JEFFERSON COUNTY
COMMUNITY WILDFIRE PROTECTION PLAN

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 CWPP Purpose

The Community Wildfire Protection Plan (CWPP) is a strategic plan that identifies specific wildland fire risks facing communities and neighborhoods and provides prioritized mitigation recommendations that are designed to reduce those risks. The purpose of the fire behavior analysis and community wildfire hazard rating is to provide a comprehensive, scientifically-based assessment of the wildfire hazards and risks within Jefferson County. This CWPP is not a legal document. There is no legal requirement to implement the recommendations herein. Once the CWPP is adopted, it is the community's responsibility to move forward and implement the action items. This may require further planning at the project level, acquisition of funds, and motivating individual home owners.

Dramatic natural and human-caused changes to forested areas occurred throughout the 20th century. In many cases, these changes led to a high accumulation of naturally occurring flammable forest fuels. Decades of fire suppression and fire exclusion in fire-adapted ecosystems have removed a critical natural process from the vegetation regeneration cycle. In addition, years of persistent drought have resulted in a weakened forest infrastructure and regional epidemics of disease and insect infestation. At the same time, demographic trends continue to shift the nation's population growth centers to western and southwestern states where fire-adapted forest ecosystems are predominant, resulting in fragmented forested landscapes. The region where human development is pushing into previously undeveloped expanses of wildland is known as the wildland-urban interface (WUI). This is the area where risk of loss to life and property due to wildfire is the greatest. The potential consequences of severe wildfires are devastating and costly, and in recent years spurred Congress to pursue an effective solution.

Precipitated by over a decade of increasing wildfire activity, related losses, and spiraling suppression costs, the National Fire Plan was developed by the federal government in 2000. The Healthy Forests Restoration Act (HFRA) of 2003 provides the impetus for wildfire risk assessment and planning at the County and community level and helps implement the core components of the plan. HFRA refers to this level of planning as the CWPP. This empowers the participating community to take advantage of wildland fire and hazardous fuel mitigation opportunities offered under HFRA legislation including a framework for hazard evaluation and strategic planning, prioritized access to federal grant funding supporting identified hazard reduction projects, and a basis for collaboration with local, state, and federal land management agencies.

The CWPP can be a useful tool for people who are interested in improving the environment in and around their homes. It provides a coordinated assessment of neighborhood wildfire risks and hazards. Fire *risk* is the probability that wildfire will start from natural or human-caused

ignitions. Fire *hazard* is the presence of ignitable fuel coupled with the influences of topography and weather, and is directly related to fire behavior. Fire severity, on the other hand, refers to the immediate effect a fire has on vegetation and soils. This CWPP addresses fire hazard and makes recommendations to reduce wildfire hazard in Jefferson County in order to make it a safer place to live, work, and play.

1.2 Jefferson County's need for a CWPP

Jefferson County encompasses much of the western Denver, Colorado metropolitan area (Map 1, Appendix A). It currently has a population of about 545,000. The communities here occur in the wildland-urban interface (WUI) and Intermix. According to the Federal Register, Interface is defined as a community that directly abuts wildland fuels. Intermix communities exist where structures are scattered throughout a wildland area. Both interface and intermix require fire hazard mitigation.

As is typical of Colorado Front Range WUI zones, neighborhoods often extend into foothill valleys, canyons, and mountain slopes with restricted access and limited emergency water supplies. They are common examples of the WUI and each presents emergency responders with unique, identifiable, and addressable hazards and risks. Outlying ranches, homesteads, and individual homes are not specifically addressed by the CWPP process and are best served through individual home hazard and risk assessments. However, recommended improvements to home ignition zones and defensible space apply to all properties, including those not within the delineated community areas.

A particularly important value at risk in this County is the Upper Platte Watershed, which has suffered from severe erosion and sedimentation following past fire events, and could be further compromised by severe fires in the future. The watershed encompasses approximately 1,000 square miles and supplies the Denver metropolitan area with 80 percent of its water. It is well known for its vast recreation opportunities. Cheesman and Strontia Springs Reservoirs, major water sources for the Denver area are also located in North Fork Fire Protection District, in southern Jefferson County.

A large portion of the County's WUI occupies the montane zone, which extends between the grasslands and shrublands of the lower elevations to sub-alpine forests at higher elevations. Much of this region is a fire-dependent ecosystem that historically experienced frequent natural ignitions that maintained an open forest stand structure and diverse vegetation composition. Natural resource management policies and changing ecological conditions have interacted in ways that resulted in hazardous fuel conditions throughout the County. Continuous and rapid urban development has created the expansion of the WUI, coupled with the accumulation of hazardous fuels in a fire-prone region suffering from prolonged drought has set the stage for catastrophic wildfires with significant risk to life and property. Steep topography and narrow dead end roads complicate an already potentially catastrophic scenario.

Jefferson County has experienced several large fire events in recent history in and near the County, including the 10,761-acre Hi Meadow Fire in 2000, the 138,114-acre Hayman Fire in 2002, and the 11,853-acre Buffalo Creek Fire in 1996. In March of 2011, the Indian Gulch fire

burned 1570 acres, and came within less than 1 mile of the city of Golden. In neighboring Boulder County, the Four Mile fire burned 6200 acres in September of 2010, destroying 163 homes in the WUI outside of Boulder, CO. Although a fraction of the size of the Hayman Fire, Four Mile became the costliest wildfire in Colorado history, due to the high concentration of the values at risk in the WUI zone.

Much of the Colorado Front Range, particularly in Jefferson County, has similarly heavily forested areas and high accumulations of hazardous fuels throughout WUI communities. The conditions to have a catastrophic wildfire in Jefferson County are present, and need to be mitigated. According to the Front Range Fuel Treatment Partnership Rountable's Findings and Recommendations, Jefferson County has nearly 93,000 acres of forested land that require fire risk mitigation treatment; 73% of forested land in need of treatment is privately owned. Therefore, fuels reduction in communities on private land is particularly important.

Given the significant fire risk and hazards across Colorado, each county in the state is required to have a CWPP with specific mitigation recommendations, as stated in senate bill 09-001. Although most WUI communities are currently covered under a current fire protection County-wide CWPP, there are several WUI areas known as "no-man's lands" that do not fall within the jurisdiction of a FPD but are rather covered under the jurisdictional responsibility of the County Sheriff's Office. Additionally, communities may fall within WUI areas that are mostly urban or developed, and do not a have County-wide CWPP, such as Arvada and West Metro. The Jefferson County (or county-wide) CWPP therefore covers these areas and makes specific hazard mitigation recommendations that can apply to Jefferson County communities on a larger scale. This plan meets the SB 09-001 mandate and the 2009 minimum standards set by the Colorado State Forest Service.

1.3 CWPP Process

The HRFA designed the CWPP to be a flexible process that can accommodate a wide variety of community needs and scales of plans. This CWPP is tailored to meet specific goals, following the standardized steps for developing a CWPP as outlined in "Preparing a Community Wildfire Protection Plan, A Handbook for Wildland-Urban Interface Communities" and the 2009 Colorado State Forest Service Minimum Standards for Community Wildfire Protection Plans (Table 1).

Table 1. CWPP Development Process

Step	Task	Description
One	Convene Decision Makers	Form a Core Team made up of representatives from local governments, fire authorities, and Colorado State Forest Service (CSFS).
Two	Involve Federal Agencies	Engage local representatives of the U.S. Forest Service (USFS) and other land management agencies as appropriate.
Three	Engage Interested Parties	Contact and encourage participation from a broad range of interested organizations and stakeholders.
Four	Establish a Community Base Map	Develop a base map of the County that provides a better understanding of communities, critical infrastructure, and forest/open space at risk.
Five	Develop a Community Risk Assessment	Develop a risk assessment that considers fuel hazards, community and commercial infrastructure, resources, and preparedness capability. Rate the level of risk and incorporate into the base map as appropriate.
Six	Establish Community Priorities and Recommendations	Use the risk assessment and base map to facilitate a collaborative public discussion that prioritizes fuel treatments and non-fuel mitigation practices to reduce fire risk and structural ignitability.
Seven	Develop an Action Plan and Assessment Strategy	Develop a detailed implementation strategy and a monitoring plan that will ensure long-term success.
Eight	Finalize the CWPP	Finalize the County CWPP and communicate the results to interested parties and stakeholders.

The core team (Table 2) consists of representatives from local government, local fire authorities, and the CSFS. For the purposes of this CWPP, a small core team was formed to facilitate the plan's development. These entities guide the development of the CWPP as described in the HFRA and must mutually agree on the plan's final contents. Collaboration between agencies and communities is an important CWPP component because it promotes sharing of perspectives, priorities, and other information that are useful to the planning process.

Table 2. CWPP Core Team Members and Affiliations

Team Member	Organization
Allen Gallamore	Colorado State Forest Service
Travis Griffin	Colorado State Forest Service
Rocco Snart	Jefferson County Sheriff's Office
Robin Keith	Jefferson Conservation District
F Scot Fitzgerald	Jefferson Conservation District

Geographical information system (GIS) data and information from the numerous existing FPD plans were used to develop the community base map. The community base map identifies and delineates communities on a landscape scale within fire protection Countys, encompassing relatively homogenous communities or subdivisions. A comprehensive risk assessment was conducted at the neighborhood or community level in order to determine relative levels of wildfire risk to better address fuels treatment prioritization. A standardized survey methodology was utilized in order to create an addressable rating benchmark for comparative future assessments and project evaluations. These existing community hazard ratings were synthesized for the County-wide plan. On the coarser, county-wide scale, we analyzed GIS data to build a fire-propensity index to assess areas that had not been previously covered in existing CWPPs.

CWPP fuel treatment recommendations are derived from the risk assessment. Mitigation recommendations are prioritized through an open and collaborative effort with the core team stakeholders. Prioritized treatments target wildfire hazard reduction in these WUI communities and neighborhoods, including reducing structural ignitability and protecting critical supporting infrastructure. An action plan guides treatment implementation for high priority projects over the span of several years.

The finalized CWPP represents a strategic plan that provides prioritized wildfire hazard reduction treatment projects, preferred treatment methods, a base map of the WUI, defensible space recommendations, and other information relevant to the scope of the project.

There are several federal legislative acts that set policy and provide guidance to the development of the CWPP:

- Healthy Forests Restoration Act (HFRA) (2003) – Federal legislation to promote healthy forest and open space management, hazardous fuels reduction on federal land, community wildfire protection planning, and biomass energy production.

- National Fire Plan and 10-year Comprehensive Strategy (2001) – Interagency plan that focuses on firefighting coordination, firefighter safety, post-fire rehabilitation, hazardous fuels reduction, community assistance, and accountability.

- Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) Disaster Mitigation Act (2000) provides criteria for state and local multiple-hazard and mitigation planning.

- Colorado State Forest Service minimum standards for the development of CWPPs in Colorado (2009), per HFRA.

There are also several sources of information that supports wildfire mitigation and response that provide guidance to the development of the CWPP:

- The CSFS is a valuable resource that provides education and guidance to communities and individual landowners concerned with the threat of wildfire, as well as forest resource management in the WUI (http://csfs.colostate.edu/).

- The Jefferson County Annual Operation Plan (AOP) provides direction on how to work wildland fires in the County. Mutual aid agreements are attached to this document. This pre-plan provides emergency response infrastructure for any large incident support.

1.4 CWPP Goals and Objectives

Table 3 provides a brief summary of the primary goals and objectives for the CWPP.

Table 3. CWPP Goals and Objectives

Goals	Objectives
Conduct a wildfire risk assessment	• Conduct a county-wide wildfire risk assessment. • Identify areas at risk and contributing factors. • Determine the level of risk to structures that wildfires and contributing factors pose.
Develop a mitigation plan	• Identify and prioritize hazardous fuel treatment projects. • Identify and prioritize non-fuels mitigation needs.
Manage hazardous fuels	• Identify communities at highest risk and prioritize hazard reduction treatments. • Develop sustainable initiatives at the homeowner HOA level. • Secure funding and assist project implementation.
Facilitate emergency planning	• Develop strategies to strengthen emergency management, response, and evacuation capabilities for wildfire. • Build relationships among county government, fire authorities, and communities.
Facilitate public outreach	• Develop strategies to increase citizen awareness and action for Firewise practices. • Promote public outreach and cooperation for all fuels reduction projects to solicit community involvement and private landowner cooperation.

As a strategic plan, the real success of any CWPP hinges on effective and long-term implementation of the identified objectives. The public outreach phase of the CWPP development process includes efforts to identify stakeholder groups that can serve as an implementation team, which oversees the execution of prioritized recommendations and maintains the plan as the characteristics of the WUI change over time. Specific projects may be undertaken by individual homeowner associations, while larger scale treatments may require collaboration between multiple homeowner associations, local government, and public land

management agencies. Core team representatives may, but are not required to, assist in the implementation of the CWPP action plan. Overall, however, the key to the success of CWPP implementation is community participation. Continued public meetings are recommended as a means to generate additional support and maintain momentum.

2 WILDLAND FIRE MANAGEMENT OVERVIEW

2.1 Wildland Fire Types and Classification

There are two types of fires that burn in wildland fuels: prescribed fire and wildfire. Prescribed fires are planned fires ignited by land managers to accomplish specific natural resource management objectives. Wildfires are unplanned fires that result from natural ignition, human-caused fire, or escaped prescribed fire. Under certain circumstances wildfires can be managed with minimum suppression to achieve multiple objectives, including resource benefits.

Wildland fires are also classified by how they burn in various fuels. *Ground fire* refers to burning/smoldering materials beneath the surface including duff, roots, decomposing wood, peat, and sawdust that normally support a glowing combustion without flame. *Surface fire* refers to loose fuels burning on the surface of the ground, which includes leaves, needles, small branches, as well as grasses, forbs, low and medium shrubs, tree seedlings, fallen branches, downed timber and slash. Depending on the type of surface fuel, surface fires can range from small and slow-moving to intense, fast-moving, and/or prolonged fires. *Passive crown fire* encompasses a wide range of crown fire behavior, from occasional torching of isolated trees or groups of trees to nearly active crown fire. Passive crown fire is often referred to simply as "torching". Torching occurs when the vegetation that spans the gap between the forest floor and tree crowns (ladder fuel) allows a surface fire to travel vertically into flammable tree crowns. *Active crown fire* is a wildland fire that moves rapidly through the crowns of trees or shrubs independently of a surface fire. Active crown fires are intense, destructive, and can be difficult to suppress.

Wildland fuels comprise both dead and live vegetation, and are described in terms of density, bed depth, continuity, vertical arrangement, and moisture content. For fire to ignite and spread, wildland fuels must meet the conditions of combustion (sufficient heat and oxygen). If the potential fuel does not meet the conditions of combustion, it will not ignite. Conditions of combustion can vary widely across geographic region and among different fuels in an area. This explains why some trees, patches of vegetation or structures may survive a wildland fire and others in the near vicinity are completely burned.

2.2 Wildland Fire Behavior

Fire behavior is a description of the manner in which a fire reacts to the combined influences of fuel, weather and topography. Fire behavior is observed and assessed at the flaming front of the fire and described most simply in terms of fire intensity (in feet of flame length) and in rate of forward spread (Table 4). The implications of observed or expected fire behavior are essential components of suppression strategies and tactics, particularly in terms of the difficulty of control and effectiveness of various suppression resources.

Table 4. Fire Behavior Ratings

Adjective class	Rate of Spread (ch/hr)*	Flame Length (ft)
Very Low	0 - 2	0 - 1
Low	2 - 5	1 - 4
Moderate	5 - 20	4 - 8
High	20 - 50	8 - 12
Very High	50 - 150	12 - 25
Extreme	> 150	> 25

Stubbs T., 2005, Adjective Ratings for Fire Behavior

*ch/hr = chains per hour, where 1 chain = 66 feet; this standard measurement of rate of spread is approximately the same as feet per minute, where 1 chain per hour ~ 1 foot per minute

Potential surface fire behavior may be predicted by classifying vegetation in terms of fire behavior fuel models (FBFM) and using established mathematical models to predict potential fire behavior under specific climatic conditions. In this CWPP, FBFMs were obtained from existing GIS and vegetation data layers obtained from LANDFIRE.

In general, fire burns more rapidly and intensely up slopes. Additionally, topographic features such as narrow drainages and box canyons can funnel warm air upslope, further intensifying fire behavior. However, wind tends to be the most significant factor in the most extreme and destructive fires, driving active crown fires and causing long-range spotting ahead of the main fire front. Strong winds common along the Front Range can override topographic effects on fire behavior, even causing wildfire to be driven rapidly down slope.

2.3 History of Wildfire

Lightning-caused fire is a natural component of Front Range ecosystems, and its occurrence is important to maintaining the health of forest and open space ecosystems. Native Americans used fire as a tool for hunting, improving wildlife habitat and land clearing. For example, ponderosa pine woodlands of the montane zone and lower elevation brushlands and grasslands historically experienced relatively frequent fire return intervals. Extensive research has been conducted in Front Range forests in the assessment area. Fire history reconstruction in ponderosa pine forests in the vicinity of Cheesman Reservoir shows evidence that fire occurred in the area every 20 to 50 years between 1531 and 1880. As such, many of the plant species and communities are adapted to recurring fire through phenological, physiological, or anatomical attributes. In addition, the reproduction and persistence of some plant species, such as lodgepole pine and western wheatgrass, require reoccurring fire.

Beginning in the 19th century, Euro-American settlers in western North America altered the natural fire regime in several interrelated ways. The nature of vegetation (fuel) changed because of land use practices such as homesteading, livestock grazing, agriculture, water development, and road construction. Livestock grazing reduced the amount of fine fuels such as grasses and forbs, which carried low-intensity fire across the landscape. Continuous stretches of forest and open space fuels were broken up by land clearing activities. Additionally, with the significant reduction of naturally occurring fire after 1880, there has been widespread establishment and persistence of trees since 1880, leading to denser forest stands that can carry more intense, severe wildfires.

Although advances in scientific knowledge and land management techniques have improved the way wildland fire is managed in recent years, land managers and firefighters are faced with many challenges when fires burn in the WUI. Present-day land use changes, particularly residential development, have continued to impact wildland ecosystems and hazardous fuel distribution. Since the 1970's, housing growth within less than a mile of national forests and other protected areas has outpaced the rate of growth in urban areas. Increasing population density in the WUI makes wildfires more complex and potentially dangerous for firefighters and the general public.

Jefferson County has experienced several large fire events in recent, including the 138,114-acre Hayman Fire in 2002, the 10,761-acre Hi Meadow Fire in 2000, and the 11,853-acre Buffalo Creek Fire in 1996. These fires have all had significant impacts on the landscape and the affected communities due to their sheer size and severity. In March of 2011, the Indian Gulch Fire burned 1570 acres of Mount Galbraith Open Space Park and adjoining private land in and near the County. Given that the fire burned to US Highway 6 and within less than a mile from the city of Golden, it was a high-profile WUI fire. There have also been numerous wildfires in the WUI in the areas surrounding the County, and the area overall has a relatively high risk of ignitions. As the population in Jefferson County continues to grow, WUI areas will expand and make wildland fires increasingly complex and costly to suppress.

Figure 1. Foothills burned in the Indian Gulch fire in March, 2011. Golden and Denver are shown in the background, exemplifying a fire in the Wildland-Urban Interface. Photo by Judson Miller.

2.4 Fuels Management

Heavy wildland fuel loading and continuity has created hazardous situations for public safety and fire management, especially when found in proximity to communities. These hazardous conditions require an array of mitigation tools, including prescribed fire and mechanical thinning treatments to protect human life, economic values, and ecological values. Objectives of fuels management include (but are not limited to) reducing surface fire intensity, reducing the likelihood of crown fire initiation and spread, and improving forest health. These objectives may be accomplished by various methods of reducing surface fuels and ladder fuels, thinning trees to decrease crown density, and/or retaining larger fire resistant trees. By breaking up vertical and horizontal fuel continuity in a strategic manner, firefighters and other suppression resources are

afforded better opportunities to control fire rate of spread and contain wildfires before they become catastrophic.

Prescribed fire is commonly used as a resource management tool under carefully planned conditions by many land management agencies. It includes completing a detailed burn plan with burn parameters (prescriptions), pre-treatment of the fuel load, close monitoring of weather, and use of specific ignition patterns to achieve desired results. When implemented correctly, prescribed fire can improve wildlife habitat, help abate invasive vegetation, reduce excess fuel loads, and lower the severity of future wildfires in the treatment area. Prescribed fires are ignited only under favorable weather conditions, and must meet air quality requirements of the Colorado Department of Public Health and Environment (CDPHE) Air Pollution Control Division (CAPCD) in order to ensure the safety of firefighters and the public. Prescribed fires may be conducted either in a defined area as a broadcast burn, or in localized burn piles. Broadcast burns are used to mimic naturally occurring wildfire within pre-prepared control lines by highly trained fire personnel. Burn piles are utilized to dispose of excess woody material after thinning if other means of disposal are not available or cost-prohibitive. Pile burns do not necessarily need to be conducted by trained professionals, but are subject to local permitting and air quality control guidelines. Acceptable burn days are determined by local fire protection Countys.

Mechanical thinning is another management tool that can be used to break up fuel continuity in order to reduce fire intensity and spread. This can be accomplished in a variety of ways, but most commonly with chainsaws and/or masticators. Chainsaws and other hand tools have been traditionally used to mitigate fuels on a smaller scale because it is time-and labor-intensive, but affords the most controlled results. Once the forest is thinned, the slash and wood must be removed from the forest, chipped onto the forest floor, or piled and burned. In some cases, slash can be “lopped and scattered”, where woody debris is thinly (less than one foot depth is best), and distributed on the forest floor to decompose naturally. If too much woody debris is left after thinning, it can have a negative impact on fire hazard. Slash removal can be the most costly and time-intensive phase of forest thinning by chainsaws and hand tools. Therefore, masticators have become a widely used management tool in recent years. A masticator head is mounted on a skid steer or tractor and shreds forest fuels, including whole trees, then leaves the shredded/chipped material on the forest floor (figure 2).

Figure 2. Hydroaxe used for mastication of heavy woody fuels.

Mastication of fuels does not reduce the amount of fuels in a forest stand, but redistributes it in a manner in which it does not contribute to crown fire initiation and spread. Although limited to machine-operable terrain (slopes less than 50%, not rocky, etc.), this method of thinning is generally quicker and more cost-effective than hand-thinning with chainsaws, and large-scale fuel treatments can be completed in a relatively short time.

Land managers often use a combination of these fuel mitigation techniques to achieve management objectives, depending on the vegetation type, terrain, adjacent private lands, or other values at risk. Private landowners should also consider these factors when choosing fuel mitigation tools. Additionally, landowners can improve the effectiveness of their own fuel mitigation treatments by using a combination of tools and using adjacent fuel treatments to their advantage. This topic is discussed in more detail in the action item recommendations.

Figure 3. Prescribed fire west of Evergreen. Photo by Collin Wassink.

3 JEFFERSON COUNTY PROFILE

3.1 Assessment Area

Jefferson County lies on the western edge of the Denver, Colorado metropolitan area. Jefferson County was established in 1861 as one of the original 17 counties created by the Colorado Territorial Legislature with a land base of 774 square miles. The county has the fourth largest population in the state, currently estimated at 545,290 people with approximately 190,440 people living in the incorporated areas.

Boulder County lies to the north, Gilpin, Clear Creek, and Park Counties lie to the West, Douglas and Teller Counties lie to the south, and Adams, Denver, and Arapahoe Counties border on the east. Known as "the gateway to the Rockies", the foothills of the Front Range run the length of the County. The lower elevation plains rise steeply to the mountains in the west. Therefore, Jefferson County has a wide range of elevation, vegetation types, and population distribution. Much of the assessment area can be classified as WUI.

The local economy is dictated by the proximity and ease of access to the Denver metro area. Most working residents commute daily to Golden and Denver. Numerous getaways on nearby county, state, federal and private lands with world-class hunting, climbing, cycling, camping, and fishing areas abound throughout the County.

For this CWPP, "communities" are delineated by fire protection County (FPD). The primarily-WUI FPD's in Jefferson County already have adopted current CWPP's, so we crosswalked the mitigation recommendations from the existing plans into this coarser-scale county-wide plan. Overall, each FPD represents a fairly uniform area of vegetation/fuel type, topography, population concentration, and response resources. Remaining WUI areas not previously covered were analyzed with a GIS-based fire propensity index (see chapter 4.3).

3.2 Climate

The climate of the area is relatively dry with the majority of precipitation occurring in the spring months and late summer monsoons. However, with 4,000 feet of vertical relief within the County, average conditions can vary greatly from one location to another. In the summer months, thunderstorms can occur almost daily and can produce hundreds of lightning strikes in a single storm. The area receives 255 days of sunshine per year and an average of 15 inches of annual precipitation. Winter high temperatures are typically in the mid 30s and summer highs tend to remain in the 70s. The low precipitation months are November through February. Seasonal weather patterns over the region and topographic effects from the continental divide can generate high winds year-round. It is not uncommon for this area to experience winds in excess of 50 miles per hour. These conditions are optimum for wildfire ignition and spread. As the climate has warmed and dried over the past century, it is now possible for wildfires to occur 12 months a year in Jefferson County.

3.3 Topography

Topography refers to the steepness of slope (expressed in percent or degrees) and aspect (expressed as direction the slope faces). The elevation of Jefferson County ranges from about 5300 to 9500 feet. The terrain spans from the rolling plains in the eastern part of the County to steep mountainous terrain. About 28% of the County is covered by plains, and 72% is covered by mountainous terrain. Slopes range from 10 percent to 60 percent or more. Although most of the homes in the WUI and Intermix are on slopes that are less than 30%, almost all of the homes are within 300 feet of steeper slopes. Not only does this affect potentially severe fire behavior, it can limit the type and extent of fuel mitigation that can take place near homes that need it. For example, mechanical fuels reduction with masticators is generally limited to slopes of approximately 30%, on average. Mitigation with chainsaws is the most feasible method for steep slopes, but in general, the more difficult the terrain is, the more costly and dangerous the work is. Therefore, slopes exceeding 40% are usually omitted from implementation plans in favor of more cost-effective areas on easier terrain.

In this CWPP, topography was assessed with a digital elevation model (DEM) in GIS. Both topography and elevation play an important role in dictating existing vegetation and, therefore, fuels and fire behavior. The steep slopes, canyons, draws, and ravines throughout the area channel winds and contribute to severe fire behavior. Topography also dictates community infrastructure design, further influencing overall hazard and risk factors.

3.4 Wildland Vegetation and Fuels of the Assessment Area

The vegetation in the County is typical of the Rocky Mountain Montane zone, which ranges from 5,600 to 9,500 feet. The dominant tree species throughout the assessment area are ponderosa pine (*Pinus ponderosa*) and Douglas-fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*). The distribution and density of vegetation species are driven primarily by available soil moisture, which is closely related to elevation and slope aspect. This variability is known as the topographic-moisture gradient (Whittaker 1967), one of the key concepts in forest science. Common species of grass in this area include prairie Junegrass (*Koeleria macrantha*), blue grama (*Bouteola gracilis*), western wheatgrass (*Pascopyrum smithii*), little bluestem (*Schizachyrium scoparium*), Timothy (*Phleum pretense*), and cheatgrass (*Bromus tectorum*).

As elevation and moisture availability increase, ponderosa pine (*Pinus ponderosa*) and mixed conifer woodlands with herbaceous and shrub understory are common. Northfacing slopes throughout the County are characterized by denser stands of ponderosa and mixed conifer forests dominated by Douglas-fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*). In the upper montane zone, lodgepole pine (*Pinus contorta*) is prevalent. Quaking aspen (*Populus tremuloides*) occurs intermittently where micro-site conditions provide enough moisture for them to thrive in either persistent or seral stands.

Deciduous riparian zones along rivers and creek beds are present throughout the area, with occasional stands of cottonwood (*Populus* spp.) and willow (*Salix* spp.). The vegetation in these

riparian zones are generally not significant carriers of fire, and therefore do not usually require extensive mitigation.

The type of vegetation coupled with disturbance regimes determines the amount and distribution of wildland fuels. For example, dead and down timber and needle litter can be heavy in timber stands and woodlands where disturbance has been absent for many decades. Conversely, grasslands and that lack woody species and can burn more frequently have very low fuel loads. Predicting the potential behavior and effects of wildland fire in different fuels is an essential task in fire management. Mathematical surface fire behavior models and prediction systems are driven in part by fuelbed inputs such as load, bulk density, fuel particle size, heat content, and moisture of extinction.

To facilitate use in models and systems, fuel inputs have been formulated into fire behavior fuel models (FBFM). The FBFM concept was developed in 1972 by Rothermel, and Albini (1976) refined the original 11 fuel models based on a series of fire behavior calculations derived from 13 discrete fuel and vegetation types. Scott and Burgan refined the 13 FBFM system in 2005 to create 40 FBFM, which are now widely used in fire management and considered more accurate than the original 13 fuel model system.

This CWPP update utilizes the Scott and Burgan 40 FBFM methodology in order to best represent the current fire hazards and risks in Jefferson County. The forty FBFMs are divided into seven general fuel categories; grass, grass-shrub, shrub, timber understory, timber litter, slash-blowdown, and non-burnable. Each group comprises four or more fuel models. Of these 40 fuel models, 17 occur in the County in six fuel categories (Table 5). Appendix A contains maps showing distribution of fuel groups and individual fuel models. Appendix E contains information about each FBFM in the area, and can be used as a pull-out reference section.

Table 5. Fuel Models in the County

Fuel Group	Code	Description	% Cover of Area*
Grass	GR1	Short sparse dry climate grass	<1
Grass	GR2	Low load dry climate grass	10
Grass	GR4	Moderate load dry climate grass	<1
Grass-shrub	GS1	Low load dry climate grass-shrub	2
Grass-shrub	GS2	Moderate load dry climate grass-shrub	15
Shrub	SH1	Low load dry climate shrub	3
Shrub	SH2	Moderate load dry climate shrub	<1
Shrub	SH7	Very high load dry climate shrub	2
Timber understory	TU1	Low load dry climate timber-grass-shrub	13
Timber understory	TU5	Very high load dry climate timber-shrub	26
Timber Litter	TL1	Low load compact conifer litter	<1
Timber Litter	TL3	Moderate load conifer litter	6
Timber Litter	TL8	Long needle litter	3
Non-burnable	NB	Non-burnable (open water, urban, agricultural, snow, bare ground)	21

*Disclaimer: Fuel model percent cover has not been ground truthed. Ground truthing may increase data accuracy, as the fuel model data can be imprecise.

Grass; FBFM GR1 and GR2
In these fuel models, grass is the primary carrier of fire. Grass is either naturally sparse, or heavily grazed. For both, flame lengths and rate of fire spread is quite low, and therefore do not significantly contribute to extreme fire behavior. The grass species present are common in open short grass prairie, meadows, or alpine tundra. Historically, at lower elevations, relatively frequent disturbance by wildfire removes dried biomass and woody shrub and tree species before it becomes excessive surface fuels. In fast moving or low-intensity fires, the underground portions of plants are rarely killed, and vegetation (particularly grasses) can resprout quickly. These fuel types cover just over 10% of the assessment area.

Grass-Shrub; FBFM GS1 and GS2
The primary carriers of fire in these fuel models are grasses and shrubs combined. Within the County, shrubs in these fuel models are mostly 1-3 feet in height, mixed with short grass. Shrub and grass species in this fuel type requires disturbance such as fire to reproduce, either by seed or root crown sprouting. Rate of spread is high due to the size and continuity of fuels, and flame lengths are moderate. These fuel types cover approximately 17% of the assessment area.

Shrub; FBFM SH 1, SH 2, and SH7
The primary carriers in this fuel groups are shrubs and shrub litter. Vegetation cover may be multi-layered, with short shrub and herb species in the understory of dominant overstory shrubs. In some cases, Gambel oak can reach small tree size. Rate of spread is moderate to high, and flame lengths are generally moderate. These fuel types cover about 4% of the assessment area.

Timber Understory; TU1, TU5
The primary carriers of fire in these fuel types are forest litter, grass, shrub, and small tree understory. Spread rate is low to moderate; flame length is low to high. Fire usually does not ladder into tree canopies unless the surface fuels reach vertically to tree crowns. However, active crown fire could spread from adjacent areas to TU fuel types if the forest canopy is continuous. Common species in the TU fuel types in this area include common juniper, Gambel oak, Rocky Mountain juniper, ponderosa pine, and Douglas-fir. These fuel types cover 39% of the assessment area, with TU5 (very high load timber understory) representing about 26% of the assessment area.

Timber Litter; TL1, TL3, TL8
The lower foothill slopes on the western margin of the County support some stands of ponderosa (*Pinus ponderosa)* on saddles and north and west facing slopes. Further west at slightly higher elevation ponderosa stands dominate north facing slopes and typically are dense with some mixed Douglas-fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii).* Here dead and down woody surface fuels intermingle with the grass and shrub understory. In higher elevation stands on the western side of the County, surface fuels are influenced by long needle timber litter (TL8). These fuel types cover about 9% of the assessment area.

Non-burnable; NB
Non-burnable fuel types include a variety of substrate cover. These include open water, agricultural land, bare ground, and urban. Each non-burnable fuel type has its own code and characteristics, but they are combined in this CWPP for simplicity. Non-burnable areas cover about 21% of the assessment area.

3.5 Values at Risk

In any hazard and risk assessment, human life and welfare are the most important resources to protect. There are also vital socioeconomic, infrastructure, and cultural values that need to be protected in any community at risk. The WUI communities in the assessment area have inherent wildfire hazards: residential development in areas historically prone to fire, hazardous fuels, and limited access. These hazards contribute to fires that have high resistance to control. The actions recommended in this CWPP are geared towards lowering the wildfire hazards to neighborhoods, as well as economic and ecological values at risk to wildfire losses. With these issues in mind, the following values at risk are priorities for protection in the planning area. Any ranking process for these values, however, is inherently subjective. They should be continuously updated and prioritized by community stakeholders as populations grow and other factors change over time. Table 6 lists categories of values at risk, and specific examples of those values within Jefferson County.

Table 6. Values at Risk

Values At Risk	Examples
Life Safety	Nearly 200,000 residents currently living in unincorporated areas of Jefferson County
Homes & Property	Approximately 214,000 residences in or near WUI areas in Jefferson County
Infrastructure	Major roadways: I-70, C-470, US-285, US-6, SR-93; railroads; power lines
Community Facilities	Schools, police stations, fire stations, community granges
Commerce	Lockheed Martin, commercial areas of Morrison, Littleton, Conifer, Aspen Park, and Evergreen
Tourism	State Parks, County Open Space Parks, Denver Mountain Parks, US National Forests
Historic Sites	Meyer Ranch House, Tallman Ranch, North Fork of the South Platte Historic District, Indian Hills Community Hall and Firehouse
Communications	Cell towers, radio towers, phone utility lines
Wildlife Habitat	fisheries; habitat for elk, mule deer, mountain lion, pine marten, red fox; nesting areas for raptors and other birds; habitat for endangered Preble's Meadow Jumping Mouse
Watersheds	Upper South Platte Watershed, Clear Creek Watershed

In the GIS analysis of the values at risk, specific data layers were incorporated to analyze the geographic distribution of values at risk. Schools, historic sites, address density per square mile, and 110 kv power lines were factored into this analysis. Appendix A contains the values at risk map and the data sources and methods for the map's creation.

4 WILDFIRE HAZARD ASSESSMENT METHODS

4.1 Components of Wildfire Hazard Analysis

Wildfire hazard assessment takes into account a variety of factors that ultimately result in a representative hazard ranking of the neighborhoods and subdivisions that have been collaboratively identified within the assessment area by the core team. Hazard rankings provide quantifiable guidance in the determination of mitigation treatment project prioritization. This CWPP uses a combination of community hazard ratings from existing FPD plans and GIS-based analysis.

Factors that contribute to wildfire hazard assessment are fire behavior, community characteristics, and ignition potential. Elements that influence fire behavior include topography, weather conditions, and the type, density and configuration of vegetation and other fuels. Community characteristics are evaluated in terms of emergency response, defensibility, and structural flammability. Ignition potential is influenced by population density, proximity to roads and other infrastructure. Overall, the relationship between expected fire behavior in wildlands and the placement and design of neighborhoods in wildland areas is at the core of an effective community wildfire hazard assessment. From this process, targeted mitigation recommendations are developed that directly address the identified hazards and, if implemented, will reduce the risk of loss from a wildfire for each homeowner as well as the community as a whole.

As part of the assessment, a questionnaire (Appendix D) was posted online and distributed at several community events and public meetings to obtain public opinion information concerning the perceived level of wildfire risk in Jefferson County, understand public values at risk, and assess attitudes about mitigation practices that may be recommended to reduce risk. WUI safety pamphlets and brochures that explained home construction and landscaping practices designed to reduce the risk of wildfire loss were also distributed. The survey was general in its scope, and response was limited. The responses do not represent a statistical sample of Jefferson County residents. The results of the survey can, however, give a broad picture of the overall perception of fire risk and mitigation efforts in the area's WUI communities. Follow-up surveys could target individual communities and/or address specific planned projects.

While fires originating in or near communities are the most immediate concern, wildfires that ignite well beyond the boundaries of the planning area can have profound effects upon the communities and ecosystems in the County. There is a high possibility for rapid rates of spread and long-distance spotting are high for a typical fire in this area.

4.2 Fire Behavior Analysis

Fire behavior, as previously stated in section 2.2, is defined as the manner in which a fire reacts to the influences of fuel, weather, and topography. Two key measures of this behavior are the rate of spread and fire intensity. In fire management, rate of spread is expressed in chains per hour. A chain is 66 ft, and one chain per hour closely approximates a spread rate of 1 foot per minute. Fireline intensity is defined as the rate of heat energy released per unit time per unit

length of fire front, regardless of the depth of the flame zone. It is calculated as the product of available fuel energy and the fires rate of advance.

The FlamMap software program was one tool used in the development of the plan. FlamMap is a fire behavior analysis program that computes potential fire behavior characteristics over a pre-defined geographic area (Landscape) given constant weather and fuel moisture conditions. The Landscape is the data input to be analyzed by FlamMap, using 30-meter GIS data. The GIS data sets that combine to create a Landscape are elevation, slope, aspect, fuel model, canopy cover, stand height, canopy base height, and canopy bulk density. Elevation, slope, and aspect are derived from Digital Elevation Models (DEM; a 3-D representation of a surface). The fuel model and forest stand and canopy data are obtained from LANDFIRE (Landscape Fire and Resource Management Planning Tools) datasets. LANDFIRE data was within the broad map zones used by the U. S. Geological Survey (http://landcover.usgs.gov/pdf/homer.pdf). With LANDFIRE, it is possible to view and download geospatial layers and data products that depict the nation's major ecosystems, wildlife habitat, vegetation or canopy characteristics, landscape features, and wildland fire behavior, effects, and regimes. Appendix A contains the maps that illustrate potential fire behavior under these conditions, and the methodology and data that was used to create them.

To complete a comparison of average- (50^{th} percentile) and severe-case (90^{th} percentile) fire behavior conditions, two different weather streams were developed. Percentile refers to historic occurrences of specified conditions. For example, 50^{th} percentile is considered average conditions, with half the records exceeding recorded conditions and half the records below recorded conditions. Severe weather conditions are expressed as 90^{th} percentile conditions, meaning that within the weather data examined from the remote automated weather stations (RAWS), only 10 percent of the days had more extreme conditions. When these two different weather streams are used, we see the potential fire behavior characteristics at both a “normal” fire season condition and at a “very high severity” fire season condition.

A Fire Behavior Analyst helps determine expected fire behavior in a landscape. Fire behavior models such as FlamMap carry certain assumptions. Typically consistent wind speeds over the entire burning period, consistent fuel bed depth, and fuel bed continuity can produce fire behavior at =/- two times the actual observed fire behavior.

Fire Weather

Average and severe case weather and fuel moisture conditions were determined using records from local RAWS during the summer wildfire season of June through August. Given the large geographic area of the County, and the variability of conditions represented within the County, weather was analyzed in two zones: north and south. Each zone is represented by data averaged from four weather stations.

Data from the Lookout Mountain, Sugarloaf, and Corral Creek stations were used to best represent the climate of the northern part of the County (Table 7), and Cheesman, Polhemus, Bailey, and Waterton North stations were chosen for the southern part of the County (Table 8). Weather was calculated for the typical summer fire season of June through August based on

existing historic data through 2011. Mid-flame wind speeds of 4 and 8 mph were used for the modeling of 50th and 90th percentile conditions, respectively.

Table 7. Average and Severe Case Fire Weather and Fuel Moisture Conditions, North Zone

RAWS Station	Percentile	Max Temp ºF	Relative Humidity %	1-Hour Fuel Moisture %	10-Hour Fuel Moisture %	100-Hour Fuel Moisture %	Herbaceous Fuel Moisture %	Woody Fuel Moisture %
Lookout Mountain	50th	71	24	7	8	12	35	103
2009-2011	90th	83	13	3	4	8	5	59
Sugarloaf	50th	76	22	6	7	10	34	96
1990-2011	90th	89	10	3	4	6	9	60
Corral Creek	50th	71	19	5	6	11	29	85
1990-2011	90th	81	8	2	4	7	3	69

Table 8. Average and Severe Case Fire Weather and Fuel Moisture Conditions, South Zone

RAWS Station	Percentile	Max Temp ºF	Relative Humidity %	1-Hour Fuel Moisture %	10-Hour Fuel Moisture %	100-Hour Fuel Moisture %	Herbaceous Fuel Moisture %	Woody Fuel Moisture %
Cheesman	50th	75	17	5	6	10	30	73
1990-2011	90th	86	7	2	3	6	3	60
Bailey	50th	75	16	5	6	10	32	79
1990-2011	90th	86	6	2	3	6	3	60
Polhemus	50th	73	17	4	6	10	35	77
2004-2011	90th	84	7	2	3	6	3	59
Waterton North	50th	69	23	6	7	11	44	88
2004-2011	90th	80	11	3	4	7	4	59

Additional important fire- and weather-related resources include:

- Fort Collins Interagency Wildfire Dispatch Center Web index for Fire Intelligence, Fire Weather, Fire Danger/Severity, RAWS – http://www.fs.fed.us/r2/arnf/fire/fire.html
- RAWS index for the Rocky Mountain Geographic Coordinating Area – http://raws.wrh.noaa.gov/cgibin/roman/raws_ca_monitor.cgi?state=RMCC&rawsflag=2
- National Fire Weather Page – http://fire.boi.noaa.gov/

Potential Fire Behavior

Fire behavior simulations were conducted for average (50th percentile) and severe (90th percentile) conditions for the critical months of the fire season, June through August (Table 9). Slope steepness was set to 20 percent.

BehavePlus software was used to generally illustrate the potential surface fire behavior given the prevailing fuel types, local topography, and local weather conditions. While any number of

variables and assumptions will affect the modeled outputs, there are several significant general principles to focus on:

- Differences in surface fire behavior under 50th and 90th percentile conditions (drier fuels, windier conditions) are most pronounced in brush and grass fuels.

- The increase in fire behavior is approximately two times for flame length and three to four times for rate of spread.

- Fire behavior for most fuel types under 90th percentile conditions exceeds the 4-foot flame lengths generally considered appropriate for direct line construction with hand crews. When flame length exceed 4 feet, it becomes necessary to use engines, aircraft, or other heavy equipment for fire suppression instead of personnel on the ground.

- If TU1 converts into the denser TU5, the increase in fire behavior is pronounced and conducive to the initiation of crown fire.

Table 9. BehavePlus Predictions of Fire Behavior on 20 Percent Slope*

FBFM	Flame Length (ft), average conditions[1]	Rate of Spread (chains/hr), average conditions**	Flame Length (ft), severe conditions[2]	Rate of Spread (chains/hr), severe conditions**
GR1	2	10	3	38
GR2	4	20	10	153
GR4	7	41	18	307
GS1	1	3	6	42
GS2	2	4	9	58
SH1	1	1	1	4
SH2	1	1	7	15
SH5	9	24	20	115
SH7	8	16	19	74
TU1	1	1	3	6
TU5	5	5	11	19
TL1	1	1	1	2
TL3	1	2	2	5
TL8	3	6	6	17

[1]50th percentile weather conditions: average midflame windspeed = 4mph; fuel moisture percentages: 1-hour=5%, 10-hour = 8%, 100-hour = 10%; Live herbaceous fuel moisture = 75%; live woody fuel moisture = 200%.
[2]90th percentile weather conditions: severe midflame windspeed = 8mph; fuel moisture percentages: 1-hour=2%, 10-hour = 3%, 100-hour = 6%; Live herbaceous fuel moisture = 30%; live woody fuel moisture = 100%.
*All calculations were completed using 20% slope.
**Chains per hour ≈ feet per minute, where 1 chain = 66 feet.

4.3 Community Hazard Assessment Methods

Wildfire hazard assessment takes into account a variety of factors that ultimately result in a representative hazard ranking of the neighborhoods and subdivisions that have been

collaboratively identified within the assessment area by the core team. Hazard rankings provide quantifiable guidance in the determination of mitigation treatment project prioritization. Factors that contribute to wildfire hazard assessment are fire behavior, community infrastructure, and ignition potential. Elements that influence fire behavior include topography, weather conditions, and the type, density and configuration of vegetation and other fuels. Community infrastructure is evaluated in terms of emergency response, defensibility, and structural flammability. Ignition potential is influenced by population density, proximity to roads and other infrastructure.

Overall, the relationship between expected fire behavior in wildlands and the placement and design of neighborhoods in wildland areas is at the core of an effective community wildfire hazard assessment. From this process, targeted mitigation recommendations are developed that directly address the identified hazards and, if implemented, will reduce the risk of loss from a wildfire for each homeowner as well as the community as a whole.

Community hazard ratings were calculated using the National Fire Protection Association (NFPA) 1144 assessment form, and values were obtained from existing FPD CWPPs. Rating factors such as defensible space, driveway access, and building setback from steep slopes were somewhat variable throughout the community, while factors such as severe weather potential, overall topography and road widths were consistent. Each rating factor has an associated numerical value. For example, a community with a single ingress/egress is given 7 points, and a community with more than one ingress/egress is given 0 points. Communities are visually assessed in the field and the rating factor values are recorded. The values are then summed to obtain an overall hazard ranking. The higher the value is, the higher the hazard level. Hazard scores above 112 are “extreme” fire hazard, scores 71-112 are “high” hazard, 41-70 are “moderate” hazard, and scores 40 and lower are “low” hazard.

For this CWPP, we also developed a County-wide map detailing ignition risks and overall composite hazard based on data obtained from the County Spatial Database Engine (SDE). This landscape-scale analysis allows communities as well as land managers and fire personnel to view overall fire hazard in an areas that lie outside the WUI and apply mitigation recommendations accordingly. A detailed description of the methods used to develop these maps is located in Appendix A.

5 WILDFIRE MITIGATION PLAN

5.1 Mitigation Planning

Wildfire mitigation can be defined as those actions taken to reduce the likelihood of loss of life and property due to wildfire. The intent of mitigation is not to completely eliminate the risk of loss nor does it reduce the risk of a wildfire occurring. Effective wildfire mitigation enables residents to evacuate safely, homes to withstand the occurrence of wildfire, and firefighters to safely defend structures and suppress fires where possible. This can be accomplished through a variety of methods, including reducing hazardous fuels, creating defensible space around individual homes, utilizing fire-resistant building materials, enhancing emergency preparedness and response capabilities, upgrading current infrastructure, and developing programs that foster community awareness and neighborhood activism. Once implemented, these actions can significantly reduce the risk of loss due from wildfire to an individual home, and on a larger implementation scale, for an entire community.

Specific mitigation treatment recommendations for Jefferson County were adopted from existing Fire Protection District CWPPs. These recommendations are based on parameters such as wildland fuels, predicted fire behavior, infrastructure, emergency response resources, and structure ignitability. Recommendations were reviewed and approved by the core team. Project prioritization was based on public input, practicality of implementation, and proximity to existing planned and completed mitigation projects.

Communities should seek out and take advantage of opportunities to partner with local agencies or organizations to plan mitigation projects. Working cooperatively can provide communities with a higher level of technical assistance and project management.

5.2 Recommended Actions

Action items include a variety of specific recommendations that reduce ignitability of structures, make ingress and egress safer for residents and emergency personnel, remove hazardous wildland fuels from around homes, and reduce the amount of fuels in strategic locations. Many recommended action items do not involve drastic changes to the forest; simple structural maintenance and pruning are basic, but essential components to effective mitigation. In addition, this plan's recommendations are meant to apply to rural intermix and occluded properties that lie outside the WUI community boundaries. This includes residences and other structures that lie outside of FPD jurisdictions and are covered under the Sheriff's Office authority for fire suppression.

Actions on public lands can be subject to federal, state, and county policies and procedures such as adherence to the HFRA and National Environmental Protection Act (NEPA). Action on private land may require compliance with county land use codes, building codes, and local covenants. While the USFS, CSFS, JCSO, and many fire protection districts have worked hard to promote defensible space and land management, private landowners must accept responsibility for completing work on their own lands. Table 10 lists the recommended action items by category and described in further detail below.

Table 10. Action Items

Category	Action Items
Public Outreach and Education	• Encourage stakeholder participation in community meetings • Distribute Firewise and other informational materials • Assess individual homes
Building Improvements	• Replace shake roofs with fire-resistant roofing materials • Implement Firewise construction principals for new construction and remodels • Cover vents and chimneys with metal screens • Enclose exposed decks and gables, and/or use fire-resistant construction materials
Defensible Space	• Establish a fuel-free zone around homes • Establish a treated second zone that is thinned, pruned, and cleared of excess surface fuels • Extend thinning treatments to property boundary to reduce hazardous fuels • Employ defensible space practices around resources such as cisterns, draft sites, or community safety zones
Access and Egress Improvements	• Where not present, clearly mark roads and addresses with metal, reflective signs • Thin trees along main roads to avoid blockage • Create or widen turnarounds • Widen or improve narrow switchbacks • Create secondary evacuation routes where needed
Shaded Fuelbreaks	• Thin in strategic areas, such as along evacuation routes and utility right-of ways • Coordinate with adjacent public land management agencies • Identify existing breaks in vegetation to expand fuelbreak areas • Remove or treat slash by chipping, burning in piles, or hauling to collection site • Perform periodic maintenance where necessary • Incorporate additional management goals where appropriate (such as bark beetle infestation control)
Fire Department Preparedness	• Own and update County GIS • Update and distribute run books • Verify community water sources • Conduct pre-suppression planning • Conduct ongoing recruitment, training, and certification • Coordinate mutual aid strategic planning • Upgrade apparatus, facilities, and personal protective equipment when appropriate
Supporting Actions	• Explore and support grant funding opportunities • Involve Jefferson County in evacuation route improvements • Revise county statutes addressing defensible space requirements for home sales

- Coordinate with land management agency forest management plans

5.2.1. Public Outreach and Education

The most effective means of initiating local action is through community education and public outreach. Given the significant fire events in and near Jefferson County in recent years, particularly the Indian Gulch fire in the spring of 2011 and the Four Mile Fire in Boulder in September of 2010, most local residents are well-informed of the inherent fire risk in the area, but as more people move to the area, it is necessary to maintain and improve the community's knowledge of the basic principles behind wildland fire, and the actions they can implement to increase their personal safety and that of their home. Through education, homeowners are empowered to take action on their own properties, and coordinate efforts with their neighbors to maximize the efficacy of individual treatments.

Action Item: Conduct annual community meetings each spring. Community meetings held in the spring, just prior to the main fire season, can spur action by individuals and neighborhoods and allow for coordination of cleanup efforts within the community. This can also serve as a forum for presentations by experts in the field who can answer questions, provide technical guidance, and inform community members of available resources.

Action Item: Firewise materials and CSFS publications should be made available to the public at each fire station, post office, HOA, and library on a regular basis.

5.2.2. Building Improvements

The purpose of building improvements is to reduce structural ignitability. Structural ignitability is defined as the flammability of the home and its immediate surroundings. This separates the problem of WUI structure fire loss from other landscape-scale fire management issues, because highly ignitable homes can be destroyed during lower intensity wildfires, whereas homes with low structural ignitability can survive high intensity wildfires. Structural ignitability, rather than wildland fuels, is the principal cause of structural losses during wildland/urban interface fires. While reducing hazardous fuels around a structure is very important to prevent fire loss, recent studies indicate that building materials have a significant influence on whether a structure will survive a wildfire.

Key structural components that increase ignitability are flammable roofing materials (e.g. cedar shingles), flammable decks and/or siding, and the presence of burnable vegetation (e.g. ornamental trees, shrubs, wood piles) immediately adjacent to homes. The area around the home, 100-200 feet, is called the home ignition zone and is the most critical area to prepare and maintain to prevent loss from fire.

Studies of home survivability in wildfire incidents also indicate that homes with noncombustible roofs and a minimum of 30 feet of defensible space had an 85 percent survival rate. Conversely, homes with wood shake roofs and less than 30 feet of defensible space had a 15 percent survival rate. This evidence suggests that investing in building improvements to decrease the structural ignitability of the home is just as important as forest management and fuels thinning on the

property. In areas where tree removal is not desirable or possible, homeowners can still mitigate fire hazard in this way.

Action Item: All homeowners should continually keep roofs and gutters clear of leaves and pine needles. Embers from a wildfire can become windborne and travel long distances before settling, and even small amounts fine fuels on a structure can ignite and put a home at risk. Defensible space becomes inconsequential if embers cause ignition on the roof, deck, or in eaves. Clear combustible material such as firewood, trash, or woody debris from the side of the home and underneath exposed decks.

Action Item: Cover openings around the home, such as gutters, attic vents, chimneys, and areas under decks with screens to prevent the accumulation of fuels where embers can ignite the structure.

Action Item: Where possible, propane tanks adjacent or downhill from home should be relocated to a location uphill or at least 30 feet from the home (outside the home ignition zone).

Action Item: Replace wood-shake (cedar shingle) roofing with noncombustible roofing materials. Roofing materials rated as "Class A" include materials that are non-burnable or can withstand a high amount of radiant heat, and are therefore the most appropriate for homes in the assessment area. Jefferson County requires all new and replacement roofs in the WUI to be fire-resistant. Minimum Class "B" roofing material is required in a wildfire hazard area. Prior to receiving a Certificate of Occupancy (CO) for homes and structures with living quarters, and prior to final building inspection for accessory structures, all structures are required to meet the minimum defensible space requirements identified in the on-site assessment at the time of permitting.

5.2.3. Defensible Space

Precautionary action taken before a wildfire strikes often makes the difference between saving and losing a home. Creating a defensible space around a home is a vital component in wildfire hazard reduction. These efforts are typically concentrated within 0 to 75 feet of the home to increase the chance for structure survival and create an area for firefighters to work safely in the event of a wildfire.

Homes and neighborhoods with defensible space are much more likely to be assigned structure defense crews than those without. In general, structures that do not have defensible space do not provide adequate area for firefighters and firefighting apparatus to work efficiently and safely. The risk to human life outweighs any possible benefit of trying to defend an unsafe property. Appendix I shows the Jefferson County Structure Triage Form, which enables firefighters to quickly prioritize structure defense in a wildfire. If a structure has a score greater than 13, it is considered a "last priority" over properties with more clearance, lighter vegetation, and better access.

It is recommended that defensible space be created following the CSFS guidelines set forth in *Creating Wildfire Defensible Space Zones,* Bulletin Number 6. Refer to Appendix G for the complete CSFS defensible space guidelines and treatment area size recommendations.

Action Item: Implement defensible space around all homes and structures in the assessment area. Create a fuel-free zone approximately 15 feet wide directly adjacent to the structure, which reduces structural ignitability and reduces direct flame impingement on the structure. In a secondary zone farther out from the structure, complete pruning of ladder fuels, stand thinning, and removal of dead, dying, or diseased trees for overall stand improvement. Where possible, extend forest treatments out to property line to reduce fuel loading and enhance overall forest health.

before *after*

Figure 4. A home and surrounding property before and after the completion of defensible space action items. Photos from CSFS.

Table 11 outlines a phased 4-year implementation schedule communities can use to complete this action item.

Table 11. Community Defensible Space Implementation Schedule

Year	Project	Actions
1	Annual spring outreach	▪Contact and organize homeowners ▪Hold educational meeting about defensible space
	Annual spring/summer mitigation	▪Clean roofs and gutters ▪Trim limbs and shrubs within 3 to 5 feet of home ▪Rake and mow yard ▪Assist neighbors ▪Organize debris disposal
2	Annual spring outreach	▪Contact and organize homeowners
	Annual spring/summer mitigation	▪Clean roofs and gutters ▪Rake and mow yard ▪Organize debris disposal
3	Annual spring outreach	▪Contact and organize homeowners ▪Identify needed improvements to construction features throughout community
	Annual spring/summer mitigation	▪Where possible, coordinate projects between homeowner groups who have created defensible space and open space managed lands ▪Repeat yard maintenance & debris disposal
4	Annual spring outreach	▪Contact and organize homeowners ▪Follow up with landowners who have not completed defensible space, offer assistance
	Annual spring/summer mitigation	▪Complete any outstanding projects from previous years ▪Begin long-term maintenance (as needed, re-trim shrubs, remove small trees, etc) ▪Initiate construction feature improvements

5.2.4. Access & Egress Improvements

In addition to defensible space, it is essential for communities to have adequate access and egress. Not only does this allow for emergency personnel to access and escape properties in a wildfire, residents are also able evacuate quickly and safely when necessary. In many WUI communities, it is common for driveways, dead-ends, and switchbacks to lack adequate turnaround space for fire trucks, which compromises emergency response to properties. Golden Gate Fire adopted the 2003 International Fire Code, which details the specifications for driveways, turnouts, turnarounds, and access roads.

Clear signage for roads and addresses enable firefighters to navigate through communities they may not be familiar with, or when visibility is compromised. Tenable escape routes are essential to community wildfire safety, and therefore should be considered high-priority action items when recommended.

Action Item: Street signs and address numbers should be clearly marked and visible from the road, preferably with reflective, durable, fire-resistant materials.

Action Item: Where needed, construct or improve turnarounds on dead-end roads and in driveways. Minimum requirements for driveway access are permitted and enforced to obtain safe and reasonable access for every day vehicular use and ingress/egress of emergency vehicles.

5.2.5. Shaded Fuelbreaks

Shaded fuelbreaks are strategically located areas where fuels have been reduced in a prescribed manner in locations that can affect fire behavior on a landscape scale. Fuelbreaks are generally strategically placed where they can be as continuous as possible. To this end, they can be placed contiguously with other fuelbreaks, larger area treatments, along roads, or adjacent to natural breaks in vegetation (such as meadows or bodies of water). When defensible space, fuelbreaks, and area treatments are coordinated, the community and the adjacent natural resources are afforded an enhanced level of protection from wildfire. Fuelbreaks have been completed on several USFS and CSFS parcels within the plan area.

The CSFS provides guidelines on how to determine the width and prescription for fuelbreaks based up the type of fuel and topography. Fuelbreaks need to be tailored to the terrain, fuels, historic fire regimes and expected weather conditions of the landscape in which they are placed. Improperly implemented fuel treatments can have negative impacts in terms of forest health and fire behavior. Aggressively thinning forest stands in wind-prone areas may result in subsequent wind damage to some species of trees. Thinning can also increase the amount of surface fuels and sun and wind exposure on the forest floor. This may increase surface fire intensity if post-treatment debris disposal and monitoring are not properly conducted. When fuelbreaks are not thinned enough to create sufficient canopy openings, the risk of crown fire is not reduced, and the fuelbreak does not meet its intended objective. The overall benefits of properly constructed fuelbreaks are however, well documented. An area near the Hayman fire that had been recently thinned successfully stopped fire from moving through the tree canopy, which significantly reduced tree mortality in that stand. Untreated areas adjacent to the treatment area burned severely, and had nearly 100% tree mortality.

Figure 5. A WUI neighborhood and forest stand affected by the Hayman fire. The green trees in the foreground with greater canopy spacing were largely unburned, while the denser forest in the background burned more severely. Photo from USFS.

Action item: All access roads flanked by heavy vegetation in WUI communities should be targeted for thinning or seasonal mowing. Treatments may be coordinated with property owners along private roads and with county and state transportation departments for public roads. Conifer regeneration along road margins should be controlled. A qualified forester or fire professional should evaluate the effectiveness and periodic maintenance of roadside mitigation.

Action item: In existing CWPPs, a strategic shaded fuelbreaks have been carefully planned for each WUI community and mapped for this CWPP. These fuelbreaks take into account expected fire behavior, workable terrain, and existing road access. When implemented, these landscape-scale fuelbreaks are meant to protect the community as a whole by reducing potential fire behavior under most weather conditions. Where possible, these fuelbreaks should be placed adjacent to completed mitigation projects.

before *after*

Figure 5. A montane forest stand in Jefferson County before and after completion of a shaded fuelbreak. Note the tree on the right side of the picture with orange flagging and the aspen tree in the background to compare the change in the stand structure. Photo from Jefferson County Emergency Management.

Action item: Natural resource managers for public lands should take into account fire hazard for adjacent WUI communities when developing or updating forest management plans.

Action item: An ecological evaluation of the status of vegetation community recovery and rehabilitation is recommended for areas affected by fires in recent years. Monitoring should focus on the presence of noxious weeds and other invasive non-native species. Reducing the presence of invasive species such as knapweed (*Centaurea* spp.) and Dalmatian toadflax (*Linaria dalmatica)* maintains natural biodiversity. In some cases, it can help maintain historic fire regimes, especially in grasslands and shrublands.

5.3 Treatment Options

Each of the recommended fuel mitigation projects can be achieved by a variety of methods. Selecting the most appropriate, cost effective option is an important planning step. The brief synopsis of treatment options and cost estimates in Table 12 is provided to assist in this process. Cost estimates for treatments should be considered as general guidelines. Costs can vary tremendously based on a variety of factors, including but not limited to:

- Acreage of project
- Proximity to structures
- Fuel costs & other equipment needs
- Treatment techniques used
- Density and type of vegetation
- Steepness of slope
- Area accessibility

Table 12. Treatment Methods

Treatment	Approximate Cost*	Comments
Machine Mowing	$90 - $200 per acre	▪Appropriate for large, flat, grassy areas on relatively flat terrain ▪Usually requires yearly treatment
Prescribed Fire	$100 - $200 per day	▪Cost-effective for larger acreage ▪Implementation requires trained professionals ▪Ecologically beneficial ▪Provides training opportunities for firefighters ▪Inherint risk of escape may be unacceptable in some areas ▪Unpredictable scheduling due to weather and smoke management contstraints
Brush Mastication	$300 - $500 per acre	▪Some brush (shrub) species, such as Gambel oak, resproout vigorously after maechanical treatment ▪Follow-up treatment with herbicides, prescribed fire, grazing, or repeat mechanical treatments are typically necessary ▪Less expensive and faster than manual treatment ▪No need to dispose of slash
Timber Mastication	$700 - $1500 per acre	▪Large diameter trees can be felled quickly over large areas ▪Less expensive and faster than manual treatment ▪No need to dispose of slash ▪Machinery usually limited to slopes <35% ▪Rough, unattractive appearance for first year post-treatment
Manual thinning and felling	$1000 - $3000 per acre	▪Not limited to slopes <35% ▪More control of specific trees removed/left ▪Allows for removal of merchantable/usable wood products, such as firewood ▪Slash must be chipped, hauled away, or burned in piles
Feller Buncher	$800 and up per acre	▪Appropriate for steep slopes with larger-diameter trees ▪Allows for removal of merchantable/usable wood products, such as firewood ▪Generally more expensive than mastication

*Costs per acre are based upon various area contractors' rates for work in the Colorado Front Range and are subject to change.

Figure 7. A feller buncher machine thinning a forest. Photo from USFS.

5.4 Project Support

Several of the recommended actions will require cooperation of various agencies that operate within a given area. Studies, monitoring, and determination of legal jurisdictions are integral to the action items recommended in this CWPP. Although this may add complexity to implementation, it should not discourage communities from pursuing these projects.

Funding and Grants: Due to the high cost of large-scale forestry projects, many landowners and communities are unable to complete complex projects such as shaded fuelbreaks. Grant support may be able to accelerate implementation of treatments. The Jefferson County Office of Emergency Management is an excellent resource for information about available grants. The website *http://www.rockymountainwildlandfire.info/grants.htm* has a searchable grants database, as well as other helpful information about wildfire.

Access/Egress Improvements: The proposed work on roadways may require further study to address engineering and environmental issues, and may be subject to the consent of adjacent landowners or County Road and Bridge.

Public Land Planning: Jefferson County Open Space, Colorado Parks and Wildlife, and the U.S. Forest Service manage forested wildlands in Jefferson County. The CWPP development process is designed to facilitate dialog with these agencies and coordinate public and private wildfire and forest management strategies. As the CWPP strategic plan is implemented, dialog and collaboration should be maintained with these agencies in order to coordinate strategies and treatments, and make adjustments if necessary. Where possible, strategic fuelbreak recommendations should be tied into completed or planned treatment areas on public lands.

Regulatory Support: One of the major issues confronting defensible space and hazardous fuels mitigation is the need for on-going maintenance of treatment areas and defensible space. County zoning resolution Section 52, page 3, paragraph G requires defensible space for new construction and project maintenance to CSFS standards outlined in the 6.302 guidelines (Appendix F). However, there is currently no system or personnel in place to monitor and enforce project maintenance. A solution could be associated with the sale of an existing home or on period of time since initial treatment. Appendix A contains a map showing the existing defensible space

and fuels mitigation projects on parcels throughout the WUI and rural intermix, symbolized by year completed. The oldest treatments should be evaluated for maintenance in order to ensure continued efficacy. For defensible space treatments to remain effective, regulatory impetus by Jefferson County Planning and Zoning is necessary and strongly recommended. The Zoning resolution is located on the Jefferson County website:
http://jeffco.us/jeffco/planning_uploads/zoning/zr_2_8_11/zr_52.pdf

Community-level Regulation: Although the zoning resolution requires defensible space implementation for new construction, there is no retroactive regulation for existing structures. Additionally, once defensible space is completed and approved by County officials, landscaping is often installed near the home that renders the mitigation ineffective. Communities or HOAs with local statutes or covenants should consider defensible space and mitigation regulations as a means to help drive fire mitigation initiative from the bottom up in the absence of local government requirements. Programs like the National Firewise program administered through the NFPA can provide helpful guidelines for implementing measures at this local level.

Figure 8. Designated Firewise community in Elk Creek Fire Protection District. This community achieved Firewise designation through grassroots effort and cooperation with Elk Creek Fire Department.

Continuing Development and Land Use Changes: Some areas of Jefferson County that are more sparsely populated are not currently included within a WUI community boundary. There are areas that will have continuing development in the coming years, which will convert rural intermix and occluded areas into WUI and subsequently change the values at risk. As these communities grow, additional WUI community boundaries should be added to reflect these changes. Although new construction in Jefferson County requires conforming defensible space, additional actions such as shaded fuelbreaks, access and egress improvements, and improved road signage should be planned and implemented as these communities grow and change in the future. As large parcels are subdivided, Jefferson County Planning and Zoning need to ensure proper implementation of fuels mitigation in new developments.

Insurance: Homeowner's insurance typically covers property losses caused by wildfire. However, individual risk factors can affect insurance premiums and availability, so cost and ability to obtain or continue to hold insurance will vary based on individual company policies. Understand what is and is not covered in your homeowner's insurance policy can affect your

ability to rebuild your home and replace your belongings. It is important to conduct a periodic policy check-up to make sure you keep up with local building costs. Adjust your coverage as needed to cover additions or remodels.

It is also strongly recommended to have a home inventory that includes lists and pictures or video of the home's contents. An up-to-date home inventory will expedite the settlement of insurance claims, verify losses for tax returns, and help determine the appropriate amount of insurance.

6 EMERGENCY OPERATIONS

6.1 Response

There are 29 fire stations in Jefferson County. Most residences in the County are located less than five miles from a fire station, and there are currently sufficient VFD personnel to respond to the numerous emergency calls they receive each year. In wildland areas outside of the WUI zones in the County, response time could be long due to rugged terrain and lack of road access. However, there is currently adequate staff and equipment to effectively handle the majority of fire and medical emergencies. Jefferson County maintains a certified Type 3 Incident Management Team for overhead support in the event of a multiple-day fire event. Should a complex fire event extend past 36 hours, a Type 2 or Type 1 IMT may be brought to the County.

According to the 2011 Jefferson County Annual Fire Operating Plan, the County and fire protection Countys are responsible for suppressing fires on all private and State lands. For initial attack, the agency which is in the best position at the time the fire is reported shall take action to respond. Responses to wildfires located in “no-man’s lands” will be consistent with the Jefferson “County Intergovernmental Agreement for Mutual Aid between Fire Departments" signed by participant fire departments in 1993. The 2011 version is currently being circulated for signing and adoption.

Mutual Aid
In the event of a more complex or extended wildfire incident, smaller fire departments may require assistance from other fire departments and government agencies. It is the responsibility of fire protection districts and other jurisdictional agencies (such as the USFS) to maintain and update their mutual aid agreements as needed. The complete definitions and limitations of local mutual aid agreements are located as an attachment in the Jefferson County Annual Fire Operating Plan.

Training and National Wildfire Coordinating Group Positions
Maintaining or increasing the level of fireline leadership requires considerable commitment from the department and its volunteers. Completion of taskbooks for wildland firefighter/incident management positions is subject to availability of wildfire assignments. Volunteer firefighter participation in prescribed fires managed by the CSFS, JCSO, and USFS provide excellent opportunities for fireline training and maintenance of qualifications and skills. The NWCG standards may be challenging to obtain in a timely manner, but can be used as a general guideline for training targets.

Example of NWCG positions & training targets:
- Year 1: Officers initiate FFT1/ICT5 taskbook. Classes: S-131, S-133
- Year 2: Officers complete FFT1/ICT5 taskbook. Engineers initiate FFT1/ICT5 taskbook.
- Year 3: Officers initiate ENGB taskbook. Engineers complete FFT1/ICT5 taskbook and classes S-290, S-230
- Year 4: Officers complete ENGB taskbook and begin working towards engine strike team leader (STEN) and ICT4. Classes: S-200, S-330. Engineers work towards ENGB as able.

- Additional courses that are not required, but recommended: S-290, S-230 (for ICT5), S- 215 (for ENGB).

Performance Standards
Firefighters that have a National Wildfire Coordination Group (NWCG) wildfire qualification of Firefighter Type 2 (FFT2) or higher must complete a yearly refresher training that includes a simulated deployment of a fire shelter and pass an arduous-level physical fitness test.

6.2 Emergency Procedures and Evacuation

In the event that the County Sheriff orders a community to evacuate because of threatening wildfire, residents should leave in an orderly manner. The Sheriff would proclaim the preferred evacuation routes and evacuation center sites. However, the need for evacuation can occur without notice when a wildfire is imminent. Homeowners should be prepared to evacuate without formal notice.

Before residents leave, they should take every precaution to reduce the chance of structure loss if time allows. Windows and doors should be closed but not locked. Other openings should be covered. A ladder should be placed for roof access by firefighters. A fully charged hose that reaches around the house should also be available for firefighter use. Porch lights should be left on to allow firefighters to find homes at night. Additional actions could include thoroughly irrigating the defensible space, watering down the roof, or removing patio furniture. However, human safety is the number one concern in an evacuation; staying too long could compromise a safe escape. Families should have preplanned meeting locations and phone numbers to call in case family members are separated. Families should take with them important papers, documents, pets, food, water, and other essential items.

Evacuation procedures vary according to subdivision. Every resident should be familiar with these procedures, including primary and secondary routes, and the location of any designated community safety zone. Pre-plans outline available evacuation centers, which are initiated by the County Sheriff's Office. These procedures should be addressed in public or HOA meetings with information eventually being distributed door to door. Agreements would need to be pre-planned with landowners to make use of these as emergency escape routes.

Upon returning to the home, the exterior of the house should be monitored for smoke for several days. Embers may lodge in small cracks and crevices and smolder for several hours or days before flaming.

Given that many Jefferson County residents own horses and other livestock, large animal evacuation centers also need to be identified prior to emergencies. The Jefferson County Horse Evacuation Assistance Team (Jeffco HEAT) is a team of highly trained volunteers that operates in the area to provide large animal evacuations in wildfires and other natural disasters. Information can be found at *http://jeffcoheat.org/.*

7 CWPP MONITORING AND EVALUATION

7.1 CWPP Adoption

The HFRA and FEMA Disaster - Mitigation Act of 2000 requires that the CWPP be formally adopted by the core team. The final draft of the revision was presented to the revision core team for comment before signing. The core team has also ensured that the plan meets CSFS minimum standards for CWPP prior to final signing by State and County officials.

With an adopted CWPP, Jefferson County, fire protection Countys, and local communities will receive additional consideration on future grant applications that can help implement the recommendations in the CWPP. While not required, an adopted CWPP may be a criterion for favorable ranking and/or a grant prerequisite of their applications.

7.2 Sustaining CWPP Efforts

Implementing and sustaining the CWPP is the key to its success. The CWPP process encourages citizens to take an active role as fuel treatment strategies continue to be developed and prioritized. Maintaining the momentum created by this process is critical to successful implementation and ongoing efforts. Local government, fire protection Countys and land management agencies are committed to supporting fire protection and emergency services within the County and surrounding areas. It is important that the County continue to provide support in maintaining hazard assessment information and emergency management coordination. Stakeholders will implement recommended actions by working with fire authorities, community organizations, private landowners, and public agencies.

Building these partnerships is necessary in identifying and prioritizing measures to reduce wildfire hazards. Maintaining this cooperation is a long-term effort that requires the commitment of all parties involved. It is crucial that citizens take an active role in identifying needs, developing strategies, and implementing solutions to address hazards, and participating in fire prevention and mitigation activities.

7.3 CWPP Oversight, Monitoring, and Evaluation

As wildfire hazard reduction efforts continue to be implemented over time, and the characteristics of WUI zones change, neighborhoods should reassess and update the findings of the CWPP. All CWPPs are meant to be living documents that change in response to the changing conditions, values, and needs of the communities. With these changes, action items may be re-prioritized or added.

Fire protection Countys and communities should be responsible for periodic CWPP monitoring and evaluation. This can be accomplished through regular meetings, public involvement, coordination with other County partners and stakeholders. Evaluation can include analysis of the effectiveness of past mitigation projects as well as recent wildfire suppression efforts, if applicable. This ongoing effort helps determine whether the CWPP goals and objectives are being met. Ultimately, the responsibility lies with the community, given that neither the USFS

nor the CSFS mandates completion of mitigation on private property. It is in the best interest of these local stakeholders to follow through and help implement the CWPP for the benefit to their communities. Table 13 provides a suggested schedule with explanation of monitoring and evaluation tasks.

Table 13. Monitoring and Evaluation Tasks

Objective	Tasks	Timeline
Risk & Hazard Assessment	▪Use reliable data that is compatible among partner agencies	Ongoing
	▪Update CWPP as new information becomes available	As needed
	▪Periodically assess wildfire risks and hazards in communities	Biennial
Fuels Reduction	▪Identify and prioritize fuels treatment projects on public land through development of a 5-year plan	As needed
	▪Track fuels reduction and defensible space projects on private land	Annual
	▪Monitor fuels redution projects along evacuation routes	Annual
	▪Track grants and other funding sources and submit appropriate applications	Ongoing
Emergency Management	▪Provide training opportunities for firefighters	Annual
	▪Review suiability and need for additional fuels reduction	Biennial
Public Outreach	▪Plan and hold Firewise education week	Annual
	▪ProvideFirewise pamphlets at public events	Ongoing
	▪Evaluate techniques used to motivate and educate private landowners	Annual

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