DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 126 338

CB 007 474

AUTHOR TITLE. Chaiken, Jan H.; And Others

A Training Course in Deployment of Emergency Services: Instructor's and Student's Manuals.

INSTITUTION SPONS AGENCY

New York City Rand Inst., N.Y.

Department of Housing and Urban Development, Washington, D.C. Office of Policy Development and

Research.

REPORT NO PUB DATE CONTRACT NOTE

R-1784/1-HUD; R-1784/2-HUD,

Sep 7.5 H-2164 353p.

EDRS PRICE DESCRIPTORS

MF-\$0.83 HC-\$19.41 Plus Postage.

*Administrator Education; *Curriculum Guides;

*Delivery Systems; *Emergency Programs; Emergency Squad Personnel; Fire Fighters; *Fire Science Education; First Aid; Government (Administrative Body); Government Employees; Learning Activities; Lesson Plans; Operations Research; Police; Rescue; *Resource Guides

ABSTRACT

The course outline provides lesson plans, suggested visual aids, and references to source materials for a one- to five-day course originally developed by the New York City--Rand Institute for use with city agencies. The course was designed to improve the deployment of these agencies emergency service units, and was presented to agency and city officials and to local analysts. In its present form the course can be used for fire service administrators and planning officers, police patrol administrators and planning officers, ambulance agency personnel, city officials, operations research analysts, and mixtures of these groups. It is suggested that the instructor's manual may be used for self study, since it contains all necessary references, but the student manual should only be used in a class setting, since the reference section in each lesson is left blank so that the student may keep a permanent record of his own notes. Each lesson outline is oriented specifically for a fire service, police service, or general audience, and contains a series of activities together with references and other suggestions which will enable lecturers to prepare a course, appropriate to the audience, from the lecture notes. (Author/SA)

A TRÁINING COURSE IN DEPLOYMENT OF EMERGENCY SERVICES: STUDENT'S MANUAL

PREPARED FOR THE OFFICE OF POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND RESEARCH, DEPARTMENT OF HOUSING AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT



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R-1784/2-HUD SEPTEMBER 1975

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF / EDUCATION

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THE NEW YORK CITY RAND INSTITUTE



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The New York City-Rand Institute is a nonprofit research institution founded, as its Articles of Incorporation state, "... primarily to conduct programs of scientific research and study, and provide reports and recommendations, relevant to the operations, planning or administration of the City of New York." The Institute was established in 1969 by the City of New York and The Rand Corporation as a center for the continuing application of scientific and analytic techniques to problems of urban life and local government. It is governed by a Board of Trustees appointed jointly by the City and Rand.

Published by The Rand Corporation

PREFACE

The development, documentation, and field presentation of this course was performed under a contract with the Office of Policy Development and Research of the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD)—"Contract for the Development, Field Testing, and Documentation of Management Methods for Emergency Services for Local Agencies."

This contract and earlier contracts between HUD and The New York City—Rand Institute involved work with city agencies designed to improve the deployment of their emergency service units. Prior to beginning such work, a training course was often presented to agency and city officials, and to local analysts.

This manual provides lecture notes, visual aids, and references for such a course, to be used by students whose instructor is teaching from the companion volume:

R-1784/1-HUD, A Training Course in Deployment of Emergency Services: Instructor's Manual.

This student's manual is not designed for self-directed study. The companion instructor's manual is more suitable for this purpose.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the Office of Policy Development and Research of the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. Many of the lecture notes and visual aids are based on materials developed over a period of several years by our colleagues at The New York City-Rand Institute, and we wish to thank them all:

Rae Archibald Edward Blum Grace Carter Peter Dormont Jack Hausner Peter Kolesar Richard Larson Mei Ling Kenneth Rider John Rolph Carol Shanesy Arthur Swereey

In addition, this course was presented in early 1975 to an audience whose members made many helpful suggestions for improving the lecture notes. We especially wish to thank the members of the audience who agreed to serve as a formal evaluation panel for the training course:

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INTRODUCTION

This student's manual provides lecture notes and visual aids for a course in deployment of emergency services. It is not self-contained but is designed for use in accordance with the directions of the instructor. The instructor will not present all the lectures in this volume, as there are pairs of lectures (identified by the same first initial) that cover the same topics from different perspectives. Space is provided on each page for any notes or references that the student may wish to record.

GENERAL NOTES AND ASSIGNMENTS

ERIC Frontidod by ERIC

LECTURE OF

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW FOR FIRE SERVICE AUDIENCES

Time: Approx. 40 minutes

Objective: To provide an overview of the fire service problems that will be

discussed in the course, and to provide an introduction to

systems analysis.

Activity

References and Notes

1. INTRÓDUCTION

- Explain nature of course, audience, and objectives
- Describe schedule for entire course

2. DEFINITION OF "DEPLOYMENT ANALYSIS"

•\ Strategic issues

- -- How many companies on duty
 - .. may vary by time of day or season
- -- How divided among subregions of city
- -- · Where stations are located
- -- Nature of vehicles (engines, ladders, foam units, etc.); manning
- -- Manpower scheduling

Tactical issues

- -- (Not fireground tactics) *
- -- Number and types of companies dispatched to an alarm
 - .. may vary with time of day, location of alarm, current situation, available information
- -- Which units to dispatch
- -- Relocation (move-up) -
 - .. when needed
 - .. how many companies move
 - .. which ones move

Activity.

References and Notes

- 3. STEPS IN "SYSTEMS ANALYSIS"

 (A systematic approach to solving problems)
 - Identify the problem
 - Select objectives
 - Define criteria to be used to evaluate alternative policies
 - Design alternative policies
 - Select models to be used
 - Collect required data
 - Compare alternatives using criteria
 - (Return to an earlier step)
 - Test out and implement final choice

4. PROBLEMS

- This course will deal with the strategic and tactical issues of deployment analysis.
- 5. OBJECTIVES

 May be several. Some of the most common are:
 - Improve fire protection levels with same resources
 - Maintain fire protection levels with less resources
 - Decrease workload while maintaining fire protection levels

- 6. RELEVANT CRITERIA (PERFORMANCE, MEASURES)
 (Used to tell if one policy is better than another policy)
 - Time until dispatch of companies
 - Turnout time
 - Travel, time
 - -- Can be average or maximum or something
 - -- To first-arriving company,
 max (first engine, first ladder),
 max (all companies needed),
 or other measures of travel time.
 - Sétup time

The above four constitute "response time."
Usually must pay attention to the largest one.
Deployment analysis focuses on changes that can affect travel time.

- Coverage measures
- Workload balance,
- Insurance grading standards?
- Cost

Why not lives lost, property lost?

- Hard to measure
- Needs research to be able to estimate changes (relationship not known precisely enough)
- We use suitable surrogate measures

References and Notes

7. ALTERNATIVE POLICIES

- Include base case (for comparison)
- Take political and economic factors into account (including community and labor union concerns)
- Alternatives may be suggested by fire department or city personnel, or may come from mathematical models

8. MODELS

<u>Purpose</u>: To introduce terminology, not to illustrate any particular models

Definition: abstraction of reality. Used to gain insight into and answer questions about the real world. Easier, safer, and less costly to use than manipulating real world.

• Empirical models

- -- Fit to data
 - .. May have no explanation
 - .. May be mathematically complicated
- -- Examples
 - ., Smooth fit to alarm rate by time of day
 - .. How long to travel a given distance
 - .. Chance that an alarm at a particular location is serious

8. MODELS (continued)

• Descriptive analytical models

- -- Using simplified assumptions, some kind of mathematical formula is derived to permit estimating some performance -- characteristic(s)
- -- The numbers that go into such a model may come from empirical models
- -- Examples
 - .. Knowing number of engines and ladders on duty, estimate average response distance
 - .. Knowing where fires are and how many units dispatched, estimate number of responses for each unit (workload)
 - .. If fire station is moved, what happens to response time

Optimization models (prescriptive)

- -- Tell how to achieve the most or the least of something
- -- Examples
 - .. What is the <u>least</u> number of engine stations needed so that each location is within 3/4 mile of a station?
 - .. How should 17 stations be located so as to minimize average response time?
 - .. What is the <u>smallest</u> number of engines needed to relocate on a second alarm (if specified coverage is to be achieved)?

Activity

References and Notes

8. MODELS (continued)

• Simulation models

- -- Imitate operations step by step
- -- Collect all kinds of statistics
- -- Can be extremely accurate
- -- Doesn't tell you what to do
- -- Things you try will be suggested by other models
- -- Likely not to be useful until close to the end of analysis; but have to start early to collect data

9. TECHNICAL ASSESTS TO DEPLOYMENT

- Computer-assisted dispatch
- Digital communication with fire units
 - -- Status
 - -- Inspection information
 - -- Location of fire, hydrants, etc.
 - -- Screen or printer
- Packaged systems for collecting, summarizing, or projecting alarm rate information

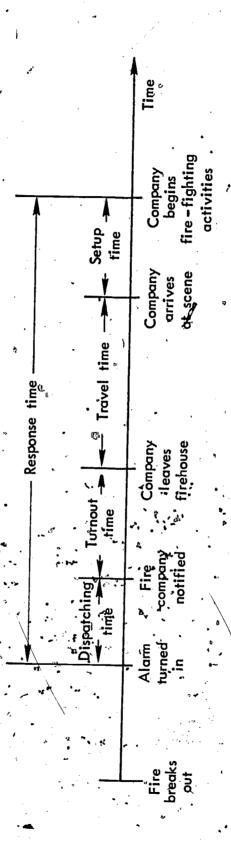


Fig. OF-1

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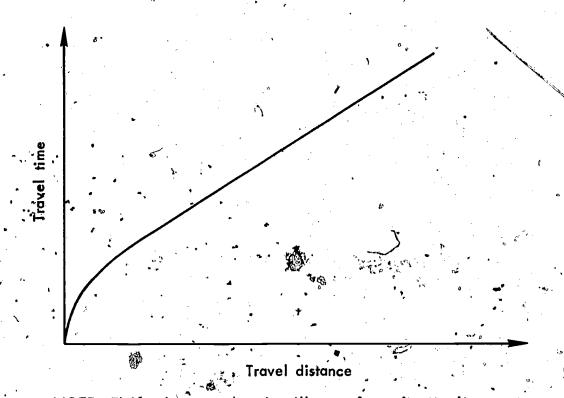


Fig. OF-2

NOTE: The scale on each axis will vary from city to city.

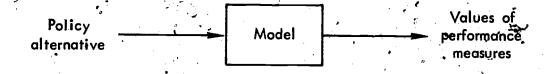


Fig. OF-3—The role of a descriptive model in deployment analysis

LECTURE RF

RULES OF THUMB FOR FIRE SERVICE AUDIENCES

Time: Approx. 50 minutes

Objective: To provide some easy to learn, easy to apply formulas and rules

average.

used in deployment analysis.

Activity

References and Notes

- 1. AVERAGE NUMBER OF COMPANIES BUSY
 - (AV. NUMBER OF OF ALARMS PER HOUR PER ALARM)
 - .● Example

/ (*c

- 4 alarms per hour (all types)
 30 minutes average time out-of-service
 1.2 engines per alarm, average
 4 x (0.5 x 1.2) = 2.4 engines busy on
- AVERAGE NUMBER OF COMPANIES AVAILABLE

 TOTAL NUMBER OF COMPANIES

 (AVERAGE NUMBER BUSY)
- 2. (AVERAGE TRAVEL DISTANCE) = in a region

(CONSTANT) x
$$\sqrt{\frac{\text{AREA OF/REGION}}{\text{NO. COMPANIES AVAILABLE}}}$$

Introduce notion of square root simply, via $3^2 = 9$ and therefore $\sqrt{9} = 3$

References and Notes

2. AVERAGE TRAVEL DISTANCE (continued)

- Give simple geographical demonstration showing why the rule of thumb is true
 - -- Base case
 - -- Double all dimensions: area quadruples, average travel distancé doubles (i.e., goes up by square root of area)
 - -- Repeat region 4 times: same area as in RF-2 with quadruple the companies, average travel distance is only halved (i.e., goes down as the square root of the number of companies)
 - a-- Halve all dimensions in RF-3: same area as RF-1 with quadruple the companies, average travel distance is halved (shows how hard it is to decrease travel times by adding companies; to halve travel times must quadruple the number of companies)
- Number of companies available changes from time to time. If the <u>average</u> number available in a region is not too small, the average travel distance can be estimated by replacing "NO. COMPANIES AVAILABLE" with "AV. NO. COMPANIES AVAILABLE."
- Note that this relationship assumes companies are spread out in region. Two companies in one house reduce by one the effective number of companies available (for travel distance purposes)
- This is an example of an analytical model that has been verified against data

Activity

References and Notes

3. RELATIONSHIP OF TRAVEL TIME TO TRAVEL DISTANCE

- Travel time is an important criterion for evaluating deployment policies; it is clearly related to travel distance, but how
- This is an example of an empirical model
- Show usual shape of curve—square root blending into a straight line
- Discuss underlying model of acceleration to cruise speed and then deceleration (no equations)
- Emphasize that if you extend the straight line to the axis, it looks as if turnout time is included, but that's not what's happening

H- 10.

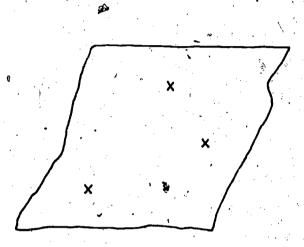
4. ALARMS DO NOT OCCUR AT ORDERLY, PREDICTABLE TIMES, AND SERVICE TIMES DO NOT ALWAYS EQUAL THE AVERAGE
(If they did, deployment analysis would be easy)

Purpose: To introduce probabilistic notions, and suggest that mathematical models "understand" that sometimes the situation can be much worse than average

• If average number of alarms is 2 per hour at a certain time of day (such as Friday, 4-6 p.m.), then

14% of such hours will have no alarms
27% of such hours will have 1 alarm
27% of such hours will have 2 alarms
18% of such hours will have 3 alarms
9% of such hours will have 4 alarms
5% of such hours will have 5 or more alarms

- Discuss what "x% of hours" means
- 2 alarms (the average) is not even more likely to occur than 1 alarm
- There are influences other than random that can make some Friday nights especially busy or quiet
 - -- Weather (e.g., brush fires)
 - -- Holiday (e.g., July 4)

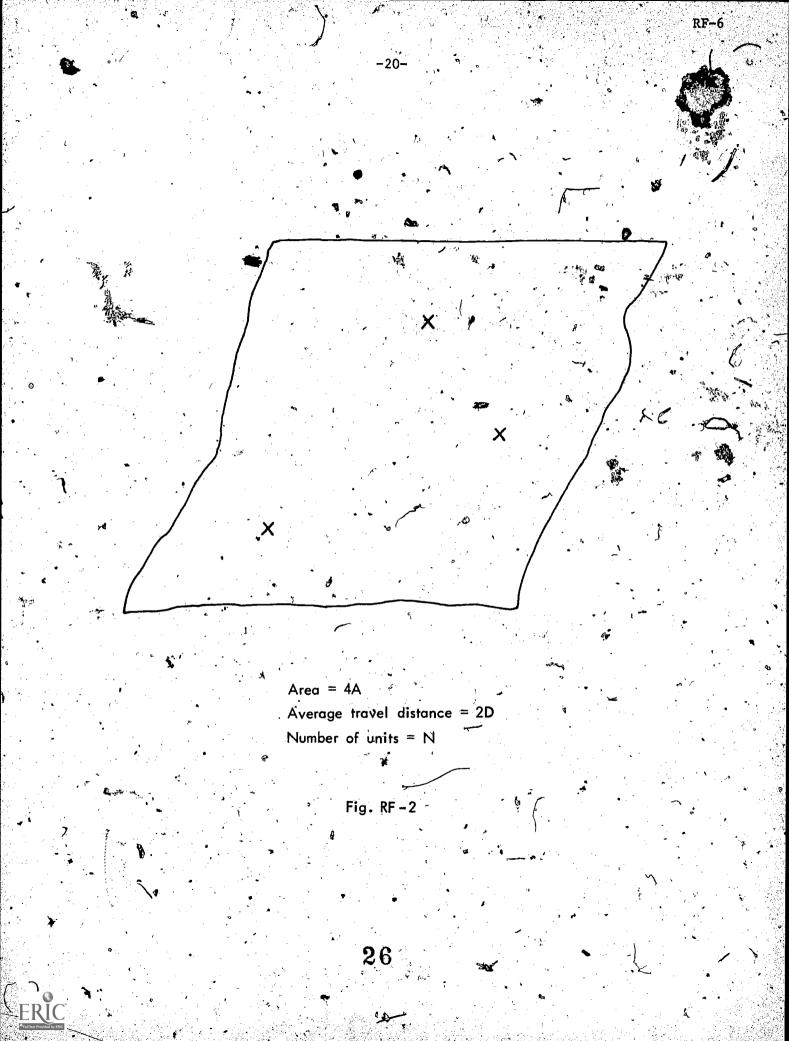


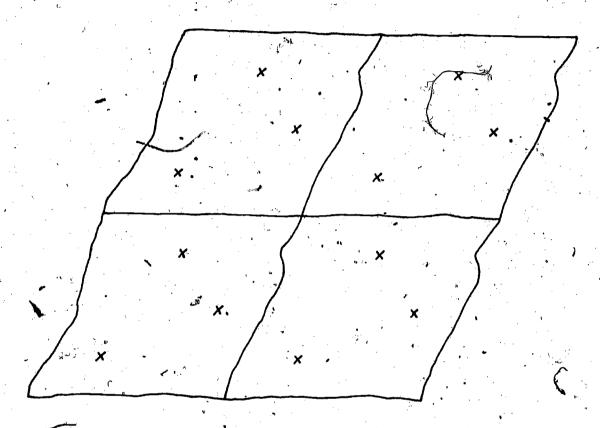
Average travel distance = D

Area = A

Number of units = N (3)

Fig. RF-1



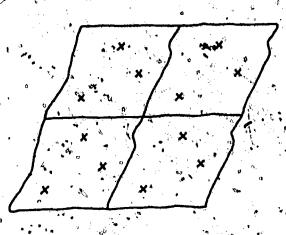


Average travel distance = D

Area = 4A

Number of, units = 4N

Fig. RF-3



Average travel distance = 1/2 D

Area = A

Number of units = 4N (12)

· Fig. RF-4

LECTURE OF

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW FOR POLICE SERVICE -AUDIENCES :

Time: Approx. 40 minutes

Objective To provide an overview of the police patrol resource allocation problems that will be discussed in the course, and to provide an introduction to systems analysis

Activity

References and Notes

1. INTRODUCTION

- Explain nature of course, audience, objectives
- Describe schedule for entire course
- 2. DEFINITION OF "PATROL"
 - Uniformed officers in mobile vehicles who can respond to calls for service

3. DEFINITION OF "ALLOCATION"

- How many ment on duty
 - -- Varies by day and time of day
- Mode of patrol
 - -- One-man cars
 - -- .Two-man cars
 - -- Scooters
- How many units in each geographical command
- Design of patrol beats for each unit
- Priorities attached to different types of calls (screening)
- When calls are queued (stacked, backlogged)
- Number of units dispatched
 - -- Varies with location and type of calls
- Which units dispatched
 - -- Type
 - -- Closest unit?
 - -- Beat car?
 - -- Across command boundaries?
- Redeployment as unavailabilities occur
- Manpower scheduling
- Scheduling of "other" unavailabilities

Activity

References and Notes

- 4. STEPS IN "SYSTEMS ANALYSIS"

 (A systematic approach to solving problems)
 - Identify the problem
 - Select objectives
 - Define criteria to be used to evaluate alternative policies
 - Design alternative policies
 - Select models to be used
 - Collect/required data
 - Compare alternatives using criteria
 - (Return to an earlier step)
 - Test out and implement final choice

5. PROBLEMS

- This course will deal with the problems associated with the allocation of police patrol resources
- 6. OBJECTIVES

 May be several. Some of the most common are:
 - Improve police protection levels with same resources .
 - Maintain police protection levels with less resources
 - Improve the balance of workload among patrol units

7. CRITERIA (PERFORMANCE MEASURES)

- Length of time caller must wait until unit is dispatched
- Travel time to scene
- Dispatches out of assigned area
- Balance of workload among units
- Time available for other activities
 - -- Preventive patrol
 - -- Meals
 - -- Patrol-initiated investigation
 - -- Traffic A
 - -- Maintenance of vehicle
 - -- Interaction with citizens
- Cost
- Why not crime deterrence, apprehension of criminal offenders, recovery of stolen property, community sense of security?
 - -- Hard to measure
 - -- Relationship to allocation not known precisely enough
 - -- We use proxy measures
 - -- Administrators can tell what changes in performance measures (up or down) are desirable, even if they don't know the exact benefit

8. ALTERNÁTIVE POLICIES

- Include existing policy (for comparison)
- Take political and economic factors into account (including community and labor union concerns)
- Alternatives may be suggested by police department or city personnel, or may come from mathematical models

References and Notes

9. MODELS

Purpose: To introduce terminology, not to illustrate any particular models

 Definition: abstraction of reality. Used to gain insight into, and answer questions about, the real world. Easier, safer, and less costly to use than manipulating real world

Empirical models

- -- Fit to data
 - .. May have no explanation
 - .. May be mathematically complicated
- -- Examples
 - Smooth fit to call rate by time of day
 - .. How long to travel a given distance
 - Relationship between fraction of time cars are unavailable and number of calls for service

Descriptive analytical models

- -- Using simplified assumptions, some kind of mathematical formula is derived to permit estimating some performance characteristic(s)
- -- The numbers that go into such a model may come from empirical models .
- -- Examples
 - .. Knowing number of units on duty, estimate average travel time to an incident
 - .. Knowing number of units on duty, estimate fraction of serious emergencies encountering a delay before dispatch
 - .. Knowing the patrol area of each unit and location of incidents, estimate workload and fraction of out-of-district dispatches for each unit

References and Notes

9. MODELS (continued)

• Optimization models (prescriptive)

- -- Tell how to achieve the most or the least of something
- -- Examples
 - .. How should sectors be designed to minimize average travel time to incidents?
 - .. How should a fixed total number of man-hours be distributed among tours so as to minimize the chances that a caller will have to wait before dispatch of a patrol car?

• · Simulation models

- -- Imitate patrol operations step by step
- -- Collect all kinds of statistics
- -- Can be extremely accurate
- -- Don't tell you what to do
- -- Things you try will be suggested by other models
- -- Likely not to be useful until close to the end of analysis; but have to start early to collect data

LECTURE RP

RULES OF THUMB .

FOR POLICE SERVICE AUDIENCES

Time: Approx. 80 minutes

To provide some easy to learn, easy to apply formulas and rules used in police patrol resource allocation analysis Objective:

Activity

References and Notes

AVERAGE NUMBER OF UNITS BUSY HANDLING CALLS FOR SERVICE

> AVERAGE NUMBER AVERAGE OF CALLS UNIT-HOURS PEH HOUR PER CALL

Give an example

2 calls per hour, average 1 car handles each Average length of time to handle call, 30 minutes

On the average, 1 car is busy If 2 cars on duty, each is busy $\frac{1}{2}$ the time If 4 cars on duty, each is busy $\frac{1}{4}$ the time

Number of units on duty must at least equal average number busy

2. EMERGENCIES DO NOT OCCUR AT ORDERLY, PREDICTABLE TIMES, AND SERVICE TIMES ARE NOT THE SAME FOR ALL CALLS (If they did, the analysis would be easy)

Example:

- -- Calls occur on the hour and half-hour.
 Every call takes exactly 30 minutes

 1 car can handle--nobody waits
 --but car is always busy
 - If 2 cars--nobody waits --each car is free half the time --always one car on patrol --
- -- But, when average number of calls is 2 per hour

14% of hours have no calls

27% of hours have 1 call

27% of hours have 2 calls

18% of hours have 3 calls

9% of hours have 4 calls

4% of hours have 5 calls

1% of hours have 6 or more calls

- -- Considering the usual spread of service times around 30 minutes
- With 1 car on duty, every caller waits
 With 2 cars on duty,
 1/3 of callers wait
 1/3 of time no car is on patrol
 Average wait until a car can be dispatched is 10 minutes (incl. nowait)
 17% of callers wait more than 20 minutes
- Conclusion: Number of units on duty must be considerably more than average number busy

- 3. A MINIMAL STANDARD FOR ADEQUATE PERFORMANCE IS: NO MORE THAN 15% OF IMPORTANT CALLS ARE QUEUED
 - Many departments don't achieve this (especially during peak hours)
 - . A goal set by some departments is: No more than 5% of important calls are queued
 - A few departments routinely have less than 1% of important calls queued
 - Impossible to guarantee that no calls will be queued
- 4. CARS ARE UNAVAILABLE FOR DISPATCH FOR REASONS OTHER THAN RESPONSE TO PREVIOUS CALLS
 - What are these activities?Meals, personal

Patrol-initiated crime or vehicle check

Notifications, warrants

Process arrestee

Supervision - field

Supervision - station

Waiting,

Travel to assigned beat

Transport (something)

Assigned to fixed location

Maintenance, auto

- Ordinarily, at least 30 percent of each unit's time spent on such unavailabilities
- In San Fernando Valley area of Los Angeles, average unavailabilities vary among divisions from 44% to 62% of total time on duty. In one New York precinct, 58 percent
- For queuing purposes, effective number of units on duty may be less than half the number assigned

Activity

References and Notes

- 5. NUMBER OF UNITS NEEDED TO MEET DESIRED LEVEL OF QUEUING DOES NOT INCREASE PROPORTIONATELY WITH NUMBER OF CALLS
 - Example:

A command with 2 calls per hour needs 7 units. This is not twice the number needed in a command with 1 call per hour (namely, 5 units)

- 6. AVERAGE NUMBER OF MINUTES BETWEEN PASSINGS OF A RANDOM POINT BY UNIT ON PATROL ≈
 - 6 x NUMBER OF STREET MILES IN BEAT FRACTION OF TIME AVAILABLE
 - Nobody has proved from data that preventive patrol deters crime
 - Mention Kansas City Proactive-Reactive Patrol Experiment

- 7. AVERAGE TRAVEL TIME ≈ 2 min $\sqrt{\frac{\text{AREA (in sq miles)}}{\text{NO. UNITS AVAIL.}}}$
 - Example:

Area of command is 6 square miles 5 patrol cars on duty Each available 60% of time .

Average travel time $\approx 2 \text{ min } \sqrt{6/3} = 2.83 \text{ min}$

- Why this is a general principle
- Total response time = (dispatching delay)
 - + (queuing delay)
 - + (travel time)
- Reducing response time increases probability of apprehending offender at the scene, but the effect is important only if very short response times can be achieved
- Reducing travel time can help to reduce response time into the useful range if queuing delays are short. It makes no sense to reduce travel times when queuing delays are long

Activity.

References and Notes

8. WHAT CAN YOU DO WITH PRIORITIES?

- If queue forms, dispatch free unit to oldest highest priority call
 - -- Average delay the same
 - -- Delay for high priority calls is less
- Hold one or two units in reserve for highpriority calls
 - -- Regular beat car
 - -- Special unit
 - -- Average delay is more

Screen out low-priority calls when busy

- -- "Adaptive dispatch policy"
- Schedule low-priority calls for handling
 at a more convenient time

9. WHAT'S WRONG WITH HAZARD FORMULA?

Description of Hazard Formula

-- Examples:

Number of outside violent crimes
Number of other Part I crimes
Number of street miles
Number of arrests
Number of commercial establishments
Number of emergency calls

-- f = amount of factor j in command i.

--
$$\mathbf{F}_{j} = \mathbf{f}_{1j} + \mathbf{f}_{2j} + \mathbf{f}_{3j} + \dots + \mathbf{f}_{N}$$

-- w_j = "importance" of factor j

--
$$H_1 = w_1 \frac{f_{11}}{F_1} + w_2 \frac{f_{12}}{F_2} + \dots + w_M \frac{f_{1M}}{F_M}$$

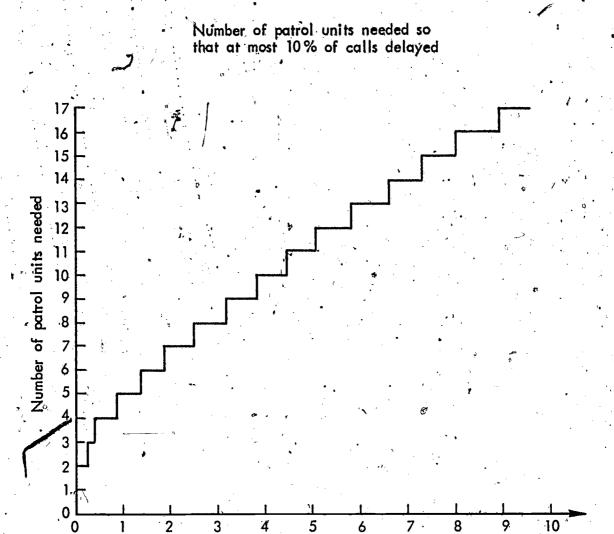
-- Manpower proportional to H,

- 9. WHAT'S WRONG WITH (HAZARD, FORMULA? (continued)
 - Description of Workload Formula
 - -- w_j = number of man-hours associated with factor j
 - -- $H_1 = W_1 f_{11} + W_2 f_{12} + \dots + W_M f_{1M}$
 - -- Manpower proportional to H
 - -- Mathematically the same as Hazard Formula with different weights
 - Problems
 - -- Apples and oranges
 - -- Interrelated
 - -- Proportional increase for emergency calls
 - -- No way to determine "correct" weights

 for Hazard ormula
 - Workload Formula accomplishes only one objective: equalizing workload
 - -- Hazard Formula does not do what it appears to do

Example: Assume precincts with high numbers of outside crimes have proportionately more unimportant calls. Then increasing way for outside crimes decreases manpower assigned to high-crime precincts

- -- No credit for good performance
- May be useful for manpower needs other than patrol



Assumptions: 30 minute service time per call
50% of each car's time spent
unavailable for reasons other than dispatch to a call

Number of calls per hour

Fig. RP-1

LECTURE CG

CHARACTERISTICS OF EMERGENCY SERVICES . FOR GENERAL AUDIENCES

This lecture is intended for audiences of analysts interested in the similarities and differences among emergency services and for audiences containing a mixture of fire, police, and ambulance service representatives.

Time: Approx. 60 minutes

Objective: To describe the general characteristics of emergency services

that are relevant for deployment analyses

Activity

References and Notes

1. INTRODUCTION

- Some models developed for one emergency service can be applied directly to another service, changing only terminology. Others are unique to a particular service because of distinct characteristics
- Considering only police patrol, fire units, and emergency medical services

2. CALLS FOR SERVICE

Arrival process

All three services: Poisson by time and geography: Rate varies by hour about an order of magnitude. Any method that predicts demands for one service will also work for others

Priority structure

Police and ambulance: priorities can be identified; some calls are not timeurgent; some calls can be rejected when necessary to prevent system congestion, but there may be legal constraints on call rejection

Fire: information for distinguishing type of call may be absent (e.g., street box alarm); when present, information does not determine priority, but only the number and type(s) of units needed



3. TYPES OF UNITS

Folice: usually all patrol units are interchangeable from the point of view of the functions they can perform when they reach the scene

Fire: at least two types:, engines and ladders; limited interchanteability

Ambulances: may have distinguishable capabilities: transport only, routine treatment, or intensive care (medic units, mobile cardiac care units)

4. MANNING

Police: 1 or 2 officers. If both types are present in same city, two 1-man units may be needed as an alternative to one 2-man unit

Fire: 3 to 7 fire-fighters

Ambulance: standard is now 2 attendants; some agencies do not achieve this

5. LOCATION OF UNITS

Police: mobile. Patrol areas can in principle be designed in any way desired, but administrative constraints are often imposed. Patrol areas can also change during or between tours of duty, but this is becoming less common with the advent of "neighborhood teams." Overlap of sectors possible, but not done in most cities. Geometrical probability models for two or more randomly located points relevant

Fire and ambulance: usually fixed locations. "Patrol" activities such as inspection infrequent; can ignore in most cities. May be several units at one location. Type of physical structure not important for ambulances (garage, hospital, police station, fire station). Fixed location implies "turnout" time

6. HOW MANY UNITS ON DUTY

Police and ambulance: flexible by day and time

Fire: usually not varied over the day; a long-term planning issue

7. QUEUING OF CALLS DUE TO UNAVAILABILITY OF UNITS

Police: common in many cities. Wait may dominate travel time. Queue usually has priority structure in practice

Ambulance: common in a few cities. Happens occasionally in many cities

Fire: Only under crisis conditions. Not relevant for deployment analysis

8. HOW MANY UNITS DISPATCHED

Police: usually one. For some calls two 1-man cars are dispatched. In practice, more units may respond than are dispatched

Fire: usually at least two. In some cities as many as 5-7. Traditionally preplanned according to:

- (a) nature of land use (business, residential, high rise)
- (b) nature of incident

Analysis can consider time of day, projected incidence rates, current unavailability status of system, probability that incident is serious, manning on unit

Ambulance: usually one. Some systems dispanch two or three, having different capabilities

- (a) First responder has limited capabilities; second has full treatment and transport capabilities
- (b) First has full treatment capabilities but cannot transport; second can transport

45

9. WHICH UNIT (S) DISPATCHED

Police: usually sector car if available. If not available, several policies are possible

Fire: traditionally preplanned. Almost always closest available, on initial dispatch

Analysis shows this may not be optimal

10. RELOCATION

Fire: traditionally preplanned for multiple-alarm fires. May be needed for several simultaneous smaller fires. Explain purpose

Police and ambulance: rarely used, but would have same benefits as in fire case

11. UNAVAILABILITY FOR REASONS OTHER THAN PREVIOUS DISPATCH

Fire and ambulance: recovery from previous incident only

Police: substantial part of activity.
May amount to 35%-60% of time. Some of these unavailabilities could be interrupted by high-priority incident

Activity

References and Notes

12. PERFORMANCE CRITERIA

(a) Queuing concepts

Fire: delays by dispatchers; probability that all or most units assigned to a subarea will be busy

Police and ambulance: dispatch delays, expected time in queue, probability of waiting > T in queue, delays by priority level

(b) Travel time

Fire: is a vector (by order of arrival and type of unit)

Police and ambulance: relevant for certain calls

(c) Turnout time

Fire and ambulance

(d) Workload balance

All three

(e) Dispatches out of Jusual area

Police

(f) Time available for nondispatch functions

Police

(g) Cost of operation

All three

À

LECTURE DF

DATA ANALYSIS

FOR FIRE SERVICE AUDIENCES

Time: Approx. 60 minutes

Objective: To introduce students to types of alarm patterns and their usefulness, and to suggest approaches for analyzing data.

Activity

References and Notes

1. DEFINITION OF DATA ANALYSIS

- Emphasize the view of discovering patterns that allow deployment to be improved
- Indicate that variation is expected, otherwise play it down
- Give example of a nonuseful pattern (Thursday is Tacoma, Washington's slowest day)
- Say that usual computer reports are not sufficient for data analysis, although possibly useful for management purposes

COMMON PATTERNS—THEIR RELIABILITY AND USE

- Let the audience help identify and classify them
- Do geography, type of incident, trend, season, day of week, time of day (optional--weather)
- Structural fires may have different patterns than false alarms; patterns of total alarms, structures, and false alarms will all be illustrated

- 3. HAZARD REGIONS
 (Also called demand regions)
 - Indicate need for dividing city into regions
 - Characterize a good definition
 - -- Start with a description of an ideal (fictional) region: uniformity of land use, alarm patterns, structures, etc.
 - -- Less variation within regions than between regions
 - -- End with the notion that the division into regions is successful if no one feels they should ask, "But are response times in the north part of the region higher or lower than in the south?"
 - -- May be convenient to have each hazard region be a set of company administrative areas or census tracts
 - Display alarms per capita and alarms per square mile and indicate their use
 - -- Trend prediction (if population trend can be predicted)
 - -- Allocation model

4. TIME-OF-DAY PATTERN

To illustrate a common pattern and statistical variability around it

- Display hourly total alarms over a period of several days. Indicate
 - -- consistency (evening always higher than late night)
 - -- variation around it
- Optional: July 4 vs. average vs. slow day
- Offer weather as a partial explanation of the variation
- Ask audience for possible uses--different number of men on duty at different hours, etc. Emphasize possible--they may not be desirable uses.



5. TREND AND SEASON

To illustrate superposition of patterns and how to untangle effects

- Display a short pattern, indicate inadequacy (total alarms, 34 months, Tacoma)
- Display a long pattern (false alarms, 60 months, New York City)
- Display detrended seasonal pattern
 - -- Indicate that slide shows <u>ratio</u> of alarms in a week to the trend
 - -- Could calculate the <u>difference</u> between alarms in a week and the trend as alternative
 - -- Stress the economy of the ratio descrip-
- Ask audience for possible uses

6. PATTERN "SIZE"

To indicate the possible usefulness of a pattern

- Divide previous patterns into 4 seasons and 4 six-hour periods (divide the year and the day into the same number of parts, in this case, 4)
- Calculate ratio of peak period to low period for each of the two patterns
- Compare the ratios. A big ratio indicates a pattern possibly worth trying to take advantage of
- Check statistical significance of large ratios
 - -- if ratio is large, but the data do not establish significance, gather more data
 - -- [if a small ratio is statistically significant, there may nonetheless be no policy value to the pattern]

7. GEOGRAPHICAL PATTERNS-LARGE AREAS

- Illustrate approximate-constancy of false alarms as a fraction of box alarms throughout New York City
- Stress the economy of this constancy, as it relates to false alarms per capita or per square mile, which vary even more than total alarms illustrated in Figures DF-3, DF-4

8. GEOGRAPHICAL PATTERNS--SMALL AREAS

Purposes: To indicate that part of the data should be reserved, and used for judging the reliability of any patterns discovered and to show a pattern that was discovered because deployment models suggested that if it existed, it would be useful

- Illustrate box-to-box variability in proportion of all alarms that are false
 - -- Not inconsistent with large area pattern, since no area is exclusively high or low in regard to percent false
 - -- Indicate the pattern is useful only if it is consistent from year to year

8. GEOGRAPHICAL PATTERNS -- SMALL AREAS (continued)

- Illustrate the finding and checking of the pattern of box-to-box variations in proportion of box alarms that are serious
 - -- These are year-round numbers
 - -- Box 2277 is among the lowest in predicted percent structural, box 2209 is among the highest. But they are not outliers
 - -- Indicate how risk classes were defined
 - -- Stress the role of reserving some of the data
 - -- Deployment models shifted attention to serious fires rather than total alarms
 - -- Seriousness needs careful definition, specific to the city. Depends on the purpose: Maybe all structural, maybe only those that work several companies, etc.
 - -- The pattern is useful when the alarm rate is high
- Indicate that season and time of day affect the pattern'
 - -- Relatively more false alarms in summer (and evening), structural fires almost constant
 - -- Serious fires are a larger proportion of structural late at night, in winter (fewer food-on-stove-type incidents)
 - -- Illustrate the size of the overall effect: risky boxes, late night, winter vs. nonrisky, summer evening
 - -- Optional: Illustrate economy and good fit of separate, multiplicative seasonal and time-of-day factors

Activity

References and Notes

9. Optional: THE POISSON PROCESS

Purpose: To introduce probabilistic notions, and suggest that mathematical models "understand" that sometimes the situation is much worse than average

Suggest its nature and reasonableness. Take a finite set of "similar" hours and a fixed total number of alarms, and discuss distributing the alarms at random. ("Throwing darts at the line")

- Example--Jersey City. Very small seasonal effect (similar to Tacoma). In 1973, 1480 alarms in 2-4 p.m. period, which is 365 x 2 = 730 hours. In that period, 1480/730 = 2 alarms per hour
- Consequence—if average number of alarms is 2 per hour between 2 and 4 p.m. in Jersey City, then

14% of such hours will have no alarms
27% of such hours will have 1 alarm
27% of such hours will have 2 alarms
18% of such hours will have 3 alarms
9% of such hours will have 4 alarms
5% of such hours will have 5 or more alarms

- Discuss what "x% of hours" means
- 2 alarms (the average) is not even more likely to occur than 1 alarm
- 10. Optional: FIRE COMPANY WORK TIMES
 - Discuss company work times by alarm type
 - Indicate that averages may be sufficient

11. RECAP Ø

Go through the data analysis process

- Divide the data
 - -- Find patterns on one part
 - -- Verify them on the other
- Plot and cross-tabulate
- Construct hazard regions
- Patterns should be
 - -- useful
 - -- simple

DATA ANALYSIS

What is it? Discovering and characterizing the variations and consistencies in incidents:

- Finding patterns--in time, season, location
- Variations from the patterns are often usefully treated as random, and describable by the Poisson process

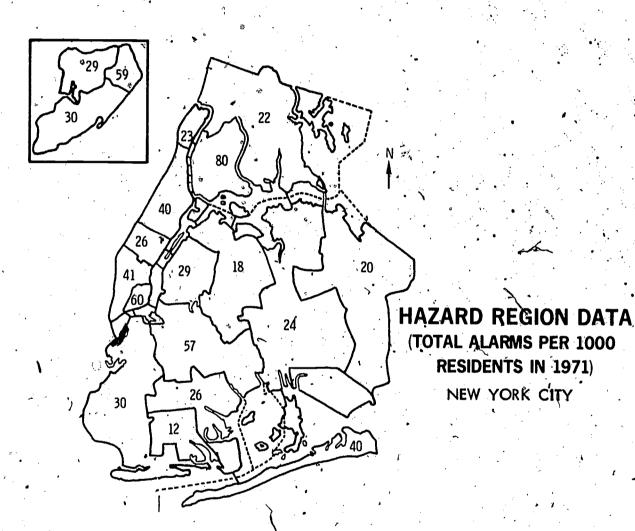
Why do it? To improve the deployment of fire-fighting resources.

Fig. DF-1

COMMON ALARM PATTERNS

Pattern	Della della		, L
ractern	Reliable	Useful For	How Much
Geographical	Relatively	Allocation	Very
Breakdown by Type	Yes	Allocation, Ini- tial Dispatch	Some
Trend	Maybe	Allocation	Some
Season	Yes	Allocation '	Slight
Day of Week	Yes	3	
Time of Day	Yes	Initial Dispatch, Allocation	Very if alarm rate is high, slight otherwise
Weather		Short term allocation, for brush fires, etc.	Some

Fig. DF-2



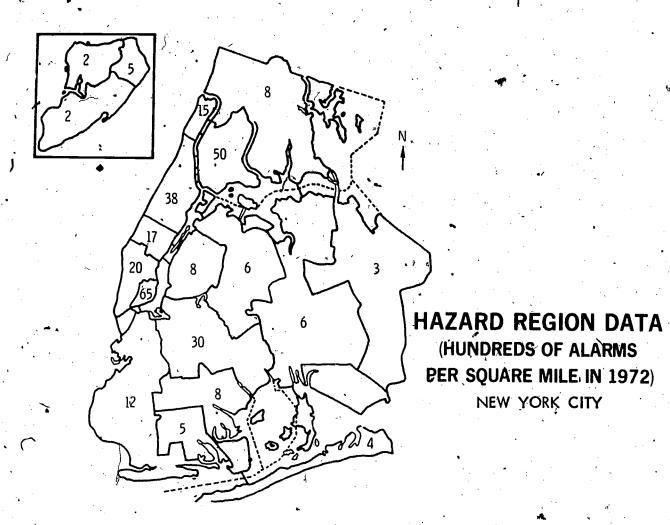
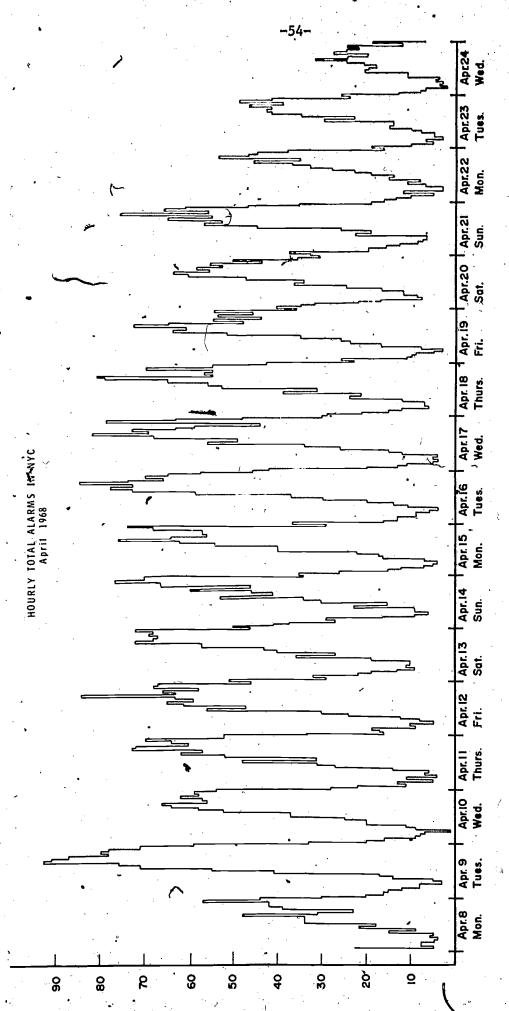


Fig. DF-4



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ig. DF-5

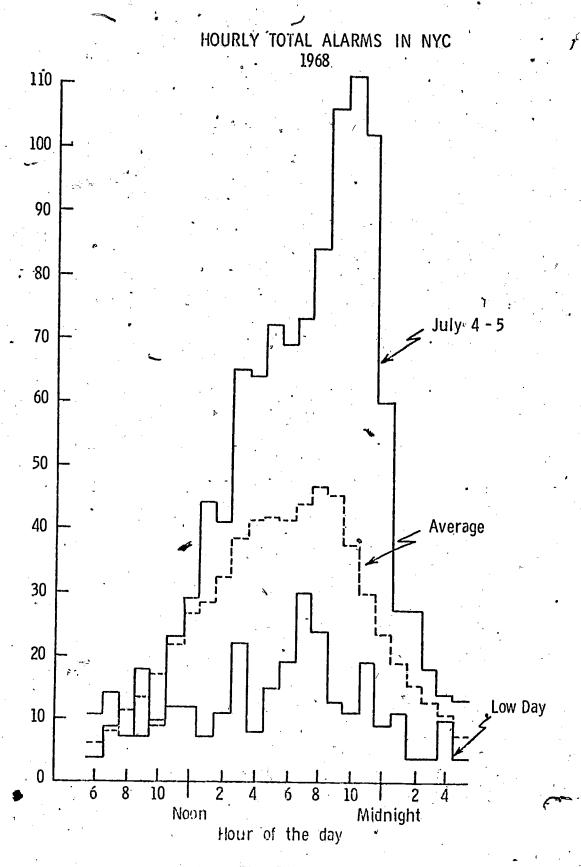


Fig. DF-6

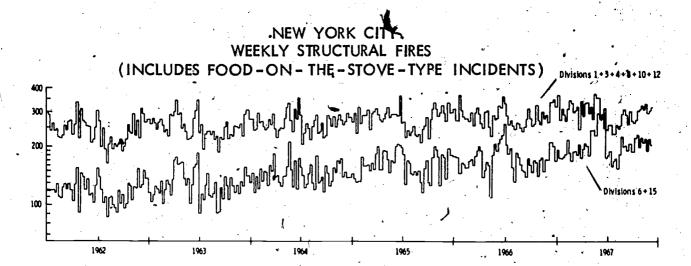


Fig. DF-7

HOURLY TOTAL ALARMS IN NYC.

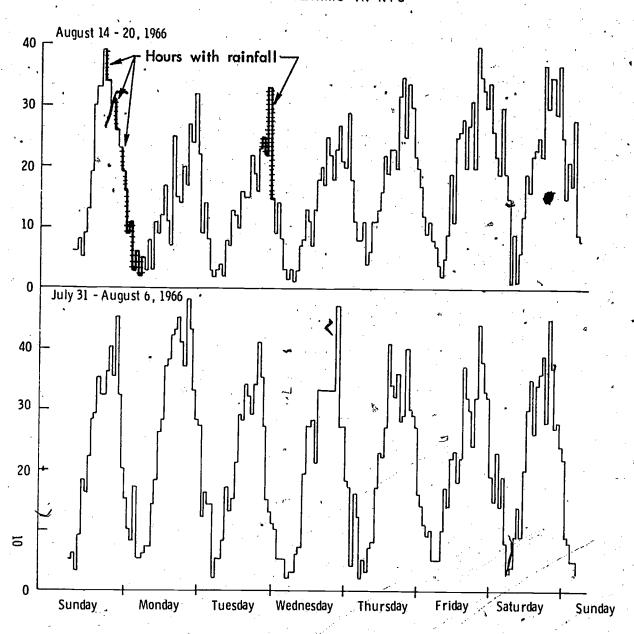


Fig. DF-8

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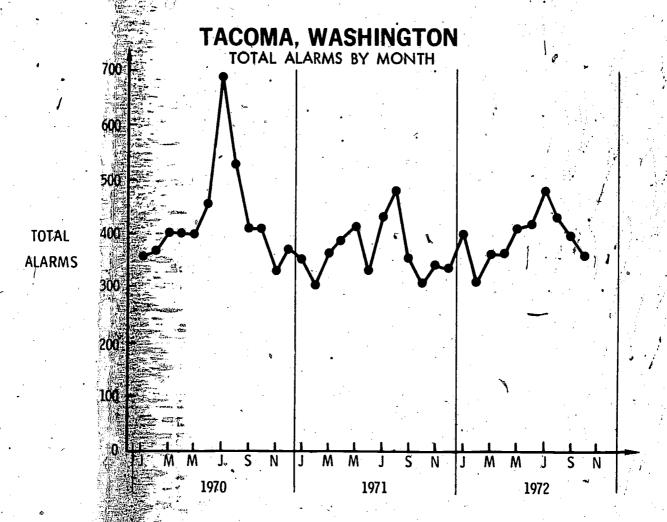


Fig. DF-9

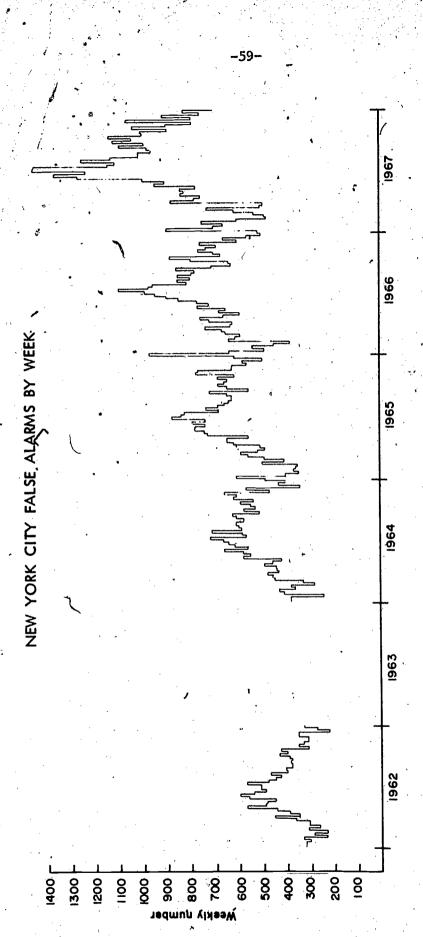
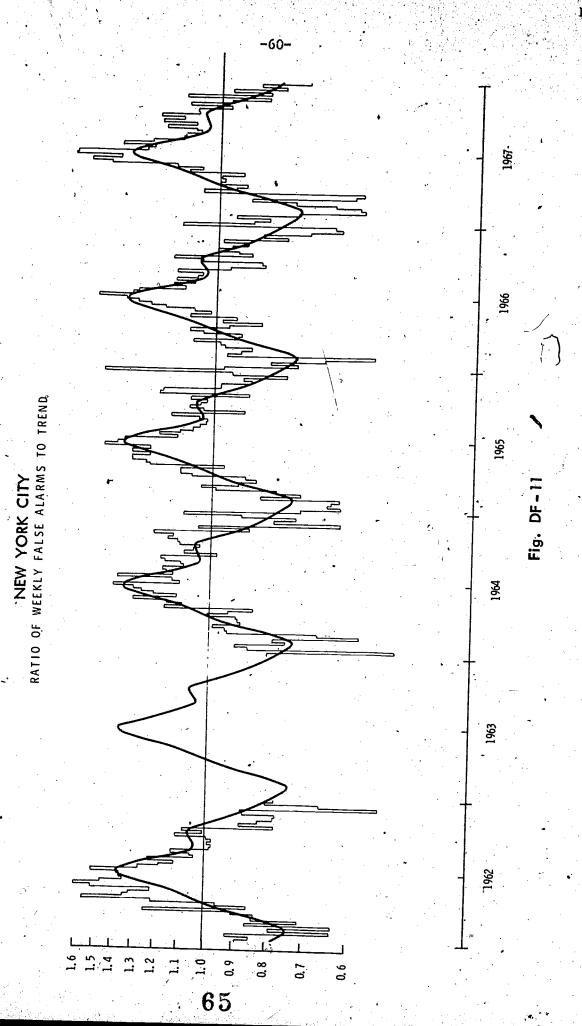


Fig. DF-10



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TACOMA, WASHINGTON (TIME OF DAY PATTERN)

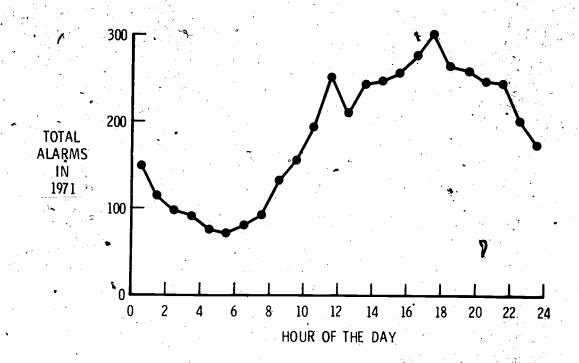


Fig. DF-12



MEASURING THE SIZE OF A PATTERN

Season	al	Pattern:	Tacoma

l.	Period	Alarms in 1971		
Winter:	January, February, December	1002		
Spring:	March-May	1181		
Summer:	June-August	1248		
Fall:	September-November	1009		

High to low ratio is 1.25 = 1248/1002

			•	
T.3	. ~ ~	~		400
IIMA	-AT 113	V . Uatte		1 3 6 6 M 3
	*U1. V0	y Patte		Tacoma

Time	Alarms in 1971		
0200 - 0800	497		
0800 - 1400	1195		
1400 - 2000	1 [°] 409°		
2000 - 0200	1139		

High to low ratio is
2.8 = 1409/497

Fig. DF-13

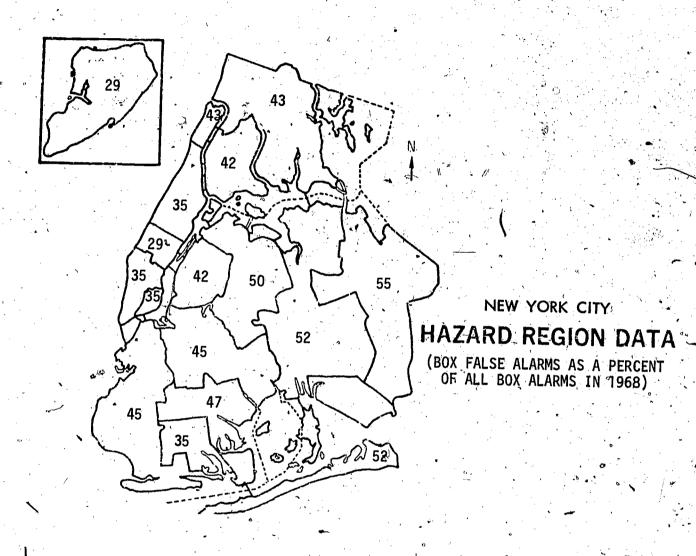
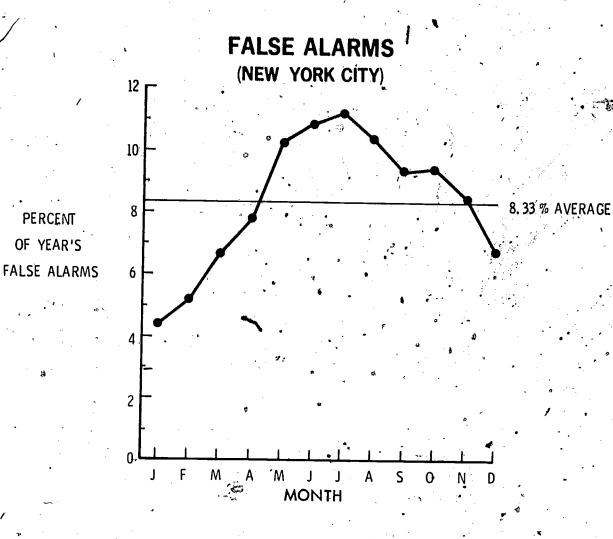


Fig. DF-14

STRUCTURAL FIRE PREDICTIONS FOR TWO ALARM BOXES

Pueru	Predicted	Actual 1970 Data		
Bronx ₩box number	percent structural ('67 - '69 data)	Ala	ırılıs	Structural fires
2277	0.4	9	6	0
2209	31.8	9	14	25

Fig. DF-15



PERCENT OF YEAR'S

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Fig. DF-16

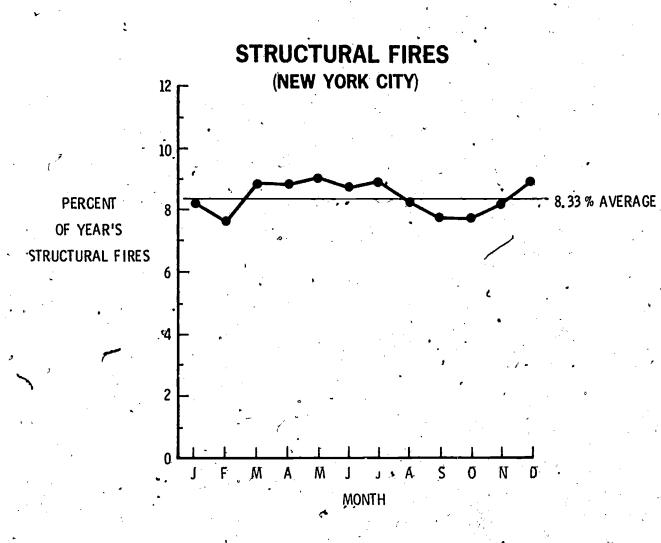


Fig. DF-17

SEASONAL AND TIME OF DAY EFFECTS IN SERIOUS FIRES AS A PROPORTION OF STRUCTURAL

(NEW YORK CITY)

PERCENT OF ALL STRUCTURAL FIRES IN
1970 REPORTED IN THE INDICATED WAY THAT
WORKED MORE THAN ONE LADDER

	· .	<u>0-8</u>	8-16	16-24
BCX	WINTER	33.8%	28.6%	25.0%
	'SPRING-FALL	32.8	25.5	23:1
9	SUMMER	32.6	22.0	22.2
<u>PHONE</u>	WINTER	20.9	15.3	11.7
	SPRING-FALL	16.0	11.9	10.3
	.SUMMER	16.8	11.5	10.0

Fig. DF-18

PROPORTION OF BOX-REPORTED ALARMS THAT WERE SERIOUS FIRES, BY SEASON AND TIME OF DAY, 1964-1970 BRONX DATA

TIME OF DAY	WINTER PROPURTION,	SPRING/FALL PROPORTION	SUMMER PROPORTION	OVER WHOLE YEAR PROPORTYON	•
· 0-8 a(m.	0.057	0.042	0.026	0.038	1.7
8 a.m. – 4 p.m.	0.044	0.025	0.018	0.027	1.2
4 p.m. – midnight	0.025~	0.015	0.011	0.016	.7
Over Whole Day	0.031	0.021	0.016	0.022	

1.4

1.0

.7

Fig. DF-19

SEPARATING SEASONAL AND TIME-OF-DAY EFFECTS: SERIOUS FIRES

(Relative Seriousness: Persent of box alarms in indicated period that were serious : percent of all box alarms that were serious
0 - 8	1.7 = 3.8/2.2
8 - 16	1.2 = 2.7/2.2
16 - 24 ¹	.7 = 1.6/2.2
Winter	1.4 = 3.1/2.2
Spring, Fall	1.0 = 2.1/2.2
Summer	.7 = 1.6/2.2

	Actual	Percent S	erious	and Ti	Serious i me-of-Day Multiplic	Effects
	Winter	Spring, Fall	Summer	Winter	Spring, Fall	Summer
0 - 8	5.7	4.2	2.6	5.4*	3.6	2.8
8 - 16	4.4	2.5	1.8	3.8	2.5	2.0
16 - 24	2.5	1.5	1.1	2.3	1.5	.1.2

Example: 5.4% = 2.2% x 1.7[0 - 8] x 1.4[winter].

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Fig. DF-20

SUMMARY

- DIVIDE THE AVAILABLE DATA IN TWO PARTS
 - Use one for finding patterns
 - Reserve the other for verifying them
- PLOT THE DATA
- MAKE CROSS-TABULATIONS
 - ☐ Time of day and season ·
 - Proportion serious and region
- DIVIDE CITY INTO HOMOGENEOUS REGIONS BY
 - Land use
 - Alarm data
- LOOK FOR USEFUL PATTERNS
- TRY FOR SIMPLE, ECONOMICAL MODELS
 - TEST IF THE PATTERNS YOU'VE DISCOVERED ARE CONSISTENT, BY SEEING WHETHER THE RESERVED DATA FITS THEM

Fig. DF-21

LECTURE AE

ALLOCATION OF FIRE COMPANIES

Time: Approx. 60 minutes

Equipment: Computer terminal with telephone coupler (if allocation model

is being demonstrated)

Objective: To introduce one approach to analyzing fire company location

problems, and to explain the first step in such an analysis.

Activity

References and Notes

1. INTRODUCTION

- What makes it necessary to think about changing the number and location of fire stations?
 - -- Urban renewal
 - -- Neighborhood changes
 - -- Aging of firehouses
 - -- Changes in fire department budget levels
- Must find answers to two questions:
 - (1) How many fire companies are needed?
 - (2) Where should the companies be located?
- In regard to question 1: Why not cost/ benefit approach?
 - -- Don't know relationship between dollar . losses and travel times
 - -- Requires that a monetary value be placed on human life ,
 - -- Fire department is only part of the municipal budget. This approach would have to be applied to all agencies
- Rractical approach
 - (1) Assume a given budget level--this determines the number of fire companies
 - (2) Find the best way to allocate the companies to regions of the city
 - (3) Find specific sites for each company

2. ALLOCATION OBJECTIVES

- to other wal examples illustrating conflict.
 - City as 2 regions of the same size with any different alarm rates
- Al Ocate to minimize average travel time to alarms
 - High travel times in low incidence region
 - Ignores fire hazards
- Allocate to equalize coverage.
 - Companies in high incidence region will have high workloads \
 - -- Higher travel times to most alarms

• Conclusion: Neither of these allocations is good



2. ALLOCATION OBJECTIVES (continued)

- Solution: Use compromise allocation
 - -- The Parametric Allocation Model determines allocations for a range of compromises between "minimum average travel time" and "equal coverage"

3. USEFULNESS OF PARAMETRIC ALLOCATION MODEL

- Provides general picture of number of fire companies to allocate to different parts of the city
- Quick and inexpensive to use
- Requires very little data
- Various uses
 - -- Compare travel times and workload among regions
 - -- Determine reallocations of current resources
 - -- Determine regions to gain or lose companies if level of resources is to be changed

4. DATA NEEDED FOR EACH REGION

- City must be divided into hazard regions.
- Travel times will be weighted in each region. Weight indicates "importance" of travel time

- 5. WHÁT IS "EFFECTIVE" ALARM RATE?
 - Each type of alarm is counted in proportion to its seriousness
 - If all alarms are considered of equal seriousness, then the effective alarm rate is the same as total alarm rate
 - Can count only structural fires, or only fires that required more than a certain amount of work to extinguish (e.g., one company-hour)
 - Can weight each type of alarm by the number of company-hours needed to extinguish it.
 Then

6. WHAT IS THE HAZARD FACTOR?

- Subjective measure of the relative danger of a fire (potential for loss of life or property if a fire does occur)
- Suppose the most hazardous region is given a hazard rating of 1.0. Then a region with hazard rating 0.9 is less hazardous to the extent that travel times could be about 10 percent higher in this region, and the department would be willing to say equal quality fire protection is being provided in the two regions
- This is a subjective management input.
 When using the model, can try several
 different ways of defining hazards and see
 what the consequences are

7. CITYWIDE DATA NEEDED

 "Constant" and "power" in the relationship between travel time and number of companies:

8. DECISION VARIABLES

- Total number of companies to be allocated to the city
- Tradeoff parameter beta (β). This accomplishes the compromise between "minimum average travel time" and "equal coverage".
 - or $\beta = 1$, program shows an allocation that minimizes the average weighted travel time
 - -- For large β (50 or more), program shows an allocation that will make the weighted response time equal in all regions
 - -- [For small β, workload is equalized]
- How does the department choose its desired value of β?
 - -- Try different values between 1 and 50. See what happens
 - -- β = .3 was found to be "good" in New York City
 - -- It often happens that all values of β indicate that certain hazard regions should lose companies as compared to the present arrangement, and others should gain companies. Such a conclusion is "robust," because any "reasonable" value of β leads to a qualitatively similar conclusion

Activity

References and Notes

9. OUTPUT

- The number of companies to be located in each hazard region
- The average travel time in each region, given the number of companies allocated
- Citywide averages

10. MATHEMATICAL FORMULATION (Optional)

M = total number of companies to be allocated in the city

n = number of companies allocated in region i

 λ_{i} = effective alarm rate in region i

 h_i^* = hazard rating for region i

 $\tau_i(n_i)$ = average travel time in region i; given n_i companies there

$$c \left(\frac{A_{i}}{n_{i} - b_{i}} \right)^{\alpha}$$

c and α are the travel-time "constant" and "power"

A, = area of region i

b_i = average number of companies busy in region i

Optimization problem:

• Minimize $\sum_{i} \lambda_{i} (h_{i} \tau_{i} (n_{i}))^{\beta}$

Subject to $\sum_{i} n_{i} = M$

• β is the tradeoff parameter

Activity

References and Notes

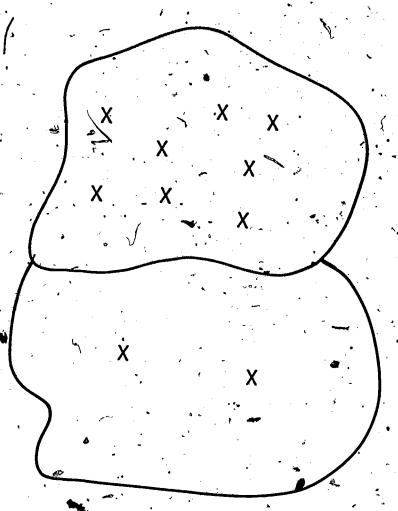
11. LEAD-IN TO DEMONSTRATION

- Jersey City will be chosen as an example
- Display map of city
- Discuss
 - -- definition of demand regions.
 - -- objective was to plan in terms of alarm rates to be expected in the future
- 12. DEMONSTRATION

Activity

12. DEMONSTRATION (continued)

- Describe "base case" situation
 - -- Discuss response times
 - .. Differences between regions
 - .. Citywide average, noting that it is weighted by regional alarm rates
 - .. Average and percentage busy indicate relative workloads
- Derive allocations for different values of the tradeoff parameter
 - -- Interpret fractional allocations
 - -- Point out that parameter = .25 produces good approximation of current allocation
- Find reallocation for parameter ₹ .25 based on 1983 alarm rates
- Allocations for different numbers of total companies
- [optional] Comparison of different specific allocations with the current situation



High demand

Low demand

Fig. AF-1

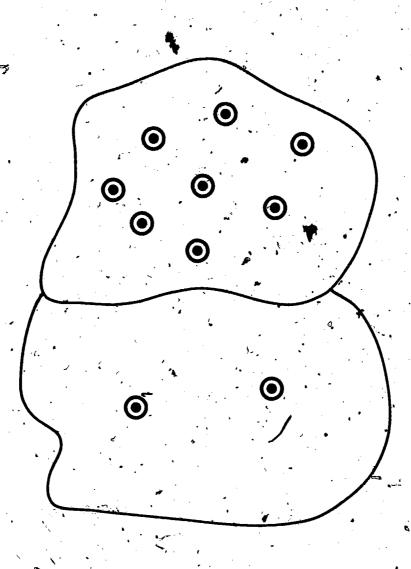


Fig. AF-2 — Minimum total response time to all fires

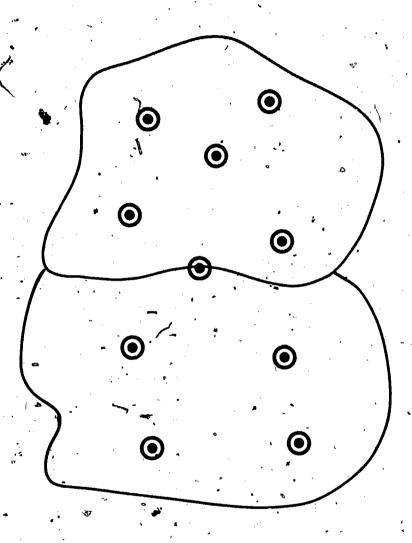


Fig. AF-3 — Equal coverage for both areas

ERIC "
FULL END PROVIDED TOVERING

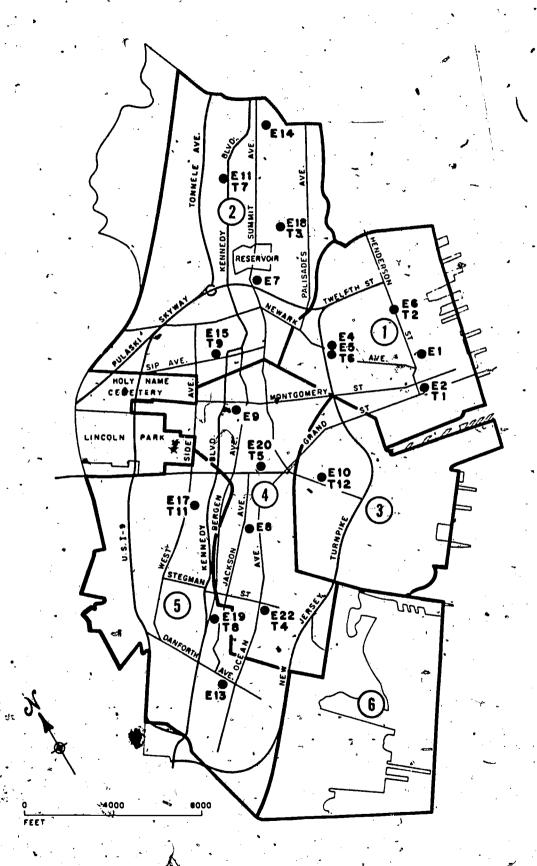


Fig. AF-4 — Map of demand regions and fire company locations

•			-83-			
Basic Basic Characteristics	Secondary downtown area, high-rise multiple dwellings,	Primary downtown area, semidense	Mainly industrial, some residences	. Dense residential area, small businesses	Less dense rest- dential, some findustry	<
nits Z	7.5	3.4	4.9	ئے۔ 2.	2.3	4.5
Vacant Units Number 2	936	1,050	245	1,390	474	4,095
Dwelling Z	14.6	39.3 ~	24.7	47.6	58.9	41.6
1-2 Family Dwelling Number 2	1,830	,11,965	• 954	12,651	10,806	38,206
Housing Units	12,512	30,447	3,857	26,589	718,389	91,744 \ 38,206
don . Mile nds)	J6	•				٠.
Population . per Sq.Mile (Thousands)	22.9	. 29.1	13.8	38,4	21.2	26.6
Population , 1990	34,876	. 82,060	11,721	76,019	54,937	259,613,
Area (Sq. Miles)	1.52	2.82	e 0.85	1.98	2.59 Le	9.76
Name	Down- town	Hudson Helghts	Lafayette 0.85 Liberty Harbor	Bergen .	West- side . Greenvill	•
Demand/ Region	٠ ا	·N	E	4.	' 'n	City-

Fig. AF-5 — Demand region demography

Total Structural Total Structural Total Structural Number 3,308 395 2,176 260 .0949 .0113 305 2,459 390 872 138 .0300 .0048 326 3,366 840 1,700 424 .0442 .0111 698 1,599 279 617 108 .0291 .0051 244 1,570 2,017 1,185 207 .0446 .0078 1,683	and the state of t	•				. ;	*		Fires in Residences	dences	
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838 113 986 133 ,0715 ,0096 110 79.1 .0094 3,366 840 1,700 424 ,0442 ,0111 698 89,0 ,0092 1,599 279 617 108 ,0291 ,0051 244 84.1 ,0044 11,570 2,617 1,185 297 ,0446 ,0078 1,683 83.2 ,0065	, , ,	2,459	330	872	138	.0300	.0048	326	,81.5	.0040	* *
3,366. • 840 1,700 424 .0442 .0111 698 89.0 .0092 1,599 279 617 108 .0291 .0051 244 84.1 .0044 11,570 2,017 1,185 297 .0446 .0078 1,683 83.2 .0065		838	113	986	133	,0715	9600	110	79.1	7600.	-8
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11,570 2,017 1,185 207 .0446 .0078 1,683 83.2	سور	1,599	672	617	108	.0291	.0051	244	84.1	.0044	
	City-a	11,570	2,017	1,185	293	.0446	.0078	1,683	83.2	.0065	

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^aExcluding Region 6.

			Alarms per	Hour 4 p.m. to Midnight	
Region	Area Sq.Miles	. A11	False	Nonserious	Serious Structural
1	1.52	. 722	.403	.040	.015
2	2.82	1.444	.137	.047	.009
3	0.85	.202	r y ,088	.027	.003
4 -	1.98	.630	.290	.094	.013
5	2.59	330	.127	.039	.007 ′

Fig. AF-7 — 1972-1973 alarm rates

LECTURE LF

LOCATING FIRE STATIONS

Time: \Approx. 70 minutes including demonstration of program

Objective: To discuss the general problem of locating fire stations, and

to compare two specific approaches to the problem.

Equipment: Portable terminal with acoustic coupler for demonstration.

Activity

References and Notes

1. INTRODUCTION

- Topic is evaluation of current fire station sites, and planning which ones to close and/or where to put new ones
- Discussion may be followed by demonstration

- NYCRI treats this question in two stages:
 - (a) Obtain ideas and insights from the allocation model
 - (b) Use a descriptive model to evaluate specific configurations
- Other approaches perform analyses in one stage

2. GENERAL APPROACHES

- Minimize sum of fire department costs and expected fire losses (including fatalities). A worthy objective; some studies have been done along these lines in Great Britain.
 Problem: No generally useful way has been found to estimate fire Losses from response times
- Minimum average response time. May not be a good idea, as tends to indicate greatest need for stations in high-alarm areas while ignoring low-fire areas. When choosing among otherwise equally satisfactory configurations, may be useful
- Coverage. Each potential fire site should be within reasonable distance (or time) of a fire station. Easy to apply, but too simplistic and based on subjective judgments

3. MEASURES FOR EVALUATING ALTERNATIVES

- Use surrogate measures for fire loss. Give decisionmaker information on how a given configuration will perform using several measures of fire protection
 - -- One configuration will probably not dominate another configuration on all measures
 - -- Administrators must subjectively balance the measures; they will also add judgments concerning hazards and political constraints

Primary considerations:

- -- Travel times. Make sure that each potential fire site is within a reasonable time from a firehouse
- -- Hazards. Want to single out some potential fires as more important than others for achieving rapid response
- -- Average regional travel times. Useful for evaluating relative fire protection in different areas of a city '.
- Fire company workload. May want to balance workload over companies. Most important when workload is high

4. GENERAL DATA REQUIREMENTS

- Geographic division
 - -- Divide city into small subareas, as small as the area covered by a single alarm box (real or phantom), perhaps four or five times this size
 - -- Assume all demand for fire service in the subarea arises at one point.

 Estimates of travel times to any point in the subarea will be the same as to that point
 - -- Find historical (or expected future) fire incidence in each subarea
- Identify points at which construction of a firehouse is feasible. Failure to do this will lead to consideration of options that are infeasible and impractical
- Identify those subareas having special hazards
 - -- Analysis will pay special attention to these subareas
- Must have some method for estimating travel time from any firehouse (existing or proposed) to any subarea
- Obtain estimates of capital construction costs; and current costs of depreciation, operation, and maintenance of existing stations

5. ESTIMATING TRAVEL TIMES

- Method 1. Developed by Public Technology, Inc. (PTI)
 - -- Describe street network of city in computer-readable form. Street intersections are identified as nodes in the network, streets are represented as connecting links between nodes. Not necessary to consider all streets; main arterials are adequate
 - Estimate average travel speed on each link. This may be done from experienced guesses, traffic surveys, experimental trips by fire companies, or from previously collected response-time data
 - -- Estimate time to travel over each link using speed and distance
 - -- Subareas are called <u>fire demand zones</u>; the point representing all the properties in a fire demand zone is called a <u>focal point</u>
 - -- Every potential or existing firehouse and every focal point is referenced to a node of the street network
 - -- The travel time from a firehouse to a focal point is estimated by finding the set of connecting arcs that form the minimum time path

5. ESTIMATING TRAVEL TIMES (continued)

Method 2. Developed by NYCRI

-- Run a "travel-time experiment" showing origin and destination for each response by fire companies, odomèter distance traveled, and the time required for the response

Data can be collected in the units, or at the dispatch center if units radio in when departing and arriving

- -- Fit a smooth curve to data showing actual travel time versus distance
 - (a) In some cities, straight line with positive intercept provides best fit
 - (b) In most, a blend between straight line and a square-root curve is best
 - (c) Curve may vary in different parts of the city and at different times of day. But experience has shown that neither effect is large, and that approximately the same curve can be used for any city at all times of day
- -- Determine x-y coordinates of existing and potential fire station sites on a grid map of the city. Determine x-y coordinates for the subareas in which incidence will be estimated
- -- Estimate distance from stations to subareas in some way, e.g., as sum of x and y distance traveled (rightangle distance) or a modification of straight-line (Euclidean) dis-/ tance
- -- Parameters of fit curve are used to estimate fravel time between any two points, using estimated distance

5. ESTIMATING TRAVEL TIMES (continued)

- Relative advantages of Method 1
 - -- If road network has already been developed (by traffic department, for example), this is fastest way to proceed
 - -- Road network, when developed, may be useful to-other city agencies
 - -- Barriers to travel (hills, railroad tracks, rivers, airports) are automatically taken into account
 - -- Effects of changes in structure of road network can be analyzed in advance (new interstate highway, new bridge, closing of existing bridge)
 - -- Irregularly shaped areas (peninsulas, or cities with holes in them, for example) are automatically handled accurately
 - Fire officials may feel more comfortable with a method that actually imitates the path followed by fire companies, whether or not method is actually accurate

Relative advantages of Method 2

- -- Elaborate data base and computer program not needed; lower cost for analysis
- -- If road network has not already been developed, this method is significantly faster
- -- If travel times have already been collected (e.g., by UFIRS), this method is very fast
- -- Parameters for fit curve have been so close to the same values for many cities that it may be possible to proceed without collecting any travel-time data
- -- Method, has been validated against actual travel-time data and has been found accurate enough for site selection
- In case of irregularly shaped areas, ad hoc adjustments to method are easily accomplished
- The travel-time estimates produced by Methods
 1 and 2 have never been directly compared

Activity

References and Notes

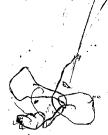
- 6. GENERATING POSSIBLE SITE CONFIGURATIONS TO EVALUATE
 - Method 1. Developed by PTI
 - -- Still in developmental stage; requires PTT1's assistance .
 - A maximum travel time is specified for each focal point
 - -- A set of existing and potential firehouse sites is specified
 - -- A computer program determines whether any collection of potential station locations can meet the travel-time requirements. If so, it prints out a solution that requires the smallest possible number of sites

Advantages of Method 1

- -- Procedure is very well defined. Documentation provides step-by-step guide to the tasks that must be carried out to use the program and provides forms for collecting and organizing required data
- -- Method is potentially very powerful.

 If maximum travel times, can be determined, can generate, among the large number of possible configurations, the one that meets all requirements with the fewest number of fire companies

- .6. GENERATING POSSIBLE SITE CONFIGURATIONS TO EVALUATE (continued)
 - Difficulties with Method 1
 - -- No accepted standards for travel-time constraints
 - -- Once fire officials agree on a set of requirements, the resulting number of stations needed may exceed any reasonably foreseeable budget. Constraints must then be relaxed
 - -- Travel-time requirements corresponding to existing number of stations may be hard to determine
 - -- PTI program may fail to operate, leading to no solution
 - -- Recommended station configuration may involve moving many stations, while another equally acceptable configuration (not known) involves moving fewer stations. Other acceptable solutions (also not known) may be preferable in regard to average travel time or other characteristics
 - Method 1M. Modification developed by University of Colorado:
 - -- Same approach as PTI's
 - -- Computer program finds a configuration that meets the requirements and has the minimal number of stations. This configuration includes the largest possible number of existing station sites



- 6. GENERATING POSSIBLE SITE CONFIGURATIONS TO EVALUATE (continued)
 - Method 2. Used by NYCRI
 - -- Use allocation model to determine demand regions needing more or fewer stations
 - -- From a map of the city showing existing and potential sites, select several possible configurations that approximately match desired allocations by region
 - -- Use siting model (to be described next) to compare the trial configurations.

 Develop improved trial configurations by looking at the results for others
 - Virtues and difficulties with Method 2
 - -- Easy to use; fast to implement
 - -- Process of choosing configurations requires judgment and "map sense"
 - -- May overlook good configurations

7. EVALUATING TRIAL CONFIGURATIONS

NYCRI has a "Firehouse Site Evaluation Model" that calculates a set of descriptive measures for any pair of configurations. Other researchers have similar computer programs, differing only in details

- (a) Calculations are based on a number of assumptions
 - All units are always available their firehouses to respond to an incoming alarm (reasonable assumption for most cities)
 - The closest units are always dispatched to an alarm
 - Calculations are performed separately for each type of fire-fighting equipment
 - Travel distances are estimated by right-angle or "modified" Euclidean distance
 - Travel times are estimated from empirically determined curve

- 7. EVALUATING TRIAL CONFIGURATIONS (continued)
 - (b) Performance measures'
 - For each demand region, citywide, identified target hazards, and/or region affected by change: average travel time and average travel distance
 - -- weighted by expected incidence and unweighted (each subarea given equal weight)
 - -- first-due, second-due, third-due, etc.
 - Frequency distribution of travel times for each demand region and citywide
 - For each company's first-due response area: average travel time, maximum travel time (to farthest subarea), workload (incidents/year), and a list of the subareas (alarm boxes) that constitute the response area (this information is also available for second-due areas, etc.)
 - Travel time and travel distance to each subarea (alarm box) identified as a target hazard
 - A list of the subareas whose first-due travel times are improved by the change, and those whose first-due travel times are worse, plus the alarm incidence at each troup of boxes and average travel times within each group, both before and after the change

Activity

References and Notes

- DATA REQUIREMENTS FOR FIREHOUSE SITE EVALUATION (Aside from general data requirements described
 - earlier)
 - List of subareas containing target hazards
 - Purpose: to have program specifically indicate the travel times to these sub-
 - Effect of changes in travel times to these subareas is important
 - (x-y) coordinates for every subarea, existing station, and potential station
 - A list of subareas included in each company's current response areas
 - Parameters of the curve relating travel time to travel distance

9. DEMONSTRATION OF MODEL

- Be sure to make some change in station locations before running program. Otherwise the "old" and "new" columns will be the same, and there will be no "affected region"
- Preferably, the changes should not be elaborate; the point is not to show what the biggest possible performance change would be in one city. Suitable tests are:
 - -- Trenton engines

M E3-8431

M E1-2232

M E8-2432

0 C=(E)

-- Trenton ladders

M L1-2232 '

O C=(L)

or

M L1-2432

0 C=(L)

Activity

References and Notes.

9. DEMONSTRATION OF MODEL (continued)

Command language

(E can be replaced by L)

M Enn-mmmm

Move engine nn to subarea or box mmmm [e.g., M E10-2104]

D Enn

Delete engine nn [e.g., A E12-3510]

A E-mmmm

Add an engine at box mmmm

ς*

Clear stack of commands

Cn

Clear last n commands

0 C=(E,L); D=1 or n; L=Y or N;

W=S or A; R=(C,D,A,T)

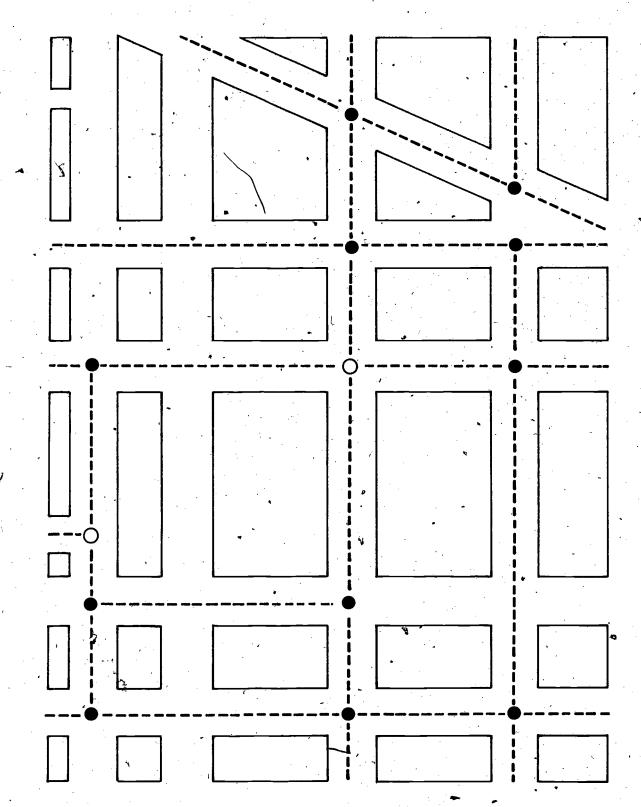
(all on one line; start with letter 0; defaults are underlined; use parentheses as shown)

- C company type: engines or ladders or both
- D response level: up to nth-due
- L box listings, Yes or No
- W weight by structural (S) or all alarms (A)
- R which regions to produce output for
 - C by Company
 - D by Demand region
 - A for Affected region
 - T Target hazards

F

Exit from program

- Siting model prints results side-by-side for "current" and "proposed" configurations
 - Facilities comparisons



Legend: Circles represent nodes at street intersections. Not all streets are represented in the network.

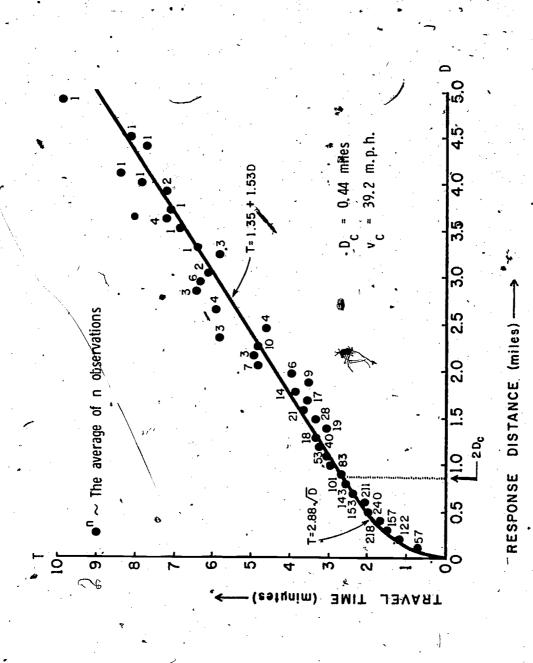
> Fig. LF-1 — Street network concept: nodes and links

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Fig. LF-2—Sample data form for travel – time experiment

3





-104-

Fig. LF-3 — Graph of travel time versus response distance for New York City

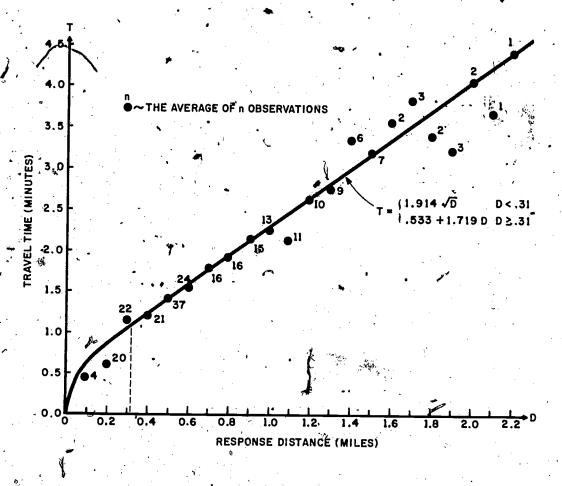


Fig. LF-4—Graph of travel time versus response distance for Trenton, New Jersey

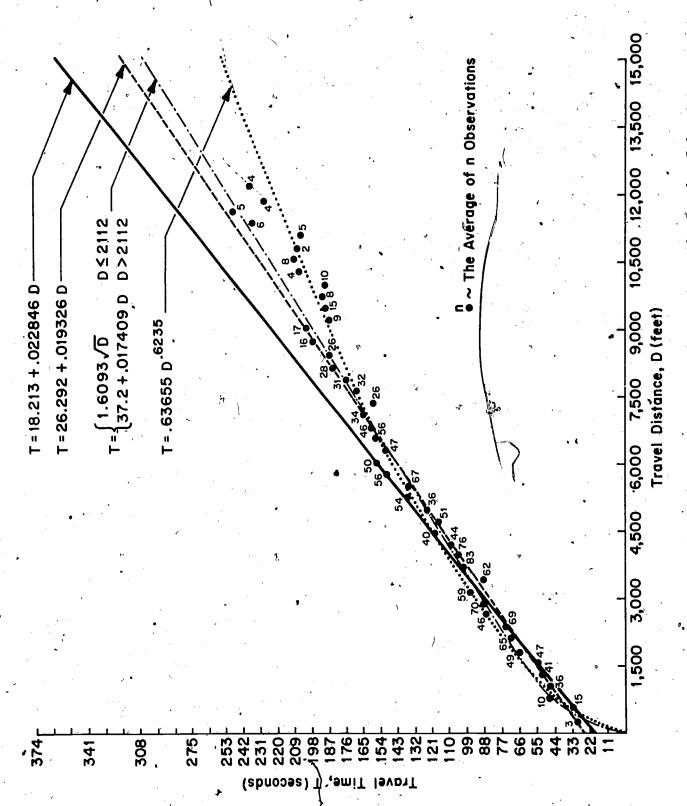


Fig. LF-5 - Graph of travel time versus response distance for Denver, Colorado

LECTURÉ SF

SIMULATION

FOR FIRE SERVICE AUDIENCES

Time: Approx. 50 minutes

Objective: To describe what a simulation model does, what kinds of questions

it can answer, when to use it, and what resources are needed to

use it.

Activity

References and Notes

1. DEFINITION

Follow each incident step-by-step:

From occurrence

- -- to report to fire department
- -- to dispatch of companies
- -- to their arrival at scene and work there
- -- to their return to availability
- Do this for a large number of incidents
 - -- 'actual incidents, or
 - -- imaginary incidents generated by the computer to match average statistics for alarm rates, etc.
- Viewpoint of an "all-knowing" dispatcher who keeps track of the location of all incidents and companies at all times, but is <u>not</u> concerned with fire-fighting tactics at the scene
- Computer collects statistics on response times, coverage, workloads

References and Notes

2. WHY SIMULATE?

- Accuracy compared to other models (at a price)
 - -- Removes approximations present in every simple model
 - -- Accounts for interrelationship among policies that can be individually studied with circle models.
 - studied with simple models
- Safety as opposed to real-world test
 - -- No operational or capital investment
 - -- No lives or property risked
 - The model can imagine that alarm rates "stay the same" after policy changes, but in the real world alarm rates will change

DRAWBACKS

- Simulation is expensive to run on the computer •
- Extensive data collection needed
- Simulation does not <u>suggest</u> any particular policy as desirable
- User must be technically skilled



- 4. WHEN TO USE A SIMULATION MODEL
 - 'Detailed comparison of complicated deployment policies
 - -- Number of companies on duty
 - -- Where located
 - -- Number of units dispatched to particular types of alarms
 - -- Which unit(s) dispatched
 - -- When units are relocated (moved up)
 - -- Which units are moved and where they go
 - Validation of simpler models, which are
 - -- Cheaper to use
 - -- Easier to interpret
 - Instill confidence in administrators that final recommendations will work as planned, especially under adverse circumstances

- 5. WHERE DO THE POLICIES COME FROM, TO TEST ON A SIMULATION MODEL?
 - Fire department administrators
 - Planning personnel
 - Simpler models

References and Notes Activity HOW DOES THE NYCRI SIMULATION MODEL WORK? t (C Discuss flow chart WHAT INFORMATION IS IN THE SIMULATION OUTPUT Response times Average and distribution By incident type By geography Company workloads -- Total -- By company Coverage

References and Notes

8. DATA AND RESOURCES NEEDED

- Geographical representation of the part of the city to be simulated
 - -- Incident locations
 - -- Company locations
- Parameters for estimating travel time of every response
- Work times at different types of incidents
- An input stream of incidents
 - -- Actual incidents from the past
 - -- or, incidents generated from detailed data about alarm rates by type and location
- Deployment policy
 - -- Detailed decision rules for dispatching and relocation
- Access to a SIMSCRIPT I.5 compiler
- Analysts who can modify the computer program and interpret the output

9. VALIDITY (Optional)

- Detail and structure have to be sufficient to support insights and conclusions
- What matters is the accuracy of <u>comparisons</u>, not faithfulness to the real world

Example: If all travel times are 10 percent high, this should not make any difference. (On the other hand, it would be easy to fix)

References and Notes

10. RECAP

- Computer's job: do the bookkeeping
- <u>User's job</u>
 - -- Build model: specify how the system works
 - -- Analyze data: specify the kind of data needed (and get it).
 - -- Select criteria: specify what is to be measured
 - -- Find alternatives: specify the policies to be tried out in the simulation

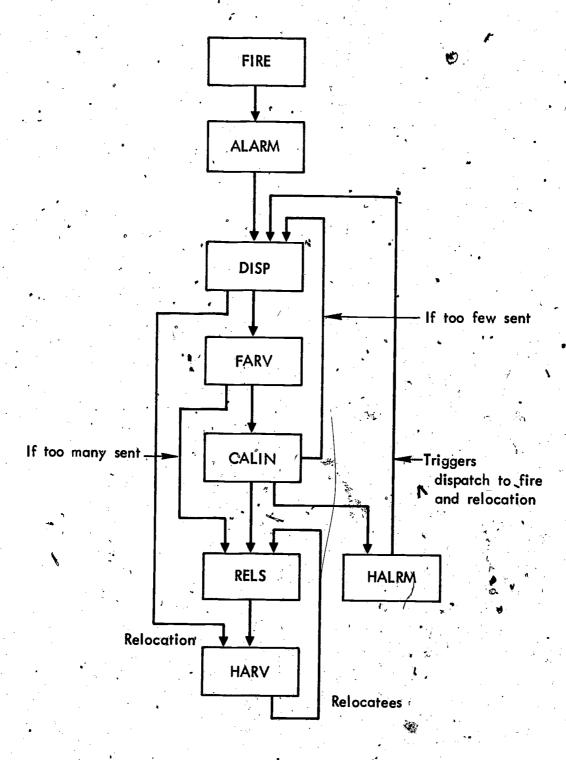


Fig. SF - 1

LECTURE MF.

RELOCATION OR MOVE-UP FOR FIRE SERVICE AUDIENCES

Time: Approx. 40 minutes (demonstration extra)

Objective: To indicate difficulties with a system of preplanned relocations

and demonstrate a method for resolving the difficulties.

Equipment: Portable terminal with acoustic coupler for demonstration.

Activity

References and Notes

- 1. 'INTRODUCTION: RELOCATION ISSUES
 - When should fire companies relocate (move up)?
- How many should relocate?
 - Which ones?
 - To where?

2. PREPLANNED RELOCATIONS

- Problems at high alarm rates
 - -- Several "all hands" fires in one part of the city can create a "hole" in coverage as big as if there were one second-alarm or third-alarm fire
 - -- Company designated to relocate may already be busy at a fire
 - -- Company designated to relocate may be available, but moving it would create another big hole in coverage

References and Notes

3. NYCRI APPROACH

- Answer the four questions posed in the Introduction, one at a time
- Separate (but same) calculations for engines and ladders (will use ladders as an example)

Question 1: When should fire companies relocate?

Answer: Relocate whenever some location in city has both its first-due and second-due ladders unavailable, and they will be unavailable for a period of time

- -- Define a ladder response neighborhood (RN) as all points in the city having the same first- and second-due ladders, independent of order
- -- If both are unavailable, and will be for awhile, the RN is "uncovered"
- -- Result: Relocate whenever there is an uncovered RN in the city
- -- This criterion maintains relative spacing of fire companies throughout the city (denser in some regions than others)

Question 2: How many should relocate?

Answer: If there are any uncovered RNs, fill the minimum number of houses needed to remedy the situation

References and Notes

3. NYCRI APPROACH (continued)

Question 3: Which companies should move?

Answer: Choose companies to satisfy four general principles

- (a) Don't relocate a company that will create a new uncovered RN
- (b) Don't relocate a company that is "too busy"
 - First-due areas the same size More alarms around #2
 Same distance to X
 - -- If move #1, second-due unit will be the first-arriving unit in the first-due area of #1
 - -- Similar if move #2
 - -- More likely to have a fire near #2
 - -- Therefore, prefer to move #1
- (c) Don't relocate a company that is covering too large a region
 - First-due area of #1 larger
 Same number of alarms in both
 Same distance to X
 - -- Average first-due travel time already higher area of #1
 - -- If move #1, average travel time for second-due company to respond to region #1 will be much higher than in region #2
 - -- Prefer to move #2

3. NYCRI APPROACH (continued)

Question 3 (continued)

- (d) Don't relocate a company "too far"
 - First-due areas of #1 and #2
 the same size
 Same alarm rate
 #2 is farther
 - -- If relocated, #2 would be out of its region longer than #1 would be
 - -- Therefore, chance of missing an alarm in its region would be higher for #2 than for #1
 - -- Prefer to move #1

Note: Real cases are a mixture of different alarm rates, different sized areas, and different relocation distances. Developed a "cost" function that blends all these things

- Represents the expected average travel time for first-arriving unit to alarms in the area affected by the moves (areas whose first-due travel times will be changed) during the duration of the moves
- Objective: Choose units to move that minimize this "cost"
- Note: The cost function assumes that while the companies are relocating they are not protecting either their own area or their destination area

Question 4: Where do the companiès move?

Answer: Assign relocating companies to the houses being filled so as to minimize the total travel time of the relocating companies

- "Cost" will be higher than minimum, but only slightly
- Relocations will "look better"

References and Notes

4. DATA NEEDED

- (a) For each firehouse
 - Number and identity of units stationed there
 - List of RNs associated with each of the companies
 - Size of each first-due area, in square miles
 - Alarm rate in each first-due area
- (b) For each RN
 - Size of area in which each of the two units is first-due
 - Alarm rate in each of the two areas
- (c) For each pair of houses.
 - Travel time from one to the other
- (d) Parameters for relating travel time and area, so that travel times in each region can be estimated from their areas

5. APPLICABILITY

- Method requires a real-time computer to make calculation based on the actual status of all fire companies
- Method can be used to generate relocations to be specified on running cards, in which case it is not operated in real time. (But not all situations requiring a relocation are handled well by running cards)

References and Notes

6. DEMONSTRATION OF ON-LINE RELOCATION PROGRAM SCENARIO 1

This demonstration compares manually developed relocations with what the program does, revealing that neither way is perfect. Geography corresponds to the borough of the Bronx in New York City

MICS

M=NOVERIFY
E=MNE,MNL,QNE,QNL
1:R=E63,E62,L39,L32

(CR)

S=1

2:S=E38,E79,E48,E97,L51

C=EW, LW

DEP2P: D=EW, LW

3:S=E75,E90,E81,L46

C=EW, LW

Q=3 U=DEP2P

DEP2C:D=E81,QE63;E43,QE62;E50,QE79;E89,QE97; L46,QL39;L50,QL51

. (CR)

3C:S=E75,E90,E88,L37 C=EW,LW

References and Notes

7. SCENARIO 2

• Invent a sequence of small fires that leads to a need for relocation

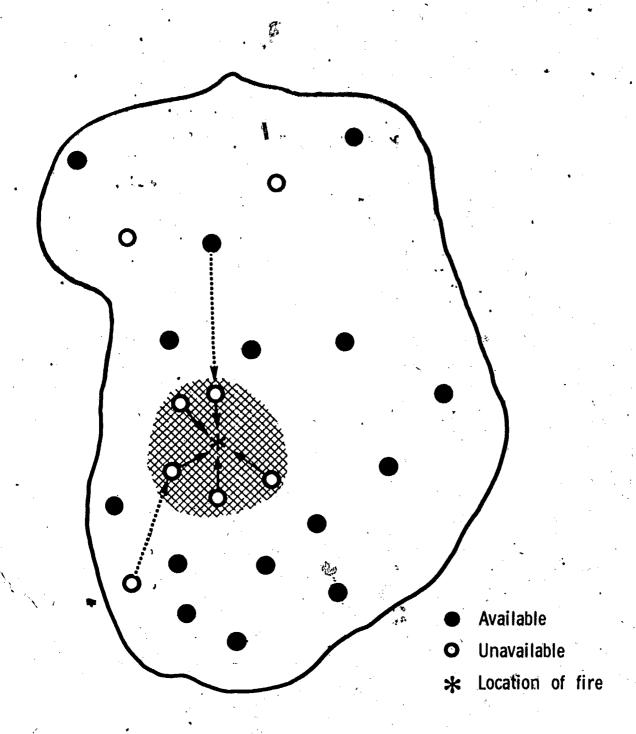


Fig. MF-1 — Problems with the traditional relocation policy

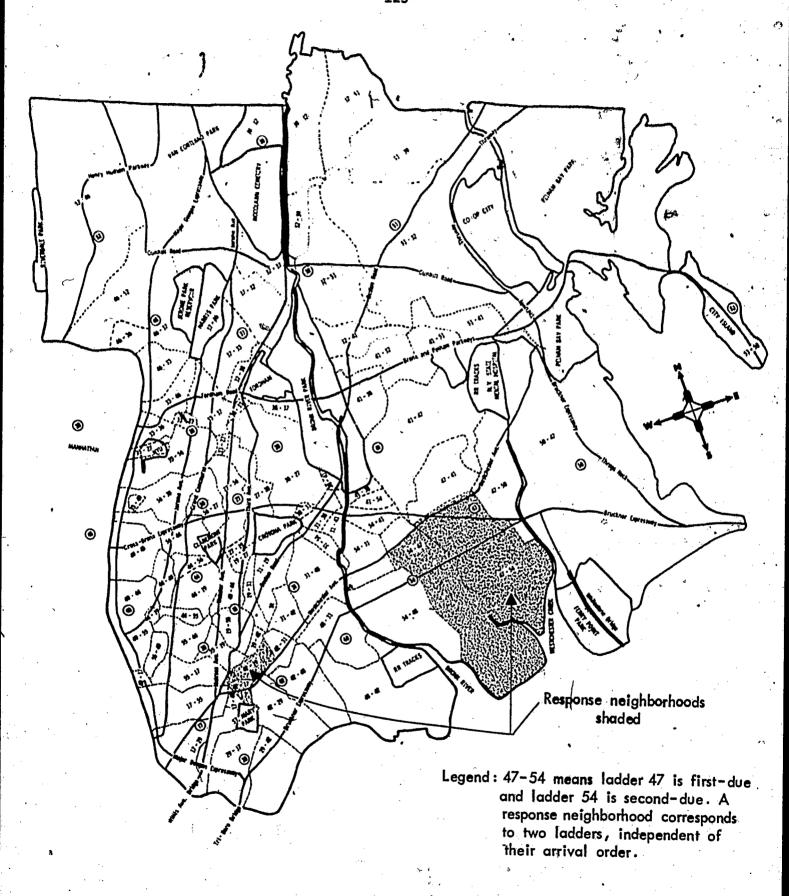
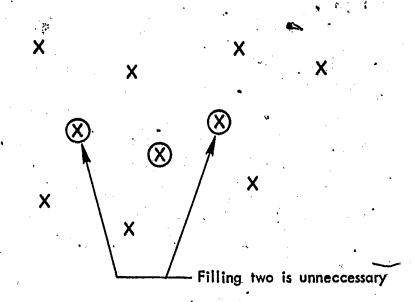


Fig. MF-2 — Ladder response neighborhoods in the Bronx





Empty house
X Full house

X

Fig. MF-3

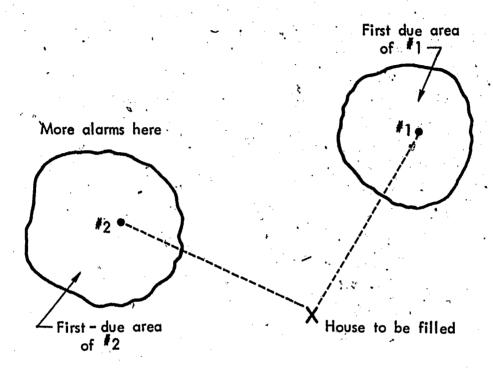


Fig. MF-4





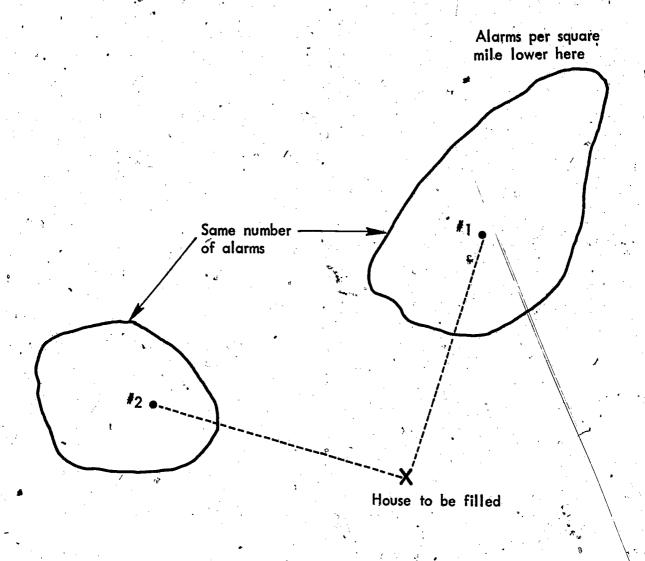
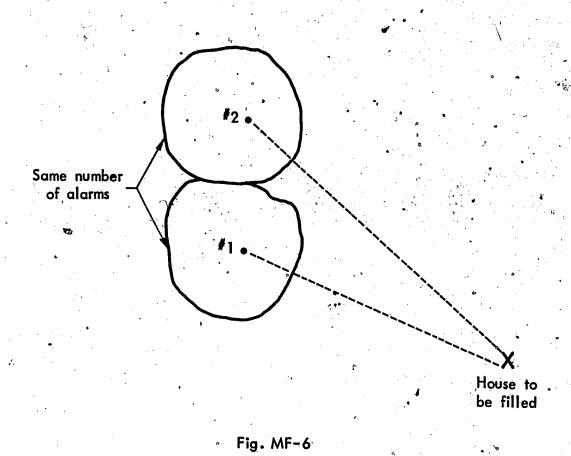


Fig. MF-5

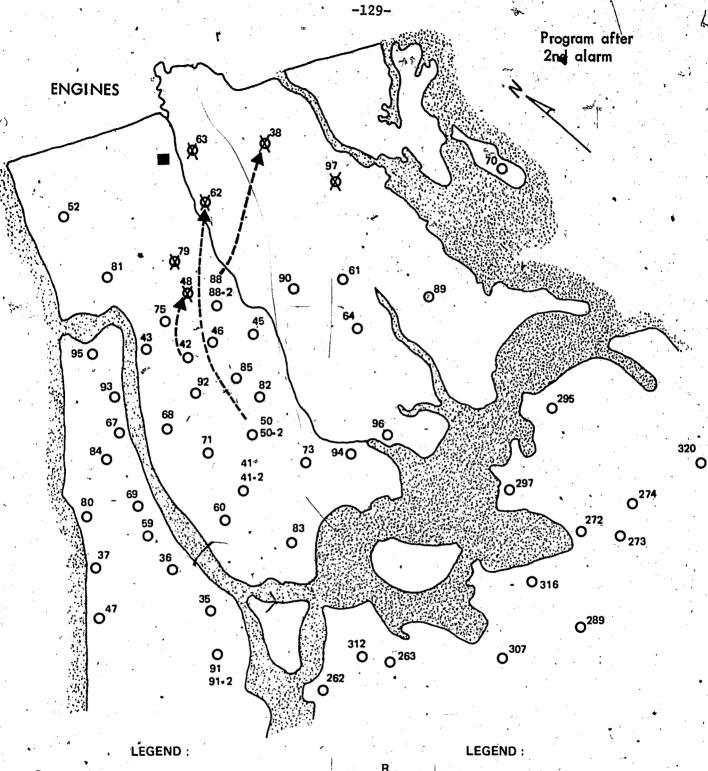


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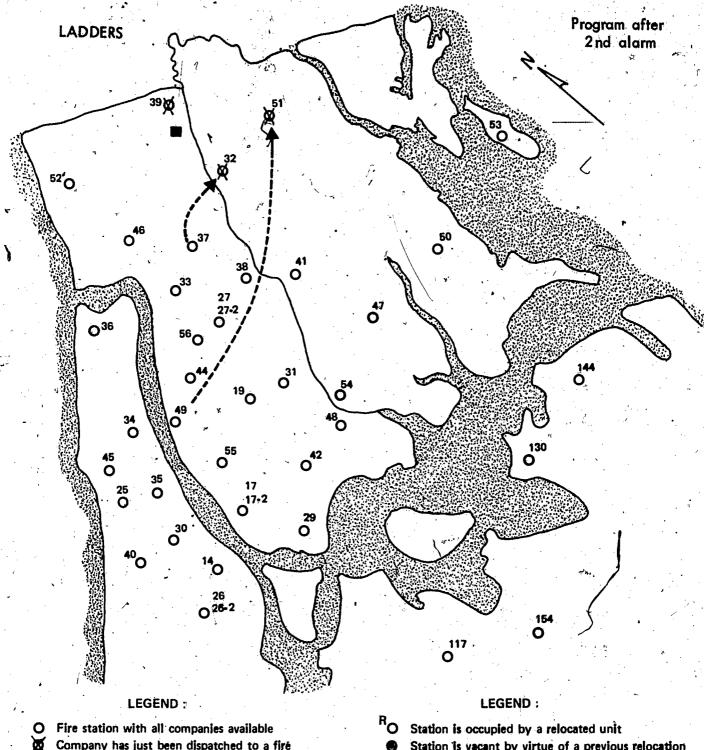
Fig. MF-7-Alarm assignment card (AAC) for Bronx box 3957





- O Fire station with all companies available
- Company has just been dispatched to a fire
- One company remains in a station which usually has two companies
- Station is vacant by virtue of a previous dispatch.
- Station is occupied by a relocated unit
- Station is acant by virtue of a previous relocation.
- Dispatch
- ---- Relocation
 - Location of a fire

Fig. MF-8



- Company has just been dispatched to a fire
- One company remains in a station which usually has two companies
- Station is vacant by virtue of a previous dispatch
- Station is vacant by virtue of a previous relocation
- Dispatch
- Relocation
- Location of a fire

Fig. MF-9.

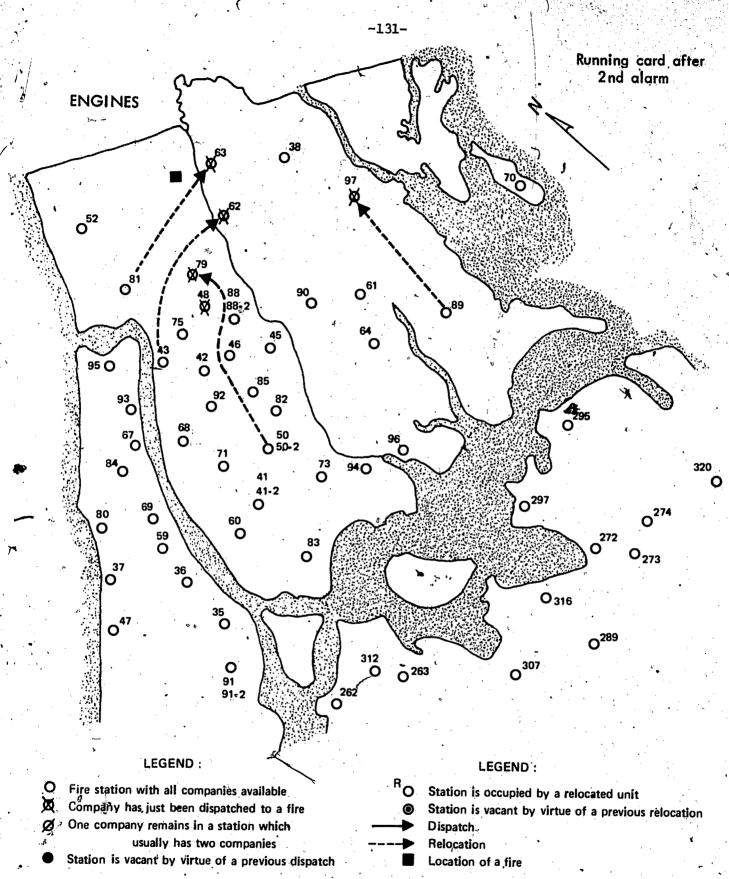


Fig. MF-10

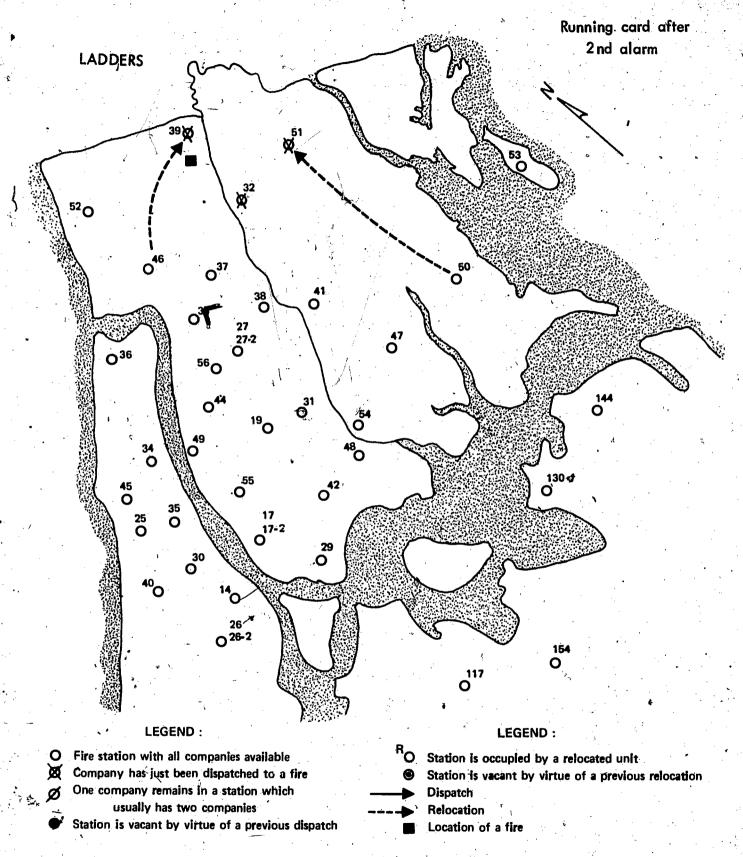


Fig. MF-11

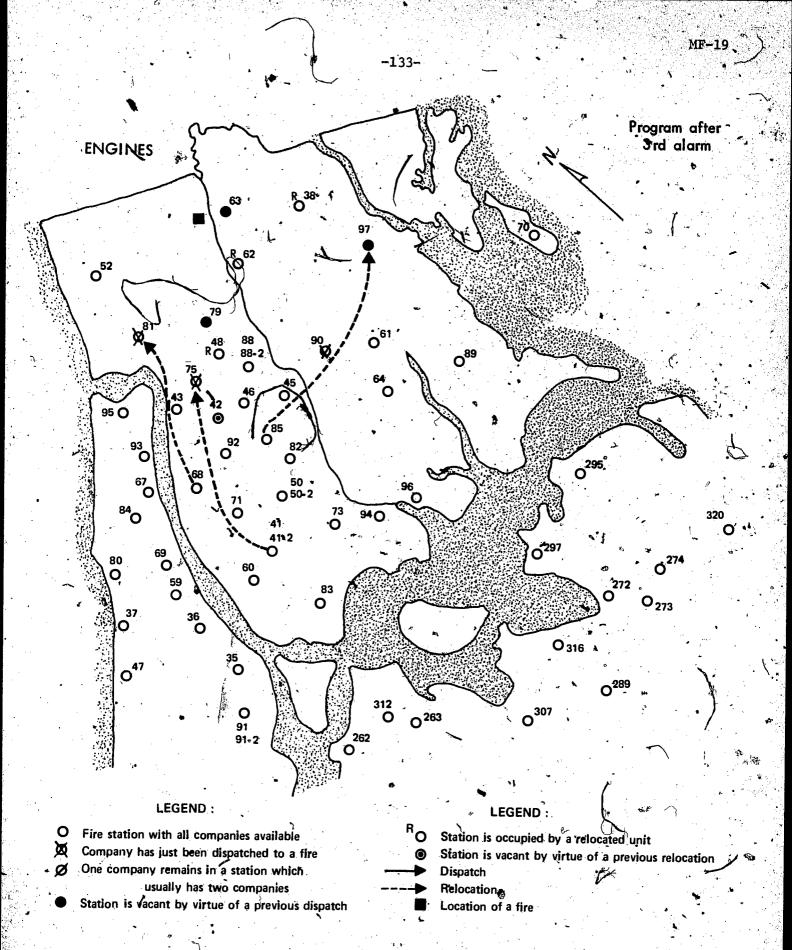
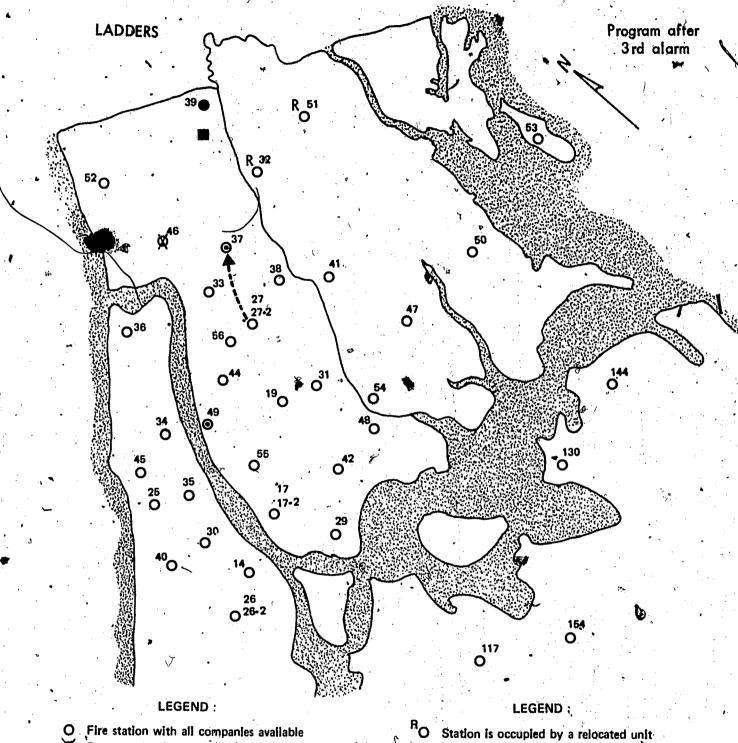


Fig. MF-12





- Company has just been dispatched to a fire
- One company remains in a station which usually has two companies
- Station is vacant by virtue of a previous dispatch
- Station is vacant by virtue of a previous relocation
- Dispatch
 - Relocation
 - Location of a fire

Fig. MF-13

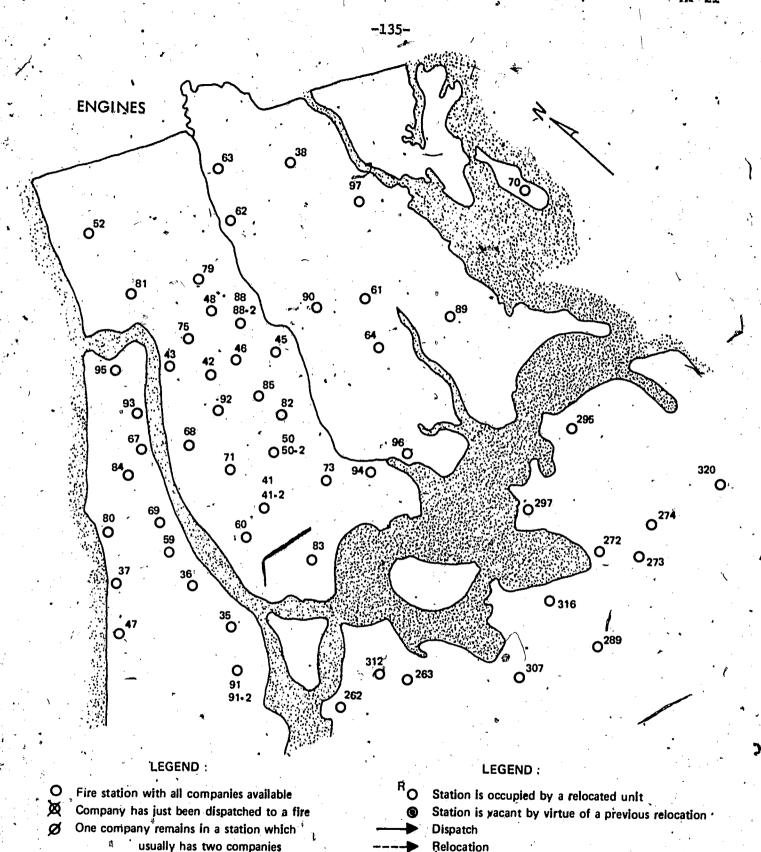
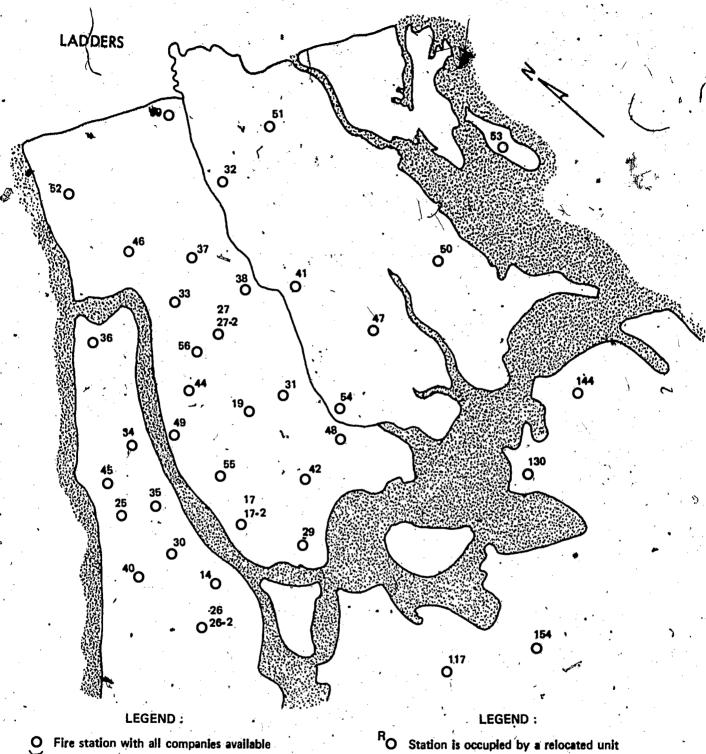


Fig. MF-14

Station is vacant by virtue of a previous dispatch

Relocation

Location of a fire



- Company has just been dispatched to a fire
- One company remains in a station which usually has two companies
- Station is vacant by virtue of a previous dispatch,
- Station is vacant by virtue of a previous relocation
- Dispatch
- Relocation
 - Location of a fire

Fig. MF-15 139

LECTURE IF

INITIAL DISPATCH

FOR FIRE SERVICE AUDIENCES

Time: Approx. 40 minutes

15 4

Objective: To show the students (a) that the history of alarms at an alarm box can provide valuable information for determining the number of units to be dispatched to a box alarm, and (b) that sometimes the closest unit may not be the best to send.

Activity

References and Notes

1. INTRODUCTION

- How many should be sent?
 - -- Different cities have different policies
 - -- When alarm rate is high, city might want to reduce its normal response to conserve resources
 - -- There is a way to do this rationally
- Which ones should be sent?
 - Always send closest when alarm rate is
 - -- If alarm rate is high, this policy is not necessarily the best

B

References and Notes

2. HOW MANY?

(a) Objectives

- Try to send what is needed
- Get all units needed to the scene as rapidly as possible.
- Don't have units make too many unnecessary responses
- (b) How alarm is received is important
 - Telephone receive information that helps dispatcher decide
 - Box little information to go on
 - therefore, will restrict discussion to how many to send to box alarms
- (c) When is there a decision?
 - May want to hold back resources (not send full response) if alarm rate in region of incoming alarm is high enough so that the chance of having two alarms in progress at one time is not negligible (say 25%)
- (d) The tradoff: Use send 1 ladder versus send 2 ladders as example
 - Send 1 and need 2:
 - -- second ladder delayed
 - -- increased loss at fire
 - Send 2 and need 1:
 - -- second ladder unavailable for another alarm (only important if there is a good probability that there will be another alarm while it is responding)
 - -- makes unnecessary response

References and Notes

2. HOW MANY? (continued)

74.2%

- (e) Approach: Considers up to four factors
 - (i) The probability that the incoming alarm is serious
 - -- the greater the probability, the more units dispatched
 - -- there are usually predictable box-tobox variations in probability serious, e.g., boxes 2277 and 2209 in Bronx
 - -- this is the most important factor to consider
 - using this factor, can modify runing cards--add to manual dispatching system (e.g., NYC's adaptive response)
 - (ii) The expected alarm rate in the area surrounding the alarm
 - -- the greater the alarm rate, the fewer units dispatched
 - -- implies that dispatch policy to the same location might vary by time of day
- (iii) The number of units available in the area surrounding the alarm
 - -- the more units available, the more units dispatched
 - -- if you want to include this factor, probably need a computer to keep track of status
 - (iv) The workload of the companies involved
 - -- the higher their workload, the fewer units dispatched
- (f) Method: Use a "cost" function to blend all the factors, then (for example)
 - -- send 2 if cost is less than cost to send 1
 - -- send 1 if cost is lower than for send 2

2. HOW MANY? (continued)

- (g) Data needed if use all 4 factors in making decision
 - (i) For each alarm box
 - Ordered list of closest engine and ladder companies
 - Estimate of the probability that an incoming alarm from the box signals a serious fire (estimation procedure takes into account alarm history of box and alarm history of neighboring boxes)
 - (ii) For each fire-fighting company
 - Expected alarm rate in its first-due area
 - Number of responses made during some historical period
 - Its current status (implies need for an on-line computer)
 - (iii) Way to calculate travel time between any house-alarm box pair

References and Notes

3. WHICH?

- Sending closest not always best. Not sending closest can
 - -- balance workload among companies
 - -- provide faster response to alarms
- Overly simplified example:
- City with 2 companies and a send 1 dispatch policy

Region A - high alarmerate

Region B - low alarm rate

- -- Fire 1 closest company policy would dispatch Company a
- -- Suppose Fire 2 while Company a is busy: Company b must respond
- -- If send b to Fire 1 (near boundary), then a is available to respond to Fire 2. Net reduction in total response time (also, better balance in workload)
- Note: this policy appropriate only when overall alarm rates are high

4. SCENARIO

- Illustration of the circumstances under which analysis will suggest different choices for initial dispatch. The actual locations of ladder companies and alarm rates in various parts of the Bronx were used in constructing this scenario.
- At the start of the scenario, ladder companies 48, 42, and 44 have been dispatched to serious fires
- An incident is reported by box alarm at box 2267. Recommended dispatch is two ladders. Ladders 17 and 55 are dispatched
- Another incident is reported by box alarm at box 2224
- Now, because of unavailabilities in the area and a low probability of a serious fire at box 2224, the recommended dispatch is one ladder
- Ladder 17-2 is dispatched and subsequently returns to quarters after finding a false alarm at box 2224
- Now a box alarm occurs at box 2574. Although the closest ladder company is busy
 (as was the case at box 2224), the recommended dispatch is two ladders in this case.
 Box 2574 is more likely to have a serious
 fire than box 2224
- At this point, the unavailability of ladders are as bad as if there were a thirdalarm fire somewhere between ladder 55 and ladder 19. Relocations should be made
- An incident is reported by box alarm at box 2276, which is near box 2267. If relocations have not been made, one ladder should be dispatched. If relocations have been made, two ladders should be dispatched

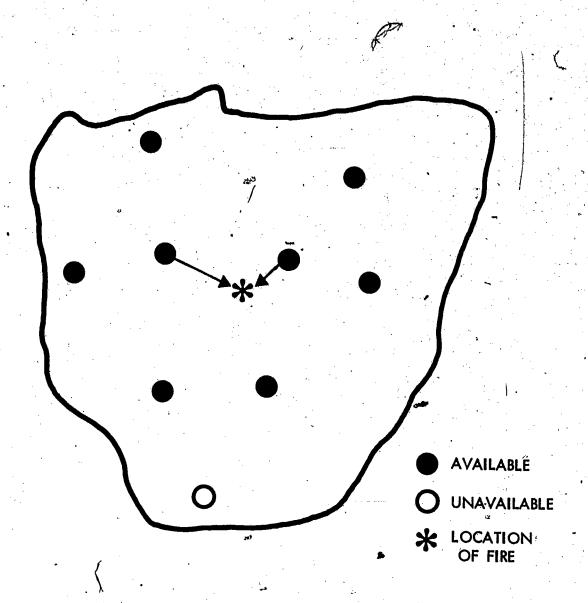


Fig. IF-1

Bronx	Predicted	Actual 1970 Data		
box number	percent structural ('67-'69 data)	Alarms	Structural fires	
2277	0.4	96	0	
2209	31.8	94	25	

Fig. IF-2 — Structural fire predictions for two alarm boxes

F.

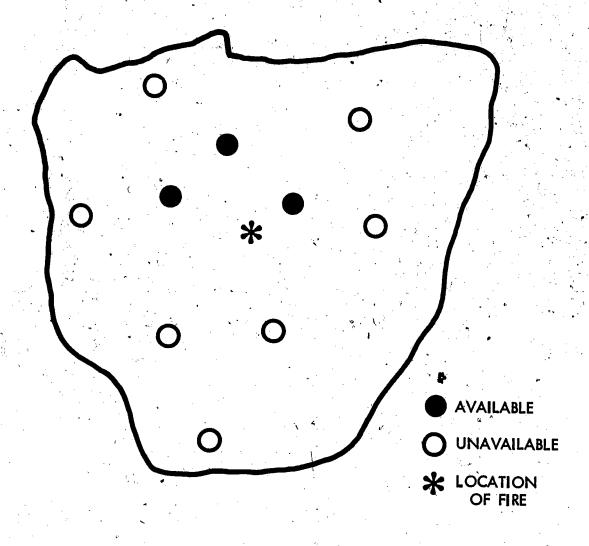


Fig. 1F-3 — A problem with the traditional dispatching policy

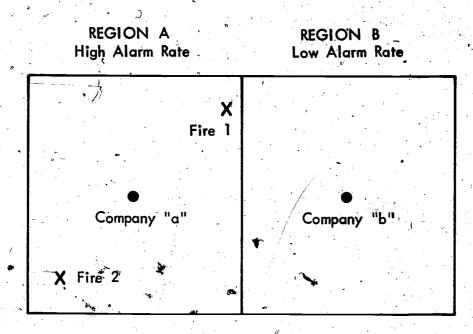


Fig. IF-4

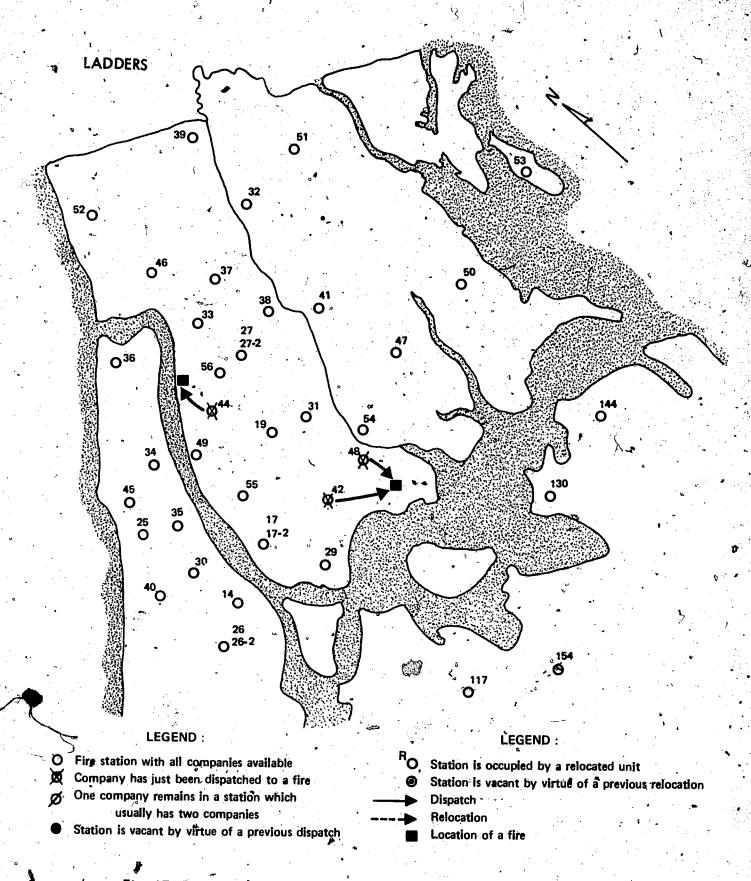


Fig. 1F-5 — Status of Bronx ladder companies at the start of the scenario

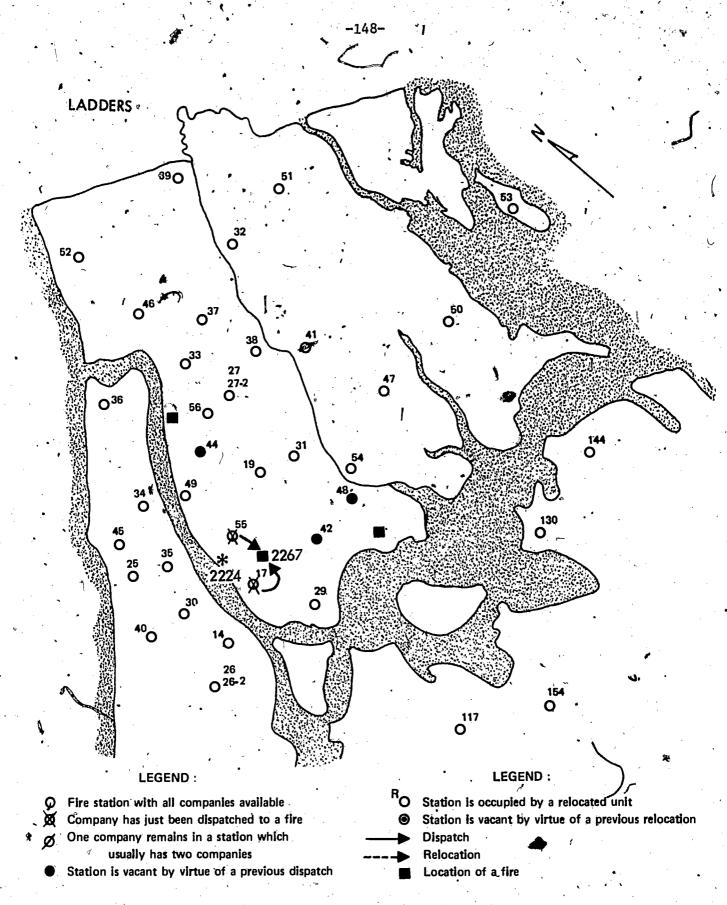


Fig. 1F-6 — Status of Bronx Madder companies after Box 2267 is dispatched

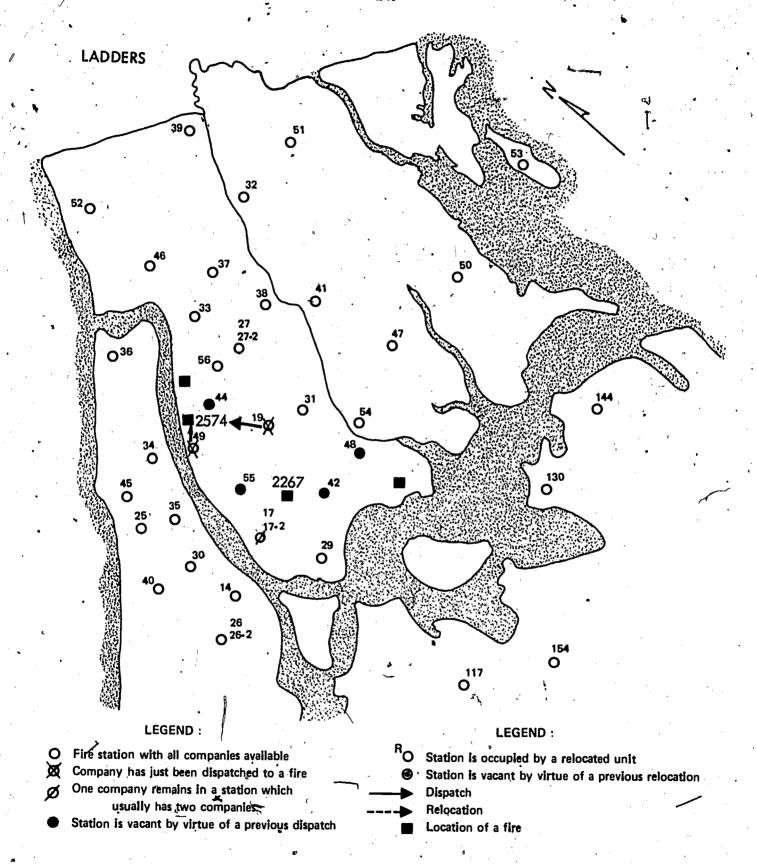


Fig. 1F-7 — Status of Bronx ladder companies after Box 2574 is dispatched

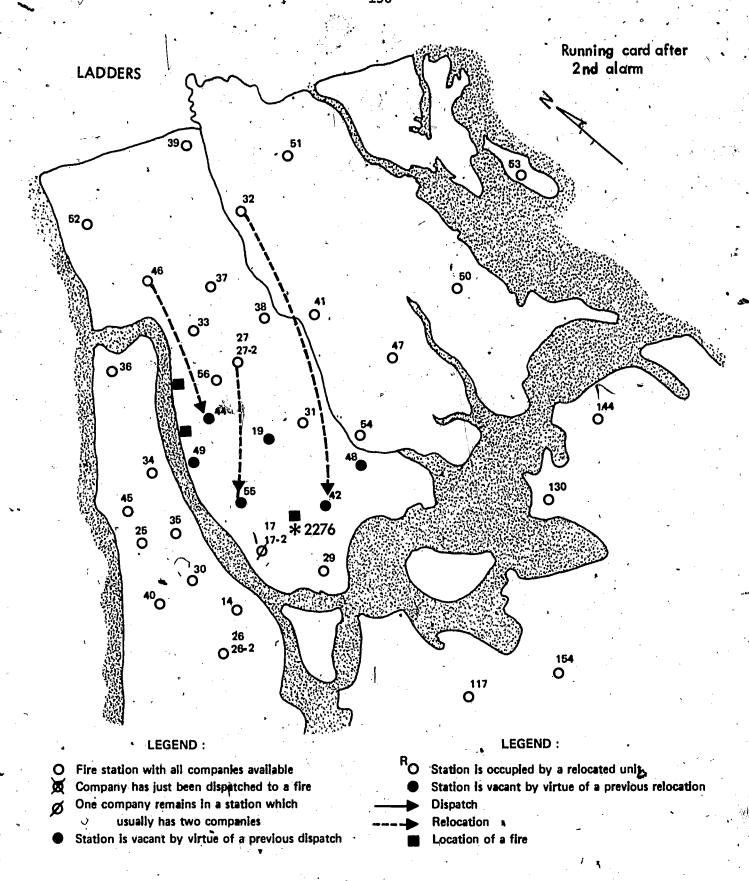


Fig. IF-8 — Status of Bronx ladder companies at time of relocation



LECTURE AP

ALLOCATION OF POLICE PATROL

Time: Approx. 40 minutes

Objective: To provide an approach to answering the question of how many patrol cars to assign to each command by hour or tour.

Activity

References and Notes

1. INTRODUCTION

- Topic is how many patrol cars to assign to each command by hour or tour
 - -- "Command" is a general term for an administratively separate geographical area of the city. Variously called precinct, division, district, unit, or area
 - -- A single patrol beat or sector is not a "command." A command can be characterized by the fact that if all its patrol cars were busy, a low-priority call for service would be queued

2. PRIORITY STRUCTURE

- Find out what types of calls are actually handled by dispatchers as high priority (every effort will be made to locate a car to send immediately, even a supervisor or out-of-command car), medium priority (if in queue, will be dispatched as fast as possible), and low priority (can wait for dispatch)
- It doesn't help to think about which calls should fall in each priority level, unless the intention is to change the practices of dispatchers

References and Notes

3. ESTIMATING GALL-FOR-SERVICE WORKLOAD

- Need to know how many car-hours will be required to serve calls for service in each priority class in each hour of the day ("workload")
- This can be done by estimating the number of calls in each class and the service times separately, and multiplying these together. Or estimate workload directly from workload data
- Possible estimation methods
 - -- commercially available computer programs (e.g., LEMRAS)
 - -- average over past few weeks, adjust for seasonal trends
 - -- graph and extrapolate
- Estimates don't have to be super-accurate to be useful. Don't get wound up in trying to improve accuracy of predictions
- Collect data from dispatcher's position
- Commands found to have unusually long service times may have a management problem. Don't just allocate more cars to them

References and Notes

4. ESTIMATE "EXTRA" UNAVAILABILITIES

- f = average fraction of a car's tour that the car is unavailable for dispatch for reasons other than dispatch to a previous' call
 - -- includes meals, maintenance, patrolinitiated activities, arrest processing, etc.
 - -- include time in court if this is only part of a tour
- f may vary by command. In a given command,
 f may vary with call-for-service workload
- Collect data at dispatcher's position
- Draw graphs, calculate averages

5. SET LIMIT ON QUEUING

- Fraction of all calls queued
- Average waiting time in queue for
 - -- middle priority
 - -- low priority

()

Overall average waiting time

- 6. NUMBER OF CARS NEEDED TO PREVENT QUEUING FROM EXCEEDING LIMIT
 - Consider a particular command and a particular hour of the day
 - N = number of cars to be fielded (we will try different values of N until we find the right one)
 - (1-f)N = effective number of cars fielded
 - (1-f)N must at least equal the estimated call-for-service workload in car-hours
 - Start with N = next integer bigger than (workload)/(1-f)
 - See if queuing is below specified limits with (1-f)N cars
 - -- need graphs, tables, formulas, or a computer program
 - If not, increase N by one car and try again
 - Keep going. The first N that works tells how many cars are needed for queuing purposes

7. EXAMPLE

How many cars are needed to assure that less than 10% of calls are delayed in a command having 3.9 car-hours of work per hour and 30% of each car's time spent unavailable for reasons other than calls for service?

8. CRITERIA OTHER THAN QUEUING

- See if the value of N chosen above is big enough so that (1-f)N effective cars give reasonable values for
 - -- average travel time
 - -- average patrol frequency
 - -- patrol per outside crime
 - -- (whatever you care about)
- If not, increase N until these other criteria are met

9. COMPARE WITH THE SIZE OF THE PATROL FORCE

- Add the values of N (found above) across commands, or across hours of the day, or both
- Do you have enough men to field that many car-hours?
 - -- If no, some constraints must be relaxed, or some categories of calls must be screened out (no unit will respond), or the "extra" unavailabilities must be reduced by administrative change
 - -- If yes, the extra cars can be allocated to commands or tours so as to minimize citywide average queuing delay. Or the extra cars can be assigned to special activities

10. COMPUTER PROGRAM

- Computer program is available to perform these calculations
- <u>Descriptive mode</u>. User decides how many patrol cars are to be on duty in each command during each tour. Program displays
 - -- Percent of time cars are busy on callfor-service work
 - -- Preventive patrol frequency
 - -- Average travel time
 - -- Percent of calls queued
 - -- Average waiting time in queue, by priority level
 - Average total response time

Prescriptive mode

- (a) User sets limit on any of the measures listed above. Program calculates minimum number of cars needed
- (b) User specifies total car-hours that can be fielded. Program allocates them to tours or commands or both so as to minimize
 - -- average percentage of calls placed in queue
 - -- or, average waiting time for some priority level
 - -- or, average response time

Activity

References and Notes

11. DATA NEEDED FOR PROGRAM

- Hours of the day at which tours begin. One tour can be an overlay
- Call rates and service times by hour
- Response and patrol speeds of cars
- Number of outside crimes
- Unavailability parameters

12. TYPES OF POLICY ISSUES THAT CAN BE ADDRESSED

- Number of patrol officers needed to meet standards of performance
- Which calls to "screen out" to improve performance levels with fixed resources
- Allocation by time of day within each command
- Possible benefits of an overlay tour
- Where to assign new recruits
- Deployment of a mobile patrol team (moves to different parts of the city from week to week)

13. ADVANTAGES

- Easy to use, once data are collected
- Inexpensive to run on the computer

14. DRAWBACKS

- Calculations are approximate
- User must estimate call rates and service times for the future
- No information about variations within a command



f = .30
1-f = .7
Workload = 3.9
Workload/(1-f) = 5.57

Effective number of cars	Percent of calls delayed*
4.2	86
4.9	56
5.6	36
6.3	22
7.0	12.1
7.7	7.3
	number of cars 4.2 4.9 5.6 6.3 7.0

^{*}From tables, graphs, or computer program.

Fig. AP-1 — Example of allocation calculation

LECTURE BP

BEAT DESIGN

FOR POLICE SERVICE AUDIENCES

This is an optional added topic for Lecture AP

Time: Approx. 15 minutes

Objective: To describe an approach to designing police patrol beats or

sectors

<u>Activity</u>

References and Notes

1. INTRODUCTION

- Topic is how to design patrol beats or patrol sectors: the areas covered by a single patrol car
- The number of patrol beats in a command is determined from the allocation analysis
- Therefore, beats may change by time of day

2. RULES OF THUMB

- Shape of sector doesn't matter much, as long as it's compact
- If travel speeds differ in two directions, the long dimension of the sector should be in the direction of the higher speeds
- If beats don't overlap, the fraction of dispatches that are interdistrict (across beat boundaries) is at least as high as the fraction of time the average unit is unavailable
- Unit's workload is not equal to the workload generated in its beat
- Burden of central location
 - -- Shaded parts of the command have many calls for service
 - Number of calls for service is not high in the center
 - -- Car in the center is very busy because it is the dispatcher's second choice for all the busy beats

Activity

References and Notes

HYPERCUBE MODEL

- Permits calculation of performance characteristics for trial beat designs. You have to work out the trial designs; program doesn't help
 - Required data
 - -- Divide city into small areas (smaller than a beat)
 - -- Call-for-service data for the small areas
 - -- Some way to estimate travel times between small areas
 - .. coordinates of centers
 - .. experimental trips
 - .. estimates of local officers
 - .. computerized road network
 - Performance measures calculated for each beat design
 - -- Regionwide average travel time
 - -- Regionwide workload imbalance
 - -- Fraction of dispatches that are interdistrict
 - -- Workload of each patrol car
 - -- Average travel time to particular locations
 - -- Average travel time in each beat
 - -- Average travel time of each patrol car
 - Fraction of responses in each beat handled by the beat's assigned car
 - -- Fraction of each car's responses that take it out of its beat

4. EXAMPLE OF APPLICATION

- First map and table show original design of beats (called sectors)
- Second set shows final design

Activity

References and Notes

5. ADVANTAGES

- Easy to use, after data have been collected
- Can handle overlapping beats, sergeant's cars, fairly complicated dispatching policies
- Inexpensive to run on a computer

6. DISADVANTAGES

- Assumes one car dispatched to each incident
- Not well suited to handle priorities

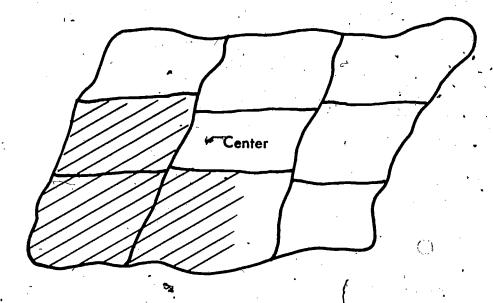
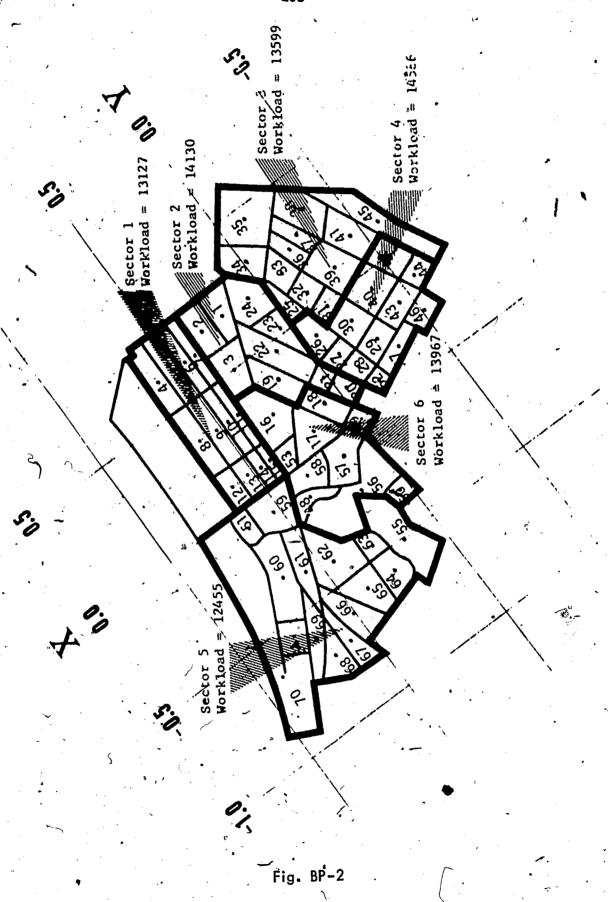


Fig. BP-1



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ERIC Frontided by ERIC

Maximum workload imbalance = 26%

Region-wide average travel time = 3.402 minutes

Average travel time for queued calls = 5.178 minutes

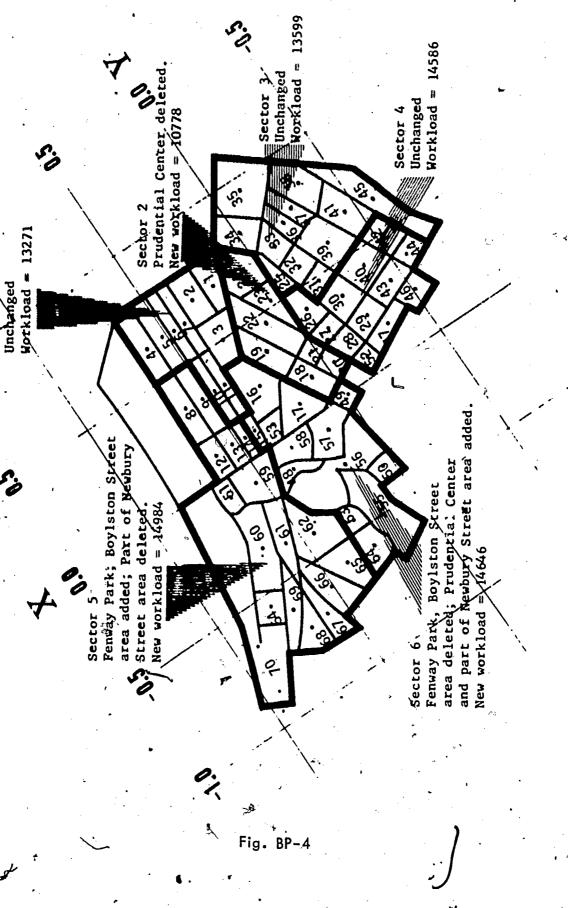
Fraction of dispatches that are cross-sector = 0.485

Profile of Patrol Unit Operations

Patrol Unit No.	Workload	% of Mean	Fraction of Dispatches Out of Sector	% of Mean	Average Travel Time
1	0.519	103.8	0.539	111.3	3.432
2	0.559	111.7	0.576	118.7	3.378
3	0.496	99.2	0.477	98.5	3.090
4	0,490	98.0	0.426	87.9	3.180
5*	0.428	85.7	0.373	77.0	3.978
6	0.507	101.5	0.487	100.4	3.414

Profile of Sector Operations

Sector Number	Fraction of District's Total Workload	% of Mean	Fraction of Dispatches that are Cross-Sector	Average Travel Time
1	0.160	96.2	0.503	3.312
3.	0.172	1,03.6	0.542	3.120
3,	0.166	99.7	0.480	3.324
4	0.178	106.9	0.474	3.258
5	0.152	91.3	0.412	4.218
6	0.170	102.4	0.491	3.258



di

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Maximum workload imbalance = 5.48%

Regionwide average travel time = 3.426 minutes

Average travel time for queued calls = 5.178 minutes

Fraction of dispatches that are cross-sector = 0.483

Profile of Patrol Unit Operations

Patrol Unit No. Workload		% of Mean	Fraction of Dispatches Out of Sector	% of Mean	Average Travel Time	
1	0.499	99.7	0.495	102.5	3.222	
2	0.512	102.4	0.611	126.6	3.318	
3	0.497	99.4	0.479	99.3	3.192	
4,	0.502	100.4	₽ 453 · ·	93.7	3.174	
5	0.485	97.0	0.398	82.3	4.074	
6	0.505	100.1	0.456	94.5	3.612	

Profile of Sector Operations

Sector Number	Fraction of District's Total Workload	% of Mean	Fraction of Dispatches that are Cross-Sector	Average Travel Time
1	0.162	97.3	0.482	24958
2	0.132	79.0	0.496	2.886
, 3	0.166	99.7	0.481	3.234
4	0.178	106.9	0.486	3.204
5	0.183	109.8	0.468	4.524
6	0.179	107.3	0.488	3.534

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A TRAINING COURSE IN DEPLOYMENT OF EMERGENCY SERVICES: INSTRUCTOR'S MANUAL

PREPARED FOR THE OFFICE OF POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND RESEARCH, DEPARTMENT OF HOUSING AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT

JAN M. CHAIKEN EDWARD J. IGNALL WARREN E. WALKER

R-1784/1-HUD SEPTEMBER 1975

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This report was prepared as an account of work sponsored by the United States government, Office of Policy Development and Research, Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD), under Contract H-2164. Neither the United States nor HUD, nor any person acting on behalf of HUD, makes any warranty, expressed or implied, or assumes responsibility for the accuracy or completeness of the information herein, or assumes liability with respect to the use of any information or method herein.

The New York City-Rand Institute is a nonprofit research institution founded, as its Articles of Incorporation state, "... primarily to conduct programs of scientific research and study, and provide reports and recommendations, relevant to the operations, planning or administration of the City of New York." The Institute was established in 1969 by the City of New York and The Rand Corporation as a center for the continuing application of scientific and analytic techniques to problems of urban life and local government. It is governed by a Board of Tsustees appointed jointly by the City and Rand.

Published by The Rand Corporation



PREFACE

The development, documentation, and field presentation of this course was performed under a contract with the Office of Policy Development and Research of the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD)—"Contract for the Development, Field Testing, and Documentation of Management Methods for Emergency Services for Local Agencies."

This contract and earlier contracts between HUD and The New York Gity—Rand Institute involved work with city agencies designed to improve the deployment of their emergency service units. Prior to beginning such work, a training course was often presented to agency and city officials and to local analysts.

This course outline provides lesson plans and visual aids for these lectures so that they can be presented by anyone who already understands the subject. References to the appropriate source materials are also provided. Potential audiences for the course include fire service administrators and planning officers, police patrol administrators and planning officers, ambulance agency personnel, city officials, operations research analysts, and mixtures of these groups.

This instructor's manual may also be useful to individuals who wish to undertake a self-directed study of deployment analysis for emergency services. The literature in this field is quite extensive and includes methodological reports, descriptions of computer programs, and case studies of applications of deployment analysis in particular cities. Therefore, it may be difficult for the student to determine which papers are related to the subject he wishes to learn and which ones should be read ahead of others. By following this course outline, it is possible to determine a suitable sequence in which to study the various documents and to gain a smaral notion of the contents of each of them in advance.

Instructors teaching from this manual may wish to supply copies of the lecture notes to their students, in which case they should order the following companion report from the Publications Department of The Rand Corporation:

R-1784/2-HUD, A Training Course in Deployment of Emergency
Services: Student's Manual.

The student's manual is not suitable for self-directed study; it should only be ordered in multiple copies for members of a class.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the Office of Policy Development and Research of the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. Many of the lecture notes and visual aids are based on materials developed over a period of several years by our colleagues at The New York City-Rand Institute, and we wish to thank them all:

Rae Archibald Edward Blum Grace Carter Peter Dormont Jack Hausner Peter Kolesar Richard Larson Mei Ling Kenneth Rider John Rolph Carol Shanesy Arthur Swersey

In addition, this course was presented in early 1975 to an audience whose members made many helpful suggestions for improving the lecture notes. We especially wish to thank the members of the audience who agreed to serve as a formal evaluation panel for the training course:

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Director of Research
National Fire Protection Association

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INTRODUCTION

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This report has been prepared to assist instructors who wish to present a one- to five-day course in deployment of emergency services. Potential audiences include fire service administrators and planning officers, police patrol administrators and planning officers, ambulance agency personnel, city officials, operations research analysts, and mixtures of these groups. Included are lesson plans, references, and examples of visual aids that can be used.

The authors have tested these outlines by presenting lectures based on them at least once, and several of the lectures have been presented on many occasions in approximately the same form by several members of The New York City-Rand Institute staff,

To prepare a course from the lecture notes, it is necessary to eselect the lectures that will be presented and the order of presentation. Under no circumstances would all the lectures be given to one audience, since there are pairs of lectures (identified by the same first initial) that cover the same topic from different perspectives. The second initial of the lecture identifier indicates whether it is intended for a fire service audience (F), a police service audience (P), or a general audience (G).

A suitable sequence for a course to be given to a fire service audience in three days (or, preferably, somewhat over five half-days) is as follows:

Lecture OF: Introduction and Overview

Lecture RF: Rules of Thumb

Lecture DF: Data Analysis

Lecture AF: Allocation of Fire Companies

Lecture LF: Locating Fire Stations

Lecture SF: Simulation

Lecture MF: Relocation or Move-up

Lecture IF: Initial Dispatch

[Not included]: Case study of application in some city

For an audience representing several types of temergency service agencies, a suitable sequence at the start of the course is:

Lecture OP: Introduction and Overview (police)

Lecture RP: Rules of Thumb (police)

Lecture CG: Characteristics of Emergency Services

Some lectures have been prepared under the assumption that they will be preceded by certain other lectures. The overview and rules of thumb (either OF and RF or OP and RP) should precede any other lecture; allocation (AF or AP) should precede fire station location (LF), or beat design (BP). Lectures on data analysis and simulation for police audiences have not been included in this report, but lectures DF and SF may be useful to the instructor in preparing materials on these topics.

Each of the lectures has been prepared using the same format. The content of the lecture is preceded by an estimate of the time that the lecture should last, the objective of the lecture, and, if appropriate, a list of special equipment that is needed for the lecture. The outline of each lecture is presented on a page that is divided into two parts. The "Activity" part describes the items to be discussed. The "References and Notes" column refers the lecturer to sources of more information on the subject (the full references are given in the Bibliography at the end of this report), identifies visual aids that might be used at that point, or provides suggestions designed to help the lecturer in his presentation.

We have found that including a lecture describing an actual deployment study that was conducted in some city (preferably delivered by someone from that city) can be very helpful. In fact, the one consistent comment from those who have taken the course was the importance of case studies. If it is not possible to obtain a guest lecturer, one of the case studies indicated by an asterisk (*) in the Bibliography will serve as a starting point for preparing such a lecture. However, someone in the study city should be contacted for the latest developments. Appropriate addresses are given in many of the case studies.

The case study should be selected before the course begins, and some indication of the types of deployment changes that resulted from the study should be presented at an early point, possibly even before Lecture OF or Lecture OP.

Another frequent comment from those who have taken this course concerned the desirability of students having personal copies of the lecture notes. Such notes can be kept in hand during the lecture, thereby eliminating the necessity for the lecturer to prepare slides of the visual aids, or they may be simply a permanent record of the material conted in the course, to be used outside the class. For these purposes we have made available a student's manual as a companion to this report; it differs from this volume only in that all text in the "References and Notes" section of each lecture has been removed. This leaves space for the student to record whatever he feels is appropriate and permits the instructor to select or modify the visual aids and references, since they are not specifically cited in the student's manual.

LECTURE OF

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW FOR FIRE SERVICE AUDIENCES

Time: Approx. 40 minutes

Objective: To provide an overview of the fire service problems that will be

discussed in the course, and to provide an introduction to

systems analysis.

Activity

References and Notes

1. INTRODUCTION

- Explain nature of course, audience, and objectives
- Describe schedule for entire course (
- 2. DEFINITION OF "DEPLOYMENT ANALYSIS"
 - Strategic issues
 - -- How many companies on duty
 .. may vary by time of day or season
 - -- How divided among subregions of city
 - -- Where stations are located
 - -- Nature of vehicles (engines, ladders, foam units, etc.); manning
 - -- Manpower scheduling

Tactical issues

- -- (Not fireground tactics)
- -- Number and types of companies dispatched to an alarm
 - .. may vary with time of day, location of alarm, current situation,
 - ♥ available information
- -- Which units to dispatch
- -- Relocation (move-up)
 - .. when needed
 - .. how many companies move
 - .. which ones move

Follows Chaiken and Larson, Methods for Allocating Urban Emergency Units and Chaiken, Ignall, and Walker, Deployment Methodology for Fire Departments

References and Notes

- 3. STEPS IN "SYSTEMS ANALYSIS"

 (A systematic approach to solving problems)
 - Identify the problem
 - Select objectives
 - Define criteria to be used to evaluate alternative policies
 - Design alternative policies
 - Select models to be used
 - Collect required data
 - Compare alternatives using criteria
 - (Return to an earlier step)
 - Test out and implement final choice

4. PROBLEMS

- This course will deal with the strategic and tactical issues of deployment analysis
- 5. OBJECTIVES

May be several. Some of the most common are:

- Improve fire protection levels with same resources
- Maintain fire protection levels with less resources
- Decrease workload while maintaining fire protection levels

See Quade, Analysis for Public Decisions

- 6. RELEVANT CRITERIA (PERFORMANCE MEASURES)
 (Used to tell if one policy is better than another policy)
 - Time until dispatch of companies
 - Turnout time
 - Travel time
 - -- Can be average or maximum or something else
 - To first-arriving company,
 max (first engine, first ladder),
 max (all companies needed),
 or other measures of travel time
 - Setup time

The above four constitute "response time."
Usually must pay attention to the largest one.
Deployment analysis focuses on changes that can affect travel time.

- Coverage measures
- Workload balance
- Insurance grading standards?
- Cost

Why not lives lost, property lost?

- Hard to measure
- Needs research to be able to estimate changes (relationship not known precisely enough)
- We use suitable surrogate measures

References and Notes

Figure OF-1

Explain each time interval

Generally see introduction to Carter and Ignall, A Simulation Model of Fire Department Operations: Design and Preliminary Results

This issue will be a source of confusion and doubt later, unless handled in sufficient detail at this point

References and Notes

7. ALTERNATIVE POLICIES

- Include base case (for comparison)
- Take political and economic factors into account (including community and labor union concerns)
- Alternatives may be suggested by fire department or city personnel, or may come from mathematical models

To be discussed next

8. MODELS

<u>Purpose</u>: To introduce terminology, not to illustrate any particular models

 Definition: abstraction of reality. Used to gain insight into and answer questions about the real world. Easier, safer, and less costly to use than manipulating real world.

• Empirical models

- --' Fit to data
 - .. May have no explanation
 - .. May be mathematically complicated
- -- Examples.
 - .. Smooth fit to alarm rate by time of day
 - .. How long to travel a given distance
 - .. Chance that an alarm at a particular location is serious

Draw histogram and curve

Draw representative curve, but don't discuss its shape.now. Figure OF-2

References and Notes

.8. MODELS (continued)

Descriptive analytical models

- -- Using simplified assumptions, some kind of mathematical formula is derived to permit estimating some performance characteristic(s)
- -- The numbers that go into such a model may come from empirical models
- -- Examples
 - .. Knowing number of engines and ladders on duty, estimate average response distance
 - .. Knowing where fires are and how many units dispatched, estimate number of responses for each unit (workload)
 - .. If fire station is moved, what happens to response time

Optimization models (prescriptive)

- -- Tell how to achieve the most or the least of something
- -- Examples
 - .. What is the <u>least</u> number of engine stations needed so that each locaetion is within 3/4 mile of a station?
 - .. How should 17 stations be located so as to <u>minimize</u> average response time?
 - .. What is the <u>smallest</u> number of engines needed to relocate on a second alarm (if specified coverage is to be achieved)?

Figure OF-3

8. MODELS (continued)

• Simulation models

- -- Imitate operations step by step
- -- Collect all kinds of statistics
- -- Can be extremely accurate
- -- Doesn't tell you what to do
- -- Things you try will be suggested by other models
- -- Likely not to be useful until close to the end of analysis; but have to start early to collect data

9. TECHNICAL ASSISTS TO DEPLOYMENT

- Computer-assisted dispatch
- Digital communication with fire units
 - -- Status
 - -- Inspection information
 - -- Location of fire, hydrants, etc.
 - /-- Screen or printer
- Packaged systems for collecting, summarizing, or projecting alarm rate information

These are examples of items not discussed further in this course

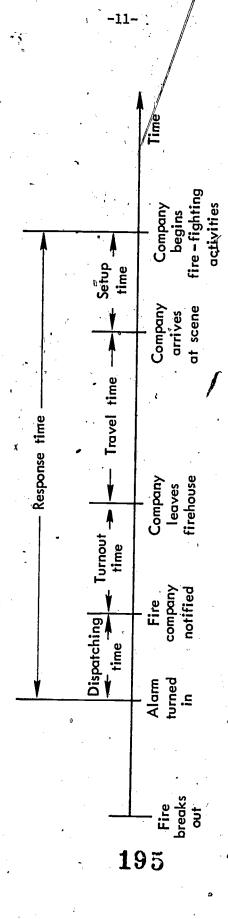
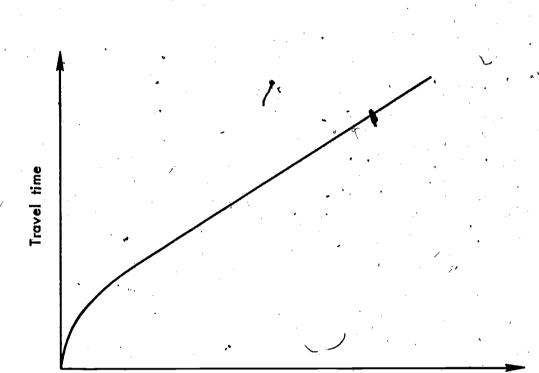


Fig. OF-1

ERIC



NOTE: The scale on each axis will vary from city to city.

Fig. OF-2a

Travel distance

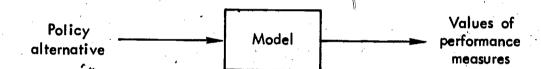


Fig. OF-3—The role of a descriptive model in deployment analysis

LECTURE RF

RULES OF THUMB FOR FIRE SERVICE AUDIENCES

Time: Approx. 50 minutes

Objective: To provide some easy to learn, easy to apply formulas and rules used in deployment analysis.

average

Activity

1. AVERAGE NUMBER OF COMPANIES BUSY

- (AV. NUMBER OF OF ALARMS PER HOUR) x (AV. NUMBER OF COMPANY-HOURS PER ALARM

Example

4 alarms per hour (all types)
30 minutes average time out-of-service
1.2 engines per alarm, average
4 x (0.5 x 1.2) = 2.4 engines busy on

- AVERAGE NUMBER OF COMPANIES AVAILABLE
 TOTAL NUMBER OF COMPANIES
 (AVERAGE NUMBER BUSY)
- 2. (AVERAGE TRAVEL DISTANCE) = in a region

(CONSTANT) x $\sqrt{\frac{\text{AREA OF REGION}}{\text{NO. COMPANIES AVAILABLE}}}$

• Introduce notion of square root simply, via $3^2 = 9$ and therefore $\sqrt{9} = 3$

References and Notes

This lecture continues to follow Chaiken, Ignall, and Walker, Deployment Methodology for Fire Departments

Ref.: Kolesar and
Blum, Square Root
Laws for Fire Company
Travel Distances

References and Notes

2. AVERAGE TRAVEL DISTANCE (continued)

- Give simple geographical demonstration showing why the rule of thumb is true
 - -- Base case
 - -- Double all dimensions: area quadruples, average travel distance doubles (i.e., goes up by square root of area)
 - -- Repeat region 4 times: same area as in RF-2 with quadruple the companies, average travel distance is only halved (i.e., goes down as the square root of the number of companies)
 - -- Halve all dimensions in RF-3: same area as RF-1 with quadruple the companies, average travel distance is halved (shows how hard it is to decrease travel times by adding companies; to halve travel times must quadruple the number of companies)
- Number of companies available changes from time to time. If the average number available in a region is not too small, the average travel distance can be estimated by replacing "NO. COMPANIES AVAILABLE" with "AV. NO. COMPANIES AVAILABLE."
- Note that this relationship assumes companies are spread out in region. Two companies in one house reduce by one the effective number of companies available (for travel distance purposes)
- This is an example of an analytical model that has been verified against data

The following should be prepared as slides that can be overlaid

Figure RF-1 Figure RF-2

Figure RF-3
Argument is not exact;
don't get into details

Figure RF-4

at this point

Now averaging over time as well as geography

Although $E(\sqrt{N}) \neq \sqrt{E(N)}$ the error is small. See Kolesar and Blum, Square Root Laws for Fire Company Travel Distances, p. 51

3. RELATIONSHIP OF TRAVEL TIME TO TRAVEL DISTANCE

- Travel time is an important criterion for evaluating deployment policies; it is clearly related to travel distance, but how
- This is an example of an empirical model
- Show usual shape of curve--square root blending into a straight line
- Discuss underlying model of acceleration to cruise speed and then deceleration (no equations)
 - Emphasize that if you extend the straight line to the axis, it looks as if turnout time is included, but that's not what's kappening

References and Notes

Ref.: Kolesar and Walker, <u>Measuring the</u> Travel Characteristics of New York City's Fire Companies

Figure OF-2

This relationship will be discussed in more detail in Lecture LF 4. ALARM DO NOT OCCUR AT ORDERLY, PREDICTABLE TIMES, AND SERVICE TIMES DO NOT ALWAYS EQUAL THE AVERAGE (If they did, deployment analysis would be easy)

Purpose: To introduce probabilistic notions, and suggest that mathematical models "understand" that sometimes the situation can be much worse than average

 If average number of alarms is 2 per hour at a certain time of day (such as Friday, 4-6 p.m.), then

14% of such hours will have no alarms
27% of such hours will have 1 alarm
27% of such hours will have 2 alarms
18% of such hours will have 3 alarms
9% of such hours will have 4 alarms
5% of such hours will have 5, or more alarms

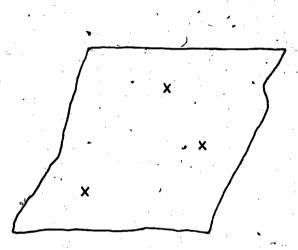
- Discuss what "x% of hours" means
- 2 alarms (the average) is not even more likely to occur than 1 alarm
- There are influences other than random that can make some Friday nights especially busy or quiet
 - 2- Weather (e.g., brush fires)
 - -- Holiday (e.g., July 4)

Use an example that, will "seem right" to your audience

Ref.: Any table of the Poisson distribution

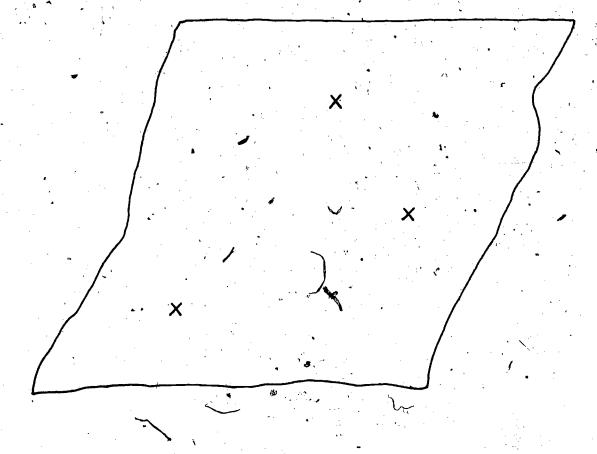
Mention "Poisson process" only in response to questions, like "How do you know?"

Don't discuss in detail. This is discussed further in Lecture DF



Average travel distance = D Area = A Number of units = N (3)

Fig. RF-1



Area = 4A

Average travel distance = 2D

Number of units = N

Fig. RF -2

)° RF-,7°



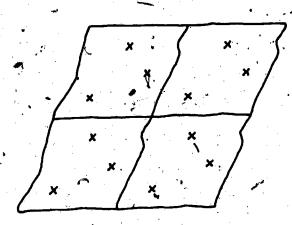


Average travel distance = D

Area = 4A +

Number of units = 4N

Fig. RF-3



Average travel distance = 1/2 D

Area = A

Number of units = 4N (12)

Fig. RF-4



LECTURE OP

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW FOR POLICE SERVICE AUDIENCES

Time Approx. 40 minutes

Objective: To provide an overview of the police patrol resource allocation problems that will be discussed in the course, and to provide an introduction to systems analysis

Activity

References and Notes

1. INTRODUCTION

- Explain nature of course, audience, objectives
- Describe schedule for entire course
- 2. DEFINITION OF PATROL"
 - Uniformed officers in mobile vehicles who can respond to calls for service

. Follows Chaiken,
Patrol Allocation
Methodology for Police
Departments

References and Notes

3. DEFINITION OF "ALLOCATION"

- How many men on duty
 - -- Varies by day and time of day
- Mode of patrol
 - -- One-man cars
 - -- Two-man cars
 - -- Scooters
- How many units in each geographical command
- Design of patrol beats for each unit
- Priorities attached to different types of calls (screening)
- When calls are queued (stacked, backlogged)
- Number of units dispatched
 - -- Varies with location and type of calls
- Which units dispatched
 - -- Type
 - -- Closest unit?
 - -- Beat car?
 - -- 'Across command boundaries?
- Redeployment as unavailabilities occur
- Manpower scheduling
- Scheduling of "other" unavailabilities

- 4. STEPS IN "SYSTEMS ANALYSIS" (A systematic approach to solving problems)
 - Identify the problem
 - Select objectives
 - Define criteria to be used to evaluate alternative policies
 - Design alternative policies
 - Select models to be used
 - Collect required data
 - Compare alternatives using criteria
 - (Return to an earlier step)
 - Test out and implement final choice

5. PROBLEMS

- This course will deal with the problems associated with the allocation of police patrol resources
- 6. OBJECTIVES

 May be several. Some of the most common are:
 - Improve police protection levels with same resources
 - Maintain police protection levels with less resources
 - Improve the balance of workload among patrol units

References and Notes

See Quade, Analysis for Public Decisions

References and Notes

7. CRITERIA (RERFORMANCE MEASURES)

- Length of time caller must wait until unit is dispatched
 - Travel time to scene
- Dispatches out of assigned area
- . Balance of workload among units
- Time available for other activities
 - -- Preventive patrol
 - -- Meals
 - -- Patrol-initiated investigation
 - -- Traffic
 - -- Maintenance of vehicle
 - -- Interaction with citizens
- Cost
- Why not crime deterrence, apprehension of criminal offenders, recovery of stolen property, community sense of security?
 - -- Hard to measure
 - -- Relationship to allocation not known precisely enough
 - -- We use proxy measures
 - -- Administrators can tell what changes /
 in performance measures (up or down)
 are desirable, even if they don't know
 the exact benefit

8. ALTERNATIVE POLICIES

- Include existing policy (for comparison)
- Take political and economic factors into account (including community and labor union concerns)
- Alternatives may be suggested by police department or city personnel, or may come from mathematical models

Some doubt of the value of preventive patrol. See Kelling et al., The Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment

Discussed next

References and Notes

9. MODELS

Purpose: To introduce terminology, not to illustrate any particular models

Definition: abstraction of reality. Used to gain insight into, and answer questions about, the real world. Easier, safer, and less costly to use than manipulating real world

Empirical, models

- -- Fit to data
 - .. May have no explanation
 - .. May be mathematically complicated
- -- Examples
 - .. Smooth fit to call rate by time of day
 - .. How long to travel a given distance

3

.. Relationship between fraction of time cars are unavailable and number of calls for service

• Descriptive analytical models

- -- Using simplified assumptions, some kind of mathematical formula is derived to permit estimating some performance characteristic(s)
- -- The numbers that go into such a model may come from empirical models
- -- Examples
 - .. Knowing number of units on duty, estimate average travel time to an incident
 - .. Knowing number of units on duty, estimate fraction of serious emergencies encountering a delay before dispatch
 - .. Knowing the patrol area of each unit and location of incidents, estimate workload and fraction of out-of-district dispatches for each unit

Draw histogram and curve

Draw representative curve, but don't discuss its shape now! Figure OF-2

Figure OF-3

References and Notes

9. MODELS (continued)

- Optimization models (prescriptive)
 - -- Tell how to achieve the most or the least of something
 - -- Examples
 - .. How should sectors be designed to minimize average travel time to incidents?
 - .. How should a fixed total number of man-hours be distributed among tours so as to minimize the chances that a caller will have to wait before dispatch of a patrol car?

Simulation models

- -- Imitate patrol operations step by step
- -- Collect all kinds of statistics
- -- Can be extremely accurate
- -- Don't tell you what to do
- -- Things you try will be suggested by other models
- -- Likely not to be useful until close to the end of analysis; but have to start early to collect data

LECTURE RP

RULES OF THUMB

FOR POLICE SERVICE AUDIENCES

Time: Approx. 80 minutes,

Objective: • To provide some easy to learn, easy to apply formulas and rules used in police patrol resource allocation analysis

Activity

1. AVERAGE NUMBER OF UNITS BUSY HANDLING CALLS FOR SERVICE

• . Give an example

2 calls per hour, average
1 car handles each
Average length of time to handle call,
30 minutes

On the average, 1 car is busy If 2 cars on duty, each is busy $\frac{1}{2}$ the time If 4 cars on duty, each is busy $\frac{1}{4}$ the time

Number of units on duty must at least equal average number busy

References and Notes

This lecture continues to follow Chaiken, Patrol Allocation Methodology for Polfce Departments

References and Notes

2. EMERGENCIES DO NOT OCCUR AT ORDERLY, PREDICTABLE TIMES, AND SERVICE TIMES ARE NOT THE SAME FOR ALL CALLS
(If they did, the analysis would be easy)

• Example:

- -- Calls occur on the hour and half-hour. Every call takes exactly 30 minutes
 - 1 car can handle--nobody waits
 --but car is always busy
 - if 2 cars--nobody waits
 --each car is free half the time
 --always one car on patrol
- -- But, when average number of calls is 2 per hour

14% of hours have no calls

27% of hours have 1 call

27% of hours have 2 calls

18% of hours have 3 calls

9% of hours have 4 calls

4% of hours have 5 calls

1% of hours have 6 or more calls

-- Considering the usual spread of service times around 30 minutes

With 1 car on duty, every caller waits

With 2 cars on duty,

1/3 of callers wait

1/3 of time no car is on patrol

Average wait until a car can be dispatched is 10 minutes (incl. nowait)

17% of callers wait more than 20 minutes

Conclusion: Number of units on duty must be considerably more than average number busy

Ref.: any table of the Poisson distribution

- 3. A MINIMAL STANDARD FOR ADEQUATE PERFORMANCE IS:
 NO MORE THAN 15% OF IMPORTANT CALLS ARE QUEUED
 - Many departments don't achieve this (especially during peak hours)
 - A goal set by some departments is: No more than 5% of important calls are queued
 - A few departments routinely have less than 1% of important calls queued
 - Impossible to guarantee that no calls will be queued
- 4. CARS ARE UNAVAILABLE FOR DISPATCH FOR REASONS OTHER THAN RESPONSE TO PREVIOUS CALLS
 - What are these activities?

 Meals, personal

 Patrol-initiated crime or vehicle check

 Notifications, warrants

 Process arrestee

 Supervision field

 Supervision station

 Waiting
 - Travel to assigned beat
 Transport (something)
 Assigned to fixed location
 Maintenance, auto
 - Ordinarily, at least 30 percent of each unit's time spent on such unavailabilities
 - In San Fernando Valley area of Los Angeles, average unavailabilities vary among divisions from 44% to 62% of total time on duty. In one New York precinct, 58 percent
 - For queuing purposes, effective number of units on duty may be less than half the number assigned

Ref.: Analysis of
the Los Angeles Police
Department's Patrol
Car Deployment Methods, UCLA School of
Engineering Technical
Report

References and Notes

5. NUMBER OF UNITS NEEDED TO MEET DESIRED LEVEL OF QUEUING DOES NOT INCREASE PROPORTIONATELY WITH NUMBER OF CALLS

• Example:

A command with 2 calls per hour needs 7 units. This is not twice the number needed in a command with 1 call per hour (namely, 5 units)

6. AVERAGE NUMBER OF MINUTES BETWEEN PASSINGS OF A RANDOM POINT BY UNIT ON PATROL ≈

6 x NUMBER OF STREET MILES IN BEAT FRACTION OF TIME AVAILABLE

- Nobody has proved from data that preventive patrol deters crime
- Mention Kansas City Proactive-Reactive Patrol Experiment

Figure RP-1

Ref.: Larson, <u>Urban</u> Police Patrol Analysis

Ref.: Kelling et al.,
The Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment
Ref.: Press, Some
Effects of an Increase
in Police Manpower in

the 20th Precinct of New York City

7. AVERAGE TRAVEL TIME ≈ 2 min $\sqrt{\frac{\text{AREA (in sq miles)}}{\text{NO. UNITS AVAIL.}}}$

• Example:

Area of command is 6 square miles 5 patrol cars on duty Each available 60% of time

Average travel time $\approx 2 \min \sqrt{6/3} = 2.83 \min$

- Why this is a general principle
- Total response time =

(dispatching delay)

- + (queuing delay)
- + (travel time)
- Reducing response time increases probability
 of apprehending offender at the scene; but
 the effect is important only if very short
 response times can be achieved
- Reducing travel time can help to reduce response time into the useful range if queuing delays are short. It makes no sense to reduce travel times when queuing delays are long

References and Notes

Ref.: Kolesar and
Blum, Square Root
Laws for Fire Company
Travel Distances

Use Figures RF-1 to RF-4 (see Lecture RF for accompanying text)

Réf.: Clawson and Chang, Relationship Between Response Time and Call Disposition

8. WHAT CAN YOU DO WITH PRIORITIES?

- If queue forms, dispatch free unit to oldest highest priority call
 - -- Average delay the same
 - -- Delay for high-priority calls is less
- Hold one or two units in reserve for highpriority calls
 - -- Regular beat car
 - -- Special unit
 - -- Average delay is more
- Screen out low-priority calls when busy
 - -- "Adaptive dispatch policy"
- Schedule low-priority calls for handling at a more convenient time

9. WHAT S WRONG WITH HAZARD FORMULA?

- Description of Hazard Formula
 - -- F_j = jth factor
 - -- Examples:

Number of outside violent crimes
Number of other Part I crimes
Number of street miles
Number of arrests
Number of commercial establishments
Number of emergency calls

-- f = amount of factor j in command i

--
$$F_j = f_{1j} + f_{2j} + f_{3j} + ... + f_{Nj}$$

-- w_j = "importance" of factor j

-
$$H_1 = w_1 \frac{f_{11}}{F_1} + w_2 \frac{f_{12}}{F_2} + \dots + w_M \frac{f_{1M}}{F_M}$$

- Manpower proportional to H,

Refs.:

Chaiken and Larson,
Methods for Allocating
Urban Emergency Units

Kakalik and Wildhorn, Aids to Decisionmaking in Police Patrol

Chaiken, <u>Patrol</u>
<u>Allocation Methodology</u>
for Police Departments

References and Notes

9. WHAT'S WRONG WITH { HAZARD } FORMULA? (continued)

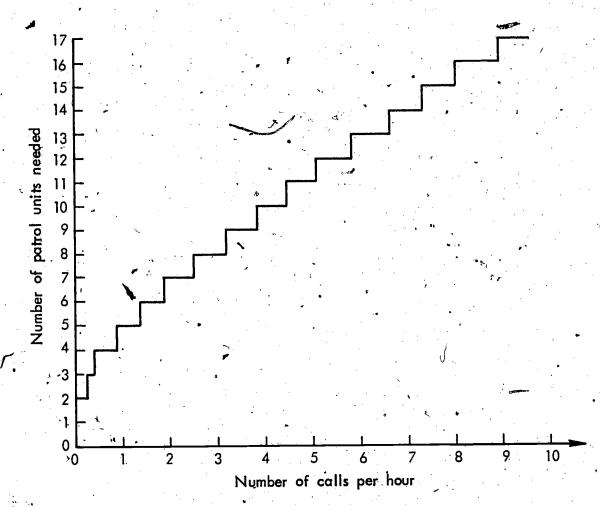
- Description of Workload Formula,
 - -- w_j = number of man-hours associated with factor j
 - -- $H_1 = w_1 f_{11} + w_2 f_{12} + \dots + w_M f_{1M}$
 - -- Manpower proportional to H,
 - -- Mathematically the same as Hazard Formula with different weights
- Problems
 - -- Apples and oranges
 - -- Interrelated
 - -- Proportional increase for emergency calls
 - -- No way to determine "correct" weights for Hazard Formula
 - Workload Formula accomplishes only one objective: equalizing workload
 - -- Hazard Formula does not do what it appears to do

Example: Assume precincts with high numbers of outside crimes have proportionately more unimportant calls. Then increasing way for outside crimes decreases manpower assigned to high-crime precincts

- -- No credit for good performance
- May be useful for manpower needs other than patrol

Fample, a call may be a Part I crime

In the example, the hazard formula is assumed to include the factors "outside crimes," "other calls for service," and possibly other uncorrelated factors Number of patrol units needed so that at most 10% of calls delayed



Assumptions: 30 minute service time per call
50 % of each car's time spent
unavailable for reasons other than dispatch to a call

Fig. RP-1

LECTURE CG

CHARACTERISTICS OF EMERGENCY SERVICES FOR GENERAL AUDIENCES

This lecture is intended for audiences of analysts interested in the similarities and differences among emergency services and for audiences containing a mixture of fire, police, and ambulance service representatives.

Time: Approx. 60 minutes

Objective: To describe the general characteristics of emergency services that are relevant for deployment analyses

Activity

1. INTRODUCTION

- Some models developed for one emergency service can be applied directly to another service, changing only terminology. Others are unique to a particular service because of distinct characteristics
- Considering only police patrol, fire units, and emergency medical services

2. CALLS FOR SERVICE

• \ Arrival process

All three services: Poisson by time and geography. Rate varies by hour about an order of magnitude. Any method that predicts demands for one service will also work for others

Priority structure

Police and ambulance: priorities can be identified; some calls are not timeurgent; some calls can be rejected when necessary to prevent system congestion, but there may be legal constraints on call rejection

Fire: information for distinguishing type of call may be absent (e.g., street box alarm); when present, information does not determine priority, but only the number and type(s) of units needed

References and Notes

Generally, the lecturer must be familiar with the references in Lectures OF, IF, OP, and IP

In working on blackboard, this and following items can be organized by heading three columns "police," "fire," and "ambulance"

References and Notes

3. TYPES OF UNITS

Police: usually all patrol units are interchangeable from the point of view of the functions they can perform when they reach the scene

Fire: at least two types: engines and ladders; limited interchangeability

'Ambulances: may have distinguishable capabilities: transport only, routine treatment, or intensive care (medic units, mobile cardiac care units)

4. MANNING

Police: 1 or 2 officers. If both types are present in same city, two 1-man units may be needed as an alternative to one 2-man unit

Fire: 3 to 7 fire-fighters

Ambulance: standard is now 2 attendants; some agencies do not achieve this

5. LOCATION OF UNITS

Police: mobile. Patrol areas can in principle be designed in any way desired, but administrative constraints are often imposed. Patrol areas can also change during or between tours of duty, but this is becoming less common with the advent of "neighborhood teams." Overlap of sectors possible, but not done in most cities. Geometrical probability models for two or more randomly located points relevant

Fire and ambulance: usually fixed locations. "Patrol" activities such as inspection infrequent; can ignore in most cities. May be several units at one location. Type of physical structure not important for ambulances (garage, hospital, police station, fire station). Fixed location implies "turnout" time

Activity

References and Notes

6. HOW MANY UNITS ON DUTY

Police and ambulance: flexible by day and time

Fire: usually not varied over the day; a long-term planning issue

7. QUEUING OF CALLS DUE TO UNAVAILABILITY OF UNITS

Police: common in many cities. Wait may dominate travel time. Queue usually has priority structure in practice

Ambulance: common in a few cities. Happens, occasionally in many cities

Fire: Only under crisis conditions. Not relevant for deployment analysis

8. HOW MANY UNITS DISPATCHED

Police: usually one. For some calls two 1-man cars are dispatched. In practice, more units may respond than are dispatched

Fire: usually at least two. In some cities as many as 5-7. Traditionally preplanned according to:

- (a) nature of land use (business, residential, high rise)
- (b) nature of incident

Analysis can consider time of day, projected incidence rates, current unavailability status of system, probability that incident is serious, manning on unit

Ambulance: usually one. Some systems dispatch two or three, having different capabilities

- (a) First responder has limited capabilities; second has full treatment and transport capabilities
- (b) First has full treatment capabilities but cannot transport; second can transport

Ignall et al.,
Improving the Deployment of New York City
Fire Companies

Ignall and Urbach,
The Relationship
Between Fire-Fighting
Unit Availability
and the Number of
Units Dispatched

Activity

References and Notes

9. WHICH UNIT.(S) DISPATCHED

Police: usually sector car if available. If not available, several policies are possible

Fire: traditionally preplanned. Almost always closest available, on initial dispatch

Analysis shows this may not be optimal

, 10. RELOCATION

Fire: traditionally preplanned for multiple-alarm fires. May be needed for several simultaneous smaller fires. Explain purpose

Police and ambulance: rarely used, but would have same benefits as in fire case

UNAVAILABILITY FOR REASONS OTHER THAN PREVIOUS DISPATCH

Fire and ambulance: recovery from previous incident only

Police: substantial part of activity.
May amount to 35%-60% of time. Some of these unavailabilities could be interrupted by high-priority incident

See MCM, SCM, etc., in Larson, <u>Urban Police</u> Patrol Analysis, or in Larson, <u>Hypercube</u> Queuing Model: <u>User's</u> Manual

Describe alarm assignment card. Explain how this is equivalent to specifying a response area for each unit. See Lecture IF

Carter, Chaiken, and Ignall, <u>Response Areas</u> for Two <u>Emergency Units</u>

See Lecture MF.

References and Notes

12. PERFORMANCE CRITERÍA

(a) Queuing concepts

Fire: delays by dispatchers; probability that all or most units assigned to a subarea will be busy

Police and ambulance: dispatch delays, expected time in queue, probability of waiting > T in queue, delays by priority level

(b) Travel time

Fire: is a vector (by order of arrival and type of unit)

Police and ambulance: relevant for certain calls

(c) Turnout time

Fire and ambulance

(d) Workload balance

All three

(e) Dispatches out of usual area

Police

(f) Time available for nondispatch functions

Police

• (g) Cost of operation

All three

For other services, this is of interest only by virtue of its effect on travel time and workload balance

LECTURE DF

DATA ANALYSIS FOR FIRE SERVICE AUDIENCES

Time: Approx. 60 minutes

Objective: To introduce students to types of alarm patterns and their use-fulness, and to suggest approaches for analyzing data.

Activity

1. DEFINITION OF DATA ANALYSIS

- Emphasize the view of discovering patterns that allow deployment to be improved
- Indicate that variation is expected otherwise play it down
- Give example of a nonuseful pattern (Thursday 'Is Tacoma, Washington's slowest day)
- Say that usual computer reports are not sufficient for data analysis, although possibly useful for management purposes

2. COMMON PATTERNS--THEIR RELIABILITY AND USE

- Let the audience help identify and classify them
- Do geography, type of incident, trend, season, day of week, time of day (optional-weather)
- Structural fires may have different patterns than false alarms; patterns of total alarms, structures, and false alarms will all be illustrated

References and Notes

Lecture continues to follow Chaikeny Ignall, and Walker Deployment Methodology for Fire Departments

Figure Figure the

Figure DF-2, on the blackboard

Optional: July 4 vs. average vs. slow day

optional. July 4 vs. average vs. slow day

 Offer weather as a partial explanation of the variation

variation around it

 Ask audience for possible uses—different number of men on duty at different hours, etc. Emphasize possible—they may not be desirable uses. Figure DF-6

Figure DF-7 (may be omitted)
Figure DF-8

Activity

References and Notes

5. TREND AND SEASON

To illustrate superposition of patterns and how to untangle effects

- Display a short pattern, indicate inadequacy (total alarms, 34 months, Tacoma)
- Display a long pattern (false alarms,
 60 months, New York City)
- Display detrended seasonal pattern
 - -- Indicate that slide shows <u>ratio</u> of alarms in a week to the trend
 - -- Could calculate the <u>difference</u> between alarms in a week and the trend as alternative
 - -- Stress the economy of the ratio description
- Ask audience for possible uses

6. PATTERN "SIZE"

To indicate the possible usefulness of a pattern

- Divide previous patterns into 4 seasons and 4 tix-hour periods (divide the year and the day into the same number of parts, in this case, 4)
- Calculate ratio of peak period to low period for each of the two patterns
- Compare the ratios. A big ratio indicates a pattern possibly worth trying to take advantage of
- Check statistical significance of large ratios
 - -- if ratio is large, but the data do not establish significance, gather more data
 - -- [if a small ratio is statistically significant, there may nonetheless be no policy value to the pattern]

Figure DF-9

Figure DF-10

Figure DF-11

On the blackboard, using Figures DF-9, DF-12 Figure DF-13

References and Notes

7. GEOGRAPHICAL PATTERNS--LARGE AREAS

- Illustrate approximate constancy of false alarms as a fraction of box alarms throughout New York City
- Stress the economy of this constancy, as it relates to false alarms per capita or per square mile, which vary even more than total alarms illustrated in Figures DF-3, DF-4

8. GEOGRAPHICAL PATTERNS--SMALL AREAS

Purposes: To indicate that part of the data should be reserved, and used for judging the reliability of any patterns discovered and to show a pattern that was discovered because deployment models suggested that if it existed, it would be useful

- Illustrate box-to-box variability in proportion of all alarms that are false
 - -- Not inconsistent with large area pattern, since no area is exclusively high or low in regard to percent false
 - -- Indicate the pattern is useful only if it is consistent from year to year

Figure DF-14

(Colored map, not reproducible in these lecture notes, is available from address given on last page of this report. Map shows wide range in percent false at a box. Boxes with high percent false appear isolated, not part of a pattern)



Activity

8. GEOGRAPHICAL PATTERNS -- SMALL AREAS (continued)

- Illustrate the finding and checking of the pattern of box-to-box variations in proportion of box alarms that are serious
 - -- These are year-round numbers
 - -- Box 2277 is among the lowest in predicted percent structural, box 2209 is among the highest. But they are not outliers
 - -- Indicate how risk classes were defined
 - -- Stress the role of reserving some of the data
 - -- Deployment models shifted attention to serious fires rather than total alarms
 - -- Seriousness needs careful definition, specific to the city. Depends on the purpose: Maybe all structural, maybe only those that work several companies, etc.
 - -- The pattern is useful when the alarm rate is high
- Indicate that season and time of day affect the pattern
 - Relatively more false alarms in summer (and evening), structural fixes almost constant
 - -- Serious fires are a larger proportion of structural late at night, in winter (fewer food-on-stove-type incidents)
 - -- Illustrate the size of the overall effect: risky boxes, late night, winter vs. nonrisky, summer evening
 - -- Optional: Illustrate economy and good fit of separate, multiplicative seasonal and time-of-day factors

References and Notes

Figure DF-15

Ignall et al., Improving the Deployment of
New York City Fire Companies, Section II

Carter and Rolph,
New York City Fire
Alarm Prediction
Models: I. BoxReported Serious Fires,
Section 3.4

See Figure DF-18 and Lecture IF

Figures DF-16, DF-17

Figure DF-18

Figures DF-19, DF-20

References and Notes

9. Optional: THE POISSON PROCESS

<u>Purpose</u>: To introduce probabilistic notions, and suggest that mathematical models "understand" that sometimes the situation is much worse than average

Suggest its nature and reasonableness. Take a finite set of "similar" hours and a fixed total number of alarms, and discuss distributing the alarms at random. ("Throwing darts at the line")

- Example--Jersey City. Very small seasonal effect (similar to Tacoma). In 1973, 1480 alarms in 2-4 p.m. period, which is 365 x 2 = 730 hours. In that period, 1480/730 = 2 alarms per hour
- Consequence—if average number of alarms
 is 2 per hour between 2 and 4 p.m. in
 Jersey City, then

14% of such hours will have no alarms
27% of such hours will have 1 alarm
27% of such hours will have 2 alarms
18% of such hours will have 3 alarms
9% of such hours will have 4 alarms
5% of such hours will have 5 or more alarms

- Discuss what "x% of hours" means
- 2 alarms (the average) is not even more likely to occur than 1 alarm
- 10. Optional: FIRE COMPANY WORK TIMES
 - Discuss company work times by alarm type
 - Indicate that averages may be sufficient

Ref.: Rider and Hausner, An Analysis of the Deployment of Fire-Fighting Resources in Jersey City, New Jersey

Ref.: Any table of the Poisson distribution

Ref.: Chaiken, Ignall, and Walker, <u>Deployment</u>
Methodology for Fire
Departments



Activity

References and Notes

11. RECAP

Go through the data analysis process

- Divide the data

 - -- Verify them on the other
- . Plot and cross-tabulate
- Construct hazard regions
- Patterns should be
 - -- useful
 - -- simple

Figure DF-21

DATA ANALYSIS

What is it?

Discovering and characterizing the variations and consistencies in incidents:

- Finding patterns--in time, season, location
- Variations from the patterns are oftenusefully treated as random, and describable by the Poisson process

Why do it?

To improve the deployment of fire-fighting resources

COMMON ALARM PATTERNS

		<u> </u>	
Pattern	Reliable.	Useful For	How Much
Geographical	Relatively	Allocation	Very
Breakdown by Type	Yes	Allocation, Ini- tial Dispatch	Some
Trend-	Maybe	Allocation	Some
Season	Yes	Allocation ~~	8 Slight/
Day of Week	Yes	?	
Time of Day	Yes	Initial Dispatch, Allocation	Very if alarm rate - is high, slight otherwise
Weather	_	Short term allocation, for brush fires, etc.	Some

Fig. DF-2

-52-

HAZARD REGION DATA (TOTAL ALARMS PER 1000 RESIDENTS IN 1971) NEW YORK CITY

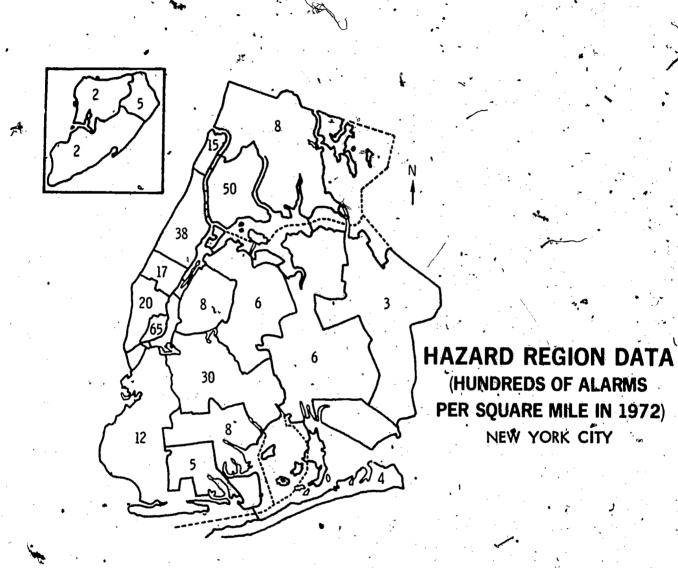
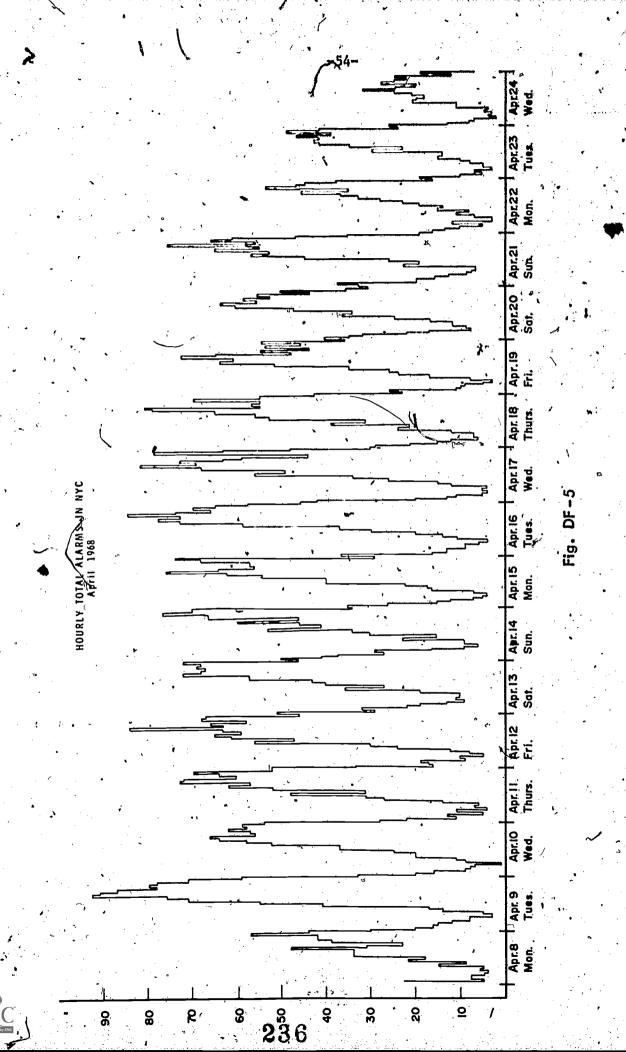


Fig. DF-4



DF-12

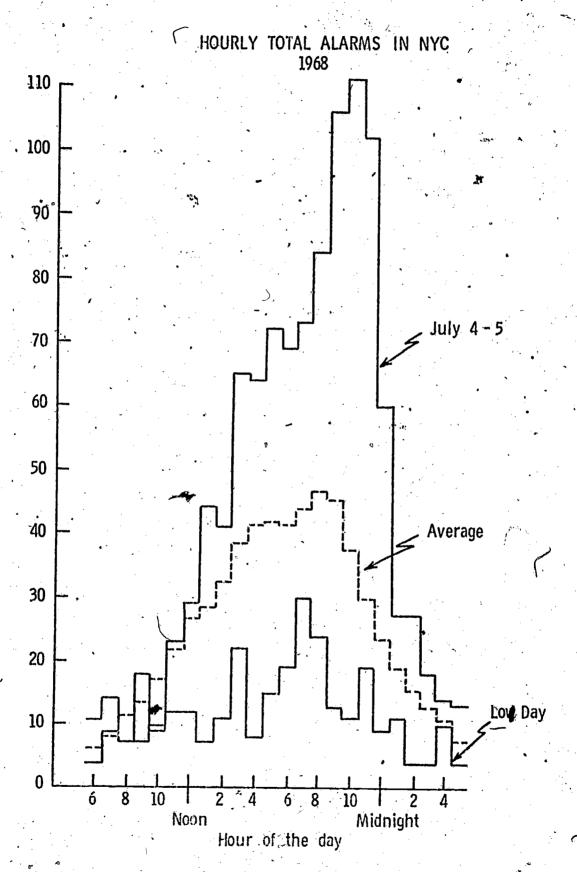


Fig. DF-6

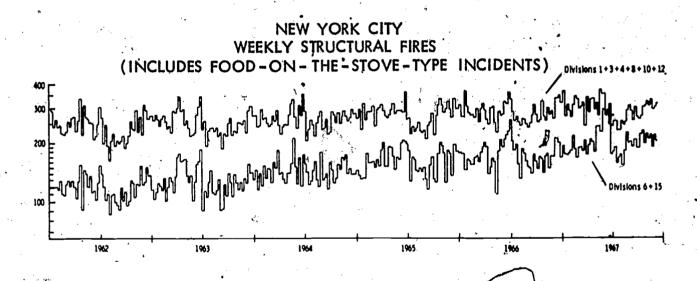


Fig. DF-7

HOURLY TOTAL ALARMS IN NYC

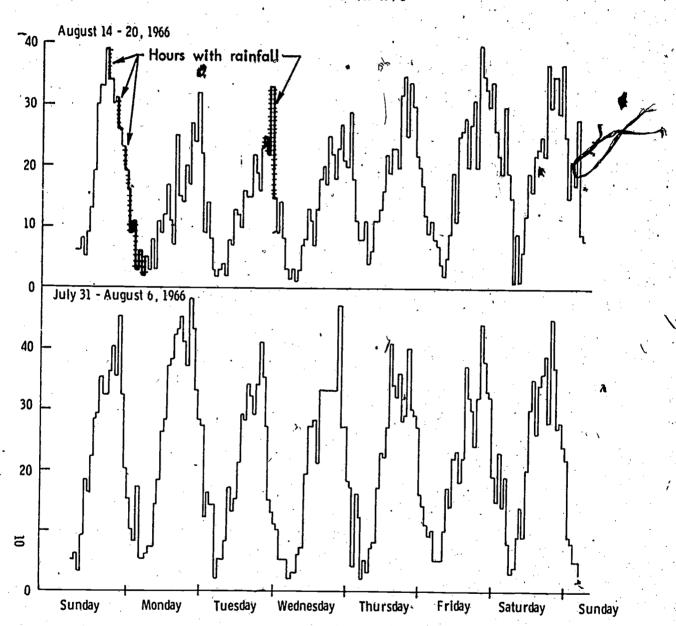


Fig. DF-8

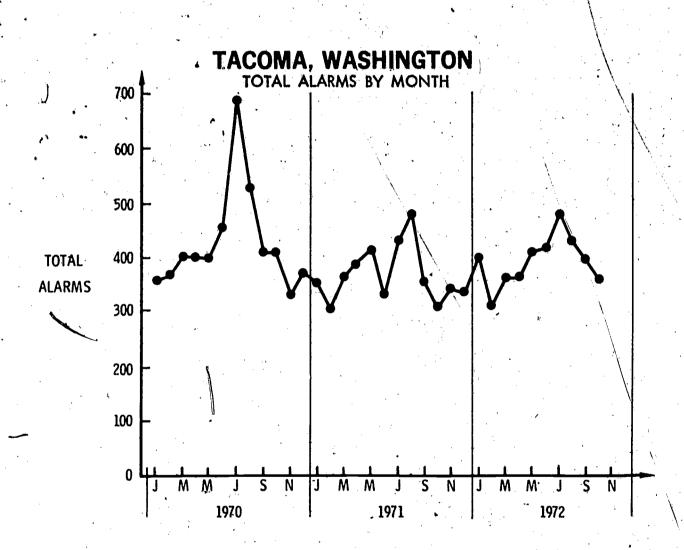


Fig. DF-9.



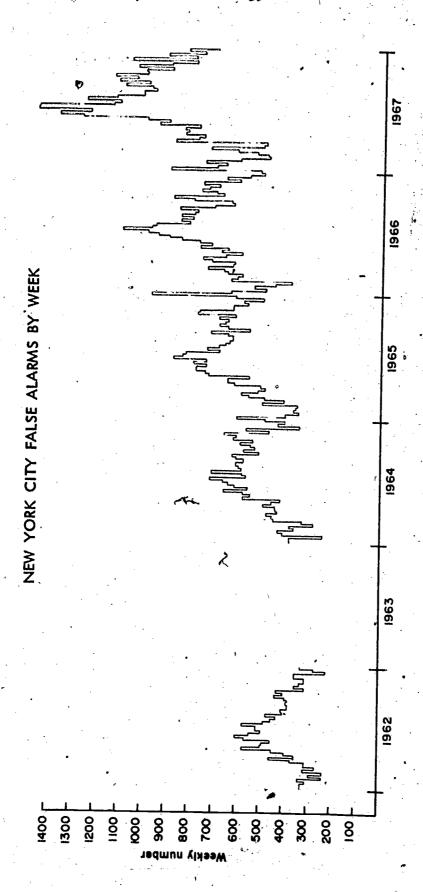
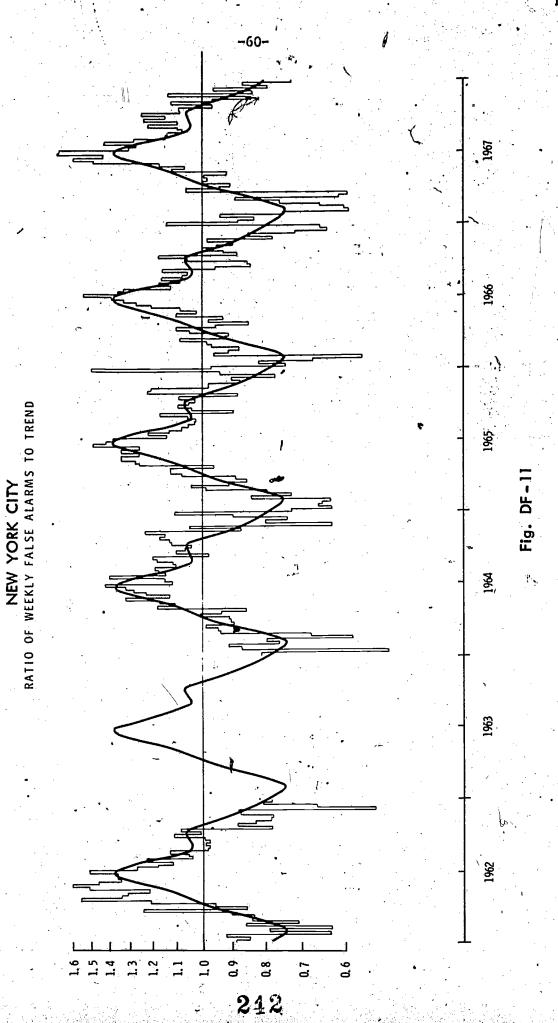


Fig. DF-10





TACOMA, WASHINGTON (TIME OF DAY PATTERN)

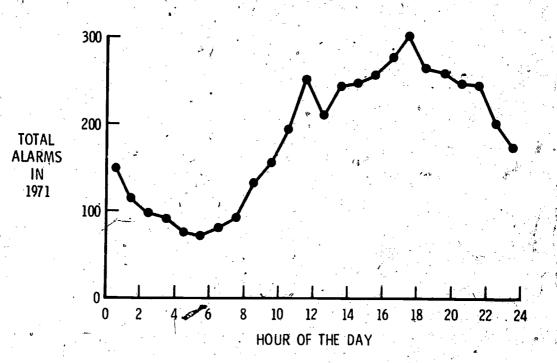


Fig. DF-12

· MEASURING THE SIZE OF A PATTERN

	Seasonal Pattern:	Tacoma
	Period	Alarms in 1971
Winter:	January, February, December	1002
Spring:	March-May	1181
Summer:	June-August	1248
Fall:	September-November	1009

High to low ratio is 1.25 = 1248/1002

Time of Day Pattern:	Tacoma
----------------------	--------

Time	Alarms in 1971
0200 - 0800	497 🌲
0800 - 1400	1195
1400 - 2000	1409.
2000 - 0200	1139

High to low ratio is

2.8 = 1409/497 /

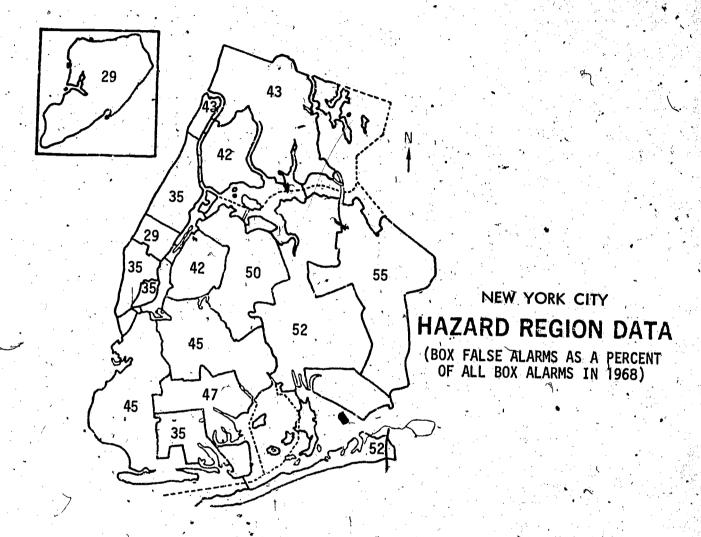
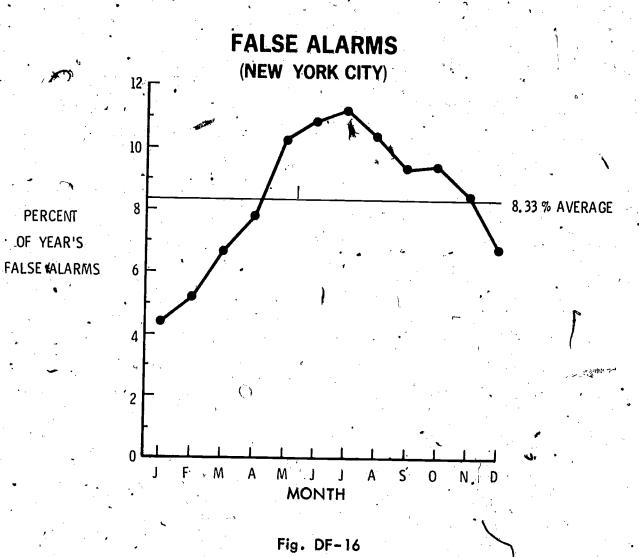


Fig. DF-14

STRUCTURAL FIRE PREDICTIONS FOR TWO ALARM BOXES

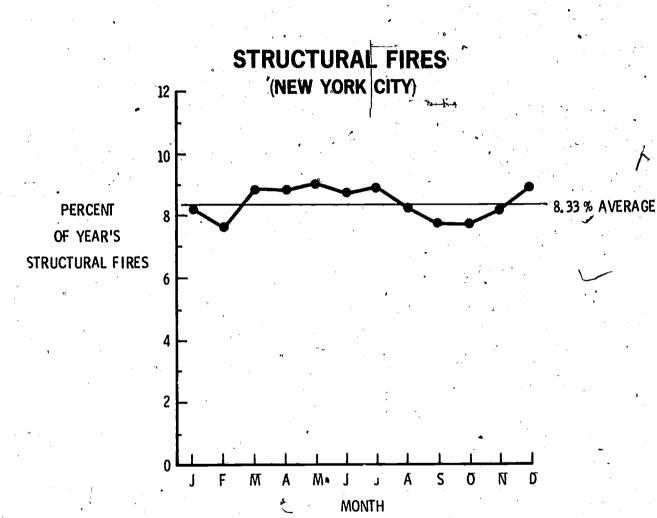
D	D	Actual 1970 Data		
Bronx box number	Predicted percent structural ('67 - '69 data)	Alarms	Structural fires	
. 2277 2209	0.4	96 94	0 25	
2209	, 51.0		23	





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PERCENT



-66-

Fig. DF-17

SEASONAL AND TIME OF DAY EFFECTS IN SERIOUS FIRES AS A PROPORTION OF STRUCTURAL (NEW YORK CITY)

PERCENT OF ALL STRUCTURAL FIRES IN 1970 REPORTED IN THE INDICATED WAY THAT WORKED MORE THAN ONE LADDER

•		0-8	8-16	16-24
<u>BCX</u>	WINTER	33.8%	28.6%	25.0%
•	SPRING-FALL	32.8	25.5	23.1
	SUMMER	32.6	22.0	. 22.2
<u>PHONE</u>	WINTER	20.9	15.3	11.7
	SPRING-FALL •	16.0	11.9	10.3
	SÙMMER .	16.8	11.5	10.0

PROPORTION OF BOX-REPORTED ALARMS THAT WERE SERIOUS FIRES, BY SEASON AND TIME OF DAY, 1964-1970 BRONX DATA

	•		R	<u></u>	
TIME OF DAY	WINTER PROPORTION	SPRING/FALL PROPORTION	SUMMER PROPORTION	OVER WHOLE YEAR PROPORTION	•
0-8 a ^t .m.	0.057	0.042	0.026	·0.038	- 1.7
8 a.m. – 4 p.m.	0.044	0.025	0.018	0.027	1.2
4 p.m midnight -	0.025	0.015	0.011	0 .016	.7
Over Whole Day	0.031	0.021	0.016	0.022	

1.4

SEPARATING SEASONAL AND TIME-OF-DAY EFFECTS: SERIOUS FIRES

- -	Relative Seriousness: Percent of box alarms in indicated period that were serious a percent of all box alarms that were serious			
.0 - 8	1.7 =, 3.8/2.2			
8 - 16	1.2 = 2.7/2.2			
16 - 24	.7 = 1.6/2.2			
Winter	1.4 = 3.1/2.2			
Spring, Fall	1.0 = 2.1/2.2			
Summer	.7 = 1.6/2.2			

Actual Percent Serious		erious	Percent Serious if Seas and Time-of-Day Effect were Multiplicative		Effects	
	Winter	Spring, Fall	Summer.	Winter	Spring, Fall	Summer
0 - 8	5.7	4.2	2.6	5.4*	3.6	2.8
8 - 16	4.4	2.5	1.8	3.8	2.5	2.0
16 - 24	2.5	1.5	1.1	2.3	1.5	1.2

^{*}Example: $5.4\% = 2.2\% \times 1.7[0 - 8] \times 1.4[winter]$.

SUMMARY

- DIVIDE THE AVAILABLE DATA IN TWO PARTS
 - Use one for finding patterns
 - Reserve the other for verifying them
- PLOT THE DATA
- MAKE CROSS-TABULATIONS
 - → Time of day and season
 - Proportion serious and region
- DIVIDE CITY INTO HOMOGENEOUS REGIONS BY
 - Land use
 - Alarm data
- LOOK FOR USEFUL PATTERNS
- TRY FOR SIMPLE, ECONOMICAL MODELS
- TEST IF THE PATTERNS YOU'VE DISCOVERED ARE CONSISTENT, BY SEEING WHETHER THE RESERVED DATA FITS THEM

LECTURE AF

ALLOCATION OF FIRE COMPANIES

Time: Approx. 60 minutes

Computer terminal with telephone coupler (if allocation model Equipment:

is being demonstrated)

Objective: To introduce one approach to analyzing fire company location

problems, and to explain the first step in such an analysis.

Activity

INTRODUCTION

- What makes it necessary to think about changing the number and location of fire stations?.
 - Urban renewal
 - Neighborhood changes
 - Aging of firehouses
 - Changes in fire department budget levels
- Must find answers to two questions:
 - (1) How many fire companies are needed?
 - (2) Where should the companies be located?
- In regard to question 1: Why not cost/ benefit approach?
 - Don't know relationship between dollar losses and travel times
 - Requires that a monetary value be " placed on human life
 - Fire department is only part of the municipal budget. This approach would have to be applied to all agencies
- Practical approach
 - (1) Assume a given budget level--this determines the number of fire companies
 - (2) Find the best way to allocate the companies to regions of the city
 - (3) Find specific sites for each company

References and Notes

Lecture follows Rider. A Parametric Model for the Allocation of Fire Companies

I.e., add companies until marginal benefit. would be less than marginal cost

Budget level can be varied for purposes of analysis

Discussed later in this lecture

Discussed in Lecture LF

2. ALLOCATION OBJECTIVES

- Hypothetical examples illustrating conflict among objectives
 - -- City has 2 regions of the same size with very different alarm rates

- Allocate to minimize average travel time to alarms
 - -- High travel times in low incidence region
 - -- Ignores fire hazards
- Allocate to equalize coverage
 - -- Companies in high incidence region will have high workloads
 - -- Higher travel times to most alarms

Figure AF-1. The X's on this figure do not represent the locations of anything in particular, but simply symbolize the relative numbers of incidents in the two regions

Overlay Figure AF-2 on Figure AF-1

Figure AF-2 shows the locations of 10 fire stations that will minimize the average travel time to incidents in the whole city

Overlay Figure AF-3 on Figure AF-1

Figure AF-3 shows an arrangement of 10 stations that makes the average response time in the "south" region the same as in the "north" region.

Point out two features of this arrangement:

- (1) Number of /stations "in" a region does not have to be an integer. The north has $5\frac{1}{2}$ stations.
- (2) The north has more stations than the south because on the average more companies are busy in the north

 Conclusion: Neither of these allocations is good

References and Notes

2. ALLOCATION OBJECTIVES (continued)

- Solution: Use compromise allocation
 - -- The Parametric Allocation Model determines allocations for a range of compromises between "minimum average travel time" and "equal coverage"

USEFULNESS OF PARAMETRIC ALLOCATION MODEL

- Provides general picture of number of fire companies to allocate to different parts of the city
- Quick and inexpensive to use
- Requires very little data '
 - Various uses
 - -- Compare travel times and workload among regions
 - -- Determine reallocations of current resources
 - -- Determine regions to gain or lose companies if level of resources is to be changed

4. DATA NEEDED FOR EACH REGION

- City must be divided into hazard regions
- Travel times will be weighted in each region. Weight indicates "importance" of travel time

Model is operated separately for engine companies and for ladder companies. Answers provided by the model are suggestive, not precise. Use of the model can only be a first step in a study of company locations

See Lecture DF

Each factor will be described in turn. This equation is not exactly correct but gives the general idea. See item 10, below, for mathematical formulation

5. WHAT IS "EFFECTIVE" ALARM RATE?

- Each type of alarm is counted in proportion to its seriousness
- If all alarms are considered of equal seriousness, then the effective alarm rate is the same as total alarm rate
- Can count only structural fires, or only fires that required more than a certain amount of work to extinguish (e.g., one company-hour)
- Can weight each type of alarm by the number of company-hours needed to extinguish it.
 Then

6. WHAT IS THE HAZARD FACTOR?

- Subjective measure of the relative danger of a fire (potential for loss of life or property if a fire does occur)
- Suppose the most hazardous region is given a hazard rating of 1.0. Then a region with hazard rating 0.9 is less hazardous to the extent that travel times could be about 10 percent higher in this region, and the department would be willing to say equal quality fire protection is being provided in the two regions
- This is a subjective management input.
 When using the model, can try several different ways of defining hazards and see what the consequences are

This is unlikely to be a desirable choice, but may be necessary if no better data are available

See Lecture RF

A

7. T CITYWIDE DATA NEEDED

"Constant" and "power" in the relationship between travel time and number of companies:

8. DECISION VARIABLES

- Total number of companies to be allocated to the city
- Tradeoff parameter beta (β). This accomplishes the compromise between "minimum average travel time" and "equal coverage"
 - -- For β = 1, program shows an allocation that minimizes the average-weighted travel time
 - -- For large β (50 or more), program shows an allocation that will make the weighted response time equal in all regions
 - -- [For small β, workload is equalized]
- How does the department choose its desired value of β?
 - -- Try different values between 1 and 50. See what happens
 - -- β = 3 was found to be "good" in New York City
 - -- It often happens that <u>all</u> values of β indicate that certain hazard regions should lose companies as compared to the present arrangement, and others should gain companies. Such a conclusion is "robust," because any "reasonable" value of β leads to a qualitatively similar conclusion

This combines "rules of thumb" numbered 2 and 3 in Lecture RF.
See also Kolesar,
A Model for Predicting
Average Fire Company
Travel Times

May be changed in different runs of the computer program

The weight is discussed above, in item 4

This will be illustrated in the demonstration

I.e., the administrators liked the resulting allocations

9. QUERUT

- The number of companies to be located in each hazard region
- The average travel time in each region, given the number of companies allocated
- Citywide averages

10. MATHEMATICAL FORMULATION (Optional)

M = total number of companies to be allocated in the city

n = number of companies allocated in region i

 $\lambda_{1} = effective alarm rate in region i$

h_i = hazard rating for region i

 $\tau_{1}(n_{1})$ = average travel time in region i, given n_{1} companies there

$$= c \left(\frac{A_1}{n_1 - b_1} \right)^{\alpha}$$

c and α are the travel-time "constant" and "power".

A_i = area of region i

b_i = average number of companies busy in region i

Optimization problem:

- Minimize $\sum_{i}^{\lambda} \lambda_{i} (h_{i} \tau_{i} (n_{i}))^{\beta}$ subject to $\sum_{i}^{\lambda} n_{i} = M$
- β is the tradeoff parameter

References and Notes

11. LEAD-IN TO DEMONSTRATION

- Jersey City will be chosen as an example
- Display map of city
- Discuss
 - -- definition of demand regions
 - -- objective was to plan in terms of alarm rates to be expected in the future
- 12. DEMONSTRATION

Ref.: Rider and Hausner, An Analysis of the Deployment of Fire-Fighting Resources in Jersey City, New Jersey

Figure AF-4

(Same as hazard regions) Figures AF-5, AF-6, AF-7

Lecturer operates program on-line or prepares printout in advance or uses suitable tables from Rider and Hausner report cited above.

Table numbers that follow refer to this report

Reference for operating the program: Rider,

A Parametric Model for the Allocation of Fire Companies:
User's Manual

Activity	tivi	tv
----------	------	----

12. DEMONSTRATION (continued)

- Describe "base case" situation
 - -- Discuss response times
 - .. Differences between regions
 - .. Citywide average, noting that it is weighted by regional alarm rates
 - Average and percentage busy indicate relative workloads
- Derive allocations for different values of the tradeoff parameter
 - -- Interpret fractional allocations
 - -- Point out that parameter = .25 produces good approximation of current allocation
- Find reallocation for parameter = .25 based on 1983 alarm rates
- Allocations for different numbers of total companies
- [optional] Comparison of different specific allocations with the current situation

Model 1. Interpret printout headings, if using printout

Table 4-1

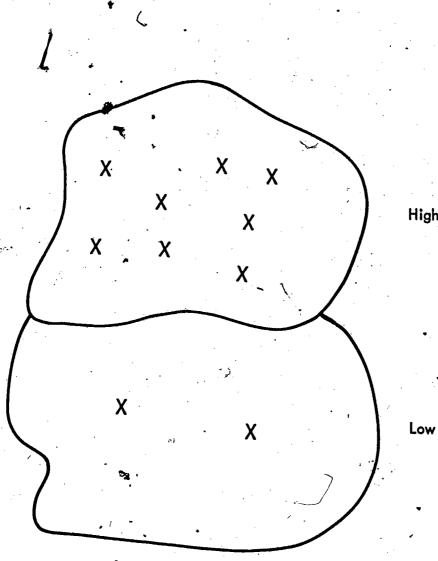
Model 3. Tables 4-2, 4-3. WARNING: The "parameter" in this program is 1/β

This corresponds to $\beta = 4$

Tables 4-4, 4-5

Tables 4-6, 4-7-

This is Model 2



High demand

Low demand

Fig. AF-1

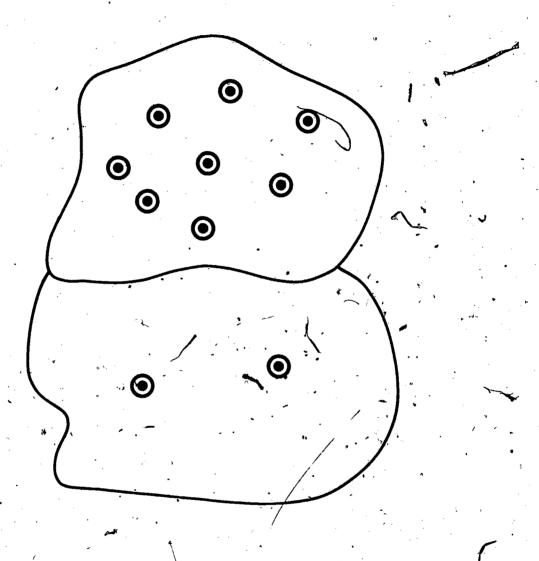


Fig. AF-2 — Minimum \total response time to all fires



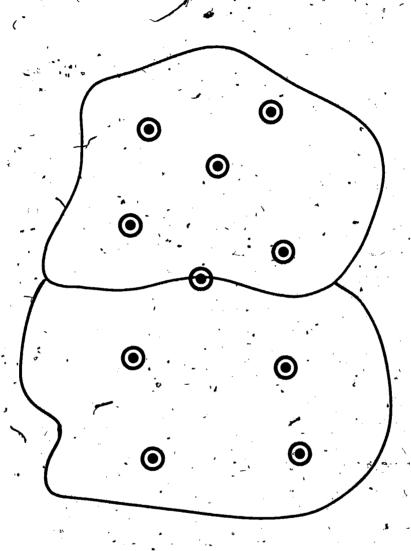


Fig. AF-3 — Equal coverage for both areas

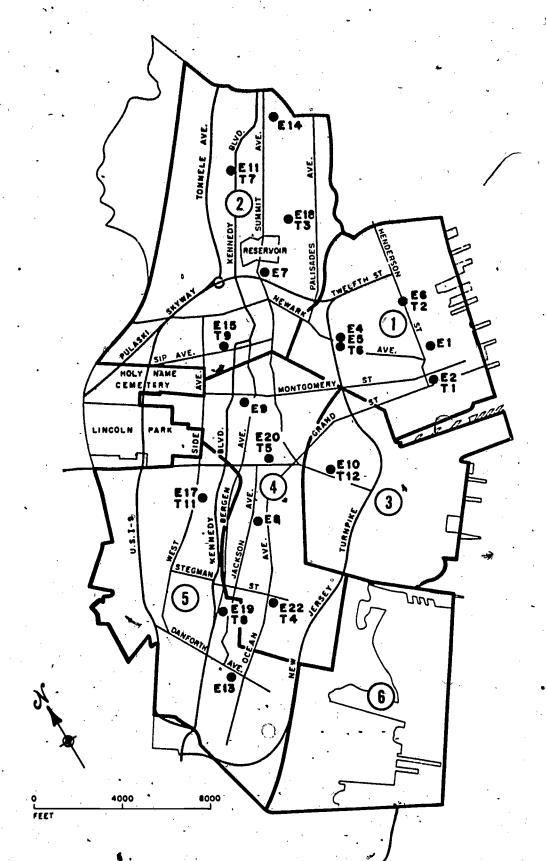


Fig. AF-4 — Map of demand regions and fire company locations

Area (Sq.Miles)	~	Population 1970	Population per Sq.Mile (Thousands)	Housing Units	1-2 Family Number	1-2 Family Dwelling Number %	Vacant Units	Units	Basic Characteristics
1,52 34,876			22.9	12,512	1,830	14.6	936	7.5	Secondary downtown area, high-rise multiple dwellings, waterfront
2.82 82,060 2	.,	Š.	29.1	30,447	11,965	39.3	1,050	3.4	Primary downtown area, semidense residential
Lafayette 0.85 11,721 13.8 Liberty Harbor		13.	 co	3,857	954	24.7	245	4.9	Mainly industrial, some residences
1,98, 76,019 38,4	•	38.	9	26,589	12,651	47.6	1,390	5.2	Dense residential area, smali businesses
2.59 54,937 21.2		21.		18,339	10,806	58.9	7/7	2.3	Less dense restdential, some industry
9,76 259,613 26.6		26.	. 9	91,744.	38,206	41.6	4,095	4.5	· ·

Fig. AF-5 — Demand region demography .

	Per Capita		.0088	.0040	, 0094	.0092	•0044	.0065
dences	Per	"	. •	•		Ÿ.	.	•
Fires in Residences	Structural		74.6	81.5	79.1	89.0	84.1	83.2
	Number		305	326	110	869	244	1.683
s Alarms/Capita	Structural	•	.0113	.0048	9600.	. 0111	.0051	.0078
Alam	Total	<u>.</u> !	.0949	.0300	,0715	.0442	.0291	0446
	l-ı			7				
/Sq.Mile	Total Structural		260	138	133	424	108	207
Alarms	Total		2,176	872	986	1,700	617	1,185
Number	Total Structural	4.	395	390	, p13	840	279	2,017
Wun.	Fotal		3,308	2,459	838	3,366	1,599	11.570
Demand	Region		-	7	m	7	بر.	. City-

^aExcluding Region 6.

Fig. AF-6 — Demand region alarm incidence

		Alarms per Hour 4 p.m. to Midnight							
Region	Area Sq.Miles	A11	False	Nonseriou Structura	5	Serious Structura			
1	1.52	.722	•403 ·	.040		.015			
2	2.82	.444	.137	.047	•	.009			
3	0.85	.202	.088	.027		.003			
4	1.98	.630	.290	.094		.013			
5	2.59	.330	.127	.039		.007			

Fig. AF-7 — 1972-1973 alarm rates

LECTURE LF

LOCATING FIRE STATIONS

Time: Approx. 70 minutes including demonstration of program

Objective: To discuss the general problem of locating fire stations, and

to compare two specific approaches to the problem.

Equipment: Portable terminal with acoustic coupler for demonstration.

Activity

1. INTRODUCTION

- Topic is evaluation of current fire station sites, and planning which ones to close and/or where to put new ones
- Discussion may be followed by demonstration

- NYCRI treats this question in two stages:
 - (a) Obtain ideas and insights from the allocation model
 - (b) Use a descriptive model to evaluate specific configurations
- Other approaches perform analyses in one stage

References and Notes

Lecture follows Chapter IV of Chaiken, Ignall, and Walker, Deployment Methodology for Mare Departments

Demonstration is optional. Alternatively, copies of previously run output can be discussed. This will cut time of lecture to 50 minutes

Refer to lecture AF. NYCRI = New York City-Rand Institute

Lecture covers both

References and Notes

2. GENERAL APPROACHES

- Minimize sum of fire department costs and expected fire losses (including fatalities). A worthy objective; some studies have been done along these lines in Great Britain. Problem: No generally useful way has been found to estimate fire losses from response times
- Minimum average response time. May not be a good idea, as tends to indicate greatest need for stations in high-alarm areas while ignoring low-fire areas. When choosing among otherwise equally satisfactory configurations, may be useful
- Coverage. Each potential fire site should be within reasonable distance (or time) of a fire station. Easy to apply, but too simplistic and based on subjective judgments

Expanding on Lecture AF

Ref.: Hogg, "Station Siting in Peterborough and Market Deeping"

ISO Grading Schedule

3. MEASURES FOR EVALUATING ALTERNATIVES

- Use surrogate measures for fire loss. Give decisionmaker information on how a given configuration will perform using several measures of fire protection
 - One configuration will probably not dominate another configuration on all measures
 - -- Administrators must subjectively balance the measures; they will also add judgments concerning hazards and political constraints

Primary considerations:

- -- Travel times. Make sure that each potential fire site is within a reasonable time from a firehouse
- -- <u>Hazards</u>. Want to single out some potential fires as more important than others for achieving rapid response
- -- Average regional travel times. Useful for evaluating relative fire protection in different areas of a city
- -- Fire company workload. May want to balance workload over companies. Most important when workload is high

Refer to Lecture OF

Can use unweighted or weighted averages. Weighting can be by total alarms or structural alarms

4. GENERAL DATA REQUIREMENTS

- Geographic division
 - -- Divide city into small subareas, as small as the area covered by a single alarm box (real or phantom), perhaps four or five times this size
 - -- Assume all demand for fire service in the subarea arises at one point. Estimates of travel times to any point in the subarea will be the same as to that point.
 - -- Find historical (or expected future) fire incidence in each subarea
- Identify points at which construction of a firehouse is feasible. Failure to do this will lead to consideration of options that are infeasible and impractical
- Identify those subareas having special hazards
 - -- Analysis will pay special attention to these subareas
- Must have some method for estimating travel time from any firehouse (existing or proposed) to any subarea
- Obtain estimates of capital construction costs; and current costs of depreciation, operation, and maintenance of existing stations

References and Notes

Common to most) approaches to fire-house siting

References and Notes

5. ESTIMATING TRAVEL TIMES

- Method 1. Developed by Public Technology,
 Inc. (PTI)
 - -- Describe street network of city in computer-readable form. Street intersections are identified as nodes in the network, streets are represented as connecting links between nodes. Not necessary to consider all streets; main arterials are adequate
 - -- Estimate average travel speed on each link. This may be done from experienced guesses, traffic surveys, experimental trips by fire companies, or from previously collected response-time data
 - -- Estimate time to travel over each link using speed and distance
 - -- Subareas are called <u>fire demand zones</u>; the point representing all the properties in a fire demand zone is called a <u>focal point</u>
 - -- Every potential or existing firehouse and every focal point is referenced to a node of the street network
 - -- The travel time from a firehouse to a focal point is estimated by finding the set of connecting arcs that form the minimum time path

Figure LF-1

5. ESTIMATING TRAVEL TIMES (continued)

- Method 2. Developed by NYCRI
 - -- Run a "travel-time experiment" showing origin and destination for each response by fire companies, odometer distance traveled, and the time required for the response

Data can be collected in the units, or at the dispatch center if units radio in when departing and arriving

Fit a smooth curve to data showing actual travel time versus distance

- (a) In some cities, straight line with positive intercept provides best fit
- (b) In most, a blend between straight line and a square-root curve is best
- (c) Curve may vary in different parts of the city and at different times of day. But experience has shown that neither effect is large, and that approximately the same curve can be used for any city at all times of day
- -- Determine x-y coordinates of existing and potential fire station sites on a grid map of the city. Determine x-y coordinates for the subareas in which incidence will be estimated
- -- Estimate distance from stations to
 -- subareas in some way, e.g., as sum
 of x and y distance traveled (rightangle distance) or a modification
 of straight-line (Euclidean) distance
- -- Parameters of fit curve are used to estimate travel time between any two points, using estimated distance

Figure LF-2.
Ref.: Hausner,
Determining the Travel
Characteristics of
Emergency Service
Vehicles

Ref.: Kolesar and
Walker, Measuring the
Travel Characteristics
of New York City's
Fire Companies

Figures LF-3, LF-4, LF-5

Alternatively, can fit curve to data showing actual travel time vs.

estimated distance, and use this curve.

See Hendrick et al.,

An Analysis of the Deployment of Fire
Fighting Resources in Denver, Colorado

5. ESTIMATING TRAVEL TIMES (continued)

- Relative advantages of Method 1
 - -- If road network has already been developed (by traffic department, for example), this is fastest way to proceed
 - -- Road network, when developed, may be useful to other city agencies
 - -- Barriers to travel (hills, railroad tracks, rivers, airports) are automatically taken into account
 - -- Effects of changes in structure of road network can be analyzed in advance (new interstate highway, new bridge, closing of existing bridge)
 - -- Irregularly shaped areas (peninsulas, or cities with holes in them, for example) are automatically handled accurately
 - -- Fire officials may feel more comfortable with a method that actually imitates the path followed by fire companies, whether or not method is actually accurate
- Relative advantages of Method 2
 - -- Elaborate data base and computer program not needed; lower cost for analysis
 - -- If road network has not already been developed, this method is significantly faster
 - -- If travel times have already been collected (e.g., by UFIRS), this method is very fast
 - -- Parameters for fit curve have been so close to the same values for many cities that it may be possible to proceed without collecting any travel-time data
 - -- Method has been validated against actual travel-time data and has been found accurate enough for site selection
 - -- In case of irregularly shaped areas, ad hoc adjustments to method are easily accomplished
- The travel-time estimates produced by Methods 1 and 2 have never been directly compared

UFIRS = Uniform Fire Incident Reporting System, developed by the National Fire Protection Association

5. GENERATING POSSIBLE SITE CONFIGURATIONS TO EVALUATE

- Method 1. Developed by PTI
 - -- Still dn developmental stage; requires PTI's assistance
 - -- A maximum travel time is specified for each focal point
 - -- A set of existing and potential firehouse sites is specified
 - A computer program determines whether any collection of potential station locations can meet the travel-time requirements. If so, it prints out a a solution that requires the smallest possible number of sites
- Advantages of Method 1
 - -- Procedure is very well defined. Documentation provides step-by-step guide to the tasks that must be carried out to use the program and provides forms for collecting and organizing required data
 - -- Method is potentially very powerful,

 If maximum travel times can be determined, can generate, among the large
 number of possible configurations, the
 one that meets all requirements with
 the fewest number of fire companies

References and Notes

Ref.: "PTI Fire Station Location | Package"

- 6. GENERATING POSSIBLE SITE CONFIGURATIONS TO EVALUATE (continued)
 - Difficulties with Method 1
 - -- No accepted standards for travel-time constraints
 - -- Once fire officials agree on a set of requirements, the resulting number of stations needed may exceed any reasonably foreseeable budget. Constraints must then be relaxed
 - -- Travel-time requirements corresponding to existing number of stations may be hard to determine
 - -- PTI program may fail to operate, lead- ing to no solution
 - Recommended station configuration may involve moving many stations, while another equally acceptable configuration (not known) involves moving fewer stations. Other acceptable solutions (also not known) may be preferable in regard to average travel time or other characteristics
 - Method 1M. Modification developed by University of Colorado
 - -- Same approach as PTI's
 - -- Computer program finds a configuration that meets the requirements and has the minimal number of stations. This configuration includes the largest possible number of existing station sites

Hendrick et al.,
An Analysis of the
Deployment of FireFighting Resources
in Denver, Colorado

- 6. GENERATING POSSIBLE SITE CONFIGURATIONS TO EVALUATE (continued)
 - Method 2. Used by NYCRI
 - -- Use allocation model to determine demand regions needing more or fewer stations
 - -- From a map of the city showing existing and potential sites, select several possible configurations that approximatel match desired allocations by region
 - -- Use siting model (to be described next) to compare the trial configurations.

 Develop improved trial configurations by looking at the results for others
 - Virtues and difficulties with Method 2
 - -- Easy to use; fast to implement
 - -- Process of choosing configurations requires judgment and "map sense"
 - -- May overlook good configurations

Discussed in Lecture

Requires discussion with policymakers.— No computer program is involved

7. - EVALUATING TRIAL CONFIGURATIONS

NYCRI has a "Firehouse Site Evaluation Model" that calculates a set of descriptive measures for any pair of configurations. Other researchers have similar computer programs, differing only in details

- (a) Calculations are based on a number of assumptions)
 - All units are always available in their firehouses to respond to an incoming alarm (reasonable assumption for most cities)
 - The closest units are always dispatched to an alarm
 - Calculations are performed separately for each type of fire-fighting equipment
 - Travel distances are estimated by right-angle or "modified" Euclidean distance
 - Travel times are estimated from empirically determined curve

Ref.: Dormont,
Hausner, and Walker,
Firehouse Site Evaluation Model: Description and User's
Manual

If D_E is Euclidean distance, $k \times D_E^*$ is "modified" Euclidean

Discussed above, item 5.

7. EVALUATING TRIAL CONFIGURATIONS (continued)

(b) Performance measures

- For each demand region, citywide, identified target hazards, and/or region affected by change: average travel time and average travel distance
 - -- weighted by expected incidence and unweighted (each subarea given equal weight)
 - -- first-due, second-due, third-due, etc.
- Frequency distribution of travel times for each demand region and citywide
- For each company's first-due response area: average travel time, maximum travel time (to farthest subarea), workload (incidents/year), and a list of the subareas (alarm boxes) that constitute the response area (this information is also available for second-due areas, etc.)
- Travel time and travel distance to each subarea (alarm box) identified as a target hazard
- A list of the subareas whose first-due travel times are improved by the change, and those whose first-due travel times are worse, plus the alarm incidence at each group of boxes and average travel times within each group, both before and after the change

"Demand region" is the same as "hazard region"

"Incidence" can be all alarms or structural fires

- 8. DATA REQUIREMENTS FOR FIREHOUSE SITE EVALUATION MODEL
 (Aside from general data requirements described earlier)
 - List of subareas containing target hazards
 - -- Purpose: to have program specifically indicate the travel times to these subareas
 - -- Effect of changes in travel times to these subareas is important
 - (x-y) coordinates for every subarea, existing station, and potential station
 - A list of subareas included in each company's current response areas
 - Parameters of the curve relating travel time to travel-distance

Basically, the current running cards

Hausher, Determining the Travel Characteristics of Emergency
Service Vehicles

9. DEMONSTRATION OF MODEL

- Be sure to make some change in station locations before running program. Otherwise the "old" and "new" columns will be the same, and there will be no "affected region"
- Preferably, the changes should not be elaborate; the point is not to show what the biggest possible performance change would be in one city. Suitable tests are:
 - -- Trenton engines

M E3-8431

M £1-2232

M E8-2432

O C=(E)

-- Trenton ladders

M L1-2232

0 C=(L)

ór

M L1-2432

0 C=(L)

References and Notes

Follows Hausner and Walker, An Analysis of the Deployment of Fire-Fighting.
Resources in Trenton,
New Jersey. Section numbers below refer to this report

Section 4.2.2

Section 4.2.1 provides an analysis of these two options

To test other changes, you need a map showing Trenton's alarm boxes



9. DEMONSTRATION OF MODEL (continued)

• Command language

(E can be replaced by L)

M Enn-mmmm

Move engine nn to subarea or box mmmm [e.g., M E10-2104]

D Enn

Delete engine nn [e.g., A E12-3510]

A E-mmmm

Add an engine at box mmmm

C*

Clear stack of commands

Cn

Clear last n commands

0 C=(E,L); D=1 or n; L=Y or N;

W=S or A; R=(C,D,A,T)

(all on one line; start with letter 0; defaults are underlined; use parentheses as shown)

- C company type: engines or ladders or both
- D response level: up to nth-due
- L box listings, Yes or No
- W weight by structural (S) or all alarms (A)
- R which regions to produce output for

C - by Company

D - by Demand region

A - for Affected region

T - Target hazards

E

Exit from program

Siting model prints results side-by-side for "current" and "proposed" configurations

-- Facilities comparisons

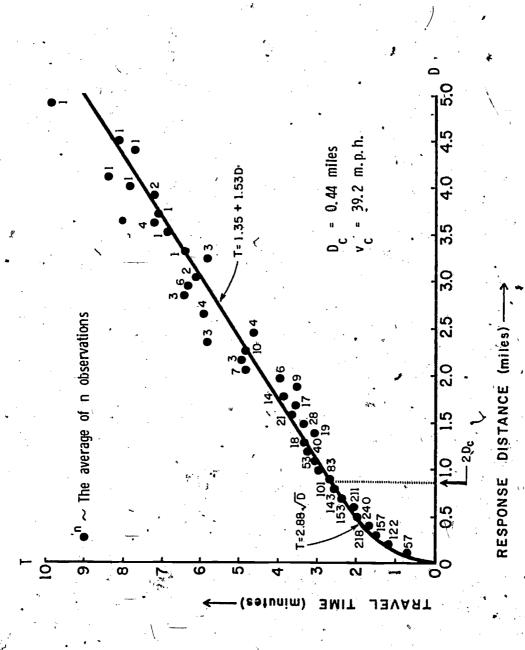
Ref.: Dormont,
Hausner, and Walker,
Firehouse Site
Evaluation Model:
Description and
User's Manual

Legend: Circles represent nodes at street intersections. Not all streets are represented in the network.

Fig. LF 1 - \$treet network concept: nodes and links

Fig. LF-2 — Sample data form for travel - time experiment

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-104-

Fig. LF-3 — Graph of travel time versus response distance for New York City



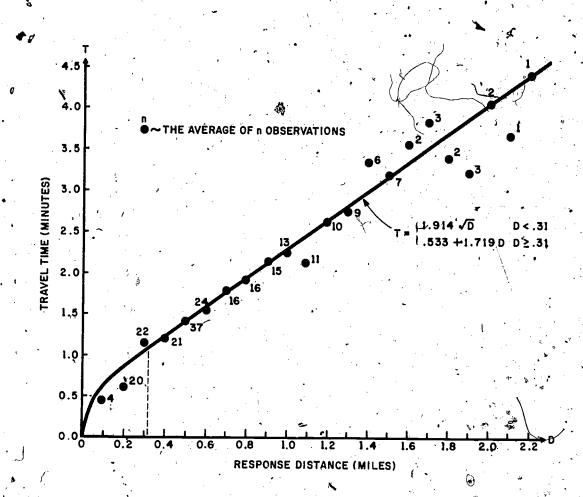


Fig. LF-4—Graph of travel time versus response distance for Trenton, New Jersey

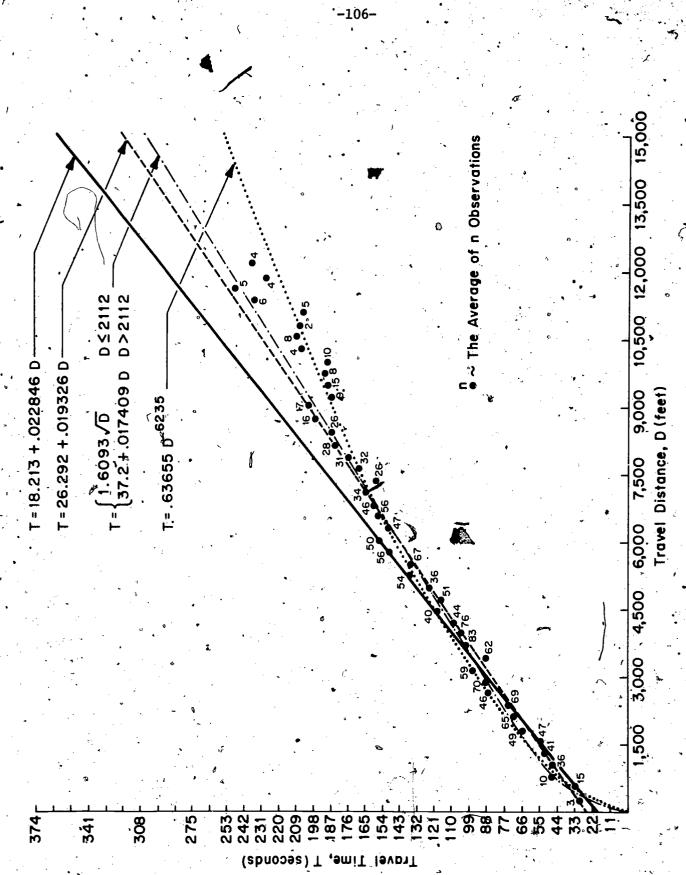


Fig. LF-5 - Graph of travel time versus response distance for Denver, Colorado

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LECTURE SF

SIMULATION

FOR FIRE SERVICE AUDIENCES

Time: Approx. 50 minutes. *

Objective: To describe what a simulation model does, what kinds of questions it can answer, when to use it, and what resources are needed to use it.

Activity

1. DEFINITION

Follow each incident step-by-step;

From occurrence

- -- to report to fire department
- -- to dispatch of companies
- -- to their arrival at scene and work there
- -- to their return to availability
- Do this for a large number of incidents
 - -- actual incidents, or
 - -- imaginary incidents generated by the computer to match average statistics for alarm rates, etc.
- Viewpoint of an "all-knowing" dispatcher who keeps track of the location of all incidents and companies at all times, but is not concerned with fire-fighting tactics at the scene
- Computer collects statistics on response times, coverage, workloads

References and Notes

Lecture follows Carter, Chaiken, and Ignall, Simulation Model of Fire Department Operations: Executive Summary

See also, Carter and Ignall, A Simulation Model of Fire Department Operations:

Design and Preliminary.
Results

2. WHY SIMULATE?

- Accuracy compared to other models (at a price)
 - -- Removes approximations present in every simple model
 - -- Accounts for interrelationship among policies that can be individually studied with simple models
- Safety as opposed to real-world test
 - -- No operational or capital investment
 - -- No lives or property risked
 - 1- The model can imagine that alarm rates "stay the same" after policy changes, but in the real world alarm rates will change

3. /DRAWBACKS

- Simulation is expensive to run on the computer
- Extensive data collection needed
- Simulation does not <u>suggest</u> any particular policy as desirable

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User must be technically skilled

References and Notes

"Policy" = location of stations, dispatch policy, relocation policy, etc.

I.e., changes in realworld data may reflect changes in alarm rate, changes in policy, or both together

Discussed in detail later in this lecture

4. WHEN TO USE A SIMULATION MODEL

- Detailed comparison of complicated deployment policies
 - -- Number of companies on duty
 - -- Where located
 - -- Number of units dispatched to particular types of alarms
 - -- Which unit(s) disparched
 - When units are relocated (moved up)
 - -- Which units are moved and where they go
- Validation of simpler models, which are
 - -- Cheaper to use
 - -- Easier to interpret

Instill confidence in administrators that final recommendations will work as planned, especially under adverse circumstances

- 5. WHERE DO THE POLICIES COME FROM, TO TEST ON A SIMULATION MODEL?
 - Fire department administrators
 - Planhing personnel
 - Simpler models

References and Notes

Ref.: Carter, Ignall, and Walker, A Simulation Model of the New York City Fire Department:
Its Use in Deployment Analysis

Ref.: Ignall, Kolesar, and Walker, <u>Using Simu-</u> <u>lation to Develop and</u> <u>Validate Analytical Em-</u> <u>ergency Service Deploy-</u> <u>ment Models</u>

See Tomasides quote in Carter, Chaiken, and Ignall, Simulation
Model of Fire Department Operations: Executive Summary, and Hendrick et al., An Analysis of the Deployment of Fire-Fighting Resources in Denver, Colorado

Lectures OF, AF, LF,

References and Notes

- 6. HOW DOES THE NYCRI SIMULATION MODEL WORK?
 - Discuss flow chart

- 7. WHAT INFORMATION IS IN THE SIMULATION OUTPUT
 - Response times
 - -- Average and distribution
 - -- By incident type
 - -- By geography
 - Company workloads
 - -- Total
 - -- By company
 - Coverage

Develop the flow chart on the blackboard, writing down each event as the incident progresses. The final result is Figure SF-1. Ref.: Carter, Simulation Model of Fire Department Operations: Program Description

Stress the detailed breakdowns available. Example output is shown on pp. 172-189 of Carter, Simulation Model of Fire Department Operations:

Program Description

DATA AND RESOURCES NEEDED

- Geographical representation of the part of the city to be simulated
 - -- Incident locations
 - -- Company locations
- Parameters for estimating travel time of every response
- Work times at different types of incidents
- An input stream of incidents
 - -- Actual incidents from the past
 - -- or, incidents generated from detailed data about alarm rates by type and location
- Deployment policy
 - 7- Detailed decision rules for dispatching and relocation
- Access to a SIMSCRIPT 1.5 compiler
- Analysis who can modify the computer program and interpret the output

9°. VALIDITY (Optional)

- Detail and structure have to be sufficient to support insights and conclusions
- What matters is the accuracy of comparisons, not faithfulness to the real world
- Example: If all travel times are 10 percent high, this should not make any difference.
 (On the other hand, it would be easy to fix)

References and Notes

Stress the detail required, as compared to other models

I.e., a complete mathematical specification of the curves in Figures LF-3 to LF-5. These may vary in different parts of the city

10. RECAP

- Computer's job: do the bookkeeping
- User's job
 - -- Build model: specify how the system works
 - -- Analyze data: specify the kind of data needed (and get it)
 - -- Select criteria: specify what is to be measured
 - -- Find alternatives: specify the policies to be tried out in the simulation

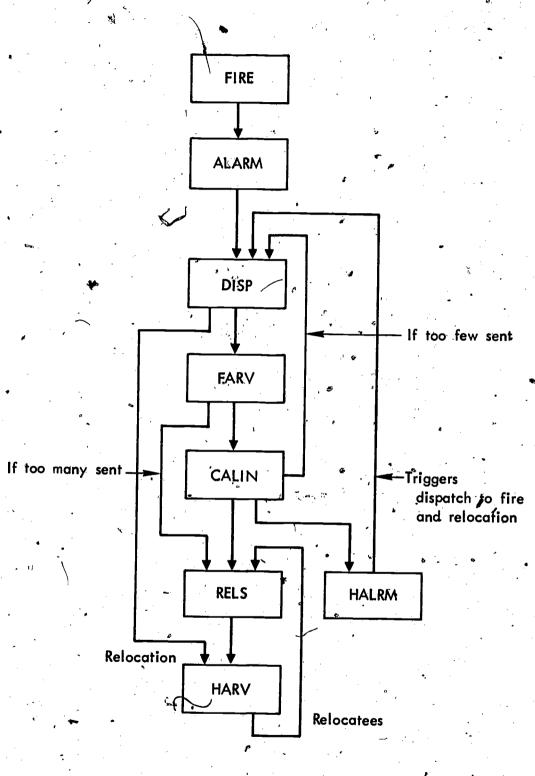


Fig. SF - 1

LECTURE MF

RELOCATION OR MOVE-UP FOR FIRE SERVICE AUDIENCES

Time: Approx. 40 minutes (demonstration extra)

Objective: To indicate difficulties with a system of preplanned relocations

and demonstrate a method for resolving the difficulties.

Equipment: Portable terminal with acoustic coupler for demonstration.

Activity

References and Notes

- 1. (INTRODUCTION: RELOCATION ISSUES
 - When should fire companies relocate (move up)?
 - How many should relocate?
 - Which ones?
 - To where?
- 2. PREPLANNED RELOCATIONS
 - Problems at high alarm rates
 - -- Several "all hands" fires in one part of the city can create a "hole" in coverage as big as if there were one second-alarm or third-alarm fire
 - -- Company designated to relocate may already be busy at a fire
 - -- Company designated to relocate may be available, but moving it would create another big hole in coverage

NYCRI APPROACH

- Answer the four questions posed in the Introduction, one at a time
- Separate (but same) calculations for engines and ladders (will use ladders as an example)

Question 1: When should fire companies relocate?

Answer: Relocate whenever some location in city has both its first-due and second-due ladders unavailable, and they will be unavailable for a period of time

- -- Define a ladder response neighborhood (RN) as all points in the city having the same first- and second-due ladders, independent of order
- -- If both are unavailable, and will be for awhile, the RN is "uncovered".
- -- Result: Relocate whenever there is an uncovered RN in the city
- -- This criterion maintains relative spacing of fire companies throughout the city (denser in some regions than others)

Question 2: How many should relocate?

Answer: If there are any uncovered RNs, fill the minimum number of houses needed to remedy the situation

References and Notes

Follows Kolesar and Walker, An Algorithm for the Dynamic Relocation of Fire Companies

Figure MF-2

References and Notes

3. NYCRI APPROACH (continued)

Question 3: Which companies should move?

Answer: Choose companies to satisfy four general principles

- (a) Don't relocate a company that will create a new uncovered RN
- (b) Don't relocate a company that is "too busy"
 - First-due areas the same size
 More alarms around #2
 Same distance to X
 - -- If move #1, second-due unit will
 be the first-arriving unit in
 the first-due area of #1
 - -- Similar if move #2
 - -- More likely to have a fire near #2
 - -- Therefore, prefer to move #1
- (c) Don't relocate a company that is covering too large a region
 - First-due area of #1 larger Same number of alarms in both Same distance to X
 - -- Average first-due travel time already higher area of #1
 - -- If move #1, average travel time for second-due company to respond to region #1 will be much higher than in region #2
 - -- Prefer to move #2

Figure MF-4

References and Notes

3. NYCRI APPROACH (continued)

Question 3 (continued)

- (d) Don't relocate a company "too far"
 - First-due areas of #1 and #2 the same size Same alarm rate #2 is farther
 - -- If relocated, #2 would be out of its region longer than #1 would be
 - -- Therefore, chance of missing an alarm in its region would be higher for #2 than for #1
 - -- Prefer to move #1

Note: Real cases are a mixture of different ent alarm rates, different sized areas, and different relocation distances. Developed a "cost" function that blends all these things

- Represents the expected average travel time for first-arriving unit to alarms in the area affected by the moves (areas whose first-due travel times will be changed) during the duration of the moves
- Objective: Choose units to move that minimize this "cost"
- Note: The cost function assumes that while the companies are relocating they are not protecting either their own area or their destination area

Question 4: Where do the companies move?

Answer: Assign relocating companies to the houses being filled so as to minimize the total travel time of the relocating companies

- "Cost" will be higher than minimum, but only slightly
- Relocations will "look better"

References and Notes

Shanesy, An On-Line Program for Fire

Company Relocation

RN = response neighborhood

4. DATA NEEDED

- (a) For each firehouse
 - Number and identity of units stationed there
 - List of RNs associated with each of the companies
 - Size of each first-due area, in square miles
 - Alarm rate in each first-due area
- (b) For each RN
 - Size of area in which each of the two units is first-due
 - Alarm rate in each of the two areas
- (c) For each pair of houses
 - Travel time from one to the other
 - (d) Parameters for relating travel time and area, so that travel times in each region can be estimated from their areas

Refer to Lecture RF

APPLICABILITY

- Method requires a real-time computer to make calculation based on the actual status of all fire companies
- Method can be used to generate relocations to be specified on running cards, in which case it is not operated in real time. (But not all situations requiring a relocation are handled well by running cards)

6. DEMONSTRATION OF ON-LINE RELOCATION PROGRAM SCENARIO 1

This demonstration compares manually developed relocations with what the program does, revealing that neither way is perfect. Geography corresponds to the borough of the Bronx in New York City

MICS

M=NOVERIFY **
E=MNE,MNL,QNE,QNL

1:R=E63,E62,L39,L32 S=1

(CR)

2:3=E38,E79,E48,E97,L51

C=EW, LW

DEP2P:D=EW, LW

· 3:S=E75,E90,E81,L46

C=EW, LW

Q=3 U=DEP2P

DEP2C:D=E81,QE63;E43,QE62;E50,QE79;E89,QE97; L46,QL39;L50,QL51

(CR)

3C:S=E75,E90,E88,L37 C=EW,LW A sequence of commands to the program is shown. Interpretation of the commands is given in

Shanesy, An On-Line
Program for Fire Company
Relocation

Otherwise you need larger maps

First line of AAC (Figure MF-7)*

Second alarm

Situation is shown on Figures MP-8, MF-9. Compared to running card (Figures MF-10, 14F-11) the number of tengine relocations is smaller

This is a reasonable variant on AAC third alarm

Recommendations shown on Figures MF-12, MF-13. Note that a previously empty house is filled

Let's go back to second alarm

Follow the AAC

All RNs are covered

Needs only one more engine relocation:
The AAC "anticipated" a third alarm

Exit

*AAC and maps were current in 1973.

References and Notes

7. SCENARIO 2

Invent a sequence of small fires that leads to a need for relocation

Use blank maps for the Bronx (Figures MF-14, MF-15) or maps for a city familiar to members of the audience

If lecturer has access to on-line relocation program, it will recommend relocations

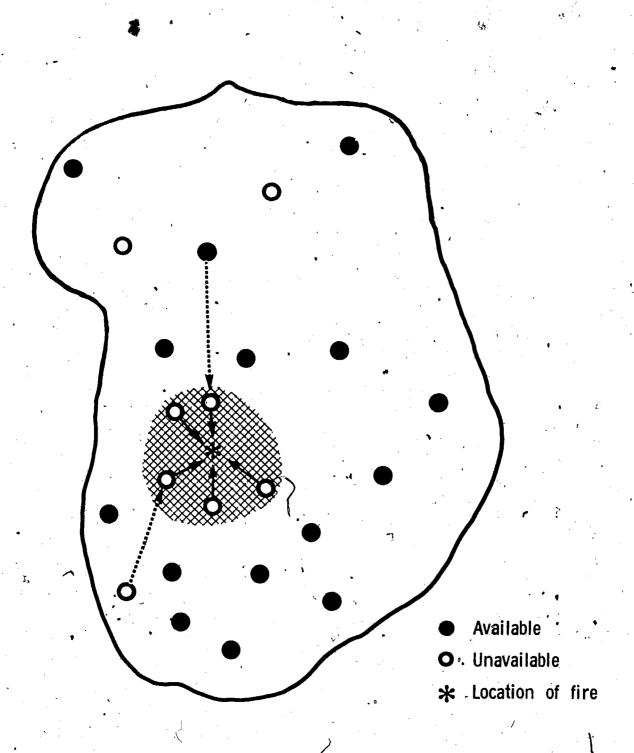


Fig. MF-1 — Problems with the traditional relocation policy

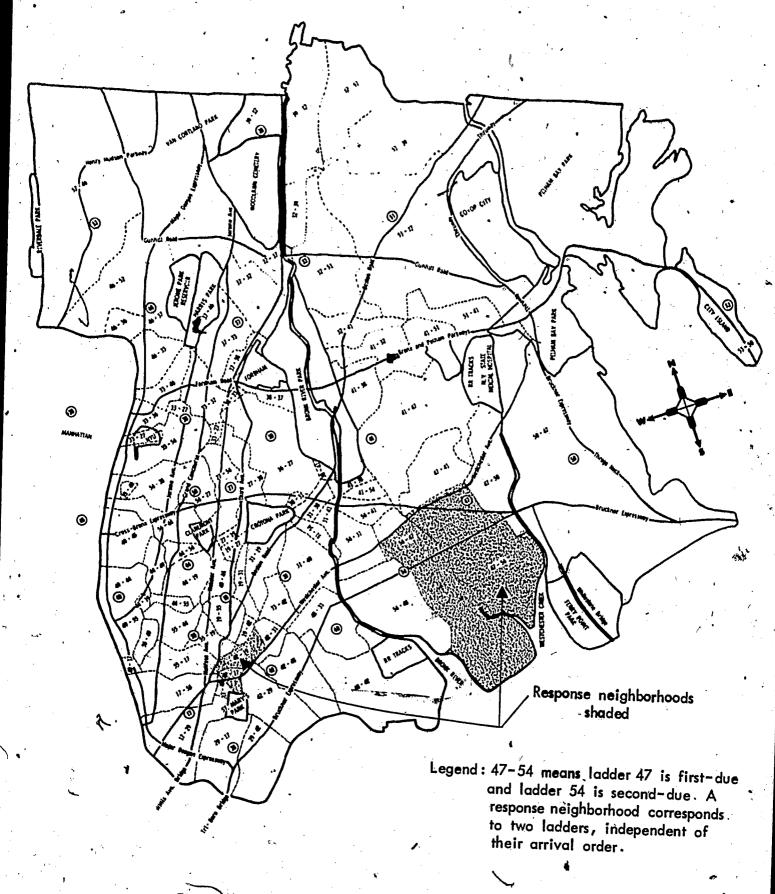
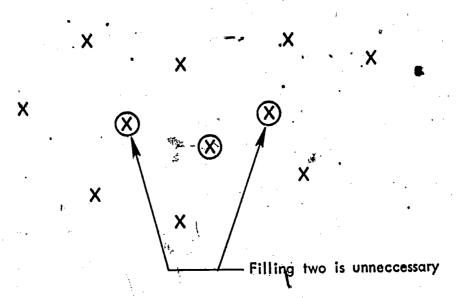


Fig. MF-2 — Ladder response neighborhoods in the Bronx



Empty house
X Full house

Fig. MF-3

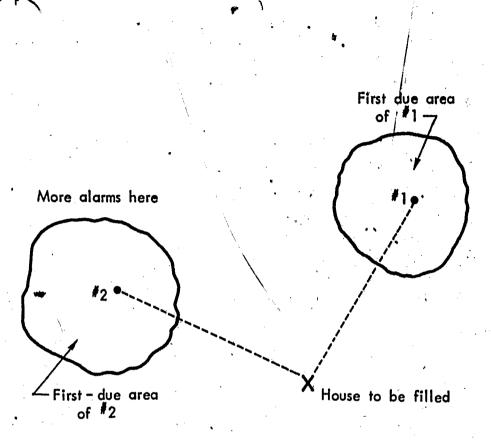


Fig. MF-4

305

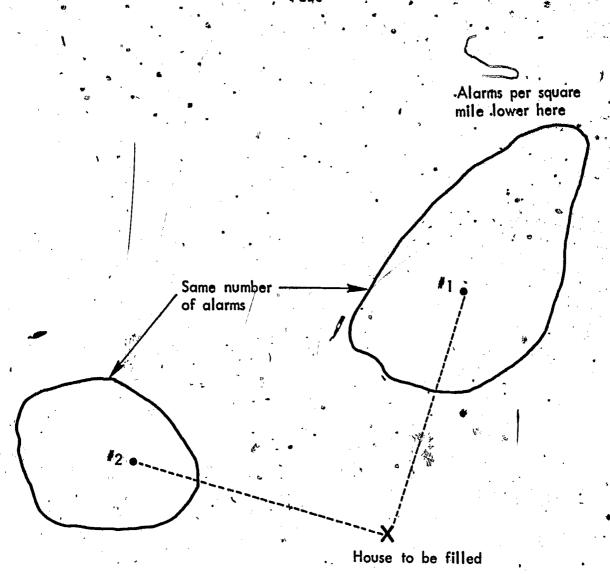


Fig. MF-5

7 -127-

Same number of alarms

ERÎC

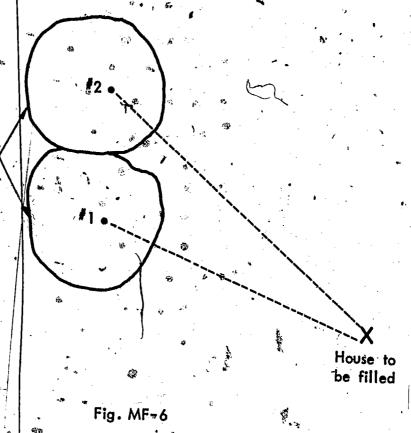
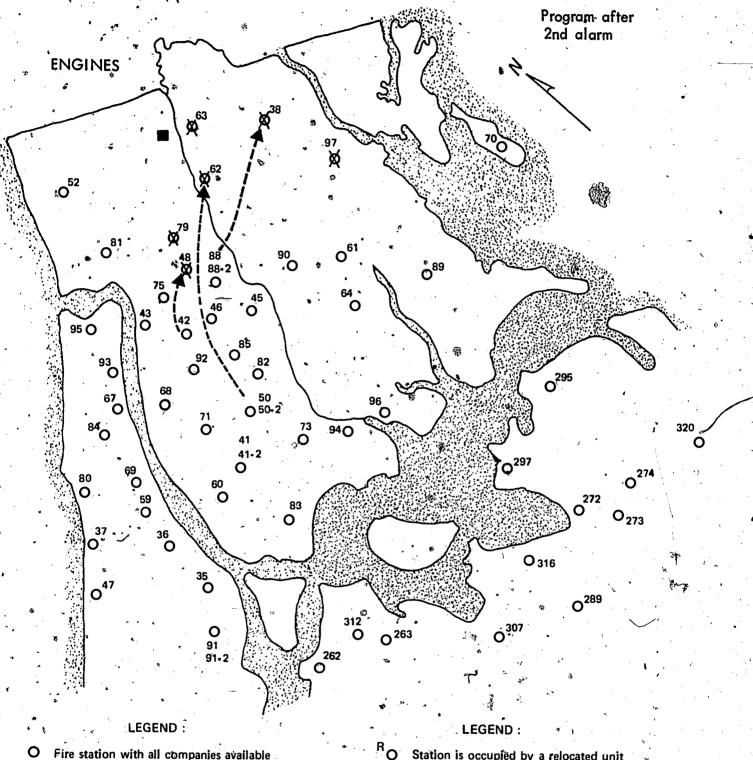


Fig. MF-6

3457		₹ g	20	Katonah Ave. 6 236 St.	.; -	£ 23(ji	1	•	ANDRO
ă	ENCINE COS	Marine Red Co. Co.	2 d	LADBER COS. D.C.	D.C.	, a	Special Applicates	Syst. Pictors	COMPANIES	SE LOCATION
63 62		199		39 52		2		ر ا ا	BNCINE .	אפספין
38 79	79 48 97			51	7			 G	29-63 69-65	46-39
75 90 88	88		w	37		20		4	67-75	38-37
46 61 45	45			35.	,	6	æ	B	83-46 94-61	19-33
42 64	96 49		1)	4	,	ig.	e e	. ,	195-64	[47-85

Fig. MF-7-Alarm assignment card (AAC) for Bronx box 3957

ERIC Full Text Provided by ERIC



Fire station with all companies available

Company has just been dispatched to a fire

One company remains in a station which rusually has two companies

Station is vacant by virtue of a previous dispatch

Station is occupied by a relocated unit

Station is vacant by virtue of a previous relocation

Dispatch

Relocation

Location of a fire .

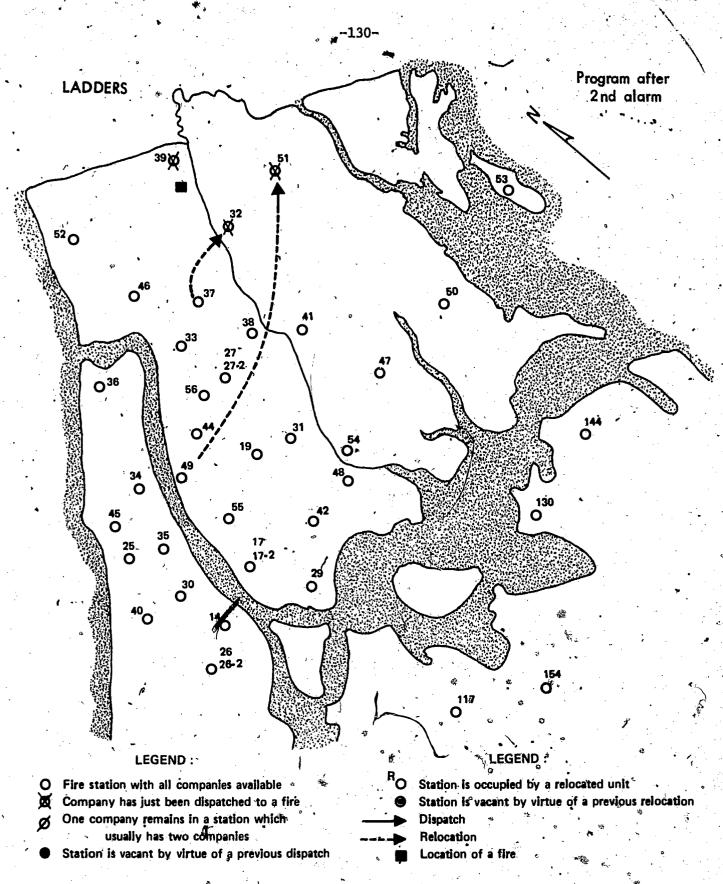


Fig. MF-9

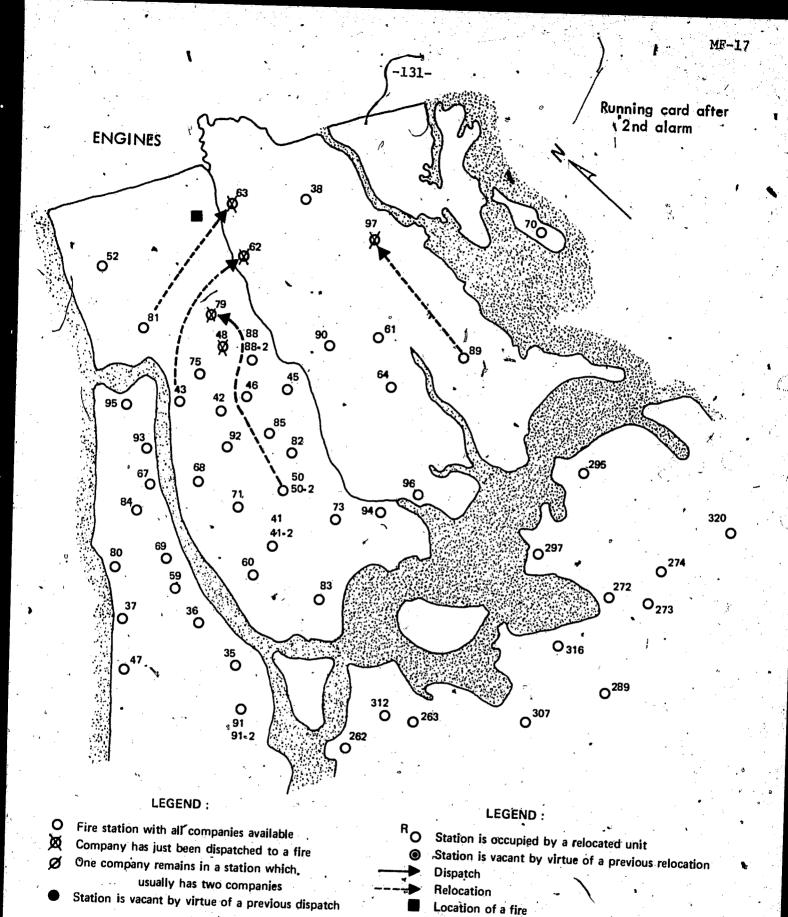


Fig. MF-10

ERIC

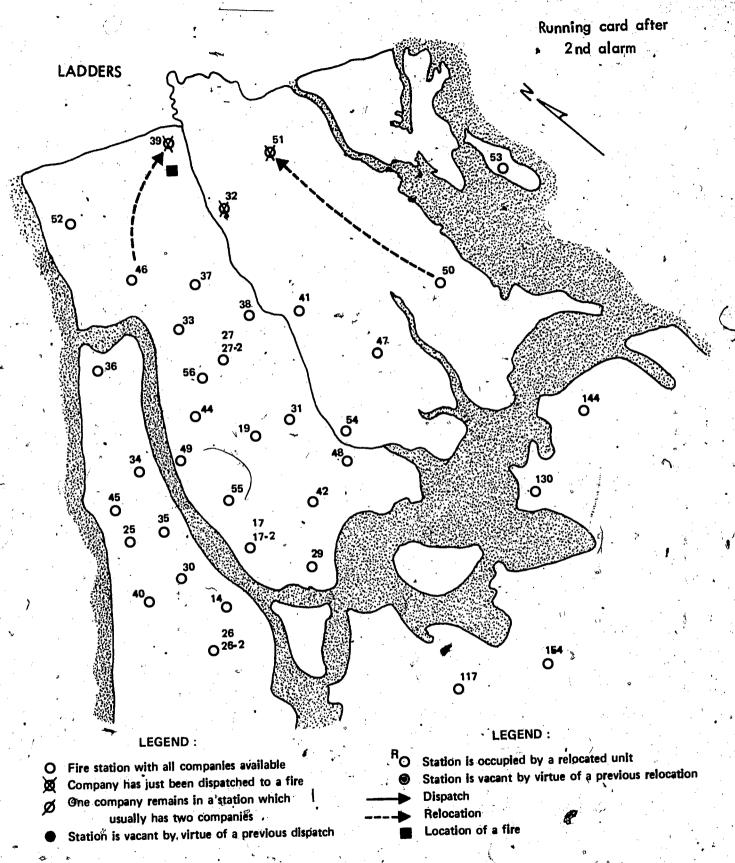
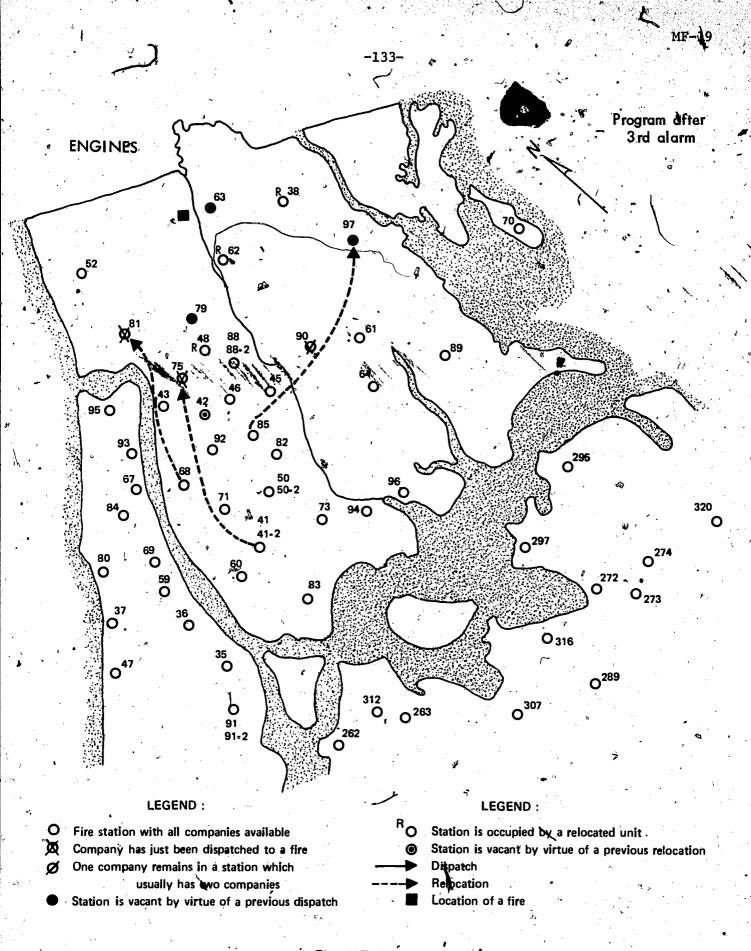
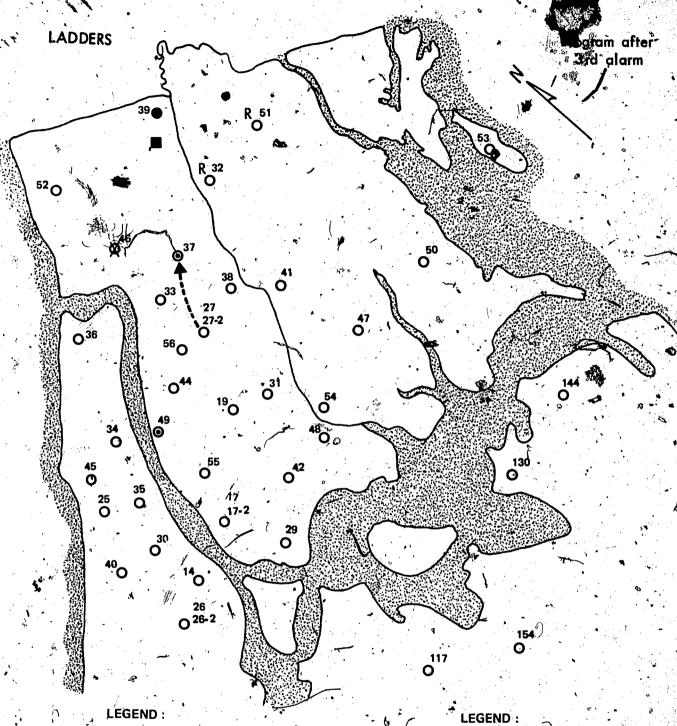


Fig. MF-11





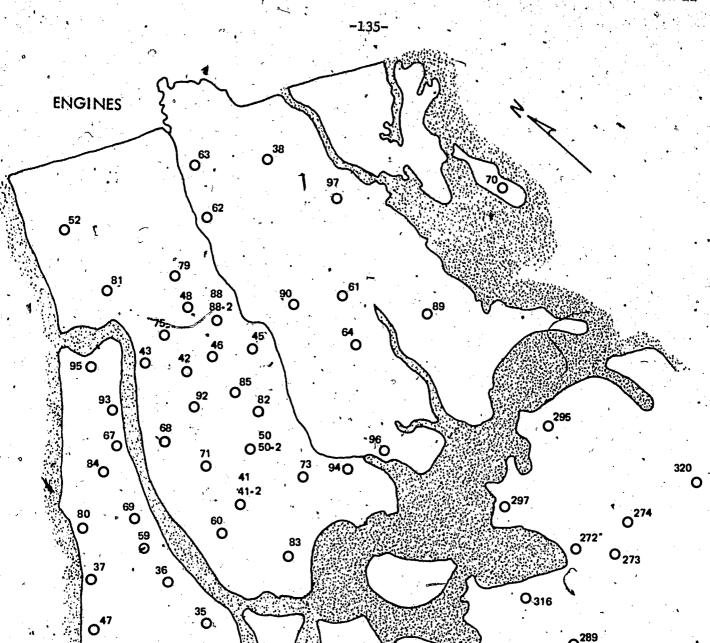


-1,34-

- O? Fire station with all companies available
- Company has just been dispatched to a fire
- One company remains in a station which usually has two companies
 - Station is vacant by virtue of a previous dispatch
- O Station is occupied by a relocated unit
- Station is vacant by virtue of a previous relocation
- Dispatch
 - Relocation
 - Location of a fire

Fig. MF-13

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LEGEND:

0

O Fire station with all companies available

Company has just been dispatched to a fire

One/company remains in a station which -uşually has two companies

Station is vacant by virtue of a previous dispatch

LEGEND:

O Station is occupied by a relocated unit

O³⁰⁷

Station is vacant by virtue of a previous relocation

→ Dispatch

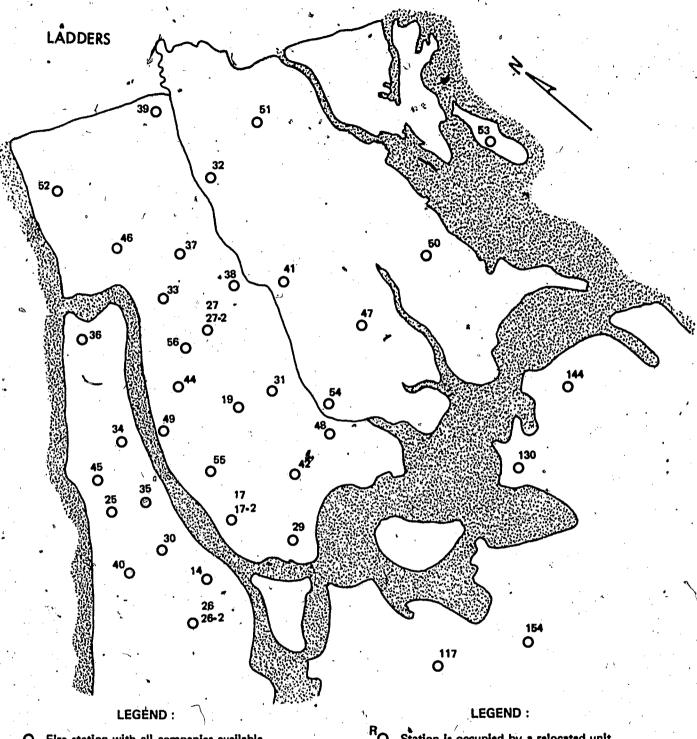
Relocation

Location of a fire

Fig. MF-14

312 O

O²⁶³



- O Fire station with all companies available
- Company has just been dispatched to a fire
- One company remains in a station which usually has two companies
- Station is vacant by virtue of a previous dispatch
- Station is occupied by a relocated unit
- Station is vacant by virtue of a previous relocation
- Dispatch
- Relocation
 - Location of a fire

Fig. MF- 15

LECTURE IF

INITIAL DISPATCH FOR FIRE SERVICE AUDIENCES

Time: Approx. 40 minutes

Objective: To show the students (a) that the history of alarms at an alarm box can provide valuable information for determining the number of units to be dispatched to a box alarm, and (b) that sometimes the closest unit may not be the best to send.

Activity

1. INTRODUCTION

- How many should be sent?
 - Different cities have different policies
 - When alarm rate is high, city might want to reduce its normal response to conserve resources
 - There is a way to do this rationally
- Which ones should be sent?
 - Always send closest when alarm rate is
 - If alarm rate is high, this policy is not necessarily the best

References and Notes

Lecture follows Chapter V of Chaiken, Ignall, and Walker, Deployment Methodology for Fire Departments

See also Carter, Ignall, and Rider, An Algorithm for the Initial Dispatch of Fire Companies

General ref .: Swersev, Model for Reducing Fire Engine Response Times

References and Notes

Ref.: Ignall et al., Improving the Deployment of New York City

Fire Companies

Figure IF-1

2. HOW MANY?

- (a) Objectives
 - Try to send what is needed
 - Get all units needed to the scene as rapidly as possible
 - Don't have units make too many unnecessary responses
- (b) How alarm is received is important
 - Telephone receive information that helps dispatcher decide
 - Box little information to go on
 - therefore, will restrict discussion to how many to send to box alarms
- (c) When is there a decision?
 - May want to hold back resources (not send full response) if alarm rate inregion of incoming alarm is high enough so that the chance of having two alarms in progress at one time is not negligible (say 25%)
- (d) The tradoff: Use send 1 ladder versus send 2 ladders as example
 - Send 1 and need 2:
 - -- second ladder delayed
 - -- increased loss at fire
 - Send 2 and need 1:
 - -- second ladder unavailable for another alarm (only important if there is a good probability that there will be another alarm while it is responding)
 - -- makes unnecessary response

References and Notes

2. HOW MANY? (continued)

- (e) Approach: Considers up to four factors
 - (i) The probability that the incoming alarm is serious
 - -- the greater the probability, the more units dispatched
 - -- there are usually predictable box-tobox variations in probability serious, e.g., boxes 2277 and 2209 in Bronx
 - -- this is the most important factor to consider
 - using this factor, can modify runing cards--add to manual dispatching system (e.g., NYC's adaptive response)
- (41) The expected alarm rate in the area surrounding the alarm
 - -- the greater the alarm rate, the fewer units dispatched
 - -- implies that dispatch policy to the same location might vary by time of day
- (iii) The number of units available in the area surrounding the alarm
 - -- the more units available, the more units dispatched
 - -- if you want to include this factor, probably need a computer to keep track of status
- (iv) The workload of the companies involved .
 - -- the higher their workload, the fewer units dispatched
- (f) Method: Use a "cost" function to blend all the factors, then (for example)
 - -- send 2 if cost is less than cost to send 1
 - -- send 1 if cost is lower than for send 2

Figure IF-2. These are extreme cases, but near each other on the same street

Ref.: O'Hagan and
Blum, <u>Technology Aids</u>
Fire Service

Figure IF-3. If the department—usually sends three units, if available, that would be a bad idea in this example

References and Notes

- 2. HOW MANY? (continued)
 - (g) Data needed if use, all 4 factors in making decision
 - . (1) For each alarm box
 - Ordered list of closest engine and ladder companies
 - Estimate of the probability that an incoming alarm from the box signals a serious fire (estimation procedure takes into account alarm history of box and alarm history of neighboring boxes).
 - (ii) For each fire-fighting company
 - Expected alarm rate in its first-due area
 - Number of responses made during some historical period
 - Its current status (implies need for an on-line computer)
 - (iii) Way to calculate travel time between any house-alarm box pair

Ref.: Carter and
Rolph, New York City
Fire Alarm Prediction
Models: I. BoxReported Serious
Fires

Refer to Lecture RF

3. WHICH?

- Sending closest not always best. Not sending closest can
 - -- balance workload among companies
 - -- provide faster response to alarms
- Overly simplified example:
- City with 2 companies and a send 1 dispatch policy

Region A - high alarm rate

Region B - low alarm rate

- -- Fire 1: closest company policy would dispatch Company a
- -- Suppose Fire 2 while Company a_is busy: Company b must respond
- -- If send b to Fire 1 (near boundary), then a is available to respond to Fire 2. Net reduction in total response time (also, better balance in workload)
- Note: this policy appropriate only when overall alarm rates are high

References and Notes

Ref.: Carter, Chaiken, and Ignall, Response Areas for Two Emergency Units

Figure, IF-4

References and Notes

4, SCENARIO

Illustration of the circumstances under which analysis will suggest different choices for initial dispatch. The actual locations of ladder companies and alarm rates in various parts of the Bronx were used in constructing this scenario.

• At the start of the scenario, ladder companies 48, 42, and 44 have been dispatched to serious fires

- An incident is reported by box alarm at box 2267. Recommended dispatch is two ladders. Ladders 17 and 55 are dispatched
- Another incident is reported by box alarm at box 2224
- Now, because of unavailabilities in the area and a low probability of a serious fire at box 2224, the recommended dispatch is one ladder
- Ladder 17-2 is dispatched and subsequently returns to quarters after finding a false alarm at box 2224
- Now a box alarm occurs at box 2574. Although the closest ladder company is busy
 (as was the case at box 2224), the recom-,
 mended dispatch is two ladders in this case.
 Box 2574 is more likely to have a serious
 fire than box 2224
- At this point, the unavailability of ladders are as bad as if there were a thirdalarm fire somewhere between ladder 55 and
 ladder 19. Relocations should be made
- An incident is reported by box alarm at box 2276, which is near box 2267. If relocations have not been made, one ladder should be dispatched. If relocations have been made, two ladders should be dispatched

Bronx-borough of New York City

Figure IF-5*

Figure IF-6

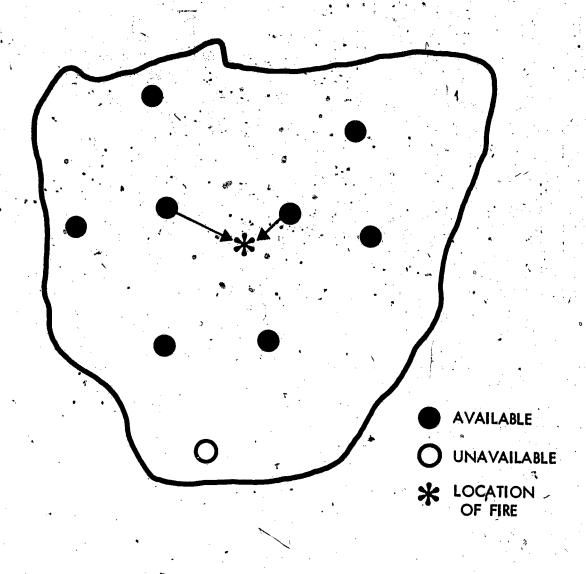
Not shown on maps

Figure IF-7.

See Lecture MF

Figure IF-8

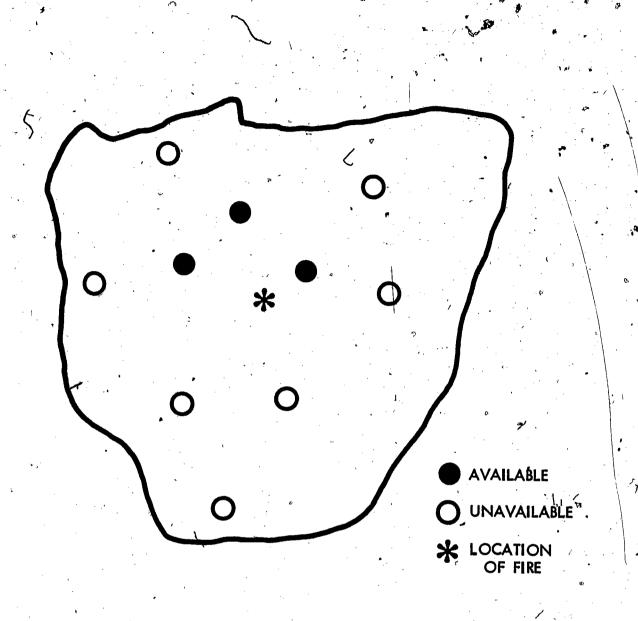
^{*}The maps were current in 1973.



.Fig."[F-']

		* * ·	- 1 / 1 / 1 / 1 / 1 / 1 / 1 / 1 / 1 / 1
Bronx	Predicted	Actual	1970 Data
box number	percent structural ('67-'69 data)	Alarms	Structural, fires
2277 •	0.4	96	0
2209	31.8	94	25

Fig. 1F-2 — Structural fire predictions for two alarm boxes



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Fig.1F-3 — A problem with the traditional dispatching policy

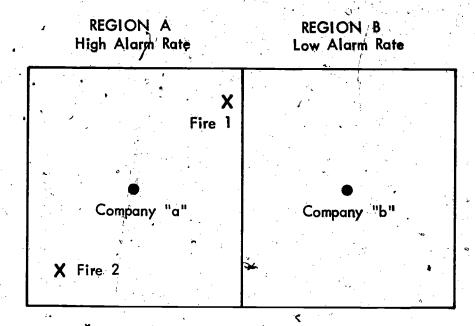


Fig. IF-4

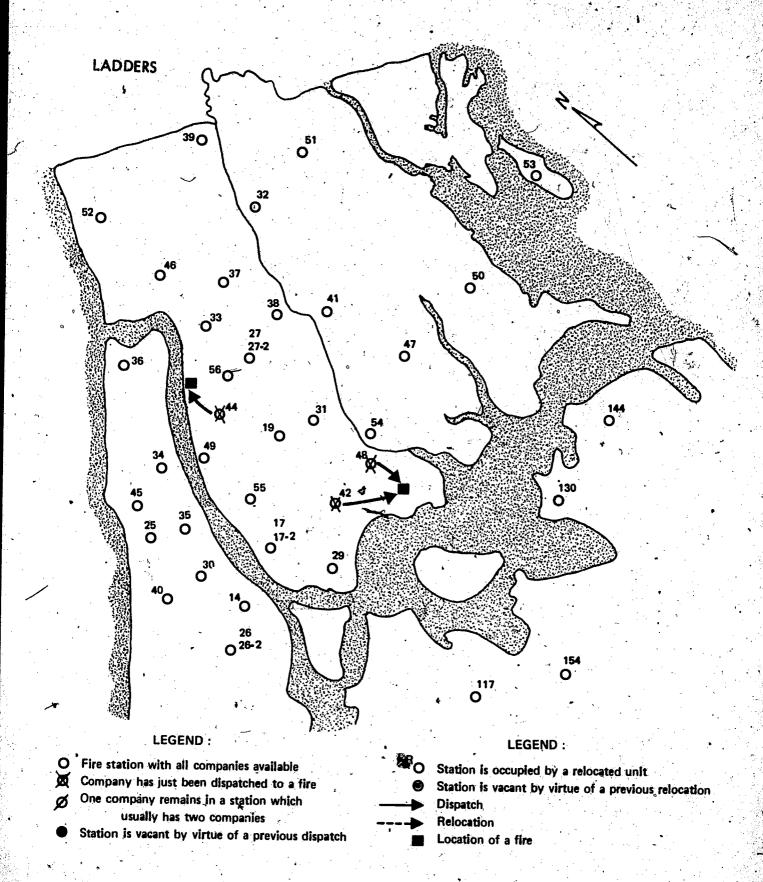


Fig. IF-5 — Status of Bronx ladder companies at the start of the scenario

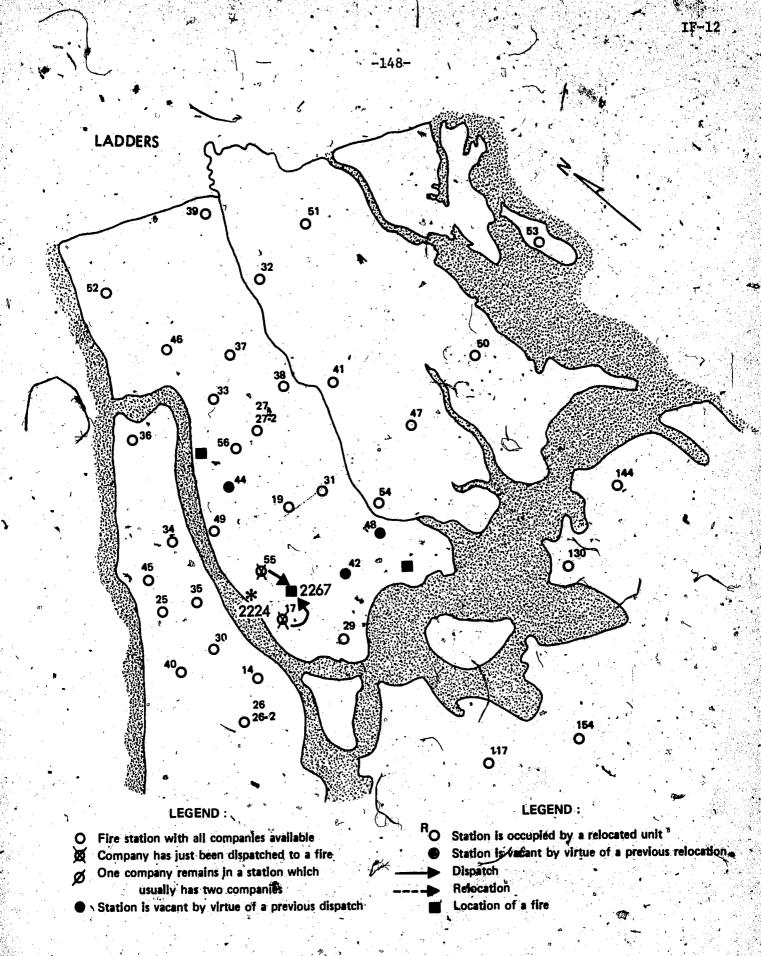


Fig. 1F-6 — Status of Bronx ladder companies after Box 2267 is dispatched

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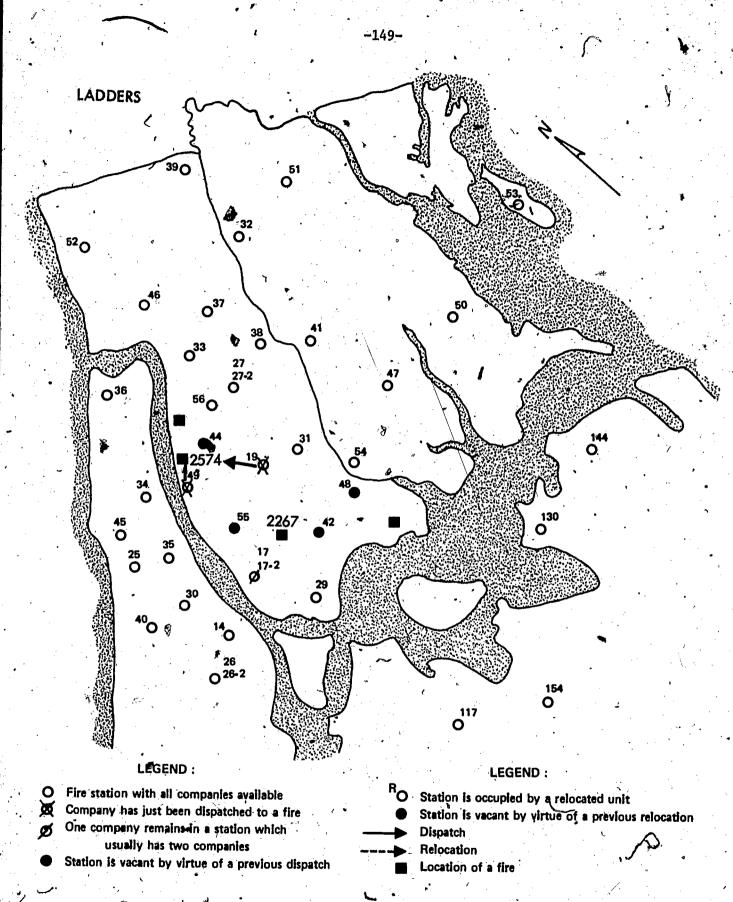


Fig. 1F-7 — Status of Bronx ladder companies after Box 2574 is dispatched

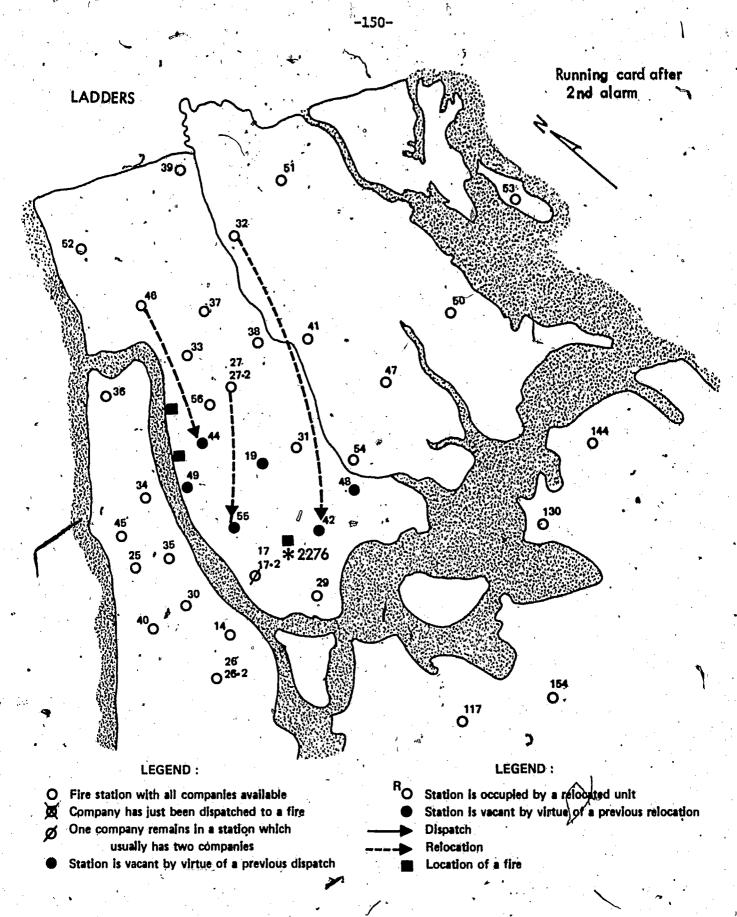


Fig. 1F-8 — Status of Bronx ladder companies at time of relocation

LECTURE AP

ALLOCATION OF POLICE PATROL

Time: Approx. 40 minutes

Objective: To provide an approach to enswering the question of how many patrol cars to essign to each command by hour or tour.

Activity

References and Notes

1. > INTRODUCTION

- Topic is how many patrol cars to assign to each command by hour or tour
 - -- "Command" is a general term for an administratively separate geographical area of the city. Variously called precinct, division, district, thait, or area
 - -- A single patrol beat or sector is not a "command." A command can be characterized by the fact that if all its patrol cars were busy, a low-priority call for service would be queued

Follows Chaiken;
Patrol Allocation
Methodology for Police
Departments, Chapter
III

For several hypothetical examples of policy issues related to allocation, see Chalken and Dormont, Patrol Car Allocation Model: User's Manual

2. PRIORITY STRUCTURE

- Find out what types of calls are actually handled by dispatchers as high priority (every effort will be made to locate a car to send immediately, even a supervisor or out-of-command car), medium priority (if. in queue, will be dispatched as fast as possible), and low priority (can wait for dispatch)
- It doesn't help to think about which calls should fall in each priority level, unless the intention is to change the practices of dispatchers

Low-priority calls sometimes referred to as "nonemergencies"

3. ESTIMATING CALL-FOR-SERVICE WORKLOAD

- Need to know how many car-hours will be required to serve calls for service in each priority class in each hour of the day ("workload")
- This can be done by estimating the number of calls in each class and the service times separately, and multiplying these together. Or estimate workload directly from workload data
- Possible estimation methods
 - -- commercially available computer programs (e.g., LEMRAS)
 - -- average over past, few weeks, adjust for seasonal trends
 - -- graph and extrapolate
- Estimates don't have to be super-accurate to be useful. Don't get wound up in trying to improve accuracy of predictions
- Collect data from dispatcher's position;
- Commands found to have unusually long service times may have a management problem. Don't just allocate more cars to them

- ERÍC

References and Notes

"Service time" is how long the car is out of service handling the call

References and Notes

4. ESTIMATE "EXTRA" UNAVAILABILITIES

- f = average fraction of a car's tour that the car is unavailable for dispatch for reasons other than dispatch to a previous call
 - -- includes meals, maintenance, patrolinitiated activities, arrest processing, etc.
 - -- include time in court if this is only part of a tour
 - f may vary by command. In a given command, f may vary with call-for-service workload
- Collect data at dispatcher's position
 - Draw graphs, calculate averages

5. SET LIMIT ON QUEUING

- Fraction of all calls queued
- Average waiting time in queue for
 - middle priority
 - -- low priority
- Overall average waiting time

Refer to Lecture RP

If these are reasonably small, highpriority calls will be handled fast

- . NUMBER OF CARS NEEDED TO PREVENT QUEUING FROM EXCEEDING LIMIT
 - Consider a particular command and a particular hour of the day
 - N = number of cars to be fielded (we will try different values of N until we find the right one)
 - (1-f)N = effective number of cars fielded
 - (1-f)N must at least equal the estimated call-for-service workload in car-hours
 - Start with N = next integer bigger than (workload)/(1-f)
 - See if queuing is below specified limits with (1-f)N cars
 - -- need graphs, tables, formulas, or a computer program
 - If not, increase N by one car and try again
 - Keep going. The first N that works tells how many cars are needed for queuing purposes

7. EXAMPLE

How many cars are needed to assure that less than 10% of calls are delayed in a command having 3%9 car-hours of work per hour and 30% of each car's time spent unavailable for reasons other than calls for service? To do the steady-state calculation, there must actually be an integer between (workload) and (1-f)N

There are some details like averaging over a tour, but this is the general idea

Figure AP-1.
Answer is: 11 units

8. CRITERIA OTHER THAN QUEUING

- See if the value of N chosen above is big enough so that (1-f)N effective cars give reasonable values for
 - -- average travel time
 - average patrol frequency
 - -- patrol per outside crime
 - -- (whatever you care about)
- If not, increase N until these other criteria are met

9. COMPARE WITH THE SIZE OF THE PATROL FORCE

- Add the values of N (found above) across commands, or across hours of the day, or both
- Do you have enough men to field that many car-hours?
 - -- If no, some constraints must be relaxed, or some categories of calls must be screened out (no unit will respond), or the "extra" unavailabilities must be reduced by administrative change
 - If yes, the extra cars can be allocated to commands or tours so as to minimize citywide average queuing delay. Or the extra cars can be assigned to special activities

References and Notes

See Lecture RP for formulas. Average number of units available is (1-f)N - (workload)

This is just an example. You might want to minimize average probability. of a delay or average response time (queuing + travel)

10. COMPUTER PROGRAM

- Computer program is available to perform these calculations
- Descriptive mode. User decides how many patrol cars are to be on duty in each command during each tour. Program displays
 - -- Percent of time cars are busy on callfor-service work
 - -- Preventive patrol frequency
 - -- Average travel time
 - -- Percent of calls queued
 - -- Average waiting time in queue, by priority level
 - -- Average total response time

Prescriptive mode

- (a) User sets limit on any of the measures listed above. Program calculates minimum number of cars needed
- (b) User specifies total car-hours that can be fielded. Program allocates them to tours or commands or both so as to minimize
 - -- average percentage of calls placed in queue
 - -- <u>or</u>, average waiting time for some priority level
 - -- or, average response time

References and Notes

Ref.: Chaiken and Dormont, <u>Patrol Car</u> Allocation <u>Model</u>

Program permits three priority levels

Queuing + travel

References and Notes

11. DATA NEEDED FOR PROGRAM

- Hours of the day at which tours begin. One tour can be an overlay
- Call rates and service times by hour
- Response and patrol speeds of cars
- Number of outside crimes
- Unavailability parameters

12. TYPES OF POLICY ISSUES THAT CAN BE ADDRESSED

- Number of patrol officers needed to meet standards of performance
- Which calls to "screen out" to improve performance levels with fixed resources
- Possible benefits of an overlay tour
- Where to assign new recruits
- Deployment of a mobile patrol team (moves to different parts of the city from week to week)

13. ADVANTAGES

- Easy to use, once data are collected
- Inexpensive to run on the computer

14. DRAWBACKS

- Calculations are approximate
- User must estimate call rates and service times for the future -
- No information about variations within a command

Call rates broken down by priority

To calculate number of crimes that will be intercepted by cars on patrol

These are used to calculate f (see item 4)

For detailed hypothetical examples, see Chaiken and Dormont, Patrol Car Allocation Model: User's Manual

See Lecture BP

f = .30

1-f = .7

Workload = 3.9

Workload/(1-f) = 5.57

Next integer	Effective number of cars	Percent of calls delayed*	
,6	4.2	86	
7	4.9	56	
8	5.6	36	
9	6.3	22	
10	7.0	12.1	
11	7.7	7.3	
Stop.			

^{*}From tables, graphs, or computer program.

Fig. AP-1 — Example of allocation calculation

LECTURE BP

BEAT DESIGN

FOR POLICE SERVICE AUDIENCES

This is an optional added topic for Lecture AP

Time: Approx. 15 minutes

Objective: To describe an approach to designing police patrol beats or

sectors

Activity

1. INTRODUCTION

- Topic is how to design patrol beats or patrol sectors: the areas covered by a single patrol car*
- The number of patrol beats in a command is determined from the allocation analysis
- Therefore, beats may change by time of day

2. RULES OF THUMB

- Shape of sector doesn't matter much, as long as it's compact
- If travel speeds differ in two directions, the long dimension of the sector should be in the direction of the higher speeds
- If beats don't overlap, the fraction of dispatches that are interdistrict (across beat boundaries) is at least as high as the fraction of time the average unit is unavailable
- Unit's workload is not equal to the workload generated in its beat
- Burden of central location
 - -- Shaded parts of the command have many calls for service
 - -- Number of calls for service is not high in the center
 - -- Car in the center is very busy because
 it is the dispatcher's second choice for
 all the busy beats

References and Notes

General refs.: Larson,
Hypercube Queuing Model:
User's Manual; Chaiken,
Hypercube Queuing Model:
Executive Summary

That is, use Patrol Car Allocation Model before designing beats

Ref.: Larson, Measuring the Response Patterns of New York City Police Patrol Cars

Because of interdistrict dispatches

Figure BP-1

Activity '

References and Notes

3. HYPERCUBE MODEL

- Permits calculation of performance characteristics for trial beat designs. You have to work out the trial designs; program doesn't help
- Required data
 - -- Divide city into small areas (smaller than a beat)
 - -- Call-for-service data for the small areas
 - -- Some way to estimate travel times between small areas
 - .. coordinates of centers
 - .. experimental trips
 - .. estimates of local officers
 - .. computerized road network
- Performance measures calculated for each beat design
 - -- Regionwide average travel time
 - -- Regionwide workload imbalance
 - -- Fraction of dispatches that are interdistrict
 - -- Workload of each patrol car
 - -- Average travel time to particular loca-
 - -- Average travel time in each beat
 - -- Average travel time of each patrol car
 - -- Fraction of responses in each beat handled by the beat's assigned car
 - -- Fraction of each car's responses that take it out of its beat

4. EXAMPLE OF APPLICATION

- First map and table show original design of beats (called sectors)
- Second set shows final design

Later versions of program are being' designed to recommend "optimal" beat designs

From Larson,
"Illustrative Police
Sector Redesign in
District 4 in Boston"
Figures BP-2 to BP-5

References and Notes

5. ADVANTAGES

- Easy to use, after data have been collected
- Can handle overlapping beats, sergeant's cars, fairly complicated dispatching policies
- Inexpensave to run on a computer

6. DISADVANTAGES

- Assumes one car dispatched to each incident
- Not well suited to handle priorities

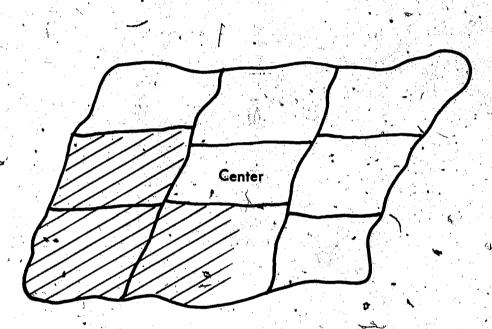
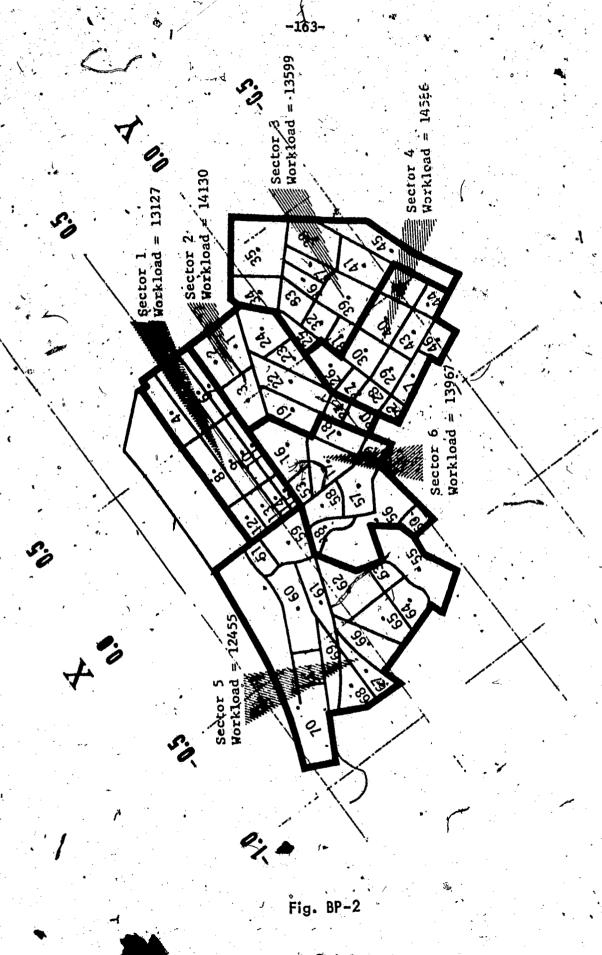


Fig. BP-1

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Maximum workload imbalance = 26%

Region-wide average travel time = 3.402 minutes

Average travel time for queued calls = 5.178 minutes

Fraction of dispatches that are cross-sector = 0.485

Profile of Patrol Unit Operations

Patrol Unit No.	Workload	% of Mean	Fraction of Dispatches Out of Sector	% of Mean	Average Travel Time
1	0.519	103.8	0.539	111.3	3.432
2	0.559	111.7	0.576	118.7	3.378
. 3	0.496	99.2	0.477	98.5	3.090
4	0.490	98.0	0.426	87.9	3.180
5.	0.428	85.7	0.373	77.0	3.978
6.	0.507	101.5	0.487	100.4	3,414

Profile of Sector Operations

Sector Number	Fraction of District's Total Workload	% of Mean	Fraction of Dispatches that are Cross-Sector	Average Travel Time		
1	0.160	96.2	0.503	3.312		
.2.	0.172	103.6	0.542	3.120		
. 3	0.166	99.7	0.480	3.324		
4	0.178	106.9	0.474	3.258		
5	0.152	91.3	0.412	4.218		
6	0.170	102.4	0.491	3.258		

Fig. BP-3

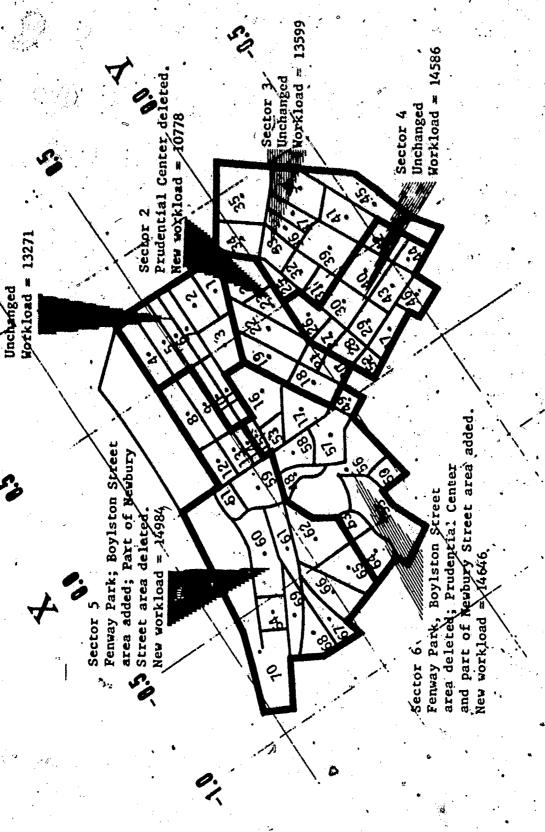


Fig. BP-4

ERIC

Maximum workload imbalance = 5.48%

Regionwide average travel time = 3.426 minutes

Average travel time for queued calls = 5.178 minutes

Fraction of dispatches that are cross-sector = 0.483

Profile of Patrol Unit Operations

Patrol Unit No.	Workload	% of Mean	Fraction of Dispatches Out of Sector	% of Mean	Average Travel Time
3.,1	0.499	99.7	0.495	102.5	3.222
2 .	0.512	102.4	0.611	126.6	3.318
3	0.497 3	99.4	0,479	9g.3 🕏	3.192
4	0.502	100.4	0.453	93.7	3.174
5	0.485	97.0	-0.398	82.3	4.074
6 •	0.505	100.1	0.456	94.5	3.612

Profile of Sector Operations

S'ector Number	Fraction of District's Total Workload	% of Mean	Fraction of Dispatches that are Cross-Sector	Average Travel Time
1	0.162	97.3	0.482.	. 2.958
2	0.132	79.0	0.496	2.886
.3	0.166	99.7	0.481	3.234
4	0.178	106.9	0.486	3.204
5 👡	0.183	109.8	0.468	4.524
6	0.179	107.3	0.488	3.534

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Fig. BP-5



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