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The National Cohesive Wildland Fire Management Strategy and Risk Analysis – Phase III Report

Report of the Cohesive Strategy Subcommittee

Draft Version: August 2, 2013



Resilient Landscapes



Fire Adapted Communities



Wildfire Response

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DRAFT

1 **EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

2 *NOTE: The CSSC plans to complete this section after WFEF review and comments. Thoughts for this*
3 *section include a synopsis of next steps and conclusions, a focus on the policy option areas of emphasis,*
4 *and ongoing efforts to address barriers and critical success factors.*

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SECTION A: INTRODUCTION

Purpose

The National Risk Analysis Report is the third national report of the National Cohesive Wildland Fire Management Strategy (Cohesive Strategy). This Phase III report, in conjunction with the National Action Plan to be released in early 2014, represents the culmination of more than three years of effort in developing an innovative national approach to address the increasingly complex reality of wildland fire management in the United States. The intent of this report is to develop a comprehensive, science-based cohesive strategy which addresses the significant, long-standing challenges to managing the ever-growing wildfire situation facing this Nation.

These major challenges include:

- **Threats to Healthy Landscapes:** Declining forest and rangeland health associated with the exclusion of periodic fires due to decades of aggressive wildfire suppression, and lack of active management of wildland fuels across the national landscape, have significantly contributed to a decline in fire resilient ecosystems, an increase in wildfire burn severity, and the increasing risk of destructive wildfires which damage landscapes and threaten associated communities. This threat is further exacerbated by climatic changes, insect and disease outbreaks, and the expansion of invasive species.
- **Threat of Wildfire to Communities:** Prevention and suppression of all wildfires is not always possible. Much of the public, especially those living in or near fire-prone communities, generally have not recognized or accepted the need to assume primary responsibility for making their individual properties fire-resistant.
- **Risk to Public and Firefighter Safety:** Public and firefighter safety must always take precedence over property and resource loss. Increasing trends in the size of large wildfires, their intensity, and the growth and complexity of the wildland-urban interface and intermix continue to present obstacles to protecting life and property.

The purpose of this report is to provide stakeholders across the nation a platform for devising a shared strategy that will guide decision-making to best use ecological, social and economic resources to prepare for, respond to, and recover from inevitable wildland fires.

The Cohesive Strategy is unprecedented in its focus on initiating dialogue and collaboration on a national scale. The Cohesive Strategy differs from previous fire strategies by taking an

1 “all lands” view of wildland fire management. Wildfire recognizes no boundaries – neither
2 ownership lines, nor jurisdictional borders. Policymakers must take a landscape-level
3 approach and work across boundaries to implement effective management techniques.
4 And interested stakeholders must be involved, including those who own the land, those
5 who use the land, and those who manage the land.

6 National wildfire challenges or issues play out in the areas of policy, decision, science, and
7 collaboration. Issues in any one of these areas might create a challenge to successful
8 resolution. A successful national strategy will need to consider current policies, decision-
9 making and collaboration processes, and available science information and proven
10 professional practices. Understanding policy options that facilitate actions to reduce
11 wildfire risk and overcome barriers that prevent effective actions is an important part of
12 developing a national strategy. Understanding roles, responsibilities, and decision-making
13 from national levels to on-the-ground decisions need to be considered. It is also important
14 that all stakeholders collaborate to understand risks and contribute to implementing
15 actions at all levels.

16 The facilitated decision making process and powerful data-driven modeling system being
17 developed to support the Cohesive Strategy utilizes stakeholder and expert input to
18 demonstrate impacts and tradeoffs around implementation strategy. The information
19 generated as part of this process can be utilized to inform decisions and suggest
20 management options tailored to meet identified needs. The modeling system for
21 landscape, social and fire analysis will continue to be used into the future.

22 **Background**

23 The Cohesive Strategy was developed in response to growing concern over mounting
24 annual costs of fighting wildfires and devastating wildland fire losses to communities and
25 values at risk. As early as 1999, and in published documents since that time, the U.S.
26 General Accountability Office (GAO) called for the development of a cohesive strategy to
27 address destructive wildfire threats. In 2009, Congress passed the Federal Land Assistance
28 and Enhancement Act (FLAME Act), which authorized a supplemental funding source for
29 federal emergency wildland fire suppression.

30 In addition, the FLAME Act directs the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) and the
31 Department of the Interior (DOI) to develop a national cohesive wildland fire management
32 strategy to comprehensively address wildland fire management in the United States.
33 Specifically, the Act describes seven needs for the future of fire management: identification
34 of the most cost-effective way to allocate the fire management budget; reinvestment in
35 non-fire programs; appropriate management response to wildfires; assessing communities

1 level of risk; hazardous fuels monies allocated on a priority basis; impact of climate change
2 on frequency and severity of wildfires; and effects of invasive species on wildfire risk. All
3 three phases of the Cohesive Strategy and the analysis conducted as part of Phase III
4 support each element of the FLAME Act and help to illuminate issues and complexities
5 involved in wildland fire management using a wealth of methods, data and analytical
6 techniques.

7 The Cohesive Strategy acknowledges the reality that fire is a natural process necessary for
8 the maintenance of many ecosystems, and focuses on attempting to reduce the conflict
9 between fire-prone landscapes and people. By simultaneously considering the role of fire
10 in the landscape, the ability of humans to plan for and adapt to living with fire, and the need
11 to be prepared to respond to fire when it occurs, the Cohesive Strategy takes a holistic
12 approach to wildland fire.

13 The Cohesive Strategy has been developed in three phases. It is important to understand
14 that the completion of each phase of the Cohesive Strategy is a separate milestone, but the
15 Cohesive Strategy is a national, iterative process that will continue into the future. In Phase
16 I the Wildland Fire Leadership Council (WFLC) adopted a vision for the next century:

17 *To safely and effectively extinguish fire, when needed; use fire where allowable;*
18 *manage our natural resources; and as a nation, live with wildland fire.*

19 Also during Phase I, stakeholders met to collaboratively develop national goals, identify
20 broad performance measures, and establish the guiding principles of the Cohesive Strategy.
21 Three primary factors were identified as presenting the greatest challenges and the
22 greatest opportunities for making a positive difference in addressing wildland fire
23 problems in order to achieve the vision stated above. These three primary factors have
24 become the goals of the Cohesive Strategy:

25 **Restore and maintain landscapes:** Landscapes across all jurisdictions are
26 resilient to fire-related disturbances in accordance with management objectives.

27 **Fire adapted communities:** Human populations and infrastructure can withstand
28 a wildfire without loss of life and property.

29 **Wildfire response:** All jurisdictions participate in making and implementing safe,
30 effective, efficient risk-based wildfire management decisions.

31 The policy options, strategies, and recommendations presented in this report are
32 consistent with the following Guiding Principles of the National Cohesive Wildland Fire
33 Management Strategy which were developed during Phase I:

- 1 • Reducing risk to firefighters and the public is the first priority in every fire
2 management activity.
- 3 • Sound risk management is the foundation for all management activities.
- 4 • Actively manage the land to make it more resilient to disturbance, in accordance
5 with management objectives.
- 6 • Improve and sustain both community and individual responsibilities to prepare for,
7 respond to and recover from wildfire through capacity-building activities.
- 8 • Rigorous wildfire prevention programs are supported across all jurisdictions.
- 9 • Wildland fire, as an essential ecological process and natural change agent, may be
10 incorporated into the planning process and wildfire response.
- 11 • Fire management decisions are based on the best available science, knowledge and
12 experience, and used to evaluate risk versus gain.
- 13 • Local, state, tribal and federal agencies support one another with wildfire response,
14 including engagement in collaborative planning and the decision-making processes
15 that take into account all lands and recognize the interdependence and statutory
16 responsibilities among jurisdictions.
- 17 • Where land and resource management objectives differ, prudent and safe actions
18 must be taken through collaborative fire planning and suppression response to keep
19 unwanted wildfires from spreading to adjacent jurisdictions.
- 20 • Safe aggressive initial attack is often the best suppression strategy to keep
21 unwanted wildfires small and costs down.
- 22 • Fire management programs and activities are economically viable and
23 commensurate with values to be protected, land and resource management
24 objectives, and social and environmental quality considerations.

25 The Cohesive Strategy is unique compared to previous national wildfire policies and
26 strategies, because it takes a more comprehensive approach to stakeholder involvement,
27 integrates over 100 layers of information from applicable national data sources, uses an
28 empirical analysis of all available data layers, and incorporates the three geographic
29 regional perspectives, issues, and solutions early in its development. Work at this regional
30 level began in Phase II of the strategy with the creation of the regional strategy committees
31 (RSC). Each RSC – Northeast, Southeast and West – is comprised of a diverse group of

1 stakeholders, including wildland fire management agencies and organizations, land
2 managers, and policy-making officials, representing all levels of government and non-
3 governmental organizations. The RSCs conducted assessments, prioritized actions that
4 were responsive to regional goals and identified regional challenges and opportunities for
5 improved land and fire management, consistent with the stated goals of the strategy, and
6 having a foundation in science.

7 Phase III serves as the conclusion of the development stage of the Cohesive Strategy.
8 During the first part of Phase III, the National Science and Analysis Team (NSAT) worked
9 with the regions to bring together data describing the wildland fire situation in each region.
10 Using this information, the regions developed Regional Risk Analysis reports containing
11 recommendations for moving toward the three Cohesive Strategy goals. This work was
12 further refined in Regional Action Plans which describe the actions and tasks envisioned to
13 implement the recommendations, including recommendations for agencies and other
14 stakeholders to be involved in each action. These regional reports and action plans have
15 been examined in this report to gain additional insights that contribute to a more
16 comprehensive national perspective.

17 The second part of the Phase III process involves the analysis of data and the development
18 of models useful to understand trade-offs at the national level. The work of the regions
19 informs the analysis at the national level, which also includes an in-depth analysis of
20 wildland fire issues and interrelationships among biophysical and socio-economic drivers,
21 and the identification of broad policy options and mapping of areas of greatest potential.

22 More information on the Cohesive Strategy can be found on the website
23 www.ForestsAndRangelands.gov, including the foundational national documents, Phase I
24 and Phase II national and regional reports, and the Phase III Regional Risk Analysis Reports
25 and Action Plans.

26 **Expectations for the Future**

27 The Cohesive Strategy brings together federal, tribal, state and local government agencies
28 and non-governmental organizations, treating all as partners working toward agreed upon
29 goals, with a new joint and holistic approach to decision-making. This new strategy
30 considers the dynamic nature of national challenges, provides models that help determine
31 priorities, and considers landscape-scale solutions that include all stakeholders. Therefore,
32 the publication of the Phase III report is not the end of the Cohesive Strategy process; it is
33 only the end of the planning phase of the strategy development. Implementation of the
34 Cohesive Strategy by the diverse partners will continue through the decisions that are

1 made, informed by a scientific method, to effectively prepare for, utilize, and respond to
2 wildland fire.

3 Success in achieving the three broad goals of the Cohesive Strategy is a long-term
4 proposition – no single decision by policymakers or management action by land managers
5 will solve the nation’s complex wildland fire issues. The analysis conducted at the national
6 level, as well as the National Action Plan that is in development, may impact the regional
7 action plans. New information and methods of utilizing the information presented in this
8 document will be combined with stakeholder feedback to update the regional plans, and an
9 on-going process of adaptive management will be used to ensure that the regions employ
10 policies that are working to reduce the risk of wildfire to landscapes and communities
11 across the nation.

12 **Implications for Policy**

13 Through an iterative and collaborative process among stakeholders, the RSCs have
14 assembled a comprehensive list of risks, issues, and recommendations for action within the
15 Regional Risk Analysis Reports that help to inform this National Risk Analysis Report. As
16 current levels of resources and funding likely are insufficient to fully implement all
17 recommendations, the National Science and Analysis Team (NSAT) was asked to explore
18 various potential national policy options for achieving the national goals of the Cohesive
19 Strategy and to identify the trade-offs and risks inherent in each option. In conducting the
20 national level trade-off analysis, the NSAT broadly interprets “policy options” as being
21 strategic direction that would lead to greater or less emphasis on various mixes of
22 management actions in different contexts and locations. The national analysis helps
23 prioritize potential actions across the landscape, based on improved understanding of
24 relevant environmental and social conditions. The analysis of each policy option and
25 underlying data will be useful further deliberations among stakeholders, partners,
26 agencies, and policy makers as decision processes move forward.

27

1 SECTION B. NATIONAL COMMUNICATIONS 2 AND STAKEHOLDER ENGAGEMENT

3 Cohesive Strategy Communication

4 The development of the Cohesive Strategy forged a new path forward by building on
5 successes of the past and incorporating a new collaborative approach to managing the
6 complex national fire problem. This new approach includes all the partners involved in fire
7 management and gives each a voice in addressing a collective problem. A true Cohesive
8 Strategy must be inclusive and shaped by a shared vision. Relationships need to be
9 strengthened and new ones built. Issues of trust and skepticism need to be recognized and
10 overcome. It is important that stakeholder values and concerns are understood and
11 reflected.

12 It was recognized early on that the human dimension must have equal weight with the
13 physical, biological, and ecological dimensions of wildfire. Collaboration is the fundamental
14 process used to build local, regional and national shared understandings, goals, and mutual
15 trust necessary to undertake joint actions.

16 The National Communications Working Group developed a National Communication
17 Framework to support development of the Cohesive Strategy. It provides communication
18 guidance and support to agencies, organizations, stakeholders, and interested individuals
19 involved in the Cohesive Strategy communications effort. The goals of the Framework
20 include keeping people informed about the Cohesive Strategy, implementing
21 communication processes that enhance and sustain collaboration among stakeholders, and
22 guiding future communication efforts during Cohesive Strategy implementation.

23 During the Cohesive Strategy development process, the emphasis was on large-scale
24 regional and national collaboration, engaging a highly diverse population of stakeholders.
25 Regional and national dialog was promoted among stakeholders to help develop shared
26 wildland fire understandings and goals, develop mutual trust agreement, and encourage
27 commitment to work together toward implementation. Every attempt was made to engage
28 a broad spectrum of stakeholders in Cohesive Strategy development and increase
29 awareness and understanding of the Cohesive Strategy.

1 **Regional Communication Plans to Implement the Cohesive**

2 **Strategy**

3 Cohesive Strategy Regional Action Plans of the three regions were analyzed by the National
4 Communication Working Group to identify overarching themes, commonalities, and
5 differences among the planned communication actions. Communication, Collaboration,
6 Education, and Evidence-Based Implementation are the broad, common action themes
7 identified by the regions. These themes are elaborated in greater detail in the three
8 Regional Action Plans.

9 **Communication**

- 10 • All Regions will maintain a focus on continued stakeholder communications and
11 outreach. Regions recognize the need to have a communication structure in place
12 and to commit resources for this effort.
- 13 • Public and professional interests in wildland fire are highly diverse. A variety of
14 communications are required to meet their needs.
15

16 **Collaboration**

17 All regions recognize the importance of expanding collaborative partnerships to facilitate
18 action toward the regional goals. This requires the development of strategic partnerships
19 to achieve the goals, as well as shared accountability for outcomes. Communities engaged
20 in comprehensive wildfire risk reduction efforts must address a number of interrelated
21 challenges in the areas of landscape resiliency, fire adapted communities, and wildfire
22 response. Collaboration requires significant communication and negotiation among
23 multiple public and private entities.

24 **Education**

25 Education is the third common element identified by the regions. Because many different
26 stakeholders will implement the Cohesive Strategy, fire education is essential. The more
27 collaborators know about fire, the more successful their efforts at collaboration will be.
28 Although North American communities are famous for coming together to solve local
29 problems, better understanding of the collaboration process will make those efforts more
30 successful. Education programs, materials, and teachers need to be developed to deliver
31 fire and collaboration education in the different regions.

1 **Evidence-Based Implementation**

2 The Cohesive Strategy is science-based and driven by data. Building and managing data
3 systems, and securing and sustaining the needed data and information for use by local
4 decision-makers, is a key component of Cohesive Strategy communications.

5 **Distributed Communication and Education**

6 The National Communications Working Group recognizes that the vast majority of
7 communications about the Cohesive Strategy will originate with the many different
8 stakeholder agencies and organizations. By contrast, a relatively small part will originate
9 with the Cohesive Strategy communication organizations at the regional and national level.
10 The regional and national communication organizations will succeed by supporting
11 stakeholder communication and informing and joining in the formal and informal
12 communication networks where the Cohesive Strategy is discussed.

13 Nationally, we are looking to collaboratives and other entities to support education and to
14 disseminate information about the fundamentals of wildland fire knowledge and to spread
15 shared understandings of what can and cannot be done to reduce wildfire risk.
16 Stakeholders can provide learning opportunities where the different publics can explore
17 the fundamentals of wildland fire, fire’s ecological and social effects, and fire management.
18 Educational institutions and others can deliver adult education in collaboration.

19

SECTION C - REGIONAL CONTEXT

In Phase III of the Cohesive Strategy, the three regions worked with practitioners and the NSAT to describe the wildfire situation in each region using bio-physical and socio-economic data. The overall findings from the three regional risk analysis reports will be briefly described here. For the full analyses, see the Phase III Regional Risk Analysis Reports posted in the reports library at www.forestsandrangelands.gov. The Risk Analysis Reports led to recommendations by the three regions for actions that should be taken at both the regional and national levels to effect the needed improvements to landscapes, communities, and fire response. All of the actions were vetted through regional practitioners and stakeholders, and are presented in the Action Plans with the full support of the Regional Strategy Committees. Actions were further refined, with specific tasks developed in the Regional Action Plans, and posted in the reports library at www.forestsandrangelands.gov.

The section below presents a brief synopsis of the wildland fire issues in each of the three regions. Each region is unique in its environments and its experience with wildland fire. Yet, there are issues that are common to the regions. Following the regional context descriptions, this section sets out the issues that are noted by two or more regions in their reports, making the issues national in scope, and barriers and critical success factors identified and prioritized by all three regions in Phase II.

Northeast Regional Context

The Northeast Region is comprised of diverse ecosystems; from prairie to pine, hardwoods to boreal forests, from coastal wetlands to mountains, displaying the full range of fire regimes across the region. Some of the most critically endangered ecosystems include grasslands, savannas, and pine barrens.

In the Northeast, the vast majority of land is in private ownership. Land uses and ownership patterns are complex, with many small holdings, and a diverse range of owner objectives. Public lands are often isolated among other land uses, including private and industrial forests and agricultural lands. Many public lands are managed for multiple uses.

The Northeast can be described in risk management terms as having a large number of small, mostly human-caused, wildfires with a low occurrence of large wildfires, but all these present a high risk to life and property when they do occur. The larger fires tend to occur in areas that contain more contiguous and undeveloped forested tracts of land. Many wildland fires can be fast moving, but are often contained within a single day. Most wildfires are human-caused; accidental fires and arson are the primary causes of fires in

1 the region. During the five year period, 2008-2012, the Northeast had an average of 21,083
2 wildfires reported per year, which burned an average of 135,591 acres each year (National
3 Interagency Coordination Center, 2013).

4 The risk of wildfire increases as a result of natural events. Wind, ice, disease and insects can
5 create large areas of downed timber and increased fuels (vegetation), leading to
6 exacerbated wildfire conditions. All ecosystems can experience short and long-term
7 wildfire hazards if these event fuels remain in place. The removal of event fuels before a
8 wildfire is crucial as population continues to grow in forested areas, with homes and
9 infrastructure in proximity to wildland fuels. These event fuels may also represent an
10 economic opportunity to supply forest product needs, ranging from biomass to higher
11 valued products.

12 In the Northeast Region, wildland fire management responsibilities are characterized by a
13 patchwork of jurisdictions and ownership, and often more than one agency may be
14 involved in the management of wildland fire incidents. Firefighter and public safety is of
15 utmost concern at every level. Wildland fire management is the result of collaboration,
16 partnerships, and cooperation among states, (interstate forest fire compacts), federal fire
17 management agencies (e.g. The Forest Service (FS), Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA), National
18 Park Service (NPS), United States Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS), tribal governments,
19 and many local fire departments). State forestry agencies are typically the lead agency in
20 wildfire suppression and have been mandated to suppress all wildfires. Maintaining or
21 increasing the capacity of local fire departments to respond to wildfires is vital to augment
22 state, federal, and tribal response needs. Most of the fire community is also vital to all
23 hazard response in the Northeast. Effective integration of wildfire response training into
24 all-hazard response trainings is critical to maintaining local response capability in the
25 Northeast.

26 Homes and infrastructure are involved in a high percentage of wildfires in the region. Due
27 to the heavy population and large proportion of landscape in the WUI/intermix, even small
28 wildfires threaten structures, which increases the risk and complexity for firefighters. A
29 proactive, collaborative approach to identifying risks in the WUI, combined with developing
30 Community Wildfire Protection Plans (CWPPs), reducing hazardous fuels, treating event
31 fuels, and educating the public in the context of managing fuels across a multi-
32 jurisdictional, fragmented landscape will prepare communities for wildfire. The Northeast
33 believes that focusing on preventing unwanted fires and increasing homeowner-shared
34 responsibility will reduce firefighter risk and decrease the need for firefighting responses.

1 Southeast Regional Context

2 The Southeast region is comprised of thirteen states, stretching from the Atlantic seaboard
3 west through Texas, including Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands. The Southeast has
4 many diverse fire-dependent ecosystems including: the Florida Everglades, coastal pine
5 forests, Appalachian montane forests, and the grasslands of Texas. The Southeast wildfire
6 problem is characterized by a year-round fire season, highly fragmented land ownership,
7 an expansive WUI throughout much of the South and high population growth in WUI areas,
8 high fuel loading, and a high number of unplanned ignitions. The majority of unplanned
9 ignitions in the Southeast are human-caused. For the five year period of 2008-2012, the
10 Southeast had an average of 38,582 wildfires reported each year, burning an average of
11 1,733,496 acres (National Interagency Coordination Center, 2013).

12 Approximately 89% of the burnable acres in the Southeast are privately owned by people
13 with differing land use objectives. Landscape management requires a focus on
14 collaboration between government and non-government agencies, individuals, and other
15 interests.

16 Wildland fire is a key process in southern ecosystems to maintain resiliency, ecosystem
17 health, wildlife habitat, and ecosystem services, as such as timber products and stable
18 carbon storage. Southeast forest ecosystems have a frequent fire return interval due to the
19 long growing season. Prescribed burning is a common practice to prevent the build-up of
20 excessive fuel loads and manage for other benefits, such as wildlife habitat. In the past, the
21 Southeastern fire and land management community has relied on cultural and historical
22 acceptance of land management activities, including prescribed fire, to facilitate their
23 implementation of appropriate management activities. New residents, however, are often
24 unfamiliar with the use of fire as a valuable management tool. This population and an
25 accompanying significant urbanized demographic shift, along with other factors, are
26 creating new challenges for the fire management community.

27 The Southeast is experiencing rapid urbanization, leading to the development of many
28 dense human communities located in landscapes that require frequent burning for
29 hazardous fuel reduction and ecosystem maintenance. As the extent of the WUI increases,
30 so does the potential for impacts from prescribed burning and wildfires. The mosaic of
31 urban and wildlands compounds issues related to smoke, emissions release, liability, and
32 the acceptance of fire by the general public. New residents need to be educated with
33 respect to wildland fire, the use of prescribed burning, and effective land management of
34 their own property to reduce wildland fire risk.

1 The diversity of ecosystems, land management goals, and landscapes across the Southeast
2 means that a single solution will not work for everyone. Additionally, with nearly 90
3 percent of Southeastern land owned privately, decisions cannot be made at the state or
4 regional level for the vast majority of landholdings. Instead, partners in the Cohesive
5 Strategy may, moving forward, work collectively with land managers and landowners,
6 using the best available information, to encourage and inform their decision-making
7 process to help address issues and challenges related to wildland fire.

8 **Western Regional Context**

9 The West is comprised of diverse landscapes stretching from the great plains of Nebraska
10 and Kansas to the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific coast and beyond, from the deserts of
11 Arizona and New Mexico to the arctic tundra of Alaska, and including the state of Hawaii
12 and the Pacific Island territories. Wildland fire management in the West is challenging due
13 to a variety of factors including: steepness of terrain, access limitations, changing climate
14 conditions, and invasive species. Many parts of the West are experiencing extended
15 drought for more than a decade. Drought is one stressor that leads to increased wildfire
16 threats. A stressed system or forest is more susceptible to infestations of insects,
17 pathogens, and disease, which can kill vegetation, and in some areas of the West has left
18 millions of acres of dead, standing trees. In the past five years, 2008-2012, the West had an
19 average of 23, 091 reported wildfires, burning an annual average of 4,666,030 acres
20 (National Interagency Coordination Center, 2013).

21 A century of widespread fire exclusion and the more recent severe reduction of active
22 forest management have resulted in a build-up of surface fuels (downed wood, litter and
23 duff) and the overstocking of forests with trees and ladder fuels. Large areas of western
24 grasslands and fire-adapted forests are in need of restoration. The forest and rangeland
25 health problems in the West are widespread and increasing, affecting wildlife habitat,
26 water quality and quantity and long-term soil productivity, while providing conditions for
27 uncharacteristically large, severe, and costly wildfires, with increasing threats to human life
28 and property. Residents suffer from smoke in the air through much of the summer months,
29 leading to health effects such as emphysema and heart disease. These environmental
30 conditions, along with the effects of an expanding wildland urban interface (WUI) underlie
31 four broad areas of risk: risk to firefighters and civilian safety, ecological risks, social risks,
32 and economic risks.

33 Large blocks of publicly owned land characterize the West. Public lands comprise more
34 than half the total land area. Fires that start on public lands and move out onto private land,
35 threatening communities, are a major problem in the West. This is compounded by the
36 scarce location of fire protection resources. Vast expanses of the West have less than one

1 fire station per 100 square miles. This leads to extended response times in rural areas -
2 areas often characterized by federal ownership, steep slopes, beetle-killed trees, and poor
3 road access.

4 Western stakeholders identified protection of the “middle ground”, areas between
5 communities and the more distant wildlands, as an important regional value. While they
6 expressed concern over community protection, they also want middle ground areas
7 protected from extreme wildfire events. The West needs large landscape scale changes in
8 vegetative structure and fuel loadings to significantly alter wildfire behavior, reduce
9 wildfire losses, ensure firefighter and public safety, and improve landscape resiliency.
10 Active management of public and private land holdings is needed, with emphasis on federal
11 forest management/harvesting and thinning operations to reduce hazardous fuels in and
12 around communities and in the middle ground.

13 The West envisions expanding fire adapted communities work to speed up the
14 development of fire adapted communities and to link them into a sub-regional
15 communication and learning network. Fire adaptation is viewed as a continuum, with
16 communities moving toward fire adaptation through concerted collaborative effort
17 including: CWPPs, firewise communities, fuels treatments, the ready, set, go program, and
18 many more activities at the community level. Fire adaptation is a continuous process that
19 requires annual renewal of efforts to be prepared and to keep fuels at reduced levels.
20 Communities need technical and financial support to continue to move closer to a fire
21 adapted status.

22 **Barriers and Critical Success Factors and Issues of National** 23 **Concern**

24 Representatives of the three regional strategy committees came together in Phase II to
25 identify national priority barriers and critical success factors for improved landscape
26 resiliency, fire adapted communities and improved fire response. Initially, there was a list
27 of over 40 barriers/critical success factors. Through discussions between the regions, the
28 CSSC, and the WFEC, a list of 11 were selected as being common to all regions and of
29 significant importance to be addressed first.

30 The terms as used in this process are defined as:

31 **Barriers** – Must be removed in order for the Cohesive Strategy to be successful.

32 **Critical Success Factors** – Must be present for the Cohesive Strategy to be
33 successful.

1 Each of the 11 barriers and critical success factors (CSF) that follow was selected by the
2 RSCs as being the highest priority barriers/CSFs to be addressed in order to contribute to
3 the successful implementation of the Cohesive Strategy.

4 1. **Increase Fuels Management on Private Land** – There is a need to increase private
5 land management assistance to complement and implement broader fuel reduction
6 management objectives across fire prone landscapes. Incentives for private
7 landowners are needed to increase the fuels management on private lands. There is a
8 need to integrate federal and state level fuels and prevention programs and provide
9 fuels management incentives to mitigate undesired fire effects and property loss.

10
11 2. **Increase Fuels Management on Federal Land** – Need revised standardized guidance
12 and direction for fuels treatments on federal land to enhance fire adapted communities
13 and landscapes. Landscape scale restoration is often difficult to achieve due to the
14 complex process requirements of federal laws, rules and policies. New interpretation
15 and engagement with key partners can take advantage of flexibility that currently
16 exists, but may not be exercised for fear of litigation.

17
18 3. **Growth Management, Land Development and Zoning Laws** – Reducing the risk to
19 firefighters and homeowners, reduced suppression costs, and lower insurance rates is a
20 top priority. There is a need for growth management, land development, and zoning
21 laws that require defensible space and wildland fire risk reduction actions as
22 communities develop; and the maintenance of wildland fire risk reduction practices,
23 e.g., defensible space, fire resistant construction, hazard reduction, etc.

24
25 4. **Inefficiencies in the National Qualification Standards** – Inefficiencies in the national
26 qualification standards and procedures must be addressed to increase response
27 capabilities. Develop one wildland fire qualification standard for the federal, state,
28 tribal, and local wildfire community. Currently NWCG PMS 310-1 provides
29 qualifications for national mobilization and recognizes the ability to accept
30 qualifications of local jurisdictions while in those jurisdictions. These standards are in
31 sync with FEMA NIC efforts to bridge the gap with local government.

32
33 5. **Remove Policy Barriers and Process Complexities for Sharing Resources** – There is
34 a need to remove policy barriers and process complexities, which affect the ability to
35 effectively and efficiently share resources, not only for wildfire, but for fuels and
36 prescribed fire work. The statutory authority for the USFS to pay for state resources
37 responding to another state's incident, even though the receiving state reimburses the
38 USFS for those responding resources, has been questioned. If not resolved, this issue is

1 likely to restrict mobilization of key resources for the protection of private, state and
2 local government lands.

- 3
- 4 6. **Enforceable Fire Prevention State/Local Ordinances** – There is a need to develop
5 adequate state and local ordinances related to wildfire prevention, which are
6 enforceable. There is clear evidence that small investments in fire prevention help
7 reduce the high cost of fire suppression.
- 8
- 9 7. **FEMA Pre-Disaster Mitigation Program** – There is a desire to enhance the FEMA pre-
10 disaster mitigation program to maximize fuels reduction across the landscape with
11 emphasis on private lands. Currently FEMA has pre-disaster mitigation grants available,
12 but less than 1% of those funds go towards wildland fire mitigation. If those funds
13 could be significantly increased, much more investment could go towards private lands.
- 14
- 15 8. **Assisting Communities at Risk** – Assist communities with evaluating their risk from
16 wildfire, and provide communities with information and tools on how to mitigate risk
17 from wildfire, create and conduct activities to become fire adapted, and track their
18 progress. Education and outreach will include communications promoting self-
19 assessment and identifying local expertise to sustain mitigation efforts.
- 20
- 21 9. **Investment in Firefighting Workforce** – There is a need to invest in the firefighting
22 workforce at the field level. Budget cuts are reducing the number and quality of the on-
23 the-ground firefighting workforce. Budget cuts always seem to land at the field more
24 than at the national level. Continued and increased investment in the firefighting
25 workforce is necessary in order to maintain capacity to respond to wildfire as well as
26 mitigate fire hazards. A lack of investment in the firefighting workforce will lead to
27 fewer firefighters on the ground, reduced safety, reduced capability at accomplishing
28 local projects, and reduced initial attack success. In the long term we face a generation
29 gap in the fire workforce available for future leadership of the program.
- 30
- 31 10. **Improve Fire Data** – The accuracy of various aspects of the LANDFIRE data is
32 questionable, even when used at intended scale. LANDFIRE data is being used
33 nationally to depict existing vegetation, surface and canopy fuels, fire regime condition
34 class, and estimates of national fire hazard/risk. Without accurate data, many
35 assumptions and actions based on this data will be compromised. There is a need for
36 more realistic and accurate depiction of where wildland fire hazard/risk actually occurs
37 across the country, which can be used to base decisions upon.
- 38

1 **11. Intergovernmental Wildland Fire Governance** – There is a need for an
2 intergovernmental wildland fire governance structure to serve the needs of all
3 jurisdictions in both wildland fire and all-risk incidents.

4 Additional information on barriers and critical success factors, including actions to address
5 each, are included in the Next Steps section.

6 In addition to the priority barriers and critical success factors, the three regions identified
7 additional issues or areas of concern that are of national significance. These include:

- 8 1. **Prescribed fire and smoke management** – Recognize the importance of
9 prescribed fire as a landscape management tool, and increase public acceptance of
10 smoke by educating the public about the benefits of prescribed fire.
- 11 2. **Rehabilitation of damaged lands** – Lands damaged by events such as severe storm
12 activity, pests and drought-related effects, and previous wildfires often are at
13 increased risk of wildfire.
- 14 3. **Biomass utilization** – Encourage more biomass utilization as a cost effective means
15 to reduce built-up fuels
- 16 4. **Increasing collaboration with stakeholders and regulatory agencies** – Increase
17 collaboration with stakeholders and regulatory agencies, place emphasis on
18 expanding collaborative land management opportunities, and plan across landscape
19 boundaries. Work together to improve sharing of resources, such as heavy
20 equipment, aircraft, and prescribed burning crews.
- 21 5. **Expand fire adapted communities programs** – Place emphasis on community
22 protection program activities to increase the number of fire adapted communities,
23 and improve the level of wildfire awareness and readiness.
- 24 6. **Protection from unwanted fires for all lands** – Utilize appropriate suppression
25 and detection responsibilities to insure all lands are protected, regardless of land
26 ownership, using agreements or contracts.
- 27 7. **Implement actions from the three regional action plans** – Emphasize and
28 maintain collaboration with stakeholders, and coordinate among all Cohesive
29 Strategy partners to integrate applicable actions into federal land management
30 plans and state forest action plans.

1 Regional Context Summary

2 The regions agree on many of the issues and the actions to be done to improve landscape
3 resiliency, fire adapted communities, and fire response. They support expansion of fuels
4 treatments on public and private lands, active management of public forest lands, support
5 for and expansion of programs and tools to increase fire adapted communities, a reduction
6 of structural ignitability, improved coordination and training among fire responders with a
7 larger workforce, and more. They envision a comprehensive, coordinated response to
8 wildland fire that begins long before the fire starts, and continues through the fire, and
9 supports rehabilitation of damaged lands and communities after the fire.

10 Through experience, the regions have developed ways to deal with wildfire risk. To
11 prepare landscapes and communities for wildland fire, fuels treatments are an essential
12 tool in the toolbox. Fuels treatment effectiveness studies over the past eight years have
13 shown that in 90% of cases where fire burned into treated areas, the treatments changed
14 the fire's behavior by reducing torching, and 86% of the time, the treatment helped in
15 controlling the wildfire (USDA Forest Service, 2013). But treating fuels is not enough.
16 Community knowledge, preparation, and increased suppression ability are all tools in the
17 toolbox for readying fire-prone lands and communities for wildfire. CWPPs have proven
18 their value as an effective tool for raising awareness of wildfire risk, and motivating
19 communities and individuals to prepare by reducing fuels around homes and communities,
20 and replacing flammable building materials, such as wood shingle roofs. CWPPs have also
21 played a role in strategically locating fuels treatments. The regional action plans call for
22 fuels treatments, CWPPs, and many other actions as tools to reduce wildfire risk. The task
23 is enormous, and a national commitment to address wildland fire, in a comprehensive,
24 coordinated and cohesive way, is needed at the national level.

25 It is anticipated the National Action Plan will be derived from: actions to address the
26 barriers and critical success factors; actions in relation to policy options derived from the
27 tradeoff analysis; and actions from regional action plans that are national in scope, or
28 common to multiple regions.

29 The scientific analysis in Section D examines the potential for the application of different
30 policy options in the varied landscapes across the nation. This analysis will provide
31 guidance for what actions might be effective in different regional environments. The time
32 to prepare for wildfire is before the fire starts. Knowing what actions to employ, and where
33 to do them, is a critical element of the Cohesive Strategy. Land and fire managers will work
34 together with community members to prepare for fire so that the threats to landscapes and
35 threats to communities can be diminished. The national analysis and strategy considers
36 these issues at multiple scales. National support and a will to commit to a longterm effort to

1 work at the national, regional, and local levels to address wildfire before the fire, during the
2 fire and after the fire is essential to dealing with the many wildland fire issues across the
3 country, and a true Cohesive Strategy.

4

5

DRAFT

1 SECTION D: NATIONAL ANALYSIS

2 The preceding section identifies various actions and activities identified by the Regional
3 Strategy Committees and collaborators that are designed to advance the goals of the
4 Cohesive Strategy. The recommended actions span multiple issues, ranging from
5 vegetation management, response coordination and training, community preparedness,
6 wildfire prevention, and other related activities. All recommendations have been vetted in
7 regional forums and are based upon practical understanding of the issues involved. The
8 unfortunate reality is that resources and funding are likely insufficient to fully implement
9 all recommendations, making further analysis and prioritization essential.

10 The next logical step in the development of the Cohesive Strategy is a spatial prioritization
11 of actions and activities based upon a rigorous analysis of available information. Analysis
12 can reveal opportunities for greater success, as well as possible barriers (other than
13 resource constraints) that could hinder or prevent some recommendations from being
14 followed. Relatively few actions are likely to work well in all locations; most will vary
15 substantially in effectiveness or efficiency depending upon local conditions. Additional
16 analysis to explore temporal prioritization could further assist entities and decision-
17 makers.

18 In late 2012, the National Science and Analysis Team (NSAT) was asked to explore
19 potential options for achieving the national goals of the Cohesive Strategy and to identify
20 the challenges, opportunities, and trade-offs inherent in each option. The purpose of this
21 national analysis is to provide a broad strategic overview that could inform subsequent
22 decision-making processes. For example, options explored here can help inform choices
23 among more detailed activities described within regional action plans or suggest where
24 actions could be focused from a national program management perspective. This section
25 briefly summarizes the findings of the NSAT in relation to potential policy options that
26 could be considered for national implementation. Here, “policy options” are broadly
27 defined as strategic national direction that would lead to achieving the goals of the
28 Cohesive Strategy. The policy options support intergovernmental decisions regarding
29 whether we should maintain, emphasize, or de-emphasize the various mixes of
30 management actions in different contexts and locations.

31 The key to building national policy options is to understand the underlying relationships
32 among biophysical landscapes, the people that inhabit them, and wildland fire. Gaining a
33 national perspective also requires an approach that essentially dissolves or ignores
34 regional boundaries in order to more clearly see national patterns of similarities and
35 differences.

1 Understanding Fire Regimes

2 Wildland fire from both natural and human causes has played a prominent role in shaping
3 the landscapes of North America for millennia. There is a rich literature on the ecological
4 role of fire in North American ecosystems and widespread appreciation of the historical
5 role that human settlement patterns have had in changing the frequency, extent, and
6 location of fire. There are several recent and accessible summaries of this literature,
7 including Stein and others' (2013) report, [*Wildfire, wildlands, and people: Understanding
8 and preparing for wildfire in the wildland-urban interface—a Forests on the Edge report*](#)¹
9 and references therein.

10 One universally accepted point is nearly all of the natural vegetation communities across
11 North America historically burned—many quite frequently. The intensity with which they
12 burned was a function of both the biophysical environment and the frequency of ignition,
13 both natural and human-caused. In general, more frequent burning is associated with less
14 intense or severe wildfires. Conversely, biomes that burned infrequently generally
15 experienced higher severity fires that often consumed much of the aboveground biomass.
16 This pattern arises naturally from the accumulation of biomass (fuel) between fire events,
17 absent of any other disturbance or activity that would remove the standing fuel. Ecologists
18 use the concept of historical fire regime and fire regime groups (FRG) to characterize the
19 relationship between fire frequency and fire severity and their ecological implications
20 (Table D.1, from Barrett and others [2013]²).

21 Of note is the relatively high frequency of fires in FRG I and II, which historically averaged
22 35 years or less between fire events. These fire regime groups includes many of the fire-
23 adapted forest and rangeland types in the US and account for nearly half of the
24 undeveloped natural vegetation within the conterminous 48 states (Figure D.1),
25 comprising about 1.1 million square miles. If one presumes that this area experienced a
26 fire return interval of 35 years (the upper bound), then a lower bound estimate of roughly
27 31,000 square miles (>20 million ac) would have burned on average each year within these
28 two FRG areas alone. Such estimates are rough, but they provide a sense of perspective

¹ Stein, S.M.; Menakis, J.; Carr, M.A.; Comas, S.J.; Stewart, S.I.; Cleveland, H.; Bramwell, L.; Radeloff, V.C. 2013. *Wildfire, wildlands, and people: understanding and preparing for wildfire in the wildland-urban interface—a Forests on the Edge report*. Gen. Tech. Rep. RMRS-GTR-299. Fort Collins, CO. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Research Station. 36 p.

² Barrett, S.; Havlina, D.; Jones, J.; Hann, W.; Frame, C.; Hamilton, D.; Schon, K.; Demeo, T.; Hutter, L.; and Menakis, J. 2010. *Interagency Fire Regime Condition Class Guidebook*. Version 3.0 [Homepage of the Interagency Fire Regime Condition Class website, USDA Forest Service, US Department of the Interior, and The Nature Conservancy]. [Online], Available: <http://www.frcc.gov/>.

1 when compared to the annual acres burned in the recent decade, 2002-2011. The best
 2 estimate of annual area burned in counties dominated by FRG I and II within the
 3 conterminous 48 states is roughly 7,800 square miles, or one fourth of the historical lower
 4 bound for this area. Another way of stating this is that the average time between wildfires
 5 has more than quadrupled across much of the landscape. The changes in area burned are
 6 less important than the subsequent changes in wildfire severity that accompanies them. It
 7 is not surprising that many fires that occur now are of higher severity than in the past or
 8 that substantive shifts in vegetation away from fire-adapted species are occurring. The
 9 issue may not be quite so severe in areas under active prescribed fire regimes. These
 10 include some actively managed forest of the Southeast, for example; a recent survey
 11 reported 6.5 million acres of prescribed fire activity there for silvicultural purposes in
 12 2011³. There also are areas within larger national parks and designated wilderness areas
 13 nationwide where natural fire regimes have been successfully reintroduced and
 14 maintained for decades.

15 **Table D.1.** Fire regime groups and descriptions. Source: Barrett and others (2010)
 16

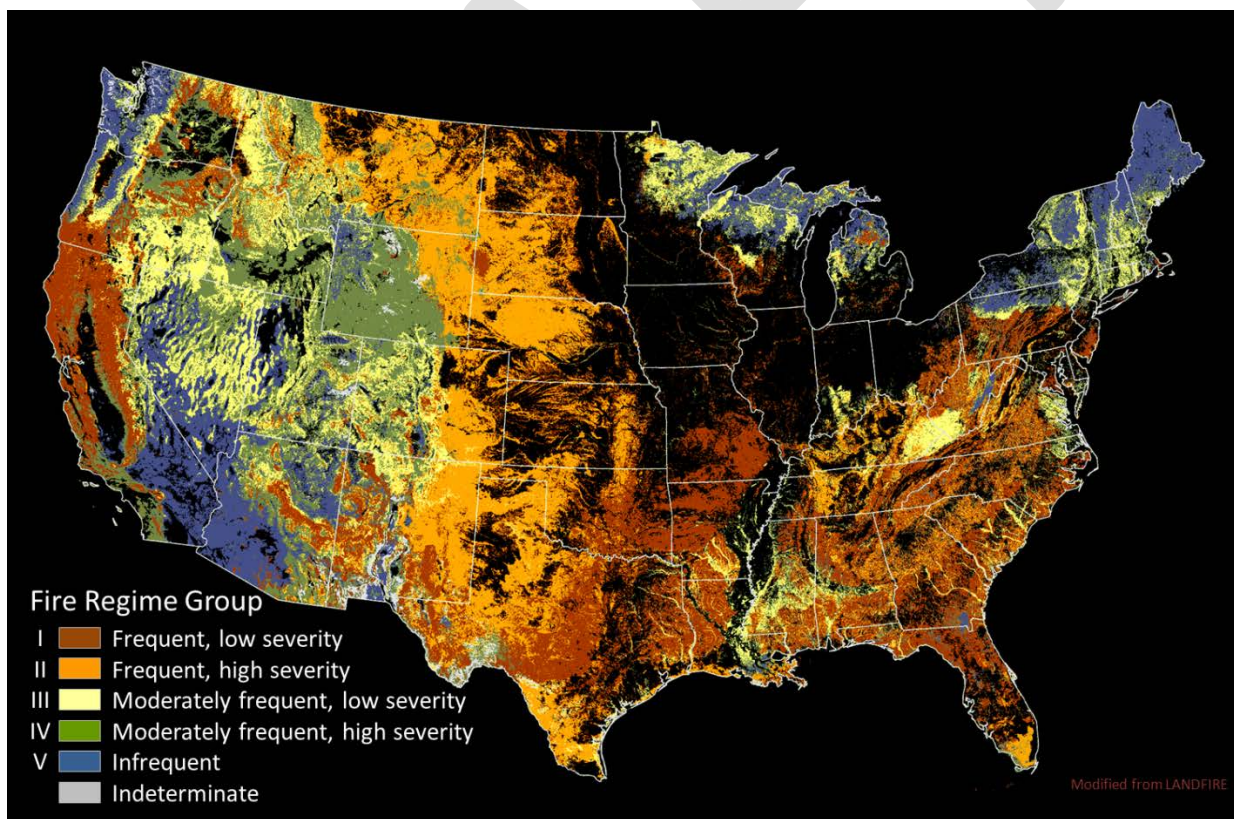
Group	Frequency	Severity	Severity description
I	0 – 35 years	Low / mixed	Generally low-severity fires replacing less than 25% of the dominant overstory vegetation; can include mixed-severity fires that replace up to 75% of the overstory
II	0 – 35 years	Replacement	High-severity fires replacing greater than 75% of the dominant overstory vegetation
III	35 – 200 years	Mixed / low	Generally mixed-severity; can also include low severity fires
IV	35 – 200 years	Replacement	High-severity fires

³ Melvin, Mark A. 2012. 2012 National Prescribed Fire Use Survey Report. Technical Report 01-12. Coalition of Prescribed Fire Councils, Inc. 19 p. Available at <http://www.prescribedfire.net>

V	200+ years	Replacement / any severity	Generally replacement severity; can include any severity type in this frequency range
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1 The changes in fire return intervals are not limited to just FRG I and II. Estimates of the
2 areas burned historically in FRG III, IV, and V are problematic due to the wide range in fire
3 return intervals. A previous analysis suggested increased fire return intervals throughout
4 the US except for some areas of the Southwest and Great Basin (Cohesive Strategy Phase I
5 report, Appendix A). Further evidence is suggested by the relative distribution of fire
6 historically and more recently. Figure D.2 depicts the percentage of area burned by
7 wildfire (2002-2011) that has occurred within counties associated with each fire regime
8 group (relative to total area burned nationally), as compared to the percentage land area
9 within those same counties that is dominated by natural vegetation (relative to the national
10 total).

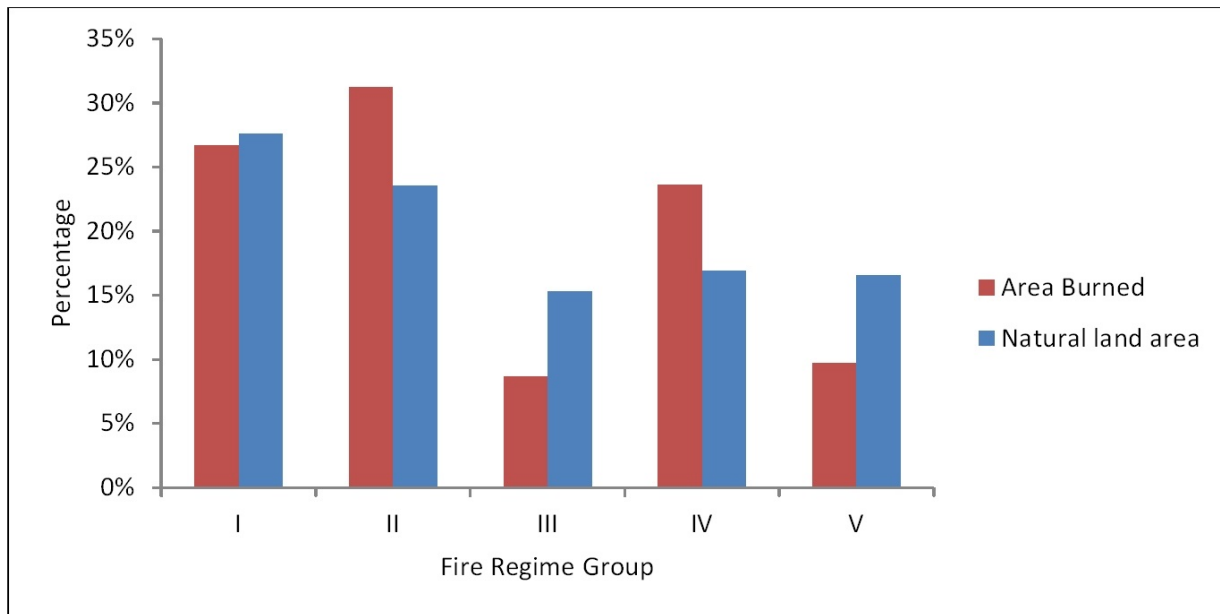
11 **Figure D.1** – Historical fire regime group values in areas of current natural vegetation. Fire
12 regime group data provided by LANDFIRE



13
14 Given the expected fire return intervals in each of the groups, one would expect a
15 considerably higher percentage of area burned in FRG I and II relative to their landmass;
16 roughly equal ratios in FRG III and IV; and a smaller percentage of area burned in FRG V.

1 The actual pattern is quite different than expected. FRG I burned roughly proportional to
 2 its landmass, which is consistent with the observation above concerning reduction in the
 3 area burned. FRG II shows a higher percentage of area burned than land area, which is
 4 more consistent with historical patterns, but not enough to suggest no change in fire return
 5 intervals. FRG III has burned in roughly the same proportion as FRG V, but less than FRG IV,
 6 which suggests that fire return intervals have increased in FRG III (less area burned).
 7 Perhaps the most interesting observation concerns FRG IV and V. The proportion of the
 8 total area burned in FRG IV exceeds its land base, suggesting a disproportionate chance of
 9 large, high-severity fires occurring in areas of FRG IV. Similarly, the proportion of area
 10 burned in FRG V is higher than expected. Both observations suggest that decreases in area
 11 burned are less prominent in FRG IV and V than others, although the finer-scale spatial
 12 pattern of these fires likely has changed due to land conversion and the cumulative effects
 13 of development.

14 **Figure D.2** – Bar chart showing the relative percentage of land area dominated by natural
 15 vegetation (Natural land area) occurring in counties with modal FRG I – V, versus the
 16 relative percentage of area burned in those same counties (2002-2011). Both red bars and
 17 blue bars individually sum to 100%



18
 19 Understanding these broad-scale changes in fire regimes is essential to crafting an effective
 20 Cohesive Strategy. Fire regimes are intrinsically and fundamentally connected to fuel
 21 accumulation, vegetation composition, and subsequent fire behavior when wildfires
 22 inevitably occur. More extreme fire conditions can be expected in areas where the time
 23 between fires has been extended unless fuels have been reduced by other means. Human

1 development and suppression can postpone wildfires, but they do not exclude them except
2 in unusual circumstances. Moreover, the confluence of climate factors and the fuel
3 accumulations that result from sustained, vigorous suppression in some locations make
4 exclusion increasingly difficult. The basic biophysical environment remains conducive to
5 wildfire and is unlikely to change in a way that would mitigate wildfire occurrence⁴. In
6 nearly all cases, fuels do not simply disappear in the absence of wildfire in fire-adapted
7 ecosystems. Either they accumulate and wait for the next fire to occur, or some form of
8 active fuels management such as prescribed fire or mechanical treatment is required.
9 Conversely, in those rare ecosystems where fires have become more frequent, fuels
10 management may be required to protect remaining unburned areas or to alter species
11 composition or structure.

12 The importance of historical perspective is that it provides a benchmark for areas where
13 returning natural vegetation to near-historical or desired conditions is a primary objective.
14 However, a fundamental challenge in wildland fire management is that restoring historical
15 conditions is neither practical nor desirable in many locations. The degree to which
16 wildfires or fuels management can be tolerated within a given landscape depends upon
17 community values and land management objectives. Where fuels cannot be managed to
18 match historical levels, then adjustments must be made within human communities to
19 accommodate a new normal in fire occurrence and extent. For forested systems, this likely
20 means a progressive transition from historical FRG I or III to a new FRG IV and less
21 frequent, higher intensity fires. Higher intensity fires lead to higher suppression difficulty,
22 higher risks to firefighter and public safety, and more severe social or ecological damage
23 when they occur. Changes in rangeland and shrubland systems can lead to increased, more
24 continuous fire extent, often with greatly increased rates of spread, which also increase
25 suppression difficulty and risk to firefighters. Additionally, changes in fire frequency can
26 lead to an undesirable mix of new species that move into these systems (e.g., invasive
27 grasses such as cheat grass or encroachment by woody species such as juniper).

28 The aforementioned changes in fire regime are just one component of the overall historical
29 changes that have occurred across the United States. Much has been written about the
30 growth of the wildland urban interface and the concomitant risks from wildfire that it
31 brings. Again, readers are referred to the Stein and others (2013) report for an overview of
32 this issue. Many of the data sets referenced by Stein and others (2013) are incorporated in
33 the analyses described below.

⁴ Some northern hardwood forests of the East may be the exception to this general rule. As human burning has decreased, compositional and structural changes within these forests have caused them to become more fire resistant.

1 Much also has been written about how future fire regimes may change due to changing
2 climatic conditions, accelerated human development, invasive species, changes in resource
3 utilization (food, fuel, and fiber), and other agents of landscape change. All are potentially
4 important; all remain uncertain; all are active areas of research. Current conditions provide
5 the best predictor of the immediate future until greater clarity is achieved. Fire regimes of
6 today will inevitably change. When, where, and to what degree remains speculative, but the
7 changes will likely exacerbate the challenges of managing wildland fire, not diminish them.
8 Our collective ability to meet the challenges of tomorrow will depend greatly on how well
9 we meet the challenges of today.

10 **Conclusion:** *Historical patterns of natural fire regimes suggest that considerably more area*
11 *burned nationally each year than is burning today. The net effect is a gradual change in*
12 *vegetation structure and composition that can lead to higher intensity fires than occurred*
13 *historically, especially in areas that previously burned more frequently.*

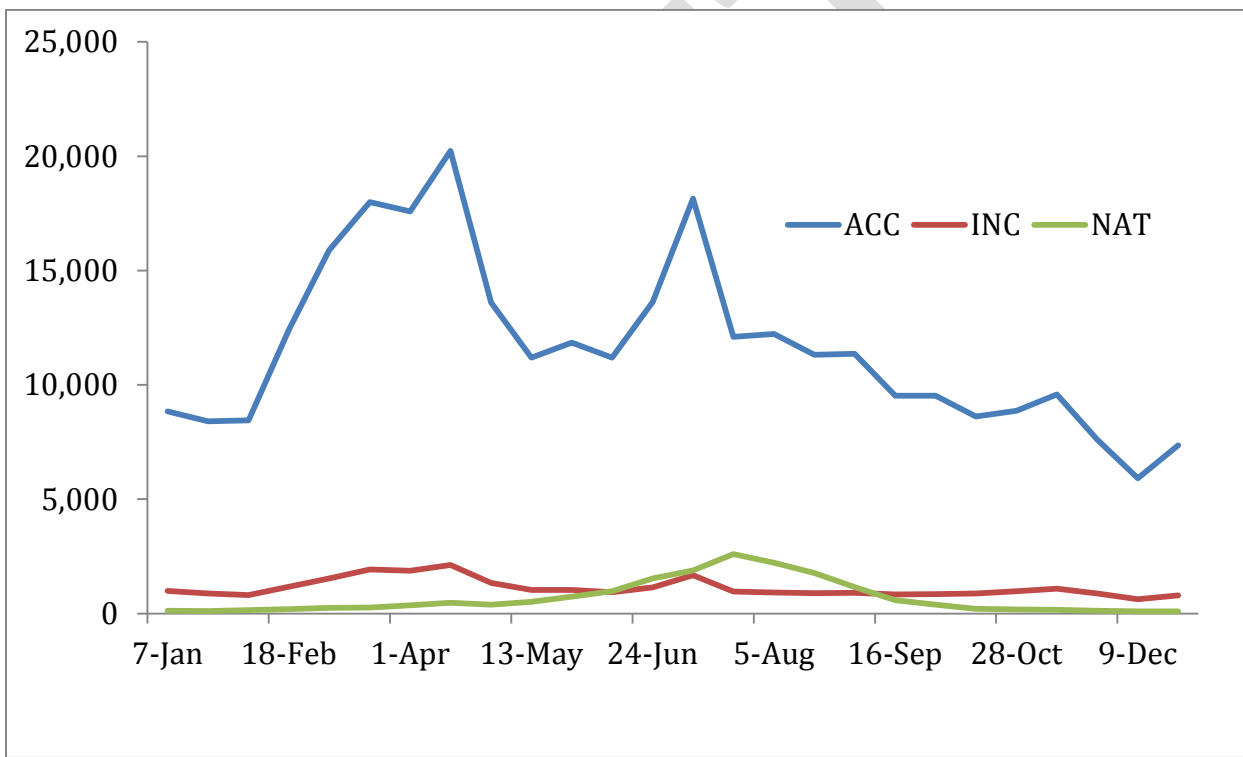
14 **Natural versus Anthropogenic Fire**

15 The historical fire regimes discussed above are a function of the underlying biophysical
16 environment, natural ignitions, and burning patterns of Native American tribes prior to
17 European settlement for hunting, gathering, and agricultural purposes. Present day
18 regimes are also strongly affected by the biophysical influences of vegetation, climate, and
19 natural ignitions, but the human footprint and its effect on fire regimes is radically different
20 than before. For simplicity, one can broadly divide wildland fire into two principal
21 regimes—natural and anthropogenic. In the natural regime, fire occurrence and extent is
22 primarily driven by environmental variables including vegetation and weather, and natural
23 ignitions sources (primarily lightning). The anthropogenic or human-driven regime
24 reflects the primary influence of human-caused ignitions and the influence of suppression
25 activities. Much like the historical fire regimes, the effects of humans and nature cannot be
26 spatially disaggregated cleanly. That is, both operate within the same geographical
27 landscape. At any particular point on a landscape (or point in time), one or the other may
28 be dominant but not exclusive. The implications of the differences between human and
29 natural causes are important, which will become clearer in the discussion of policy options
30 later in this report.

31 The difference between the natural and anthropogenic regimes can be illustrated by
32 looking at seasonal patterns of wildfire occurrence and the area burned by fires of different
33 causes. Figure D.3 depicts the bi-weekly pattern of fire occurrence attributed to three
34 different causes: accidental (ACC), incendiary (INC), and natural (NAT), compiled from a
35 combination of federal, state, and local data sets. The most commonly reported causes are
36 accidental, which include debris burning, fireworks, equipment, campfires, and others.

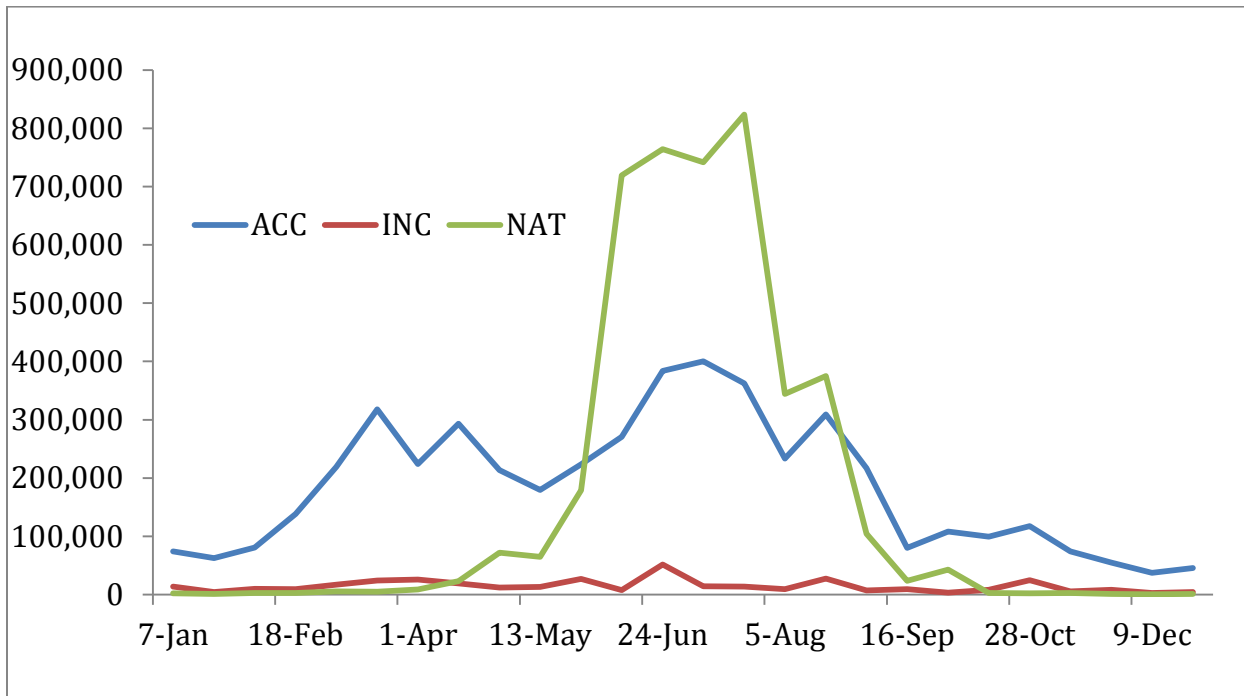
1 Incendiary fires include malicious arson events or other incidents where fires were set
 2 intentionally using incendiary devices. Figure D.3 also indicates the close agreement in time
 3 between accidental and incendiary ignitions, both anthropogenic. In contrast, natural
 4 ignitions have a very strong and consistent seasonal pattern that rises in the spring, peaks
 5 in the summer, and declines in the fall. The seasonal pattern in area burned as a result of
 6 these different causes displays an interesting periodicity in which the area burned due to
 7 natural ignitions exceeds that from other causes through late spring and the summer
 8 season (Figure D.4).

9 **Figure D.3** – Smoothed time trace of wildfire incidents reported and attributed to different
 10 causes throughout the United States, 2002-2011



11

1 **Figure D.4** – Smoothed time trace of area burned from incidents attributed to different
 2 causes throughout the United States, 2002-2011



3
 4 The fact that relatively few natural ignitions disproportionately account for total area
 5 burned is consistent with the more general trend that much of the area burned across the
 6 nation can be attributed to relatively few fires regardless of cause. For example, the
 7 summary of available data used shows that the top 3% of fires in terms of individual⁵ fire
 8 size account for over 90% of the total area burned nationwide. Another way of viewing this
 9 is that if an additional 1% of the fires in the US were to reach the size of the current top 3%,
 10 the total area burned would increase by 30%.

11 **Conclusion:** *Natural and anthropogenic fire regimes are distinctly different, but equally*
 12 *important. Natural ignitions account for a smaller proportion of the incidents, but a*
 13 *disproportionate amount of the area burned. Anthropogenic ignitions account for the bulk of*
 14 *the reported incidents and occur throughout the nation.*

15 ANALYTICAL APPROACH

16 The preceding discussion of fire regimes is necessarily broad and ignores the considerable
 17 variation that exists throughout the nation. Indeed, every state, county, management unit,

⁵ Includes multiple fires managed as a single complex.

1 or community can claim its own unique fire regime, history, and special circumstances.
2 Such differences are important when planning at the local level but overwhelm a national
3 analysis designed to inform a national, intergovernmental strategy. On the other hand,
4 generalities are useful only to certain extents; at some point the specifics of a location must
5 be fully considered. One of the challenges within the national analysis is finding an
6 adequate level of both generalization and specification that highlights important
7 differences while also recognizing commonalities.

8 Data spanning a broad spectrum of environmental, socioeconomic, and fire related
9 statistics have been assembled in order to support development of the Cohesive Strategy.
10 These data have been summarized and consolidated to the county level in order to provide
11 a comparable unit of analysis across data sets. Where appropriate, they also have been
12 normalized in various ways to allow equitable comparisons across counties of different
13 sizes. This allowed data from multiple sources and of various forms to be used to discern
14 relationships among driving factors and influential variables. It also allows creation of
15 national maps that highlight many of the intra- and inter-regional or state similarities and
16 differences.

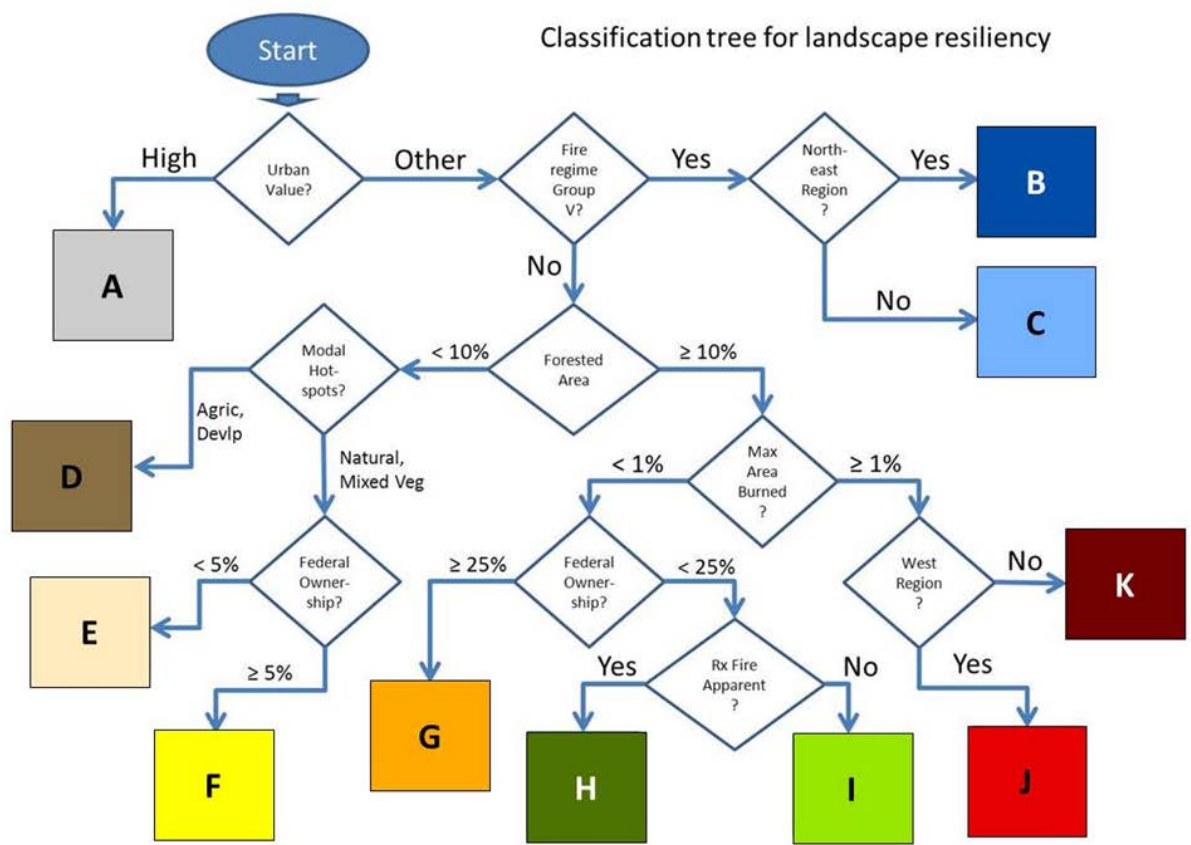
17 Even county-level metrics pose challenges, however, to completing a national analysis.
18 There are 3109 counties in the conterminous United States and each one has its own
19 unique story. This analysis is not directed at telling those unique stories, but rather
20 highlights the pattern of similarities and differences found among the counties and uses
21 those common attributes to develop a manageable set of narratives that can be linked to
22 nationwide policy options. To that end, grouping counties along two principal themes of
23 landscape resilience and risk to communities provides a serviceable classification system.
24 Counties are grouped together based upon the similarities among them with respect to key
25 variables that are relevant to the principal themes. Two different techniques were used to
26 better match the nature of the themes and patterns within the data.

27 **Landscape Resiliency Classes**

28 Landscape resiliency has been defined in various ways, but at its core is about resistance to
29 and recovery from disturbance. Given that landscapes themselves are complex
30 intersections of natural, built, and human components, creating a simple metric of
31 landscape resiliency is of little value. A more useful approach is to recognize that
32 discussions about resiliency are contextual, that is, they vary from location to location and
33 depend upon a host of local considerations including both ecological and human
34 dimensions. The classification system designed here was intended to divide counties into
35 classes where similar conversations about resiliency might occur, using county-level
36 attributes. Counties were assigned to different landscape resiliency classes using a

1 classification tree. A classification tree begins with all counties in a single group and then
 2 progressively divides them into more similar subgroups based on key variables. Each
 3 junction in the classification tree involves a dichotomous division based on a single
 4 variable. The classification tree used the relative urban landcover within a county, the
 5 modal fire regime, geographical region, area forested, area of public lands, and various
 6 measures of fire occurrence to assign counties to one of eleven classes labeled A through K
 7 (Figure D.5). The classes tend to have strong geographical associations due to the influence
 8 of regional similarities in landcover and fire regimes; a notable exception is the urban class
 9 (Class A), which follows the general pattern of population density and urban development.

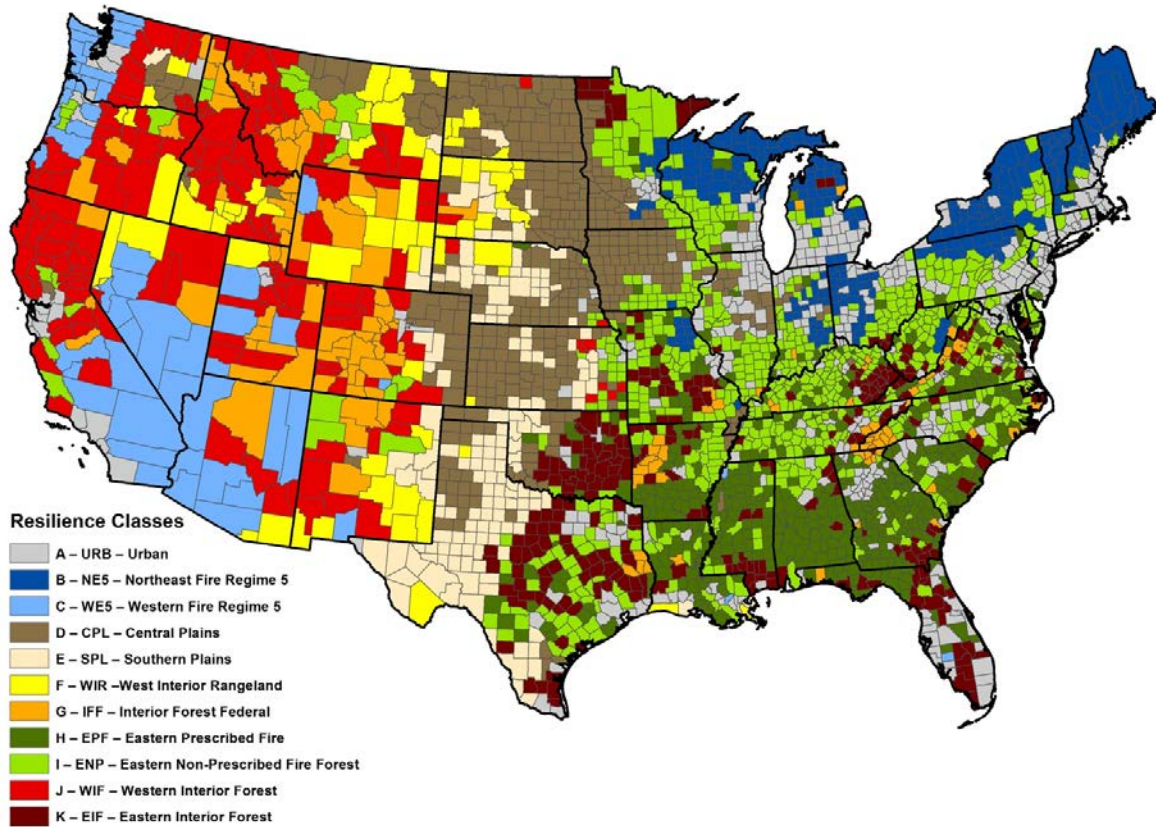
10 **Figure D.5** – Classification tree used to subdivide counties based on variables relevant to
 11 the topic of landscape resiliency



12
 13 The nature of each class is revealed by looking at both the variables used in the
 14 classification tree and the broader range of descriptive variables for each county. From this
 15 perspective, one can develop an informative, general narrative that applies to the counties
 16 within each class. Furthermore, the narratives help point to possible management options
 17 or policies that would advance the goal of landscape resiliency within each class,
 18 recognizing that each class could connote a unique interpretation of "landscape resiliency"

1 that is specific to the conditions found therein. Thus, resiliency classes are used to promote
2 a context-specific discussion of policy options that matches actions to landscapes.

3 **Figure D.6** – Map of the geographical distribution of the eleven resiliency classes across the
4 conterminous United States



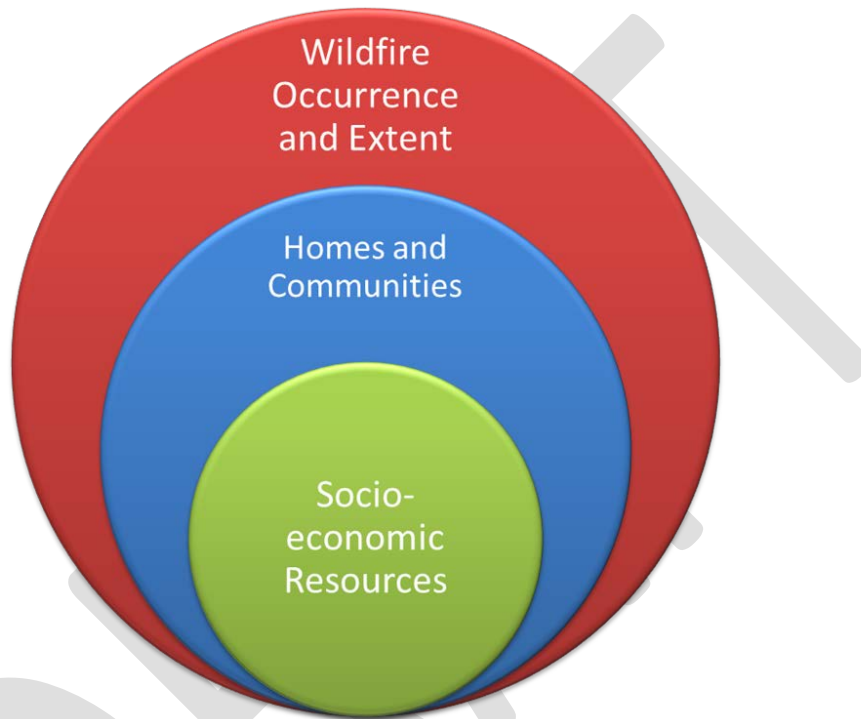
5
6 **Conclusion:** *Counties have been classified using a relatively small set of variables into*
7 *various “resiliency classes” that share common attributes. Examining multiple variables*
8 *reveal both similarities and differences among counties relative to the theme of landscape*
9 *resiliency.*

10 **Community Clusters**

11 A central goal of the Cohesive Strategy is promoting fire-adapted communities. The
12 wildfire risk to communities and values can be viewed as the intersection of three principal
13 elements: wildfire occurrence and extent, homes and communities, and social and
14 economic resources (Figure D.7). The first of these simply captures the magnitude of the

1 hazard posed by wildfire. The second and third reflect the principal values at stake. The
2 values threatened include buildings, homes, infrastructure, public and firefighter safety,
3 public health, and many of the benefits that communities derive from the landscapes
4 around them.

5 **Figure D.7** – Conceptual diagram of the intersection of three principal elements
6 contributing to risk to communities



7
8 Quantifying all of the values that could be threatened by wildfire across the nation is
9 impractical. The number and distribution of homes located within the wildland urban
10 interface (WUI), composed of both the interface and intermix areas, is often used as a
11 surrogate for many of the tangible values at risk, a convention followed here. Homes do not
12 capture all of the values that are affected by wildfire, but losing a home is one of the most
13 profound human experiences outside of loss of life. The number of homes lost in a wildfire
14 is often equated by the public with the magnitude of the overall damage, even though other
15 values are clearly impacted.

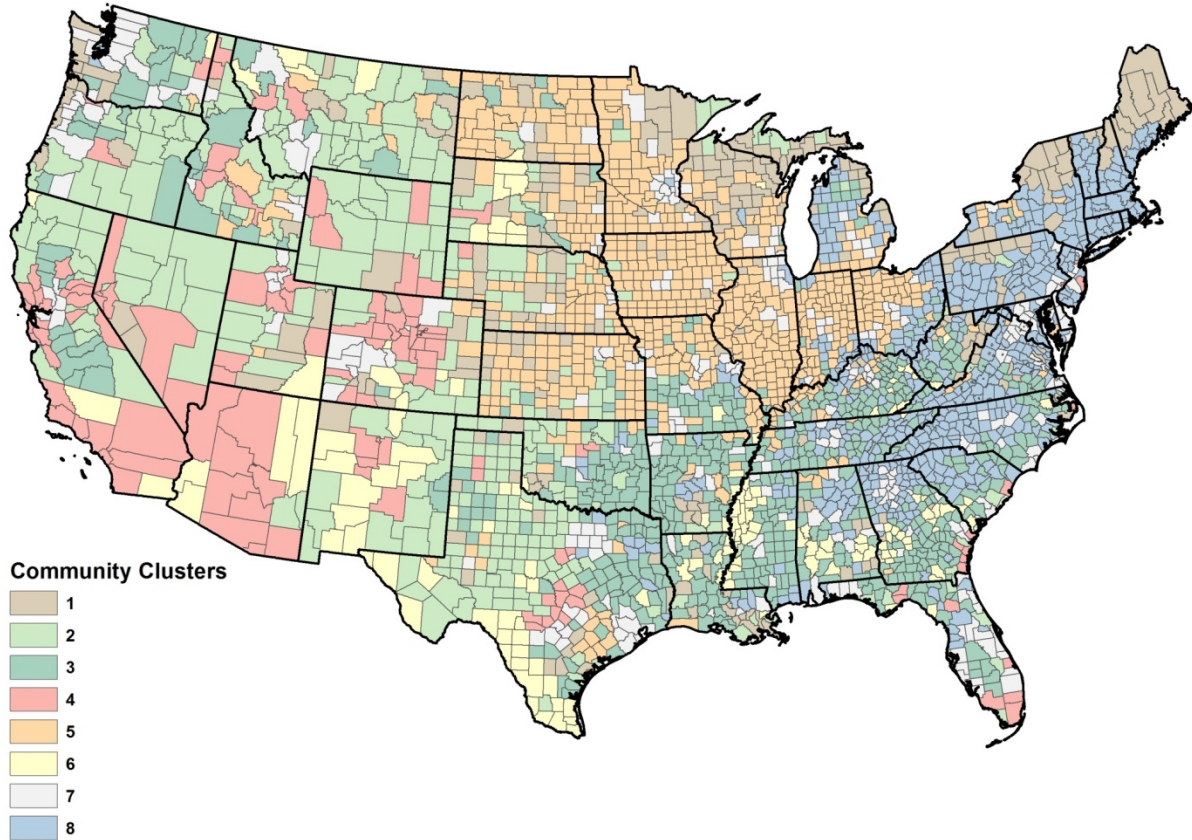
16 The capacity of a community to prepare for, respond to, and recover from a wildfire event
17 is also a critical concern. There is an emerging literature on the concept of social
18 vulnerability to catastrophic events. Researchers have generally looked at a combination of
19 demographic and economic information in order to assess the vulnerability of individuals,
20 families, and communities. Survey data on family incomes, education, and indicators of

1 household stress were used here to suggest relative vulnerability, while also considering
2 metrics of economic activity within a county.

3 A statistical technique known as cluster analysis was used to group counties. Variables
4 reflective of the amount of area in WUI and density of homes within it, demographic
5 measures of household stress and economic advantage, and measures of area burned by
6 wildfires and ignition density were used in the cluster analysis. Cluster analysis was used
7 because it provided a cleaner separation of counties when considering all variables
8 simultaneously, as opposed to sequentially as in a classification tree.

9 The result of the cluster analysis is a set of eight “community clusters” that are simply
10 numbered 1 to 8 in no particular order. All community cluster types can be found in each of
11 the three geographic regions, albeit in decidedly different proportions (Figure D.8).
12 Geographical affinity of several clusters is apparent, but is not as strong as with the
13 resiliency classes. This result highlights the fact that there are counties with similar fire
14 histories, WUI patterns, and socioeconomic attributes scattered throughout the country.
15 Community clusters were used to develop narratives that in turn are used in the discussion
16 of policy options below, complementing the landscape resiliency classes.

1 **Figure D.8** – Spatial distribution of community clusters



2

3 **Conclusion:** *Counties have been grouped using a relatively small set of variables into various*
4 *“community clusters” that share common attributes. Examining multiple variables reveals*
5 *both similarities and differences in community wildfire risk among counties.*

6 **Intersecting Landscape Resiliency Classes and Community** 7 **Clusters**

8 The most vexing problems in wildland fire management cannot be solved by looking solely
9 at landscape conditions, nor is a community perspective adequate by itself. It is the
10 combination of the two that sheds light on the most difficult issues. Placing the community
11 clusters in juxtaposition with the landscape resiliency classes creates a combination class
12 that provides greater environmental context to the community clusters, while
13 simultaneously enhancing the socioeconomic dimensions of the landscape classes.

1 The intersection of the community clusters with the landscape resiliency classes and the
 2 number of counties in each combination class is shown in Table D.2. Note that blank spaces
 3 in the table indicate that no counties fell within the intersection. The table indicates the
 4 number of counties, not the spatial extent covered by each combination class; differences in
 5 county size across the country affect the distribution of area.

6 **Table D.2** – The number of counties within the conterminous 48 states that fall within each
 7 combination of community cluster and resiliency class

Resiliency Classes	Community Clusters								Grand Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
A	8	3	31	30	71	4	129	194	470
B	68	5	6		78	1	6	56	220
C	15	5	6	12		9	7		54
D	56	38	29	2	265	5	14		409
E	22	76	7	3	28	22	1		159
F	2	32	6	8	12	7	1		68
G	18	24	28	12	4	8	20	17	131
H	29	8	189	8	30	54	42	99	459
I	62	18	145	7	207	24	60	192	715
J		69	24	38	7	4	8		150
K		40	135	13	15	16	17	38	274
Grand Total	280	318	606	133	717	154	305	596	3109

8
 9 An interesting observation from this table is that almost all of the possible combinations
 10 have one or more counties fall within them. This spread across combinations is reflective of
 11 the considerable diversity that is found across the United States. It also highlights the
 12 challenges that arise when one tries to make generalizations. Fortunately, the total number
 13 of combinations (79) is manageable, and there are distinct patterns that suggest common
 14 narratives.

15 Although a resiliency class may be distributed across all community clusters (or vice
 16 versa), they are not independent. That is, there are distinct patterns of association between
 17 the two such that various combinations occur more frequently than they would by chance

1 alone, while others less frequently. For example, resiliency class A, which represents a
2 landscape dominated by human development, is disproportionately associated with
3 community clusters seven and eight, which are primarily urban and suburban
4 communities, respectively. Similarly, resiliency class D has a strong association with
5 community cluster five, both of which are often associated with counties dominated by
6 agricultural development. The association between classes and clusters is a reflection of
7 both the human footprint on landscapes, and conversely how biophysical landscapes have
8 influenced human development. Many of the unique attributes of each combination are
9 described in Appendix 6.

10 One can ask whether the combination of landscape and communities is sufficient to cover
11 all the complexities and issues that are involved in wildland fire. For example, can you
12 distinguish between areas with different levels of response capacity, the complexities of
13 mixed land ownership, and overlapping jurisdictional responsibilities? Many of these
14 issues were examined, and consideration was given to whether an additional classification
15 system(s) might be necessary. In general, the two-dimensional system proved adequate for
16 addressing the issues at hand. Those few issues that exhibit geographical patterns that
17 cannot be explained with the combination classes can be examined using other means.

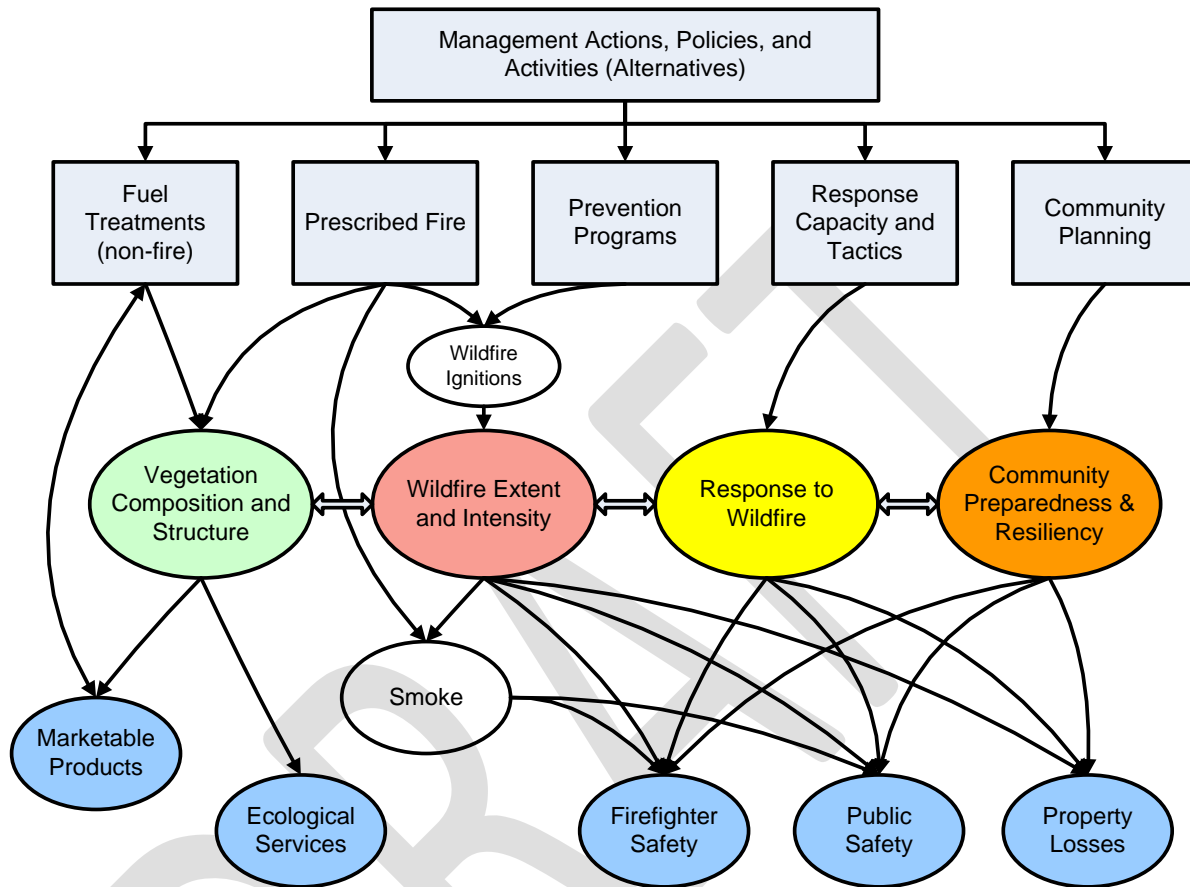
18 **Conclusion:** *The combination of landscape resiliency classes and community clusters*
19 *provides a powerful mechanism to discern and relate both the environmental and*
20 *socioeconomic dimensions of the landscape simultaneously.*

21 POLICY OPTIONS

22 Wildland fire encompasses numerous interacting and complex social, ecological, and
23 physical factors. One conceptual view of the Cohesive Strategy is as a collection of policies
24 and management actions activities that collectively influence: vegetation composition and
25 structure, wildfire extent and intensity, response to wildfire, and community preparedness
26 and resiliency (Figure D.9). These in turn influence the goods and services received from
27 forests and rangelands, firefighter and public safety, and homes and property affected by
28 fire.

29 This basic conceptual model can be applied at any scale. That is, the relationships hold
30 whether the area of concern is a local land-management unit or community, or whether
31 national policies are being considered. During the Phase III process, the regional strategy
32 committees and others suggested a wide range of actions and activities, most of which
33 conveniently fit within the major categories identified in the conceptual model.

1 **Figure D.9** – Simple conceptual model of the major anthropogenic factors involved in
 2 wildland fire management (gray), principal interacting processes (various colors), and
 3 values affected by fire (blue)



4
 5 For the purposes of the national analysis, the Wildland Fire Executive Council and other
 6 advisory groups helped identify a series of options that might be considered from a
 7 national perspective. These options are grouped into four management themes: broad-
 8 scale fuels management, managing human ignitions, home and community actions, and
 9 response to wildfire. In the discussions below, the objective of each option is described and
 10 information inherent in the landscape resiliency classes and community clusters is used to
 11 identify areas of the country where each option logically might be applied. The summaries
 12 here are intentionally terse; additional detail is available in the complete report of the
 13 NSAT⁶. Table 3 and Figure D.3 provide a quick reference to the options and maps of their
 14 spatial extent. Options are numbered for ease of reference only; the numbers have no
 15 bearing on priority or importance.

⁶ The draft report of the national analysis completed by the NSAT is publically available at [link TBA.]. Final publication of the NSAT report is expected for late 2013.

1 Following the presentation of options, implications of implementing these options are
 2 discussed and the nature of trade-offs that are inherent in choices among them are
 3 highlighted.

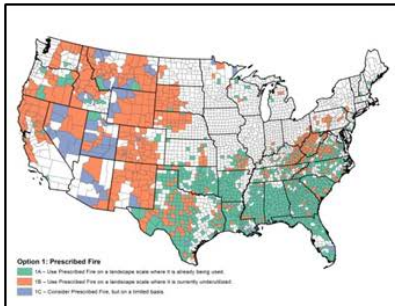
4 **Table D.3 – Themes and policy options**

Theme	Option	Description
Managing Fuels Across the Landscape	1.a	Prescribed Fire: Expand or maintain in areas of current use
	1.b	Prescribed Fire: Expand into areas of limited current use
	1.c	Prescribed Fire: Utilize on a limited basis
	2.a	Manage wildfires for resource objectives: In forested systems
	2.b	Manage wildfires for resource objectives: In non-forested systems
	2.c	Manage wildfires for resource objectives: In areas where increased awareness of community risk is necessary.
	3.a	Non-fire Treatments: Supported by forest products industry
	3.b	Non-fire Treatments: In non-forest areas
	3.c	Non-fire Treatment: In areas with limited economic markets
	4	Treatments as a precursor to prescribed fire or managed wildfire.
Managing Human Ignitions	5.a	Reduce accidental human-caused ignitions
	5.b	Reduce human-caused incendiary ignitions (e.g., arson)
Home and Community Actions	6.a	Focus on home defensive actions
	6.b	Focus on combination of home and community actions
	7.a	Adjust building and construction codes, municipal areas
	7.b	Adjust building and construction codes, non-municipal areas
Response to wildfires	8	Prepare for large, long-duration wildfires
	9	Protect structures and treat landscape fuels
	10	Protect structures and target prevention of ignitions

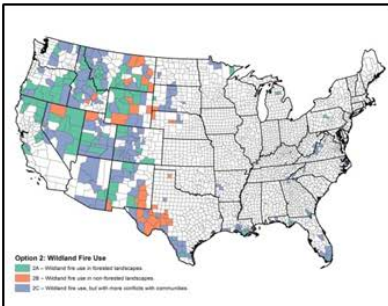
5

- 1 **Figure D.10** – Thumbnail maps of the various options. Larger versions of the maps along
- 2 with additional details can be found in the NSAT National Analysis Report (link to be
- 3 provided).

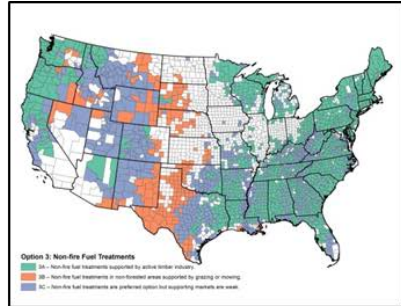
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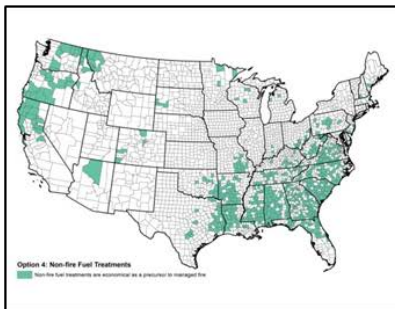
1. Prescribed Fire Use



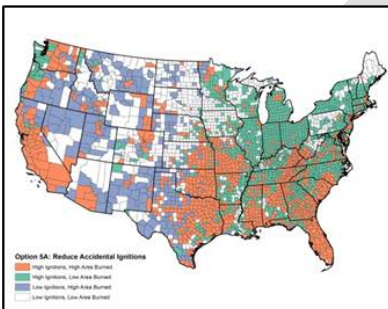
2. Wildfire for Multiple Benefits



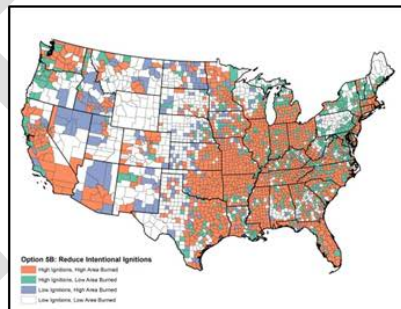
3. Non-fire Fuel Treatments



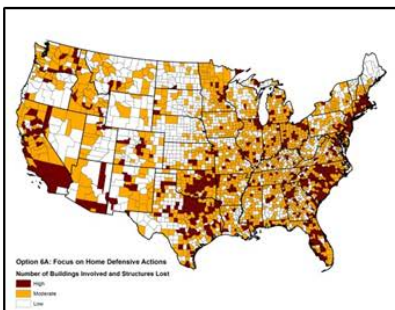
4. Non-fire as a Precursor to Fire



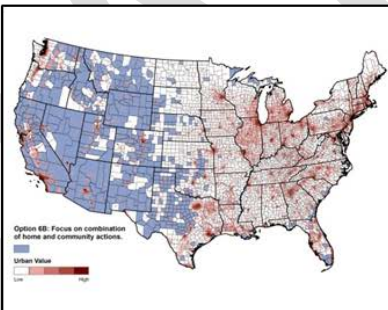
5a. Reduce Accidental Ignitions



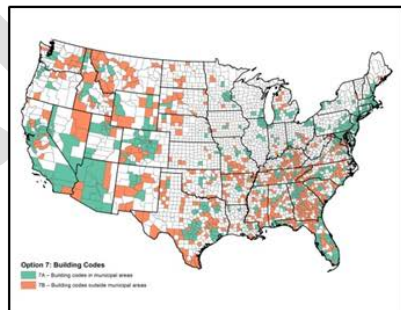
5b. Reduce Intentional Ignitions



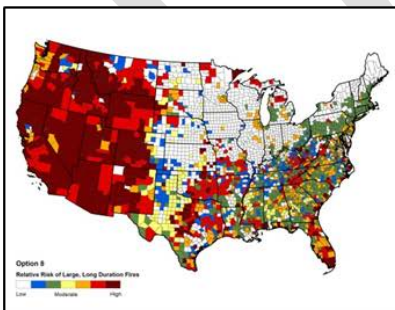
6a. Home Defensive Actions



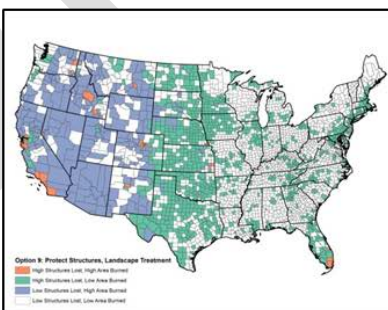
6b. Community and Home Actions



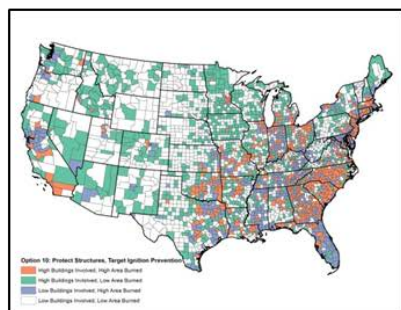
7. Building Codes



8. Preparedness for Large, Long Duration Fires



9. Protect Structures and Apply Landscape Treatments



10. Protect Structures and Target Ignition Prevention

1

1 Fuels Management

2 The primary purpose of hazardous fuels management is to reduce the intensity of wildfire
3 if and when it encounters a treatment area during the lifespan of the treatments.⁷ To be
4 effective, fuel treatments must reduce fireline intensities under the conditions most likely
5 to result in harm. That is, they have to work across a range of weather conditions likely to
6 occur during a wildfire. Reducing wildfire intensity can have multiple benefits. Depending
7 on landscape objectives, reduced intensity (fire behavior) can lead to reduced severity or
8 extent (fire effects), which can lead to reduced or even beneficial ecological effects. For
9 example, wildfires burning less intensely may more closely mimic historical fire effects and
10 thus lead to the restoration or enhancement of native, fire-adapted vegetation. In addition,
11 less intense fires are more likely to have less severe effects, such as reduced mortality of
12 economically valuable tree species or reduced chance of soil erosion following fires.
13 Strategically placed fuel treatments can have broader landscape effects that extend beyond
14 the perimeter of the area physically treated, either through affecting fire behavior directly
15 or by facilitating ecologically sensitive containment strategies. Such treatments can affect
16 spatial distributions of fires, leading to more desirable vegetation composition and
17 structure, reducing potential for invasive species, and preserving structure that is currently
18 limited on the landscape (i.e. sagebrush).

19 Reduced intensity also means that suppression efforts are more likely to be effective and
20 can be conducted more safely in areas where wildfires are unwanted or threaten
21 communities. Fuel treatments in close proximity to homes and communities also are an
22 effective, proactive way of reducing the likelihood of structure ignition and enhance the
23 safety of firefighters and the public.

24 The three primary means of managing fuels are prescribed fire, managing wildfire for
25 ecological purposes and resource objectives, and non-fire treatments involving mechanical,
26 biological, or chemical methods, or a combination of all listed.

27 Prescribed Fire

28 Prescribed fire is one of the most effective and cost-efficient means of managing vegetation
29 for multiple purposes, including hazard reduction, ecosystem restoration or maintenance,
30 silviculture, and others. In general, prescribed fire is an effective tool in areas with fire-

⁷ Here, treatments for the primary purpose of managing hazardous fuels are distinguished from treatments that reduce vegetative fuels as a secondary benefit. For example, prescribed fire can be used for the primary benefit of promoting desirable vegetation in areas devoid of significant wildfire hazard (e.g., native rice fields). Many silvicultural practices have secondary fuels benefits, but are not conducted for that primary reason.

1 adapted or fire-dependent vegetation (FRG I, II, III). Prescribed fire is also used to a lesser
2 extent as site-preparation in rangelands (i.e., preparation of chemical application for
3 invasive species eradication) or post-harvest clean-up in forested systems. Broad areas of
4 the country have the potential for prescribed fire use based on their natural fire regime,
5 vegetation, and level of human development. Maps of potential for prescribed fire use were
6 developed in both forested and non-forested systems based on vegetation, FRG, and land
7 cover. These maps provide a baseline from which further opportunities for use were
8 explored. Emphasis is on broad-scale application of prescribed fire, focusing on counties
9 where a significant portion of each county is suitable for prescribed fire use. It is
10 recognized that prescribed fire can be applied nearly everywhere for very specific reasons;
11 such local concerns are not captured here nor are smoke management concerns or other
12 environmental impacts that might restrict its use.

13 An additional consideration is that prescribed fire carries inherent risk, as fires can escape
14 the prescribed perimeter or produce hazardous smoke if not managed correctly.
15 Implementing and maintaining a prescribed fire regime, therefore, requires properly
16 trained personnel, resources, and the willingness on the part of the landowners and nearby
17 communities to accept the potential disadvantages of prescribed fire in exchange for the
18 potential benefits.

19 The suggested first option for prescribed fire is maintained or expanded use in areas where
20 it is currently employed (Option 1.a). These areas logically have the necessary training and
21 experience to implement a prescribed fire program and also suggest community
22 acceptance and tolerance. The analysis of probable areas of prescribed fire use based on
23 remotely sensed data and other reports indicate that many counties throughout the
24 Southeast and scattered counties in the Northeast and West are substantively using
25 prescribed fire.

26 The second option would be to expand into areas where prescribed fire has been identified
27 as suitable, yet the evidence of current, widespread application is less compelling (Option
28 1.b). These include many areas in the West as well as counties in the central Appalachians.
29 Implementing prescribed fire regimes in these regions likely will require additional
30 training and resources, as well as outreach and coordination with the communities that are
31 most likely to be affected.

32 The third option (Option 1.c) includes counties that have areas suitable for prescribed fire,
33 but perhaps not to the extent as in 1.a or 1.b. As an example, these include counties where
34 a smaller proportion of the total county area is suitable for prescribed fire, but it occurs in
35 remote areas in large contiguous blocks. These include Western counties with areas of low
36 road density and more than 25% of the total county area is suitable for prescribed fire.

1 All three options would involve combinations of regional recommendations 1.1, 1.2, 1.3,
2 1.4, 1.7, and 2.4 from the previous section.

3 **Conclusion:** *Prescribed fire is a very useful tool that has the potential for widespread*
4 *increased application. Three areas were identified for prioritization, which in total comprise*
5 *55% of the land area of the conterminous 48 states.*

6 **Managing Wildfire for Resource Objectives**

7 Managing wildfire for resource objectives and ecological purposes refers to a strategic
8 choice to utilize unplanned ignitions in order to achieve management objectives similar to
9 those associated with prescribed fire. Federal fire policy is consistent between the
10 agencies and has traditionally been restricted for use in federal wilderness areas, national
11 parks, or other remote areas and only under specific conditions or circumstances. These
12 restrictions are intended to reduce risk and avoid potentially negative
13 impacts/consequences to non-federal lands. Guidance issued in 2009 regarding
14 implementation of federal fire policy has led to expanded application of this method to
15 manage wildland fuels. In contrast, most state and local jurisdictions are explicitly
16 prohibited from implementing any strategy other than full suppression on wildfires. Like
17 prescribed fire, allowing wildfires to burn for the purposes of ecosystem restoration or
18 hazard reduction has inherent risk. These risks must be balanced with the potential
19 benefits on an individual incident basis, which requires both pre-incident planning at the
20 landscape scale and sophisticated incident management.

21 Areas were identified that might be suitable for managing wildfire for resource objectives
22 by looking first at those areas where prescribed fire was deemed suitable. Counties were
23 then highlighted where managing wildfire for multiple benefits in forested landscapes
24 seems plausible (Option 2.a), separate from those counties dominated by non-forest
25 vegetation where this tactic might also be applied (Option 2.b). Both Options 2.a and 2.b
26 are associated with rural areas with few roads, low numbers of ignitions (mostly natural),
27 moderate flame intensities, and large contiguous blocks of natural vegetation. The forested
28 areas have a high percentage of federal ownership (primarily Forest Service, Bureau of
29 Land Management, or National Park Service) and a mix of FRG I, II, and IV. Non-forested
30 areas include counties with low federal ownership and FRG II and IV.

31 A third set of counties also were identified where the landscape characteristics might
32 benefit from managing wildfire for resource objectives, but the community attributes
33 would suggest potential conflict (Option 2.c). Community concerns would necessarily lead
34 to greater restrictions and control on incident management objectives.

1 Managing wildfires for ecological benefits and resource objectives is notably absent from
2 the list of recommendations identified in the section on regional context.

3 **Conclusion:** *Managing wildfire for resource objectives and ecological purposes is a useful*
4 *tool for managing fire adapted ecosystems and achieving fire resilient landscapes, but it has*
5 *limited potential for broad application across the landscape because of its inherent risk. This*
6 *method of managing fuels is typically prohibited by state and local policies or statutes. Use of*
7 *this method to manage fuels in wilderness, parks, and similar remote and wild areas has*
8 *proven effective.*

9 **Fuel treatments using mechanical, biological, or other non-fire** 10 **methods**

11 A variety of methods traditionally have been used for changing vegetation composition and
12 structure and altering fuels to reduce hazard that do not involve fire directly. These include
13 mechanical thinning and clearing debris in forests or mowing in rangelands, among others.
14 Non-mechanical methods can involve livestock grazing to reduce fine fuels in rangeland
15 systems, or the use of herbicides to change vegetation composition. These methods can be
16 used wherever they are economically viable, especially where using fire as a management
17 tool is undesirable or carries high risks. The advantages of such methods are that they do
18 not create fire risk and can often be applied with a greater level of control over the location,
19 timing, and desired outcome of the treatment. Mechanical treatments are particularly
20 suited for fuels management following natural disturbances such as storms or insect
21 outbreaks that radically change forest structure. An additional consideration is that
22 mechanical treatments generally are not wholly adequate surrogates for fire in terms of
23 ecological effects, which affects their suitability in many circumstances.

24 An added advantage of mechanical treatments in forested ecosystems is the potential to
25 utilize the removed biomass for other purposes. For example, forest thinning might result
26 in understory trees being utilized for wood chips or specialty products that can be made
27 from small-diameter trees. If markets exist for the byproducts of the treatment, then there
28 is a greater chance of being able to economically offset the cost of treatments. Areas where
29 an active timber market might offset some of the cost of mechanical treatments in forests
30 were identified by using data about timber jobs, mill production, and forested area
31 available for mechanical treatment (Option 3.a). These counties occur throughout the
32 Northeast and Southeast, within the Pacific Northwest, and scattered in the interior West.

33 Note that commercial timber harvest is not equivalent to fuels management. There are
34 forested areas where intensive forest management for commercial products can lead to
35 reduced fuel loadings, greater access, enhanced control over both wildfire and prescribed

1 fire, and generally reduced wildfire threat. There are also areas where selective harvest
2 can leave behind abundant timber slash or debris, promote uncontrolled growth of the
3 understory, encourage spread of invasive species, and generally exacerbate fuel conditions.
4 Much depends on the strength of local markets and landowner incentives to leave
5 conditions better following harvest than before.

6 A second option includes non-forested counties where combinations of mechanical
7 (mowing), chemical herbicide use, or biological control (grazing) appear feasible (Option
8 3.b). These include the range and grasslands systems where frequent—even annual—
9 control of vegetation might be advantageous or where it is desirable to alter vegetation
10 composition and structure and limit fire extent. Economic costs and benefits will vary
11 locally and depend on treatment type.

12 A third option includes counties where mechanical treatment in forests offers considerable
13 benefit, but where evidence of economic value or markets to support such activities is weak
14 (Option 3.c). These include major areas of the interior West, central Texas and Oklahoma,
15 and scattered counties throughout the Southeast and Northeast.

16 A variant on the theme of non-fire fuel treatments is an option in which economically
17 sustainable mechanical treatment is used as a precursor to and in combination with safer
18 and more expanded use of prescribed fire or wildfire for resource objectives. The intent is
19 to use mechanical treatments strategically to reduce the risks from fire use across a
20 broader landscape. For example, mechanical treatments in pine plantations that are located
21 between communities and wildland areas might facilitate prescribed fire use in the
22 wildlands. Essentially, this involves an intersection of Options 1 and 3.a. The net result is
23 Option 4, which includes many southeastern counties, the Pacific Northwest, and scattered
24 interior counties.

25 Fuel management options 3 and 4 would involve combinations of regional
26 recommendations 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.6, 1.8, 2.3, 2.4, and 2.7 from the previous section.

27 **Conclusion:** *Fuel treatments involving mechanical, biological, or chemical methods offer*
28 *many advantages in terms of greater control over the outcome and reduced risk of*
29 *unintended consequences. The disadvantage is usually higher economic cost, which in some*
30 *cases can be offset in some forested locations by active economic markets for the byproducts*
31 *of the treatments.*

32 **Managing Human Ignitions**

33 Human ignitions are the predominant cause of wildfires throughout the United States. In
34 the conterminous 48 states, more reported incidents began with human-caused ignitions

1 than from natural ignitions in 98% of the counties. The area burned from these human-
2 caused fires exceeds that from natural ignitions in 94% of the counties. Only in the remote
3 interior West is the pattern reversed. Thus, programs that target the prevention of human-
4 caused ignitions have the potential to substantively affect wildfire occurrence and extent in
5 essentially every county. Such programs are most effective when they focus on the
6 underlying causes of these human-caused ignitions in each location and tailor the
7 prevention programs to specific causal factors and community dynamics.

8 There are many different types of human-caused ignitions, but are lumped into two
9 primary categories: accidental and incendiary. Accidental causes include debris burning,
10 fireworks, equipment, campfires, and others. Incendiary fires include malicious arson
11 events or other incidents where fires were set intentionally using incendiary devices.
12 Counties were distinguished where there are higher-than-normal numbers of human-
13 caused incidents (the median is used to define “normal”), versus those counties where the
14 area burned by human-caused ignitions exceeds the national median.

15 The first option under this theme highlights counties where the intent or focus would be to
16 substantively reduce the number of accidental ignitions (Option 5.a). The two classes of
17 higher-than-normal ignition density and higher-than-normal area burned are used to
18 create a four-color map with low-low, high-low, low-high, and high-high combinations.
19 Counties falling into the high-high combination are found predominantly in the
20 southeastern and south-central states and in the far West. The Northeast has a high
21 percentage of the high-ignition-density, low-area-burned counties, while the interior West
22 displays the bulk of the low-ignition-density, high-area-burned counties.

23 The second option under this theme similarly focuses on areas experiencing higher than
24 normal incendiary ignitions or the area burned by such fires (Option 5.b). There is more
25 congruence between ignition density and area burned with incendiary fires than with
26 accidental fires. Thus, large portions of the East and more populated counties of the West
27 exhibit a combination of both high incendiary ignitions and high area burned.

28 The data sets assembled by the NSAT include a broad set of community metrics and more
29 detailed causal information that can be explored to target specific causal factors within the
30 various community contexts. For example, debris burning is one of the principal causes of
31 accidental fires; its occurrence varies considerably among community clusters.

32 Regional recommendation 2.6 focuses on fire prevention programs.

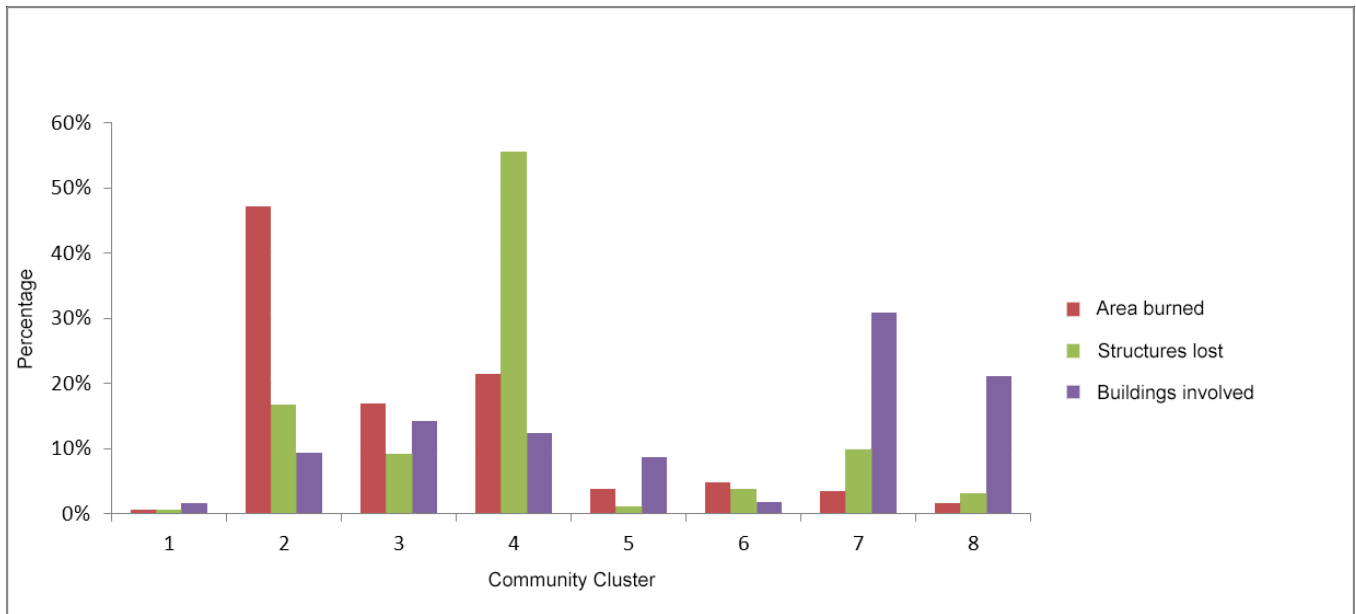
33 **Conclusion:** *Human caused ignitions, whether accidental or incendiary, are a universal*
34 *problem that affects much of the United States. Targeting regions or counties with higher-*
35 *than-normal levels of activity could prove productive, especially if targeted at specific causes.*

1 **Home and Community Protection**

2 Many programs that strive to reduce losses to homes and communities from wildfires focus
3 on the immediate vicinity of the home or the surrounding community. Social science
4 research also suggests that the public is increasingly concerned with the overall
5 environmental health of the land, with fire representing one influencing and important
6 factor. Reducing the likelihood that a wildfire burning in adjoining vegetation will ignite
7 homes or other structures is one of the most effective avenues to reducing losses. Many
8 actions can be taken by the individual homeowner, but others require concerted effort at
9 the community level to be effective. Similarly, community efforts without commensurate
10 attention by local home and business owners are unlikely to succeed. Therefore, actions by
11 property owners to reduce the ignitability of homes and other structures are prudent
12 wherever structures are in proximity to flammable vegetation. Data on the incidence of
13 buildings involved in outdoor fires suggests that essentially all communities would benefit
14 from more attention by property owners. Beyond that first step, there are areas of higher
15 risk where additional emphasis on home or community efforts might be placed.

16 Recent patterns of structures lost or buildings involved in incidents help identify areas of
17 possible prioritization. Figure D.11 presents a series of bar charts that show the relative
18 area burned, proportion of structures lost, and proportion of buildings involved for each of
19 the eight community clusters. The chart is scaled such that each set of bars sums to 100%.
20 One can readily observe that the largest proportion of area burned and many of the
21 structures lost occur in community cluster 2, while much of the area burned and the largest
22 proportion of structures lost occur in community cluster 4. Thus, community clusters 2 and
23 4 are obvious candidates for greater focus on both community-level planning and
24 individual structure protection. Community cluster 3 has the highest area burned among
25 clusters common in the East and sizable numbers of structures involved. Community
26 cluster 6 shares many of the same attributes with clusters 2 and 4 where it occurs in the
27 West, and is similar to community cluster 3 in the East. Additional information on the
28 configuration of the wildland urban interface in these four clusters reinforces the need for
29 community level planning, given that fires that threaten homes often originate beyond the
30 perimeter of the community itself.

1 **Figure D.11** – Bar chart showing the relative area burned (red bars), proportion of
 2 structures lost (green bars), and proportion of buildings involved (purple bars) for each of
 3 the eight community clusters



4
 5 Community clusters 7 and 8 are distinguished by very high numbers of buildings involved
 6 and structures lost relative to the area burned. This suggests that they would be good
 7 candidates for primary focus on the protection of individual homes and actions by
 8 individual property owners. Looking more broadly, the density of structures lost or
 9 buildings historically involved in wildfires highlights counties across the US where homes
 10 are affected by wildfire and could benefit from home protection (Option 6.a). Community
 11 clusters 2, 3, 4, and 6 are candidates for a focus on community planning and coordinated
 12 action in combination with encouraging individual actions by property owners (Option
 13 6.b).

14 One approach to making homes and other buildings more resistant to ignition is to focus on
 15 building materials and construction standards. Such standards engage individual property
 16 owners and enhance the effectiveness of additional community-wide actions. Building
 17 standards and adjustments in infrastructure are more easily applied to new construction
 18 and development than to existing development, and communities can be designed or
 19 managed in ways that enhance response effectiveness or mitigate risk. Changes in building
 20 codes are more likely to be effective when targeted at areas of new construction in high-
 21 hazards areas, and consequently counties with increasing WUI area or increasing WUI
 22 home density growth—the latter being more closely aligned with increasing home
 23 construction overall—are places where such efforts are most likely to have a significant

1 effect. Because municipal and non-municipal areas tend to exhibit varying levels of ability
2 to implement building standards, these are mapped separately (Options 7.a and 7.b).

3 Regional recommendations 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 2.5, and 2.7 are applicable to these policy options.

4 **Conclusion:** *Protecting homes from ignition by wildfire is a practical step that is applicable*
5 *anywhere homes can be found adjacent to natural vegetation. Similarly, coordinated action at*
6 *the community level has practical advantages everywhere, but is essential when wildfires*
7 *originate outside the perimeter of the community and threaten the entire community. New*
8 *construction offers risk mitigation opportunities that may not be available elsewhere.*

9 Initial and Extended Response to Wildfires

10 The United States benefits from an extensive and sophisticated wildland fire response
11 organization that comprises thousands of separate local, state, Tribal, and Federal entities.
12 Each organization has a specific jurisdictional responsibility for initial response. They also
13 coordinate and share resources and responsibilities as fires become larger and exceed the
14 local capacity for response. Fortunately, local response capacity is generally adequate for
15 controlling or extinguishing the majority of wildfires, though escalating risks due to
16 changing conditions in and around communities may impact response effectiveness in the
17 future. The relatively small percentage of fires that escape initial response are vitally
18 important, however, as they account for a disproportionate percentage of the area burned,
19 damage to homes and communities, and injuries and fatalities. They also account for a
20 major portion of total suppression costs nationwide.

21 Coordinated response is a complex nationwide issue. Various institutional arrangements
22 have been negotiated and developed across the country to meet the challenge of delivering
23 the appropriate resources and personnel required on each incident. The Regional Strategy
24 Committees and others examined various ways of improving coordination within their
25 regions and have suggested actions for improvement (recommendations 3.1, 3.2, and 3.3).
26 Implementing these recommendations will require working through the details among the
27 various national, regional, and local governance organizations. Analyzing the implications
28 of these various recommendations is beyond the scope of this national analysis. It is
29 suggested, however, that some of the data sets that were accumulated by the NSAT could
30 be useful within the more regional and local discussions of these issues.

31 At the national level, it is possible to highlight patterns that suggest areas of greater
32 concern, or alternatively where a combination of response with other policy options might
33 play out differentially. That is, response is essentially the last line of defense and action. It
34 comes after fires have started and there is little else to be done except respond. As
35 suggested previously, available evidence does not suggest that wildfires will suddenly

1 diminish in either occurrence or extent. An effective and safe response organization is
2 essential. One way to ensure that collective response organization is also efficient (i.e., uses
3 resources to maximum advantage) is to match it with other management options. For
4 example, response personnel will find it easier to protect homes and communities when
5 those same homeowners have proactively reduced hazards around their homes and
6 prepared for wildfires.

7 Because most large wildfires typically cause significant challenges, the likelihood of
8 observing a large, long-duration wildfire is mapped first. Normative terms like “large” and
9 “long-duration” are context dependent. For example, a “large” fire in the intermountain
10 west may imply thousands of acres, whereas a “large” fire in New England may only be a
11 few 100 acres in size. Identifying a national standard that reflects these nuances is difficult.
12 For analysis purposes, an index of fires of concern was defined as being greater than 1
13 square mile in extent and at least two weeks in duration (from report to containment). The
14 two standards work in tandem. Larger western fires tend to be constrained by duration;
15 fires lasting more than two weeks are generally much larger than 1 square mile. In the
16 eastern US, the size constraint ensures that long-duration fires are of consequential size.
17 The ten-year record of events provides a sample of where such fires occur nationally.
18 Extrapolating that sample to all combinations of resiliency classes and community clusters
19 generates a national map that reflects the relative likelihood of experiencing a large, long-
20 duration wildfire within each county. Option 8 identifies counties where preparedness
21 could be enhanced based on this likelihood. The resulting map indicates that much of the
22 West, Southeast, and mid-Atlantic regions display areas of higher probability, as well as
23 scattered counties of the upper Midwest.

24 A second option related to larger fires focuses on the relationship between area burned (as
25 reported in federal and state records) and structures lost (as reported in the nationwide
26 ICS-209 incident reporting system). An index of the rate at which structures are lost
27 relative to the area burned was created and compared the rate of loss to the area burned
28 itself. A four color map reflecting the intersection of those two indices revealed an
29 interesting pattern. The combination of high rates of structure loss with low area burned is
30 dominant in the Central Plains and Eastern regions. Conversely, the interior West exhibits
31 most of the area with high rates of area burned, but relatively lower rates of structures lost
32 per unit area burned. Counties exhibiting a combination of both high area burned and high
33 structure loss rates are few in number, but highlight some of the most problematic counties
34 in the country from a response perspective. Option 9 emphasizes structure protection in
35 combination with efforts to reduce fire size based on these patterns.

36 The final response option is most relevant to initial response, which often is the
37 responsibility of a local fire department or agency. Data from the National Fire Incident

1 Reporting System (NFIRS) was examined and indices computed of the numbers of
2 buildings involved per incident and the relative frequency of reported accidental human-
3 caused ignitions. The intersection of higher-than-normal values for these variables indicate
4 that the number of buildings involved per reported incidents is one of the few variables
5 lacking a strong geographical pattern. In contrast, the relative frequency of accidental
6 ignitions tends to be higher in the East and more populous areas of the West. The
7 intersection of these two variables has an interesting pattern that illustrates the
8 widespread extent of the challenges in managing wildfire risk and offers a guide to
9 matching structure protection with prevention efforts (Option 10). Reducing human
10 caused ignitions should result in a commensurate reduction in the workload of local
11 response organizations and considerably less risk to structures throughout much of the
12 East and populous Western counties. Throughout much of the remainder of the country,
13 there is an expectation that buildings will be involved in many local incidents, even if the
14 number of responses is relatively low.

15 Recommendations for improving response to fire were presented under Goal 3 in the
16 regional reports.

17 **Conclusion:** *Initial and extended responses is complex and difficult to analyze, particularly at*
18 *a national scale. Examining data on area burned, structures lost, and patterns of accidental*
19 *ignitions provides a backdrop for understanding some of the response challenges facing local,*
20 *state, tribal, and federal fire departments and agencies.*

21 **Summary of National Analysis Findings**

22 The summary of the key findings resulting from the national analysis are described below.
23 This information forms the context and basis for building the National Cohesive Strategy.

- 24 • ***Nearly all of the natural vegetation communities across North America***
25 ***historically burned—many quite frequently.*** The basic biophysical environment
26 and vegetation remains conducive to wildland fire; many biomes depend on it.
27
- 28 • ***The time intervals between wildfires have been extended, subsequently***
29 ***changing wildfire behavior and severity.*** Longer intervals between fires result in a
30 gradual build-up of fuels that can lead to more extreme fire behavior unless fuels are
31 reduced through other means.
32
- 33 • ***Present day regimes are strongly affected by the biophysical influences of***
34 ***vegetation, climate, natural ignitions, and human influences on ignitions and***
35 ***suppression.*** Most wildfire incidents are caused by people and occur where people

1 live. Natural ignitions account for fewer fires, but a disproportionate share of area
2 burned because of where and when they occur.

- 3
- 4 • ***Risk to communities is a function of the prevalence of fire, exposure of homes***
5 ***and other values, and the social capacity of a community to prepare for, respond***
6 ***to, and recover from a wildfire event.*** Understanding these basic components aids
7 the design of risk management strategies tailored to local conditions.
8
 - 9 • ***Prescribed fire is one of the most effective and cost-efficient means of managing***
10 ***vegetation for multiple purposes, including hazard reduction, ecosystem***
11 ***restoration or maintenance, silviculture, and others.*** Prescribed fire is not
12 without risk, , however, which requires properly trained personnel, resources, and
13 the willingness on the part of the landowners and nearby communities to accept the
14 potential disadvantages of prescribed fire in exchange for the potential benefits.
15
 - 16 • ***The degree to which fire – both naturally ignited wildfire and prescribed fire -***
17 ***can be tolerated within a given landscape depends upon community values and***
18 ***land management objectives.***
19
 - 20 • ***Quantifying all of the values that could be threatened by wildfire across the***
21 ***nation is impractical.*** Surrogates for many of the tangible values at risk can be used
22 to inform decision-making at national and strategic scales. The combination of
23 landscape resiliency classes and community clusters provides a powerful
24 mechanism to discern and relate both the environmental and socioeconomic
25 dimensions of the landscape simultaneously.
26
 - 27 • ***Fire regimes are inherently dynamic, having changed historically and highly***
28 ***likely to change in the future due to multiple environmental drivers.*** Accurate
29 predictions of the future remain elusive, but addressing the challenges of today
30 prepares us for the future.

31

32

SECTION E: NATIONAL STRATEGY

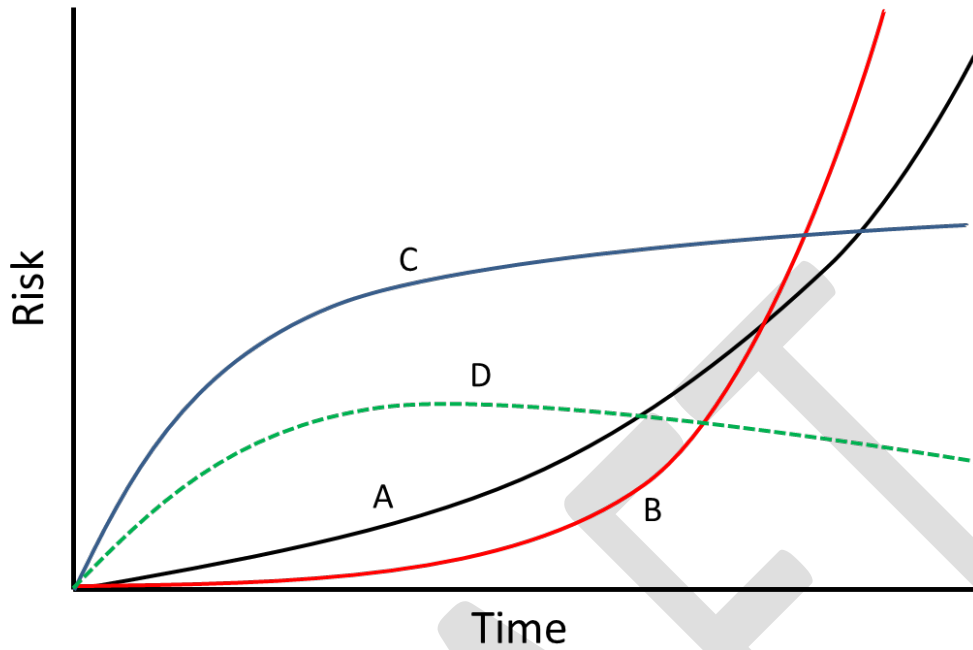
The Cohesive Strategy is about finding balance. This balance is encapsulated within the vision statement, “*Safely and effectively extinguish fire, when needed; use fire where allowable; manage our natural resources; and as a Nation, live with wildland fire.*” Finding acceptable balance is not a scientific optimization problem, but a sociopolitical exercise which science can advise.

Risk Trade-offs

Every choice involves a question of value, and unfortunately, not everything is a win-win solution. Choices made at a national or regional level to emphasize one option or set of activities over another invariably affect all constituencies differentially. Similarly, choices made today affect all future options. For example, management choices made in the past have disrupted historical fire regimes, such that wildfires today are of much different character, magnitude, and extent than those that burned centuries ago. The net result is that fuel loads on much of the landscape are higher than historical levels, continue to accumulate, and are likely to contribute to larger, higher-intensity fires. As a nation, we must either accept and prepare for that eventuality or take active steps to reduce fuels. Fuel reductions carry their own risks, however, whether it comes from fire use or unintended collateral effects on other ecological or social values. Thus, all choices inherently involve trading one set of values for another.

The temporal nature of trade-offs can be visualized as a series of hypothetical curves reflecting the level of risk or expected losses over time under different policy scenarios (Figure E.1). In areas where fuel accumulation is a dominant factor, the black line (Line A) in Figure E.1 represents a “current policy” scenario in which risk progressively increases and losses mount with accumulating fuel loads. One alternative scenario might involve greater investment in response capacity, an emphasis on protection of homes and communities, and an assumed resource constraint that supports fewer activities for managing fuels (Line B). Over the short term, the losses do not increase as dramatically as under Line A, the current policy scenario, but at some point the accumulation of fuels overwhelms the increased suppression capacity and losses mount to the point that they actually cross over the trajectory projected by the current policy scenario. One might make a plausible argument that this is consistent with a common, contemporary trajectory because of ongoing investment decisions that focus on response and protection while less attention is given to the underlying causes of wildfires.

1 **Figure E.1** – Hypothetical trajectories of risk over time under four investment scenarios.



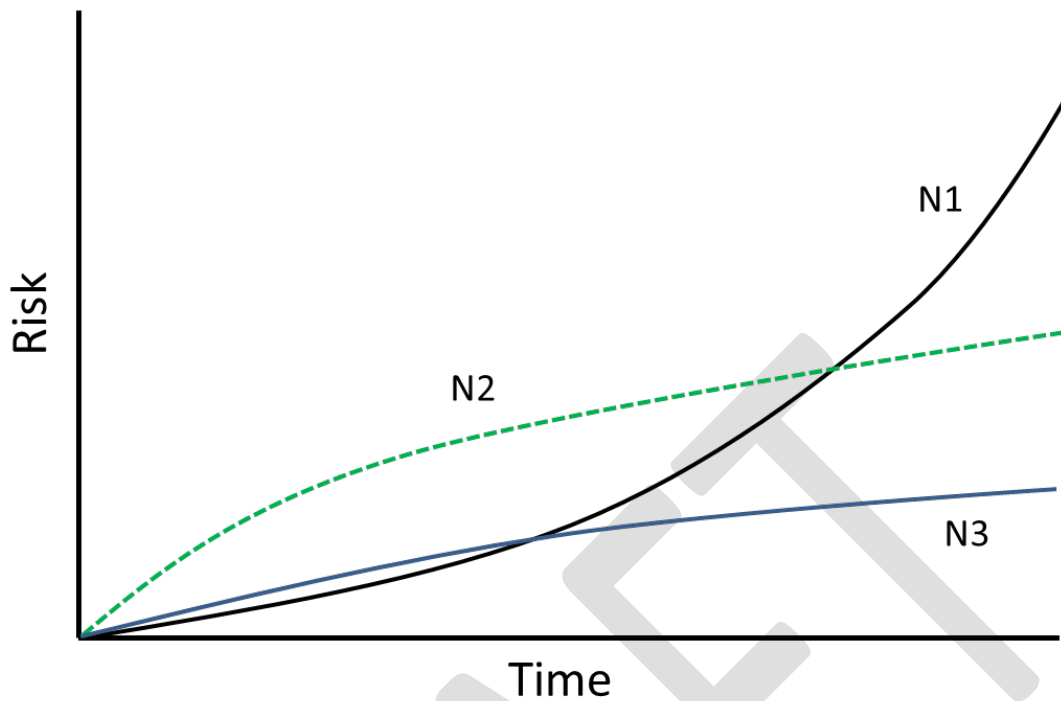
2

3 A third scenario assumes that greater investments are made in reducing fuels at the
4 expense of investments in suppression or community protection (Line C). This scenario
5 results in a trajectory wherein the risk quickly increases in the short term and then
6 plateaus at some level higher than the current level of risk, but less than future levels under
7 scenarios A and B. The short-term increase in risk is due in part to the risk associated with
8 allowing fire to be part of the fuels management strategy. Finally, one can imagine a
9 scenario in which the levels of investment in fuel treatments, suppression, and community
10 protection are sufficient to lead to a trajectory in which risk goes up in the short-term, but
11 then plateaus and perhaps even comes down over time (Line D).

1 The trajectories shown in Figure E.1 are mainly applicable to counties where fuels are a
2 driving factor in the wildfire equation, which includes much of the Southeast and the West.
3 Areas of the Northeast where the driving issues are primarily ignitions, homes, and
4 response could be represented by different, but comparable trajectories. Clearly, the actual
5 shape and magnitude of these curves vary considerably throughout the country. In some
6 areas, the curves will be relatively flat, but there is little justification for expecting declining
7 curves in any significant portion of the country. The curves here are exaggerated to better
8 show the qualitative nature of the inherent trade-offs, and should not be interpreted
9 quantitatively.

10 One can use a similar logic to imagine risk trajectories that might apply to the nation as a
11 whole (Figure E.2). In this instance, Line N1 in Figure E.2 represents the current trajectory,
12 recognizing that fuel loads are accumulating in much of the landscape, expansion of the
13 WUI continues, and climatic changes, invasive species, and other environmental factors are
14 likely to contribute to worsening risk. One can imagine that a return to near-historical
15 levels of wildland fire would aggressively address the fuels problem—leading to reduced
16 long-term risk—but also quickly escalate overall risks beyond what might be acceptable in
17 many communities (Line N2). A more ideal solution would be a trajectory that marginally
18 increased risk in the short-term, but began paying long-term benefits relatively quickly and
19 kept risks at manageable levels (Line N3).

20 **Figure E.2** – Three hypothetical scenarios for temporal trends in risk nationwide:
21 continuation of current policies and actions (N1), return to historical levels of wildland fire
22 (N2), and a mix of prudent policies and actions that effectively reduce long-term risk (N3).



1

2 Line N3 represents the vision of the Cohesive Strategy, where we are able to restore and
 3 maintain fire-resilient landscapes, create fire-adapted communities, and safely and
 4 effectively respond to wildfire. The temporal nature of the curve helps conceptualize a
 5 National Strategy, as the vision of the Cohesive Strategy is to address risk in the immediate
 6 and short-term as well as the much longer-term future. The exact trajectory is not fully
 7 defined. Each area of the country will follow a unique path, but there will be a point at
 8 which the level of fuel treatment is adequate to temper fire behavior to manageable, non-
 9 destructive levels. Simultaneously, the investments and priority actions undertaken within
 10 and near communities are sufficient to protect homes and communities. The potential rise
 11 in risk in the near term is related to the risk associated with expansion of the use of fire as a
 12 tool to manage fuels. Safe and effective response is universal, works in tandem with other
 13 programs and activities, and is commensurate with the need.

14 The wide variation in current conditions and trajectories across the country makes it
 15 impossible to generalize the specific actions that are best suited to each given area. The
 16 policy options explored in the preceding section and the analysis of resiliency classes and
 17 community clusters suggest where to look first for setting priorities and providing
 18 emphasis. No county can be perfectly characterized by a national analysis, but
 19 understanding commonly shared attributes provides a good start. Combining policy
 20 options to best fit a combination's unique character, coupled with consideration of local
 21 available information and circumstances should yield favorable outcomes.

1 Identifying National Priorities

2 The vision for the Cohesive Strategy is clear, the goals are well articulated, potential
3 policies and actions have been explored, and the desired trajectory of risk has been
4 mapped. What remains is perhaps the hardest part of any planning exercise: who does
5 what when and where? Many of these details will be worked through in collaborative
6 exercises, but the blueprint for those deliberations and commitments comes from national-
7 level spatial and temporal prioritization.

8 The first element in that blueprint is response. Safe and effective response to wildfires
9 must be the first priority of the National Strategy. Placing priority on the protection of the
10 health and safety of the public and firefighters implies the need for, and assumption of, a
11 safe and effective response organization. This presumes that immediate threats are the
12 most important—and wildfires are an immediate threat throughout the country. Although
13 the analysis does not suggest widespread deficiencies in suppression capacity, Options 8-
14 10 explored above suggest locations that might benefit from greater preparedness,
15 especially if paired with other actions that reduce hazards. Improving preparedness can
16 take many forms beyond merely more equipment and personnel. Improved coordination,
17 communication, and training enhance response efficiency, and belong in any prudent
18 regional or national strategy.

19 It would be shortsighted, however, to assume that a safe and effective response to fire is
20 the only priority. Indeed, one could argue that the suppression challenges today are
21 symptomatic of more fundamental underlying issues. Ample evidence suggests a trajectory
22 of increasing risk that cannot be headed off by simply adding more suppression resources.
23 Relatively inexpensive, effectual, and broadly applicable actions head the list of additional
24 priorities. Of those considered, options that focus on anthropogenic ignitions are logical
25 next choices. Human caused ignitions are a widespread issue that is relatively inexpensive
26 to affect, especially when prevention programs are carefully targeted.

27 Activities that focus on individual homes or structures and community-level protection is
28 an equally important component of the Cohesive Strategy. Large wildfires that threaten
29 entire communities are relatively rare, yet their impact to public perception and the reality
30 that large fires have significant consequences leads to aggressive and costly suppression
31 efforts even when other approaches might be considered. Efforts that engage communities
32 in taking proactive action prior to wildfires engender public support, work in conjunction
33 with other actions, enhance management flexibility in response, and are not necessarily
34 expensive.

1 The gradual accumulation of wildland fuels is perhaps the most difficult and challenging
2 issue to address. An analogy can be made to walking up the down escalator. One has to be
3 moving just to stay in place; the only way to move up is to move faster than the escalator is
4 moving down. Current estimates of areas being treated intentionally or burned in wildfires
5 suggest that fire-adapted landscapes are falling further behind in managing fuels. In some
6 areas, the principal means of reducing fuels appears to have been unwanted wildfires over
7 which we have little apparent control. Broad-scale efforts to reduce fuels across the
8 landscape can be expensive and time-consuming, and require strategic coordination.
9 Success will not be achieved overnight. Prescribed fire and managing wildfire for resource
10 objectives have the greatest potential for treating large areas at lower cost than mechanical
11 treatments, but use of fire entails greater inherent risk that must be addressed at a local
12 level. Mechanical, biological, or chemical treatments play an important role wherever they
13 are economically feasible.

14 **Spatial Prioritization**

15 The policy options described in the National Analysis suggest that there is a broad range of
16 actions that would be effective in advancing the goals of the Cohesive Strategy. Spatial
17 prioritization of activities at a national-scale, based upon a rigorous analysis of available
18 information, was conducted to reveal opportunities for greater success, as well as possible
19 barriers (other than resource constraints) that could hinder or prevent some policy options
20 from being followed.

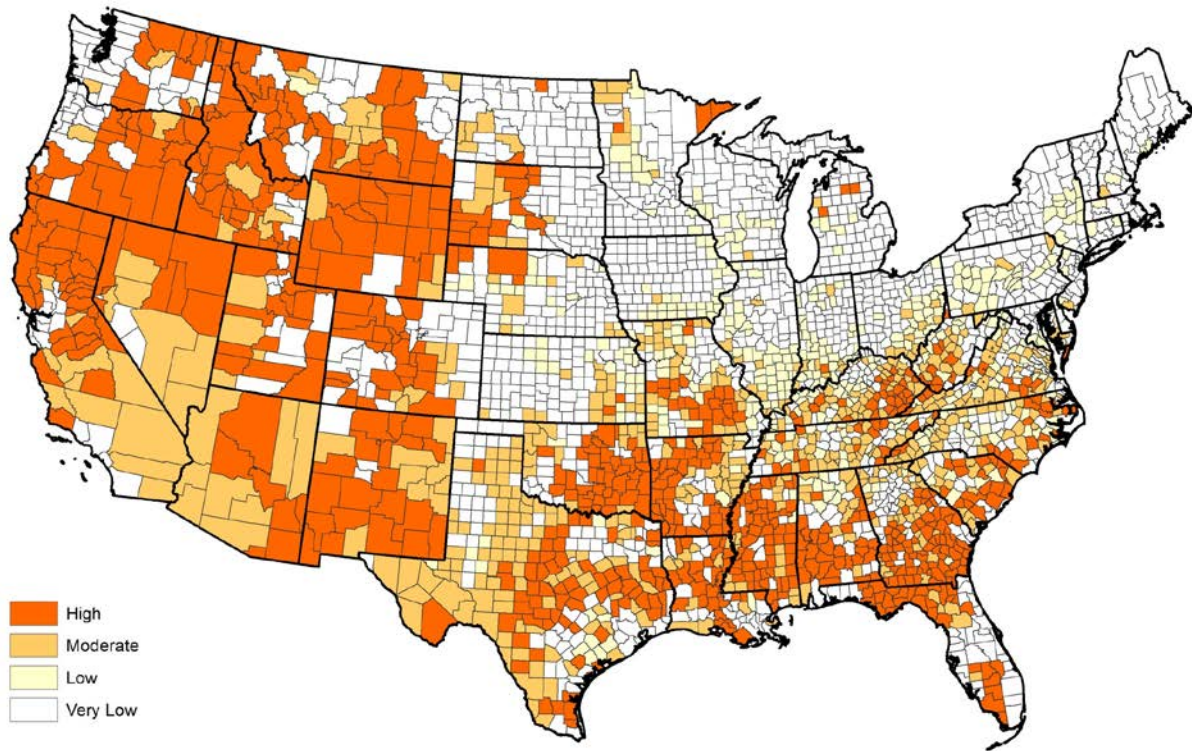
21 The concept of a national priority for thematic actions follows the premise that concerted
22 actions are most likely to be efficient or effective in areas where conditions contributing to
23 an issue are most acute. The attributes of counties falling within each combination of
24 community clusters and resiliency classes relative to three themes were analyzed at the
25 national scale: managing human ignitions, community planning and coordination, and
26 broadscale fuel management. The characteristics of these combination classes relative to
27 each theme were then used to suggest relative priorities from a national perspective. The
28 general process was to identify a subset of resiliency classes or community clusters that
29 were associated with higher or more troublesome levels of the variables of interest. The
30 intersection of these identified classes and clusters created a high priority combination
31 class. Second-tier sets of clusters or classes were also identified and used similarly to
32 indicate combination classes that would receive second or third-level priorities.

33 **Broad-scale Fuels Management**

34 National prioritization of areas for broad-scale fuels management (as distinct from hazard
35 reduction in proximity to structures) suggests a primary emphasis in the West and

1 Southeast (Figure E.3). These included counties with the highest level of wildfire, fire-
2 adapted native vegetation, and communities concentrated within a broader wildland
3 landscape. Each location would utilize the mix of options most suitable for local conditions,
4 as described in Options 1-4.

5 **Figure E.3** – National priorities for broad scale fuels management utilizing a mix of options
6 best suited for local conditions

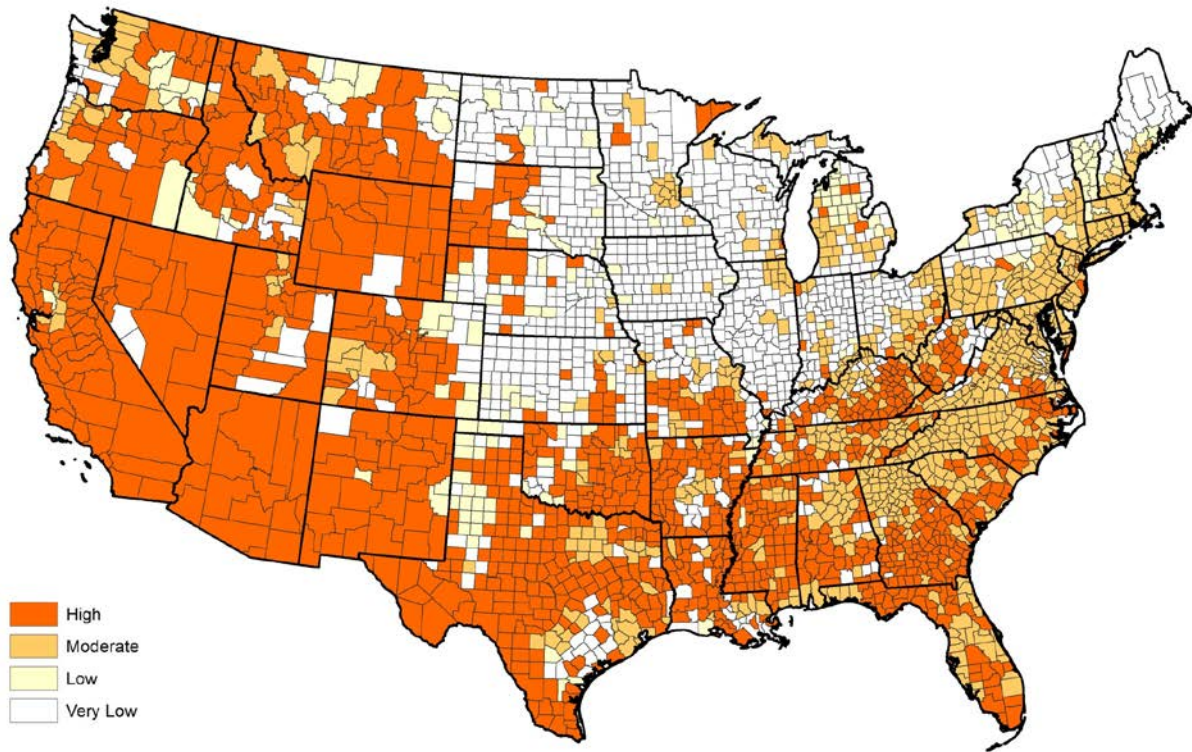


7

8 **Community Planning and Individual Homeowner Action**

9 Candidate counties for national prioritization of community and individual homeowner
10 action would include those described above under Options 6.a and 6.b, with consideration
11 for landscape resiliency class (Figure E.4). Counties characterized by higher-than-average
12 annual area burned, structures lost, and homes exposed within the WUI were assigned the
13 highest priority for community action. More urban and suburban counties (especially in the
14 East) were assigned the second-highest level of priority.

1 **Figure E.4** – National priorities for community planning and coordination as suggested by
2 county attributes

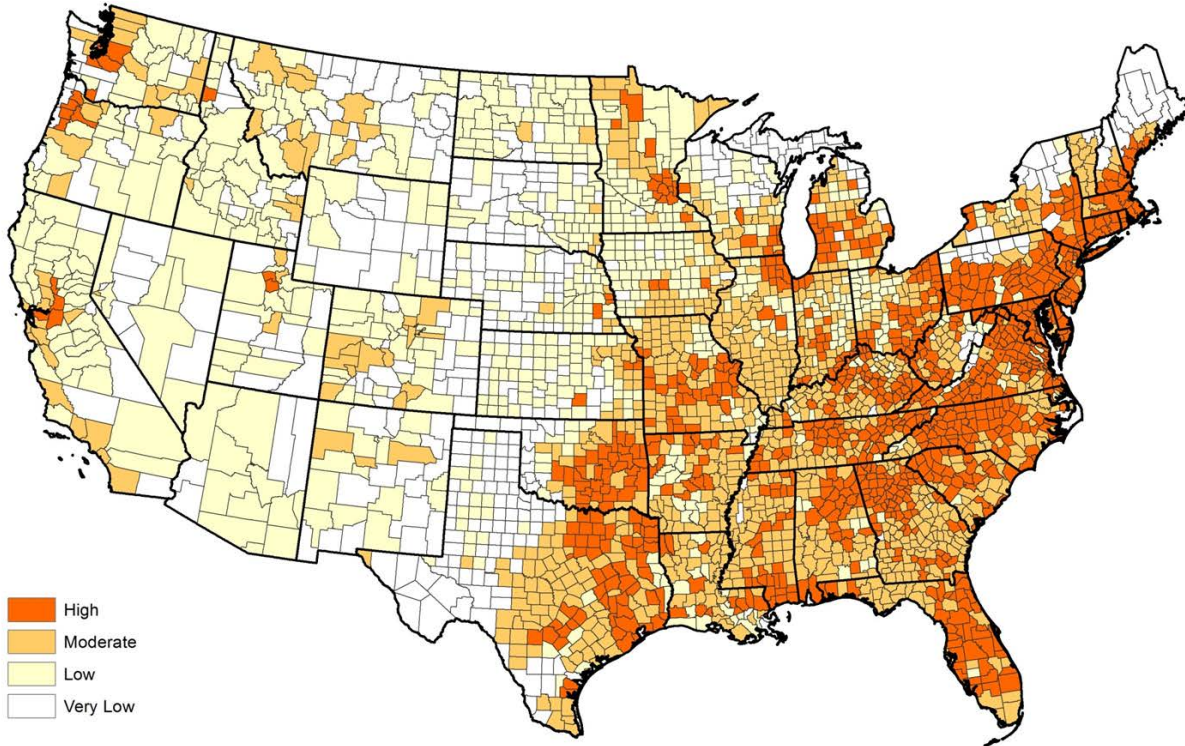


3

4 **Managing Human-Caused Ignitions**

5 The available data on human ignitions and its consequences identifies counties where
6 human ignitions dominate and lead to above-average area burned or buildings impacted by
7 wildfires. These data suggest a prioritization that would target many eastern counties and
8 populous western counties (Figure E.5).

1 **Figure E.5 – National priorities for managing human ignitions**



2

3 The spatial prioritization maps presented here work in tandem with the policy option maps
4 presented in Section D. Policy options were mapped in an attempt to show where they
5 would be most reasonable or potentially effective and generally were developed
6 independent of each other. The prioritization maps reflect a higher level of aggregation in
7 that multiple policy options can be employed in the same location for similar purposes.
8 Both maps are intended to highlight opportunities, not to exclude the use of any
9 management option from other locations.

10 Similarly, the purpose in developing the classification systems for counties was to create a
11 common set of narratives that would be broadly applicable, not identify individual counties
12 for a particular prescription. Therefore, if errors in data or interpretation erroneously led
13 to a misclassification of a county, it is anticipated that more localized planning efforts
14 would correct such errors and adjust county-level recommendations appropriately.

1 Additionally, implementation of any policy option and action requires a trained, committed,
2 and supported workforce. It is likely that the same individuals will be called upon to
3 implement multiple facets of the overall strategy. For example, first responders may be the
4 only ones with the requisite knowledge and experience to conduct prescribed burning in
5 many locations. If they are occupied responding to wildfires, prescribed burning is
6 cancelled or postponed. Similarly, the best ambassadors for prevention programs and
7 community planning are often local firefighters. When resources are stretched, secondary
8 programs suffer.

9 **Management and Policy Recommendations**

10 The national risk analysis and spatial prioritization of actions provides a basis for
11 establishing strategic and intergovernmental direction for wildland fire management.
12 Several national, intergovernmental management and policy recommendations related to
13 the four themes analyzed in the national risk analysis emerge, and are listed here. If the
14 intergovernmental actions and decisions across the nation are aligned with these
15 recommendations and investments are focused on national priorities that can be discerned
16 spatially, the likelihood of achieving the three broad goals of the strategy in an effective and
17 efficient way will be enhanced.

18 **Broad-scale Fuels Management**

- 19 1. Where wildfires are unwanted or threaten communities and homes, design and
20 prioritize fuel treatments to reduce fire intensity, structure ignition, and extent so
21 that suppression efforts are more likely to be effective and can be conducted more
22 safely.
23
- 24 2. Prioritize fuel treatments that have a high likelihood to reduce fire intensity. Fuel
25 treatments that are effective at reducing fire intensity can lead to reduced severity
26 (fire effects), which can lead to reduced harmful or even beneficial ecological effects
27 and may more closely mimic historical fire effects.
28
- 29 3. Where feasible, implement strategically placed fuel treatments where landscape
30 effects can extend beyond the perimeter of the area physically treated, either
31 through affecting fire behavior directly or by facilitating ecologically sensitive
32 suppression strategies.
33
- 34 4. Continue and expand the use of prescribed fire in counties where prescribed fire is
35 currently applied to substantial portions of the landscape. Expand the use of
36 prescribed fire to those areas suitable for meeting objectives and mitigating

1 potential consequences. For example, many areas in the West as well as counties in
2 the central Appalachians appear to be suitable for increased prescribed fire
3 activities.

- 4
- 5 5. Where allowed and feasible, manage wildfire for resource objectives and ecological
6 purposes to manage fire-adapted ecosystems and achieve fire-resilient landscapes.
7 The inherent risks must be recognized and it becomes important to involve partners
8 in planning and implementation. This method of managing fuels is affirmed in the
9 Federal Wildland Fire Management Policy, though typically prohibited by state and
10 local policies or statutes. Use of this method to manage fuels in wilderness, parks,
11 and similar remote and wild areas has proven effective.
12
 - 13 6. Utilize fuel treatments involving mechanical, biological, or chemical methods when
14 economically feasible and greater control over the project objective and outcomes is
15 necessary. Where possible, these treatment types should be linked with active
16 economic markets where byproducts can help offset the cost of treatment. Expand
17 forest product and biomass markets where sustainable use is feasible and aligns
18 with landowner objectives.

19 **Home and Community Action**

- 20 1. Plan for and mitigate risk posed by wildfire in communities and homes situated near
21 or adjacent to natural vegetation. Wildfires that originate outside the perimeter of
22 the community require coordinated action at the community level because they can
23 threaten the community as a whole. In most instances, action is required by both
24 the community and individual homeowners if risk to communities and their values
25 is to be avoided or mitigated.
26
- 27 2. Emphasize proactive wildfire risk mitigation action, especially where new
28 development and expansion into natural vegetation is occurring. Prioritize actions
29 that mitigate risk and enhance response effectiveness at the community and
30 individual structure level where communities and homeowners take responsibility
31 to plan for and implement actions.
32
- 33 3. Pursue municipal, county, and state building and zoning codes and ordinances that
34 mitigate fire risk and help protect life and property from wildfire – this is most
35 easily accomplished for new construction. Develop and promote building materials
36 and fire-resistant construction standards.
37

- 1 4. Emphasize community and homeowner defense actions that protect structures in
2 areas where wildfire risk is evident and past wildfires have involved structure
3 damage and/or loss.
4
- 5 5. Ensure that wildfire mitigation strategies consider protection of community
6 infrastructure and values. For example, municipal watersheds, viewsheds, parks,
7 and other recreation facilities are less costly to protect than to restore after a fire.
8 Collaborative planning and partnerships become essential to allow activities to be
9 coordinated based on a shared set of values and establishment of jurisdictional roles
10 and responsibilities.

11 **Wildfire Response**

- 12 1. Enhance wildfire response preparedness in areas where there is a higher likelihood
13 of large, long-duration wildfires. From a national perspective these areas include
14 much of the West, Southeast, and mid-Atlantic regions as well as scattered counties
15 of the upper Midwest.
16
- 17 2. Enhance wildfire response preparedness in areas where high rates of structures loss
18 per area burned occur. From a national perspective this includes areas in the
19 Central Plains and Eastern regions. Prioritize areas that exhibit a combination of
20 both high area burned and high structure loss rates for proactive fuels management,
21 preparedness, aggressive suppression, structure protection, or a combination of
22 multiple policy options. While relatively small in number, these counties may be the
23 most problematic from a response perspective.
24
- 25 3. Jointly emphasize structure protection and prevention to support initial response,
26 which is often the responsibility of a local fire department or agency.

27 **Managing Human-Caused Ignitions**

- 28 1. Emphasize programs and activities that prevent human-caused ignitions. Human
29 caused ignitions, whether accidental or incendiary, are a universal problem that
30 affects much of the United States. Prevention programs are most effective when they
31 focus on the underlying causes of human-caused ignitions locally and tailor
32 prevention efforts to specific causal factors and community dynamics.
33
- 34 2. Target prevention programs in the southeastern and south-central states and in the
35 far West to prevent human-caused ignitions.
36

1 3. Target prevention programs in large portions of the East and more populated
2 counties of the West for prevention of incendiary ignitions where these ignitions
3 combined with high levels of area burned suggest greatest need.

4 **Implementation**

5 The national analysis yields consistent information to evaluate the relative opportunities
6 and risks of each policy option and explores where they might be focused across the nation.
7 The National Strategy lays the foundation for taking the next step of establishing the
8 priorities and actions necessary to making progress in the three goals, emphasizing the
9 shared responsibility among stakeholders and partners. On-the-ground actions and
10 activities can be consistent, aligned, and complementary to supporting the National
11 Cohesive Strategy.

12 **The need for continued discussion and effort remains.** Implementation of that strategy
13 will involve both national executives and a cascading series of regional and local officials.
14 The strategy described here is intended to inform broad and strategic discussions among
15 intergovernmental stakeholders. Final implementation will require concerted effort on the
16 part of numerous individuals and stakeholders, not specific allocation of funds or
17 placement of resources.

SECTION F: NEXT STEPS

The Cohesive Strategy was developed to be informative at multiple scales and utilized by a diverse set of stakeholders. Phase II of the effort focused specifically on regional understanding of wildfire risks, challenges, and opportunities. As a result of Phase II, the Regional Strategy Committees assembled a comprehensive list of actions and activities within the regional action plans that would collectively advance the goals of the Cohesive Strategy. Implementing the regional action plans through local and regional planning and decision-making processes is necessary and ongoing. The National Action Plan will bring together issues of national significance and initiate actions to address the barriers and critical success factors identified by the Regional Strategy Committees. The keys to success in implementing the regional and national actions plans are:

- **Engagement and Leadership:** Sustained leadership and broad intergovernmental coordination.
- **Collaboration:** Facilitate and expand collaboration at all levels, including supporting coordination of activities and landscape-scale planning and prioritization.
- **Partnerships:** Maintaining and continuing to build the relationships among stakeholders throughout implementation.
- **Accountability:** Redeeming roles and responsibilities and fostering accountability to track progress toward achieving the Cohesive Strategy goals.

The work completed in the regions, including the Regional Action Plans, defined what should be pursued, while the national risk analysis explores spatial prioritization of broad policy options across the nation. By design, the national trade-off analysis provides a broad strategic overview of the challenges and opportunities to inform choices that can be made. Analytical capability and utility is far beyond what is presented within this report. Future analyses can be explored to focus on different scales and/or scopes.

The analysis of options suggests where actions could be focused from a national program management perspective. With an understanding of the complexity of wildland fire management challenges across the county, the Cohesive Strategy does not - and cannot - prescribe a single, one-size-fits-all solution. The Cohesive Strategy recognizes that choices can be made, and the available scientific information can be utilized to inform those choices occurring across the nation, at various scales.

1 The following areas represent the critical areas in which work will continue in order to
2 facilitate implementation of the Cohesive Strategy.

3 **Priority Setting**

4 The Science analysis assembled approximately 100 data sets that form the basis for
5 prioritization and decision-making. Priorities for actions will be developed by the decision-
6 making bodies and incorporated in the National Action Plan. The regions have stated that
7 prioritization is essential – prioritization of actions, as well as geographic prioritization of
8 where these actions are likely to provide the desired outcomes. The WFEC has acted on the
9 science information and a national perspective of prioritization is presented in Section E.
10 The regions have developed action priorities in their Action Plans, but regional
11 geographical priorities were not specified. The science analysis provides a tool for national
12 and regional priority setting.

13 The national analysis is broadly applicable to the regions in a number of ways. Summary
14 sheets were developed for each landscape resiliency class and community cluster
15 combination, showing the counties within each cluster (refer to Appendix 6). The summary
16 sheets can be utilized to help decision-makers at various levels answer specific questions
17 tailored to the attributes of the resilience class and community cluster
18 combination. Summary sheets will be useful to communities and counties involved in
19 creating or updating a CWPP. Each summary sheet describes the combination of landscape
20 and community factors, maps the counties in that cluster, lists the policy options to
21 consider for reducing wildfire risk in those counties, and gives the relevant priority rating
22 for the three national policy options. Figure F.1 shows a sample summary sheet.

23 The national analysis provides insight into which policy options are useful in different
24 areas of the country and facilitates prioritization at the national and regional levels. Local
25 information can then be applied to address these issues strategically and tactically. The
26 summary sheet clusters provide maps of counties with the intersection of landscape and
27 social risk factors. Detailed knowledge of locations within the counties, available from the
28 states and counties, can show where fuels, communities, or response capacity need to be
29 addressed within those counties. The Cohesive Strategy envisions decision-making being
30 shared between national, state and local levels.

1 **Figure F.1. Summary Sheet 3G**

3G

Community Cluster.....3
Resiliency Class.....G

Description

These counties have a sizable federal land area, have many ignitions, but not have experienced a large fire. Most are in the Southeast, where there is a high Wildland Urban Interface (WUI) and demographically stressed population.

Policy Options and Opportunities

Managing Fuels Across the Landscape

These counties can consider using prescribed fire as one of their primary fuel management options. In addition, there may be an active forest products industry nearby, which could support fuel treatments.

Managing Ignitions

Human caused ignitions are a problem in these counties. Reduce accidental human-caused ignitions through the enforcement of burning bans or greater education of the danger of attended fires. Reduce human-caused incendiary ignitions by focusing on enforcement programs

Home and Community Actions

These counties could adjust building and construction codes in non-municipal areas.

Response to Wildfires

Response organizations continue to protect structures, treat fuels and target ignitions as local conditions apply.

Example of a Typical County

Yell County, Arkansas: Yell County has a large area in the Ouachita National Forest. It experiences occasional large fires, as it did in 2003 and 2007.



National Priorities

Fuels Management	High
Community Planning and Coordination	High
Managing Human Ignitions	Low

2

3 The scientific analysis provides information on policy options that can be considered for
 4 the 3,109 counties of the coterminous United States. The policy recommendations work
 5 together to make a county more resilient to fire. For a single county there could be
 6 recommendations for prescribed fire use, wildland fire use, efforts to reduce accidental and
 7 intentional ignitions, community protection and buffers, building codes, and more. In areas

1 of high risk, a multi-faceted approach is the best approach to reducing wildfire effects. High
2 risk areas require multiple approaches which include reducing fuels, reducing ignitions,
3 reducing structural ignitability, and increasing community preparedness for maximum fire
4 readiness. To protect communities, fuels treatments should be strategically placed.

5 A review of the Regional Action Plans to utilize the science analysis for geographic priority
6 setting is a next step for the regions.

7 **National Action Plan**

8 The National Action Plan and the Regional Action Plans will work together to address
9 issues which the three regions have identified through the scientific analysis and through
10 experience, as having the highest priority for action. The National Action Plan will spell out
11 actions, tasks, lead agencies and timeframes for addressing the high priority barriers and
12 critical success factors, other national issues, and will take a national approach to
13 monitoring and evaluating progress.

14 Actions may be derived from the following sources:

- 15 • Actions to address the barriers and critical success factors identified in Phase II of
16 the Cohesive Strategy; new barriers and critical success factors that may be
17 identified in the future;
- 18
- 19 • Actions in relation to policy options derived from the tradeoff analysis;
- 20
- 21 • Actions from regional action plans that are national in scope or common to multiple
22 regions;
- 23
- 24 • Overarching actions from the above sources.

25 **Barriers and Critical Success Factors and Other National Issues**

26 Analysis of the 11 barriers and critical success factors (CSF) has begun. Each was selected
27 by the RSCs as being the highest priority to be addressed for successful implementation of
28 the Cohesive Strategy. WFEC has assigned task groups to review and validate the national
29 barriers and critical success factors. The task groups will identify activities necessary to
30 mitigate the barrier and or critical success factor and identify appropriate resources
31 necessary to address them. While time frames will vary for each barrier and critical
32 success factor, it is anticipated that actions to address barriers and critical success factors
33 will be included in the National Action Plan.

- 1 1. Increase Fuels Management on Private Land
- 2 2. Increase Fuels Management on Federal Land
- 3 3. Growth Management, Land Development and Zoning Laws
- 4 4. Inefficiencies in the National Qualification Standards
- 5 5. Remove Policy Barriers and Process Complexities for Sharing Resources
- 6 6. Enforceable Fire Prevention State/Local Ordinances
- 7 7. FEMA Pre-Disaster Mitigation Program
- 8 8. Assisting Communities at Risk
- 9 9. Investment in Firefighting Workforce
- 10 10. Improve Fire Data
- 11 11. Intergovernmental Wildland Fire Governance

12
13 Additional issues or concerns were noted in the Regional Risk Analysis Reports. These
14 issues and concerns will be addressed further in the National Action Plan:

- 15
- 16 1. Prescribed fire and smoke management
- 17 2. Rehabilitation of damaged lands
- 18 3. Biomass utilization
- 19 4. Increasing collaboration with stakeholders and regulatory agencies
- 20 5. Expand fire adapted communities programs
- 21 6. Protection from unwanted fires for all lands
- 22 7. Implement actions from the three regional action plans

23 **Communications**

24 The National Communication Working Group will shift its communication focus from
25 development to implementation, and new communication strategies are needed to meet
26 implementation objectives. The following communication strategies will support
27 implementation.

28 The Working Group expects a large majority of Cohesive Strategy implementation projects
29 to be undertaken by local community-based collaboratives focusing on single or a few joint
30 actions. It also believes that the success of these collaboratives will largely determine
31 continuing support for the Cohesive Strategy and its enduring success. The Working
32 Group's next steps include the following.

- 33 • Increase knowledge of the Cohesive Strategy in fire and land management
34 organizations;
- 35
- 36 • Expand other stakeholder knowledge and understanding of the Cohesive Strategy;

- 1
- 2 • Fire education: Improve stakeholder and public knowledge of wildland fire
- 3 fundamentals;
- 4
- 5 • Collaboration: Mobilize higher education and extension resources to provide
- 6 opportunities for stakeholders to improve their collaboration knowledge and skills;
- 7 • Knowledge utilization: Improve and expand communication between scientists and
- 8 stakeholders implementing the Cohesive Strategy to ensure that the best science
- 9 and proven professional practices are used;
- 10
- 11 • Promote evidence-based wildland fire prevention communications and education;
- 12
- 13 • Encourage and support a continuous, rolling, and collaborative dialog among
- 14 stakeholders and across regions to enhance shared understandings, roles, mutual
- 15 trust, and willingness to pool resources and take joint actions.

16 The Framework to support Cohesive Strategy implementation addresses identified national
17 and regional priorities. It is designed to adapt to new information and changing conditions.
18 It will be updated periodically as progress is made, lessons are learned, new activities are
19 planned, and as Cohesive Strategy goals are achieved.

20 **Monitoring and Accountability**

21 Performance measures drive progress toward key desired outcomes. They are statements
22 describing the level of performance to be accomplished within a timeframe, expressed as a
23 tangible, measurable objective or as a quantitative standard, value, or rate. Performance
24 measures also occur at different levels or scales. The format generally accepted as the
25 model for developing performance measures – “The Logic Model” - calls for developing
26 outcome measures to measure the ultimate end result, intermediate measures that serve as
27 leading indicators to let organizations know if they’re on the right track, and inputs and
28 outputs, which track activities.

29 Throughout the development of the National Cohesive Strategy, it has been recognized that
30 for a country as large and diverse as the United States, one size does not fit all. Therefore,
31 the national outcome measures flow directly from the Vision and Goals of the Strategy and
32 will be intentionally broad to be inclusive of many different factors across geographic
33 regions. Together, the national outcome measures will enable us to communicate to
34 partners and policy-makers progress toward meeting the goals of the Cohesive Strategy.
35 They will help leadership answer questions such as: Are landscapes resilient to wildfire in
36 support of our management objectives? Can human populations and infrastructure in

1 communities at risk withstand wildfire without loss? Is there effective collaboration in
2 using risk management to improve the safety, effectiveness and efficiency of our wildland
3 fire management actions? The national outcome measures will be used to help the
4 Congress, the national wildland fire management community, and other stakeholders
5 assess national progress toward achieving the expected results for each of the three goals
6 of the Cohesive Strategy. Beneath the national outcome measures are intermediate
7 outcome measures, which will be more narrowly focused on measuring specific activities
8 that must happen if we are to be successful in achieving the national outcome measures.

- 9 • The federal agencies are accountable to the Office of Management and Budget and
10 Congress through formal performance measures. The Cohesive Strategy national
11 outcome performance measures will not supersede the formal agency performance
12 measures but will be used to demonstrate and report progress toward achievement
13 of the Cohesive Strategy goals. However, it is desired that all agencies and
14 organizations with a stake in wildland fire management will seek to align with or
15 incorporate these national outcome measures into their own planning and
16 performance processes. These national outcome measures are important and
17 implementation of the Cohesive Strategy includes strategies and commitments to
18 collect the information required for these measures. National outcome,
19 intermediate, and efficiency performance measures along with definitions and
20 targets will be established.
21
- 22 • The national performance measures will be developed using a set of basic premises
23 ensuring measures: (1) are “SMART” (specific, measurable, achievable, relevant,
24 timely), (2) clearly illustrate achievement of the three goals of the Cohesive Strategy
25 over time, and are (3) guided by the national trade-off analysis to ensure they are
26 focused on measuring the most critical accomplishments. In addition, the national
27 outcome measures will take into account the Guiding Principles that were agreed to
28 during Phase I of the development of the Cohesive Strategy.

29 In addition to national outcome measures, associated national efficiency measures will be
30 developed for each goal to measure the efficiency of investments related to significant cost
31 centers associated with each goal. Specifically, efficiency measures will be used to:

- 32 • Track priority investments by Cohesive Strategy goal, over time with the intent of
33 establishing trend information (where applicable) on the effects of investments to
34 achieve goal outcomes.
35

- 1 • Help Congress, OMB, and decision-makers assess which investments are the most
2 cost effective means of achieving the goals in order to make informed investment
3 trade-offs with respect to wildland fire program appropriations.
4
- 5 • The measures will be incorporated into the National Action Plan to be completed in
6 2014.

7 Data Gaps

8 The Cohesive Strategy has involved an integration of datasets that cover very different
9 aspects of wildland fire. Few if any of these datasets were collected with an integrated
10 science or management framework in mind. Instead data have long been collected to
11 satisfy narrower objectives, and past improvements in data quality have focused on
12 problems of completeness and consistency within and among reporting entities.

13 Gaps and data quality issues will probably always exist from this perspective, but what
14 comprises a functionally important *data problem* is dependent on the scale of the analysis
15 and the scale of the decisions to be made. For certain types of decisions, data gaps may not
16 matter; for others, data gaps can be critical. Put another way, for certain considerations of
17 tradeoffs, an approximate understanding of an issue or problem is not likely to lead you
18 toward a different decision than if that data were perfect.

19 Decisions related to the Cohesive Strategy involve how we are going to affect the present or
20 future, so whether or not something constitutes an important historical data gap needs to
21 be put in context with how well it helps us understand the present or predict the future.
22 Historical data quality generally improves over time, but communities, weather, markets,
23 and invasive species are also changing. If the past does not accurately inform what we are
24 about to experience, the depth and representativeness of historical data might suggest
25 important data gaps that may be only resolved through modeling.

26 The data gaps listed here are those considered most important for national to regional
27 scale prioritization and integrated decision making. While some shortcomings may be
28 overcome by combining different types of data, such as use of MODIS hotspots as well as
29 reported fire data, having better quality data would likely improve our understanding of
30 the processes involved and our confidence in the associated tradeoffs.

- 31 1. Prescribed fire data is critical for understanding questions of resilience, yet data are
32 inconsistently collected across jurisdictions, if it is collected at all. Federal fires that
33 involve fuels treatment programs are available and sometimes in GIS format, yet
34 state or local data is more challenging. Knowing where prescribed fire is being

1 conducted would refine our understanding of where fuels management and
2 resilience depends on it, and where fire conflicts could occur. Military lands and
3 states (or home rule counties) that have limited or no burn reporting requirements
4 are especially incomplete.
5

- 6 2. Knowing the actual effectiveness of fuels treatments—as measured across a range of
7 values—is a fundamental gap in existing data. While difficult to measure, a general
8 emphasis on fuels treatment is not guaranteed to be effective overall. And
9 effectiveness is often better measured by not one treatment, but implementation of a
10 sustained fuels treatment regime. We have limited knowledge of fuel treatment
11 regime effectiveness across jurisdictions.
12
- 13 3. Substantial attention has been afforded to the problem of jurisdictionally-consistent
14 wildfire data. Federal, state and NFIRS (DHS-US Fire Administration) data differ in
15 many respects and vary in their completeness. Military lands are very incomplete.
16
 - 17 a. To get at national to regional patterns in wildfire occurrence, consideration
18 of all three datasets is critical, yet non-reporting, inconsistencies, missing
19 fields, and redundancies make integration difficult. This makes it difficult to
20 explore tradeoffs involving regional and local response efficiency, responder
21 and community safety and resilience.
22
 - 23 b. Knowing how much and what parts of large fires are managed for resource
24 benefits could increase broad-scale understanding of this alternative and its
25 tradeoffs.
26
 - 27 c. Location-specific information is critical for sub-regional decisions as it affects
28 tradeoffs involving resilience and risks to communities. Past location
29 information is especially error prone or of low resolution.
30
 - 31 d. Having an accurate knowledge of wildfire cause is important for specific
32 tradeoff considerations, yet definitions vary across datasets and jurisdictions.
33 A high fraction of wildfires are attributed to unknown or miscellaneous
34 causes. Inconsistencies in general and specific causes can suggest a basic
35 need for data quality assurance, especially in NFIRS and state reporting.
36
- 37 4. Smoke constitutes one of the greatest tradeoffs of wildland fire. Its occurrence and
38 duration result from decisions involving suppression, fire for resource benefit and
39 fuels treatments, and can impact the health of prescribed fire practitioners and the

1 public. For many broad decisions and planning, making a general association with
2 different types of fire and exposure may be sufficient, but more local decisions
3 require more.

- 4
- 5 5. While large fire datasets include homes, outbuildings and commercial structures
6 lost, fires in the NFIRS dataset only describe structures involved more ambiguously.
7 Having a uniform understanding of this problem could help refine and prioritize
8 solutions that involve response, community preparation and fuels treatments.
9
- 10 6. Having a better understanding of the implementation of existing community
11 protection programs could help us judge the relative and conditional effectiveness
12 of these programs.
13
- 14 7. In some regions, markets can help defray the costs of fuels treatments, but national
15 data are not as current as they once were due to budgetary cutbacks.
16
- 17 8. Hazards to fire responders can be characterized broadly by fatality and some injury
18 data, but injury data in particular could be improved. Wildfire fatalities may not
19 convey the future hazard across the landscape due to the erratic nature of fire,
20 weather, travel or chance. Injury data are available in larger datasets, but these are
21 not particularly useful when they lack sufficient detail.
22
- 23 9. LANDFIRE data issues have been recognized in the barriers and critical success
24 factors identified by the Regional Strategy Committees, and are being addressed by
25 a task group.

26 For sub-regional to local questions, there are numerous other data shortcomings that may
27 affect the quality of decisions.

28 The scientific analysis in this report covered the 48 coterminous states, excluding Alaska,
29 Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the Pacific Island territories. Where it is available, state level and
30 LANDFIRE data should be utilized to produce comparable research products for these
31 areas. Where the data is deficient, efforts should be made to collect data to extend the study
32 to all areas covered by the three regions.

33 In November, 2012, the National Fire Protection Association (NFPA) assembled a group of
34 18 representatives from the states, National Association of State Foresters (NASF), U.S.
35 Department of the Interior (DOI), U.S. Forest Service (FS), U.S. Fire Administration (USFA),
36 and other fire service organizations to discuss how organizations with wildland fire data
37 management responsibilities could effectively and efficiently consolidate existing wildland

1 fire data sets to create an integrated data set that could produce an accurate national
2 cohesive wildland fire risk profile. This Wildland Fire Data Reporting Initiative (WFDRI)
3 was tasked with identifying problem areas and challenges associated with wildland fire
4 data reporting, as well as developing a strategy for wildland fire data reporting that would
5 produce quality end-use data and facilitate accurate analysis to support decision-making
6 related to the goals of the National Cohesive Strategy. Workgroups were formed to begin
7 addressing three near-term objectives documented during the workshop: data and
8 terminology standardization, analysis standardization, and data quality and
9 completeness. Work in each of these areas is ongoing.

10 **Future Governance**

11 The Wildland Fire Leadership Council (WFLC) oversees wildland fire management for the
12 nation and the Cohesive Strategy effort, as called for in the Federal Land Assistance,
13 Management and Enhancement Act. The WFLC appointed the Wildland Fire Executive
14 Committee (WFEC), to support the Cohesive Strategy. WFEC is a Federal Advisory
15 Committees Act (FACA) chartered committee and its membership reflects that of the WFLC.

16 The WFEC will continue to work with the CSSC and RSCs. When it is determined that the
17 CSSC is no longer needed, that group will sunset and the RSCs will work directly with
18 WFEC. Each Regional Strategy Committee has a guidance document, approved by WFEC,
19 which sets out the intent of the committee, the composition of membership, and how
20 governance will proceed in the future.

21 The Regional Strategy Committees are sub-committees of the WFEC and report to the
22 WFEC. The RSCs are not subject to the FACA charter of the WFEC. The RSC provides
23 regional support for the WFEC and the national effort of implementing the Cohesive
24 Strategy. Mobilization of regional work groups will be established as necessary to assist
25 the RSC in implementation of the Regional Action Plan. Regional Coordinators have been
26 hired to work with the RSCs and the stakeholders to guide implementation activities
27 identified in the Regional Action Plans.

28 All members of the RSCs and work groups will carry out their activities in a coordinated
29 and mutually beneficial manner and will work together to track implementation of the
30 Regional Action Plans. The Regional Action Plans will not restrict or direct local authorities
31 and associated collaborative in their decision-making.

1 Summary of Next Steps

2 The Cohesive Strategy is an organizing strategy that brings together disparate groups that
3 each has a role in addressing wildland fire, and through communication and coordination,
4 will make the work more efficient and effective. Wildland fire is a challenge to the nation,
5 and requires a national focus, with hard decisions related to setting priorities at the
6 national level. But every fire is a local event, with local impacts to people, landscapes, and
7 resources. The Cohesive Strategy recognizes this duality and has built it into the strategy.
8 The National Action Plan will coordinate with the Regional Action Plans to address wildfire
9 issues with both a national and a local perspective.

10 The strategy has taken a large step forward in bringing together data for all the counties of
11 the continental United States, and analyzing them as a unit, to get the big picture of wildfire.
12 Working together, the national and regional perspectives provide a comprehensive view of
13 wildfire, with information that will assist decision-makers in making strategic and tactical
14 decisions, to prepare for and deal with wildfire.

15 Important next steps include:

- 16 • **Priority Setting:** Geographical and action priorities will be described in the
17 National Action Plan, and Regional Action Plans will be updated to include
18 geographic priorities.
19
- 20 • **National Action Plan:** Issues of national scope will be addressed in the National
21 Action Plan, with actions, tasks and lead agencies designated. The Action Plan is
22 scheduled to be completed in March, 2014.
23
- 24 • **Barriers and Critical Success Factors:** Each barrier and critical success factor is
25 assigned to a task group for recommendations on actions to improve each situation.
26
- 27 • **Communication:** Stakeholders and partners will continue to be involved and
28 informed as the Cohesive Strategy is implemented.
29
- 30 • **Monitoring and Accountability:** National outcome measures and efficiency
31 measures will be set out in the Action Plan, and regional monitoring will be keyed to
32 these measures. The Cohesive Strategy will be reviewed every five years.
33
- 34 • **Data Gaps:** The Wildland Fire Data Reporting Initiative (WFDRI) will review the
35 data gaps and work with agencies to improve data collection nationally.

1
2
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4
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6
7
8

- **Future Governance:** A task group is working on the governance issues and will make recommendations for seamless and efficient governance and oversight.

The next steps as described above provide a brief description of how we will move forward with the completion of the National Action Plan, revision of Regional Action Plans, and implementation of the Cohesive Strategy. More information can be found in the following conclusion section.

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1 SECTION G: CONCLUSION

2 This Phase III report has been developed using an innovative national and regional
3 collaborative approach, along with an extensive national science analysis designed to
4 address the increasingly complex wildland fire management situation in the United States.
5 This analysis and set of national recommendations have been developed through
6 stakeholder input, expert opinion and a powerful data-driven modeling system that
7 demonstrate potential impacts and tradeoffs around the implementation of the Cohesive
8 Strategy.

9 The National Science and Analysis Team (NSAT) was asked to explore potential policy
10 options for achieving the national goals of the Cohesive Strategy and to identify the
11 challenges, opportunities, and trade-offs inherent in each option. These policy options are
12 broadly defined as strategic national direction that would lead to achieving the goals of the
13 Cohesive Strategy.

14 In order to develop these policy options, a national perspective of the wildland fire
15 situation has been developed by analyzing significant sets of data and information –
16 historically, temporally and spatially, to better understand underlying relationships among
17 biophysical landscapes, the people that inhabit them, and wildland fire.

18 For this national analysis, the Wildland Fire Executive Council and other advisory groups
19 helped identify the 19 policy options that were considered from a national perspective.
20 These options are grouped into four management themes: broad-scale fuels management,
21 managing human ignitions, home and community actions, and response to wildfire. These
22 policy options were further evaluated with conclusions and findings presented, based on
23 the pertinent data and regional recommendations that have been put forward.

24 As a result of the national analysis, several national level, collaborative, management and
25 policy recommendations have been developed and listed in the National Strategy section.
26 These recommendations, organized by the four broad themes listed above, are intended to
27 form the basis for policy option decisions that will lead to developing a set of national
28 implementation actions that are focused on national priorities and designed to help achieve
29 the three broad goals of the Cohesive Strategy.

30 The report provides a blueprint for evaluating and applying the policy options across the
31 country. For example, a strong wildfire prevention program would be a good investment in
32 the areas shown as high priority for prevention activities. And areas shown as high priority
33 for home and community actions could be targeted for assistance and education programs,
34 such as Firewise, CWPPs, Ready-Set-Go, ordinances for defensible space, and building

1 codes for fire resistant building materials. Areas designated as high priority for fuels
2 treatments, are prime locations for investing in actions to reduce the accumulation of fuels,
3 using active management tools such as thinning, prescribed fire, and other treatments. In
4 some areas, all three policy options may be needed because the wildfire threats are so high.

5 As the example above illustrates, the information generated by the Cohesive Strategy can
6 be utilized to inform decisions and suggest management options tailored to meet needs
7 identified at the national, regional, state and county levels. This new science-based
8 approach and set of analytical tools used to conduct landscape, social and fire analysis will
9 continue to be used into the future.

10 The importance of collaboration in developing the Cohesive Strategy, of hearing all the
11 voices, and involving all the partners cannot be overemphasized. The time and care that
12 were taken in developing the strategy will result in better understanding of what needs to
13 be done, and greater ease in working with the multitude of agencies and individuals who
14 need to work together to collectively reduce the threat of wildfire.

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SECTION H: APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Glossary

Abiotic – In biology, abiotic components are non-living chemical and physical factors in the environment.

Barriers – Policy or administrative impediments that must be removed in order for the Cohesive Strategy to be successful.

Biotic – Of, relating to, or resulting from living things, esp. in their ecological relations

Critical Success Factors – Policies, programs, agreements, partnerships, resources, and other factors that must be present for the Cohesive Strategy to be successful.

Fire-adapted community – Human communities consisting of informed and prepared citizens collaboratively planning and taking action to safely co-exist with wildland fire.

Fire-adapted ecosystem – An ecosystem is “an interacting natural system, including all the component organisms, together with the abiotic environment and processes affecting them” (NWCG Glossary). A fire-adapted ecosystem is one that collectively has the ability to survive or regenerate (including natural successional processes) in an environment in which fire is a natural process.

Fire community – A term that collectively refers to all those who are engaged in any aspect of wildland fire-related activities.

Fire exclusion – The land management activity of keeping vegetation or ecosystems from burning in a wildland fire.

Fire management community – A subset of the fire community that is has a role and responsibility for managing wildland fires and their effects on the environment.

Fire science community – A subset of the fire community consisting of those who study, analyze, communicate, or educate others on the components of fire management that can be measured, such as fire behavior, fire effects, fire economics, and other related fire science disciplines.

Resilient – Generally referred to in this document as “resilient ecosystems,” which are those that resist damage and recover quickly from disturbances (such as wildland fires) and human activities.

1 **Regime** – A fire regime is the pattern, frequency and intensity of wildland fire that prevails
2 in an area.

3
4 **Risk** – A situation involving exposure to danger; the possibility that something unpleasant
5 or unwelcome will happen.

6
7 **Stakeholder** – A person or group of people who has an interest and involvement in the
8 process and outcome of a land management, fire management, or policy decision.

9

10

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1 Appendix 2: Acronyms

BAER	Burned Area Emergency Rehabilitation
BAR	Burned Area Rehabilitation
CWPP	Community Wildfire Protection Plan
DHS	Department of Homeland Security
DOD	Department of Defense
DOI	Department of the Interior
EACG	Eastern Area Coordinating Group
FEMA	Federal Emergency Management Agency
FEPP	Federal Excess Personal Property
FFP	Fire Fighter Property
FFT2	Firefighter 2
FLAME	Federal Land Assistance and Enhancement Act
FLN	Fire Learning Network
FWS	US Fish and Wildlife Service
GACC	Geographic Area Coordination Center
GAO	Government Accountability Office
IAFC	International Association of Fire Chiefs
IMT	Incident Management Team
ITC	Intertribal Timber Council
JFSP	Joint Fire Science Program
MAC	Multi-Agency Coordination
MNICS	Minnesota Incident Command System
MOA	Memorandum of Agreement
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding
NAASF	
NACo	National Association of Counties
NASF	National Association of State Foresters
NEMAC	National Environmental Modeling and Analysis Center (UNC Asheville)
NFPA	National Fire Protection Association
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NIFC	National Interagency Fire Center
NLC	National League of Cities
NPS	National Park Service
NSAT	National Science and Analysis Team (for Cohesive Strategy)
NWCG	National Wildfire Coordinating Group

OWF	Office of Wildland Fire (DOI)
PPE	Personal Protective Equipment
RSC	Regional Strategy Committee
SRS	Southern Research Station (USDA-USFS)
TNC	The Nature Conservancy
USDA	US Department of Agriculture
USFA	US Fire Administration
USFS	US Forest Service
VFA	Volunteer Fire Assistance
VFD	Volunteer Fire Department
WFEC	Wildland Fire Executive Council
WFLC	Wildland Fire Leadership Council
WG	Working Group
WGA	Western Governors' Association
WUI	Wildland Urban Interface

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1 **Appendix 3: References**

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1 **Appendix 4: Links to Phase I and II Reports and Other Key**
2 **National and Regional Documents**

3 Fire Adapted Communities, www.fireadapted.org

4 Firewise Communities, www.firewise.org

5 Forests and Rangelands website, www.forestsandrangelands.gov

6 United States Fire Administration, www.usfa.fema.gov

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1 **Appendix 5: Committee, Council and Work Group Members**

2 **Northeast Regional Strategy Committee**

Name	Agency / Organization
Brad Simpkins – NE RSC Chair	NH State Forester; NASF
Larry Mastic – NE RSC Coordinator	Contractor for NAASF
George Baker	IAFC
Steve Olson	Fond du Lac Reservation
Rick Goutermont	County Commissioner, Lake County, MN; NACo
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Terry Gallagher	USDA-USFS-R9
Maureen Brooks	USDA-USFS-NA S&PF
Tom Remus	DOI-BIA
Matt Rollins	DOI-USGS
Tom Schuler	USDA-USFS Research
Danny Lee	NE NSAT Lead; USDA-USFS
Dan Dearborn	DOI-FWS
Jim Erickson	ITC; WFEC
Erin Darboven	DOI-OWF

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Southeast Regional Strategy Committee

Name	Agency / Organization
Mike Zupko – RSC Chair	Southern Governors' Association
Liz Agpaoa – RSC Co-Chair	Regional Forester, Southern Region, USDA-USFS
Forrest Blackbear	DOI-BIA
Tom Boggus	Texas State Forester; NASF
Rob Doudrick	Station Director, Southern Research Station (SRS), USDA-USFS
Wade Johnson	NACo
Kier Klepzig	Assistant Director, SRS, USDA-USFS (SRS Alternate)
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Samuel Larry	DOI-NPS
Tom Lowry	Choctaw Nation
Will May	IAFC
Alexa McKerrow	Biologist, DOI-USGS
Shardul Raval	Assistant Director, FAM, Southern Region, USDA-USFS (USFS Alternate)

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Jim Karels	WFEC Liaison; Florida State Forester
Dan Olsen	Deputy Director, Fire & Aviation Management (FAM), Southern Region, USDA-USFS

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Western Regional Strategy Committee

Name	Agency / Organization
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Tony Harwood	Co-Chair; Confederated Salish and Kootenai Tribes, ITC
Ann Walker	Co-Chair; Western Governors' Association (WGA)
Dick Bahr	DOI-NPS
Aitor Bidaburu	DHS-FEMA-USFA; NWCG
Gary Bowers	DOI-BLM
Kevin Burke	City Manager, Flagstaff, AZ; NLC
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Robert Cope	Lemhi County, ID; NACo
Vincent Corrao	Northwest Management, ID
Carol Daly	Flathead Policy Center, Co-Lead
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Pam Ensley	DOI-FWS
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Doug MacDonald	WFEC Liaison; IAFC
Ron Mangold	USDA-USFS Research Station
John Philbin	DOI-BIA
Vernon Stearns	Spokane Tribes, ITC
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Phyllis Krietz	DHS-FEMA-USFA
Gary Moyer	Colorado Association of Conservation Districts
Peg Polichio	USDA-USFS State and Private Forestry, Regions 6 and 10

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Cohesive Strategy Subcommittee

Name	Agency / Organization
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Doug MacDonald	IAFC
Ann Walker	WGA
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1 **National Science and Analysis Team – Phase III Contributors**

2 The National Science and Analysis Team is led by Danny C. Lee (USDA Forest Service) and
3 Thomas M. Quigley (METI Corporation) and includes over sixty individuals from various
4 agencies, organizations and universities (see Phase II report). The national analysis
5 described in this report was completed by a small team from the NSAT using much of the
6 information assembled and prepared previously by the NSAT. In addition to Drs. Lee and
7 Quigley, the national analysis team included Steve Norman and William Christie from the
8 USDA Forest Service, and James Fox, Karin Rogers, and Matthew Hutchins from the
9 University of North Carolina – Asheville.

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Erin Darboven, Co-coordinator	DOI-OWF
Shawn Stokes	IAFC
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Wildland Fire Executive Council (WFEC)

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Mike Pool	Acting Director, DOI-BLM
Dan Ashe	Director, DOI-FWS
Jonathan Jarvis	Director, DOI-NPS
Marcia McNutt	Director, DOI-USGS
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1 **Appendix 6: Summary Descriptions of Each Combination of**
2 **Community Cluster and Resiliency Class**

3 This Appendix has been saved as a separate attachment to this document. Please see
4 document *CS Phase III National Risk Analysis Appendix 6 - Summary Descriptions 08012013*.

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