organizations find and apply for grants.

- Eligibility - Most of the funding opportunities are for organizations, not individuals.

- How to apply - Get tips and tools to help you with the registration and application process. And learn how to write a successful grant proposal.

- E-mail notifications - Sign up to be notified by e-mail about new grant opportunities.

"Free" Grants and Grant Scams: If you received information stating you qualify for a "free grant," it is probably a scam. Get information from the Federal Trade Commission (FTC) to help you learn to recognize and avoid grant scams. If you have been a victim of a grant scam, you can file a complaint with the FTC.

The most common type of financial help from the government for home repairs or modifications is through home improvement loan programs backed by the government. The loans are through traditional lenders, like banks, but the programs help these lenders make loans that they might normally not fulfill. Some programs are available on a nationwide basis, while others are only on

a state or county level. To learn about the options available to you, contact your local Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) office.

The Department of Labor has released new information about landing a high paying job — with and without a college education. Here are some highlights:

- There are a total of 141 occupations that pay more than twice ($72,400) the median wage for all occupations ($36,200).
- 14 of those occupations don't necessarily require a bachelor's degree.
- The key to getting a high-paying job is a good education.

Learn more about jobs that pay more than the median today at: https://medium.com/@USDOL/want-to-make-the-big-bucks-try-one-of-these-jobs-b7d8ecbf4413#.sa9gegpwf

It can be overwhelming to search for dependable information about government services and benefits. USAGov is your starting point--the official federal program that guides you to the information you need from across government. Browse or search for the agencies and programs you need on USA.gov or its Spanish language counterpart, GobiernoUSA.gov. If you'd rather talk to a person, the USAGov Contact Center at 1-844-USA-GOV1 is there for you.

How Can the USAGov Contact Center Help You? The Contact Center handles more than 800,000 inquiries a year, answering questions for free on scores of topics including:

- Taxes
- Affordable housing
- Scams and identity theft
- Passports and travel warnings
- Address changes
- Green Cards and immigration
- Voting and elections

Broadcasting Board of Governors

The Broadcasting Board of Governors (BBG) is a networked global media agency. The five media organizations that comprise the BBG complement and reinforce one another in a shared mission vital to U.S. national interests: to inform, engage and connect people around the world in support of freedom and democracy. Together, the BBG media organizations communicate each week with more than 278 million people across the globe.

The mission of the Broadcasting Board of Governors is to inform, engage, and connect people around the world in support of freedom and democracy. The Agency's mission is reinforced by those of the individual broadcasters that are overseen by the BBG. The Board is composed of nine members with expertise in the fields of mass communications, broadcast media, or international affairs. Eight members are appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate. The ninth, the Secretary of State, serves ex officio.

BBG oversees a global network of over 90 transmitting sites delivering high frequency, medium wave (AM), FM, and TV broadcasts, and currently leases broadcast time on 15 high power MW and SW transmitting facilities in 14 countries, subject to mission requirements, as well as on many FM and TV stations around the world. BBG also provides anti-censorship support to overcome efforts by other governments to jam BBG broadcasts on radio, television, and the Internet.

Voice of America Charter President Gerald Ford signed the VOA Charter (Public Law 94-350) into law in 1976. It protects the independence and integrity of VOA programming.

The long-range interests of the United States are served by communicating directly with the peoples of the world by radio. To be effective, the Voice of America must win the attention and respect of listeners. These principles will therefore govern Voice of America (VOA) broadcasts:

1. VOA will serve as a consistently reliable and authoritative source of news. VOA news will be accurate, objective, and comprehensive.

2. VOA will represent America, not any single segment of American society, and will therefore present a balanced and comprehensive projection of significant American thought and institutions.

3. VOA will present the policies of the United States clearly and effectively, and will also present responsible discussions and opinion on these policies.

Radio Free Europe/Radio Liberty
RFE/RL's mission is to promote democratic values and institutions by reporting the news in countries where a free press is banned by the government or not fully established. Our journalists provide what many people cannot get locally: uncensored news, responsible discussion, and open debate.

Office of Cuba Broadcasting (Radio and TV Martí)
The Office of Cuba Broadcasting's mission is to promote freedom and democracy by providing the people of Cuba with objective news and information programming.

Radio Free Asia
Radio Free Asia's mission is to provide accurate and timely news and information to Asian countries whose governments prohibit access to a free press.

Middle East Broadcasting Networks (Alhurra TV and Radio Sawa)
The mission of the Middle East Broadcasting Networks is to provide objective, accurate, and relevant news and information to the people of the Middle East about the region, the world, and the United States. MBN supports democratic values by expanding the spectrum of ideas, opinions, and perspectives available in the region's media.

As a federal agency, the BBG's budget request is part of the President's Budget request to the Congress. The Agency's mandate comes from multiple pieces of legislation. BBG is accountable to 6 bipartisan House and Senate committees.

(Link: https://www.bbg.gov/who-we-are/)

Bureau of Engraving and Printing (BEP)

The BEP had its foundations in 1862 with workers signing, separating, and trimming sheets of United States Notes in the Treasury building. Gradually, more and more work, including engraving and printing, was entrusted to the organization. Within a few years, the BEP was producing Fractional Currency, revenue stamps, government obligations, and other security documents for many federal agencies. In 1877, the BEP became the sole producer of all United States currency. The addition of postage stamp production to its workload in 1894 established the BEP as the nation's security printer, responding to the needs of the U.S. government in both times of peace and war. Today, the BEP no longer produces government obligations or postage stamps, but it still holds the honor of being the largest producer of government security documents with production facilities in Washington, DC, and in Fort Worth, Texas.

The centrality of the BEP to the financial, monetary, postal, and printing developments of the United States since the Civil War has made it a repository of numerous invaluable historic items. At the same time, the BEP's history reflects and provides a unique perspective on the development of modern America. These facts have long been recognized by the BEP, which is devoted to the preservation and exploration of its own past. Some of the work of the curatorial, archival, and historical efforts of the BEP and its Historical Resource Center (HRC) is presented on this website.

Colonial Notes 1690

The Massachusetts Bay Colony, one of the 13 original colonies, issues the first paper money to cover costs of military expeditions. The practice of issuing paper notes spread to the other colonies.

Franklin's Unique Counterfeit Deterrent 1739

Benjamin Franklin's printing firm in Philadelphia prints colonial notes with nature prints--unique raised impressions of patterns cast from actual leaves. This process added an innovative and effective counterfeit deterrent to notes, not completely understood until centuries later.

Continental Currency 1775

The Continental Congress issues paper currency to finance the Revolutionary War. Continental currency was denominated in Spanish milled dollars. Without solid backing and easily counterfeited, the notes quickly lost their value, giving rise to the phrase "not worth a Continental."

Monetary System 1792

The Coinage Act of 1792 creates the U.S. Mint and establishes a federal monetary system, sets denominations for coins, and specifies the value of each coin in gold, silver, or copper.

Greenbacks 1861

The first general circulation of paper money by the federal government occurs. Pressed to finance the Civil War, Congress authorizes the U.S. Treasury to issue non-interest-bearing Demand Notes. All U.S. currency issued since 1861 remains valid and redeemable at full face value.

First $10 Bills – Demand Notes 1861

The first $10 notes are Demand Notes, issued in 1861 by the Treasury Department. A portrait of President Abraham Lincoln is included on the face of the notes.

Treasury Department Authorization 1862

The Treasury Secretary is authorized to engrave and print notes at the Treasury Department; the design of which incorporates fine-line engraving, intricate geometric lathe work patterns, a Treasury seal, and engraved signatures to aid in counterfeit deterrence.

Spencer Clark 1862

Spencer M. Clark, Chief Clerk in the Treasury Department's Bureau of Construction, obtains presses for the Treasury's Loan Branch for overprinting seals on notes. About the same time, Clark experiments with two hand-crank machines for trimming and separating. Later that year, Treasury Secretary Salmon Chase directs Clark to proceed with trials using steam-powered machines to trim, separate, and seal $1 and $2 United States Notes.

National Banknotes 1863

Congress establishes a national banking system and authorizes the U.S. Treasury to oversee the issuance of National Banknotes. This system sets federal guidelines for chartering and regulating "national" banks and authorizes those banks to issue national currency secured by the purchase of United States bonds. These notes are printed by private companies and finished by the BEP until 1875, when the BEP begins printing the faces.

Fractional Currency 1863

Fractional Currency notes, in denominations of 5, 10, 25, and 50 cents, are issued. This is the first currency produced entirely at the Treasury Department.

1864 The 5-cent note of the second issue of Fractional Currency features the portrait of Spencer Clark, causing a public uproar. It is unclear how Clark's portrait ended up on the note, but in

1866, Congress prohibits the portrait or likeness of any living person on currency notes, bonds, or securities.

Secret Service 1865

The United States Secret Service is established as a bureau of the Treasury for the purpose of deterring counterfeiters whose activities are destroying the public's confidence in the nation's currency. The Secret Service is now part of the Department of Homeland Security.

Gold Certificates 1865

Gold Certificates, backed by gold held by the Treasury, are first issued. Along with Fractional Currency, Gold Certificates are one of the first currency issues produced entirely by the BEP.

Revenue Stamps 1866

The BEP begins producing revenue stamps to be placed on boxes of imported cigars.

United States Notes 1869

The BEP begins engraving and printing the faces and seals of United States Notes, Series 1869. Prior to this time, United States Notes were produced by private banknote companies and then sent to the BEP for sealing, trimming, and cutting.

Bureau of Engraving and Printing 1874

For the first time, Congress allocates money specifically to a "Bureau of Engraving and Printing" for fiscal year 1875.

1876 Congress passes an appropriation bill that directs the Internal Revenue Service to procure stamps engraved and printed at the Bureau of Engraving and Printing – provided costs do not exceed that of private firms. As a result, the BEP begins producing almost all revenue stamps in fiscal year 1878.

1877 The BEP begins printing all United States currency.

1878 Silver Certificates

Silver Certificates are first issued. Backed by silver held by the Treasury, the certificates are authorized by legislation directing an increase in the purchase and coinage of silver.

1880 First Facility

The first building constructed specifically for BEP operations is completed at the corner of 14th Street and B Street (Independence Avenue).

1890 Treasury Coin Notes

Treasury Notes, also known as Treasury Coin Notes, are first issued as part of legislation requiring the Treasury Secretary to increase government purchases of silver bullion.

1894 Postage Stamps

The BEP begins printing postage stamps. The first BEP-printed stamp issued is the 6 cent President Garfield.

1900 The first issue of postage stamps in small booklets is produced.

1905 Paper Currency with Background Color

The last United States paper money printed with background color is the $20 Gold Certificate, Series 1905, which had a golden tint and a red seal and serial number.

1912 Offset Printing

Offset printing is first used in the BEP for the production of checks, certificates, and other miscellaneous items.

1913 Federal Reserve Act

The Federal Reserve Act of 1913 establishes the Federal Reserve as the nation's central bank and provides for a national banking system that is more responsive to the fluctuating financial needs of the country. Federal Reserve Bank Notes are authorized by the Federal Reserve Act and used as a form of emergency currency in the early twentieth century. The Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System then issues new notes called Federal Reserve notes.

1914 The first $10 Federal Reserve Notes

The first $10 Federal Reserve notes are issued. These notes are larger than today's notes and feature a portrait of President Andrew Jackson on the face.

1929 Federal Reserve Note Standardized Design

The first sweeping change to affect the appearance of all paper money occurs in 1929. In an effort to lower manufacturing costs, all Federal Reserve notes are made about 30 percent smaller. The reduced size enables the BEP to convert from eight to 12 notes per sheet. In addition, standardized designs are instituted for each denomination across all classes of currency, decreasing the number of different designs in circulation. This standardization makes it easier for the public to distinguish between genuine and counterfeit notes.

1939 Food Stamps

The BEP begins printing Food Order and Surplus Food Order stamps. The Cotton Order and Surplus Cotton Order stamps follow in 1940. The stamps encourage consumption of surplus farm commodities while providing assistance to low-income consumers.

1943 Allied Military Currency

The War Department places an order for Allied Military Currency (AMC). The first AMCs are used by Allied forces in Italy. Production begins in July, 1943.

1946 Military Payment Certificates

The BEP begins work on Military Payment Certificates for use by U.S. troops.

1952 18-Subject Sheets

The BEP begins conversion from 12- to 18-subject sheets in currency production. The use of larger sheets is made possible by new non-offsetting ink. By reducing wetting and drying operations, distortion of paper is decreased. By September 1953, all currency is produced from 18-subject plates.

1957 In God We Trust

Following a 1955 law that requires "In God We Trust" on all currency, the motto first appears on paper money on series 1957 $1 silver certificates, then on 1963 series Federal Reserve notes.

1957 32-Subject Sheets

The BEP begins producing currency on high-speed rotary presses that print notes via the dry intaglio process. Paper distortion caused by wetting is now completely eliminated and sheet sizes increase from 18- to 32-subjects. The first notes printed by this process are the series 1957 silver certificates.

1969 High-Denomination Notes

The Treasury Secretary announces that currency in denominations larger than $100 will no longer be issued. Last printed in 1945, the high-denomination notes had been used mainly by banking institutions, but advances in bank transfer technologies preclude their further use.

1976 $2 Federal Reserve Note

The $2 Federal Reserve note is re-introduced on the 233rd anniversary of Thomas Jefferson's birth. Issuance of the $2 United States Note had been halted in 1966 as United States Notes were phased out of existence.

1996 Currency Redesign

In the first significant design change in 67 years, United States currency is redesigned to incorporate a series of new counterfeit deterrents. The new notes are issued beginning with the $100 note in 1996, followed by the $50 in 1997, the $20 in 1998, and the $10 and $5 notes in 2000.

2005 Final Postage Stamp Run

The BEP produces its final run of postage stamps, printing the 37-cent Flag on the Andreotti gravure press.

Advanced Counterfeit Deterrence

The Advanced Counterfeit Deterrence (ACD) program was established in July 1982 at the Departmental Offices level of the U.S. Department of the Treasury to monitor and communicate counterfeit deterrence issues with the Secretary of the Treasury. The ACD acts as liaison to the Secretary of the Treasury, reporting the combined findings of the committee, which includes senior executives from the Department of the Treasury, the BEP, the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System (FRB), the United States Secret Service (USSS) and the Currency Technology Office (Bank Operations).

Currency redesign is based on maintaining the security of Federal Reserve notes. Therefore, the ACD is dedicated to maintaining and ensuring the integrity of U.S. currency by exploring existing and emerging technologies to deter the counterfeiting of U.S. currency in the U.S. and worldwide. Its goals are:

- To provide information and make recommendations to the Secretary of the U.S. Treasury on counterfeiting issues, anti-counterfeiting technologies and advanced digital printing technologies;
- To evaluate and recommend incorporation of advanced security features in the design of U.S. currency;
- To support the development and implementation of technical solutions to deter counterfeiting of U.S. currency;
- To create a cooperative working relationship with government and industry to identify technologies to deter counterfeiting;
- To promote international awareness of counterfeit-deterrence efforts through the internet on U.S. currency features, and Treasury's efforts to deter counterfeiting worldwide;
- To educate the public, and money-handlers, so they may detect, reject, and report suspected counterfeits;

•To provide the public with up-to-date information on the latest currency design series and the security features incorporated to combat counterfeiting.

What is the role of each of the organizations sitting on the committee?

The ACD charter requires its member organizations to collaborate on developments related to new designs of Federal Reserve notes.

The BEP is ultimately responsible for currency production. The FRB has oversight responsibility for currency issuance and circulation, and the USSS has relevant information about how the notes must function in circulation to be user friendly and secure against counterfeiting. The Secretary of the Treasury approves each new currency design.

In close collaboration with the FRB, the BEP leads and implements the plan to develop new currency designs, integrating input from appropriate sources, including the FRB, Currency Technology Office of the FRB, and the USSS, internal working groups, external studies, and any other sources that provide input and technical support to the development plan.

Are there other groups or committees involved in developing new currency designs?

Yes, the ACD steering committee established the Interagency Currency Design Technical Group (ICD). The ICD was established to provide guidance on design and other subjects related to new currency.

Who does the ICD report its findings to?

Members of the ICD report to their respective agencies; the ICD as a group reports its findings and recommendations to the ACD.

Regular ACD steering committee meetings facilitate monthly BEP, FRB, USSS reporting to discuss ICD recommendations and other issues.

(Link: https://www.moneyfactory.gov/about.html)

U.S. Capitol Police (USCP)

The United States Capitol Police (USCP) is a CALEA nationally-accredited, federal law enforcement agency. The USCP safeguards the Congress, its legislative processes, Members of Congress, employees, visitors, and facilities from crime, disruption, and terrorism. We protect and secure Congress so it can fulfill its constitutional and legislative responsibilities in a safe, secure and open environment

The United States Capitol Police (USCP) dates back to 1800 when the Congress moved from Philadelphia to Washington, D.C. A lone watchman, John Golding, was hired to protect the Capitol Building. After a number of incidents occurred in 1827 that could have been prevented with sufficient security and surveillance, President John Quincy Adams asked that a regular Capitol Police force be established.

On May 2, 1828, Congress passed an Act that expanded the police regulations of the City of Washington to include the Capitol and Capitol Square. It is on this date that the USCP commemorates its founding.

USCP circa 1900With the passage of this Act, Congress brought the responsibility of policing the Capitol under the direction of the presiding officer of the House and Senate, and empowered the Capitol watchmen with full law enforcement authorities. The new force consisted of a captain and three men who worked fifteen-hour shifts when Congress was in session and ten-hour shifts at all other times. Their area of authority did not exceed the neighboring walks and streets adjacent to the Capitol Building.

The responsibility of the Capitol Police was transferred from the Commissioner of Public Buildings to the Sergeants at Arms for the U.S. House of Representatives and the U.S. Senate in 1867. In 1873, the Capitol Police Board was established, and the Architect of the Capitol was added to the Board.

By 1935, the Capitol Grounds footprint was expanded to 126 acres. As a result, the head of the Department requested additional officers to augment the 132-man force, which consisted of men ranging from 19 to 75 years old. The Captain of Police also asked to adopt the same standards held by the Metropolitan Police Department of the District of Columbia (MPD), and Congress authorized the Capitol Police Board to establish specific qualification requirements. The Act of July 31, 1946, recodified the earlier authorities and responsibilities of the Department in one Act and formed the fundamental basis for the statutory authorities and responsibilities of the Department and Capitol Police Board to such an extent that subsequent authorities generally have been conferred as amendments to this Act.

In 1974, the Department's first female Capitol Police officers were hired, thereby providing new opportunities for women wanting law enforcement careers. In 1979, President Jimmy Carter signed Public Law No. 96152, establishing a chief of police for the United States Capitol Police.

The role had previously been held by MPD Captains and Assistant Chiefs in an ex-officio capacity. Public Law No. 96152 was the catalyst for the Department's transition into the modern era.

The USCP expanded its force from approximately 800 officers to more than 1,700 following the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001, and the historic merger with the Library of Congress Police in 2009. In addition to the sworn members of the force, the Department has over 350 civilian personnel who provide operational and administrative support. The USCP's diverse workforce is comprised of employees from nearly all 50 states and the U.S. territories.

Today, the USCP embodies the best in American policing and serves as a model in security, urban crime prevention, dignitary protection, specialty response capabilities, and homeland security. We proudly protect the legislative process, the symbol of our democracy, the people who carry out the process, and the millions of visitors who travel here to see democracy in action each day. Acting on the world stage in an open environment and ensuring that each interaction we have leaves a lasting impression that is reflective of the Legislative Branch is an essential part of USCP values and is critical to achieving our mission.

(Link: https://www.uscp.gov/the-department/our-history)

U.S. Patent and Trademark Office (USPTO)

The United States Patent and Trademark Office (USPTO) is the federal agency for granting U.S. patents and registering trademarks. In doing this, the USPTO fulfills the mandate of Article I, Section 8, Clause 8, of the Constitution that the legislative branch "promote the Progress of Science and useful Arts, by securing for limited Times to Authors and Inventors the exclusive Right to their respective Writings and Discoveries." The USPTO registers trademarks based on the commerce clause of the Constitution (Article I, Section 8, Clause 3). Under this system of protection, American industry has flourished. New products have been invented, new uses for old ones discovered, and employment opportunities created for millions of Americans. The strength and vitality of the U.S. economy depends directly on effective mechanisms that protect new ideas and investments in innovation and creativity. The continued demand for patents and trademarks underscores the ingenuity of American inventors and entrepreneurs. The USPTO is at the cutting edge of the nation's technological progress and achievement.

The USPTO advises the president of the United States, the secretary of commerce, and U.S. government agencies on intellectual property (IP) policy, protection, and enforcement; and promotes the stronger and more effective IP protection around the world. The USPTO furthers effective IP protection for U.S. innovators and entrepreneurs worldwide by working with other agencies to secure strong IP provisions in free trade and other international agreements. It also provides training, education, and capacity building programs designed to foster respect for IP and encourage the development of strong IP enforcement regimes by U.S. trading partners.

The United States Patent and Trademark Office (USPTO or Office) is an agency of the U.S. Department of Commerce. The role of the USPTO is to grant patents for the protection of inventions and to register trademarks. It serves the interests of inventors and businesses with respect to their inventions and corporate products, and service identifications. It also advises and assists the President of the United States, the Secretary of Commerce, the bureaus and offices of the Department of Commerce, and other agencies of the government in matters involving all domestic and global aspects of “intellectual property.” Through the preservation, classification, and dissemination of patent information, the Office promotes the industrial and technological progress of the nation and strengthens the economy.

Congress established the United States Patent and Trademark Office to issue patents on behalf of the government. The Patent Office as a distinct bureau dates from the year 1802 when a separate official in the Department of State, who became known as “Superintendent of Patents,” was placed in charge of patents. The revision of the patent laws enacted in 1836 reorganized the

Patent Office and designated the official in charge as Commissioner of Patents. The Patent Office remained in the Department of State until 1849 when it was transferred to the Department of Interior. In 1925 it was transferred to the Department of Commerce where it is today. The name of the Patent Office was changed to the Patent and Trademark Office in 1975 and changed to the United States Patent and Trademark Office in 2000.

The USPTO administers the patent laws as they relate to the granting of patents for inventions, and performs other duties relating to patents. Applications for patents are examined to determine if the applicants are entitled to patents under the law and patents are granted when applicants are so entitled. The USPTO publishes issued patents and most patent applications 18 months from the earliest effective application filing date, and makes various other publications concerning patents. The USPTO also records assignments of patents, maintains a search room for the use of the public to examine issued patents and records, and supplies copies of records and other papers, and the like. Similar functions are performed with respect to the registration of trademarks. The USPTO has no jurisdiction over questions of infringement and the enforcement of patents.

The head of the Office is the Under Secretary of Commerce for Intellectual Property and Director of the United States Patent and Trademark Office (Director). The Director's staff includes the Deputy Under Secretary of Commerce and Deputy Director of the USPTO, the Commissioner for Patents, the Commissioner for Trademarks, and other officials. As head of the Office, the Director superintends or performs all duties respecting the granting and issuing of patents and the registration of trademarks; exercises general supervision over the entire work of the USPTO; prescribes the rules, subject to the approval of the Secretary of Commerce, for the conduct of proceedings in the USPTO, and for recognition of attorneys and agents; decides various questions brought before the Office by petition as prescribed by the rules; and performs other duties necessary and required for the administration of the United States Patent and Trademark Office.

The work of examining applications for patents is divided among a number of examining technology centers (TCs), each TC having jurisdiction over certain assigned fields of technology. Each TC is headed by group directors and staffed by examiners and support staff. The examiners review applications for patents and determine whether patents can be granted. An appeal can be taken to the Patent Trial and Appeal Board from their decisions refusing to grant a patent, and a review by the Director of the USPTO may be had on other matters by petition. In addition to the examining TCs, other offices perform various services, such as receiving and distributing mail,

receiving new applications, handling sales of printed copies of patents, making copies of records, inspecting drawings, and recording assignments.

At present, the USPTO has over 11,000 employees, of whom about three quarters are examiners and others with technical and legal training. Patent applications are received at the rate of over 500,000 per year.

In discharging its patent related duties, the USPTO examines applications and grants patents on inventions when applicants are entitled to them; it publishes and disseminates patent information, records assignments of patents, maintains search files of U.S. and foreign patents, and maintains a search room for public use in examining issued patents and records. The Office supplies copies of patents and official records to the public. It provides training to practitioners as to requirements of the patent statutes and regulations, and it publishes the Manual of Patent Examining Procedure to elucidate these. Similar functions are performed relating to trademarks. By protecting intellectual endeavors and encouraging technological progress, the USPTO seeks to preserve the United States' technological edge, which is key to our current and future competitiveness. The USPTO also disseminates patent and trademark information that promotes an understanding of intellectual property protection and facilitates the development and sharing of new technologies worldwide.

What Are Patents, Trademarks, Servicemarks, and Copyrights?

Some people confuse patents, copyrights, and trademarks. Although there may be some similarities among these kinds of intellectual property protection, they are different and serve different purposes.

A patent for an invention is the grant of a property right to the inventor, issued by the United States Patent and Trademark Office. Generally, the term of a new patent is 20 years from the date on which the application for the patent was filed in the United States or, in special cases, from the date an earlier related application was filed, subject to the payment of maintenance fees. U.S. patent grants are effective only within the United States, U.S. territories, and U.S. possessions. Under certain circumstances, patent term extensions or adjustments may be available.

The right conferred by the patent grant is, in the language of the statute and of the grant itself, "the right to exclude others from making, using, offering for sale, or selling" the invention in the United States or "importing" the invention into the United States. What is granted is not the right to make, use, offer for sale, sell or import, but the right to exclude others from making, using,

offering for sale, selling or importing the invention. Once a patent is issued, the patentee must enforce the patent without aid of the USPTO.

There are three types of patents:

1) Utility patents may be granted to anyone who invents or discovers any new and useful process, machine, article of manufacture, or composition of matter, or any new and useful improvement thereof;

2) Design patents may be granted to anyone who invents a new, original, and ornamental design for an article of manufacture; and

3) Plant patents may be granted to anyone who invents or discovers and asexually reproduces any distinct and new variety of plant.

A trademark is a word, name, symbol, or device that is used in trade with goods to indicate the source of the goods and to distinguish them from the goods of others. A servicemark is the same as a trademark except that it identifies and distinguishes the source of a service rather than a product. The terms “trademark” and “mark” are commonly used to refer to both trademarks and servicemarks.

Trademark rights may be used to prevent others from using a confusingly similar mark, but not to prevent others from making the same goods or from selling the same goods or services under a clearly different mark. Trademarks that are used in interstate or foreign commerce may be registered with the USPTO. The registration procedure for trademarks and general information concerning trademarks can be found in the separate book entitled “Basic Facts about Trademarks.” (http://www.uspto.gov/trademarks/basics/Basic_Facts_Trademarks.jsp).

Copyright is a form of protection provided to the authors of "original works of authorship" including literary, dramatic, musical, artistic, and certain other intellectual works, both published and unpublished. The 1976 Copyright Act generally gives the owner of copyright the exclusive right to reproduce the copyrighted work, to prepare derivative works, to distribute copies or phonorecords of the copyrighted work, to perform the copyrighted work publicly, or to display the copyrighted work publicly.

The copyright protects the form of expression rather than the subject matter of the writing. For example, a description of a machine could be copyrighted, but this would only prevent others from copying the description; it would not prevent others from writing a description of their own or from making and using the machine. Copyrights are registered by the Copyright Office of the Library of Congress.

Patent Laws

The Constitution of the United States gives Congress the power to enact laws relating to patents, in Article I, section 8, which reads "Congress shall have power . . . to promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries." Under this power Congress has from time to time enacted various laws relating to patents. The first patent law was enacted in 1790. The patent laws underwent a general revision which was enacted July 19, 1952, and which came into effect January 1, 1953. It is codified in Title 35, United States Code. Additionally, on November 29, 1999, Congress enacted the American Inventors Protection Act of 1999 (AIPA), which further revised the patent laws. See Public Law 106-113, 113 Stat. 1501 (1999).

The patent law specifies the subject matter for which a patent may be obtained and the conditions for patentability. The law establishes the United States Patent and Trademark Office to administer the law relating to the granting of patents and contains various other provisions relating to patents.

What Can Be Patented

The patent law specifies the general field of subject matter that can be patented and the conditions under which a patent may be obtained. In the language of the statute, any person who “invents or discovers any new and useful process, machine, manufacture, or composition of matter, or any new and useful improvement thereof, may obtain a patent,” subject to the conditions and requirements of the law. The word “process” is defined by law as a process, act, or method, and primarily includes industrial or technical processes. The term “machine” used in the statute needs no explanation. The term “manufacture” refers to articles that are made, and includes all manufactured articles. The term “composition of matter” relates to chemical compositions and may include mixtures of ingredients as well as new chemical compounds. These classes of subject matter taken together include practically everything that is made by man and the processes for making the products.

The Atomic Energy Act of 1954 excludes the patenting of inventions useful solely in the utilization of special nuclear material or atomic energy in an atomic weapon. See 42 U.S.C. 2181(a).

The patent law specifies that the subject matter must be "useful." The term "useful" in this connection refers to the condition that the subject matter has a useful purpose and also includes operativeness, that is, a machine which will not operate to perform the intended purpose would not be called useful, and therefore would not be granted a patent.

Interpretations of the statute by the courts have defined the limits of the field of subject matter that can be patented, thus it has been held that the laws of nature, physical phenomena, and abstract ideas are not patentable subject matter.

A patent cannot be obtained upon a mere idea or suggestion. The patent is granted upon the new machine, manufacture, etc., as has been said, and not upon the idea or suggestion of the new machine. A complete description of the actual machine or other subject matter for which a patent is sought is required.

Novelty And Non-Obviousness, Conditions For Obtaining A Patent

In order for an invention to be patentable it must be new as defined in the patent law, which provides that an invention cannot be patented if:

> "(1) the claimed invention was patented, described in a printed publication, or in public use, on sale, or otherwise available to the public before the effective filing date of the claimed invention" or
>
> "(2) the claimed invention was described in a patent issued [by the U.S.] or in an application for patent published or deemed published [by the U.S.], in which the patent or application, as the case may be, names another inventor and was effectively filed before the effective filing date of the claimed invention."

There are certain limited patent law exceptions to patent prohibitions (1) and (2) above. Notably, an exception may apply to a "disclosure made 1 year or less before the effective filing date of the claimed invention," but only if "the disclosure was made by the inventor or joint inventor or by another who obtained the subject matter disclosed… from the inventor or a joint inventor."

In patent prohibition (1), the term "otherwise available to the public" refers to other types of disclosures of the claimed invention such as, for example, an oral presentation at a scientific meeting, a demonstration at a trade show, a lecture or speech, a statement made on a radio talk show, a YouTube™ video, or a website or other on-line material.

Even if the subject matter sought to be patented is not exactly shown by the prior art, and involves one or more differences over the most nearly similar thing already known, a patent may still be refused if the differences would be obvious. The subject matter sought to be patented must be sufficiently different from what has been used or described before that it may be said to be non-obvious to a person having ordinary skill in the area of technology related to the invention. For example, the substitution of one color for another, or changes in size, are ordinarily not patentable.

Effective November 15, 2011, any regular nonprovisional utility application filed by mail or hand-delivery will require payment of an additional $400 fee called the "non-electronic filing fee," which is reduced by 50 percent (to $200) for applicants that qualify for small entity status under 37 CFR 1.27(a). The 75 percent micro entity discount does not apply to the non-electronic filing fee and consequently the non-electronic filing fee is also $200 for applicants that qualify for micro entity status under 37 CFR 1.29(a) or (d). This fee is required by Section 10(h) of the Leahy-Smith America Invents Act, Public Law 112-29 (Sept. 16, 2011; 125 Stat. 284). The only way to avoid having to pay the additional $400 non-electronic filing fee is to file the regular nonprovisional utility patent application via EFS-Web.Design, plant, and provisional applications are not subject to the additional non-electronic filing fee and may continue to be filed by mail or hand-delivery without additional charge.

The Scientific and Technical Information Center of the United States Patent and Trademark Office located at 1D58 Remsen, 400 Dulany Street, Alexandria, Va., has available for public use over 120,000 volumes of scientific and technical books in various languages, about 90,000 bound volumes of periodicals devoted to science and technology, the official journals of 77 foreign patent organizations, and over 40 million foreign patents on paper, microfilm, microfiche, and CD-ROM. The Scientific and Technical Information Center is open to the public from 8 a.m. to 5 p.m., Monday through Friday except federal holidays.

The Public Search Facility located at Madison East, First Floor, 600 Dulany Street, Alexandria, Va., is where the public may search and examine U.S. patents granted since 1790 using state of the art computer workstations. A numerical sequence patent backfile from 1790 to 2000 is available on microfilm. Patents from 2000 forward may be found using a variety of the patent

database available on workstations. Official Gazettes, Annual Indexes (of inventors), the Manual of Classification and its subject matter index, and other search aids are available in various formats. Patent assignment records of transactions affecting the ownership of patents, microfilmed deeds, and indexes are also available.

Many inventors attempt to make their own search of the prior patents and publications before applying for a patent. This may be done in the Public Search Facility of the USPTO, and in libraries located throughout the United States that have been designated as Patent and Trademark Resource Centers (PTRCs). An inventor may make a preliminary search through the U.S. patents and publications to discover if the particular invention or one similar to it has been shown in the prior patent. An inventor may also employ patent attorneys or agents to perform the preliminary search. This search may not be as complete as that made by the USPTO during the examination of an application, but only serves, as its name indicates, a preliminary purpose. For this reason, the patent examiner may, and often does, reject claims in an application on the basis of prior patents or publications not found in the preliminary search.

Those who cannot come to the Public Search Facility may order from the USPTO copies of lists of original patents or of cross-referenced patents contained in the subclasses comprising the field of search, or may inspect and obtain copies of the patents at a Patent and Trademark Resource Center. The PTRCs receive current issues of U.S. patents and maintain collections of earlier issued patent and trademark information. The scope of these collections varies from library to library, ranging from patents of only recent years to all or most of the patents issued since 1790.

These patent collections are open to public use. Each of the PTRCs, in addition, offers the publications of the U.S. Patent Classification System (e.g., Manual of Classification, Index to the U.S. Patent Classification System, Classification Definitions, etc.) and other patent documents and forms, and provides technical staff assistance in their use to aid the public in gaining effective access to information contained in patents. The collections are organized in patent number sequence.

Available in all PTRCs is the Cassis CD-ROM system. With various files, it permits the effective identification of appropriate classifications to search, provides numbers of patents assigned to a classification to facilitate finding the patents in a numerical file of patents, provides the current classification(s) of all patents, permits word searching on classification titles, and on abstracts,

and provides certain bibliographic information on more recently issued patents. These libraries also provide access to the USPTO website.

Who May Apply For A Patent

According to the law, the inventor, or a person to whom the inventor has assigned or is under an obligation to assign the invention, may apply for a patent, with certain exceptions. If the inventor is deceased, the application may be made by legal representatives, that is, the administrator or executor of the estate. If the inventor is legally incapacitated, the application for patent may be made by a legal representative (e.g., guardian). If an inventor refuses to apply for a patent or cannot be found, a joint inventor may apply on behalf of the non-signing inventor.

If two or more persons make an invention jointly, they apply for a patent as joint inventors. A person who makes only a financial contribution is not a joint inventor and cannot be joined in the application as an inventor. It is possible to correct an innocent mistake in erroneously omitting an inventor or in erroneously naming a person as an inventor.

Officers and employees of the United States Patent and Trademark Office are prohibited by law from applying for a patent or acquiring, directly or indirectly, except by inheritance or bequest, any patent or any right or interest in any patent.

(Link: https://www.uspto.gov/)

Bureau of Transportation Statistics (BTS)

As the independent statistical agency within the Department of Transportation (D0T), the Bureau of Transportation Statistics (BTS) is a politically objective supplier of trusted and statistically-sound baseline, contextual, and trend information used to shape transportation policy, investments, and research across the US and abroad. BTS is the preeminent source of statistics on commercial aviation, multimodal freight, and transportation economics.

The Bureau's National Transportation Library is the permanent, publicly accessible home for research publications from throughout the transportation community, the gateway to all DOT data, and the help line for the Congress, researchers, and the public for information about transportation. BTS is a leading source of timely, accurate, and reliable information on the U.S. transportation systems used for moving people and goods, and on their impacts on the economy, society and the environment.

Program Overview

BTS integrates data from a wide variety of sources, including its own data collections into three major products required by Chapter 63 of Title 49, United States Code, and makes those products available with other research reports through the National Transportation Library. BTS also links the many data programs throughout DOT with each other and with programs of the other National Statistical Agencies.

BTS data collections include traffic, passenger flow, employment, financial condition, and on-time performance of commercial aviation; the Commodity Flow Survey; transborder movement of freight by mode of transportation; a census of ferry operations, precursor safety data for transit operations, and data on near misses and equipment failures in offshore operations.

BTS compiles information from its surveys and from other federal agencies into products mandated by the Congress, including:

- The Intermodal Transportation Database, covering the volume, characteristics, and geography of passenger and freight movement and a series of economic accounts which identify the value of transportation and the role of transportation in the economy;

•The National Transportation Atlas Database, putting transportation on the map with geospatial data on the transportation network, its use, and its relationships to communities and the natural environment; and

•Publications such as the annual report on the capacity and throughput of the nation's largest ports and the Transportation Statistics Annual Report on the performance, contribution, and consequences of the transportation system.

BTS helps coordinate DOT's statistical programs and link them with other programs throughout the federal government through institutions such as the Advisory Committee on Transportation Statistics and the Interagency Committee on Statistical Policy. BTS also provides technical assistance on departmental publications such as the Performance and Accountability Report required by the Government Performance and Results Act (GPRA) (P.L. 103-62).

BTS is also the home of the National Transportation Library. The National Transportation Library serves as a repository for all DOT research as well as a portal to statistical information. The National Transportation Library provides information to the public through an 800 number, and also maintains the National Transportation Data Archive. The National Transportation Library works closely with the Office of the Chief Information Officer to assure public access to all DOT data through www.transportation.gov/data.

The mandate for U.S. Department of Transportation (DOT) to collect and disseminate transportation statistics originates with the Department's founding in 1966. This mandate has been pursued since then by individual operating administrations, each attempting to fill its own information needs with its own systems for data collection and statistical analysis. Attempts to develop a multimodal, coordinated data program during DOT's first quarter century were not sustained.

The need for a more proactive program of data collection and analysis that bridged across the DOT's operating administrations was recognized in the Department's Statement of National Transportation Policy, approved and released by the White House in February, 1990. Major data gaps identified in the Statement included statistics on domestic and international flows of freight and passenger traffic by all modes, the extent and performance of intermodal connections, the financial and operating characteristics of smaller carriers, and the costs of both for-hire and private transportation incurred by each sector of the economy. The Statement committed DOT to "develop a comprehensive assessment of data needs and priorities of the Department and the

transportation community, [and] develop more effective and permanent institutional mechanisms within the Department to ensure that transportation-related data collected by different agencies can be effectively linked, to collect data on multimodal passenger and freight transportation flows, and to integrate and disseminate transportation-related data collected by DOT and other public agencies."

As part of the National Transportation Policy effort, DOT funded a study of strategic data needs by the Transportation Research Board (TRB) of the National Academy of Sciences. The findings of the TRB study, published in Data for Decisions: Requirements for National Transportation Policy Making (Special Report 234), highlighted a wide range of data deficiencies and recommended: establishment of a data center within the DOT to provide the focal point for the compilation and integration of system wide transportation data; development of a national transportation performance monitoring system to track key indicators of the Nation's transportation system and its environment from the perspective of markets and users, with the results reported biennially; and funding of multimodal surveys of commodity and passenger flows.

Senate hearings on reauthorization of the surface transportation program, coincidentally scheduled just after the first meeting of the TRB study panel, included members of the panel to discuss transportation trends and issues. Panel members indicated how little was known about transportation trends given a 15-year decline in multimodal data collection. The message resonated with Senator Daniel Patrick Moynihan, who included provisions to create and fund the Bureau of Transportation Statistics in the Intermodal Surface Transportation Efficiency Act (ISTEA) that became law on December 18, 1991.

The National Transportation Library evolved out of a BTS information-sharing project and was initially recognized by Congress in the Department of Transportation Appropriations Act of 1997 passed in September 1996. The Transportation Equity Act for the 21st Century (TEA-21) made the National Transportation Library a permanent part of BTS in 1998.

The Congress placed BTS in the new Research and Innovative Technology Administration in 2005. The position of BTS Director, which had been a Senate-confirmed Presidential appointment, became a Secretarial appointee from the career civil service. BTS moved with the rest of the Research and Innovative Technology Administration to the Office of the Assistant Secretary of Transportation for Research and Technology, as authorized in the Fixing America's

Surface Transportation (FAST) Act on December 4, 2015. The FAST Act also created the port performance freight statistics program and strengthened the Bureau's ability to produce statistical products free of political influence.

The history of issues covered by BTS is highlighted in Two Decades of Change in Transportation Reflections from Transportation Statistics Annual Reports 1994–2014.

(Link: https://www.bts.gov/learn-about-bts-and-our-work/history-bts)

Securities and Exchange Commission

The mission of the U.S. Securities and Exchange Commission is to protect investors, maintain fair, orderly, and efficient markets, and facilitate capital formation. As more and more first-time investors turn to the markets to help secure their futures, pay for homes, and send children to college, investor protection mission is more compelling than ever.

As the nation's securities exchanges mature into global for-profit competitors, there is even greater need for sound market regulation. And the common interest of all Americans in a growing economy that produces jobs, improves our standard of living, and protects the value of savings means that all of the SEC's actions must be taken with an eye toward promoting the capital formation that is necessary to sustain economic growth. The world of investing is fascinating and complex, and it can be very fruitful. But unlike the banking world, where deposits are guaranteed by the federal government, stocks, bonds and other securities can lose value. There are no guarantees. That's why investing is not a spectator sport. By far the best way for investors to protect the money they put into the securities markets is to do research and ask questions.

The laws and rules that govern the securities industry in the United States derive from a simple and straightforward concept: all investors, whether large institutions or private individuals, should have access to certain basic facts about an investment prior to buying it, and so long as they hold it. To achieve this, the SEC requires public companies to disclose meaningful financial and other information to the public. This provides a common pool of knowledge for all investors to use to judge for themselves whether to buy, sell, or hold a particular security. Only through the steady flow of timely, comprehensive, and accurate information can people make sound investment decisions.

The result of this information flow is a far more active, efficient, and transparent capital market that facilitates the capital formation so important to our nation's economy. To insure that this objective is always being met, the SEC continually works with all major market participants, including especially the investors in our securities markets, to listen to their concerns and to learn from their experience.

The SEC oversees the key participants in the securities world, including securities exchanges, securities brokers and dealers, investment advisors, and mutual funds. Here the SEC is concerned primarily with promoting the disclosure of important market-related information, maintaining fair dealing, and protecting against fraud.

Crucial to the SEC's effectiveness in each of these areas is its enforcement authority. Each year the SEC brings hundreds of civil enforcement actions against individuals and companies for violation of the securities laws. Typical infractions include insider trading, accounting fraud, and providing false or misleading information about securities and the companies that issue them.

One of the major sources of information on which the SEC relies to bring enforcement action is investors themselves — another reason that educated and careful investors are so critical to the functioning of efficient markets. To help support investor education, the SEC offers the public a wealth of educational information on this Internet website, which also includes the EDGAR database of disclosure documents that public companies are required to file with the Commission.

Though it is the primary overseer and regulator of the U.S. securities markets, the SEC works closely with many other institutions, including Congress, other federal departments and agencies, the self-regulatory organizations (e.g. the stock exchanges), state securities regulators, and various private sector organizations. In addition, the Chairman of the SEC represents the agency as a member of the Financial Stability Oversight Council (FSOC).

Creation of the SEC

The SEC's foundation was laid in an era that was ripe for reform. Before the Great Crash of 1929, there was little support for federal regulation of the securities markets. This was particularly true during the post-World War I surge of securities activity. Proposals that the federal government require financial disclosure and prevent the fraudulent sale of stock were never seriously pursued.

Tempted by promises of "rags to riches" transformations and easy credit, most investors gave little thought to the systemic risk that arose from widespread abuse of margin financing and unreliable information about the securities in which they were investing. During the 1920s, approximately 20 million large and small shareholders took advantage of post-war prosperity and set out to make their fortunes in the stock market. It is estimated that of the $50 billion in new securities offered during this period, half became worthless.

When the stock market crashed in October 1929, public confidence in the markets plummeted. Investors large and small, as well as the banks who had loaned to them, lost great sums of money in the ensuing Great Depression. There was a consensus that for the economy to recover, the public's faith in the capital markets needed to be restored. Congress held hearings to identify the problems and search for solutions.

Based on the findings in these hearings, Congress — during the peak year of the Depression — passed the Securities Act of 1933. This law, together with the Securities Exchange Act of 1934, which created the SEC, was designed to restore investor confidence in our capital markets by providing investors and the markets with more reliable information and clear rules of honest dealing. The main purposes of these laws can be reduced to two common-sense notions:

- Companies publicly offering securities for investment dollars must tell the public the truth about their businesses, the securities they are selling, and the risks involved in investing.
- People who sell and trade securities – brokers, dealers, and exchanges – must treat investors fairly and honestly, putting investors' interests first.

Monitoring the securities industry requires a highly coordinated effort. Congress established the Securities and Exchange Commission in 1934 to enforce the newly-passed securities laws, to promote stability in the markets and, most importantly, to protect investors. President Franklin Delano Roosevelt appointed Joseph P. Kennedy, President John F. Kennedy's father, to serve as the first Chairman of the SEC.

Organization of the SEC

The SEC consists of five presidentially-appointed Commissioners, with staggered five-year terms (see SEC Organization Chart; text version also available). One of them is designated by the President as Chairman of the Commission — the agency's chief executive. By law, no more than three of the Commissioners may belong to the same political party, ensuring non-partisanship. The agency's functional responsibilities are organized into five Divisions and 23 Offices, each of which is headquartered in Washington, DC. The Commission's approximately 4,600 staff are located in Washington and in 11 Regional Offices throughout the country. It is the responsibility of the Commission to:

- interpret and enforce federal securities laws;
- issue new rules and amend existing rules;
- oversee the inspection of securities firms, brokers, investment advisers, and ratings agencies;
- oversee private regulatory organizations in the securities, accounting, and auditing fields; and
- coordinate U.S. securities regulation with federal, state, and foreign authorities.

The Commission convenes regularly at meetings that are open to the public and the news media unless the discussion pertains to confidential subjects, such as whether to bring an enforcement action.

Division of Corporation Finance

The Division of Corporation Finance assists the Commission in executing its responsibility to oversee corporate disclosure of important information to the investing public. Corporations are required to comply with regulations pertaining to disclosure that must be made when stock is initially sold and then on a continuing and periodic basis. The Division's staff routinely reviews the disclosure documents filed by companies. The staff also provides companies with assistance interpreting the Commission's rules and recommends to the Commission new rules for adoption.

The Division of Corporation Finance reviews documents that publicly-held companies are required to file with the Commission. The documents include:

- registration statements for newly-offered securities;
- annual and quarterly filings (Forms 10-K and 10-Q);
- proxy materials sent to shareholders before an annual meeting;
- annual reports to shareholders;
- documents concerning tender offers (a tender offer is an offer to buy a large number of shares of a corporation, usually at a premium above the current market price); and
- filings related to mergers and acquisitions.

These documents disclose information about the companies' financial condition and business practices to help investors make informed investment decisions. Through the Division's review process, the staff monitors compliance with disclosure requirements and seeks to improve the quality of the disclosure. To meet the SEC's requirements for disclosure, a company issuing securities or whose securities are publicly traded must make available all information, whether it is positive or negative, that might be relevant to an investor's decision to buy, sell, or hold the security.

Corporation Finance provides administrative interpretations of the Securities Act of 1933, the Securities Exchange Act of 1934, and the Trust Indenture Act of 1939, and recommends regulations to implement these statutes. Working closely with the Office of the Chief Accountant, the Division monitors the activities of the accounting profession, particularly the Financial Accounting Standards Board (FASB), that result in the formulation of generally accepted accounting principles (GAAP). Increasingly, the Division also monitors the use by U.S. registrants of International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS), promulgated by the International Accounting Standards Board.

The Division's staff provides guidance and counseling to registrants, prospective registrants, and the public to help them comply with the law. For example, a company might ask whether the offering of a particular security requires registration with the SEC. Corporation Finance would share its interpretation of the relevant securities regulations with the company and give it advice on compliance with the appropriate disclosure requirement.

The Division uses no-action letters to issue guidance in a more formal manner. A company seeks a no-action letter from the staff of the SEC when it plans to enter uncharted legal territory in the securities industry. For example, if a company wants to try a new marketing or financial technique, it can ask the staff to write a letter indicating whether it would or would not recommend that the Commission take action against the company for engaging in its new practice.

Division of Trading and Markets

The Division of Trading and Markets assists the Commission in executing its responsibility for maintaining fair, orderly, and efficient markets. The staff of the Division provide day-to-day oversight of the major securities market participants: the securities exchanges; securities firms; self-regulatory organizations (SROs) including the Financial Industry Regulatory Authority (FInRA), the Municipal Securities Rulemaking Board (MSRB), clearing agencies that help facilitate trade settlement; transfer agents (parties that maintain records of securities owners); securities information processors; and credit rating agencies.

The Division also oversees the Securities Investor Protection Corporation (SIPC), which is a private, non-profit corporation that insures the securities and cash in the customer accounts of member brokerage firms against the failure of those firms. It is important to remember that SIPC insurance does not cover investor losses arising from market declines or fraud. The Division's additional responsibilities include:

- carrying out the Commission's financial integrity program for broker-dealers;
- reviewing (and in some cases approving, under authority delegated from the Commission) proposed new rules and proposed changes to existing rules filed by the SROs;
- assisting the Commission in establishing rules and issuing interpretations on matters affecting the operation of the securities markets; and
- surveilling the markets.

Division of Investment Management

The Division of Investment Management assists the Commission in executing its responsibility for investor protection and for promoting capital formation through oversight and regulation of America's $66.8 trillion investment management industry. This important part of the U.S. capital markets includes mutual funds and the professional fund managers who advise them; analysts who research individual assets and asset classes; and investment advisers to individual customers. Because of the high concentration of individual investors in the mutual funds, exchange-traded funds, and other investments that fall within the Division's purview, the Division of Investment Management is focused on ensuring that disclosures about these investments are useful to retail customers, and that the regulatory costs which consumers must bear are not excessive.

The Division's additional responsibilities include:

- assisting the Commission in interpreting laws and regulations for the public and SEC inspection and enforcement staff;
- responding to no-action requests and requests for exemptive relief;
- reviewing investment company and investment adviser filings;

- assisting the Commission in enforcement matters involving investment companies and advisers; and
- advising the Commission on adapting SEC rules to new circumstances.

Division of Enforcement

The Division of Enforcement assists the Commission in executing its law enforcement function by recommending the commencement of investigations of securities law violations, by recommending that the Commission bring civil actions in federal court or as administrative proceedings before an administrative law judge, and by prosecuting these cases on behalf of the Commission. As an adjunct to the SEC's civil enforcement authority, the Division works closely with law enforcement agencies in the U.S. and around the world to bring criminal cases when appropriate.

The Division obtains evidence of possible violations of the securities laws from many sources, including market surveillance activities, investor tips and complaints, other Divisions and Offices of the SEC, the self-regulatory organizations and other securities industry sources, and media reports.

All SEC investigations are conducted privately. Facts are developed to the fullest extent possible through informal inquiry, interviewing witnesses, examining brokerage records, reviewing trading data, and other methods. With a formal order of investigation, the Division's staff may compel witnesses by subpoena to testify and produce books, records, and other relevant documents. Following an investigation, SEC staff present their findings to the Commission for its review. The Commission can authorize the staff to file a case in federal court or bring an administrative action. In many cases, the Commission and the party charged decide to settle a matter without trial.

Division of Economic and Risk Analysis

The Division of Economic and Risk Analysis assists the Commission in executing its mission to protect investors, maintain fair, orderly, and efficient markets, and facilitate capital formation by integrating robust economic analysis and rigorous data analytics into the work of the SEC. The Division has a broad role in Commission activities, interacting with nearly every Division and Office, providing sophisticated and data-driven economic and risk analyses to help inform the agency's policymaking, rulemaking, enforcement, and examinations.

There are two main functions for the Division. First, DERA staff provide vital support in the form of economic analyses in support of Commission rulemaking and policy development. Second, the Division also provides economic analysis and research, risk assessment, and data analytics to critically support the agency's resources on matters presenting the greatest perceived risks in litigation, examinations, and registrant reviews, as well as providing economic support for enforcement matters.

Among the functions performed by the Division are:

- •Analyzing the potential economic effects of Commission rulemakings or other Commission actions. In this role, offices within DERA works closely with the other Divisions and Offices to help examine the need for regulatory action, analyze the potential economic effects of rules and other Commission actions, develop data-driven analyses of market activity, and assist in evaluating public comments and studies.
- •Providing quantitative and qualitative research and support related to risk assessment. DERA staff help the Commission to anticipate, identify, and manage risks, focusing on early identification of potential fraud and illegal or questionable activities. Staff collects, analyzes, and disseminates information to the Commission and its Staff about regulated entities and market activity.
- •Assisting the Division of Enforcement by, for example, providing economic and quantitative analysis and support in enforcement proceedings and settlement negotiations.

The Laws That Govern the Securities Industry

Securities Act of 1933

Often referred to as the "truth in securities" law, the Securities Act of 1933 has two basic objectives:

- •require that investors receive financial and other significant information concerning securities being offered for public sale; and
- •prohibit deceit, misrepresentations, and other fraud in the sale of securities.

The full text of this Act is available at: http://www.sec.gov/about/laws/sa33.pdf.

Purpose of Registration

A primary means of accomplishing these goals is the disclosure of important financial information through the registration of securities. This information enables investors, not the government, to make informed judgments about whether to purchase a company's securities. While the SEC requires that the information provided be accurate, it does not guarantee it. Investors who purchase securities and suffer losses have important recovery rights if they can prove that there was incomplete or inaccurate disclosure of important information.

The Registration Process

In general, securities sold in the U.S. must be registered. The registration forms companies file provide essential facts while minimizing the burden and expense of complying with the law. In general, registration forms call for:

- a description of the company's properties and business;
- a description of the security to be offered for sale;
- information about the management of the company; and
- financial statements certified by independent accountants.

All companies, both domestic and foreign, must file their registration statements electronically. These statements and the accompanying prospectuses become public shortly after filing, and investors can access them using EDGAR. Registration statements are subject to examination for compliance with disclosure requirements.

Not all offerings of securities must be registered with the Commission. Some exemptions from the registration requirement include:

- private offerings to a limited number of persons or institutions;
- offerings of limited size;
- intrastate offerings; and
- securities of municipal, state, and federal governments.

By exempting many small offerings from the registration process, the SEC seeks to foster capital formation by lowering the cost of offering these types of securities to the public.

Securities Exchange Act of 1934

With this Act, Congress created the Securities and Exchange Commission. The Act empowers the SEC with broad authority over all aspects of the securities industry. This includes the power to register, regulate, and oversee brokerage firms, transfer agents, and clearing agencies as well as the nation's securities self regulatory organizations (SROs). The various stock exchanges, such as the New York Stock Exchange, and The Nasdaq Stock Market are SROs. The Financial Industry Regulatory Authority (FINRA) is also an SRO.

The Act also identifies and prohibits certain types of conduct in the markets and provides the Commission with disciplinary powers over regulated entities and persons associated with them.

The Act also empowers the SEC to require periodic reporting of information by companies with publicly traded securities.

Corporate Reporting

Companies with more than $10 million in assets whose equity securities are held by more than a specified number of holders must file annual and other periodic reports. These reports are available to the public through the SEC's EDGAR database.

Proxy Solicitations

The Securities Exchange Act also governs the disclosure in materials used to solicit shareholders' votes in annual or special meetings held for the election of directors and the approval of other corporate action. This information, contained in proxy materials, must be filed with the Commission in advance of any solicitation to ensure compliance with the disclosure rules. Solicitations, whether by management or shareholder groups, must disclose all important facts concerning the issues on which holders are asked to vote.

Tender Offers

The Securities Exchange Act requires disclosure of important information by anyone seeking to acquire more than 5 percent of a company's securities by direct purchase or tender offer. Such an offer often is extended in an effort to gain control of the company. As with the proxy rules, this allows shareholders to make informed decisions on these critical corporate events.

Insider Trading

The securities laws broadly prohibit fraudulent activities of any kind in connection with the offer, purchase, or sale of securities. These provisions are the basis for many types of disciplinary actions, including actions against fraudulent insider trading. Insider trading is illegal when a person trades a security while in possession of material nonpublic information in violation of a duty to withhold the information or refrain from trading.

The Act requires a variety of market participants to register with the Commission, including exchanges, brokers and dealers, transfer agents, and clearing agencies. Registration for these organizations involves filing disclosure documents that are updated on a regular basis.

The exchanges and the Financial Industry Regulatory Authority (FINRA) are identified as self-regulatory organizations (SRO). SROs must create rules that allow for disciplining members for improper conduct and for establishing measures to ensure market integrity and investor protection. SRO proposed rules are published for comment before final SEC review and approval.

The full text of this Act can be read at: http://www.sec.gov/about/laws/sea34.pdf.

Trust Indenture Act of 1939

This Act applies to debt securities such as bonds, debentures, and notes that are offered for public sale. Even though such securities may be registered under the Securities Act, they may not be offered for sale to the public unless a formal agreement between the issuer of bonds and the

bondholder, known as the trust indenture, conforms to the standards of this Act. The full text of this Act can be read at: http://www.sec.gov/about/laws/tia39.pdf.

Investment Company Act of 1940

This Act regulates the organization of companies, including mutual funds, that engage primarily in investing, reinvesting, and trading in securities, and whose own securities are offered to the investing public. The regulation is designed to minimize conflicts of interest that arise in these complex operations. The Act requires these companies to disclose their financial condition and investment policies to investors when stock is initially sold and, subsequently, on a regular basis. The focus of this Act is on disclosure to the investing public of information about the fund and its investment objectives, as well as on investment company structure and operations. It is important to remember that the Act does not permit the SEC to directly supervise the investment decisions or activities of these companies or judge the merits of their investments. The full text of this Act is available at: http://www.sec.gov/about/laws/ica40.pdf.

Investment Advisers Act of 1940

This law regulates investment advisers. With certain exceptions, this Act requires that firms or sole practitioners compensated for advising others about securities investments must register with the SEC and conform to regulations designed to protect investors. Since the Act was amended in 1996, generally only advisers who have at least $100 million of assets under management or advise a registered investment company must register with the Commission. The full text of this Act is available at: http://www.sec.gov/about/laws/iaa40.pdf.

Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002

On July 30, 2002, President George W. Bush signed into law the Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002, which he characterized as "the most far reaching reforms of American business practices since the time of Franklin Delano Roosevelt." The Act mandated a number of reforms to enhance corporate responsibility, enhance financial disclosures and combat corporate and accounting fraud, and created the "Public Company Accounting Oversight Board," also known as the PCAOB, to oversee the activities of the auditing profession. The full text of the Act is available at: http://uscode.house.gov/download/pls/15C98.txt. (Please check the Classification Tables maintained by the US House of Representatives Office of the Law Revision Counsel for updates to any of the laws.) You can find links to all Commission rulemaking and reports issued under the Sarbanes-Oxley Act at: http://www.sec.gov/spotlight/sarbanes-oxley.htm.

Dodd-Frank Wall Street Reform and Consumer Protection Act of 2010

The Dodd-Frank Wall Street Reform and Consumer Protection Act was signed into law on July 21, 2010 by President Barack Obama. The legislation set out to reshape the U.S. regulatory system in a number of areas including but not limited to consumer protection, trading restrictions, credit ratings, regulation of financial products, corporate governance and disclosure, and transparency. The full text of the Act is available at:

http://www.sec.gov/about/laws/wallstreetreform-cpa.pdf. (Please check the Classification Tables maintained by the US House of Representatives Office of the Law Revision Counsel for updates to any of the laws.) You can find links to all Commission rulemaking and reports issued under the Dodd Frank Act at: http://www.sec.gov/spotlight/dodd-frank.shtml.

(Link: https://www.sec.gov/about/whatwedo.shtml)

Office of the Director of National Intelligence (DNI)

The idea of a Director of National Intelligence (DNI) dates to 1955 when a blue-ribbon study commissioned by Congress recommended that the Director of Central Intelligence employ a deputy to run the CIA so that the director could focus on coordinating the overall intelligence effort. This notion emerged as a consistent theme in many subsequent studies of the Intelligence Community commissioned by both the legislative and executive branches over the next five decades. It was the attacks of September 11, however, that finally moved forward the longstanding call for major intelligence reform and the creation of a Director of National Intelligence.

Post-9/11 investigations included a joint Congressional inquiry and the independent National Commission on Terrorist Attacks Upon the United States (better known as the 9/11 Commission). The report of the 9/11 Commission in July 2004 proposed sweeping change in the Intelligence Community including the creation of a National Intelligence Director.

Very soon after the best-selling report was released, the federal government moved forward to undertake reform. President Bush signed four Executive Orders in August 2004, which strengthened and reformed the Intelligence Community as much as possible without legislation. In Congress, both the House and Senate passed bills with major amendments to the National Security Act of 1947. Intense negotiations to reconcile the two bills ultimately led to the Intelligence Reform and Terrorism Prevention Act of 2004 (IRTPA), which President Bush signed into law on December 17.

In February 2005, the President announced that John D. Negroponte, ambassador to Iraq, was his nominee to be the first director of national intelligence and Lt. Gen. Michael V. Hayden, USAF, as the first principal deputy DNI, which earned him his fourth star. On April 21, 2005, in the Oval Office, Amb. Negroponte and Gen. Hayden were sworn in, and the ODNI began operations at 7 a.m. on April 22, 2005.

Previous directors include John M. ("Mike") McConnell (Vice Adm., USN Ret.) and Dennis Blair (Adm., USN Ret.). James R. Clapper (Lt. Gen., USAF Ret.) is the current director of national intelligence.

Mission

- Lead Intelligence Integration.
- Forge an Intelligence Community that delivers the most insightful intelligence possible.

Vision

A Nation made more secure because of a fully integrated Intelligence Community.

Goals

- Integrate intelligence analysis and collection to inform decisions made from the White House to the foxhole.
- Drive responsible and secure information-sharing.
- Set strategic direction and priorities for national intelligence resources and capabilities.
- Develop and implement Unifying Intelligence Strategies across regional and functional portfolios.
- Strengthen partnerships to enrich intelligence.
- Advance cutting-edge capabilities to provide global intelligence advantage.
- Promote a diverse, highly-skilled intelligence workforce that reflects the strength of America.
- Align management practices to best serve the Intelligence Community.

(Link: https://www.dni.gov/index.php/about/mission)

National Interagency Fire Center (NIFC)

The National Interagency Fire Center (NIFC), located in Boise, Idaho, is the nation's support center for wildland firefighting. Eight different agencies and organizations are part of NIFC. Decisions are made using the interagency cooperation concept because NIFC has no single director or manager.

The Boise Interagency Fire Center (BIFC) was created in 1965 because the US Forest Service, Bureau of Land Management (BLM), and National Weather Service saw the need to work together to reduce the duplication of services, cut costs, and coordinate national fire planning and operations. The National Park Service and Bureau of Indian Affairs joined BIFC in in the mid 1970s. The US Fish and Wildlife Service later joined in 1979. The Center's name was changed in 1993 from the Boise Interagency Fire Center to the National Interagency Fire Center to more accurately reflect its national mission.

Frequently Asked Questions

How do I become a firefighter?

Seasonal Firefighter - People interested in a job as a seasonal firefighter must apply to the agency they are interested in working for. Each agency (Bureau of Land Management, National Park Service, Forest Service, Bureau of Indian Affairs, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, State of Idaho, etc.) has its own process for hiring seasonal employees. You may want to consider applying to more than one agency.

To become a wildland firefighter, you must be between the 18 and 35 years old and pass a physical fitness test. The average firefighter is paid $8.00/hour. They sometimes earn time and a half or "hazard duty" pay.

Most agencies hire a fair number of employees on a seasonal basis (generally from May to September). Almost without exception, regardless of the type of work seasonal employees are hired to do, everyone receives basic firefighter training. During seasons where there are a lot of fires, people who have had basic fire training are called upon to help organized fire crews. If you do an outstanding job, regardless of what function you are in, you will be noticed and your chances of getting a "fire job" next season will be greatly increased.

Professional Full-time Firefighter - Check with the agency you are interested in and obtain an information package on how to apply for these types of jobs.

What is a hotshot fire crew?

These highly trained, skilled and experienced crews are made up of firefighters who have had at least one season of experience as a wildland firefighter. There are 68 hotshot crews nationwide - a total of 1,360 firefighters. These firefighters are generally given assignments on the toughest part of a fire and use a variety of specialized hand tools, including chainsaws and fireline explosives. The crew members serve in all phases of wildland firefighting - building firelines, burning out, setting backfires and mopping up. Hot shot crew members are employed for a minimum of 130 days.

What experience do I need to become a smokejumper?

Smokejumpers are airborne firefighters that parachute from planes to attack wildland fires in remote and inaccessible areas. Generally, smokejumpers are the initial attack on remote, inaccessible fires. To become a smokejumper, you need one year of general outdoor experience. Included in this one year of experience must be three months of wildland fire experience on an organized crew. Competition for smokejumper jobs in recent years is resulting in applicants with four to five seasons of wildland firefighting experience competing for the very limited number of jobs that become available each year.

What is the function of the engine crews?

Engine crews are made up of 3-5 wildland firefighters. A typical wildland fire engine is a heavy-duty off road vehicle able to carry up to 800 gallons of water. Engines also carry foam to use on wildland fuels. The foam can also be used to protect the exterior walls of a structure.

What is the function of the hand crews?

These crews consist of about 20 individuals who have been organized and trained and are supervised principally for operational assignments on an incident. Generally, these crews are made up of people who have been trained to fire fight, but whose everyday job is something other than fire, i.e., timber, wilderness rangers, recreation, range. There are approximately 500 hand crews in the United States.

What is a helitack crew?

Helitack crews are specially trained in the tactical and logistical use of helicopters for fire suppression. These crews can be rapidly deployed and are often the first to respond to a wildland fire. Helitack crews are also trained to "rappel" from a hovering helicopter in areas where the

terrain or vegetation does not allow the helicopter to land. A primary job for the crew is to load and unload "slings" of equipment and supplies needed for firefighting.

What kinds of aircraft are used in fire suppression activities?

Helicopters - In a typical year, there are 15-20 "heavy" and "medium" helicopters under contract in the United States for wildland firefighting purposes. Also, there are an additional 175 under contract on a "call when needed" basis. Helicopters support firefighters on the ground by dropping water, foam or retardant on flaming trees, brush and even structures to cool hot spots and prevent a fire from spreading.

Airtankers - Airtankers are large planes fitted with tanks for transporting and dropping fire retardant or water. Their capability ranges from 2,000 gallons to the larger aircraft that are capable of delivering 3,000 gallons. Airtankers drop their load in a long string, creating a line of retardant. The purpose of the retardant is to slow the fire down in order to give ground support forces the opportunity to build firelines. A pink dye is added to give the pilot an idea of where the drop landed. In a typical year, 40-50 airtankers are under contract to state and federal agencies for wildland firefighting purposes.

Modular Airborne Fire Fighting System (MAFFS) - A MAFFS unit is a pressurized 3,000 gallon tank system containing either water or a water-based retardant designed to fit into a C-130 aircraft. MAFFS units can only be utilized when there is imminent danger to life and property and other aerial resources are exhausted or committed.

Lead Planes - These planes are used to "lead" the airtankers to and through their retardant drops and are also used for aerial reconnaissance of fire areas.

Infrared Aircraft - These are aircraft equipped with highly specialized infrared mapping systems. The Infrared scanners locate hot spots inside and outside a fire's perimeter. Infrared scanners can pinpoint a 6-inch hot spot from an altitude of 8,000 feet (1.5 miles) above ground level and can cover almost one million acres in one hour. Flights are generally flown after sunset and before sunrise when temperatures between the terrain and the fire differ the most, making it easier to pinpoint heat sources.

What other wildland firefighting resources are being utilized?

Remote Automated Weather Stations (RAWS) - RAWS units collect, store and forward six critical weather elements hourly, via a Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellite (GOES) 22,300 miles above the equator, to a computer system located at the National Interagency Fire Center in Boise, Idaho. There are approximately 1,150 RAWS strategically

positioned throughout the United States. The types of weather information involved include wind speed and direction, wind gusts, precipitation, air temperature, relative humidity and fuel moisture. Resource managers also use RAWS to monitor environmental conditions and air quality. Some RAWS units are used as early-alert warning systems for things such as floods, mud slides or hazardous material levels.

Incident Management Teams - This is a team of highly trained, experienced individuals who are organized to manage large and/or complex incidents.

Firefighter Handtools - Most of the handtools used by firefighters are combination tools. Throughout the years, wildland firefighters have "invented" handtools that serve more than just one function. Handtools used by firefighters must be effective, efficient, versatile, portable, simple, easy to maintain and repair and standardized so they can be pooled, traded and transported quickly.

Pulaski - This is a combination tool, ax and mattock invented by Ed Pulaski in 1910. This tool enables firefighters to cut trees and limbs with the ax side and to dig and scrape with the mattock side.

McLeod - This combination heavy duty rake and hoe tool is named after Ranter Malcolm McLeod. Firefighters use this tool to cut through matted litter and duff and clearing loose surface materials.

Ax - The most common one being the double-bitted, which is used for cutting trees and limbs. the single-bitted or poleax is common in the east and is used for cutting trees, limbs and for driving wedges.

Shovel - This is a combination tool - the edges are sharpened so that the user can chop down small trees, cut limbs and roots. Firefighters also use shovels to scape away needles and other duff as they construct firelines down to mineral soil. They are specifically designed for fire use and are the lightest, yet most effective shovel or all-around use.

Drip Torch - Firefighters use this device for igniting backfires or burnouts.

Backpack Pump - Firefighters carry these backpacks, usually made from collapsible neoprene, during mop up operations. They are effective for cooling down hot spots.

Once a fire starts, how is it managed and organized?

How agencies respond to a reported incident is well organized and planned in advance. As the incident requires, additional resources are dispatched from the local agency. Once the incident goes beyond the local agency's ability to continue supplying resources, requests for additional resources are forwarded to the nearest Geographical Area Coordination Center (GACC).

There is a total of 11GACCs across the United States, including Alaska. These centers will locate and dispatch additional firefighters and support personnel throughout the geographic area.

When the resource needs for an incident, or incidents, exceed the capability of the GACC, resource orders are then forwarded to the National Interagency Coordination Center (NICC), located at the National Interagency Fire Center (NIFC) in Boise, Idaho. The NICC is an interagency operation that provides logistic support and intelligence reporting to all wildland management agencies. NICC dispatches crews, overhead personnel, aircraft, supplies and services across the U.S. and Canada and to other foreign countries based upon requests from the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID), Office of U.S. Foreign Disaster Assistance (OFDA). These requests are facilitated and coordinated by the USFS, International Programs, Disaster Assistance Support Program (DASP). DASP is a cooperative program between OFDA and the USFS.

How much equipment and supplies are in the NIFC fire cache?

The fire cache maintains a minimum inventory of tools, equipment and supplies to support 10,000 firefighters. Even though the total number of items does not equal 5,000 - they have immediate restocking capability - within 24 hours or so.

75 percent of supplies, materials, tools and equipment are returned after the fires, serviced and put back in the inventory for use on the next fire.

How many radios are there in the NIFC radio cache?

The radio cache has an inventory of 7,000 radios - this includes personal hand-held radios, radios for aircraft, etc.

What is fire's natural role in ecosystems and why do we need to be concerned about this?

More than 100 years of excluding fire, combined with past land-use practices, have altered the landscape. This has resulted in changes such as a heavy buildup of dead vegetation, dense stands

of trees, a shift to species that have not evolved and adapted to fire, and, occasionally, even an increase in non-native fire-prone plants. Because of these conditions, today's fires tend to be larger, burn hotter, and spread farther and faster, making them more severe, more dangerous, and more costly in human, economic, and ecologic terms.

The goal of the fire policy is to restore the natural balance by adopting land management practices that integrate fire into ecosystems as an essential natural process. Fire can be used to reduce the buildup of dead and downed trees and curb insect and disease infestations, while releasing and recycling nutrients essential for the growth and reproduction of many plant species. Land managers must balance wildland fire suppression with the use of fire for resource benefit.

What is a "prescribed" fire?

A prescribed fire is any fire intentionally ignited to meet specific land management objectives (i.e., to reduce flammable fuels, such as the accumulation of brush, logs, etc. on forest floors; or to help restore ecosystem health). Prescribed fires are preplanned ignitions, with predetermined boundaries. They are conducted only under certain weather conditions (i.e., during periods of low wind) when flame length and heat can be controlled. Land managers must obtain approval of prescribed fire plans from applicable federal or state agencies before conducting planned burns. In addition, all applicable requirements under the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) must be met on federal lands. Before federal land management activities (i.e., trail building, timber harvesting, use of fire, etc.) are conducted, NEPA requires that the environmental impacts of these activities be analyzed to assess their impacts on cultural resources, wetlands, soil, water quality, air quality, visibility, and other resources.

How will an increase in the use of fire benefit ecosystem health?

The effects of fire can retard or accelerate the natural development of plant communities, alter species diversity, change nutrient flows, and interact with other physical, chemical, and biological systems. Thus, for most North American ecosystems, fire sustains functional ecosystems.

How will the most critical areas in need of fire application be identified?

Some wildland areas that are in or near an "urban interface" (where houses and structures have been built) may be considered a priority for using managed fire because they are considered at high risk for wildfires that could become catastrophic. Other areas will be selected for a variety of land management purposes, including forest and ecosystem health.

What tools other than prescribed fire do Federal agencies have to reduce fuels hazards?

Besides wildland fire, fuel treatment may be accomplished by mechanical, chemical, biological, and manual means. In some areas, fuel accumulations may be so heavy that use of wildland fire may not be practical. In these cases pre-treatment of the area by another means may be necessary before wildland fire may be applied.

What is the relationship between fire and air quality?

Wildland fires occur naturally and are one of the many natural sources of particulate matter (tiny particles such as dust, soot, etc.) Particulate matter is the main pollutant of concern from smoke because it can cause serious health problems. Smoke can also adversely affect the clarity (visual range) of our air. Wildland fire is also part of the natural ecological process of many ecosystems. Without wildland fires the ecological health of many forests, rangelands and wilderness areas will decline.

What can homeowners do to protect their homes from wildland fire and ensure their home can be protected in the event of a fire?

Use fire resistant building material. The roof and exterior of homes should be constructed of non-combustible or fire resistant materials such as fire resistant roofing materials, tile, slate, sheet iron, aluminum, brick, or stone. Wood siding, cedar shakes, exterior wood paneling, and other highly combustible materials should be treated with fire retardant chemicals.

If a fire does occur near a home in the wildlands, homeowners have the responsibility to create a "defensible space" so that firefighters may safely protect their homes. Examples of defensible space are: cleaning roof surfaces and gutters regularly to avoid accumulation of flammable materials, or Removing portions of any tree extending within 10 feet of the flue opening of any stove or chimney, maintaining a fuel break around all structures

(Link: https://www.nifc.gov/aboutNIFC/about_faq.html)

Bureau of Economic Analysis (BEA)

The Bureau of Economic Analysis (BEA) promotes a better understanding of the U.S. economy by providing the most timely, relevant, and accurate economic accounts data in an objective and cost-effective manner. Vision: To be the world's most respected producer of economic accounts.

Core Values of BEA

- Integrity: Maintaining the sterling reputation of BEA and its statistics.
- Quality: Producing timely, relevant, and accurate statistics.
- Excellence: Fostering staff excellence and recognizing and rewarding employee contributions.
- Responsiveness: Providing customers with the programs and services they need.
- Innovation: Using technology and new methodologies to meet measurement challenges.

BEA is an agency of the Department of Commerce. Along with the Census Bureau, BEA is part of the Department's Economics and Statistics Administration. BEA produces economic accounts statistics that enable government and business decision-makers, researchers, and the American public to follow and understand the performance of the Nation's economy. To do this, BEA collects source data, conducts research and analysis, develops and implements estimation methodologies, and disseminates statistics to the public.

BEA is one of the world's leading statistical agencies. Although it is a relatively small agency, BEA produces some of the most closely watched economic statistics that influence the decisions made by government officials, business people, households, and individuals. BEA's economic statistics, which provide a comprehensive, up-to-date picture of the U.S. economy, are key ingredients in critical decisions affecting monetary policy, tax and budget projections, and business investment plans. The cornerstone of BEA's statistics is the national income and product accounts (NIPAs), which feature the estimates of gross domestic product (GDP) and related measures.

The GDP was recognized by the Department of Commerce as its greatest achievement of the 20th century and has been ranked as one of the three most influential measures that affect U.S. financial markets. Since the NIPAs were first developed in the aftermath of the Great Depression, BEA has developed and extended its estimates to cover a wide range of economic activities. Today, BEA prepares national, regional, industry, and international accounts that present essential information on such key issues as economic growth, regional economic development, interindustry relationships, and the Nation's position in the world economy.

The national income and product accounts (NIPA's) are the comprehensive set of accounts that measure the total value of final goods and services (gross domestic product, or GDP) produced by the U.S. economy and the total of incomes earned in producing that output (Gross Domestic Income, or GDI). GDP measures final purchases by households, business, and government by summing consumption, investment, government spending, and net exports. GDI measures total incomes earned by households by summing wages and salaries, rents, profits, interest, and other income. The accounts also provide information on the prices at which the output is sold and measures of real, inflation-adjusted, measures of output and income.

This integrated set of accounts and the detailed sets of international, regional, and industry accounts that support the national accounts allow for comprehensive and integrated analyses of the impact of alternative policy actions, or of external events, on the entire economy as well as on detailed components of final demand, incomes, industries, and regions of the country.

History of the NIPA's.—Prior to the development of the NIPA's, policymakers had to guide the economy using limited and fragmentary information about the state of the economy. The Great Depression underlined the problems of incomplete data and led to the development of the national accounts:

One reads with dismay of Presidents Hoover and then Roosevelt designing policies to combat the Great Depression of the 1930's on the basis of such sketchy data as stock price indices, freight car loadings, and incomplete indices of industrial production. The fact was that comprehensive measures of national income and output did not exist at the time. The Depression, and with it the growing role of government in the economy, emphasized the need for such measures and led to the development of a comprehensive set of national income accounts.

In response to this need in the 1930's, the Department of Commerce commissioned Nobel laureate Simon Kuznets of the National Bureau of Economic Research to develop a set of national economic accounts./1/ Professor Kuznets headed a small group within the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce's Division of Economic Research. Professor Kuznets coordinated the work of researchers at the National Bureau of Economic Research in New York and his staff at Commerce. The original set of accounts was presented in a report to Congress in 1937 and in a research report, National Income, 1929–35.

Early in 1942, annual estimates of gross national product were introduced to complement the estimates of national income and to facilitate war time planning. Wartime planning needs also helped to stimulate the development of input-output accounts. Nobel laureate Wassily Leontief developed the U.S. input-output accounts that subsequently became an integral part of the NIPA's. In commenting on the usefulness of the national accounts, Wesley C. Mitchell, Director, National Bureau of Economic Research, said: "Only those who had a personal share in the economic mobilization for World War I could realize in how many ways and how much estimates of national income covering 20 years and classified in several ways facilitated the World War II effort."

Over time, in response to policy needs and changes in the economy, the accounts have been expanded to provide quarterly estimates of GDP and monthly estimates of personal income and outlays, regional accounts, wealth accounts, industry accounts, and expanded international accounts. In the past decade, the accounts have been updated by introducing measures of real output and prices that reflect current expenditure patterns; quality-adjusted prices for high-tech goods; and most recently, investment in computer software and a new measure of banking output that recognizes ATMs, electronic funds transfers, and the wide range of other services that banks provide.

A time line of the major innovations introduced in the accounts in the last 50 years would include the following:

- In the 1930's, in response to the information gap revealed by the Great Depression, Simon Kuznets developed a set of national income accounts.
- In the 1940's, World War II planning needs were the impetus for the development of product or expenditure estimates (gross national product); by the mid-1940's, the accounts had evolved into a consolidated set of income and product accounts, providing an integrated birds-eye view of the economy.
- In the late 1950's and early 1960's, interest in stimulating economic growth and in the sources of growth led to the development of official input-output tables, capital stock estimates, and more detailed and timely State and local personal income estimates.
- In the late 1960's and 1970's, accelerating inflation prompted the development of improved measures of prices and inflation-adjusted output.
- In the 1980's, the internationalization of trade in services led to an expansion of the estimates of international trade in services in the NIPA's.
- In the 1980's, BEA did pioneering work with IBM in the development of quality-adjusted price and output measures for computers.
- In the 1990's, BEA introduced more accurate measures of prices and inflation-adjusted output, developed estimates of investments in computer software, and incorporated updated measures of high tech products and banking output.

The national accounts have become the mainstay of modern macroeconomic analysis, allowing policymakers, economists, and the business community to analyze the impact of different tax and spending plans, the impact of oil and other price shocks, and the impact of monetary policy on the economy as a whole and on specific components of final demand, incomes, industries, and regions.

The national accounts, in combination with better informed policies and institutions, have contributed to a reduction in the severity of business cycles and a post-war era of strong economic growth. Prior to World War II, the business cycle was much more severe and more frequent. There were 6 severe depressions between 1854 and 1945 with an average duration of nearly 3 years. Including recessions as well as depressions, the average downturn between 1854 and 1945 was 21 months, with a contraction occurring on average once every 4 years. During the

postwar era the length of the average downturn has been halved to 11 months, with a contraction occurring on average once every 5 years.

The post-World War II era stands out as a period of unprecedented growth for the United States. Real GDP per capita and real wealth has more than doubled since 1948. This period of economic prosperity has not only dramatically improved standards of living but has contributed to large improvements in social conditions, cutting poverty in half, raising life expectancy, and adding to leisure time.

The bank runs, financial panics, and depressions that were recurring problems before World War II became a thing of the past. The business cycle was not eliminated, but its severity was curtailed. This post-war success was based on a more stable economic environment that was due in significant part to the timely, comprehensive and accurate data on the economy provided by the national accounts.

BEA and the GDP of the next century.—In the next century, the needs of the information age will only get larger, and if the national accounts and the rest of the U.S. statistical system is to meet that challenge, several things must happen. First, the Bureau of Economic Analysis, the Bureau of the Census, and the rest of the U.S. statistical system must take a strong leadership role in the harmonization of economic and financial standards in the United States and abroad. The U.S. statistical agencies will also need to continue their work with business and government to increase the use of electronic data collections and administrative records. This will require not only harmonization of financial and accounting standards, but also the adoption of common product and industry codes, the sharing of data between statistical agencies, strong assurances of confidentiality, improvements in administrative records, and an information technology system in the U.S. statistical agencies that is equipped to handle the information needs of the 21st century.

If all this comes to pass, one can imagine a Bureau of Economic Analysis in the future that will obtain its national accounts data from coordinated electronic data collection systems. These systems will use existing electronic data from business accounts, administrative records, and financial clearance systems. The trend toward harmonization of business and economic accounting standards will have reached the point where the data can be used interchangeably. Standardized business, financial, and administrative codes will become so commonplace, and electronic confidentiality protections so secure, that economists and statisticians at BEA, the Census Bureau, and elsewhere in the U.S. statistical system will be able to simply "sample" data plucked from the existing stream of business, financial, and administrative transactions.

Not only will respondent burden be substantially reduced, but the timeliness, accuracy, and quality of the national accounts will also be dramatically improved. Data will be available on a continuous flow basis, and new firms and firms going out of business will be instantly identified. Given the universal use of common scanner, billing, and Internet order codes, the level of detail available from the accounts will exceed anything imagined today. Finally, the internationalization of markets and the need to coordinate government policy will mean that this

same type of data will be available globally, as well as nationally. Such a system will produce a quantum leap in the quality and efficiency of the information infrastructure available for marketing, for business, household, and government transactions, for planning, and for decision making

(Link: https://www.bea.gov/about/mission.htm)

Indian Arts and Crafts Board (IACB)

The Indian Arts and Crafts Board (IACB) promotes the economic development of American Indians and Alaska Natives of federally recognized Tribes through the expansion of the Indian arts and crafts market. The IACB provides promotional opportunities, general business advice, and information on the Indian Arts and Crafts Act to Native American artists, craftspeople, businesses, museums, and cultural centers of federally recognized Tribes. Additionally, the IACB operates three regional museums, conducts a promotional museum exhibition program, produces a "Source Directory of American Indian and Alaska Native Owned and Operated Arts and Crafts Businesses," and oversees the implementation of the Indian Arts and Crafts Act (Act). The implementation and enforcement of the Act is a top priority of the IACB. The Act is a truth-in-advertising law that provides criminal and civil penalties for marketing products as "Indian-made" when such products are not made by Indians, as defined by the Act.

The Department of the Interior has a solemn responsibility to uphold the federal government's unique government-to-government relationship with federally recognized American Indian and Alaska Native tribes, as provided for by the Constitution of the United States, U.S. treaties and court decisions, presidential executive orders and federal policies and administrative actions.

The U.S Government recognizes that a legacy of injustice and broken promises shapes the history of the federal government's relationship with the American Indian and Alaska Native people. DOI is therefore working to turn the page on the federal government's pattern of neglect of this community and, instead, build a strategy for empowerment that helps the tribal nations forge futures of their own choosing.

To chart this new path, the U.S Government is restoring the government-to-government relationship between the federal government and these tribal nations because "self-determination," "sovereignty," "self-government," "empowerment," and "self-reliance" are not abstract concepts. Rather, they are the tools that will enable tribal nations to shape their collective destiny. This is why Interior is committed to partnering with American Indian and Alaska Native communities to help them prosper by expanding education and employment opportunities for youth and adults, protecting lives and property by strengthening law enforcement, and building strong, sustainable tribal economies.

Resolving Long-Standing Injustices

In December 2009, the Department of the Interior (DOI) and the Department of Justice (DOJ) reached a settlement with plaintiffs in the long-standing Cobell v. Salazar class-action lawsuit regarding the mismanagement of federal Indian trust assets. The proposed settlement – which requires approval by the U.S District Court for the District of Columbia and Congressional legislation to authorize its implementation – will distribute $1.4 billion among class members to

compensate them for historical accounting claims. It also establishes a $2 billion fund for the voluntary buy-back and consolidation of fractionated land interests.

The Interior Department also is working to reach settlements in long standing American Indian Water Rights cases. In March 2009, President Obama signed the Omnibus Public Lands Act authorizing the settlement of longtime water rights claims of the Navajo Nation in New Mexico's San Juan Basin.

Under the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009, Interior is investing $500 million in improvements to American Indian and Alaska Native communities that will enhance long-term economic development potential and promote near-term economic recovery. These investments will make a real difference by providing funds to fix schools, upgrade housing, build new roads and create new jobs.

To improve the learning environment of American Indian and Alaska Native children, Interior is using ARRA funds to replace and upgrade its Bureau of Indian Education-funded schools. Its investments of $134.6 million on school-replacement construction and $143.1 million in school improvement and repairs will benefit many of the approximately 42,000 students served by these schools.

Let's Move! is a comprehensive initiative, launched by the First Lady, dedicated to solving the problem of obesity within a generation. Let's Move! in Indian Country directs our efforts to Native American Nations, so that children born today will grow up healthier and able to pursue their dreams. Sure, this is an ambitious goal. But with your help, we can do it.

Interior is committed to strengthening law enforcement in Indian country by putting more officers on the streets, bolstering tribal courts and helping fight violent crime and drug abuse. Its Bureau of Indian Affairs' Office of Justice Services manages about one-third of law-enforcement programs in Indian country, implementing community-based programs to reduce and prevent crime.

As part of the Obama Administration's historic commitment to working with tribal leaders to address the challenges facing Indian Country, Secretary of the Interior Sally Jewell on June13, 2014 announced a plan to transform the Department of the Interior's Bureau of Indian Education (BIE) and to ensure that all students attending BIE-funded schools receive a world-class education that is delivered to them by tribes.

Based on extensive listening sessions and consultations with tribal leaders, educators and community members across Indian country, and analysis of a wide range of primary and secondary data, Secretary Jewell issued a Secretarial Order that will redesign the BIE from a direct provider of education into an innovative organization that will serve as a capacity-builder and service-provider to tribes with BIE-funded schools.

The BIE oversees 183 elementary and secondary schools, located on 64 reservations in 23 states, serving more than 48,000 students. Of these, 59 are BIE-operated and 124 are tribally-operated under Indian Self Determination and Education Assistance Act contracts or the Tribally Controlled Schools Act grants. BIE also funds or operates off-reservation boarding schools and peripheral dormitories near reservations for students attending public schools.

In addition to its elementary and secondary schools, the BIE provides post-secondary education opportunities to American Indians and Alaska Natives by offering higher education scholarships, providing operational support funding to 26 tribal colleges and universities and two tribal technical colleges, and by directly operating two institutions of higher learning: Haskell Indian Nations University and the Southwestern Indian Polytechnic Institute.

The Indian Arts and Crafts Board (IACB) promotes the economic development of American Indians and Alaska Natives of federally recognized Tribes through the expansion of the Indian arts and crafts market. The IACB provides promotional opportunities, general business advice, and information on the Indian Arts and Crafts Act to Native American artists, craftspeople, businesses, museums, and cultural centers of federally recognized Tribes. Additionally, the IACB operates three regional museums, conducts a promotional museum exhibition program, produces a "Source Directory of American Indian and Alaska Native Owned and Operated Arts and Crafts Businesses" of American Indian and Alaska Native Owned and Operated Arts and Crafts Businesses, and oversees the implementation of the Indian Arts and Crafts Act.

(Link: https://www.doi.gov/iacb)

Joint Chiefs of Staff

American history reflects the importance of joint operations. Captain Thomas MacDonough's naval operations on Lake Champlain were a vital factor in the ground campaigns of the War of 1812. The teamwork displayed by General U. S. Grant and Admiral David D. Porter in the Vicksburg Campaign of 1863 is a fine example of joint military planning and execution. However, confusion and lack of coordinated, joint military action raised public criticism in the Cuban campaign of the Spanish-American War (1898). By the turn of the century, war had become too complex for ad hoc joint planning to be successful.

After the Spanish-American War, a joint board composed of the military heads of the Army and the Navy and the chief planner of each Service was established in 1903. The Joint Army and Navy Board was intended to plan for joint operations and resolve pr oblems of common concern to the two Services. But, the Joint Board accomplished little; its charter gave it no actual authority to enforce its decisions. Denied the capacity to originate opinions, the Joint Board was limited to commenting on problems submitted to it by the secretaries of the two Military Departments; it was described as "a planning and deliberative body rather than a center of executive authority." As a result, the Joint Board had little or no impact on the conduct of the First World War.

After World War I, the two Service secretaries agreed to reestablish and revitalize the Joint Board. Membership was expanded to six: the Chiefs of the two Services, their deputies, and the Chief of War Plans Division for the Army and Director of Plans Division for the Navy. More important, a working staff (named the Joint Planning Committee) made up of members of the plans divisions of both Service staffs was authorized. The new Joint Board could initiate recommendations on its own. However, the 1919 board was given no more legal authority or responsibility than its 1903 predecessor. Although its 1935 publication, Joint Action of the Army and Navy, gave some guidance for the joint operations of World War II, the Board was not influential in the war. The board was officially disbanded in 1947.

Origin of the Joint Chiefs of Staff

Soon after Pearl Harbor, President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill, at the Arcadia Conference in Washington, established the Combined Chiefs of Staff as the supreme military body for strategic direction of the Anglo-American war effort. But the United States had no established agency to furnish U.S. input to such a committee. The British Chiefs of Staff Committee, on the other hand, had long given effective administrative coordination, tactical coordination, and strategic direction to British forces. The British committee had planning and intelligence staffs to coordinate the war effort, as well as serving as a "corporate" body for giving military advice to the War Cabinet and the Prime Minister. The collective responsibility of the

British committee was set by the Prime Minister in 1924 and given to each new member as a directive.

In response to the need for coordinated staff work, the concept described by Admiral Leahy as a "unified high command" was adopted by the United States in 1942. That group came to be known as the U.S. Joint Chiefs of Staff. This first Joint Chiefs of Staff worked throughout the war without legislative sanction or even formal Presidential definition, a status that President Roosevelt believed preserved the flexibility required to meet the needs of the war. The first members of the U.S. Joint Chiefs of Staff were the "opposite numbers" to the British Chiefs of the Army, the Navy, and the Royal Air Force (an autonomous and coequal military organization): Admiral William D. Leahy, President Roosevelt's special military adviser, with the title of Chief of Staff to the Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy; General George C. Marshall, Chief of Staff of the Army; Admiral Ernest J. King, Chief of Naval Operations and Commander in Chief of the U.S. Fleet; and General Henry H. Arnold, Deputy Army Chief of Staff for Air and Chief of the Army Air Corps. Each member was promoted to Five-Star rank in December 1944, when the grades of General of the Army and Fleet Admiral of the United States Navy were established.

The Arcadia Conference also gave formal definition to the terms "JOINT," as involving two or more Services of the same nation, and "COMBINED," as applying to organizations, plans, and operations of two or more nations.

Under President Roosevelt's leadership, the JCS steadily grew in influence and became the primary agent in coordinating and giving strategic direction to the Army and Navy. In combination with the British Chiefs of Staff, it mapped and issued broad st rategic direction for both nations.

At the end of World War II, the need for a formal structure of joint command was apparent and the wartime Joint Chiefs of Staff offered a workable model. The first legislative step was the passage of the National Security Act of 1947 which formally es tablished the Joint Chiefs of Staff and laid the foundation for the series of legislative and executive changes that produced today's defense organization. The most recent major congressional action is the 1986 Department of Defense Reorganization Act, commonly known as the Goldwater-Nichols Act.

The mission of the Joint History Office is "to create the record of activities of the Office of the Chairman of the Joint Staff and to capture and document all aspects of joint operations conducted by the Armed Forces of the United States."

The Joint History Office provides historical support to the Chairman and Vice Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff and to the Joint Staff. Central to this mission is the production of histor ical studies of the activities of the Chairman and Vice Chairman, the Joint Chiefs of Staff, and the Joint Staff. Historians have served on the Joint Staff and its predecessors since 1945.

The Joint History Office prints unclassified and classified publications. These works include volumes in The Joint Chiefs of Staff and National Policy series; an illustrated book on the chairmanship; organizational and administrative histories; histories of joint operations; and studies written by historians affiliated with the combatant commands. A number of these publications are intended specifically for the use of service school faculty and students studying joint operations.

(Link: http://www.jcs.mil/About/Joint-Staff-History/)

Mississippi River Commission

The Mississippi River Commission was established in 1879 to facilitate improvement of the Mississippi River from the Head of Passes near its mouth to its headwaters. The stated mission of the Commission was to:

- Develop and implement plans to correct, permanently locate, and deepen the channel of the Mississippi River.
- Improve and give safety and ease to the navigation thereof.
- Prevent destructive floods.
- Promote and facilitate commerce, trade, and the postal service.

For nearly a half century the MRC functioned as an executive body reporting directly to the Secretary of War. The disastrous 1927 flood changed the mission of the MRC. The consequent 1928 Flood Control Act created the Mississippi River and Tributaries Project (MR&T). The act assigned responsibility for developing and implementing the Mississippi River and Tributaries Project (MR&T) to the Mississippi River Commission. The MR&T project provides for:

- Control of floods of the Mississippi River from Head of Passes to vicinity of Cape Girardeau, Missouri.
- Control of floods of the tributaries and outlets of the Mississippi River as they are affected by its backwaters.
- Improvement for navigation of the Mississippi River from Baton Rouge, Louisiana, to Cairo, Illinois. This includes improvements to certain harbors and improvement for navigation of Old and Atchafalaya Rivers from the Mississippi River to Morgan City, Louisiana.
- Bank stabilization of the Mississippi River from the Head of Passes to Cairo, Illinois.
- Preservation, restoration, and enhancement of environmental resources, including but not limited to measures for fish and wildlife, increased water supplies, recreation, cultural resources, and other related water resources development programs.
- Semi-annual inspection trips to observe river conditions and facilitate coordination with local interests in implementation of the project.

The President of the Mississippi River Commission is its executive head. The mission is executed through the Mississippi Valley Division, U.S. Army Engineer Districts in St. Louis, Memphis, Vicksburg, and New Orleans.

The mission of the U. S. Army Corps of Engineers in the Mississippi Valley dates back to 1824, when the nation sought to improve navigation on the Mississippi River. Today that mission has been expanded to include flood risk management and environmental sustainability under the auspices of the Mississippi Valley Division, which was established on April 1, 1997, with headquarters in Vicksburg. Its districts are located in St. Paul, MN; Rock Island, IL; St. Louis, MO; Memphis, TN; Vicksburg MS; and New Orleans, LA.

The Lower Mississippi Valley Division was established in October 1929, with headquarters in Vicksburg and district offices in Memphis, Vicksburg, and New Orleans. St. Louis District transferred to LMVD in 1954. The LMVD mission involved improvements for navigation and flood control on tributaries of the lower Mississippi River beyond the scope of the project for the Mississippi River and Tributaries under the jurisdiction of the Mississippi River Commission. The work included improvement of the St. Francis, White, Arkansas, Red, Ouachita, and Yazoo Rivers and tributaries, and smaller streams. The activities involved construction and maintenance of river and harbor works. The Lower Mississippi Valley Division was abolished with the establishment of the Mississippi Valley Division.

This division had been designated "Western Division," with headquarters in St. Louis and with district offices at St. Paul, Rock Island, Kansas City, St. Louis, Memphis and Vicksburg. The Western Division, created in 1908, had jurisdiction over specific work on the Mississippi River and its tributaries from its headwaters at Lake Itasca to Baton Rouge. The Western Division was abolished with the establishment of the Lower Mississippi Valley Division at Vicksburg and the Upper Mississippi Valley Division at St. Louis in 1929. Prior to the establishment of the Western Division, the Office of Western Rivers Improvements, headquartered in Cincinnati and St. Louis, oversaw work in the Mississippi Valley.

On July 1, 1937, the newly formed Southwestern Division, with headquarters at Little Rock, Ark., (now headquartered in Dallas, Texas) took over jurisdiction of work on some Mississippi River tributaries; e.d., White River and tributaries above Batesville, Ark.; Arkansas River and tributaries above Pine Bluff, Ark.; and Red River and tributaries above Fulton, Ark.

In January 1941, the Gulf of Mexico Division was abolished and the work transferred to existing divisions: First New Orleans District river and harbor work went to the Lower Mississippi Valley Division, Galveston District to Southwestern Division and Mobile District to the South Atlantic Division.

Another change took place in September 1954 when the St. Louis District was transferred from the Upper Mississippi Valley Division to the Lower Mississippi Valley Division. The UMVD was abolished. The Great Lakes Division, with headquarters in Chicago, Ill., was redesignated as North Central Division and concurrently assigned the St. Paul, Minn., and Rock Island, Ill., districts.

In 1960, the navigation work on the Arkansas River, in connection with the authorized revision of the Arkansas River Navigation Project within the Vicksburg District, was transferred to the Little Rock District of the Southwestern Division, with the flood control work remaining in the Vicksburg District under the jurisdiction of the Mississippi River Commission.

April 1, 1997, Chief of Engineers Lt. Gen. Joe N. Ballard began implementation of the Corps' restructuring plan. This plan transferred command of the St. Paul and Rock Island districts to the newly established Mississippi Valley Division.

(Link: http://www.mvd.usace.army.mil/About/Mission/)

National Indian Gaming Commission

The National Indian Gaming Commission was created in 1988 with the passage of the Indian Gaming Regulatory Act (IGRA), which was enacted to support and promote tribal economic development, self-sufficiency, and strong tribal governments through the operation of gaming on Indian lands. The Act provides a statutory basis for the federal regulation of Indian gaming. IGRA establishes the Commission to regulate and support tribal gaming as a means of generating revenue for tribal communities. See 25 U.S.C. § 2704.

The Commission consists of three full-time members, including a Chair and two Associate Commissioners. The Chair is appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate. The two Associate Commissioners are appointed by the Secretary of the Interior. The Commission selects a Vice Chair by a majority vote. At least two members of the Commission must be members of a federally recognized Indian Tribe and only two may be of the same political party.

The National Indian Gaming Commission is committed to fulfilling its responsibilities by:

- regulating and monitoring certain aspects of Indian gaming;
- coordinating its regulatory responsibilities with tribal regulatory agencies;
- providing training and technical assistance to tribal regulatory agencies;
- reviewing and approving tribal gaming ordinances and management agreements;
- reviewing the backgrounds of individuals and entities to ensure the suitability of those seeking to manage or invest in Indian gaming;
- overseeing and reviewing the conduct and regulation of Indian gaming operations;
- enforcing violations against the IGRA and its regulations; and
- referring law enforcement matters to appropriate tribal, Federal, and state entities.

To achieve its Congressional mandate, the Commission adheres to the principles of good government, including transparency and agency accountability; promoting fiscal responsibility; operating with consistency and clarity to ensure fairness in the administration of the Indian Gaming Regulatory Act; and respecting the capabilities and responsibilities of each sovereign tribal nation in order to fully promote tribal economic development, self-sufficiency, and strong tribal governments.

(Link: https://www.nigc.gov/commission/about-us)

National Reconnaissance Office (NRO)

When the United States needs eyes and ears in critical places where no human can reach – be it over the most rugged terrain or through the most hostile territory – it turns to the National Reconnaissance Office (NRO). The NRO is the U.S. Government agency in charge of designing, building, launching, and maintaining America's intelligence satellites. Whether creating the latest innovations in satellite technology, contracting with the most cost-efficient industrial supplier, conducting rigorous launch schedules, or providing the highest-quality products to protect the Nation and its citizens.

From our inception in 1961 to our declassification to the public in 1992, the NRO has worked tirelessly to provide the best reconnaissance support possible to the Intelligence Community (IC) and Department of Defense (DoD). NRO is unwavering in its dedication to fulfilling the vision: Supra Et Ultra: Above and Beyond.

The National Reconnaissance Office's (NRO) systems are critical to National Security, U.S. policy makers, and war fighters. These systems provide the foundation for global situational awareness, and address the nation's toughest intelligence challenges. Frequently, NRO systems are the only collectors able to access critical areas of interest, and data from overhead sensors provides unique information and perspectives not available from other sources.

The NRO's key customers and mission partners include: policy makers, the Armed Services, the Intelligence Community, Departments of State, Justice and Treasury, and civil agencies. All of them depend on the unique capabilities NRO systems provide:

- Monitoring the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction
- Tracking international terrorists, drug traffickers, and criminal organizations
- Developing highly accurate military targeting data and bomb damage assessments
- Supporting international peacekeeping and humanitarian relief operations
- Assessing the impact of natural disasters, such as earthquakes, tsunamis, floods, and fires.

Together with other Defense Department satellites, the NRO systems play a crucial role in providing global communications, precision navigation, early warning of missile launches and potential military aggression, signals intelligence, and near real-time imagery to U.S. forces to support the war on terrorism and other continuing operations.

NRO satellites also support civil customers in response to disaster relief and environmental research. Scientists created a global environment database using NRO imagery to help predict climate change, assess crop production, map habitats of endangered species, track oil spills, and study wetlands. NRO data also forms the basis for products that help depict and assess the devastation in areas affected by natural disasters.

The NRO's innovation also inspired technology in everyday life with contributions to medical imaging, global communications, high-definition television, cellular phones, the global positioning system (GPS), and much more.

With its vigilance from above, the NRO gives America's policymakers, intelligence analysts, warfighters and homeland security specialists the critical information they need to keep America safe, secure, and free.

The history of the National Reconnaissance Office is a story of how opportunity, necessity, and determination converged to produce an intelligence organization unlike any that had come before. In the late 1950s, rocket and sensor technologies were just reaching a level of maturity so that, if pushed to the limit, they could assist the United States in facing the most challenging national security problem of the age: how to analyze Soviet military forces and avert a potential nuclear war.

After providing the hard data that made it possible to understand and deter the Soviet Union, NRO systems later became the primary means that made possible the arms control agreements that defused U.S.–Soviet tensions. After the collapse of the Soviet Union, NRO systems became ever more integrated into U.S. military capabilities, playing a critical role in the Gulf War, peacekeeping operations, and most recently, global operations against terrorists.

In retrospect, it seems remarkable that even as the United States was achieving its goal of putting a man on the moon, there was an equally ambitious and technologically challenging American space program proceeding along a parallel path—but in strictest secrecy. Indeed, it was not until 1978 that a President acknowledged the basic fact that the United States carried out reconnaissance from space, and not until 1992 that the government acknowledged the NRO’s existence.

Until recently, it would have been impossible to publish an official, authoritative, unclassified history of the NRO. The fact that we can tell the history of this second space program today shows how much the NRO has evolved. Originally the NRO and its mission were totally unacknowledged, first to protect the source and method; and second, in deference to the sensitivity that some countries might have to U.S. satellites orbiting over their territory. Today we take such activities for granted, and the NRO and its mission can be much more open, and focus its measures for secrecy on those areas in which the organization is developing technologies that exceed the public’s imagination and the expectations of our adversaries.

In thinking about how far the NRO has come in the past fifty years, the challenge for the reader is to imagine how this national resource can continue to support U.S. security by testing the limits of technology in an era in which the American public expect greater openness and in which space operations have become commonplace.

The NRO can trace its heritage to World War II, when U.S. forces used aircraft to collect imagery and signals intelligence to plan military operations against Germany and Japan. As the Cold War heated up, U.S. officials discovered that overhead reconnaissance was one of the few options available to discover basic facts about the military and industrial capabilities of the new opponent the nation faced, the Soviet Union.

Nearly twenty years after the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbor, one of the final chapters of World War II history opened when acting CIA Director, Gen Charles Cabell established the National Reconnaissance Office by concurring with Deputy Secretary of Defense, Roswell Gilpatric's 6 September 1961 memorandum. The ghosts of Pearl Harbor loomed large indeed as teams of extraordinary scientists developed high-altitude and satellite technology, hoping to assure that the United States would never again face a devastating, surprise attack.

Three forces molded the subsequent chapters in the National Reconnaissance Office's history: brilliant scientists and engineers, stunning reconnaissance technology, and hard intelligence challenges. In his brief history of the National Reconnaissance Office, Bruce Berkowitz presents unclassified glimpses of the scientists and engineers, reconnaissance technologies, and intelligence issues that drove the development of the National Reconnaissance Office and its efforts to defend the nation during the last fifty years of air and space advances.

A highly talented group of individuals with diverse backgrounds played important roles in the establishment of the National Reconnaissance Office. These individuals include Dr. James Killian, science advisor to President Eisenhower and President of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, who provided critical support for national reconnaissance systems. Dr. Edwin "Din" Land, inventor of instant photography and President of the Polaroid Corporation, who became an influential advocate for the use of new technology to solve intelligence puzzles. Dr. Richard Bissell, the talented Marshall Plan administrator, applied those management skills to develop two early successful reconnaissance programs—the U-2 high-altitude spy plane and the nation's first photoreconnaissance satellite—Corona. Dr. Joseph Charyk, who would later lead one of the nation's largest commercial satellite companies, provided early and essential leadership for the nation's first overhead reconnaissance organization.

Space is a harsh environment and space technology must persist in that environment. Consequently, scientists and engineers developed new materials: film, lenses, antennas, and other components to survive in space. The U-2, the nation's first high-altitude aircraft; Grab, the first signals intelligence system; and Corona, the first photoreconnaissance system, exemplify technology's successful response to these challenges. For these systems, existing technology was

reshaped to operate in space. Technological breakthroughs allowed the United States to gather signals and photograph adversaries from high altitudes and the far reaches of space. Early efforts brought disappointment as often as success, but as technology matured, overhead reconnaissance proved to be a reliable asset in the defense of the nation.

(Link: http://www.nro.gov/history/csnr/programs/index.html)

Pentagon Force Protection Agency

Pentagon Force Protection Agency is a civilian Defense Agency within the Department of Defense charged with protecting and safeguarding the occupants, visitors, and infrastructure of the Pentagon, Mark Center, Defense Health Headquarters and other delegated Pentagon facilities.

This critical mission is accomplished with law enforcement officers (United States Pentagon Police), criminal investigative and protective services agents; threat management agents; chemical, biological, radiological, nuclear and explosives technicians; and anti-terrorism/force protection and physical security personnel.

PFPA provides a variety of services to its customers to include emergency services, parking management, lock installation/services, classified waste disposal, access control, building pass issuance, mail screening, and law enforcement.

The Pentagon Force Protection Agency (PFPA) traces its roots directly to the General Services Administration´s (GSA) United States Special Policemen (USSP) and a variety of security and security related functions originally located throughout the Office of the Secretary of Defense.

Prior to 1971 the GSA´s USSP provided law enforcement, safety and security functions at the Pentagon. The protection programs were a "guard-watchman" operation, where USSP focused primarily on the protection of property. However, as a result of a growing number of disruptive incidents throughout the country, GSA reexamined its security program. In response to the mass demonstrations, bombings and bomb threats of the era, the Federal Protective Service was established to provide comprehensive protection of the Pentagon and its personnel rather than the previous policy of concentration on property.

On Oct. 1, 1987, the GSA Administrator delegated the authority for protecting the Pentagon Reservation to the Department of Defense (DoD). To carry out the new mission, DoD established the Defense Protective Service (DPS) as a new element within the Washington Headquarters Service (WHS), a DoD Field Operating Activity. In addition, the scope of the mission of the DPS was expanded beyond the 280-acre "Pentagon Reservation" to numerous other DoD activities and facilities within the National Capital Region (NCR). During the early 1990´s, the various security and security-related functions located within WHS were consolidated and transferred to the DPS.

On May 3, 2002, in response to the terrorist attack against the Pentagon on Sept. 11, 2001 and the subsequent anthrax incidents, Deputy Secretary of Defense Paul Wolfowitz established the Pentagon Force Protection Agency as a Department of Defense Agency under the cognizance of the Director of Administration and Management, under the Office of the Secretary of Defense. This new agency absorbed the DPS and its role of providing basic law enforcement and security for the Pentagon.

Since its creation, PFPA has expanded its mission and provides force protection against a full spectrum of potential threats. While law enforcement is still a major portion of its mission, the agency also handles operations security, building surveillance, crisis prevention, consequence management, counterintelligence, antiterrorism, Hazmat and explosives, protection of high ranking DoD officials, information technology and administrative issues. PFPA continues to evolve making it one of the Nation's premiere Federal law enforcement organizations; defending the Pentagon's personnel, facilities, and infrastructure against numerous, mounting threats.

(Link: http://www.pfpa.mil/history.html)

Bureau of Land Management (BLM)

The Bureau of Land Management (BLM) may best be described as a small agency with a big mission: To sustain the health, diversity, and productivity of America's public lands for the use and enjoyment of present and future generations. It administers more public land – over 245 million surface acres – than any other Federal agency in the United States. Most of this land is located in the 12 Western states, including Alaska. The BLM also manages 700 million acres of sub-surface mineral estate throughout the nation.

The BLM's multiple-use mission, set forth in the Federal Land Policy and Management Act of 1976, mandates that we manage public land resources for a variety of uses, such as energy development, livestock grazing, recreation, and timber harvesting, while protecting a wide array of natural, cultural, and historical resources, many of which are found in the BLM's 27 million-acre National Landscape Conservation System. The conservation system includes 221 Wilderness Areas totaling 8.7 million acres, as well as 16 National Monuments comprising 4.8 million acres.

The BLM does its complex and challenging work with an annual budget of more than $1 billion and a workforce of about 10,000 full-time employees. The BLM is one of a handful of Federal agencies that generates more revenue for the United States than it spends. For example, in Fiscal Year 2012, nearly $5 billion will be generated by activities on BLM-managed lands, including an estimated $4.3 billion from onshore oil and gas development, with about half of those revenues going to the states where the mineral leasing occurred.

The BLM is focusing on the following priorities:

- The America's Great Outdoors initiative, which is aimed at enhancing the conservation of BLM-managed lands and resources and reconnecting Americans to the outdoors.
- The New Energy Frontier, which encourages and facilitates renewable energy development – solar, wind, and geothermal – on the Nation's public lands.
- Cooperative Landscape Conservation, a scientific initiative that recognizes the need to better understand the condition of BLM-managed landscapes at a broad level.
- Youth in the Great Outdoors, which supports programs and partnerships that engage youth in natural resource management and encourages young people and their families to visit, explore, and learn about the public lands.
- Climate Change, which is affecting public lands in ways that could impact on Americans' quality of life. The BLM is responding with two interconnected initiatives: a proposed landscape approach to land management and Rapid Ecoregional Assessments, which will improve the agency's understanding of public land conditions to inform future management decisions.

By strengthening existing and forging new partnerships with stakeholders, the BLM will ensure that the nation's public lands are managed and conserved for future generations of Americans to use and enjoy. BLM is responsible for managing a large spectrum of natural resource values. Below are listed links to other of our natural resource management and administrative support programs:

- Abandoned Mine Lands
- Acquisition and Procurement (Doing Business w/ BLM)
- Alternative Dispute Resolution/Conflict Prevention Program
- America's Great Outdoors
- Asset Management
- Best Management Practices
- Bureau Enterprise Architecture
- Communication Sites Management
- Cultural, Paleontological Resources and Tribal Consultation
- Cadastral Survey
- Climate Change
- US Mineral Surveyor Program
- Filming on Public Lands
- Fish, Wildlife and Plant Conservation
- Forests and Woodlands
- General Land Office (GLO)
- Geographic Coordinate Data Base (GCDB)
- Great Basin Landscape Conservation Consortium
- Hazardous Materials Management
- Helium Program
- Lands and Realty
- Landscape Approach for Managing Public Lands
- Land Tenure (Purchase, Donation, Exchange, Sales)
- Law Enforcement
- Mining and Minerals (mining claims, solid minerals)
- Mining Claims and Sites on Federal Lands
- National Landscape Conservation System (NLCS)
- Noxious Weeds

•BLM Partnerships

•Payments in Lieu of Taxes (PILT)

•Remote Data Acquisition for Well Production (RDAWP)

•Rights-of-Way

•Sage-Grouse Conservation

•Soil, Water, and Air

•Vegetation Programmatic EIS

•Youth Initiatives

About the BLM's History Project

The Bureau of Land Management (BLM), created in 1946 through a merger of the General Land Office (GLO) and the U.S. Grazing Service, has roots going back to the creation of the GLO in 1812. In celebration of 200 years of land management, the BLM presents this website -- a collection of the stories, traditions and heritage that make up our unique history. BLM employees, current and retired, have contributed to this labor of love and many more will continue to add their unique histories over time.

The challenge of managing public lands started as soon as America established its independence and began acquiring additional lands. Initially, these public lands were used to encourage homesteading and westward migration, and the General Land Office (GLO) was created to support this national goal. Over time, however, values and attitudes regarding public lands shifted. Many significant laws and events led to the establishment of the Bureau of Land Management (BLM) and laid the foundation for its mission to sustain the health, diversity, and productivity of America's public lands for the use and enjoyment of present and future generations.

1812 - General Land Office is established within the Treasury Department to oversee disposition of ceded and acquired lands. As the successor agency to the original GLO, the Bureau of Land Management maintains more than nine million historic land documents:

- survey plats and field notes
- homestead patents
- military warrants
- railroad grants

Many of these records can be found at: www.glorecords.blm.gov

The life of a surveyor was hard. Many oral and written accounts by surveyors tell the story of discovery, hardship, excitement, misery and financial loss. One 1852 field note record of an Iowa

survey reads, "one of my men was accidently shot yesterday and died almost instantly." The field notes continue with bearings and distances to the grave of deceased surveyor Ivy Johnson.

1824 - Office of Indian Affairs is established in the Department of War and is later transferred to the Department of the Interior.

1837 - On its 25th anniversary, the General Land Office has 65 district land offices.

1843 - "Great Migration" on the Oregon Trail begins.

1844 - First geological surveys of public lands are initiated by the General Land Office in Michigan.

1849 - Department of the Interior is established and the General Land Office is transferred to the new department.

1850 - First railroad land grants are made in Illinois, Alabama, and Mississippi.

1862 - Homestead Act entitles settlers to 160 acres of public land after they reside on and cultivate the land for 5 years. By 1934, over 1.6 million homestead applications were processed and more than 270 million acres—10 percent of all U.S. lands—passed into the hands of individuals.

1862 - Transcontinental Railroad Act gives railroad companies rights-of-way and alternate sections of public domain lands along both sides of their railroads.

1869 - First transcontinental railroad is completed at Promontory Summit, Utah.

1872 - General Mining Law identifies mineral lands as a distinct class of public lands subject to exploration, occupation, and purchase under stipulated conditions.

1872 - Establishment of Yellowstone National Park marks a shift from disposition to conservation and protection of federal lands.

1877 - Desert Land Act authorizes the disposition of 640-acre tracts of public lands to homesteaders upon proof of reclamation of the lands by irrigation.

1878 - Timber and Stone Act authorizes the negotiated sale of lands that are valuable for either logging or mining and otherwise unfit for cultivation.

1889 - Oklahoma Land Rush begins the disposal of federal public domain lands in Oklahoma.

1894 - Carey Act authorizes transfer of up to 1 million acres of public desert land to states for settling, irrigating, and cultivating purposes.

1897 - Forest Management "Organic" Act transfers fire protection responsibilities for forest reserves from the Department of Army to the General Land Office.

1898 - Congress extends homestead laws to Alaska.

1906 - Antiquities Act preserves and protects prehistoric, historic, and scientifically significant sites on public lands and creates national monuments.

1911 - Weeks Act permits the federal purchase of private land to protect the headwaters of rivers and watersheds and calls for cooperative fire protection efforts.

1916 - Stock Raising Homestead Act authorizes homesteads of 640 acres and separates surface rights from subsurface (mineral) rights.

1920 - Mineral Leasing Act authorizes federal leasing of public lands for private extraction of oil, gas, coal, phosphate, sodium, and other minerals.

1926 - Recreation and Public Purposes Act allows conveyance or lease of public lands to state and local governments for outdoor recreation purposes.

1934 - Taylor Grazing Act authorizes grazing districts, grazing regulation, and public rangeland improvements in western states (excluding Alaska) and establishes the Division of Grazing (later renamed the U.S. Grazing Service) within the Department of the Interior.

1937 - Oregon and California (O&C) Revested Lands Sustained Yield Management Act requires O&C Railroad lands to be managed for permanent forest production and provides for watershed protection, regulation of stream flow, and recreational facilities.

1939 - Alaskan Fire Control Service is created within the General Land Office to prevent and suppress fires on Alaska public lands.

1942 - Extensive withdrawals of public lands for military and defense use begin, with more than 13 million acres withdrawn in 2 years.

1946 - Bureau of Land Management (BLM) is established within the Department of the Interior through the consolidation of the General Land Office and the U.S. Grazing Service.

1953 - Outer Continental Shelf Lands Act authorizes the Secretary of the Interior to lease mineral lands more than 3 miles offshore; the BLM assumes responsibility for leasing through competitive sales.

Oil well operation

1954 - Recreation and Public Purposes Act amends the 1926 act and allows the sale and lease of public lands for other purposes in addition to recreation.

1954 - The BLM reorganizes and creates a state office system.

1955 - Multiple Surface Use Act withdraws common varieties of minerals from entry as mining claims and allows claim owners to use the surface for mining operation purposes only.

1960 - Public Land Administration Act allows the use of donations and cooperative agreements to improve and better manage public lands.

1964 - Public Land Law Review Commission is established to study public land laws and make long-term recommendations for public land use.

1964 - Wilderness Act protects undeveloped federal land to preserve its natural condition.

1965 - Land and Water Conservation Fund is established for federal acquisition of outdoor recreation areas.

1966 - National Historic Preservation Act expands protection of prehistoric and historic properties.

1968 - Wild and Scenic Rivers and National Trails System Acts preserve sites with outstanding natural, cultural, scenic, historic, and recreational significance.

1969 - National Environmental Policy Act requires federal agencies to assess the impacts of their actions on the environment.

1971 - Alaska Native Claims Settlement Act provides for settlement of aboriginal land claims of Alaskan Natives and Native groups; the BLM is tasked with the largest U.S. land transfer effort ever undertaken.

1971 - Wild Free-Roaming Horses and Burros Act provides for the protection and management of these animals on federal lands.

1973 - Endangered Species Act requires the conservation of threatened and endangered plants and animals and the ecosystems upon which they depend.

1975 - Energy Policy and Conservation Act addresses energy demands and establishes a strategic petroleum reserve.

1976 - Federal Land Policy and Management Act requires that public lands be managed for multiple uses and sustained yield through land use planning.

1976 - Management of the National Petroleum Reserve–Alaska is transferred to the BLM.

1977 - Surface Mining Control and Reclamation Act ensures environmental safeguards for mining and reclamation of mined areas.

1977 - Trans Alaska Pipeline System begins transporting oil 800 miles from Alaska's North Slope to the Port of Valdez.

1978 - Public Rangelands Improvement Act requires inventory, determination of trends, and improvement of public rangelands.

1979 - Archaeological Resources Protection Act requires permits for excavation or removal of these resources from federal lands and provides stringent criminal and civil penalties for violations.

1980 - Alaska National Interest Lands Conservation Act designates and conserves public lands in Alaska as national parks, wildlife refuges, wild and scenic rivers, wilderness, and forests and provides for subsistence use by rural Alaska residents.

1980 - The BLM completes its first resource management plan, covering the California Desert Conservation Area, and designates its first areas of critical environmental concern in Utah and California.

1983 - The BLM transfers responsibility for offshore leasing to the Minerals Management Service.

1987 - Federal Onshore Oil and Gas Leasing Reform Act establishes a new leasing system and changes certain operational procedures for onshore resources on federal lands.

1990 - Northern spotted owl is listed as a threatened species under the Endangered Species Act, leading to an enjoinment of all timber sales on federal lands within its range.

1992 - Energy Policy Act increases focus on alternative energy sources, energy efficiency, and reducing the country's reliance on foreign fuel sources.

1993 - Presidential summit leads to the development of the Northwest Forest Plan to address human and environmental needs in areas within the northern spotted owl region.

1994 - BLM Summit, the first ever gathering of all BLM managers, resulted in the development of a new strategic vision for the BLM.

1994 - Rangeland Reform ’94 amends grazing regulations and establishes Resource Advisory Councils.

1996 - Grand Staircase-Escalante National Monument is designated by Presidential proclamation as BLM’s first national monument.

2000 - National Landscape Conservation System is established.

2000 - Executive Order 13175 mandates consultation and collaboration with tribal officials in developing federal policy that has tribal implications.

2005 - Energy Policy Act ensures energy efficiency and the production of secure, affordable, and reliable domestic energy.

2008 - BLM-managed lands are officially designated as the National System of Public Lands.

2009 - Omnibus Public Land Management Act authorizes the 26-million-acre National Landscape Conservation System and establishes permit requirements and penalties for unauthorized removal of paleontological resources from federal lands.

(Link: https://www.blm.gov/wo/st/en/prog/more.html)

National Credit Union Administration

The mission of the NCUA is to provide, through regulation and supervision, a safe and sound credit union system, which promotes confidence in the national system of cooperative credit. Learn more about NCUA's mission, culture, values and how we ensure millions of Americans can safely and confidently use credit unions for their financial needs.

For more than 100 years, credit unions have provided financial services to their members in the United States. Credit unions are unique depository institutions created not for profit, but to serve their members as credit cooperatives.

General Industry Statistics 2015
Federally Insured Credit Unions: 5,844
Members: 106.2 million
Total Assets: $1.3 trillion
Average Credit Union Assets: $219 million
Return on Average Assets: 78 basis points
Total Insured Shares and Deposits: $1 trillion
Net Income (Year-to-Date): $7.3 billion
Net Worth Ratio: 10.85%
Average Shares per Member: $10,147

Loans
Total Loans: $847.1 billion
Average Loan Balance: $14,127
Loan-to-Share Ratio: 78.6%
Mortgages/Real Estate: 50.0%
Auto Loans: 34.0%
Unsecured Credit Cards: 6.0%
Other: 10.0%
Delinquency Ratio: 0.77%

National Credit Union Share Insurance Fund
Member deposits insured up to $250,000
Equity Ratio: 1.27%
Net Income (CY 2016): ($14.3) million
NCUSIF Reserves: $182.6 million
Failed Federally Insured Credit Unions: 12
Total Assets: $13.3 billion

Insurance Loss Expense (CY 2016): $(0.5) million

The earliest financial cooperatives date back to the beginning of 19th century in England. A few decades later, credit unions took root in Germany. Organized by Herman Schulze-Delitzsch and

Friedrich Raiffeisen, these early credit unions became the model for today's credit unions in the United States. Distinguishing features of these German credit unions included:

- Democratic governance;
- Each member has one vote, regardless of the size of the member's deposits;
- Member-elected board of directors; and
- Volunteer based.

The crop failure and famine of 1846 caused Schulze-Delitzsch to organize a cooperatively-owned mill and bakery that sold bread to its members at substantial savings. Schulze-Delitzsch took this cooperative notion to address the needs of credit, too. In 1850, he organized the first cooperative credit society, known as the people's bank.

Raiffeisen sought to provide credit to farmers. He formed the Heddesdorf Credit Union in 1864 to help German farmers purchase livestock, equipment, seeds and other farming needs.

In 1900, at the start of the 20th century, the credit union concept crossed the Atlantic to Levis, Quebec, where Alphonse Desjardins organized La Caisse Populaire de Levis. A court reporter, Desjardins became aware of loan sharks charging outrageous interest. In response, he organized this first credit union in North America to provide affordable credit to working class families.

Nearly a decade later, Desjardins helped a group of Franco-American Catholics in Manchester, New Hampshire, organize St. Mary's Cooperative Credit Association. This first credit union in the United States opened its doors in 1909.

As a result of the efforts of Edward Filene, a merchant and philanthropist, and Pierre Jay, the Massachusetts Banking Commissioner, the Massachusetts Credit Union Act became law April 15, 1909. The Massachusetts law served as a basis for subsequent state credit union laws and the Federal Credit Union Act, which became law 25 years later.

During the 1920s, the U.S. credit union movement became increasingly popular. Families had more money to save and could afford products like automobiles and washing machines. They, however, needed a source of inexpensive credit to purchase these goods. The popularity of credit unions grew because commercial banks and savings institutions generally showed limited interested in offering such consumer loans.

In 1920, Edward Filene hired Roy Bergengren, a poverty lawyer, to manage the Massachusetts Credit Union Association and to promote the development of credit unions. Within a year, Massachusetts chartered 19 new credit unions

Encouraged by this success, Filene organized and Bergengren managed a national association—the Credit Union National Extension Bureau—to promote the establishment of credit unions throughout the United States. By 1925, 26 states had enacted laws to charter credit unions. By 1930, 32 states had adopted credit union laws with a total 1,100 credit unions

In 1934, President Franklin Delano Roosevelt signed the Federal Credit Union Act into law, creating a national system to charter and to supervise federal credit unions. The credit union movement grew steadily in the 1940s and 1950s. By 1960, credit union membership amounted to more than 6 million individuals belonging to more than 10,000 federal credit unions.

In 1970, the National Credit Union Administration (NCUA) became an independent federal agency. Congress also created the National Credit Union Share Insurance Fund (NCUSIF) to protect deposits at credit unions.

The 1970s also brought major changes in the products offered by financial institutions. Credit unions, too, found they needed to expand their services. In 1977, federal legislation allowed U.S. credit unions to offer new services to their members, including share certificates and mortgages.

U.S. credit unions grew tremendously during the 1970s. The number of credit union members more than doubled during the decade, and credit union assets tripled to more than $65 billion.

Deregulation, increased flexibility in merger and field of membership criteria, and expanded member services characterized changes in the 1980s for U.S. credit unions. Early in the decade, high interest rates and unemployment brought supervisory changes and insurance losses, as well.

With the NCUSIF experiencing financial stress, the credit union community called on Congress to approve a recapitalization plan. In 1985, federally insured credit unions recapitalized the NCUSIF—a federal fund backed by the full faith and credit of the U.S. Government—by depositing 1 percent of their shares.

Throughout the 1990s and into the start of the 21st century, U.S. credit unions continued to expand as a group. Because few credit unions failed, the NCUSIF also prospered. Then the nation's credit union industry faced profound and unprecedented threats to its stability in 2008 and 2009. A steep drop in global financial markets triggered the most severe economic downturn since the Great Depression.

The resulting cascade of job losses, bankruptcies, and home foreclosures exerted pressure on the entire American financial services sector—including credit unions. From the onset of the crisis, NCUA took decisive action and worked in concert with Congress, the U.S. Department of the Treasury, the Federal Reserve and other authorities to safeguard the U.S. credit union system

Many of the largest corporate credit unions in the United States, however, invested in troubled mortgage-backed securities that experienced dramatic, unprecedented declines in value, effectively rendering five of these institutions insolvent. The loss to the U.S. credit union system was sizable.

NCUA acted quickly to reduce the total losses resulting from the failure of these five wholesale corporate credit unions—U.S. Central Corporate, Western Corporate, Southwest Corporate, Members United Corporate, and Constitution Corporate. Specifically, the agency worked with Congress and U.S. Treasury Department to establish the Temporary Corporate Credit Union Stabilization Fund (Stabilization Fund) to protect the NCUSIF and the stability of U.S. credit

unions. Insured credit unions, not taxpayers, will pay back the costs of the Stabilization Fund over time.

In responding to the corporate credit union crisis, NCUA also took the following actions:

- After placing the five failed corporate credit unions into liquidation, NCUA re-securitized the problematic mortgage-backed securities that caused the failures and sold these notes in the marketplace with a government-backed guarantee.
- NCUA established a temporary share guarantee for deposits at corporate credit unions.
- NCUA established bridge corporate credit unions in conservatorship to ensure the services provided to consumer credit unions continued during the resolution and transition period.
- NCUA worked with members of the bridge corporate credit unions to transition services to new entities where possible.

Even as NCUA managed the corporate credit union crisis, the agency dealt with the declining fortunes of a number of consumer-owned credit unions. While the U.S. credit union system remained strong overall during the financial crisis, consumer-owned credit unions in several regions weakened as a result of spikes in home foreclosures, business failures, and unemployment. A number of these credit unions failed.

To protect against the failure of more credit unions, NCUA implemented a "red flag" early warning system to detect problems in individual credit unions before they became insurmountable. As part of this strategy, NCUA adopted a 12-month examination cycle for federally insured credit unions. NCUA also began to step up administrative actions wherever necessary to ensure prompt compliance. By year-end 2009, more than 96 percent of credit unions met the statutory definition of "well capitalized."

Today, the U.S. credit union system continues to overcome economic challenges, but the industry has also demonstrated its resilience. NCUA also continues to work, enhancing a credit union system that is safe, sound, secure and serving more Americans than ever before.

(Link: https://www.ncua.gov/About/Pages/history.aspx)