UNIT 1

REFERENCES:


OBJECTIVE: NFPA Standard 1021, Chapter 2, paragraph 2-1.

TEACHING OUTLINE

1. There are no learning objectives assigned to this unit. There are no written test items or practical evaluation taken from this unit.
REFERENCES:

NFPA 1500. Fire Department Occupational Safety and Health Program, 1992, National Fire Protection Association, Quincy, Massachusetts.

OBJECTIVE: To allow the fire officer information pertaining to the human resource management process, controls, and the impact of their leadership on the unit.

TEACHING OUTLINE

1. **OBTAINING AND PROMOTING COOPERATION WITHIN A GROUP OF SUBORDINATES**

1.1. **Theory X, Y, Z:**

1.1.1. **X-theory:** contends that supervisors develop leadership styles corresponding to one of these two views. The first type of leader, the Theory X leader, basically believes:

1.1.1.1. The average worker is inherently lazy, dislikes work, and will avoid it by any means.

1.1.1.2. Because of their inherent dislike of work, most workers must be coerced or directed to perform adequately by threats and punishment.

1.1.1.3. The average worker prefers to be directed and shuns responsibility because of a general lack of ambition.

1.1.2. The second type of leader, the **Theory Y** leader, believes that:

1.1.2.1. The average worker does not inherently dislike work - in fact, workers feel work can be as natural as play or rest.

1.1.2.2. Workers will perform adequately with self-direction and self-control without threats of coercion.

REFERENCES

IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 90-95.
TEACHING OUTLINE

1.1.2.3. Workers will subscribe to organizational objectives if they associate those objectives with direct rewards.

1.1.2.4. The average worker learns not only to accept responsibility, but in fact learns to seek responsibility.

1.1.2.5. Only a small part of the worker’s intelligence, ingenuity, and imagination is ever harnessed, and that under proper leadership workers will excel.

1.1.3. Theory X and Theory Y represent the extremes, and the leader does not have to use one or the other. However, both theories have worked in the fire service under the proper conditions.

1.1.4. Leaders usually fall into two broad groups: those who have a concern for production and those who have a concern for people. A Theory X person would have a concern for production would believe that:

1.1.4.1. Workers are not inherently motivated to work; therefore, they have to be closely directed.

1.1.4.2. Emphasis should be placed on production, because otherwise work would not be done; the worker is not self-motivated.

1.1.5. A Theory Y person would probably be most concerned with people and believe that:

1.1.5.1. Workers, unless adversely depressed by leadership, will be motivated toward production just because of their inherent human drive.

1.1.5.2. Workers will automatically push production to the upper limits when their needs are satisfied.

1.1.6. The Theory Z philosophy focuses the Japanese belief that each worker can perform autonomously (without supervision) because all workers are trusted. The basic concepts include:

1.1.6.1. Management’s style that focuses on the people.

1.1.6.2. Employees remain with the company for life.

1.1.6.3. Close relationship between work and social life.

1.1.6.4. Worker’s goal to produce economic success nurtures togetherness.

1.1.6.5. Participative approaches to decision making.

1.1.7. This theory works well in the fire service due to the work conditions firefighter face. They rely on trust and unity to complete their work successfully and they spend a great deal of time together.
1.1.8. One major problem encountered with Z management theory is resistance to change. Once a method has been established, it is difficult to change.

1.1.9. Real life concerns for production and for people can exist simultaneously. McGregor’s Theory X and Theory Y system fails except when directed toward specific individuals. Theory Z fails if the individuals under supervision do not exhibit the total unity and loyalty necessary-- the attitude.

1.2. Four styles of leadership:
1.2.1. **Bureaucratic Leadership**: is characterized by a low concern for production and low concern for people. This style of management generates just enough production to maintain the status quo. Typically, bureaucratic leadership exists in large organizations that are highly political and/or have extensive merit systems or labor contracts. Employees in this situation believe “I am willing to put up with the system because someday I will be in charge.” Group pressure discourages individuals who rock the boat by attempting to overachieve.

1.2.2. **Single-Issue Leadership**: is characterized by an overriding concern for either production or worker needs.

1.2.2.1. One form of single-issue leadership results from a high concern for production and a low concern for employee needs. This follows the X-Theory, which attempts to arrange conditions so the human element only minimally affects production.

1.2.2.2. The second form of single-issue leadership shows high concern for people and low concern for production. This follows the Y-Theory, which produces a comfortable, friendly atmosphere for workers.

1.2.3. **Middle-of-the-Road Leadership**: has a moderate concern for production and a moderate concern for people. This style may seem to have advantages over the first two styles of leadership; however, it may be less preferable. Although the middle-of-the-road style is a way for a supervisor to “get by,” it is certainly not the optimum. There are times when one or the other of the single-issue leadership styles may be better, but the middle-of-the-road only provide mediocrity.

REFERENCES

IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 95-98.
TEACHING OUTLINE

1.2.4. Dual-Issue Leadership: couples a high degree of concern for people with a high concern for production. This style offers workers the luxury of working for a leader who is concerned about their needs and willing to allow them to produce. Under this style of leadership, most of the workers’ needs, including self-realization, are attainable. Although there is a place on the fire ground for the single-issue style of leadership, the dual-issue style is the most productive.

1.2.5. These four basic styles of leadership are all used in various degrees by fire service company officers. No one style can be utilized in all situations. When and with whom to employ each style is something a company officer must learn.

1.3. Five types of power: Power is one person’s ability to influence another. For instance, a person may be given advice, offered a job, or threatened with a pay cut; however, a more subtle form of influence uses the person’s reaction to the leader to initiate control.

1.3.1. Reward Power: is based on one person’s perception of another’s ability to grant rewards. It increases in direct proportion to the amount of rewards a person sees another as controlling. Within an organization, giving someone a raise or bonus, promoting one to a job with more responsibility, or expanding one’s budget are all highly visible uses of reward power to influence a person to do a better job.

1.3.2. Coercive Power: is based on one person’s perception of another’s ability to punish. The strength of coercive power is proportional not necessarily to the ability to punish but the employee’s perception of the ability to punish. A reprimand for not submitting a report on time, scorn for mistakes, the denial of a raise or promotion - these are examples of coercive power used to force performance of job activities closer to the stated standards.

1.3.3. Identification Power: follows from one’s perception of the similarity between one and another, or the desire to be like another. Leaders who are respected and well liked derive their power from many sources, but their identification power should not be underplayed. Many people are willing to be influenced by people who they feel are friends and can be trusted at a personal level.

1.3.4. Expert Power: is based on one person’s perception that a leader’s expertise, knowledge, and approach can help the individual better adapt to a complex world.
1.3.5. **Legitimate Power**: stems from three sources: shared values, acceptance of a social structure, or the sanction of a legitimizing agent. In a fire company, an officer assigns work to firefighters. They do the work because they accept the management structure of the company, which makes it legitimate for the officer to assign work.

1.4. **Dimensions of leadership**:

1.4.1. Company officers hold positions with a relatively high ability to influence other firefighters. With this ability comes a responsibility to use power effectively and to know how to influence others.

1.4.2. There are five key dimensions that determine the quality of an individual’s leadership ability. An effective leader is one who can:

1.4.2.1. Make other people feel strong, and help them feel they can influence their future and their environment.

1.4.2.2. Build others’ trust in the leader.

1.4.2.3. Structure cooperative rather than competitive relationships.

1.4.2.4. Resolve conflicts by confronting issues together rather than by avoiding or forcing a particular solution.

1.4.2.5. Stimulate and promote goal-oriented thinking and behavior.

1.5. **Cooperation to achieve common goals**:

1.5.1. An effective leader structures the relationship among firefighters so that they cooperate to achieve the shared goals of the company and cooperate with other companies to achieve the fire department’s goal. In competition, one party usually wins and one loses. But even winners lose if they lose the trust or respect of their competitors. An effective officer will have firefighters work with each other to accomplish the department’s objectives rather than against each other to accomplish their own objectives. People working together are more able to accomplish their personal goals than when operating alone.

1.5.2. An officer who creates competition among firefighters to build incentive runs a high risk. By structuring the situation so one person wins and other lose, one firefighter’s incentive to work has increased slightly, but it might slacken by the time the victory is won and the others have lost incentive. The results may represent an aggregate loss of incentive.
TEACHING OUTLINE

1.5.3. The officer’s basic influence is based in part on legitimate power in the organization. If one tends to structure competitive relationships within the department, this legitimate influence tends to depend upon rewards and punishment. On the other hand, if the officer structures cooperative relationships, the subordinates will depend less on the rewards of cooperation, and the officer can establish influence on a more effective combination of powers -- legitimate power and expert power.

2. **VERBAL ORDERS OR COMMANDS USED BY A FIRE OFFICER:**

2.1. **Orders and Directives:** Orders and directives based upon the authority delegated to the officer to direct the administration of a policy, procedure, or method. However, directives are not orders. When a company officer directs a firefighter to polish his or her shoes according to department policy, it is an order. Written orders may be issued as bulletins from top management or from chief officer to company officer.

2.1.1. **During an emergency operation:**

2.1.1.1. On the fireground there is the ever-present danger of injury or death. This danger places extreme pressure on fireground officers, and alters the perspective of orders and directives. On the fireground, the officer issues many instructions, directives, and requests. However, because of the seriousness of the situation, all of these communications are generally considered orders. To avoid confusion, some departments choose to differentiate between regular orders and fireground orders.

2.1.1.2. Giving orders on the fireground is an important supervisory duty for the fire officer. If an order is understood and carried out, the work gets done.

2.1.1.3. A command officer may be understandably apprehensive about giving orders on the fireground. Nonetheless, it is important that the officer control anxiety, uneasiness, or excitement while giving orders. Orders must be issued calmly and must be clear, concise, and complete.

REFERENCES

- IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 41-44.
- IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 49-51.
TEACHING OUTLINE

2.1.4. Direct orders, for example, “Joe, ventilate the roof,” are often used in fire and emergency situations to deploy personnel and some times en route conditions. A direct order can be made more explicit by adding extra information such as who is to carry out the task and why, how, when and where it must be done. The company officer must judge how specific to make the order by considering the urgency of the task and the capabilities of the individual given the directive. Giving too much information may not only be a waste of time, but is also an insult to a seasoned firefighter. If it is necessary to be that explicit, the firefighter is being ordered to perform a task beyond his or her capability. The firefighter might suffer an injury or pose a hazard to other firefighters. Select and order personnel wisely.

2.1.2. While working in the station:

2.1.2.1. The company officer may issue orders involving the operation of the station, for example, by writing them on a chalkboard or posting them on a bulletin board. Formal communication of an order in writing is often used to follow up a verbal order. This repetition of an order assures understanding.

2.1.2.2. Directives are not based upon the administrative policy, procedure, or method, but are essential to implementing these formal guidelines. A company officer telling Jones to help wash the truck has given Jones a directive. Jones understands he must wash the truck because of the officer’s authority to supervise the company. The officer and Jones realize that Jones was not given an order. Should Jones fail to comply it would lead to disciplinary action because of insubordination, not for failing to comply with any departmental policy of washing the truck. However, if Jones were ordered to get a haircut and did not, Jones would be subject to discipline for breach of a departmental policy in addition to insubordination.

2.1.2.3. A request is a milder way of giving a verbal order or directive but has almost the same effect as a direct order. For example, “Williams, would you please help Mike wash the rig?” is a request that serves as a directive. Requests are appropriate at the fire station but not, as a rule, at fires or emergencies.

REFERENCES

IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 46-49.
TEACHING OUTLINE

2.1.3. During a training session:

2.1.3.1. Besides getting things accomplished, orders aid in training and developing cooperation. Properly given orders result in the need for less supervision in future as employees learn what is expected of them.

3. SYMPTOMS OF MEMBER-RELATED PROBLEMS

3.1. Stress - definition: Stress is simply an adjustment to change. The change can be good or it can be bad. In psychology, good stress is called eustress and bad stress is called distress. Because distress is considered harmful, we will only deal with this form of stress.

3.2. Types of stress:

3.2.1. Acute Stress is short-term stress. Current theory indicates that most forms of acute stress do not cause permanent damage.

3.2.2. Chronic Stress is of long duration. Current theory indicates that most forms of chronic stress can lead to permanent damage.

Note: To understand why chronic stress affects our health, Dr. Selye broke the physiological response of a stressor into three distinct stages:

3.2.2.1. Alarm reaction stage is the initial reaction to the stressor. The body responds with a massive release of hormones, including adrenaline. During this stage blood volume decreases.

3.2.2.2. The resistance stage has also been called the fight/flight response. In this stage, the body prepares to defend itself or remove itself from the presence of the stressor. During this stage, the body may seem to be adapting quite nicely; however, energy needed to continue is being depleted. When the adaptational energy is gone, the body passes to the third and final stage.

3.2.2.3. The final stage is called the exhaustion stage. This is the stage where permanent damage to the system occurs. This damage may be small or large. It should be noted that if the stressor is not removed during this stage death will result.

3.2.3. There are three other types of stresses we should address:

3.2.3.1. Physical stress: which is described as an exertion.

3.2.3.2. Environmental stress: which is described as the weather or location you’re in.

REFERENCES

IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 240-251.

IFSTA, Fire Department Occupational Safety, pg. 61-67.
TEACHING OUTLINE

3.2.3.3. Psychological stress: is harder to describe but may be associated with the following

3.2.3.3.1. The sound of the alarm.
3.2.3.3.2. Abrupt interruption of meals and sleep.
3.2.3.3.3. The unknown of responding to an alarm.
3.2.3.3.4. The unknown dangers while at a scene.

3.2.4. All of these stressors have profound and damaging effects on the body, especially on the cardiovascular system.

3.3. Indications of stress:

3.3.1. The company officer has the responsibility of attempting to recognize when a firefighter may be under stress. Some of the more noticeable signs that indicate that stress may be building to dangerous levels are:

3.3.1.1. General irritability.
3.3.1.2. Emotional instability.
3.3.1.3. Inability to concentrate.
3.3.1.4. Fatigue.
3.3.1.5. Insomnia and restless sleep
3.3.1.6. Loss of appetite.
3.3.1.7. Alcohol and drug use.

3.3.2. It is imperative to respond to any of these signs. In some cases, individuals may not realize they are showing signs of stress, and just pointing out their behavior may help identify a need for assistance.

3.4. Affects of stress:

3.4.1. There are many affects of stress. The affects can be both at the scene of an emergency and after the incident has happened. These are a few examples:

3.4.1.1. At the scene
3.4.1.1.1. Denial of the situation. (This can’t be happening).
3.4.1.1.2. Anger.
3.4.1.1.3. Doubts of performance ability
3.4.1.1.4. Anxiety.
3.4.1.1.5. Frustration.
3.4.1.1.6. A sense of hopelessness.
3.4.1.2. | After the incident |
---|---|
3.4.1.2.1. | Feeling of guilt. |
3.4.1.2.2. | Irritability. |
3.4.1.2.3. | Drug or alcohol abuse. |
3.4.1.2.4. | Sleep disturbances. |
3.4.1.2.5. | Flashbacks of the incident. |
3.4.1.2.6. | Decreased appetite. |

3.5. **Substance abuse:**

3.5.1. Both alcohol and drug abuse are real problems in the fire service. High levels of stress, both on and off the job, may lead a person to alcohol or drugs as an escape. Work performance of an individual under the influence will be unpredictable. This person becomes unreliable and will eventually be unable to function as a firefighter.

3.5.2. Because of the investment made in training a firefighter, fire departments often cannot afford to fire an individual who is found to be a substance abuser. The firefighter should be relieved of duty while seeking professional assistance with the problem. Most medical insurance policies will pay for this type of treatment. The fire department will usually find that the investment of helping the firefighter will be well worth it.

3.5.3. It is less expensive to help a substance abuser overcome a habit than to fire the individual and have to hire and train someone new. The fire department will get a return on its investment when it can retain a trained and seasoned firefighter who is drug and alcohol free.

4. **RIGHTS OF MANAGEMENT AND LABOR:**

4.1. **Unions:**

4.1.1. The International Association of Fire Fighters, which claims to represent about 95 percent of the organized firefighters in the United States and Canada, says its membership represents 80 percent of all full-time career firefighters.

4.1.2. Most of the laws in this country finally regulate the organization of public employees to organize and bargain collectively, but deny them the right to strike.
4.1.3. There are a number of reasons why public safety employees organized unions and why they join them. Unionization has grown among public safety employees in part as public safety departments have grown. As the departments got larger, employees began to feel more isolated from management and felt the need for more formalized employee relations. Often they are concerned about their jobs. They might worry that there are not adequate safeguards to keep them from getting fired or laid off. They might have complaints that management refuses to listen to or resolve.

4.1.4. Unions are used to fine tune communications between workers and management to help settle any problems or concerns either party may have.

4.2. Contract negotiations:

4.2.1. One of the ways fire chiefs get involved with firefighters’ unions is through contract negotiations. These proceed in the public sector much as they do in the private, but there are a number of factors that make the situation in the public sector considerably different.

4.2.2. It is noted that public sector departments are often the only source of the service they offer in a community. In other words, public sector departments often operate a monopoly. Citizens would be hard pressed to find another way to fight fires if the fire department were on strike.

4.2.3. Another difference is that public sector collective bargaining is more likely to involve the courts. In fact increasing court involvement is one of the trends in public sector collective bargaining, and more and more the courts seem to be siding with management in labor disputes. Finally, the law governing collective bargaining in the public sector is not as uniform as laws in the private sector.

4.2.4. In collective bargaining process, management and union teams have to negotiate an agreement that union members the have to approve. In the public sector the process does not end there. The agreement also has to be ratified by the city council, the state legislature, or whatever body holds ultimate responsibility to the public.
TEACHING OUTLINE

4.3. **Negotiations process:**

4.3.1. The NFPA says that the agreement negotiators work on usually covers five areas:

4.3.1.1. Routine clauses, which include constitutional items such as the preamble and purpose of the agreement; terms covered by the agreement; reopening conditions; and amendments.

4.3.1.2. Clauses affecting union security. These usually describe the bargaining unit the agreement covers and list the steps by which a union is recognized as an employee representative.

4.3.1.3. Clauses describing the rights and prerogatives of management, which recognize that management has the right to decide matters the agreement does not cover.

4.3.1.4. Sections that describe how the department will handle employee grievances.

4.3.1.5. Sections that list the conditions of employment, describing such areas as wages, salaries and fringe benefits; hours, holidays, vacations and leaves; apprenticeships and training; hiring and firing; safety; and strikes and lockouts.

4.3.2. In negotiations, management and labor are usually represented by teams. The IAAF suggests that the management team have a high-ranking personnel officer, a city financial expert or budget analyst, and a lawyer. The fire chief or another upper-level fire department official should be on the city team, available for consultation and advice. All other top-level city officials, such as the mayor and city manager, should be available.

4.4. ** Strikes:**

4.4.1. The strike is a last resort the union uses when it sees no other way around an impasse or wants to pressure management to grant concessions. Strikes by public employees are usually against the law. Even without the statutory ban, strikes are still prohibited by common law, which looks upon them as examples of anarchy and conspiracy against the government.

4.4.2. If the department cannot avoid a strike, management should have a strike contingency plan ready to put into operation. Some say the plan should have two basic functions: to let higher administrators and supervisory personnel know what their strike-related activities will be and to make sure the department can continue to provide emergency service.
TEACHING OUTLINE

4.4.3. The plan should be drawn up in advance and updated annually. This lets the department stake out its position and tells the public and department employees that the department is ready to operate as normally as possible should firefighters go on strike.

4.5. Public relations:

4.5.1. A good public image is obviously helpful to a fire department at budget time, but image making should not be the primary goal of a departmental public relations campaign. Of more importance is getting information to the public that can save lives and property and help the fire department do its job. The National Fire Protection Association lists several things that should be included in a department’s PR strategy:

4.5.1.1. Make public relations an ongoing project that provides a continuing supply of information. Getting the public to expect a steady stream of information from its fire department makes citizens more receptive to the messages.

4.5.1.2. Time public relations efforts to specific seasons of the year and events. For example, many fire departments prepare promotional and information campaigns to reach their peak just before the Fourth of July or during Fire Prevention Week.

4.5.1.3. Use news accounts of fire service activity as a peg to provide the public with more fire protection advice.

4.5.2. Many departments have developed creative ways of getting their messages to the public. More and more departments are beginning to see the potential for public education in public service channels on cable television, school presentations, public billboards, and mailings.

5. ADMINISTRATIVE ACTIONS

5.1. Disciplinary actions:

5.1.1. If the criteria evaluation determines that the standard is not being upheld, the next step is to discipline the firefighter who is performing unsatisfactorily. If discipline is used, progressive steps should be used. The progressive system of discipline is as follows:

5.1.1.1. Step 1: Oral reprimand.
5.1.1.2. Step 2: Written reprimand.
5.1.1.3. Step 3: Transfer.
5.1.1.4. Step 4: Suspension.

REFERENCES

IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, Ch 8
Effective Supervisory Practices, Ch 13 & 14
TEACHING OUTLINE

5.1.1.5. Step 5: Demotion.

5.1.1.6. Step 6: Termination.

5.1.2. Oral reprimands are tools that will let firefighters know that their behavior is still unsatisfactory. Oral reprimands should be given by the evaluator, usually the company officer. They should be given in a private meeting. The firefighter should be told that if the behavior continues, a written reprimand will be given.

5.1.3. Written reprimands are basically written reports that indicate that a firefighter’s unsatisfactory behavior has continued to go unchanged.

5.1.4. The reprimand should also be issued by the company officer. The firefighter should sign the reprimand indicating that he or she is aware of the continuing problem.

5.1.5. The next step in progressive discipline is a transfer to a new assignment. Company officers should realize that oral and written reprimands might result in a “transfer request” from the firefighter.

5.1.6. Whatever the case for the transfer, officers who receive transferred firefighters must review the personnel file of the firefighter in order to know what step to take next if the problem continues.

5.1.7. Suspension procedures will usually be defined in department procedures and/or the union contract. When suspension is being considered, those documents must be consulted to determine the specific requirements for suspension. Suspension is punitive, and not an alternative to consider lightly.

5.1.8. If the firefighter returns to the original undesired behavior after suspension, it should be obvious that some other method of behavior modification is necessary.

5.1.9. Although tradition in the fire service runs contrary to demotion, it has become a tool in dealing with some behavior problems. Promotion, prestige, and position have been based for years on seniority. It was impossible to demote someone because the seniority system would be upset. Fortunately, this type of promotional system is disappearing in the modern fire service, and demotion is becoming a more popular management choice.

5.1.10. If possible, the demotion should be handled discreetly and positively. The less an issue is made of the demotion, the easier it will be for the individual to adjust.
5.1.11. Termination is used when all else has failed to bring the individual into accord with the requirements of the organization. It is the least desirable action in terms of department cost effectiveness.

5.1.12. Every effort should be made to salvage the individual while making it clear that certain behavior will result in termination.

5.1.13. **Documentation:** All phases of discipline indicate a serious breach or impasse between the department and the individual. Most of these actions can be expected to result in a union grievance being filed. The company officer must keep accurate and detailed records.

5.2. **Member benefits:** (****unsure what they want here****)

5.3. **Commendations:**

5.3.1. The fire service is one of the most hazardous occupations in North America. Not every task can or will be performed safely because firefighters cannot control their work environment. However, firefighters can take the responsibility to accept risks only when the situation warrants it. Unfortunately, there are no set rules, formulas, or scales to determine acceptable risk for every incident. For example, an act at one fire that earns a firefighter a commendation for heroism may, at a different fire, cause a suspension for recklessness or worse, the firefighter’s life. The decision to discipline is the company officer’s prerogative. Each fire has different criteria and interpretations.

5.4. **Grievances:**

5.4.1. A formal grievance is a written expression of an employee’s dissatisfaction with some part of the job or working relations with other on the job that he or she cannot control. Usually, the basis for a formal grievance is clearly stated in the local government’s personnel policies, and the grievance is about a local government policy, rules, regulation, or the like.

5.4.2. In some cases grievances voiced on the job may be reactions to something that is happening in the employee’s private life. But the kind of grievance you will often deal with are those such as work assignments, working conditions, relations with the supervisor, and personal problems.

5.4.3. Some of the signs of a grievance even before it is formally filed may include:

5.4.3.1. Lack of enthusiasm or cheerfulness.
5.4.3.2. Excessive griping about the local government, the department, or the work group.
5.4.3.3. Lack of interest in the work.
5.4.3.4. Too many errors.
5.4.3.5. Reluctance to assume responsibility.
5.4.3.6. Decline in output.
5.4.3.7. Excessive short-term sickness.
5.4.4. Once an employee presents you with a grievance, in person or in writing, and you have decided that you are the proper person to hear it, you must decide what to do about it. No matter what the formal procedure is in your organization, you can probably get best results by following these suggestions.

5.4.4.1. Determine responsibility for trying to settle the grievance.
5.4.4.2. Listen attentively as the grievance is presented.
5.4.4.3. Question the employee to gather a full set of facts.
5.4.4.4. Get additional facts and verify statements made by the employee.
5.4.4.5. Keep adequate records to show that the grievance has been investigated thoroughly.
5.4.4.6. Analyze your alternatives.
5.4.4.7. Decide who has the authority to act.
5.4.4.8. Make your decision promptly.
5.4.4.9. Explain your decision to the employee.
5.4.4.10. Follow up your decision.

6. PLANNING, ASSIGNING, COORDINATING ACTIVITIES, AND ESTABLISHING PRIORITIES:

6.1. Planning:

6.1.1. Planning is the first step in any type of management. It is impossible for a manager to tell someone what to do if the manager has not already made that decision. The manager must have a plan. There are three types of management planning: long range, medium range, and short term.

6.1.2. Long-range plans typically extend several years and sometimes cover as long as 20 years. Because of the role the company officer plays within the department, the company officer typically does not become involved in long-term planning. Fire department administrators generally complete this type of planning.
TEACHING OUTLINE

6.1.3. Medium-range plans cover from one to five years. The company officer is generally involved in providing information for medium-range planning, usually when fire department administrators ask company officers to evaluate the capabilities of their companies. However medium-range planning is still performed at higher levels than that of the company officer.

6.1.4. The company officer is most likely involved in short-term planning, which typically deals specifically with assigning personnel to attain immediate goals or meet day-to-day demands. Short-term plans, which in some cases may cover up to a year, allocate resources to achieve or maintain elements of medium or long-range plans.

6.1.5. Achieving short-term goals implies three things:

6.1.5.1. The company officer must know the medium- and long-range goals of the department.

6.1.5.2. The company officer must know the capabilities of the members of the company.

6.1.5.3. The company officer must set goals and/or develop a plan for the company.

6.1.6. The company officer must also remember to include proper maintenance of facilities and equipment in company planning. Even though space is limited by building walls and property lines, available space must be analyzed to determine its best possible use.

6.1.7. Fire department equipment represents a substantial investment. Company officers must see that it is used to the department’s best advantage. Officers must first appraise the equipment and determine if better or different equipment is needed. They should observe the equipment in use and ask firefighters if the equipment serves their purpose well. Because money for new equipment is not always available, equipment must be maintained and replaced when obsolete or beyond repair. By making higher management aware of equipment needs, company officers demonstrate they are on top of their jobs even though all requests may not be approved.

6.2. Organizing:

6.2.1. After the plan is developed, the next step in the management cycle is organization, which are allocation specific resources to meet the needs of the plan. There are four basic resources available to the company officer: human resources, physical facilities, training, and time.
6.2.2. Human resources include the skills and capabilities of the members of the company and of persons working in other agencies providing services to the company officer. These agencies include other divisions of the fire department, such as fire prevention, training, and personnel services; other governmental agencies such as city administration, federal and state agencies, schools, and colleges; and organizations such as the firefighters’ unions and service organizations.

6.2.3. The company officer should consider these resources during organization to increase the effects of company efforts on and off the fireground. Begin by recognizing and developing the skills and capabilities of company members, and add to these from outside sources.

6.2.4. Physical facilities include buildings, equipment, and supplies that the officer must match with details of the plan. The difference between planning and organizing resources is illustrated in the following example. In planning a new company inspection program, the company officer decided to include a classroom lecture by someone from fire prevention. During the organization stage, the company officer asked a specific person, Dick Green from fire prevention, to speak and reserved classroom A-2 at the Training academy from 2:30 p.m. until 3:50 p.m. on May 19.

6.2.5. When organizing resources to increase the effects of the plan, the officer must remember that communities also offer many physical facilities for fire company use. The company officer should compile a list of all the services available from the community.

6.2.6. Training is an important resource that can be used to enhance other resources. The company officer is the primary trainer of company members, but other training resources are available--the fire department training division, local schools and colleges, and state and federal fire training programs. During organization, the company officer must attempt to match the right training content with the demands of the plan to increase the plan’s potential.
TEACHING OUTLINE

6.2.7. The company officer’s time is a resource that must be carefully planned. Some officers are always complaining about not having enough time while others seem to keep on top of things. All company officers have the same amount of time available -- 24 hours a day. What matters is using time productively. When there are more tasks than time allows, the company officer must set priorities and organize tasks so that as much gets done as possible. When appropriate, the company officer may need to delegate authority to others to get the job done.

6.3. Implementing:

6.3.1. Once the plan is established and the resources organized, the next management step is implementing the plan, which often is easier said than done. Implementation begins by telling the firefighters about the plan, including:

6.3.1.1. The objective.
6.3.1.2. The action that is going to be taken.
6.3.1.3. The personnel involved.
6.3.1.4. The task or job to be done
6.3.1.5. The equipment that is to be used.
6.3.1.6. The time available.

6.3.2. Then the firefighters should be set to work, and the company officer begins phase two of implementation. During the work, any shortcomings in the officer’s plan will become obvious. As the company officer recognizes mistakes in the plan, they must be corrected. The officer must also make sure the members of the company are following the plan. The company officer’s main tasks during phase two of implementation are directing and controlling.

6.3.3. Directing or leading is the most important of the company officer’s leadership functions. It involves supervising firefighters as they fight fires or perform other tasks.

6.3.4. The first officer to arrive at a fire assumes the fire chief’s or district chief’s authority and directs the operation until a superior officer arrives. All fire officers should know the pre-incident plans and standard operating procedures, how to size up the situation, and adapt the pre-incident plan to the situation. Non-fire fighting responsibilities may also be delegated to the company officer. Changing command from company officer to superior is not so critical during nonemergency operations because circumstances do not change as quickly.
**TEACHING OUTLINE**

6.3.5. While directing firefighters, the company officer acts as a manager, an instructor, and a coordinator, often at the same time. Mature judgement and ability to make quick decisions are important when directing in dangerous situations.

6.3.6. When directing a fire company in public, the company officer must make sure the crew projects a good image. Public opinion is critical and is usually based on the way firefighters conduct themselves.

6.3.7. Remember that controlling involves seeing that organizational objectives are met as planned and taking corrective action if necessary.

6.3.8. The company officer, as a first-line supervisor, controls in many instances by observing. The company officer works directly with firefighters more hours per day than first-line supervisors in most other occupations; therefore, the officer is in a position to recognize problems in meeting department objectives before higher management does. Controlling also requires an officer to keep superiors informed, even when things are not going well. The officer must resist the temptation to hold back bad news from higher management.

6.4. **Evaluating:**

6.4.1. The last phase of management cycle is evaluation the operation, which should be done soon after the operation ends. Often the company officer will just review the operation and make mental notes. At other times, the whole company should be assembled and the operation discussed. The major question to address is, “what can we change to improve our operation?”

6.4.2. Evaluation should no be used to lay blame. When it is, it will fail for two basic reasons:

6.4.2.1. Individual comments will be defensive instead of constructive.

6.4.2.2. Operations are a series of decisions, and assessing blame focuses only on the poor decisions instead of evaluating both the good and bad decisions.

6.4.2.3. The facts or suggestions that come out of evaluation should be incorporated into the planning phase of the management cycle.

**REFERENCES**
OBJECTIVE: To allow the fire officer information pertaining to the Community awareness/Public Relation process, controls, and the impact of their leadership on the unit.

TEACHING OUTLINE

1. FACTORS RELATIVE TO THE FIRE PROBLEM IN THE LOCAL COMMUNITY:

1.1. Within the Fire Department:

1.1.1. Group dynamics – elements: The group formation of a fire company is not significantly different from the formation of any other formal or informal group. Every group, including the fire company, tends to meet the five essential elements of a group. The members must:

1.1.1.1. Have a common binding interest: Every person has the common interest of being human, but few groups are formed on this basis. The interest that holds a group together must be more binding. This means that the members feel that the common interest is important enough to their own needs to hold membership in the group.

1.1.1.1. Interests of individuals change and their participation in a group may change. In life, certain groups have interests that are binding to the individual only for a given period of time. For instance, Tom is a firefighter and is part of Engine Number 6. The common interest of fighting fires in District 6 binds that group together. For this reason, the company officer must view interest on the part of firefighters as transitory. That is, the company officer must strive to maintain the firefighters’ interests in the company if the interest begins to lessen.
TEACHING OUTLINE

1.1.1.2. Have a vital group image: The members of the group must share a vital group image, that is, the members of the group must recognize the existence of their group and take pride in it. This pride will result in high morale.

1.1.1.3. Have a sense of continuity: The sense of continuity of a group is very important. If the members of the group do not perceive that continued existence of the group is probable, their commitment to the group is very shallow. By disturbing the members’ sense of continuity, the group can be fragmented, and the members will begin to act more individually.

1.1.1.3.1. A change in leadership is one way to disrupt the sense of continuity, but many actions can result in a similar disruption. Other common actions are shift changes, policy changes, labor generated conflicts, serious injury or death within the group, or any other traumatic occurrence.

1.1.1.4. Have a shared set of moral values: Moral values have developed as part of the organizational structure of all common groups. They are usually a composite of individual morality. Philosophies of individuals surface as various subjects are approached on a day-to-day basis in normal interaction within the group structure. The moral philosophy of a group usually modified by a change in the group membership.

1.1.1.4.1. Group values are also affected by the traditional values of the organization. The moral philosophy of the organization will normally be reflected in the attitudes and morality of groups within the organization.

1.1.1.4.2. Recognition of variations in values through different age groups is an important step in managing people. The company officer must realize that differences do exist and make provisions for those differences.
1.1.1.5. Recognize different roles within the group:
Within each group, the members either formally or informally select different individuals to act in different roles. With formal groups, the leader is either assigned or elected. With informal groups, the leader is acknowledged through social recognition. Obviously, the official leader of the fire company is not necessarily the informal leader. It is desirable when the company officer is the leader in both the formal and informal groups, but this is not always the case. The company officer must recognize this and learn to deal within the group in both roles.

1.1.2. Socioeconomic backgrounds: Transactional analysis is a method of analyzing human behavior. Socioeconomic factors, such as wealth, education, and occupation, may also have an influence of individuals within a group. Discrimination is a result of socioeconomic factors. With additional minorities entering the fire service, officers must ensure that existing discrimination is minimized; furthermore, it is the responsibility of company officers, as leaders, to set the example of nondiscriminatory attitude and totally eliminate discrimination of the personnel under their command. The result of this disposition is a fire company that operates smoothly and efficiently. The International Fire Service Training Association firmly believes that all human beings are equal, and that people can treat each other equally and with respect.

1.2. Within the community:

1.2.1. Increased population:

1.2.1.1. Just about 135 years ago, in 1850, there were approximately a billion people on the earth. Today, it is estimated that there are more than 4.5 billion. By the turn of the century, there probably will be about 6.5 billion, and less than a hundred years from now, some 12 billion.

1.2.1.2. What does this have to do with you, the supervisor? It means that you will have to deal with some of the problems that grow out of greater crowding on and off the job. Some of you who supervise in areas of continued population growth probably will be working in larger departments and larger local governments.

1.2.2. Economic changes:
1.2.2.1. In 1950, 65 percent of U.S. workers were employed as laborers in industry. Today, that percentage has dropped to about 30 percent as our economy has undergone a restructuring. Many experts say that our nation is in a major transition -- from a manufacturing society that produces automobiles, steel, appliances, textiles, clothing, and shoes to an “information society,” manufacturing and servicing computers, designing computer software, and developing and operation chains of financial services “supermarkets.” More than half of American workers today are employed in creating, processing, and transmitting information.

1.2.3. Population shifts:

1.2.3.1. In addition to the shifts of population from farms, rural areas, and central cities to suburban areas, yet another major shifting of our population is under way. This shift is associated with the major restructuring of our national economy. Manufacturing plants must be located near adequate supplies of labor, water, and raw materials such as coal, and near transportation centers. Information companies can locate almost anywhere, and what they tend to look for in deciding where to locate is the quality of life in a community -- climate, education systems, cultural attractiveness, availability of recreational areas. Reflecting these factors, about 90 percent of growth in our country -- population and economic -- is occurring in the Southwest and in Florida.

1.2.4. Age factors:

1.2.4.1. Before the 1930's families in this country often had four or more children. But during the Great Depression of the 1930s families could not afford many children. Also, when families moved from farms to cities they did not need as many children. On a farm, children were extra pairs of hands; in the city, they were extra mouths to feed.

1.2.5. Attitudes:

1.2.5.1. For many years most Americans believed in and lived by what is called the Protestant ethic. This is a set of values and beliefs that emphasizes hard work, standing on your own feet, thrift, saving for a rainy day, knowing your place, and obeying anyone who is older or has higher rank. Rest, vacations, and leisure are earned -- they are the rewards of hard work.
1.2.5.2. Today many Americans -- especially many of those under thirty-five -- live by a different set of values. It is sometimes called the “psychology of entitlement” because its followers believe that people are entitled to certain basic necessities, such as a decent job and dignified retirement, decent housing, medical care, a clean environment, and safe consumer products.

1.2.5.3. Yesterdays employees lived to work, where as many workers today are not preoccupied with financial security. Younger employees are more likely to work to live.

2. **HANDLING CITIZEN COMPLAINTS AND INQUIRIES:**

2.1. Answering questions and dealing with complaints from homeowners, business operators, public officials, and other citizens is part of a day’s work. Questions and complaints usually come in three forms: in person, on the phone, or through the mail. All require prompt, courteous, and accurate replies.

2.2. Complaints are especially important because they are danger signals that something is wrong. If complaints are given prompt, careful attention, your city or county can improve its services as well as its public relations.

2.3. Your employees should know that complaints must be investigated and corrected promptly. Once the source of the problem has been found, the citizen should be told what will (or will not) be done and why. It is important to find out also whether the problem has been corrected and to ask the person who complained if there is anything else you and other employees can do to help straighten matters out.

2.4. Questions and complaints should be considered together because a question that is poorly handled will often lead to a complaint.

2.5. **Face to Face:**

2.5.1. The best way to handle either a question or complaint is face to face, especially if the problem is technical. It is easier because both you and the citizen can observe each other, listen to each other, ask questions to clarify other questions, and agree on the facts.

REFERENCES

Effective Supervisory Practices, pg 220-221
TEACHING OUTLINE

2.5.2. It is important not only to be pleasant and polite but also to be convincing. Could you look a citizen straight in the eye and say: “My name is Jessica Jones. I work for your city government, and I am here for the sole purpose of serving you.” Perhaps you would be embarrassed at this grand language, but you should not be embarrassed to put it this way: “My name is Jessica Jones, and it’s my job as an employee of this city to help you work this out.”

2.5.3. Whether it is a question or a complaint, help the person to find the information if you don’t have it. If necessary, refer the person to the right office or agency either in your government or elsewhere. If you do not know where to send the person for further information, help him or her by looking it up.

2.5.4. Give the person the benefit of the doubt. If your city or county is wrong, say so. Admission that your local government can be wrong helps to humanize that government in the eyes of the citizens who are served.

2.6. Telephone:

2.6.1. The telephone is a popular way to handle questions and complaints. It is quick, easy, and inexpensive. Think about how you may sound on the phone. You may think your phone voice is businesslike and efficient, but the person on the other end of the line may think it is brusque or cold. To make the best use of the telephone, the following guidelines should be observed.

2.6.1. Answer the phone promptly.
2.6.2. Identify yourself and your department.
2.6.3. Speak clearly, naturally, and distinctly.
2.6.4. Keep a pencil and paper next to the phone to note important information and messages.
2.6.5. If the caller is upset, remain calm, listen carefully, and do not argue. Get the facts.
2.6.6. If a call must be transferred, relay all pertinent information to the person to whom the call is transferred, so that the caller does not have to repeat the question or complaint from the beginning.
2.6.7. Do not keep the caller waiting while you are looking up the information.
2.6.8. Be careful with the “hold” button! If you put someone on hold, make it short -- twenty to thirty seconds at the most.
TEACHING OUTLINE

2.6.9. Deliver all phone messages promptly to prevent delays in returning calls or embarrassment to the person for whom the call was intended.

2.6.10. End a telephone call as courteously as it began; a good final impression is important.

2.7. Written correspondence:

2.7.1. Writing is difficult for most people. And in many governments, it is overdone. Therefore, before you begin to write a letter, ask yourself whether a phone call or a face-to-face conversation would get the job done better and easier. If you decide that a letter is necessary, give some thought to its form and content. You might ask yourself what the purpose of the letter is. What do you expect the letter to achieve? Making a simple outline first can help you write a good letter. Make clear in your conclusion what you expect the receiver of the letter to do. Just as in speaking, the language in the letter should be simple, clear, and direct. After you have drafted the letter, you may want to read it again to see whether a call or a face-to-face conversation might be better after all.

2.7.2. No matter how polite you are, no matter how carefully you speak and listen, no matter how conscientiously you put information together, the time inevitably comes when you have to say “no.” Most of us would rather say yes, but this is not always possible. It is, therefore, important to learn to say no in a way that people understand and accept.

2.7.3. When you have to say no, you should break the news as gently and courteously as possible. At the same time you must make it clear that you are saying “no.” Do not use evasive or ambiguous words that might lead the person to think that you have said “maybe.” If it is possible to refer the person somewhere else for more information or help, by all means do so, and avoid at all costs the attitude and demeanor of a judge pronouncing sentence on a culprit.
OBJECTIVE: To allow the fire officer information pertaining to the Organizational Structure of the fire service.

TEACHING OUTLINE

1. **LINES OF AUTHORITY, DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES, LINE AND STAFF FUNCTIONS:**

   Line and staff are terms that refer to a concept of traditional origin. This concept separates a fire department into two distinct sections: line, those who fight fire; and staff, those who support the emergency operations.

1.1. **Line Functions:**

   1.1.1. Authority flows directly from the top in this military type of organization. People get their orders from those above them through a chain of command. Everyone at the same level of authority does approximately the same kind of work and has about the same amount of responsibility.

   1.1.2. Because this organization plan is simple and direct small police and fire departments often use it. The person at the top has complete authority, and everyone else’s authority and responsibility is spelled out clearly. A police sergeant has more authority and responsibility than a corporal and less than a lieutenant, for example. All lines of responsibility are clear-cut; therefore, discipline is relatively easy to maintain, there is little confusion about who does what, and orders can be carried out quickly.

REFERENCES


Hazardous Materials: Managing the Incident, 1988, Peake Productions, Inc, Annapolis, Maryland


TEACHING OUTLINE

1.1.3. But there are disadvantages. While the top person has the benefit of complete authority, this can be a tremendous burden because it means being an expert in all phases of the work -- from purchasing to Personnel. Also, communication between people and between departments is often difficult in line organizations because everyone is expected to go through formal channels.

1.2. Staff Functions:

1.2.1. To achieve the goal of “the protection of life and property”, many departments are freeing firefighters for fire suppression activities by placing civilians in non-fire fighting positions such as inspection, public education, and fire alarm dispatching.

1.2.2. The traditional staff function has the staff personnel in a separate division providing advice to top management. This has proven to be an effective method for making decisions and implementing them through the fire suppression chain of command.

1.3. Supervisors Place in the Organization

1.3.1. Oversees the individual employee’s work – Point of contact between management and employees

1.3.2. Member of management team and work team – Often feel conflicting pressures when trying to identify with both

1.3.3. Importance to management and work team

1.3.3.1. Meets face to face with employees

1.3.3.2. Is the coach of the work team. Helps workers become more skilled and productive and help the team become close knit, highly effective and an efficient part of the department.

1.3.4. They are the models for the employees

2. DUTIES AND COMMAND RESPONSIBILITIES OF FIRE GROUND OFFICERS:

2.1. Single unit response:

2.2. Multi unit response:

2.2.1. First arriving unit or officer should initially assume command

2.2.2.

2.3. Major incident involving multiple units responding at various times:

2.3.1. The Incident Command System – permits different organizations to work safely and effectively together. predicated on several management concepts

REFERENCES

Hazardous Materials; Managing the Incident, Ch 3

IFSTA, Incident Command System, pg 3-49

NFPA 1201: Developing Fire Protection Services for the Public, Ch 5
### TEACHING OUTLINE

2.3.1.1. **Span of control:**

2.3.1.1.1. Optimum of 5 firefighters, good range is 3-7

2.3.1.1.2. Limit of personnel and information to one person can effectively manage.

2.3.1.2. **Division of labor:** Work is assigned based on the functions to be performed, equipment available, and the training and capabilities of those performing the tasks.

2.3.1.3. **Information is centralized for decision making**
- Each person reports to only one supervisor

2.3.1.4. **Functional Chain of Command** – Ultimate responsibility rests with the incident commander

2.4. **Command Incident Management system**

2.4.1. **Single Command**

2.4.1.1. Occurs when there is no overlap of jurisdictional boundaries

2.4.1.2. A single incident commander will be designated and has full responsibility for the incident.

2.4.2. **Unified Command**

2.4.2.1. Incident within single jurisdiction but more than one department or agency shares management responsibility due to the nature of the incident

2.4.2.2. Example: Fire, Police, Medics have immediate but diverse objectives

2.4.2.3. Can also be an incident that is multi jurisdictional in nature

2.4.2.3.1. The individual is designated by the jurisdiction must jointly determine objectives, strategy and priorities

2.4.2.3.2. Example: Wildland fire crossing jurisdictional boundaries

2.4.3. **Command Staff and functional units**

2.4.3.1. **Command Staff**

2.4.3.1.1. Information Officer

2.4.3.1.2. Safety Officer

2.4.3.1.3. Liaison Officer

### REFERENCES

IFSTA, *Incident Command System*, pg 16
TEACHING OUTLINE

2.4.3.2. Functional Units
2.4.3.2.1. Command
2.4.3.2.2. Operations
2.4.3.2.3. Planning
2.4.3.2.4. Logistics
2.4.3.2.5. Finance

3. IMPLEMENTING NEW DEPARTMENTAL PERSONNEL POLICY:

3.1. Impact on the officer:

3.1.1. The company officer’s duty in regard to policies is to understand and discreetly apply them on the job.
3.1.2. Correct interpretation of department policy may require consultation (through proper chain of command) with higher management.
3.1.3. Often, instruction for fire officers in department policies and their interpretation is necessary.
3.1.4. Company officers must also teach policies to subordinates and new employees as part of their indoctrination.

3.2. Importance of accuracy, clarity, and impartiality:

3.2.1. Policies must be put in writing to make management’s intent clear.
3.2.2. Written policies give department members a reference point for decision making.
3.2.3. They form the department policy manual.
3.2.4. Written policies make for more uniform, consistent practices throughout the organization.

4. COMPANY OFFICER TREATMENT OF PERSONNEL UNDER SUPERVISION:

4.1. Problems of a new supervisor:

4.1.1. New responsibilities:
4.1.1.1. Most of us like the idea of advancing to supervisor. We like the prestige, the authority, the feeling of moving ahead, the recognition of our own good work, and of course the higher pay.
4.1.1.2. When you were a worker you may have seen your supervisor riding around in a government car while you were working in the rain, or talking on the phone in a private office while you were pounding a typewriter.

REFERENCES

IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg 46-47
Effective Supervisory Practices, Ch 1
4.1.3. It does not take long, though, to realize that it is not as easy as it looks. From the first day, you are faced with situations that require knowledge, skill, understanding, good judgment, and immediate action. Problems seldom arrive one at a time, and one wrong decision or careless remark can take weeks or months to straighten out. No wonder you sometimes long for the good old days when you did not have to worry about schedules or deadlines, or about workers who were absent or late.

4.1.4. Perhaps it will relieve you to know that the effective supervisors that you see today were themselves originally new and inexperienced. After a period of adjustment they came to enjoy their work and to find it satisfying to be effective supervisors.

4.1.2. Common mistakes

4.1.2.1. Before they reach that point, however, many new supervisors seem to make similar mistakes and to encounter similar problems. Perhaps reading about them here will help you avoid these mistakes.

4.1.2.2. When you were a worker instead of a supervisor, you had only your own work to think about. Now you are responsible for seeing that others do their work. It is important to remember that your job is now to supervise this work, not to do it yourself. But many new supervisors find it hard to shift from doing the work to supervising it.

4.1.2.3. Another mistake of some new supervisors is to let authority go to their heads -- to act as though they are better than the employees and to pull rank, order people around, and let everyone know they are “the boss.”

4.1.2.4. Most employees will either laugh at such supervisors (behind their backs, of course) or will become resentful and stay out of their way. These supervisors thereby lose touch with their employees.

4.1.2.5. Other supervisors may swing too far in the opposite direction. They may try to keep up the “buddy” kind of friendship they may have had with their fellow workers before they were promoted. The new supervisor should realize that he or she must balance on a fine line -- somewhere between being one of the gang and being the one in charge.
TEACHING OUTLINE

4.1.2.6. Both you and your workers must understand at the outset that you are not just another worker. You are the supervisor, with all the authority and responsibility that go with the job. At the same time, though, it is important to show by your actions that you are concerned about your employees and that you are working together with them toward agreed-upon goals.

4.2. Toward better supervision:

4.2.1. As a manager, the supervisor should be able to get work done through others. This means you, as supervisor, should organize work and motivate employees so that they will do what they are required to do voluntarily.

4.2.2. If you want to test your ability to do this, find out whether your employees work as hard when you are away as when you are there. Only willing, well-supervised employees work hard when the supervisor’s back is turned. Your job will be more rewarding -- and you will become more valuable to your organization -- if you use management skills to make your work easier and more effective.

4.2.3. Getting work done through others:

4.2.3.1. Getting work done through the efforts of others is not as easy today as it used to be. In the so-called “good old days” an employee either worked hard or was fired. In some jobs the supervisor was the man who could “lick every other man on his crew” -- and did, if the worker did not do as he was told.

4.2.3.2. But times have changed. Today’s workers, particularly younger ones, require a different type of supervising. The work-pusher type of supervisor cannot survive when civil service provisions, union contracts, grievance procedures, antidiscrimination laws, and the willingness of workers to go to court to protect their rights protect workers. And employees today have a sense of these rights and of their worth as individual men and women.

4.2.3.3. Today’s employees respond willingly to leaders whom they respect and admire. A good beginning is to try asking your workers for advice or help. Ask them to help you plan what needs to be done and how best to do it. Let them have a voice in deciding how to organize to get the job done.
4.2.3.4. Get to know your workers. Find out each person’s strengths and weaknesses. Try to learn what each person wants and needs to get from his or her job. By your actions let your employees know that you have confidence in their ability and trust them to do things the right way.

4.2.4. Treating employees fairly:

4.2.4.1. Treat everyone fairly. It is important to avoid playing favorites and to be consistent in your behavior. You lose credibility if you are standoffish one day and everyone’s “pal” the next.

4.2.4.2. Above all, do not let your personal beliefs interfere with your decisions as a supervisor.

4.2.4.3. It is important to be fair with your workers in still another way: Remember that you have authority over them only during working hours; you do not have authority over their private lives or what they do on their own time.

4.2.4.4. If your local government has rules about appropriate dress, your employees should dress accordingly. But you may not add your personal requirements to those regulations. If the requirement is for neatly groomed hair, you cannot add to that your own preference for short hair. If an employee drinks off the job but has a good attendance record and is always sober at work, then that drinking has nothing to do with his or her job or with your job as supervisor.

4.2.4.5. Remember, too, that giving workers advice about their personal problems -- even if they ask for it -- can be a mistake. You should concern yourself with an employee’s private life only when it affects job performance. This does not mean that you should not be willing to listen to employees with personal problems.

4.2.4.6. In any situation in which you suspect that your personal preferences or an employee’s personal life may be involved, it is important to ask yourself, “does this have anything to do with the employee’s job performance?” before you do or say anything. You can get into serious trouble if you use your supervisory authority to regulate or influence an employee’s behavior outside of working hours.
57170A FIRE OFFICER I
UNIT 5

REFERENCES:


OBJECTIVE: NFPA Standard 1021, Chapter 2.

TEACHING OUTLINE

1. There are no learning objectives assigned to this unit. There are no written test items or practical evaluation taken from this unit.
OBJECTIVE: To allow the fire officer information pertaining to the budgetary process, controls, and the impact of the budget on the unit.

TEACHING OUTLINE

I. The budgetary process.
   A. Types of budgets.
      1. Budgetary process.
         a. Line-item budget.
            1. Most common method.
            2. List of expenditures line by line.
         b. Advantages:
            a. Administrators can tell at a glance what the money is being spent on.
            b. Totals of expenditures at a glance.
            c. Can determine whether the department is operating in the red or the black.
      2. Disadvantages:
         a. City or federal managers can quickly determine who is spending too much money.
         b. Tends to draw attention to the what, rather than the why.
      3. Performance budget.
         1. Split of services into suppression, training, and other sub-groups.
         2. Lists performance standards to see how well they measure up to the posted levels.
         3. Advantages:
            a. Shifts focus from individual purchases to the reasons why the department made the purchases and the results they intent to obtain.
            b. Departments decide what kind of improvements to make during the funding period and evaluate what was accomplished.
         4. Disadvantages:
            a. Who establishes the performance standard?
            b. Bad for morale.
            c. Hit and miss budget due to the possibility of fighting less fires than the previous year.
      b. Program budget.
         1. Appropriates funds within a particular program.

REFERENCES:


REFERENCES

IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 111-113.
IFSTA, Chief Officer, pg. 111-128.
2. Emphasizes programs rather than line items.

3. Advantages:
   a. Administrators can see, at a glance, all costs of specific programs.
   b. Decisions to cut programs by priority becomes easier.

4. Disadvantages:
   a. Poor program definition will hamper this methods usefulness.
   b. Difficult to decide on priorities without some way to measure the work.
   c. Lacks detail.

d. Planning - programming budget.
   1. Developed by the federal government.

e. Integrative budgeting system. (IBS)
   1. Pick and choose system.
   2. Consists of all the workable elements of other budgeting methods.
   3. Breaks up the department into several functions or programs.
   4. Categorizes programs only into personnel services, maintenance and operations, and capitol expenditures accounts.

5. Advantages:
   a. Same advantages as the other methods.
   b. Computer based.
   c. Uses behavioral controls rather than authoritarian controls.

6. Disadvantages:
   a. Time consuming to implement. (Up to two to three years to set up the IBS.)
   b. Threatening to power and control makers.

f. Zero-based budgeting system. (ZBB)
   1. Start over approach developed by the federal government.
   2. “Decision package.”
      a. Program statement.
      b. Goal description.
      c. Cost estimate and expected results.
      d. Evaluation method.
      e. List of alternative methods to accomplish goals.
      f. Prediction of outcome.

B. The process.
   1. Political
   2. Begin with previous years budget and review for accuracy.
   3. Cut unneeded expenses.
   4. Include new needs.
   5. Consider inflation indexes.
   6. Consider cost of living indexes.
   7. List capital purchases.
TEACHING OUTLINE

8. Send budget to chief administrative or executive officer of the city.
   a. Preliminary budget may go back and forth several times for compromises.
   b. Once compromises are considered, the proposed budget package is then considered.
   c. Be prepared to justify programs.
      1. Describe the programs expectations.
      2. Identify recurring or fixed expenses.
      3. Show future savings on proposed expenditures.
      4. List the past budget problems and back up requests with hard reliable data.
      5. Compare the budget with nearby jurisdictions.
      6. Try and impress by showing how you are trying to operate more with less.

II. Budgetary controls.
   A. Traditional budget controls.
      1. Line-item accounting - Every expenditure is deducted from the remaining account balance.
      2. Account reports - (monthly or quarterly) showing how and what the money was spent toward also how and what the remaining money will be spent.
      3. Percentage deviation - Operates on the assumption that money will be spent equally over time.
      4. Allotments - Can only spend what is allotted to you in that time.
      5. Position controls - Usually 95% of funds are spent on personal services, thus control of positions and number of employees are set in place.
      6. Contract or purchase order controls.
      7. Travel and subsistence clampdowns.
      8. Training, dues and subscription limitations.
   B. Behavioral controls:
      1. Motivation by letting more people have a say in setting priorities.
      2. Management by objectives (MBO) helps people understand what they do and generally causes them to work more efficiently and cooperatively.

III. Impact on the unit.
   A. Action plan may be impeded, undermining leadership.
   B. Long range plan impeded.
   C. Medium range plan impeded.
   D. Short - range plans may be cut off.
   E. Equipment needs may be unachievable.
   F. Close monitoring of supplies.

REFERENCES

IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 113-114.
IFSTA, Chief Officer, pg. 127-128.

IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 109.
REFERENCES:


OBJECTIVE: NFPA Standard 1021, Chapter 2.

TEACHING OUTLINE

1. There are no learning objectives assigned to this unit. There are no written test items or practical evaluation taken from this unit.
OBJECTIVE: To allow the fire officer information pertaining to the incident reporting process.

TEACHING OUTLINE

I. Report Writing.
   A. Necessity.
      1. Document fire prevention activities.
      2. Document fire investigations.
      3. Document injuries to both civilian and fire fighters.
   B. Responsibility for:
      1. Legal.
      2. Statistical.
   C. Style.
      1. Complete sentences.
      2. Proper grammar.
      3. Appropriate use or words.
      4. Basic, legible, and concise.
   D. Procedure.
      1. Introduction.
      2. Body.
      3. Conclusion.
   E. Proof read the report prior to publication.

II. Report filing systems.
   A. Record keeping.
      1. Must be filed logically.
      2. Alphabetically by subject category.
      3. Numerical order according to a classification system. i.e.
         NFPA 901, Fire Reporting System.
      5. Use legal council to determine the length of time a record is kept.
   B. Computer storage, ask:
      1. Who will be using the system?
      2. How will the information be retrieved from the computer?
      3. How often will the information be needed, and how quickly?

REFERENCES:

57170A FIRE OFFICER I
UNITS 8 AND 9 – Communication Skills/Information Management

REFERENCES:
IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 59-61.

IFSTA, Chief Officer, Pg. 95-99.
TEACHING OUTLINE

4. How accurate should the information be?
5. These questions will help determine what style of retrieval/storage system you should utilize.

C. Statistical analysis.
   1. Should be non-biased.
   2. Use of tables and graphs.
   3. Used to identify trends or problems.
   4. May be misleading, if done or analyzed improperly.

III. The emergency incident report.

A. Introduction.
   1. Purpose:
      a. Uniform reporting guidelines for proper, accurate analysis.
      b. Supports fire prevention activities.
      c. Used as a public relation tool.
      d. Used for code enforcement.
      e. Used for planning.
      f. Used for administrative functions.
   2. Commitment: fire jurisdictions must be committed to a complete thorough reporting system.

B. Element I, Fact finding.
   1. Function.
      a. Legal.
      b. To be effective uniform style, terminology and definitions must be used.
   2. The incident report.
      a. Should be filed for every actual response or alarm.
      b. Every response to an alarm, an incident occurs.
   3. Update reports.
      a. Follow up information may be obtained from:
         1. Fire investigator.
         2. Fire training officer.
         3. Insurance adjusters.
         4. Other outside agencies.
      b. For follow up reports NFPA 904M is used as a guide.

C. Element II, Fact processing.
   1. Information is processed for:
      a. Legal purposes.
      b. Planning purposes.
      c. Management purposes.
   2. Check reports for accuracy and completeness.
   3. Unite all reports of one incident into one report.
   4. Create a file.

D. Element III, Fact use.
   1. Feedback to fire officers on their specific part of the protected community.
   2. Spot trends in fire incidents.
   3. Pre-plan.

E. Forms.
   1. Form 902F, Basic Incident Report.
   3. Form 902H, Basic EMS Report.

REFERENCES

NFPA 902M
TEACHING OUTLINE

   F. Form completion.
      *Trainer and trainee must review both NFPA 902M and
       DoD 6055.7 as both standards should be taught to ensure
       effective training.
      *Have trainee complete DD 2324.
      *Have trainee complete applicable NFPA forms.

IV. The non-emergency incident.
   A. NFPA 904I, Incident Follow-up Report.
      1. Generally filed for fires of suspicious origin.
      2. Previously filed a Basic Incident Report 902F.
   B. Main purposes for form 904I.
      1. Used to document findings.
      2. To provide for revisions and/or augmentation of the data
         previously reported of form 902F.
      3. To provide additional details on special situations.
         *Trainer and trainee should review NFPA 904M and
         complete form 904I.
         *Trainee should also complete DD 2324-1.
         *Have student perform a practice Report Preparation
         station on pages 7, 9, and 11 CDC 57170A Fire Officer
         I, Supplement Performance Tests.

REFERENCES


NFPA 904M.
OBJECTIVE: To allow the fire officer information pertaining to the incident pre-plan survey and pre-plan process.

TEACHING OUTLINE

I. Pre-incident planning - The whole process of gathering information, developing procedures, and maintaining information resource systems.

II. Pre-incident survey.
   A. Performed at company level to:
      1. Allow the fire fighter to become familiar with a facility’s physical design and layout.
      2. Visualization and application of existing strategies are evident.
      3. Notes new or unrecorded hazards.
   B. Company officers must ensure a productive, working relationship between the tenant and the fire department is maintained.
      1. Schedule the survey at a convenient time for the tenant.
      2. Explain the purpose of the survey.
      3. Be cordial.
   C. Considerations for the facility survey:
      1. Review existing information about the type of business/occupancy.
      2. Life safety:
         a. Occupant protection.
            1. Location and size of exits.
            2. Location of escalators and elevators.
            3. Locations of windows suitable for rescue.
            4. Note special rescue considerations.
            5. Flammable finishes or processes.
         b. Fire fighter protection:
            1. Note any flammable or combustible liquids.
            2. Note any toxic chemicals.
            3. Note the existence of explosives.
            4. Note any reactive chemicals.
            5. Note any radioactive materials.
            6. Note construction features that may fail in a fire.
               i.e. lightweight truss construction, steel I-beam, or lime mortar.
            7. List storage hazards.
            8. Note heavy static loads.
TEACHING OUTLINE

9. Note any physical features that might entrap or confuse the fire fighter.
   c. Fire control:
      1. Note:
         a. The address.
         b. The street location.
         c. Type of business and content hazards.
         d. Owner/tenant information.
         e. Whom to contact.
         f. Business hours.
         g. Number of occupants.
    2. Consider:
       a. Traffic/road hazards.
       b. Elevation differences for friction loss computations.
       c. Forcible entry problems.
    3. Construction.
       *Consult IFSTA, validated, Building Construction manual.
    4. Estimate water supply needs.
       *Consult IFSTA, validated, Water Supply manual.
    5. Private fire protection equipment.
    7. Exposure hazard information.
   d. Property conservation - “What can the fire department do that will most reduce property loss?”
      1. Check for contents with a high value.
      2. Consider items that will be harmed by water.
      3. Consider salvage such as drainage and tools or equipment that may aid in the salvage of high price items.

D. Facility survey equipment.
   1. Writing equipment:
      a. Pads of paper.
      b. Pencils.
      c. Erasure.
      d. Clipboard.
      e. Straightedge.
      f. Applicable forms.
   2. Drawing equipment:
      a. Graph paper.
      b. Protractor.
      c. Copy of mapping symbols.
   3. Other equipment:
      a. Flashlight.
      b. Portable radio.
      c. Pitot tube.
      d. 50 or 100 foot measuring tape.
      e. Pertinent reference material.
   4. Hard hat, steel-toed boots, gloves, safety goggles, and other safety equipment.

REFERENCES

IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 185-188.

IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 189-190.

IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 190-191.
TEACHING OUTLINE

E. Systematic approach:
   1. Assign members of the company specific tasks, and brief them on what is included in that task.
   2. The company officer should make contact with the tenant or representative to confirm the appointment and brief them of the survey procedure.
      a. Explain that if severe hazards were found they would have to be corrected.
      b. Assist them with on the spot corrections if possible.
   3. Exterior survey:
      a. Measure outside dimensions.
      b. Measure distance to nearby exposures.
      c. Indicate locations of:
         1. Hydrants.
         2. Valves.
         3. Utility shutoff location.
         4. Fences.
         5. Landscaping.
         6. Obstructions.
         7. Sprinkler and standpipe connections.
      d. Note false fronts.
   4. Building survey:
      a. Start at roof or lowest level.
      b. Make floor plan noting:
         1. Permanent walls.
         2. Partitions.
         3. Fixtures.
         4. Machinery.
         5. Private fire protection equipment.
   5. Post survey:
      a. Facility survey drawings.
         1. Written report.
         2. Field sketch.
   F. The company officer role:
      1. Ensures efficiency and professionalism.
      2. Review previous surveys.
      3. Answer any questions professionally.
      4. Present positive public image.

III. Types of construction.
   A. Type I Construction (Fire Resistant)
      1. Only noncombustible materials are permitted for structural components.
         a. Roof coverings.
         b. Insulating materials.
         c. Limited wood for interior finishes.
      2. Alternate definitions include limits on surface flame spread rating and on heat content.
   B. Type II Construction (Noncombustible)
      1. Structural elements are entirely of noncombustible or limited combustible materials.

REFERENCES

IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 189-190.

IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 192-195.

IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 195.

TEACHING OUTLINE

2. Fire resistive rating.
3. Adequate for residential, educational, institutional, business, and assembly occupancies.
4. Allows minimal fire spread.

C. Type III Construction (Exterior Protected Combustible or Ordinary Construction)
1. All or part of interior structural elements may be of combustible materials.
2. Exterior walls are required to be of non-combustible or limited noncombustible materials.

D. Type IV Construction (Heavy Timber)
1. Structural members basically consist of unprotected wood beams.
2. No concealed spaces are permitted in the floor and roof.
3. During fire Type IV Construction resists failure due to its large “heavy timber” construction.

E. Type V Construction (Wood Frame)
1. Most vulnerable to fire.
2. Structural members consist entirely of wood.
3. Great attention should be given to the details of construction.

F. Mixed Construction - Two or more combinations of construction types.
*Figures 6-2A, 6-2B, 6-2C, and 6-2D will aid with visualization.
*Student should review material contained on pages 6-20 through 6-36.

V. Assembly occupancies.
A. Defined - Structures in which groups of people gather for purposes such as deliberation, worship and entertainment.

B. Characteristics.
1. Dense population.
2. Occupants may not be familiar with the building.
3. Darkness.

C. Restaurants and nightclub problems.
1. Inadequate exit access.
2. Elaborate decor.
3. Fire department notification.
4. Poorly informed patrons.

D. Multi-purpose rooms.
1. Ballrooms, meeting rooms, cafeterias, and gymnasiums.
2. Moveable walls.
3. Poor exit access when in different configurations.

E. Exhibit halls.
1. Hard to pre-plan due to variable layouts for special events.
2. Can have very large fire loads.
3. Heavy loads add to fire spread and smoke density.

F. Sports arenas.
1. Usually fixed seating.
2. Major problem is occupancy density.
3. Usually outdoors.

REFERENCES

Fire Protection Handbook, pg. 8-88 to 8-92.
TEACHING OUTLINE

G. Passenger terminals.
   1. Only general rules can be written.
   2. Occupants are usually unfamiliar with the building.

H. Special amusement buildings.
   1. Can be temporary, permanent, or mobile.
   2. Egress path not readily apparent due to low lighting levels, visual or audio distractions, and intentionally confounded paths of travel.
   3. Ensure proper fire protection and exit signs are visible.

I. Occupancy hazards.
   1. Cooking and open flame.
   2. Theatrical stages consist of easily ignitable materials.
   3. Projection booths contain electrical hazards.
   4. Items in storage areas stored improperly.

J. Life safety concepts.
   1. Exit hardware, usually requires panic hardware.
   2. Interior finish is a key element to provide fire control and life safety.

VI. Educational occupancies.

   A. Defined - Structures used for the gathering of six or more persons for the purpose of instruction. i.e. schools, academies, colleges and universities, nursery schools, day-care centers, kindergartens, ect.

   B. Characteristics.
      1. Occupants.
         a. May be handicapped, mentally ill, or in poor physical condition.
         b. May not be familiar with exits.
         c. Of mixed age groups.
      2. Design considerations.
         a. Must accommodate handicapped.
         b. Must consider the age of occupants.
         c. May be of open plan design.
         d. Early detection and notification systems must be employed.
      3. Colleges and universities.
         a. Usually not considered as educational because occupants are generally capable of self care.
         b. Under 50 occupants, usually considered as business occupancies.
         c. Over 50 occupants, usually considered as assembly occupancies.
      4. Day-care facilities.
         a. Operation hours should be noted.
         b. Present greatest hazard to due to age and sleeping occupants.
         c. Staff members are required to be mentally alert at all times during business hours.

   C. Occupancy hazards.
      1. Hazardous areas
         a. Vocational shops.
         b. Laboratories.

REFERENCES

Fire Protection Handbook, pg. 8-93 to 8-94.
TEACHING OUTLINE

c. Kitchens.
d. Storage rooms.
e. Stages.

   a. Must meet travel/distance requirements.
   b. May be multi-story converging onto one exterior exit.

3. Corridor protection.
   a. Proper fire doors.
   b. Plan to maintain corridor protection during fires for egress of occupants.

4. Exit hardware must be utilized.

5. Staff training is a must.

VII. Residential occupancies.

A. Apartment buildings.
   1. Defined - Structures containing three or more living units with independent cooking and bathroom facilities.
   2. Occupancy hazards.
      a. May contain pre-schoolers and elderly persons.
      b. May contain handicapped persons.
      c. May utilize central ventilation.
      d. Must consider exposures, both interior and exterior.
   3. Life safety concept.
      a. Maintain corridor protection.
      b. Private fire protection location and types should be noted.

B. One and two family dwellings.
   1. Defined - One and two family dwellings in which not more than two families reside.
   2. Usually a general pre-plan due to diversity.
   3. In 1989 65.5% of all U.S. fire deaths occurred in one or two family dwellings (3,545 deaths)

*Have student perform a practice Pre-incident plan station on page 13 CDC 57170A Fire Officer I, Supplement Performance Tests.
OBJECTIVE: To allow the fire officer information pertaining to facility inspection, fire investigation, and public education for the fire service.

TEACHING OUTLINE

I. Indications of a possible incendiary fire.
   A. Time of arrival.
      1. When en route or in the vicinity note:
         a. Time of day - Indicates whom to expect at the scene.
         b. Weather condition and natural hazards - Arsonists often set fire during inclement weather.
         c. Man-made barriers - Things to slow response.
         d. People leaving the scene - Most people tend to watch.
         e. People with an eagerness to help.
      2. On arrival.
         a. Extent of the fire - May indicate use of accelerants or purposeful late notification.
         b. Wind direction and velocity - Has great effect on the natural path of the fire. An unnatural path may indicate arson.
         c. Location of fire(s) - Separate fires or fire origins in the same building.
         d. Color of smoke - Indicates chemical or accelerant usage.
         e. Color of flame - Can indicate chemicals or accelerants.
         f. Forcible entry - Upon arrival were doors or windows already forced.
         g. Were doors and windows locked or unlocked and should they have been in that state.
         h. Were doors and windows covered to hamper fire discovery and notification.
         i. Discarded containers - Could have contained flammable liquids.
         j. Discarded burglary tools.
         k. Familiar faces - Look at the crowd, there may be fire buffs or habitual fire setters.
   B. Evidence at the fire scene.
      1. Identification during the fire.
         a. Unusual odors - Flammable liquids usually smell; perfumes, deodorants, and ammonia are sometimes used by arsonists.

REFERENCES:


REFERENCES

IFSTA, Fire Cause Determination, pg. 20-21.
IFSTA, Fire Cause Determination, pg. 23-25.
TEACHING OUTLINE

b. Behavior of fire when water is applied - May indicate flammable liquids.
c. Obstacles/traps - Furniture placed in doorways, holes in floors, items to speed fire spread and slow extinguishment.
d. Incendiary devices, trailers and plants.
e. Uneven burning.
f. Heat intensity - Indicates the use of flammable liquids.
g. Speed of fire spread.
h. Inoperable fire protection devices.
i. Alarms having been tampered with.
j. Fire location.
k. Absence of personal possessions.
l. Absence of equipment or stock.

2. Identifying evidence after the fire.
   a. All facts of the fire should be reported to the fire officer.
   b. Prepare a chronological account of important circumstances.
   c. Interview occupants, owners and witnesses.
   d. Conduct preliminary cause investigation - prior to salvage and overhaul to secure evidence before it can be damaged.
   e. Watch for possible evidence during overhaul.
   f. Try to leave debris undisturbed in area of origin.

   a. Choose a standard pattern, be sure all participants knows and abides by the same pattern.
   b. Ensure personnel know what to look for and what to do with it when it’s found.
   c. Start at the door searching the floor first, then objects, then walls, finally the ceiling.
   d. Deal with evidence as it is found.

4. Preserving and securing the evidence.
   a. Evidence kit.
      1. One gallon paint can.
      4. Glass vials with cotton swabs in each.
      5. Plastic evidence bags impervious to hydrocarbons.
      7. Carpet knife.
      8. Penlight.
     10. Marking equipment.
     11. Evidence bags.
     12. Labels.
     14. Personal protective equipment.
   b. Seizure.
      1. Only one person should be responsible for seizing all exhibits.

REFERENCES

IFSTA, Fire Cause Determination, pg. 89.
IFSTA, Fire Cause Determination, pg. 90-94.
TEACHING OUTLINE

2. Properly contain, mark, and handle evidence in lawful manner.
3. Inventory evidence.
4. Provide security to non-moveable evidence.
5. Carefully handle evidence.
   c Handling methods.
   1. Glass or bottles.
      a. May contain fingerprints.
      b. Pickup glass on edges.
      c. Pick up bottles with pencils.
   2. Ash - Place into a can or special evidence bag.
   3. Flammable liquid containers - Check for fingerprints.
   4. Flammable liquids.
      a. Put into cans or special containers.
      b. Use cotton swabs.
      c. Seal and label one empty vial containing one unused swab for control evidence.
      d. Seal and label evidence vials.
      e. Quickly seize and seal contaminated wood and textiles to prevent evaporation.
      a. If in a container leave them in the container.
      b. Keep away from drafts.
      c. If possible store documents between two panes of glass.
   6. Tire tracks or footprints.
      a. Photograph them from several angles.
      b. Note location.
      c. Make molds where possible.

C. Evidence to look for.
   1. Multiple fires.
   2. Timing devices, wax spots, matches.
   3. Plants and trailers.
   5. Flammable liquids.
   6. Bottles and containers used to hold flammable liquids.
   7. Contraceptives, toy balloons, hot water bottles.
   8. Lenses used to focus light.
   9. Equipment having been tampered with.
   10. Deliberate electrical overloads.
   11. Tools left behind by arsonist.
   12. Look for removed items.
   13. Oily rags.
   15. Financial papers.
   16. Anything unusual.

D. Securing the fire scene.
   1. Safeguard area.
   2. Photograph the scene.
   3. Conduct the investigation to gather evidence.

REFERENCES

IFSTA, Fire Cause Determination, pg. 94-99.
TEACHING OUTLINE

4. Record personnel accessing the area to include: date, time and reason for entry.

II. Fire prevention codes, building codes, and ordinances applicable to fire safety.

A. National fire codes.
   1. Fire prevention code - A law enacted for the purpose of enforcing fire prevention and safety regulations.
   2. National Fire Protection Association, Inc. (NFPA)
      b. Provides:
         2. Code and standards revision.
         3. Formal interpretation procedures.
         4. Engineering advisory service.
      3. Code development - Review applicable steps.

B. Uniform building codes.
   1. Designed to control construction, alteration, repair, moving, and demolition of buildings.
   2. International Conference of Building Officials (ICBO)
      b. Provides:
         1. Code maintenance through annual changes.
         2. Examination planning.
         4. Consultation.
         5. Voluntary certification of members.
      c. Building code revision process - Review applicable steps.

C. Building Officials and Code Administrators International, Inc. (BOCA)
   2. Publishes several code guidelines.
   3. Provides:
      a. Code maintenance through annual changes.
      b. Examination planning.
      c. Consultation.
      d. Administrative studies of local government code enforcement agencies.
   4. Revision process - Review applicable steps.

D. Local policy.

*Have student perform a practice Tactics/Investigation Station on page 19 CDC 57170A Fire Officer I, Supplement Performance Tests.

REFERENCES


OBJECTIVE: To allow the fire officer the knowledge of incident size-up, control, and mitigation techniques.

TEACHING OUTLINE

I. Size-up factors used to determine procedures for control of an emergency situation.
   A. Defined - A process of gathering and evaluating information, probabilities, and resources of a situation.
   B. 15 points of size-up.
      1. Location of fire.
         a. One of the most important considerations.
         b. Exact location of the fire must be known.
      2. Extension probability and possibility.
         a. Probability - That which is likely to happen.
         b. Possibility - That which might happen.
         c. Radiant heat.
            1. Point source - Small sources of heat, i.e. windows.
            2. Line source - Large sources of heat, i.e. lumber yard.
            3. Susceptibility to ignition, i.e. wood vs. Masonry.
            4. Heat radiates from flame in all directions.
      d. Convection - heat travels upward.
      e. Conduction - heat travel by contact.
      f. Flying debris.
   3. Life hazard - not to be confused with life safety 101.
      a. Occupants.
         1. Those close to the fire on the fire floor.
         2. Those on the floor immediately above the fire.
         3. Those on the top most floor.
         4. Those on other floors above the fire.
      b. Fire fighters.
         1. Smoke/heat.
            a. Toxicity.

REFERENCES


REFERENCES

IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 215-223.

b. Vision obscurity.
c. High temperatures.
d. Stress on body.

2. Collapse.
c. Spectators.
   1. Fire.
   2. Explosion.
   3. Toxicity.

4. Time.
a. Time of day.
b. Visibility considerations at night.
c. Response time.
d. Time of year.

5. Weather.
a. Wind.
   1. Velocity - accelerates fire.
   2. Direction - determines which side of the fire is subject to the most heat.
b. Inside closed buildings - fire will still travel with the wind.
c. Temperature.
   1. Extreme cold.
   2. Ambient heat.
   3. Relative humidity.

6. Construction.
a. Type of construction.
b. Age of building.
c. Condition of building.

7. Height.

8. Area - Square footage extremes.

a. Processes and materials housed.
b. Changes in occupancy - “Was this roof designed to hold the new equipment load?”

10. Access to the building interior and exterior.

11. Internal protection (Auxiliary appliances)
a. Standpipes, sprinklers, and other built in systems.
c. Siamese connection to sprinklers and standpipes.

12. Water supply.
a. Hydrant color coding.
b. Static pressure.
c. Residual pressure.

13. Apparatus - GPM requirements vs. vehicle considerations.

14. Fire fighting personnel - One fire fighter per 50 GPM required.

15. Terrain.
a. Steep hills.
b. Street conditions.

C. Nature of incident.
D. Occupancy.
   1. Know special process hazards.
2. Occupant capacity.
   3. Construction features.
      a. Egress paths.
      b. Entry construction for forcible entry technique.
      c. Ventilation characteristics.
      d. Roof construction.
      e. Built in fire protection.

E. Resources.
   1. Equipment.
   2. Personnel.
   3. Administration.

II. Interior fire incident.
   A. Process of fire extension within a building.
      1. Mushrooming.
         a. Heated air expands and rises.
         b. Rising air encounters a ceiling or other barrier.
         c. Rising air spreads out laterally (sideways) along the ceiling.
         d. If air runs out of ceiling space it will travel down the walls toward the floor.
         e. Referred to as mushrooming.
      2. Vertical spread.
         a. Most likely route of travel.
         b. Travel through stairways, shafts, ducts, channels, chases, etc.
      3. Horizontal spread.
         a. Extensions via beam ends.
         b. Cornice along the front of the building.
         c. Over fire walls and parapets.
         d. Common cockloft.
         e. Common cellars.
         f. Conduction.
         g. Radiation.
         h. Direct flame contact.

B. Controlling, limiting fire spread within a building.
   1. Ventilation.
      a. Increases visibility.
      b. Decreases danger to/of:
         1. Occupants.
         2. Backdraft.
         3. Flashover.
      *Be familiar with types of and procedures for ventilation.
   2. Offensive fire attack.
      a. Aggressive interior attack.
      b. Usually combined with primary search and rescue activities.
      c. Usually requires forcible entry and ventilation practices.
      d. An attempt to control the fire to the area of origin.

III. Exterior fire incident.
   A. Protect exposures.
      1. Within the building.
4. Adjacent buildings.
5. Placing hose lines in structures.
6. Wetting exterior walls of the exposure.
7. Closing windows, doors, and shutters.
8. Remove nearby combustibles.

B. Defensive attack.
1. Exterior attack.
2. Existing conditions prohibit an offensive attack.
3. Employs large volumes of water.
4. Places emphasis on exposure protection.
5. Officer will allow specific property to be burned with the intent of stopping advancement in a specific area.

IV. Attack procedures.
A. Structures.
1. Direct attack.
   a. Most efficient use of water on free burning fires.
   b. Direct application by straight stream on the base of a fire in short bursts.
   c. Too much water will create steam expansion and will lower smoke.
2. Indirect attack.
   a. Not desirable where victims may be present.
   b. Used when fire fighters can not enter the structure.
   c. Water stream directed at the ceiling.
   d. Creates steam to smother the fire.

B. Hazardous material eight step process.
*This information is far too expansive to cover in this lesson plan, therefore, it is suggested to read chapters 6 and beyond of Hazardous Materials Managing the incident.

C. External, wildland.
1. Direct attack.
   a. Cool, drown, smother, beat out, starve, or otherwise suppress the fire.
   b. Most often used on light running fires in grass, leaves, small brush, duff, field crops, and on flanks and rear of large fires.
   c. Fire edge.
      1. “Stop the fire where the flame meets the fuel.”
      2. Use of hand tools, water, earth moving equipment, and air tankers.
      3. Spot fires may alter the situation.
      4. Unburned fuel should be separated from the burn area.
   d. Cold trailing.
      1. Constructing a minimal fire perimeter after the fire has been put out.
      2. Certainty of fire extinguishment.
      3. Last thing to be done prior to abandoning an area.
2. Indirect attack.
   a. Controlling a ground cover fire by constructing a continuous line to bare mineral soil; in unburned fuels at a considerable distance in front of the fire and then back firing.

References:
- IFSTA, Essentials of Fire Fighting, pg 404-405.
- Hazardous Materials Managing the Incident
- IFSTA, Ground Cover Fire Fighting Practices, pg. 72-74.
- IFSTA, Ground Cover Fire Fighting Practices, pg. 75-86.
b. Most effective against large ground cover fires.
c. Take advantage of terrain.
d. Line must be wide enough to ensure radiant heat will not ignite fuels on outside of the line.
e. Parallel method.
   1. Construction of continuous line 5 to 50 feet from fire and immediately burning out fuel.
   2. Usually more desirable than following the fire edge.
f. Point and cut off or hotspotting method.
   1. Simultaneous indirect attack on several heads and fingers of a ragged fire front.
   2. Requires several crews.
   3. Three phases:
      a. Phase 1 - Construct short lines across the path of each head or finger.
      b. Phase 2 - Link short lines together.
      c. Phase 3 - Normal movement around the flanks.
g. Fire lines.
   1. Location - Far enough ahead of the fire line.
   2. Construction - Process of removing fuel from the fire edge.
   3. Use of hand tools.
      a. Remove all ground cover along the fire line.
      b. Clear fire line down to bare mineral soil.
      c. All burned material should be thrown back into the burn.
      d. Scatter all cut and unburned material.
      e. Remove all overhanging branches.
   4. Use of earth moving equipment.
      a. May be ineffective in steep rocky terrain.
      b. Usually work parallel to a fire.
      c. Caution must be employed when equipment is working in front of a fire.
   5. Backfiring.
      a. Similar to burning out only on a much larger scale.
      b. Used only when other methods fail.
      c. Done only to save life or valuable property.
   6. Air attack.
      a. Constant contact between the air attack coordinator and ground crews must be maintained.
      b. Air coordinator tells the attack aircraft where to make the drop.
      c. Actions.
         1. The basic action.
         2. The flanking action.
         3. Total support action.
*Have the trainee perform practice Tactics/Investigation Stations on pages 14, 15, 17, and 18 CDC 57170A Fire Officer I Supplement Performance Tests.
REFERENCES


OBJECTIVE: To allow the fire officer the knowledge of fire department safety programs.

TEACHING OUTLINE

I. Common causes of fire fighter injury.
   A. Fire fighter injuries.
      1. Late 1980's 102,000 fire fighter injuries were reported each year.
      2. Many injuries can be prevented by:
         a. Use of proper protective equipment.
         b. Maintaining physical fitness.
      3. 1987, NFPA issues NFPA 1500.
   B. Physical factors that lead to injury.
      1. Fire fighting requires strenuous exertion often in adverse weather.
      2. Extreme temperatures.
      3. High humidity.
      4. Hazardous breathing atmospheres.
      5. High noise levels.
   C. NFPA categories of accidents.
      1. Caught, trapped.
      2. Exposure to fire products.
      3. Exposures to chemicals.
      4. Exposure to radiation.
      5. Fell, slipped.
      6. Overexertion.
      7. Stepped on, contact with object.
      8. Struck by object.
      9. Other.
   D. Unsafe acts and conditions.
   E. Psychological factors that lead to injury.

REFERENCES

IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 237-238.
IFSTA, Fire Department Company Officer, pg. 241-242.
TEACHING OUTLINE

1. Sound of the alarm.
2. Abrupt interruption of meals and sleep.
3. The unknown of responding to alarms.
4. The unknown dangers while at the scene.
5. Poor work relationships.
6. Poor work atmosphere.
7. Lack of promotions.
8. Difficult work roles.
9. Improper attitude.
10. Lack of support or praise by superiors.
11. Lack of knowledge or skill.

F. Protecting the fire fighter.
   1. 123 fire fighter deaths plus or minus 10% every year in the line of duty.
   2. 50% of those deaths are heart related.
   3. Physical fitness is one of the most important elements of occupational safety.
   4. Driver training is needed to prevent vehicle accidents.

G. Fire fighter injury statistics.

II. Implementing departmental safety regulations.
   A. Filling out the reports.
      1. Nature of the injury.
      2. Part of the body.
      4. Accident type.
      5. Hazardous condition.
      6. Agency of the accident.
      7. Unsafe act.
   B. In-service training - NFPA 1500 chapter 3.
      1. Instructors role
         a. Must be qualified to teach the subject.
         b. Adequately educate the students.
      2. Trainee preparedness.
         a. Health (emotional and Physical)
         b. Mentally alert.
         c. Proper attitude.
   C. Member responsibilities/motivation.
   D. Enforcement.
      1. NFPA 1500 is voluntary, however, once adopted must be adhered to.
      2. Safety policy/program
         a. Declaration of policy from the highest ranking official within the department.
         b. Written, easily enforced policy.
   E. Implementing NFPA 1500.
      1. Step 1 - Obtain copy.
      2. Step 2 - Establish a projection.
      3. Step 3 - Compare with existing practices.
      4. Step 4 - Identify sections where compliance is met.
      5. Step 5 - Identify sections where compliance is needed.

REFERENCES


Fire Protection Handbook, pg. 9-4 to 9-8
IFSTA, Fire Department Occupational Safety, pg. 30-33.

IFSTA, Fire Department Occupational Safety, pg. 75.

NFPA 1500, chapter 2-4 and 2-5.

NFPA 1500, chapter 1-3.
Fire Protection Handbook, pg. 9-10 to 9-12.
TEACHING OUTLINE

6. Step 6 - Identify available alternatives or specific solutions.
7. Step 7 - Estimate time and cost of each alternative.
8. Step 8 - Select the best alternative.
9. Step 9 - Prepare a draft plan.
10. Step 10 - Legal/risk management review.
11. Step 11 - Submit a draft for adoption.
12. Step 12 - Adopt the plan.
13. Step 13 - Organize implementation teams.
15. Step 15 - Implementing the plan.
17. Step 17 - Review and update the plan regularly.

III. Initial accident investigation.
   A. Incidents involving personnel.
   B. Incidents involving equipment.
   C. Incidents involving apparatus.

IV. Components of the infectious disease control program.
   A. Policies - NFPA 1581 chapter 2-1.
   B. Training and education NFPA 1581 chapter 2-2.
   C. Infectious control liaison NFPA 1581 chapter 2-3.
   D. Immunization and testing NFPA 1581 chapter 2-4.
   E. Exposures NFPA chapter 2-5
      1. Direct contact - such as a kiss or handshake.
      2. Indirect contact - Coming in contact with an object that
         been handled by an infected person.
      3. Droplet infection - Inhaling droplets that are discharged
         when an infected person coughs or sneezes.
      4. Sexual contact - Transmission through close sexual
         contact.

*Have trainee conduct practice Policy/Regulations Stations on page 2, 4, and 21 as they pertain to safety CDC 57170A Fire Officer I Supplement Performance Tests.

REFERENCES

IFSTA, Fire Service First Responder, pg. 46.