

Responsibilities of the First Arriving Fire Officer

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Introduction

The first-arriving fire officer has an unusually influential responsibility because the earliest decisions shape command, resource deployment, firefighter exposure, and the possibility of rescuing occupants. The original discussion correctly emphasizes strategy before uncoordinated tactics, but the choice is not simply between being aggressive and being cautious. A competent first-due officer must rapidly establish command, communicate an accurate initial report, identify immediate life hazards, evaluate building and fire conditions, request appropriate resources, and select an operational mode consistent with departmental procedures. The officer may sometimes direct or participate in an urgent intervention, but action should remain part of an explicit incident strategy rather than becoming an isolated “random act of tactical violence.” The following responses preserve the original question-and-answer format while clarifying how size-up, incident command, risk assessment, and continuing reassessment support a safer and more effective structural fire response (United States Fire Administration, n.d.; National Fire Protection Association, 2020).

Part I: Strategic Responsibility of the First-Due Officer

Q1. Do you agree or disagree that one action has the greatest influence on a successful outcome?

I agree with the central argument that the first-arriving officer’s establishment of strategic direction has the greatest early influence on the outcome. That officer converts incomplete dispatch information into an organized incident response. The first report can announce conditions, identify the command designation, describe the operational mode, request additional alarms or specialist resources, and tell later-arriving companies where they are needed. Those actions create a shared picture before several crews begin operating independently. They also give dispatch and responding chief officers information that may affect staging, water supply, apparatus placement, medical support, exposure protection, and accountability.

However, “one action” should be understood as a disciplined command process rather than a single radio phrase. The officer must observe visible conditions, consider information from occupants or

bystanders, evaluate the building, recognize immediate threats, and make a preliminary risk decision. The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health repeatedly emphasizes that an initial size-up should be followed by continuous size-up because fire conditions, structural stability, and occupant survivability can change rapidly. A strong first decision can still become unsafe if the officer does not monitor its results. Strategic responsibility therefore begins with command establishment but continues through reassessment, communication, and adjustment (National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, 2024, 2025).

The officer's influence is also partly organizational. Good outcomes depend on staffing, training, water supply, communications, standard operating procedures, and the conduct of every crew. The first officer cannot guarantee success, yet that officer can reduce confusion by defining priorities. In most structural fires, the strategic order remains life safety, incident stabilization, and property conservation, although these priorities interact. A rescue effort that ignores imminent collapse may create additional victims, while an overly defensive posture without adequate assessment may miss a viable rescue opportunity. The first officer's task is to balance urgency with control.

Q2. Is the execution of good strategy more difficult than the execution of great tactics?

I agree that good strategy is often harder to execute than an individual tactic. A tactic is a specific activity, such as advancing a line, conducting a search, ventilating, establishing water supply, or protecting an exposure. Well-trained crews can perform those activities effectively within their assignments. Strategy is more demanding because it requires the incident commander to interpret uncertain information, compare risks, sequence multiple operations, anticipate how one action will affect another, and maintain a view of the entire incident. The commander must decide not merely whether crews can perform a task, but whether the task supports the incident objectives at that moment.

Strategy is also difficult because visible fire creates psychological pressure to act immediately. The first-due company may feel compelled to begin interior operations before command, water, staffing, accountability, or backup arrangements are adequate. A later-arriving battalion chief then inherits tactics that are already underway and may have to build a strategy around them. This reverses the proper relationship: tactics should implement strategy, not force the commander to justify disconnected actions after the fact. The phrase "aggressive strategy" is useful when it means decisive, risk-informed leadership, but it should not be confused with automatic interior attack. Strategic aggression may involve a rapid rescue, an exterior knockdown followed by transition, immediate exposure protection, withdrawal from a deteriorating building, or the early request for additional resources.

Good strategy must also accommodate uncertainty. The commander may receive conflicting reports about occupants, changing wind conditions, concealed fire extension, compromised utilities, or an

altered building layout. Successful command therefore requires both decisiveness and intellectual flexibility. A rigid plan can be as dangerous as no plan. The officer should state objectives clearly, establish benchmarks, obtain progress reports, and revise the incident action plan when evidence changes.

Q3. Should the first-arriving officer choose fast attack mode or strategic command?

The first-arriving officer should select the operational mode that best fits the conditions, departmental policy, available resources, and known life hazard. Strategic command is generally preferable when the incident is complex, when multiple companies are arriving, when conditions require coordination across several sides or floors, or when the officer can best protect crews by remaining outside and maintaining a command position. A stationary command post improves situational awareness, radio discipline, accountability, and coordination with dispatch and later-arriving command staff.

A fast-attack mode may be justified under narrowly defined circumstances, such as an immediately addressable life hazard or a small, rapidly controllable fire where delaying action would create greater danger. Even then, “fast attack” should not mean absence of command. The officer should transmit an initial report, announce the mode, identify who holds command, request needed resources, and explain the intended action. Command should be transferred formally when a qualified officer arrives. The intervention must remain consistent with staffing requirements, respiratory protection rules, accountability procedures, and the department’s standard operating guidelines (National Fire Protection Association, 2020).

Because every incident differs, an absolute rule favoring one mode would be inappropriate. The better principle is that the first officer must make an explicit strategic choice rather than drifting into action. A crew that enters without declaring command, communicating conditions, or planning for escalation transfers unnecessary risk to everyone who follows. Conversely, an officer who remains outside despite credible evidence of a survivable occupant and an immediately manageable hazard may fail to use a time-sensitive opportunity. The decision should be defensible in terms of conditions, resources, expected benefit, and foreseeable risk.

Q4. Do you agree with the author’s views on aggressive strategy and arrival reports versus size-up reports?

I agree that aggression should be expressed first through strategy. Firefighters are expected to act with urgency, but urgency is most effective when it is organized. An aggressive strategy identifies the highest-value objective, commits sufficient resources, provides support functions, and sets conditions under which crews will continue, change, or withdraw. It avoids both passive delay and impulsive action. The incident commander should consider whether occupants are likely to be present and

survivable, whether the structure can support interior operations, how quickly fire is developing, whether water is available, and whether staffing is sufficient for the intended work.

I also agree that an arrival report is not automatically a complete size-up report. An arrival report may state that a unit is on scene and briefly describe what is visible. A useful initial size-up goes further by communicating the building or occupancy, apparent conditions, location and extent of fire or smoke, immediate life hazard, exposure concerns, selected strategy, command status, and resource needs. The exact reporting format should follow local procedure. A concise report is preferable to an overloaded one, but it must give responding personnel information they can act upon (Emery, 2012; United States Fire Administration, n.d.).

Size-up is not finished after the first transmission. A view from one side may conceal fire, victims, a walkout basement, an addition, utility hazards, or structural deterioration. A 360-degree assessment should be completed when conditions and staffing allow, either by the first officer or an assigned member. Reports from interior crews, thermal imaging, building occupants, preincident plans, and visible changes should then update the commander's understanding. This continuing process distinguishes size-up from a ceremonial arrival announcement (Smith, 2009; National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, 2024).

Part II: Applying Size-Up Principles

Q1. How do recommended video techniques compare with the article's distinction between arrival and size-up reports?

The video recommendations and the article share the view that the first radio message should be clear, audible, and based on observation. Speaking directly and calmly into the microphone matters because a distorted or rushed transmission can prevent responding crews from understanding the assignment. More importantly, the officer should determine what is happening before committing the company. In the Engine 54 example described in the original response, the problem is not simply that the crew acted quickly; it is that the officer's message and tactical commitment appear to precede a sufficiently communicated strategy. Other units are then required to infer the plan.

The recommendation to retain or transfer command deliberately is also consistent with modern incident management. Passing command is not an informal assumption that the next officer will take over. The transfer should include conditions, current strategy, assignments, resource status, safety concerns, and any uncompleted objectives. Until that transfer is acknowledged, the original commander remains responsible. This continuity prevents a dangerous gap in supervision while the incident is expanding (National Fire Protection Association, 2020).

Q2. What is your overall opinion regarding a size-up report?

A size-up report is one of the most important communication tools at an incident because it transforms the observations of one unit into a common operational picture. It should begin with the correct location and a useful description of the occupancy or structure. The officer should report visible fire or smoke, relevant building features, obvious life hazards, the initial operational mode, command identification, and requests for additional resources. When information is unknown, it is better to state that it is being investigated than to present an assumption as fact.

The report should be concise enough to preserve radio availability. Long descriptions can delay urgent transmissions, while an incomplete report leaves responding companies without direction. Departments commonly use structured formats so officers remember essential elements under stress. Whatever format is chosen, it should be practiced during drills and applied consistently. The initial report then becomes the first entry in a sequence of updates, benchmarks, emergency traffic, and progress reports.

Q3. What additional items are important?

The first additional item is the application of size-up information. Observation has value only when it changes decisions. The officer should ask what the incident requires, what resources are available, what can be accomplished safely, and what foreseeable change could invalidate the plan. If fire is extending beyond the capacity of the initial alarm, the correct application may be an early additional-alarm request rather than waiting for conditions to overwhelm crews.

A second item is accountability. The incident commander must know which companies and members are operating, their assignments, and their general locations. Personnel accountability reports and emergency procedures should be used according to policy, especially after a change in strategy, structural event, or lost-contact report. A third item is collapse and flow-path awareness. Changes in smoke, fire location, ventilation, structural condition, and wind can alter the hazard to crews. A fourth is command support: as the incident grows, divisions, groups, safety functions, staging, and a formal command team may be needed so the incident commander is not overloaded (National Fire Protection Association, 2020, 2024).

Conclusion

The original article is persuasive in arguing that the first-due officer must “nail” strategic responsibility before tactics multiply. The strongest interpretation of that responsibility is not a universal preference for either fast attack or exterior command. It is the disciplined establishment of command, a meaningful initial and continuing size-up, an explicit risk-informed strategy, coordinated

assignments, and formal transfer when command changes. Great tactics cannot compensate for a missing incident plan, while good strategy gives trained crews the direction and support needed to perform those tactics effectively. Local standard operating procedures, incident-command training, and current fire-service safety guidance must govern the precise actions taken at any real emergency (Emery, 2012).

References

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