



FIRE PROTECTION Engineering

1998 YEARS 2008

History of Fire
Protection
Engineering

Impact of Fires on the
Built Environment Over
the Past 10 Years

Ten Years – Changes
in the Profession



THE OFFICIAL MAGAZINE OF THE SOCIETY OF FIRE PROTECTION ENGINEERS



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FIRE PROTECTION Engineering

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From the **TECHNICAL DIRECTOR**

Performance-Based Design

A Review of the Past, Observations of the Present and Predictions about the Future

Although performance-based design has received increasing attention over the last decade or so, performance-based fire protection has been evolving for the last century. While the rate of change is increasing, performance-based design is in no way new.

Early (pre-1900s) fire protection requirements were generally prescriptive, with such requirements including the permissible materials from which building exteriors could be constructed or the minimum acceptable spacing between buildings. However, most modern building and fire code requirements have some element of performance associated with them.

Performance-based approaches for designing building fire protection can be traced to the early 1970s, when the "Goal-Oriented Approach to Building Fire Safety" was developed by the U.S. General Services Administration.¹

In 1985, the first performance code was published – the performance-based British Regulations. New Zealand published a performance-based building code in 1992, and Australia followed suit in 1995.

Since then, many other countries have developed performance-based building codes. However, in all cases, performance-based codes are provided as an option to the designer; prescriptive or "deemed to satisfy" provisions are also available.

Performance-based codes only represent the formalization of performance-based design. Performance-based design has long been practiced through the use of "equivalency" or "alternate methods and materials" clauses found in most, if not all, prescriptive codes and standards. These clauses permit the use of alternate methods of compliance.

Current State of Practice

Anecdotal evidence suggests that performance-based design is being used on five percent to 10 percent of building design projects. Where performance-based design is used, it is only used on portions of the design – meaning that the bulk of the building is designed in accordance with prescriptive rules.

Most performance-based codes share a common approach – qualitative description of acceptable performance and the hazards against which designs should provide protection. Terms like "sufficient" and "reasonable" are used to define acceptable performance. Similarly, design hazards are either not defined or are defined qualitatively. Therefore, the level of safety that is provided can vary depending upon how these qualitative terms are interpreted by the designers and code enforcers.

While the publication of performance-based codes and design methods has harmonized the practice of performance-based design, the levels of safety provided by performance-based designs are not uniform. Fire safety engineering has not reached the state of modern

structural engineering, where building loads, properties of structural materials and design methods are clearly defined.

Modern performance-based fire safety design is also hampered by the fact that fire is extremely complex, and not all fire phenomena, system effectiveness and human response factors are understood to the point that definitive predictions are possible.

The Future

During the short term, the future of performance-based design will not be much different than it is today. Performance-based design will be used on a minority of projects, and when it is used, it will not be for the entire design. For some types of buildings (e.g., one- and two-story residences), prescriptive designs will continue to be the norm for the foreseeable future.

Also during the short term, performance-based design will evolve at an incremental rate. One of the next major changes will be the publication of quantitative performance criteria and descriptions of design hazards in New Zealand. Other countries will likely follow New Zealand's lead and develop similar quantitative criteria.

Another area that is evolving is the performance-based design of structural fire resistance. At least in tall buildings, the century-old method of designing structures based on standard fire resistance ratings will slowly yield to a method where the expected fire boundary conditions are predicted, the thermal response of the structure is calculated and the structural response is determined. Standards are presently under development that will govern this process, and designs of this type are presently being conducted on a limited number of buildings.

In the much longer term, fire science will be better understood, models will improve and performance-based design will be more widely accepted. Someday, all high-end buildings will be designed according to a performance basis. However, this change will take at least a generation.

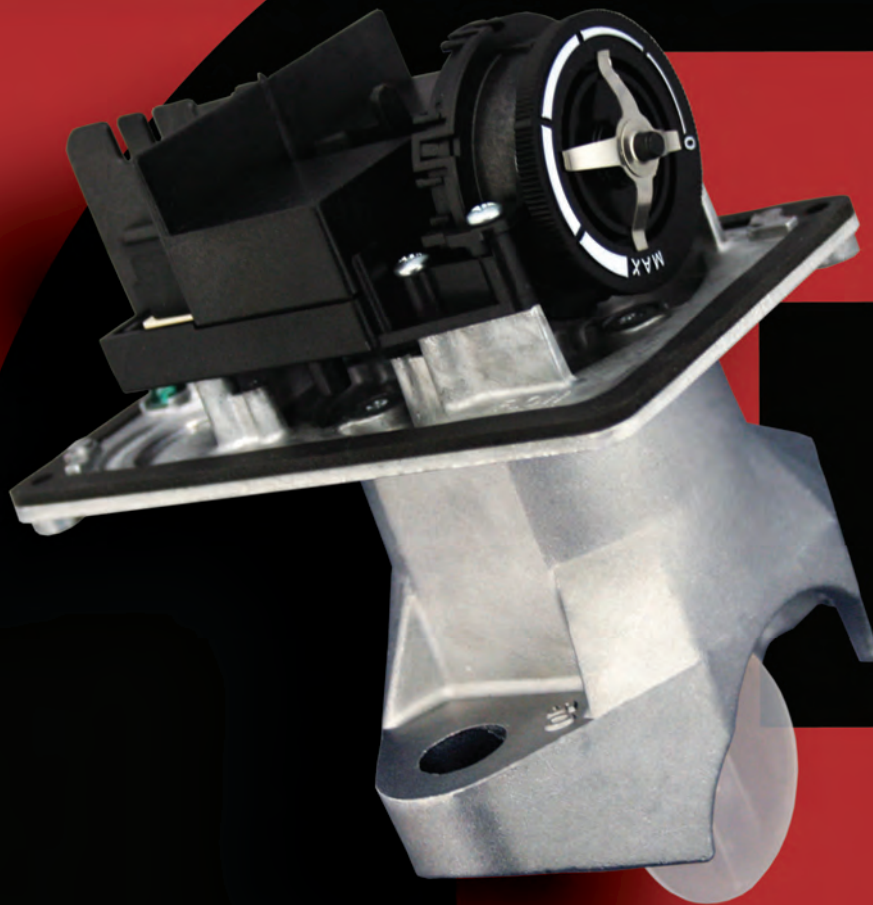
SFPE has been a leader in the evolution of performance-based design with the publication of the *SFPE Handbook of Fire Protection Engineering*, engineering guides and, soon, engineering standards. SFPE will continue to lead the advancement of the profession into the future. Ultimately, the advancement of performance-based fire safety will be of great benefit to the fire protection engineering profession and to public safety.

Morgan J. Hurley, P.E.
Technical Director
Society of Fire Protection Engineers

Reference:

- 1 Custer, R., and Meacham, B., *Introduction to Performance-Based Fire Safety*, National Fire Protection Association, Quincy, MA, 1997.

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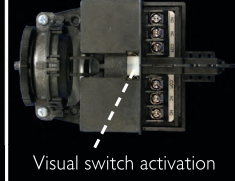
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Dear Editor,

I wanted to respond to a letter from Mr. Michael Chow, P.E., in the Summer 2008 issue. Mr. Chow made some accurate points about the P.E. exam, and his concerns about what the exam covers are concerns that I share. Since I have been involved in the FPE P.E. exam development for the last few years, I have some insights I want to share.

First, all of the NCEES exams have evolved over the last decade to make them objectively graded. This meant doing away with the long answer/essay format that some of us remember, and in the process, the problems on the exam have become less complex. That doesn't mean the new tests are bad but that the licensing boards need to be thoughtful about how they use them.

In the United States, P.E. licenses are granted on the basis of education, examination and experience. Educational credentials demonstrate the candidate has "knowledge." The examination demonstrates that the candidate has "skill" to apply the knowledge. But experience demonstrates "judgment," or the ability to make wise engineering decisions that go beyond textbook knowledge.

There are two messages I believe need to be conveyed.

In the United States,
P.E. licenses are granted
on the basis of education,
examination and
experience. Educational
credentials demonstrate
the candidate
has "knowledge."

First, I point out to the licensing boards that since the examinations are moving away from testing "judgment," they need to place greater emphasis on work experience in their licensing decisions and not rely on the exam to be a gatekeeper. Second, I point out to the practicing licensed engineers that when a candidate asks you for a P.E. reference for his application, you need to take that responsibility seriously. Only you can assess whether this person has good enough judgment to be entrusted with the health, safety and welfare of the public. Don't give a borderline candidate a reference and then count on the P.E. exam to trip them up if he isn't qualified.

Roger B. Tate, P.E.
Verité Forensic Engineering LLC
Member SFPE Engineering Licensing
Committee



Fire Protection Engineering welcomes letters to the editor. Please send correspondence to: engineering@sfpe.org or by mail to Fire Protection Engineering, 7315 Wisconsin Ave., #620E, Bethesda, MD 20814.

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Dear Editor,

I was struck by two articles: (1) Paul Fitzgerald on "The Case for Increased Scientific Fire Research," and (2) Beth Tubbs on the SFPE future priorities.

Paul rightly calls for a higher level of ability in understanding underlying scientific principles needed to address performance codes for fire safety. Beth Tubbs lays out the SFPE key needs – a design scenario standard, model validation and performance criteria including tenability. The approach she lists that SFPE is using to address these issues is based on old technology and knowledge. This course does not provide hope for the future.

The FPE hopes have been made viable by the research in the U.S. of the 1970s, when research for science was abundant. That U.S. research effort has now atrophied but, as indicated by Paul, has diffused around the world. We in the U.S. are in dire need of a shot in the arm. The SFPE needs to set as its No. 1 priority a strong national and political advocacy for U.S. fire research. The cost of fire in the U.S. is nearly one percent of its GDP, and the research expenditure is not even one percent of that. There are many needs that I think should be part of the SFPE agenda:

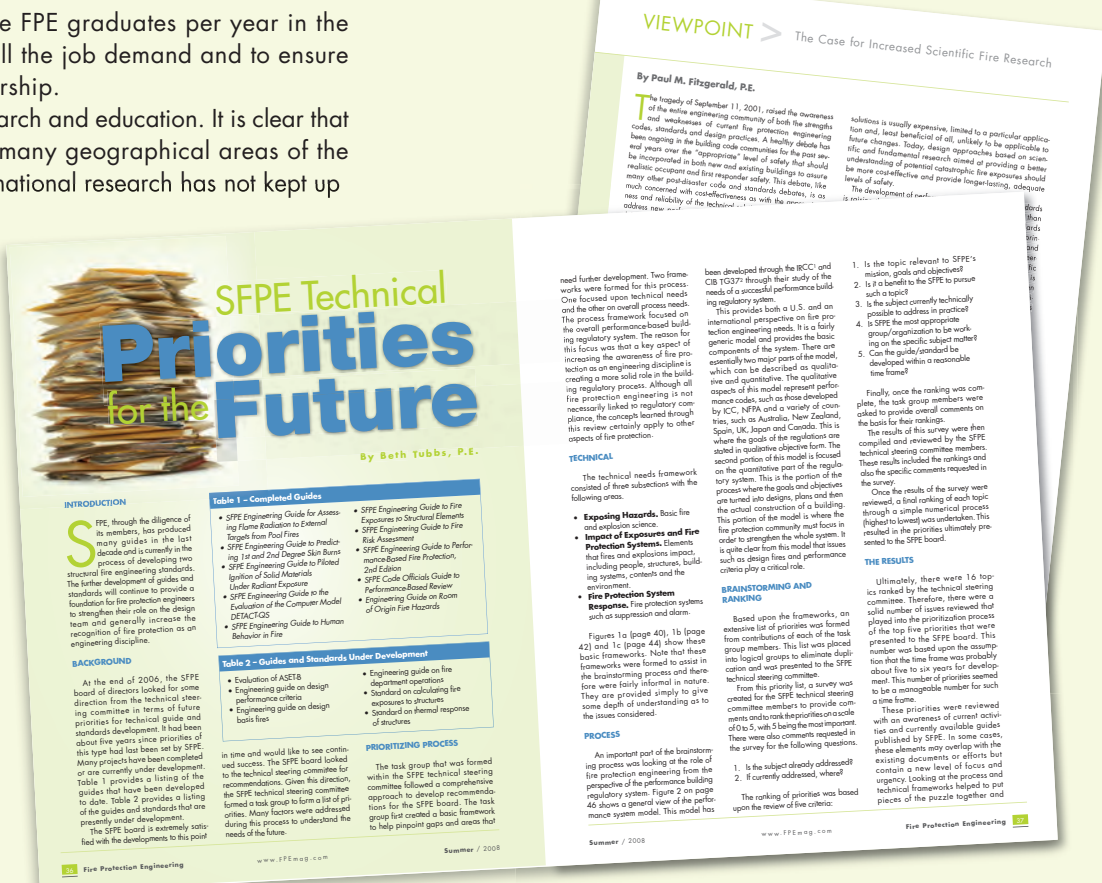
1. A tenfold increase in the FPE graduates per year in the U.S. This is needed to fill the job demand and to ensure a core intellectual leadership.
2. National centers for research and education. It is clear that education is needed in many geographical areas of the U.S., and the center for national research has not kept up with the needs.
3. A renewed enlistment of academia and key laboratories to conduct research. The legacy of the 1970s research effort in fire was based on such a foundation. That foundation ensures consensus and integrity. It was responsible for the *SFPE Handbook of Fire Protection Engineering*.

4. A linkage between the science and engineering practice is needed to the fire service. Only when the fire service becomes an ally of the FPE practice and the enforcement of sound regulations will we have a strong community for growth with respect to new knowledge and needed technologies.

It is a feeble effort to think SFPE has a priority to validate DETACT and ASET when one should already know their strengths and limitations. Yet Beth's article ends with the point that "a variety of models such as FDS and complex egress models exist, but their application is limited to those designs that tend to be performance-based." How about SFPE urging the validation of these models as they are being used around the world as a *de facto* design standard now? Let's get some peer review here.

I think SFPE needs to rethink its agenda and then seek help by visiting D.C. from their office in Bethesda.

James G. Quintiere
University of Maryland



David Kimmerly

Security Consultant

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By Jim Quiter, P.E., FSFPE

Ten years ago, I was pleased and proud to write, as SFPE President, the Viewpoint column in the first issue of *Fire Protection Engineering* magazine. At the time, as with most new ventures at SFPE, we knew we were taking a risk. We also knew that our members wanted and needed an application-oriented magazine. We wondered, however, if we could consistently fill it with meaningful material. I think it is safe to say that, under the technical leadership of Morgan Hurley, the magazine has flourished and the fire protection community would be poorer without it.

So what have we seen change in our profession during the 10 years of the magazine? At first, one might think very little is different, but as I thought about life as a fire protection engineer, and as I canvassed others within Arup who have been around through those 10 years, I came to the realization that almost everything we do is different. Since I only get one page to discuss the changes, just look at the following teaser points and imagine the world without them:

- Virtually all business correspondence is by e-mail with the expectation of immediate response. Ten years ago, much was by fax, 20 years ago by express mail, and 30 years ago, it took a week to turn around a document.
- We now run computer models on our desktop that were difficult to run on a mainframe. The zone models so commonly used 10 years ago have given way to CFD models today, with run times in the order of minutes or hours as opposed to days and weeks. Now we need to make sure we evaluate and understand the results, rather than letting our computers do the "thinking."
- We have realistic and credible means of modeling people movement. Models that were developed for fire protection are being used for transport planning and vice versa. The current models have people (agents) who think and react, not just traipse along on a predetermined route. This, of course, leads to validation issues.
- SFPE has evolved into a driving force in the industry. Besides technical journals, the society now publishes technical guides, computer model evaluations and is involved in the codes and standards process.
- We are living in a 3-D world. Our designs and our interaction with the rest of our profession are done on models that could not have been imagined 10 years

ago. In some cases, that has led to buildings that could not have been built (the Beijing Water Cube being an example).

- We have developed into a global design community. U.S. based codes are being used in much of the world (neither the *International Building Code*® nor NFPA 5000® existed 10 years ago), and codes from other nations are also in use globally. Many international architects and developers are working in all parts of the globe, and the fire engineer is following suit.
- Partially driven by globalization, the concepts of performance-based design and risk have become much more accepted. The laws of science do not change across the globe, even if the laws of codes do change. Therefore, returning to first principles allows the engineer to practice good fire protection first and deal with code application second. With these first principles, the risk associated must also be considered because the "code crutch" has disappeared. Perhaps China has made the greatest step forward with many major performance-based projects.
- The entire field of fire protection engineering has grown in its influence. Ten years ago, fire consultants on a design team were treated as technical advisors to solve code issues. Today, fire protection consultants are major players in the chain of decision-making, often working with fellow fire protection engineers who are a part of the approving authority, and often having owners as clients who also employ fire protection engineers.
- In the last few years, the concept of fire and structures has developed greatly, particularly for steel structures. Instead of passive fire protection being prescriptively applied over the whole steel frame, significant areas of unprotected steel are becoming commonplace where these methods are applied. This helps us to evaluate robustness, to reduce materials where appropriate or to use those materials in a way to make a better structure.

So what has changed since the first *Fire Protection Engineering* magazine was published 10 years ago? Virtually everything we do! I look forward to an equally exciting next 10 years.

Jim Quiter, P.E., FSFPE, is with Arup.

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mechanical and electrical systems such as voice/data, TV, audio-visual, and digital HVAC controls. Our integrated fire-protection and security systems keep you safe and secure, while others—which keep your room warm, the water soft, and the lights dim—let you relax in comfort and peace. Even if that salesman (you know the one) won't.

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The SFPE Corporate 100 Program was founded in 1976 to strengthen the relationship between industry and the fire protection engineering community. Membership in the program recognizes those who support the objectives of SFPE and have a genuine concern for the safety of life and property from fire.

UL Warns of Counterfeit Automatic Fire Sprinklers

Underwriters Laboratories (UL) is notifying consumers, distributors and property owners of automatic fire sprinklers that bear a counterfeit UL Mark for the United States and Canada. Although marked with the word "Globe," these sprinklers are not manufactured by Globe Fire Sprinkler Corp. and have not been evaluated for safety by UL. This information supersedes a public notice released by UL on July 14, 2006.

Names of Products:

GL 5651 Pendent-type fire sprinklers
GL 5661 Upright-type fire sprinklers
GL 5626 Horizontal sidewall fire sprinklers
GL 5681 Concealed-type fire sprinklers

Units: Unknown quantity

Date of Manufacture: January of 2004 to present

Manufacturer: Unknown

Identification: The word "Globe" appears on the product. Sprinklers with the counterfeit UL Mark are manufactured with a slot-head screw and Job F5 or Job FR glass bulb. Non-counterfeit UL-listed sprinklers manufactured by Globe Fire Sprinkler Corp. contain a hex-head screw and a Job G5 or F3 glass bulb.

Other identifiable markings are found on the counterfeit sprinklers' deflectors on several models.

For a list of model names, along with photographs, go to
www.ul.com/newsroom/newsrel/nr061808.html.

Three Organizations Develop Position Statement Regarding Roles of FPEs and Technicians

Because of industry-wide concerns over the inconsistencies in state and local engineering regulations regarding the qualifications for those who design fire protection systems, the Society of Fire Protection Engineers (SFPE) has joined the National Society of Professional Engineers (NSPE) and the National Institute for Certification in Engineering Technologies (NICET) to develop a unified position statement entitled *The Engineer and the Technician – Designing Fire Protection Systems*.

The purpose of the position statement is to describe reasonable and prudent roles and responsibilities of licensed professional engineers and certified engineering technicians when designing fire protection systems.

"The position statement stresses the point that both engineers and technicians play an essential role in the process as long as both practice within their areas of competence," says Chris Jelenewicz, SFPE engineering program manager. "Moreover, it establishes basic rules for the relationships between design, code compliance and construction entities. As a result, the general public, firefighters, property and the environment will be better protected from fire."

A copy of the position statement can be found at www.sfpe.org.

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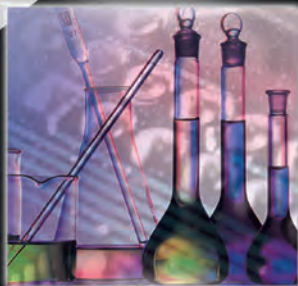
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No. 1
TEN YEARS -
CHANGES IN
THE PROFESSION

To celebrate the 10th anniversary of *Fire Protection Engineering* magazine, this special issue reviews changes that have occurred in the practice of fire protection engineering over the past decade. Three authors discuss changes in three areas of the profession: structural fire resistance, smoke control systems and human behavior in fire.

WHAT'S NEW IN PASSIVE FIRE PROTECTION

By Richard Davis, P.E., FSFPE



Passive fire protection includes fire and smoke barriers and walls; fire doors; fire windows; fire-rated floor-ceiling or roof-ceiling assemblies; fire-resistive coverings for structural members; and firestop products for penetrations through, and joints within, fire-resistive walls and floors.

In the past decade or so, much attention has been paid to passive fire protection. During that time, some new products have become available, and some old-but-sound guidance has been reaffirmed. This article briefly describes some of the new developments. (Links to the Web sites of specific manufacturers are provided as examples; there are other Web sites with similar products and information, but this short article cannot list them all.)

THINK GREEN

These days, everyone seems to be talking about “green buildings” and designing to meet the standards of the Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED®) program (see www.usgbc.org). This has even trickled down to sprayed fire-resistive materials (SFRMs) and fire-resistive boards. Some of the most common spray-applied coatings are cementitious or mineral fiber-based. These formulations usually include filler materials, as well. The use of recycled materials is encouraged, and some of these coatings and boards now contain between 10 percent and 45 percent recycled material. Whatever the materials are that are used, they should be tested and listed for use in a firestop assembly listed by a nationally recognized testing laboratory. For more information on the subject and a list of some of these products, refer to www.isolatek.com/leeds.asp.

FIRESTOPPING

Homemade sealing remedies, such as joint compound or spray

foam in a can, do not improve the fire resistance at an opening. When used with a listed assembly, these remedies can compromise the penetration seals. Furthermore, using listed products without following listing criteria results in an indeterminate fire resistance rating.

While it has been more than 30 years since the Brown's Ferry fire,¹ a great effort has recently been made to improve the performance and installation of firestop systems and their components in fire-rated walls and floors. Recent developments include the 2001 creation of a new FM Approvals Standard (Class Number 4991²) for approving firestop contractors

One major change in the last ten or so years is the size of the fire load found in some areas of high-rise buildings that will challenge passive fire protection.

and the publication of the Firestop Contractors International Association (FCIA) *Manual of Practice*.³ The FCIA's manual describes the appropriate training and education of its workforce, and can be used to assess the ability of a Designated Responsible Individual (DRI) to interpret and understand relevant information and oversee the work of others. In 2006, UL® developed their Qualified Firestop Contractor Program.⁴ A wide variety of firestop products can now be found in both the *Approval Guide*⁵ and UL's fire-resistance product directory.⁶ For more information, visit www.fcia.org.

NIST REPORT ON THE COLLAPSE OF THE WORLD TRADE CENTER TOWERS

The NIST report⁷ on the collapse of the World Trade Center (WTC) towers went into great detail and included several recommendations for the enhanced fire resistance of structures (Recommendations 4 through 7) and new methods for the fire-resistive design of structures (Recommendations 8 through 11). Recommendation 4, in part, proposed the increase of fire resistance ratings for very tall buildings (more than 20 stories). Over the last decade, some progress has been made in this area, as the minimum required fire resistance ratings of columns, bearing walls, beams, girders, trusses and arches supporting more than one floor have effectively been increased from two to three hours in the *International Building Code*® (IBC)⁸ and NFPA 5000⁹ for buildings over 180 ft (55 m) and 420 ft (128 m) in height, respectively.

Recommendation 4 also advised studying the impact of spaces containing “unusually large fuel concentrations.” One major change in the last ten or so years is the size of the fire load found in some areas of high-rise buildings that will challenge passive fire protection. Supplies of diesel fuel are no longer limited to 660 gal (2.5 m³), enough to power emergency lights, etc. Now, thousands of gallons of diesel fuel can be found in tank storage vaults, enough to provide full backup power for normal business operations.¹⁰ Often, this fuel is pumped to generator rooms on upper floors. Oversized pipes (pipe headers) are located in emergency generator rooms and can contain much more fuel than is normally allowed in day tanks. Furthermore, the fire rating provided for the structural framing often is based on the standard time temperature (STT) curve¹¹ rather than the much more stringent hydrocarbon fire exposure.¹² Based on comparative heat fluxes, and depending on



the actual required rating, this could considerably reduce the fire resistance provided—in other words, an assembly tested for three hours per the standard curve may only resist about two hours in a hydrocarbon fire exposure test.

NIST Recommendation 5 was to improve fire resistance testing and extrapolation of results, including the relationship between actual beam length and the limited length that fits in the test furnace. Such furnaces are currently limited to 17 ft (5.2 m) in length. As described in one of the supplemental NIST reports,¹³ limited fire resistance tests comparing the performance of 17 ft (5.2 m) trusses and 35 ft (11 m) trusses implied that, all else being equal, the performance of the longer truss was considerably less. While testing the full length of fire-rated horizontal structural members may not be practical, and tests done by NIST were too limited to draw any definite conclusions, the development of a correlation that allows the determination of increased coating thickness for increased length in relation to the tested sample may be needed. No further research is planned at this time.

Another recommendation in the NIST report called for increased durability and impact resistance of fire-resistive materials. In most cases, as the density of a material increases, its impact resistance does as well. Some of the most common SFRMs have a low density of only 15 pcf (240 kg/m³). While normal-weight concrete and light-weight structural concrete (145 pcf [2300 kg/m³] and 120 pcf [1900 kg/m³], respectively) are at the high end of the scale, they still can be used for this purpose. There are some newer, denser versions of old familiar products that offer increased impact resistance. For an example of a cementitious product available in medium, high and ultra-high densities, see www.na.graceconstruction.com/prodline.cfm?did=3.

GLASS FIRE SUBDIVISIONS

One concern with fire-rated windows has always been that, while they remain in place and block the passage of flames and hot gases, they are not required to limit heat transmission to the unexposed surface. Concerns about using glass in firewalls, fire barrier walls or fire partitions include

limiting heat exposure to those using the immediate area as a means of egress and locating combustible material near this unexposed surface, which may be auto-ignited. For such situations, there is insulating fire-rated glass, which has gained popularity in the past decade. These assemblies are multilaminates, offer resistance to radiative as well as conductive heat, and limit the temperature rise on the unexposed side. These products are tested as firewalls¹¹ rather than fire windows.¹⁴ For more information, see www.fireglass.com/glass/pyrostop.

Richard Davis, P.E., FSFPE, is with FM Global.

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TEN YEARS -
CHANGES IN
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DEVELOPMENT IN THE DESIGN OF SMOKE CONTROL SYSTEMS

By Michael J. Ferreira, P.E.



The past decade has seen dramatic changes in the way smoke control systems are designed and evaluated. As recently as 1991, building codes such as the *Uniform Building Code*® (UBC),¹ one of the predecessors to the *International Building Code*® (IBC),² contained only basic requirements for the design of smoke control systems.

For both zoned smoke control systems required in places such as high-rise buildings and large volume exhaust systems required for atrium spaces, the 1991 UBC generally required the provision of six air changes per hour from the zone of fire origin, where active (mechanical) smoke control measures were stipulated.

The 6-air-change requirement had no basis in fire dynamics or smoke management performance, and the effectiveness of this approach for protecting building occupants varied widely depending on the geometry of the space being protected. Using the 6-air-change requirement, mechanical engineers rarely sought the expertise of fire protection engineers with regard to the design of smoke control systems due to the straightforward nature of the calculations involved.

In the early 1990s, design documents came out that dramatically

increased the technical rigor applied to the design of smoke control systems. Algebraic equations were introduced to calculate pressure differentials required to contain smoke in a zoned system and to quantify the amount of smoke produced for fires in large spaces. NFPA 92A³ was first issued as a design guide in 1988 and covered the design of pressurization smoke control systems. NFPA 92B⁴ was first issued also as a design guide in 1991 and covered the design of exhaust-type systems predicated on maintaining a smoke layer interface at a specified height in a large-volume space.

The 1994 edition of the UBC was the first building code to mandate calculation methods consistent with the NFPA guides for the purpose of the design of smoke control systems. Due to the increased complexity and expertise associated with smoke control system designs, from this point forward fire protection engineers often became involved in projects requiring smoke control systems.

The seminal ASHRAE text *Design of Smoke Management Systems*⁵ was authored by Dr. John Klotz and Dr. Jim Milke, and was published in 1992. The ASHRAE text went even further than the NFPA design guides in exploring issues such as elevator smoke control, smoke tenability (temperature,



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The prevalence of atrium smoke control systems based on the use of FDS simulations to substantiate the design has seen a widespread increase over the past three to five years.

smoke control systems. The book pulled together in one place the existing technical knowledge with regard to smoke movement and control in buildings, and became a design text widely used by fire protection engineers.

The mid- to late-1990s saw an increase in the use of computer models for designing smoke control systems. Zone models such as ASET⁶ and CFAST⁷ were used to calculate smoke filling and smoke exhaust requirements for atrium spaces, but conservative assumptions often had to be used to approximate complex geometries.

The building airflow model CONTAM⁸ became widely used to calculate pressurization smoke control systems, as it became recognized that complex systems incorporating multiple elements such as stair pressurization systems and corridor/floor pressurization were

also affected by wind and stack effects impacting tall buildings.

The development of the computational fluid dynamics model Fire Dynamics Simulator (FDS)⁹ in the early part of this decade presented a powerful tool for use in designing atrium smoke control systems, and allowed for quantification of smoke conditions throughout an atrium space, even for the most complex atrium geometries. With the recognition in the 2005 revision to NFPA 92B¹⁰ of smoke control systems designed to maintain minimum smoke tenability levels, rather than a prescribed smoke layer interface height, the use of FDS to analyze these types of systems became not only desirable, but in many cases necessary. The prevalence of atrium smoke control systems based on the use of FDS simulations to substantiate the design has seen a widespread increase over the past three to five years.

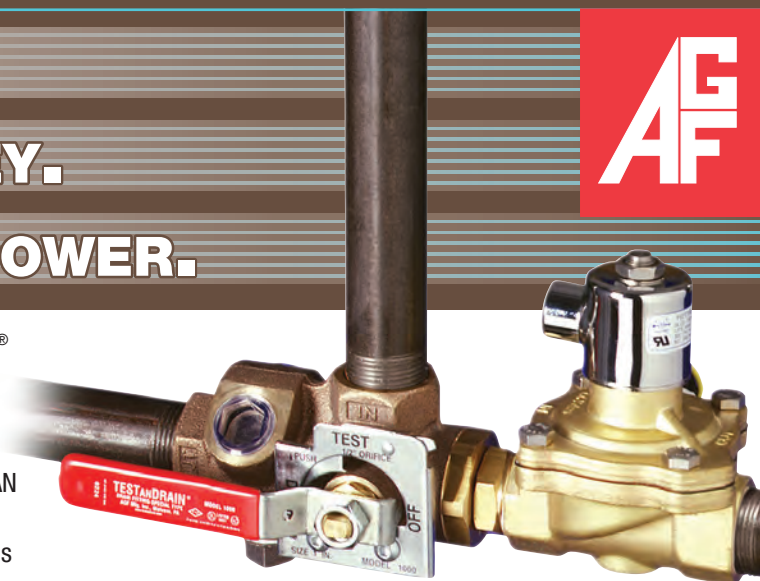
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In 2008, the number of zoned smoke control systems required in the U.S. is declining, as the most recent editions of the IBC² removed the requirement for zoned smoke control beyond providing stair pressurization in high-rise buildings. High-rise smoke control systems remain required only by

local amendments to the code in states such as California and Florida, and local jurisdictions such as Las Vegas. In contrast, the number of atrium smoke control systems being specified is on the rise, as architects continue to push the bounds of building design by incorporating these unique spaces.

Increased use of FDS as a design tool, along with advances to the model interface making it easier for practicing engineers to use, make it incumbent on fire protection engineers to understand the limitations of the model and to appreciate the impact that design choices such as design fire, fuel properties (e.g., soot yield), visibility parameters and critical tenability limits have on the design. When designing systems predicated on the exposure of building occupants to smoke, it is important that the designer incorporate sufficient conservatism to adequately protect building occupants. The task of better defining minimum tenability requirements for use in designing smoke control systems represents probably the foremost challenge faced by fire protection engineers who design these systems as the profession moves forward into the next decade.

Michael J. Ferreira, P.E., is with Hughes Associates.



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FIRE-RELATED Human Behavior

By T. Steven Wright, P.E.

From the vantage point of this practicing fire protection engineer, the most significant change in the last 10 years with regard to fire-related human behavior has been the considerable increase in the awareness and education of fire professionals on the topic. This is likely due to its applicability and necessity to the performance-based design and analysis process. Additionally, several significant fire events have contributed to this educational wave via video footage, as well as the extensive research and plethora of published reports pertaining to these incidents by research professionals.

The first edition of the *SFPE Engineering Guide to Performance-Based Fire Protection Analysis and Design of Buildings*¹ directly integrated human behavioral factors into the building design process. However, the guide provided only a general description of occupant characteristics that must be considered when characterizing design fire scenarios. Additional and necessary guidance at that time was provided in the *SFPE Handbook of Fire Protection Engineering*.^{2, 3, 4}

A few years later, the *SFPE Engineering Guide to Human Behavior in Fire*⁵ was published and became

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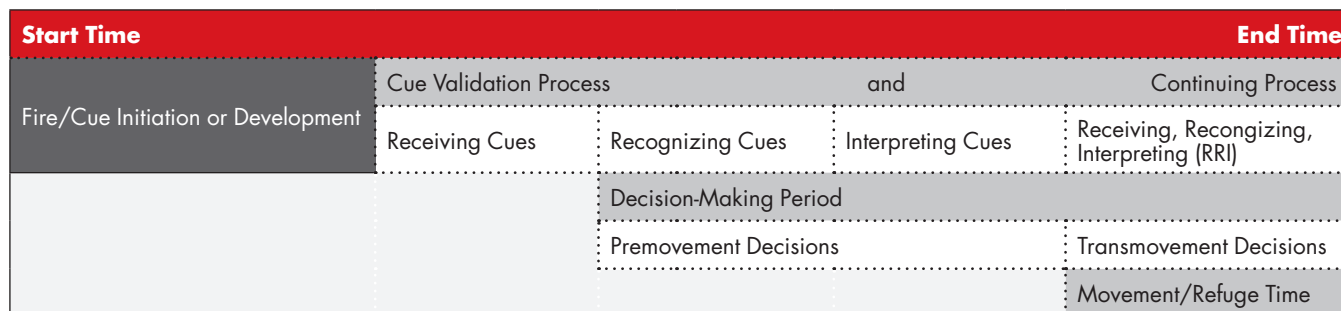


Figure 1. Timeline of the Evacuation Process

a vital source for guidance on occupant characteristics, human response to cues, decision-making and movement for direct implementation into the performance-based process. The intent of the guide was to bring together qualitative and quantitative information to facilitate prediction of occupant reaction and egress during fires in buildings for use in the performance-based design process. The "Timeline of the Evacuation Process" (Figure 1) contained in the document serves as a visual representation of the needed information necessary to work through the ASET (available safe egress time) vs. RSET (required safe egress time) estimations required for evaluation of fire scenarios during the building design process.

The most significant educational tool has been the raw video from The Station Nightclub fire in West Warwick, RI, in 2003, which was viewed by fire protection professionals and the public around the world. This video shows, in real-time, the perspective of an occupant who escaped the tragic fire. Revealed in the video are indications of fire cues, verbal and physical indications of reactions to cues by the videographer and others in close proximity, as well as a view of the actual egress.

This "nodal" view from beginning to end is likely the first such real-time video that the fire protection community has ever seen. The events of September 11, 2001,

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(and most significantly the post-fire analysis by human behavioral researchers) provided equally valuable information regarding high-rise evacuation, cue interpretation and the decision-making process. Though not a fire incident, the E2 nightclub incident in 2003 in Chicago was also a significant event in this regard since it was accompanied by video and press coverage.

Two complete issues of *Fire Protection Engineering* magazine (Fall 2002 and Fall 2005) were devoted to fire-related human behavior. Article topics ranged from an historical review to the use of elevators for emergency egress to human behavior simulation tools. The mere existence of these issues indicates the importance of the topic.

SFPE offers two educational seminars on the topic of fire-related human behavior, one targeting the



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engineering community and the other targeting the fire service. In the United States, the University of Maryland at College Park and Worcester Polytechnic Institute both offer graduate-level courses addressing the topic of fire-related human behavior. Most recently, these courses were taught by well-known researchers in the field.

While an odd source, the popular Web site *YouTube.com* offers fire professionals and the international public an opportunity to view fire-related human behavior. Further, the site tracks the number of downloads, which indicates that large numbers of people have already viewed these videos. For example, several videos (found by performing a simple search for "fire alarm") show how people react to fire alarms in differing situations.

The awareness and education of fire professionals in fire-related human behavior will continue to expand and improve with the continued efforts of researchers, educational professionals, SFPE and many others. This effort will also prove beneficial to the fire service and the public.

T. Steven Wright, P.E., is with Fisher Engineering, Inc.

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HISTORY OF FIRE PRO ENGINEE

EARLY HISTORY^{1,2}

SFPE defines “fire protection engineering” as the application of science and engineering principles to protect people and their environment from destructive fire. The earliest examples of fire protection engineering can be found in the various regulations that were established as a result of catastrophic historic conflagrations.

After Rome burned in 64 AD, Emperor Nero had regulations drawn up after the fire requiring fireproof materials be used for external walls in rebuilding the city. This was perhaps the first recorded example of using the science and engineering of the day in the practice of fire protection engineering.

After the collapse of the Roman Empire and the onset of the Dark Ages, it wasn't until the 17th century, during the Renaissance, that a technical approach to fire protection again emerged. After the Great London Fire of 1666, which destroyed over 80 percent of the city, London adopted its first building regulations requiring stone and brick houses with fire-resisting party wall separations. The London

TECTION RING

By Arthur E. Cote, P.E., FSFPE

fire also spurred interest in the development of fire-suppression equipment in the form of hand-pumper fire apparatus. The design of this equipment is another example of early fire protection engineering.

Throughout the Industrial Revolution in Great Britain in the 18th century and in the United States in the early 19th century, conflagrations continued but began to decline as combustible construction was replaced by masonry, concrete and steel; public fire departments were formed; public water supplies with underground water mains and fire hydrants were installed; and fire apparatus improved. During this same period, the focus of fire protection engineering shifted from addressing multiple building conflagrations to dealing with specific buildings and their contents. New industrial processes and material storage practices resulted in greater fire risks, and a number of spectacular building fires occurred during this period as engineering solutions were being developed to address the new fire hazards.

During the middle of the 19th century, a number of severe fires occurred in textile and paper mills in New

England. Caused by lint and paper debris, these fires spread so rapidly that they could not be controlled by traditional manual firefighting. The fire protection engineering solution was to install a system of manually operated perforated pipes at the ceiling, thereby creating one of the first fixed fire-suppression systems. The desire to make such a water extinguishing system automatic ultimately led to the development of one of the most important innovations in fire protection engineering – the automatic sprinkler. The first patent for an automatic sprinkler was awarded to Henry S. Parmelee in 1874. Frederick Grinnell further refined the sprinkler design in the early 1880s.

During the 19th century, many of the advancements in fire protection engineering were brought about by the influence of the insurance industry and the desire to minimize property insurance losses.

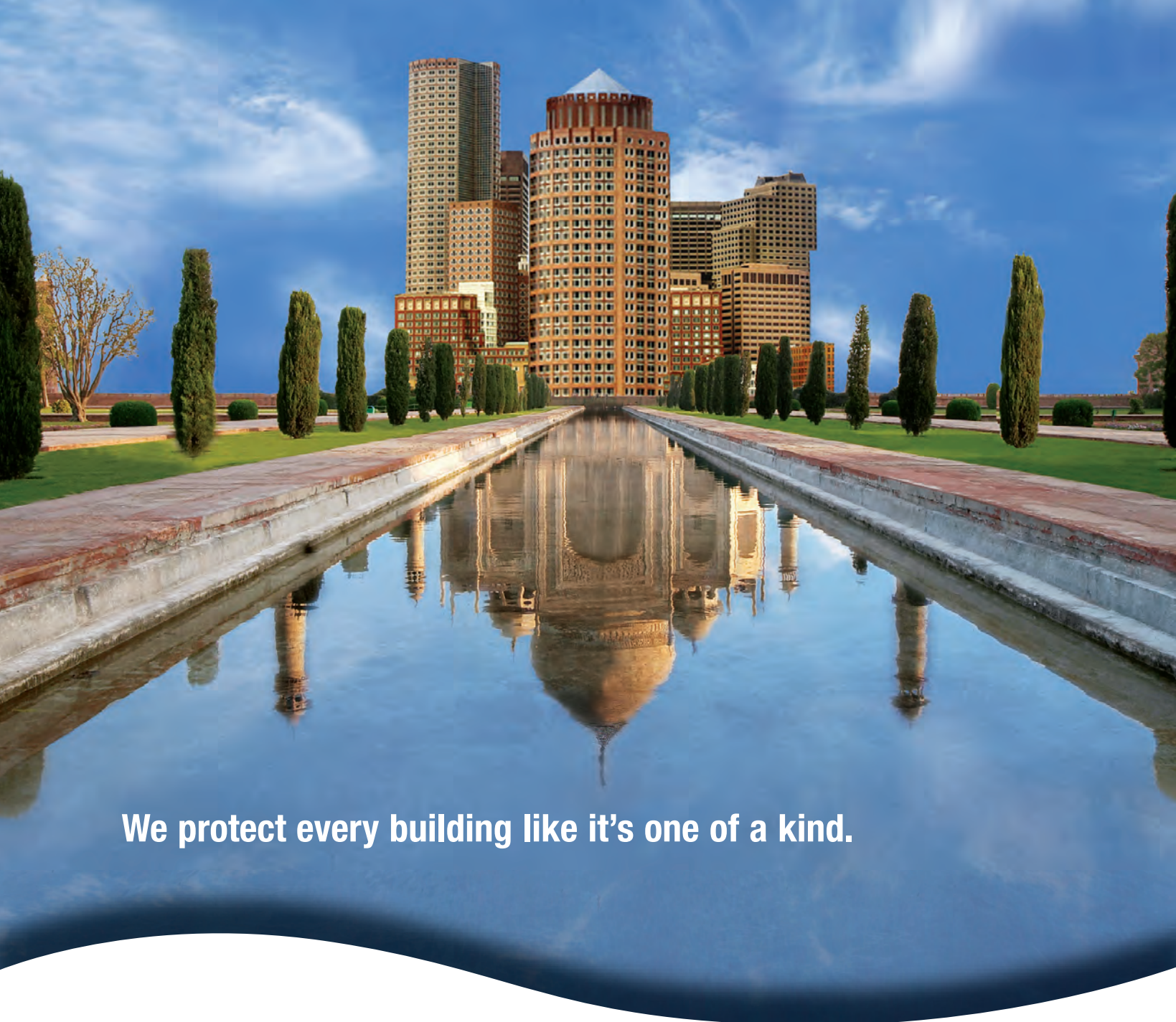
THE FOUNDING ORGANIZATIONS³

A handful of organizations were formed by the insurance industry in the U.S. that were responsible for

establishing the concept of fire protection engineering, putting it into practice and facilitating its growth and recognition as a profession. These were Factory Mutual in 1835, National Board of Fire Underwriters in 1866, Factory Insurance Association in 1890, Underwriters Laboratories in 1893 and the National Fire Protection Association in 1896. These were the founding organizations of fire protection engineering. They were founded in large measure to reduce the loss of life and property from destructive fire. In doing so, they applied the principles of science and engineering, and launched fire protection engineering.

Factory Mutual (FM)

Zachariah Allen, a prominent mill owner in Rhode Island in 1835, combined the concepts of mutual insurance and property protection to form Manufacturers Mutual Fire Insurance Company. This insurance company was based on the concept of insuring only factories that were good risks and that would ultimately pay less for insurance because there would likely be fewer and smaller losses.



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By utilizing proper fire prevention methods and regular fire inspections, the concept proved to be successful and the Factory Mutual (FM) system was born. In 1878, MIT engineer C.J.H. Woodbury was hired as an inspector for Boston Manufacturers Mutual, one of the FM insurance companies. This use of a graduate engineer as a fire inspector makes Woodbury one of the first (if not THE first) true fire protection engineers. The second MIT engineer to join Factory Mutual was John R. Freeman in 1886. He gathered around him a corps of engineers and began for the first time to put fire protection and prevention on a truly scientific basis.

A small laboratory was established to test fire protection equipment. This laboratory was the humble beginning of Factory Mutual's research efforts to support fire protection engineering.

With the development of the automatic sprinkler, Factory Mutual encouraged the installation of this new fire protection tool, and by 1901, most FM properties were protected by automatic sprinklers.

FM grew in influence and size to become one of the major insurers of highly protected risks (HPRs) worldwide, continuing the concept of using

fire protection engineering to achieve property loss prevention. FM also continued to expand its research activities to meet the needs of fire protection engineering, including continued expansion of its large-scale fire testing capability.

Factory Insurance Association (FIA)

In 1890, 11 stock insurance companies banded together to form the Factory Insurance Association (FIA) for the purpose of writing insurance on sprinklered risks in competition with Factory Mutual. FIA had the same basic premise as FM: Industrial properties could be profitably insured if losses are kept to a minimum by utilizing good fire protection practices, that is, good construction, full automatic sprinkler protection and frequent inspections by qualified individuals. FIA became a major insurer of HPR facilities.

In 1975, FIA merged with the Oil Insurance Association and became Industrial Risk Insurers (IRI), and continued to expand its loss prevention services as a major HPR insurer. Throughout its growth and expansion, loss prevention through engineering inspection remained the cornerstone of IRI. In 1998, IRI



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was purchased by GE and became GE Global Asset Protection Services (GAPS). In 2006, GAPS was acquired by Swiss Re, and in 2007, Swiss Re was purchased by XL Insurance based in London.

National Board of Fire Underwriters (NBFU)

A conflagration in Portland, ME, in 1866 prompted the establishment of the National Board of Fire Underwriters (NBFU). Initially formed to control fire insurance rates, NBFU, in response to a series of conflagrations in the U.S. from 1871 to 1889, became one of the major fire prevention organizations in the country. It was ultimately responsible for the development of the first model building code in the U.S., the National Building Code®, in 1905 and the first National Electrical Code in 1897.

In response to the Baltimore, MD, conflagration in 1904, NBFU created a municipal inspection system utilizing engineers to assess the ability of major cities and towns in the U.S. to prevent multiblock conflagrations. This evolved by 1916 into a system for grading cities and towns with reference to their fire defenses – the National Board Grading Schedule. The National Board survey engineers were also some of the early fire protection engineers.

From 1900 until 1965, the National Board of Fire Underwriters (NBFU) printed and distributed free of charge the standards developed by the National Fire Protection Association (NFPA). In 1965, NBFU became the American Insurance Association (later the American Insurance Services Group), ultimately phasing out its technical activities and its contributions to fire protection engineering.

Underwriters Laboratories (UL)

Insurance companies' concerns about the fire risk of the electrical wiring of 100,000 Edison incandescent light bulbs at the Palace of Electricity at the World's Columbian Exposition (World's Fair) of 1893 in Chicago resulted in the hiring of a young electrical engineer from Boston, William Henry Merrill, to ensure that the exhibition was safe. The success of this venture led Merrill, with the financial support of NBFU, to set up a laboratory to test the safety of electrical products which became Underwriters Laboratories. In 1901, the NBFU agreed to sponsor UL's work beyond electrical, and by 1903, UL had begun fire performance testing of wired glass windows and tin-clad fire doors.

Throughout the remainder of the 20th century, UL grew to become a major independent, not-for-profit testing organization in North America and a leader in advancing the science of fire protection engineering.

National Fire Protection Association (NFPA)

In 1896, in response to concerns about the reliability of automatic sprinkler systems due to a lack of standardization, a group of insurance company representatives formed the National Fire Protection Association (NFPA) to provide the science and improve the methods of fire protection and

An advertisement for the Soffi-Steel System. The top half features a man in a suit looking extremely distressed, with his hands on his head and a pained expression. The text "What are You Trying to Cover?" is overlaid in large, bold letters. Below this, there are UL and FM Approved logos. The bottom half of the ad contains a block of text describing the Soffi-Steel System as a solution for concealing exposed mechanicals. At the bottom, there is a small image of the Soffi-Steel product, the company logo "THE SOFFI-STEEL SYSTEM", and the website and phone number: www.soffisteel.com • 1-800-800-3213.

to circulate information on this subject. NFPA organized technical committees of experts to establish consensus on the design of fire protection systems and fire protection safeguards for various hazardous occupancies.

Throughout the 20th century, many of the advances in fire protection were brought about as a reaction to disastrous fires, and NFPA and its technical committees were instrumental in shaping the foundation of fire protection engineering. The rationale for fire protection engineering solutions was published in the *NFPA Fire Protection Handbook*.

Much of the knowledge base for fire protection engineering came from loss experience, the development of property loss prevention innovations and fire research conducted by these founding organizations.

TRAINING AND EDUCATION⁴

FM and FIA were the first insurance organizations to utilize engineers as inspectors of highly protected risks (HPRs). The need for loss-control engineers forced both FM and FIA to create training programs in which graduate engineers could be educated as fire protection engineers. Many practicing FPEs got their fire protection engineering education and experience through these training programs.

A formal degree program in fire protection engineering was first established in 1903, when several prominent fire insurance executives and UL founder William Merrill joined forces to propose the establishment of the first FPE program in the U.S. at Armour Institute of Technology in Chicago, IL. In 1940, Armour became the Illinois Institute of Technology (IIT).

The IIT program was discontinued in 1985, but during its 82-year history, it produced over 1,000 FPE graduates. In 1956, the fire protection engineering program at the University of Maryland was established under the direction of Dr. John L. Bryan, and in 1979, the first master of science program in fire protection engineering was begun at

Worcester Polytechnic Institute under the direction of David A. Lucht.

Over the years, a number of FPE degree programs have been established around the world, including programs in Canada, New Zealand, Sweden, Australia, Scotland, Hong Kong and Northern Ireland. Today, however, there are still fewer than a dozen FPE degree programs worldwide.

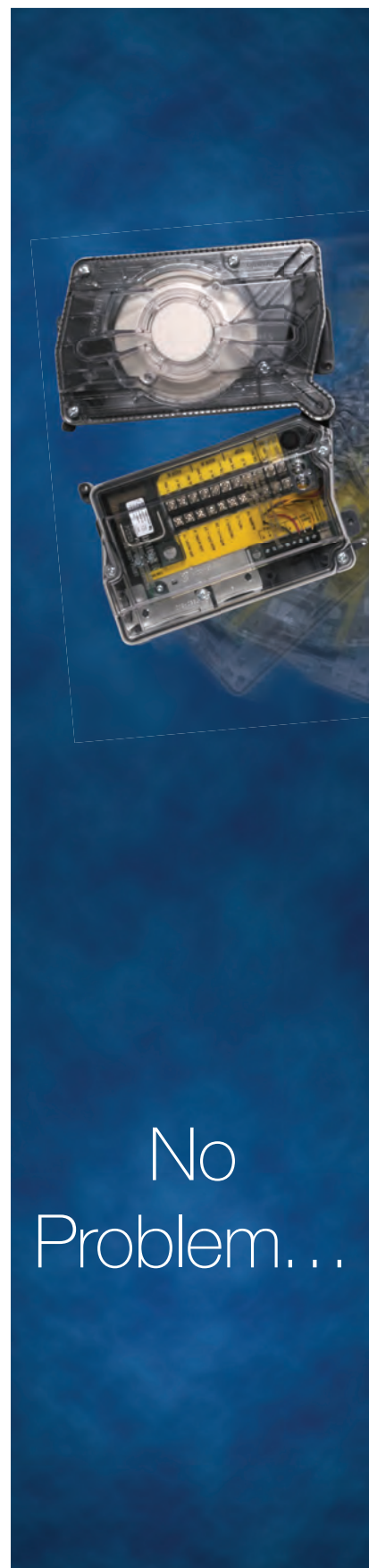
FIRST HALF OF THE 20TH CENTURY

During the first half of the 20th century, building and fire codes and standards became the primary means of applying fire protection engineering for life safety and property protection. Lessons learned from catastrophic fires were applied to revise codes and standards, and improve fire regulations.

During this period, the body of knowledge to support fire protection engineering continued to grow. Much of this knowledge was influenced by and borrowed from other professions, including civil and mechanical engineering, architecture, psychology, and electrical and electronic engineering. Knowledge specific to fire protection engineering also began to emerge. It is impossible to cover all of the advancements, but some of the key ones are detailed below.

The rapid development of tall iron- and steel-framed buildings coupled with the performance of some buildings during the Baltimore conflagration of 1904 led to a desire to quantify fire resistance. The initial effort in the U.S. was led by Ira Woolson of the Civil Engineering Dept. of Columbia University. He set forth for the first time the technical basis for predicting fire behavior in buildings, the time-temperature curve. Standardized fire test methods for building elements were subsequently developed and became ASTM and NFPA standards. Similar efforts with similar results were undertaken in Europe.⁵

In 1914, the U.S. Congress authorized funds for the National Bureau of Standards (NBS) to study fire resistance. Led by Simon Ingberg, significant advances were made in understanding



At the onset of the 21st century, computational methods for determining a quantitative evaluation of fire protection continue to improve.

the performance of building systems and elements when exposed to high-temperature fires. Fire resistance moved from detailed specification to a component-performance approach tied to the occupancy classification, and heights and area limitations established by building codes.⁵

The Iroquois Theater fire of 1903, which killed 602 people and was the deadliest fire in U.S. history until the World Trade Center terrorist attack, brought attention to the ignition and flame spread of curtains, drapery and scenery. A series of pass/fail tests were initially developed, and in 1922, Albert Steiner of UL developed a test method whereby the fire hazards of materials could be measured and classified with reference to the rate of spread of fire, the amount of fuel contributed to

the fire and the production of smoke. The Steiner Tunnel Test ultimately became both an ASTM and NFPA standard.⁶

The first efforts to study human decisions and the movement of people in a building as a result of fire came about primarily due to disastrous major loss-of-life fires, including the Iroquois Theater fire, the Triangle Shirtwaist fire of 1911 that killed 145 and the Coconut Grove fire of 1942 that killed 492. To prevent the recurrence of such tragedies, codes and standards were developed to address the number, location and availability of exits and their design, construction and interior finish materials. The NFPA Safety to Life Committee was formed in 1913, and NFPA's Building Exits Code (later named the *Life Safety Code*®) was one of the first codes to address these issues in 1927.⁷

SECOND HALF OF THE 20TH CENTURY

During the latter half of the 20th century, fire protection engineering as a unique engineering profession emerged. This emergence was primarily due to the development of a body of knowledge specific to fire protection engineering that occurred after 1950. The formation of a professional society, the beginnings of independent fire protection engineering consulting and the development of engineering guidelines for fire protection reinforced the profession.

Much of the body of knowledge supporting fire protection engineering was developed as a result of full-scale fire testing conducted to determine the appropriate fire protection needed to protect new industrial hazards and warehouse storage techniques. Some of the most important were tests on insulated metal deck roofs, palletized and other high-piled storage, heat and smoke vents, transformer protection, high-expansion foam, library book stacks, roll paper storage, rubber tire storage, high-rack storage and aerosol storage.

As a result of this testing, new sprinklers were developed with a wide variety of orifice sizes, thermal elements, special distribution patterns and operating pressure criteria. With the aid of the computer to analyze complex looped and gridded systems, hydraulic design of sprinkler systems virtually replaced pipe schedule systems. During this period, a number of new fixed fire protection systems were developed for use by fire protection engineers. These include halogenated fire extinguishing agents (halons) and later clean-agent halon alternatives, hi-ex foam and water mist. Smoke control systems were developed, and smoke detectors replaced heat detectors as the primary fire alarm system initiating device.

Although a professional society for fire protection engineers was originally proposed by NFPA Technical Secretary Robert Moulton in 1924, it wasn't until 1950 that the Society of Fire Protection Engineers (SFPE) was formed as a section of NFPA. SFPE's first chapter, the Chicago Chapter, was formed in 1953. In 1971, SFPE separated from NFPA and became an autonomous technical-professional society.⁸

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On Jan. 27, 1967, a fire in the Apollo 1 command module claimed the lives of three NASA astronauts during a routine launch pad test. This fire, which received worldwide attention, showed the lack of knowledge of NASA engineers of the hazards posed by the oxygen-rich environment of the module and pointed to the need for fire protection engineering expertise on the space project. As a result of this fire, fire protection engineers were hired as part of the NASA team.

Less than two weeks earlier, on Jan. 16, 1967, a fire at the McCormick Place exhibition hall in Chicago, IL, resulted in a multimillion-dollar loss during the National Housewares Manufacturers' Association show. The building, which was the largest exhibition hall in the U.S. at the time and was thought to be "fireproof," had been built in 1960 under a Chicago building code that allowed it to be not sprinklered on the basis of "limited combustibles" and the belief that the roof's structure was sufficiently high to be out of danger from collapse due to fire.

The unprotected steel truss roof 37 feet (11 meters) above the floor collapsed in less than 30 minutes. The blue ribbon panel appointed by Chicago Mayor Richard J. Daley to investigate the fire was chaired by then-IIT professor and head of the Fire Protection Engineering Department Rolf Jensen. Under the panel's direction, UL conducted a series of full-scale tests on simulated exhibit booths which showed the need for automatic sprinkler protection and established the fire-suppression criteria for exhibition halls throughout the world. These tests reinforced the need for full-scale fire research test data for fire protection engineering solutions. Two years later, Jensen formed his fire protection engineering consulting firm, Rolf Jensen and Associates (RJA).⁹

In February 1971, a fire occurred above the 30th floor of the office building at One New York Plaza in New York City. The difficulty encountered by the fire department in combating this fire highlighted growing concerns within the fire protection

engineering community for fire safety in modern high-rise office buildings.

As a result of this fire, the General Services Administration (GSA) convened an international conference to develop solutions to the fire problem in high-rise buildings. Harold "Bud" Nelson, then with GSA, was the conference organizer and coordinator. The conference, known as the Airlie House Conference, concluded that fire protection for high-rise buildings was not keeping pace with high-rise building design.

In addition to establishing the basic fire protection engineering design parameters for high-rise buildings, including the need for automatic sprinklers, the conference determined that there was a need for a total systems concepts approach for high-rise fire safety.¹⁰

Under Nelson's direction, GSA implemented many of the conference recommendations into the final design of the 32-story Seattle Federal Building, which became a model for high-rise fire protection design around the world. The Sears Tower in Chicago (at that time, the world's tallest building) was under construction, and Chet Schirmer, president of Schirmer Engineering, utilized the systems concept in developing its total fire protection and life safety design, which included full automatic sprinkler protection. The GSA design approach led to the formal development and use of event logic trees for risk assessment and formation of the NFPA committee on Systems Concepts for Fire Protection that developed the NFPA *Fire Safety Concepts Tree*.¹⁰

In the late 1970s, the state of California established an examination for a P.E. registration in fire protection engineering (FPE). In 1981, as a result of the efforts of SFPE, the National Council of Examiners for Engineering and Surveying (NCEES) made the FPE exam available on a national basis. Today, 46 states in the U.S. license FPEs.

The application of fire dynamics – the study of how materials ignite and burn, how heat is transferred in fires,



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how smoke moves in buildings and how fire grows from ignition to full-room involvement – emerged as the foundation for fire protection engineering solutions. The publishing in 1985 of *Introduction to Fire Dynamics* by Dougal Drysdale¹¹ as a textbook for FPEs helped to further define the profession.

The publication of the *SFPE Handbook of Fire Protection Engineering*¹² in 1988 was a major step toward broad distribution of the body of knowledge on fire protection engineering calculation methods.

In 2000, SFPE published the *SFPE Engineering Guide to Performance-Based Fire Protection*,¹³ which defined the overall process of performance-based fire protection engineering design.

ENTERING THE 21ST CENTURY

At the onset of the 21st century, computational methods for determining a quantitative evaluation of fire protection continue to improve. These include fire severity and fire resistance to determine structural fire protection requirements; fire properties of materials such as rates of heat release, fire spread, smoke developed and smoke movement; and egress flow, and sprinkler and detector response. These methods, coupled with the computational power of today's computers, have in turn resulted in the

development of more user-friendly fire models for use by the fire protection engineer.

As the knowledge base expands and the models improve, there continues to be greater worldwide acceptance of the performance-based design approach to fire protection engineering. The review of fire scenarios and design fires have now become major elements of fire protection engineering design.

Performance-based design is currently used primarily for unique structures that cannot be adequately protected utilizing the existing prescriptive building and fire codes, or to determine engineering alternatives to prescriptive code requirements. More universal use and acceptance of performance-based design will come about as consensus is established on the performance objectives required for particular occupancies and hazards, as well as the design fires and scenarios that must be considered by the fire protection engineer.

Arthur Cote, P.E., FSFPE, is with Prometheus Fire LLC.

[Author's note: The primary source of information for this article is Richardson, K. (Ed.) *History of Fire Protection Engineering*, National Fire Protection Association, Quincy, MA, 2003.]

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IMPACT of FIRES On the Built Environment Over the Past 10 Years

By Michael A. Crowley, P.E., FSFPE

During the last 10 years, the reduction in annual home fire deaths has slowed, and the impact of uncontrolled fire on the built environment has focused attention on solutions to the fire challenge. A select group of fires affected the built environment by shaping code writing and code enforcement. Fires in assembly spaces, high-rise office buildings, nursing homes and atrium buildings impacted the fire services, authorities having jurisdiction, code-writing organizations and the general public.

The United States fire loss records¹ indicate a decrease in the total number of fires from 3.2 million to approximately 1.6 million fires per year between 1977 and 2006. Civilian fire deaths in homes in the United

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States have also decreased substantially over the same 30-year period.

In 2006, 80 percent of the 2,580 civilian fire deaths occurred in a residential setting. The home fire death rate has fluctuated over the past 17 years, ranging between 2,580 and 3,720 deaths per year. The total number of structure fires was nearly equal between 1997 and 2006.

The question is, Why has the reduction in the number of structure fires and civilian deaths slowed in the past 10 years? Major fires have influenced the built environment in both new and existing construction. Although these fires did not uncover new fire challenges, they have focused attention on solutions to the fire challenge. Can these solutions greatly reduce the loss of life or number of fires?

Several fires have had particularly significant impact on building and fire codes.

STATION NIGHTCLUB

In February 2003, a fire at the Station Nightclub became the fourth-deadliest nightclub fire in U.S. history. The fire killed 100 people and injured more than 200 people.²



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Recommendations from the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) in the World Trade Center Report⁷ stressed the importance of adequate fireproofing, structural integrity in high-rise buildings and enhancements of existing methods of fire-resistive design in high-rises.

The fire started with the use of indoor pyrotechnics and quickly spread to soundproofing foam used as an interior finish. This nightclub facility was not provided with automatic sprinkler protection. Egress for the large occupant load from the facility was constrained due to the limited access to the exits. The egress actions of the crowd were recorded on tape and gave a clear depiction of the horrific events within the facility.

As a result of this fire, modifications were made to NFPA 101[®].³ Existing nightclubs with greater than 100 persons occupant load and all new nightclubs were required to be protected with automatic sprinklers throughout. These retroactive sprinkler requirements for existing assembly occupancies have been adopted by some local jurisdictions. The *International Building Code*[®] (IBC)⁴ was similarly revised to require automatic sprinkler protection for A-2 assembly occupancies (restaurants and nightclubs with more than 100 occupants).

Additional recommendations on indoor pyrotechnics and interior finish, proposed by National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST),⁵ have not been adopted. NIST recommended the prohibition of non-fire-retarded flexible polyurethane foam and other materials that ignite easily and propagate flames as rapidly as non-fire-retarded flexible polyurethane foam. NIST also recommended limits on indoor special pyrotechnics effects.

WINDSOR TOWER

In the winter of 2005, the 32-story office building located in downtown Madrid, under renovation at the time, caught fire on the 22nd floor.⁶ This building had a concrete core and a steel exterior frame.

Due to the inability of the fire department to access the fire, it burned out of control for hours, causing



the structural frame on the exterior to fail. Due to the extensive damage and the possibility of the upper floor collapse, the entire 32-story building was demolished after the fire.

This fire did not have any direct documented impact on Spanish or European Union codes and standards; however, it occurred during the debate as to the major cause of the collapse of World Trade Center Towers 1 and 2.

The Madrid fire emphasized the importance of passive fire-resistive protection of structural steel in buildings that depend upon internal firefighting responses. Recommendations from the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) in The World Trade Center Report⁷ stressed the importance of adequate fireproofing, structural integrity in high-rise buildings and enhancements of existing methods of fire-resistive design in high-rises. Recommendations were adopted in the 2007 IBC Supplement⁸ and will be incorporated into the 2009 edition of the IBC, which will require higher adhesive forces for fireproofing of buildings taller than 130 meters (420 feet).

NURSING HOMES

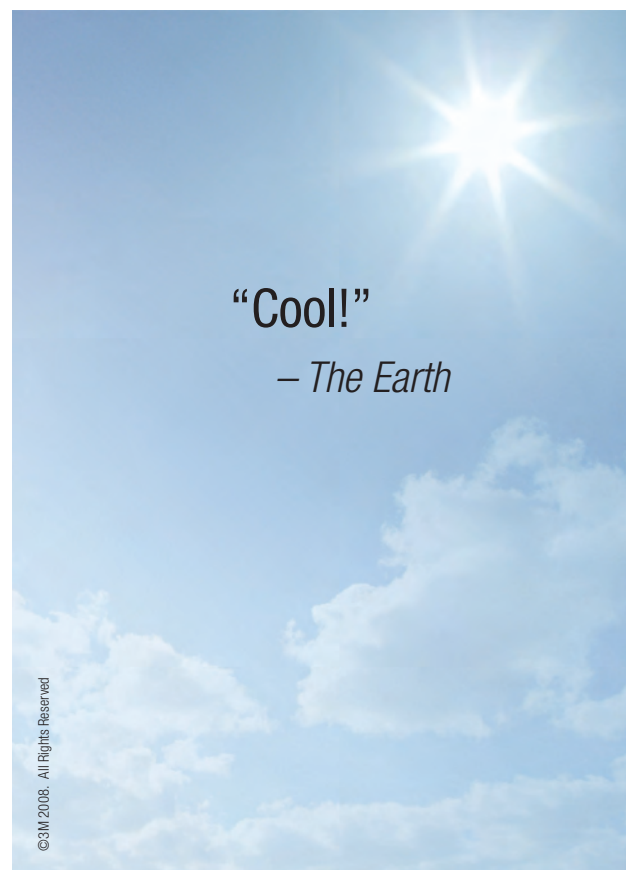
In 2003, there were two major nursing home fires that occurred in the U.S. The first, on February 26, 2003, in Hartford, CT, caused the deaths of 16 residents, all within the vicinity of the room where the fire broke out. Later in the year, on September 25, 2003, in Nashville, TN, there was a fire in a multistory nursing home that caused 15 deaths, 10 on the fire floor and five on floors located above the fire floor.

Both of these facilities had recent fire safety inspections, and in both cases, there was a timely response of the fire department. Both of these facilities were not sprinklered.

Due to the large loss of life in both fires, the Government

Accountability Office (GAO) conducted a survey of nursing home fire safety.⁹ The findings indicated there were a number of fire safety deficiencies that were missed or not cited in previous surveys. It also noted that the presence of automatic sprinklers would have greatly changed the outcome of these two fires.

The nursing home industry and the International Fire



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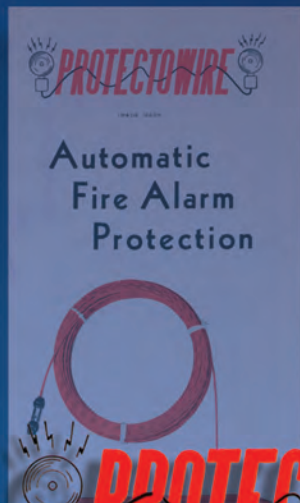
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Marsh's Association proposed changes to the NFPA 101 to require automatic sprinkler protection throughout all existing nursing homes. These changes became part of the 2006 edition of the *Life Safety Code*®.³ The requirement is retroactive, requiring all non-sprinklered, code-compliant facilities to provide automatic sprinkler protection.

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

On October 17, 2003, a fire happened at approximately 5:00 p.m. on a Friday afternoon at 69 West Washington, a 37-story high-rise building located in downtown Chicago, owned by Cook County.¹⁰ In this fire, the locked stairway doors were a major contributor to the loss of life.

The fire occurred on the 12th floor. In the confusion of the emergency, clear direction to the building tenants was not provided. The Chicago Fire Department staged in a stair tower to attack the fire on the 12th floor. As a result of their fire attack, the stairwell became filled with smoke.

The stair doors were locked to prevent re-entry from the stair side. People entering the stair could not escape the stair once the doors had closed. The six deaths in this fire were located within the stair enclosure.

There were many issues cited for the loss of life. The *International Building Code* and NFPA 101 have addressed the locking of stairways doors for more than 15 years. Corrections and modifications to the *Chicago*



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Building Code were adopted, addressing the stair locking arrangements. Recommendations for firefighter response in high-rise facilities were also presented.

There was an ordinance presented to the Chicago City Council for the retroactive sprinklering of all high-rise buildings, with an alternative to retrofitting sprinklers in residential and landmark structures included in the ordinance. The alternative was based on an engineered approach which assigns numeric values to the various systems within the building, much like NFPA 101A, the *Guide on Alternative Approaches to Life Safety*.¹¹

This ordinance to retroactively require sprinklers in high-rise buildings was slowly working its way through the Chicago City Council process, when on December 13, 2004, there was a fire on the upper floors of the LaSalle Bank Building in downtown Chicago.

While this fire did not cause any loss of life, it did focus the attention of the City of Chicago on the hazards of existing high-rise commercial buildings relative to fire.¹² On December 15, 2004, the City of Chicago Council voted to enact an ordinance to require sprinkler protection for high-rise commercial buildings constructed before 1975. These buildings would be required to be sprinklered in stages, with the entire building protected by sprinklers by 2017. The ordinance also affects high-rise residential and landmark buildings throughout the Chicago area.

HOUSTON, TEXAS

Retroactive automatic sprinkler requirements in nursing homes and high-rises have been adopted by nationally recognized codes and have also been incorporated into the local requirements. The City of Houston has adopted a retroactive high-rise sprinkler ordinance very similar to the Chicago ordinance.

The driving force for this retroactive requirement was a local fire in a high-rise that caused the death of an occupant and a firefighter. In addition, the City of Houston has also adopted a retroactive sprinkler ordinance for mid-rise buildings up to six stories in height with atria. During the course of code development in the City of Houston, there was a point in time (before 1980) when low- to mid-rise atrium buildings did not require automatic sprinkler protection. The major impetus for the retroactive ordinance was the death of three people in a nonsprinklered six-story atrium-type building.¹³ The ordinance allows for an engineered solution.

The above-listed fires and losses were not the only incidents affecting the current codes. As a result of the NIST World Trade Center investigation and recommendation reports, NFPA 101³ requires wider stairs serving high-rise buildings or buildings with more than 2,000 people using the exiting system. This change reflects comments gathered during the preparation of the World Trade Center report identifying a need for two-directional flow for responders in the up direction and occupants exiting in the down direction.



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The ICC's Task Force for Terrorism-Resistant Buildings was successful in passing a code change requiring a third stair in super-tall high-rises, i.e., those taller than 130 meters (420 feet). The cited reason for the third stair is to permit firefighters to use a stair without impacting egress. Attempts to

The ICC's Task Force for Terrorism-Resistant Buildings was successful in passing a code change requiring a third stair in super-tall high-rises, i.e., those taller than 130 meters (420 feet). The cited reason for the third stair is to permit firefighters to use a stair without impacting egress.

overturn this code were unsuccessful; therefore, this requirement for a third stair will be part of the 2009 IBC.

These fires focused the public's perception of fire and its effects on these types of occupancies. Coupled with this focus was a presentation of acceptable solutions. These solutions were proposed while the public memory of the fire-related life losses was still keen and painful.

Because of this public focus, there was action in the development of code and ordinance changes to address the fire safety issues. It appears that local ordinances are much more responsive to a specific fire in their jurisdiction. The model codes in the United States have responded to these issues more slowly. There are still reservations in many areas of the country to require retroactive sprinkler systems to address some of the unique fire challenges in special occupancies such as assembly spaces, nursinghomes and high-rise buildings. The information regarding retroactive automatic sprinkler protection is readily available, the debate is usually lively, and the results will depend upon the public's perception of the hazard.

Michael A. Crowley, P.E., FSFPE, is with Rolf Jensen & Associates.

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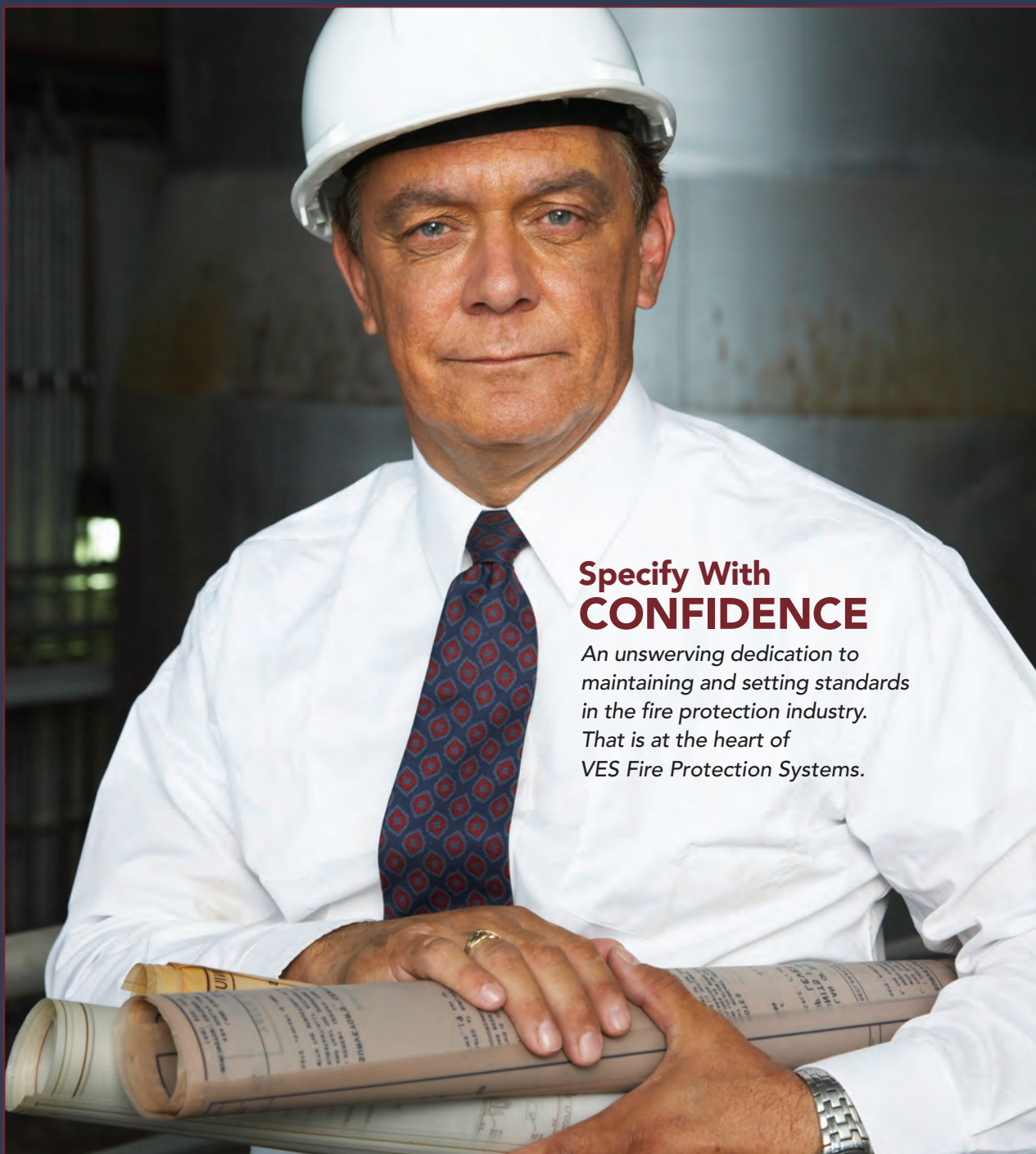
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Retirement

Is There Life After Fire Engineering?

By Peter Johnson, FSFPE

Many in the fire protection community were born after the Second World War and are now in their 50s and 60s. Some are contemplating retirement. These "Baby Boomers" have lived through periods of prosperity and economic

growth. But many are now entering a post-work environment that poses significant challenges, from the recent sub-prime mortgage crisis, to rising oil prices, climate change and perhaps political changes.

However, retirement does not have to mean a life devoid of interest and excitement. Far from it! With

a little planning and a willingness to explore all options, the transition to the next phase of life can bring new challenges and opportunities.

For someone preparing to make the move to full retirement or simply scaling back to part-time work, there are several factors to consider, including:

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- There is a world-wide skills shortage, especially in engineering, project management, skilled trades and related professions. There is also a shortage of senior leaders and managers. Many firms are encouraging employees to stay on and retire later, and in some countries, governments are making it more difficult to retire early.
- Financial or family obligations may require some people to continue earning, including supporting children and grandchildren.
- Advice from aging specialists suggests that the 60s are an important time. It is a period when people have the energy and mobility to travel and engage in more energetic pursuits (e.g., golf, tennis) that may become challenging later on. The message seems to be, "If you can, don't leave it too late to retire!"

Smart companies and governments recognize these trends and influences, as well as the need to manage the expectations of younger Gen-X and Gen-Y staff, to maximize corporate performance.

So what are the options to consider when approaching retirement?

SCALING BACK – SEMI-RETIREMENT

With many enlightened companies, it is possible or even encouraged to work out a transition to retirement through part-time employment. This may involve fewer hours, fewer days or a tailored flexible arrangement.

This benefits the employer because it retains the wisdom and knowledge of a highly experienced individual to work with clients, review key projects, mentor younger staff or take specialist roles removed from line management. It also allows individuals to get involved in leisure pursuits and other activities they see as priorities for retirement. These could be travel, golf, gardening, painting lessons, home maintenance, minding grandchildren or many other business, family or community activities.

BUSINESS HANDOVER

Individuals who own and manage companies, either alone or in partnership, can find it difficult to extricate themselves from the business and still get the financial rewards for their business endeavors. A succession and exit plan is required, as it is for senior leaders and managers in large companies.

This type of transition requires long-term planning and appropriate professional advice.

It is often possible to ease out of a business arrangement slowly, provided the other parties are willing

and can see the value brought to the business in a reduced role.

In the fire protection area, the importance of the work to the community means that fire safety professionals will usually want to see the business handed over to others with an equal passion for saving lives and property.

FINANCIAL ADVICE

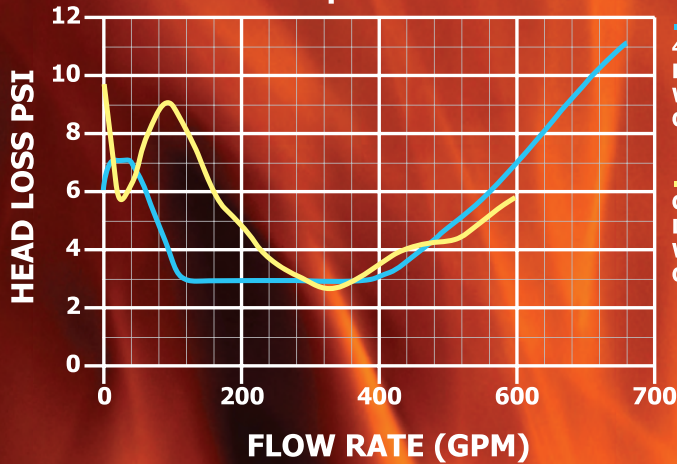
One of the most important aspects of planning for retirement is to have sufficient financial capacity to support oneself and one's family. This can be a complex area and varies tremendously from person to person and from country to country. For those who have worked in a number of different countries throughout an international career, it can be even more complex.

A number of companies and governments have generous pension schemes and social support programs, with tax incentives to encourage saving for retirement. Other countries and firms have less generous arrangements, and financial preparation for retirement can be more problematic.

Healthcare coverage is also an important consideration, given the

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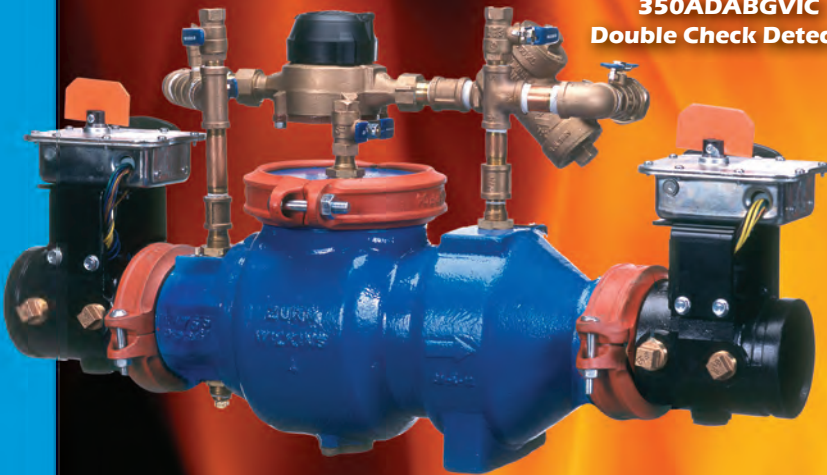


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likelihood of the need for more medical services in later life.

The best advice here is to seek independent advice from professional, reputable financial planners and legal practitioners. It may be too late if one waits until the day they retire to seek advice! Too often, people rely on friends or colleagues, or on financial practitioners with vested and undisclosed interests, only to find that their retirement savings have been lost through incompetence or unscrupulous dealings.

In fire protection, the cheapest design solutions can have great risks and unfortunate consequences. So it is with finance and investments, where seemingly attractive investments can have very high risks, particularly during tough economic periods. The best approach is to read the small print and seek sound professional advice. And if an investment looks too good to be true, then it probably is!

VOLUNTEERISM

It is a sad fact that as working hours increase, people have less

For many people,
retirement or
semi-retirement
offers the
opportunity
for further study
and learning.

time and energy for volunteering. As a result, many professional associations, charities and community organizations, such as volunteer fire departments, are struggling to serve the communities as effectively as they did in the past.

This represents a real opportunity for people in the fire protection profession who have a strong commitment to helping their communities. Opportunities include:

- Volunteering for a local fire department, even if not in an operational role. This could involve fundraising, training or education.

- Getting involved in the local SFPE Chapter through committee membership or other organizational positions.
- Participating in a wide range of charities and philanthropic organizations that provide support for individuals and community groups, particularly those that provide for the less fortunate.
- Re-establishing links with school or college alumni societies to help with academic or research programs, and encouraging and mentoring students with potential to enter the fire protection profession.

FURTHER STUDY

For many people, retirement or semi-retirement offers the opportunity for further study and learning. This may be academic or nonacademic. Some people use this period to take academic classes in new fields, often through distance learning.

Others see opportunities to learn new languages or to gain skills in arts and crafts, gardening, sports, music and other areas through local colleges or community groups.

FAMILY TIME

Retirement often means more time for family and friends. This is especially true for people who have spent much of their professional life on the road. Time spent with family can be a great opportunity to pass on learning to the next generation, be it with your grandchildren or children at the local school or community group. This is a great chance to educate young family members and others about fire safety and what a great career fire protection offers.

Peter Johnson, FSFPE, is with Arup Fire.



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12 sprs	12 sprs	12 sprs	2000 sq. ft.	15 sprs (1500 sq. ft.)	7 sprs (min. of 1200 sq. ft.)
1200+ gpm	1200+ gpm	1200+ gpm-UL 1352+ gpm-FM	1600+ gpm	1200+ gpm	Sys. demand 966+ gpm
250 gpm HS	250 gpm HS	250 gpm HS	500 gpm HS	500 gpm HS	250 gpm HS

Building Height: 35' Storage Height: 30' Coverage: up to 144 sq ft (12'x12')

K-14.0 ESFR	K-16.8 ESFR	K-25.2 ESFR	N252 EC
100 sq. ft.	100 sq. ft.	100 sq. ft.	144 sq. ft.
75 psi	52 psi	20 psi-UL 30 psi-FM	40 psi
12 sprs	12 sprs	12 sprs	9 sprs (min. of 1200 sq. ft.)
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Survivable Design and Installation

of Signaling Systems for Disaster Management: Part 2

The first article in this series introduced the concepts of circuit and system survivability as currently required by NFPA 72®, *National Fire Alarm Code*®. This second and final installment details and compares specific code-mandated circuit and equipment survivability requirements, and looks beyond prescriptive requirements using the concept of mission survivability.

The 2007 edition of NFPA 72¹ only addresses survivability with respect to fire as a hazard and only for systems used for partial evacuation or relocation. Other hazards such as bombs, radiation, chemical exposure and severe weather are not addressed. Security issues such as cable access and secure



radio communications are not addressed. Also, any system that is intended to be used for some amount of time during a disaster or emergency may need to be designed for survivability, not only those used for partial evacuation or relocation.

Where the code requires a circuit to be survivable (see Part 1), the following menu is listed under 6.9.10.4.2 and 6.9.10.4.3. NFPA 72 permits any of the following options:¹

1. A 2-hour fire-rated circuit integrity (CI) cable;
2. A 2-hour fire-rated cable system (electrical circuit protective system);
3. A 2-hour fire-rated enclosure;
4. Performance-based alternatives approved by the authority having jurisdiction; and
5. Buildings fully protected by an automatic sprinkler system installed in accordance with NFPA 13, *Standard for the Installation of Sprinkler Systems*, and with the interconnecting wiring or cables used for the operation of notification appliances installed in metal raceways and in accordance with Article 760 of NFPA 70®, *National Electric Code*®.

Options 3, 4 and 5 are self-explanatory. Circuit integrity cable (CI, option 1) is a cable that has been tested for both fire exposure and hose stream (fog nozzle) impact following the fire exposure. An electrical circuit protective system (option 2) is a complete system consisting of either cable or fire-resistive cable combined with a protective system such as a fire-rated wrap.² Although CI cable might seem to be a simpler solution compared to an electrical circuit protective system, both have many details that make their manufacture, design and installation far more complex than regular wiring methods.

For example, CI cable works, in part, when the insulation heated by the fire ceramifies, changing from a flexible material to a hard, nonconductive ceramic material. Obviously, if the insulation is cut during installation, a point of failure has been created. Therefore, CI cable cannot be spliced in an area where the code requires 2-hour rated performance. CI cable must be installed in a continuous, unspliced length through the fire zone. Also, CI cable cannot be installed in conduit unless it is specifically listed to be installed in conduit – and not all CI cable has that listing.

In addition to special fire-rated wraps used to create a 2-hour fire-rated cable system (electrical circuit protective system), another system is called CIC – Circuit Integrity Conduit. This system consists of a fire-rated cable that must be installed in conduit and has been tested as an assembly to achieve the required 2-hour (or other time period) rating. CIC cable should not be confused with CI cable that may also be listed to be installed in conduit.

In addition to having to select one of the protection/survivability options, designers and installers must still choose the proper type of cable when using one of the cable options (1 or 2). For example, power-limited circuits (defined by NEC Article 760)³ can include a type FPL cable while non-power-limited circuits would require a type NFPL cable. Also, if the cable were being installed vertically from one fire area to another fire area, the cable would need a riser rating – FPLR or NFPLR. If the cable were being installed in another space for environmental air (as defined in the NEC³), the cable would need a plenum rating – FPLP or NFPLP. Interestingly, if the circuit were non-power-limited (as

NFPA 72 has some minimum provisions for survivability, and a future edition may have more; a proper survivable design and installation requires careful planning and may require features beyond the minimum code requirements.

many voice circuits would be), plenum-rated cable (NPLP) cannot be installed in ducts and plenums as defined in the NEC. However, a power-limited circuit, such as most signaling line circuits (SLC) or initiating device circuit (IDC), could be installed in certain ducts and plenums using FPLP cable.

For example, if a power-limited SLC is used to communicate between the main fire or emergency control unit and a remote set of amplifiers that provide voice notification appliance circuits (NAC) for the upper floors of a high-rise building, the circuits would require one of the five survivability options listed in 6.9.10.4.2 for protection of the circuit. If option 1 was selected, the cable from the panel to the remote amplifiers would have to be a CI-FPLR-type cable. The cable would not be permitted to be installed in conduit unless it was also listed for conduit installation. If the cable were not listed for installation in conduit, it would still need some form of mechanical protection when within seven feet (two meters) of the floor on each level between the control unit and the remote amplifiers. Alternately, a CIC-FPLR system could be used (option 2). As the riser circuit passes through the floors from one fire area to the next, the penetrations must be properly sealed.

Option 5 permits the use of non-CI-type cables or wire installed in metal raceway when the building is fully sprinklered in accordance with NFPA 13. Designers should seriously evaluate this option with respect the system performance goals and expected hazards. For example, certain spaces above suspended ceilings or in wall cavities would not require sprinklers. Installing circuits in these spaces may create the risk of a failure mode that would impact the system's mission.

Presently, each option listed in Sections 6.9.10.4.2 and 6.9.10.4.3 of the 2007 edition is treated as an acceptable alternative. However, the technical committee is considering creating a hierarchical list of survivability options. (See the sidebar on page 58.) The options would permit designers and other codes or parts of NFPA 72 itself to specify different levels of survivability for different hazards, conditions, occupancies or use groups.

Part 1 of this series also noted that the equipment must be listed to have certain survivable performance features when one its circuits is attacked by fire. There are other requirements in the code that also impact system survivability. For example, Section 4.4.5 requires smoke detection at the control unit unless the space is continuously occupied or unless the environment is not suitable for smoke detectors. This is to provide an indication that the control unit may be under attack by fire. Knowing that the control is being attacked could be important, but does not necessarily contribute to the survivability of the system for the particular mission.⁴ Designers must consider possible common-mode failures, such as the failure of a control unit, and decide if additional protection of some sort should be provided to reduce the risk or if redundant controls should be considered to eliminate the common-mode failure. Section 4.4.5 permits the elimination of the smoke detection in fully sprinklered buildings. Designers should consider whether a control unit might be disabled before sprinkler operation or even by the operation of a sprinkler before the system's mission is completed.

So far, this article has focused on fire as the hazard. When designing emergency communication systems for use during disasters or emergencies other than fires, the progression and impact of those hazards must be considered. For some systems, physical and electronic security are important to ensure that unauthorized persons cannot disable the system or use it as part of their attack plan. On a military base, a wide area communication system might have to remain operational even after part of it has been destroyed by a bombing. The system might have to isolate, heal or protect itself for any combination of electrical shorts, opens, grounds and even for power crossovers. A system might require multiple, secure control locations so that it remains usable even when one control location has been commandeered or if it has been attacked or rendered unusable by a chemical or radiation release.

While the current edition of NFPA 72 has some minimum provisions for survivability and a future edition may have more, a proper survivable design and installation requires careful planning and may require features beyond the minimum code requirements. Engineers should analyze and document their designs with a thorough Threat Analysis and with detailed Failure Modes and Effects Analyses (FMEA) and Fault Trees analyses.

References:

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Possible Survivability Options Proposed for the 2010 Edition of NFPA 72®⁵

Pathway Survivability Level 0. In Pathway Survivability Level 0, pathways shall comply with the requirements of NFPA 70® Articles 760, 770 or 800.

Pathway Survivability Level 1. In Pathway Survivability Level 1, pathways in buildings shall be fully protected by an automatic sprinkler system in accordance with NFPA 13, *Standard for the Installation of Sprinkler Systems*, and with the interconnecting wiring or cables installed in metal raceways.

Pathway Survivability Level 2. Pathway Survivability Level 2 shall consist of the following:

1. 2-hour fire-rated circuit integrity (CI) cable;
2. 2-hour fire-rated cable system [electrical circuit protective system(s)];
3. 2-hour fire-rated enclosure or protected area; and
4. 2-hour performance alternatives approved by the authority having jurisdiction.

Pathway Survivability Level 3. Pathway Survivability Level 3 shall consist of one of the following:

1. Pathways in buildings fully protected an automatic sprinkler system in accordance with NFPA 13, *Standard for the Installation of Sprinkler Systems*, and 2-hour fire-rated circuit integrity (CI) cable;
2. Pathways in buildings fully protected an automatic sprinkler system in accordance with NFPA 13, *Standard for the Installation of Sprinkler Systems*, and 2-hour fire-rated cable system [electrical circuit protective system(s)];
3. Pathways in buildings fully protected an automatic sprinkler system in accordance with NFPA 13, *Standard for the Installation of Sprinkler Systems*, and 2-hour fire-rated enclosure or protected area; and
4. Pathways in buildings fully protected an automatic sprinkler system in accordance with NFPA 13, *Standard for the Installation of Sprinkler Systems*, and 2-hour performance alternatives approved by the authority having jurisdiction.

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www.ansulinfo.com/fpe8



tyco

UPCOMING EVENTS

November 2-3, 2008

2008 International Symposium on Elevator Evacuation During High-Rise Fires
Shanghai, China
Info: www.isee-sh.org

November 10-11, 2008

Hazards of Combustion Products: Toxicity, Opacity, Corrosivity and Heat Release
London, England
Info: www.intercomm.dial.pipex.com/html/events/tox08z.htm

March 18-19, 2009

Fire Safety International Conference
Melbourne, Australia
Info: www.sfs.au.com/

July 13-15, 2009

4th International Symposium – Fire Safety – Putting People First
Cambridge, England
Info: www.intercomm.dial.pipex.com/html/events/hb09a.htm

BRAINTEASER >

Problem / Solution

Problem

Create fire-related anagrams for “FIRE PROTECTION,” and send them to engineering@sfpe.org. We will publish each anagram submitted in the next issue, and acknowledge each person who is the first to submit a unique anagram.

Thanks to Jane Lataille for submitting this issue’s brainteaser.

Solution to Last Issue’s Brainteaser

Bob has two resistors, but their resistances are not marked on them. When they are placed in series, the resistance is 143 kΩ. When they are aligned in a parallel circuit, the resistance is 30 kΩ. What is the resistance of the two resistors?

When two resistors are placed in a series circuit, the resistance of the circuit is the sum of the resistances. Therefore:

$$R_1 + R_2 = 143 \text{ k}\Omega$$

The total resistance of a circuit of resistors in parallel is found by adding up the reciprocals of the resistance values, and then taking the reciprocal of the total:

$$\frac{1}{\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2}} = 30 \text{ k}\Omega$$

Rearranging the first equation and substituting into the second yields

$$\frac{1}{143 \text{ k}\Omega - R_2} + \frac{1}{R_2} = \frac{1}{30 \text{ k}\Omega}$$

This can be rewritten as

$$R_2^2 - 143 \text{ k}\Omega R_2 + 143 \text{ k}\Omega \times 30 \text{ k}\Omega = 0$$

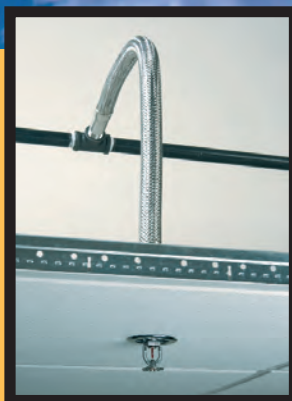
Solving provides the resistances of the two resistors – 100 kΩ and 43 kΩ.

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SFPE CORPORATE 100 PROGRAM

The SFPE Corporate 100 Program was founded in 1976 to provide a vehicle for business organizations to support the mission of SFPE. That early mission has evolved today to "advancing the science and practice of fire protection engineering internationally."

With the financial support of the SFPE Corporate 100 Program and the dedication of both volunteers and staff, SFPE has made great strides in defining and improving the practice of fire protection engineering. SFPE has:

- Established and continues to maintain the state licensing examination for fire protection engineers;
- Issued three editions of the *Handbook of Fire Protection Engineering*;
- Developed *Fire Protection Engineering* magazine, *SFPE Journal*, the SFPE Engineering Guide series; and
- Provided a comprehensive continuing education program for members and allied professionals.

The current members of the SFPE Corporate 100 Program are diverse in their enterprise but share the common vision of the importance of fire protection engineering to the health, safety and common well-being of society. Membership is not restricted or exclusive but is open to all organizations who wish to support the goals of SFPE. Members include engineering consulting firms, equipment manufacturers, industry associations, insurance companies and other organizations valuing the accomplishments of SFPE.

The Benefits

Recognition

- Through prominent placement on the SFPE Web site with mutual Web linkage.
- Through new member announcements in SFPE's newsletter and in releases sent to the SFPE press.
- In every issue of SFPE's widely read magazine – *Fire Protection Engineering*.
- At the Annual SFPE Awards and Honors Banquet, at the annual SFPE chapter breakfast and SFPE exhibit booth displays at major industry shows.
- Through use of the SFPE Corporate 100 Member logo.
- Through the public receipt of an SFPE Corporate 100 plaque demonstrating support to the fire protection profession.

Information and Referrals

- Free library copies of SFPE publications.
- Annual access to the SFPE chapter Presidents' contact information.
- Listing on the referral and recruitment portions of the SFPE Web site.
- Referrals from phone inquiries to SFPE.

Leadership

- Through periodic leadership summits on issues of concern to the industry.

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As the United State's tenth largest non-profit regional blood center, the Oklahoma Blood Institute's (OBI) operations are comprised of 15 campus-style locations of laboratories, donor centers and a main headquarters, spread throughout Oklahoma.

"It's not a campus in the true sense. There are a number of different locations and each could be considered a campus unto itself," said Rodney Stamps, CEO of STAMPSCO, a local distributor of Gamewell-FCI fire alarm products.

The OBI facilities required an innovative fire alarm solution with remote monitoring and easy expansion capabilities. "We wanted a system that satisfied our needs for voice evacuation and mass notification. Ease of use was another requirement and we wanted all locations to be networked," says Jerry Martinez, Safety Officer for OBI.

Taking into account OBI's future growth and technology needs, STAMPSCO went with Gamewell-FCI's E3 Series® line of emergency evacuation products. Its distributed communication control with Style 7 wiring, makes the E3 Series a more "survivable system".

The system's broadband technology also has the bandwidth to enable split-second performance with no delays while delivering clear, intelligible communications.

Only two-pair of copper wires or fiber-optic cables are required for networking of a complete E3 Series system of panels and nodes. This exclusive feature reduced costs and minimized the impact of wiring on OBI's retrofit areas.

For remote monitoring, a FocalPoint® graphic workstation, manufactured by Gamewell-FCI, was installed. Configured with site-specific graphics, this desktop PC provides information on the whole fire alarm network. Its intuitive interface allows users to easily monitor remote site activity and a history log of events, plus link to multimedia files (text, audio, video, and bitmaps).

Future plans call for a "FocalPoint Mobile" wireless tablet PC that works in tandem with FocalPoint desktop stations. FocalPoint Mobile allows facility managers, security personnel and emergency responders to quickly evaluate emergency incidents while on the go.

"With the success of the installations, we feel confident that we're providing OBI with the highest level of quality and protection available," said Stamps.

GRICE ENGINEERING

Grice Engineering, Inc. Provides Custom Engineered Solutions at Chicago O'Hare International Airport



The Soffi-Steel® System,
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Janesville, WI 53546
800.800.3213
www.soffisteel.com

The elaborate reconstruction and infrastructure improvements at Chicago O'Hare International Airport have been a multistage process. Upon considering the life and fire safety needs existing in Terminal 2, several unique challenges quickly became apparent.

Original design of the fire sprinkler system retrofit entailed a complicated gridlock of piping and strategically placed sprinkler heads. While this plan was well thought out, designers soon agreed that a more simplistic sprinkler system layout would be equally adequate.

Great Lakes Plumbing & Heating Co. of Chicago, IL, was selected to provide installation of the wet system, Schedule 40 sprinkler pipe. They quickly realized that proper activation and aesthetic appeal could create future issues. A dually effective solution soon materialized.

The staff of Great Lakes Plumbing & Heating Co. had previously dealt with similar concerns and achieved successful project completion with the **Soffi-Steel® System** offered by Grice Engineering, Inc.

When Jack Grice, P.E., President of Grice Engineering, Inc., first spoke with Brian Conway of Great Lakes Heating & Plumbing Co., innovation and flexibility took precedence. Several more conversations and job site visits ensued prior to configuring a uniquely customized Soffi-Steel® System.

The Soffi-Steel® System provided was tailored to adapt to the heat collection needs as posed by the sprinkler system layout. The modifications made to the Soffi-Steel® System insured the sprinkler systems would be properly triggered in the instance a fire occurred.

The flexibility and adaptability of the Soffi-Steel® System supplied an uncomplicated installation and exceeded the expectations of the Airline Parties Construction Representative working with Carl Barone, Project Manager for Great Lakes. According to Barone, "Our clients have been impressed; and it's (the Soffi-Steel® System) been simple to install."

Although the reconfigurations to Terminal 2 have been challenging, Grice Engineering, Inc. supplied a 'first-class' solution that contributed to the fire and life safety measures O'Hare International Airport affords to the millions of passengers traveling yearly.

SIMPLEXGRINNELL

SimplexGrinnell Introduces New Technologies to Streamline the Fire Alarm System Commissioning Process



SimplexGrinnell is taking a step forward in fire alarm system commissioning with the introduction of two new products – a diagnostic instrument that can provide early identification of potential problems and a software advancement to make required system inspection simpler and more accurate.

"Based on voice-of-the-customer

feedback from contractors, engineers, building owners, local fire officials and technicians, SimplexGrinnell is offering the life-safety industry important new tools and technologies that can simplify the commissioning of fire alarm systems

SimplexGrinnell LP

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and support the timely issuance of occupancy permits," says Dave Baer, vice president of Marketing.

Simplex® TrueSTART™ Analysis and Testing Instrument

The new Simplex TrueSTART (System Technical Analysis and Readiness Testing) instrument is a portable, hand-held diagnostic tool that can simplify and expedite the commissioning process for Simplex fire alarm systems. The TrueSTART instrument enables contractors or technicians to quickly verify that wiring and peripheral devices are installed correctly and operating properly – even before the system wiring is connected to the fire alarm control panel. Battery-operated and simple to use, the TrueSTART instrument uses advanced software technology to scan hundreds of addressable fire alarm system devices and pinpoint potential problems, such as ground faults, shorted wiring, or incorrect or duplicate addressing.

Simplex® 4100U Fire Alarm System Inspection and Testing Software

With an important software enhancement to its flagship Simplex 4100U fire alarm system, SimplexGrinnell offers a new way to streamline the inspection and testing process – and help ensure that the report is complete and accurate. The new technology enables a Simplex 4100U system programmer to create a downloadable report that mirrors the Inspection and Testing Form prescribed in NFPA 72®. What's more, the report is prepopulated with a listing of all system devices – and their specific address and building location.

For more information, visit www.simplexgrinnell.com or call 800.746.7539 in the U.S. or 800.565.5400 in Canada.

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1

New Residential Sprinklers

Globe Fire Sprinkler Corp. announces its new Model GL5610, 155°F, 5.6 "K" factor residential sprinkler in both pendent and 1/2-in. adjustable recessed-pendent style. When used in NFPA 13 systems, the GL5610 can obtain a 0.1 design density at low pressures. It is UL- and CUL-listed for room sizes ranging from 12 x 12-ft. to 18 x 18-ft. Available in factory bronze, chrome, white or black polyester, and other finishes.

www.globesprinkler.com

—Globe Fire Sprinkler Corp.

3

Plug-In Transformer Protection

The new HPTCOVER protective enclosure for AC plug-in transformers helps security installers avoid accidental system shut-downs. It mounts over any duplex wall receptacle and can be screwed shut to ensure the transformer remains securely affixed to the outlet. Designed with easy installation in mind, the HPTCOVER features three half-inch conduit knockouts in the bottom and back, which allow the low-voltage wire to exit easily to the alarm panel.

www.honeywellpower.com

—Honeywell Power Products

2

Silicone Sealant Joins System Compatible Program

The Lubrizol Corporation announces that Pensil® 300 Silicone Sealant from Specified Technologies, Inc. (STI) is chemically compatible with FlowGuard Gold®, BlazeMaster® and Corzan® CPVC piping systems and has been added to FGG/BM/CZ™ System Compatible Program. Pensil 300 (www.stifirestop.com) is approved for use in many through-penetration firestop systems involving a variety of different penetrating items, including CPVC piping. The sealant is available in 10.3-ounce tubes, 20-ounce sausages and five-gallon pails.

www.systemcompatible.com

—The Lubrizol Corporation

4

Vault Sound Alarm System

Potter announces the new UL-listed VSA-2 Series Vault Sound Alarm System, used for detecting noise within reverberant and nonreverberant vaults. The more-compact and easier-to-install VSA-2 Series is a direct replacement to the older Potter model VSA. It has an on-board accumulator, a sensitivity pot, the ability to balance the system with the push of a button and other installer-friendly features. The VSA-2 Series is a 12VDC device that can be powered by the alarm panel.

www.pottersignal.com

—Potter Electric Signal Company

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FIRE PROTECTION Engineering

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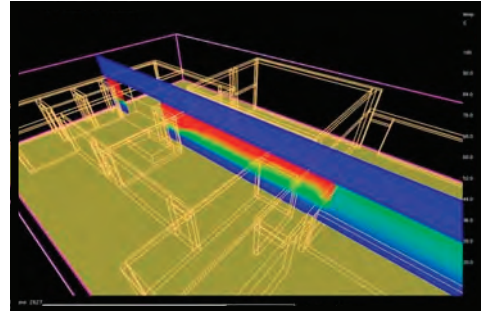
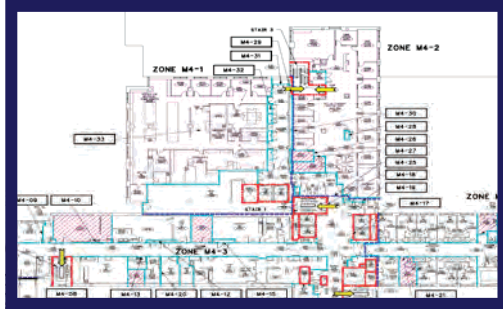
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