



Middle Peninsula All Hazards Mitigation Plan



2016



Participating Middle Peninsula localities include Essex, Middlesex, Mathews, Gloucester, King & Queen, and King William Counties, and the Towns of West Point, Urbanna, and Tappahannock.



Table of Contents

Section 1 – Introduction.....	1
Section 2 – Planning Process.....	2
Section 3 – Community Profile.....	12
Section 4 – Hazard Identification.....	25
Section 5 – Hazus Assessment.....	186
Section 6 – Capability Assessment.....	266
Section 7 – Review of Strategies from the 2010 Middle Peninsula Natural Hazards Mitigation Plan (MPNHMP).....	283
Section 8 – New Mitigation Goals, Objectives and Strategies.....	298
Section 9 – Implementation Plan.....	323
Section 10- Plan Adoption.....	337
Section 11- Plan Maintenance.....	338
Section 12 – Appendices.....	339
Appendix A – Signed Memorandum of Understandings.....	340
Appendix B - List of All Hazards Mitigation Plan Committee Members.....	367
Appendix C - Steering Committee Agendas and Meeting Minutes.....	371
Appendix D - Public Meeting Sign-in Sheet (January 6, 2016).....	405
Appendix E - Public Comment Announcement on the MPPDC website.....	407
Appendix F - Gazette Journal Press Releases.....	409
Appendix G - Public Comments Received During Comment Period.....	412
Appendix H - Tornado History in the Middle Peninsula Region (1950-2014).....	427
Appendix I - Wildfires within the Middle Peninsula 2010 – June 2015	429
Appendix J - Hazus Methodology.....	433
Appendix K - Nation Flood Insurance Program Survey.....	453
Appendix L - Gloucester County Stormwater Management Ordinance.....	481
Appendix M - Drought Response Ordinances from all MPPDC Localities.....	500
Appendix N - MOU amongst Rappahannock Fire Assoc. Participants.....	543
Appendix O - Resolutions and Other Information Adopting the Update.....	549
Appendix P - Strategy Evaluation Spreadsheet Sample.....	550

Abbreviations

AHMP	All Hazard Mitigation Plan	PDM	Pre-Disaster Mitigation
AQI	Air Quality Index	RL	Repetitive Loss
BFE	Base Flood Elevation	RP	Regional Planner
CDT	Central Daylight Time	RSL	Relative Sea Level
COA	Chief Administrative Officer	SLOSH	Sea, Lake, and Overland Surges from Hurricane
CO	Carbon monoxide	SO ₂	Sulfur Dioxide
CO ₂	Carbon Dioxide	USGS	United States Geological Survey
CRS	Community Rating System	VAC	Virginia Administrative Code
DCR	Department of Conservation and Recreation	VDEM	Virginia Department of Emergency Management
DEQ	Department of Environmental Quality	VDGIF	Virginia Department of Game and Inland Fisheries
EM	Emergency Manager	VDH	Virginia Department of Health
EOC	Emergency Operations Center	VDOF	Virginia Department of Forestry
EOP	Emergency Operations Plan	VDOT	Virginia Department of Transportation
EPA	Environmental Protection Agency	VFD	Volunteer Fire Departments
EPRI	Electric Power Research Institute	VRS	Volunteer Rescue Squads
ESC	Emergency Services Coordinator	VWP	Virginia Water Protection
DMA 2K	Disaster Mitigation Act of 2000	WMO	World Meteorological Organization
FEMA	Federal Emergency Management Agency		
FIRM	Flood Insurance Rate Maps		
GIS	Geographic Information System		
HIRA	Hazard Identification Risk Assessment		
HMA	Hazard Mitigation Assistance		
HMGP	Hazard Mitigation Grant Program		
HOI	Health Opportunity Index		
HRSD	Hampton Roads Sanitary District		
LPT	Local Planning Team		
LIMWA	Limit and Moderate Wave Action		
MCS	Mesoscale Convective System		
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding		
MPNHMP	Middle Peninsula Natural Hazards Mitigation Plan		
MPPDC	Middle Peninsula Planning District Commission		
MPRWSP	Middle Peninsula Regional Water Supply Plan		
NCDC	National Climatic Data Center		
NESIS	Northeast Snowfall Impact Scale		
NFIP	National Flood Insurance Plan		
NO ₂	Nitrogen Dioxide		
NOAA	National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration		
NWS	Nation Weather Service		
O ₃	Ozone		
OSDS	Onsite Sewage Disposal Systems		
PA	Peak acceleration		
PM	Particulate Matter		

Section I: Introduction

The Disaster Mitigation Act of 2000 (DMA 2K) is a key component of the Federal government's commitment to reduce damages to private and public property through mitigation actions. This legislation established the Pre-Disaster Mitigation (PDM) Program and created requirements for the Post-Disaster Hazard Mitigation Grant Program (HMGP). This key piece of federal legislation is known as Public Law 106-390.

DMA 2K requires local governments to develop and submit mitigation plans to qualify for Hazard Mitigation Assistance (HMA) funds. The Act requires the plan to demonstrate "a jurisdiction's commitment to reduce risk from natural hazards, serving as a guide for decision makers as they commit resources to reducing the effects of natural hazards." Upon completion, the final plan must be approved by the Virginia Department of Emergency Management (VDEM) as well as the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA), and then adopted by each participating jurisdiction.

Therefore to meet such requirements Middle Peninsula Planning District Commission (MPPDC) staff guided the development of Regional Natural Hazard Mitigation Plans and Plan updates according to the requirements of DMA 2K. All nine (9) Middle Peninsula localities, including Essex, Gloucester, King and Queen, King William, Mathews, and Middlesex Counties and the Towns of Tappahannock, Urbanna, and West Point, participated in the plan's development and amendments. The region's plan will be adopted by local jurisdictions upon plan approval by FEMA.

This plan follows DMA 2K planning requirements and associated guidance documents for developing Natural Hazards Mitigation Plans. The guidance sets forth a four-step mitigation planning process that includes the following (FEMA, 2015):



The plan also utilizes the elements outlined in FEMA's Local Mitigation Plan review Crosswalk and Local Mitigation Plan Review tool, published in July 2008 and October 2011 respectively.

Since the adoption of the Middle Peninsula Natural Hazards Mitigation Plan (MPNHMP) in 2006, the nine (9) Middle Peninsula jurisdictions jointly participated in Revision #1 of the plan by developing detailed flood mitigation strategies to address the region's most critical natural hazards (i.e. flooding from severe storms). Then during the second revision, the plan's non-flood related natural hazards were reviewed and updated. Therefore, as FEMA requires hazard mitigation plan to be reviewed and updated every five years in order to remaining eligible for FEMA funding, MPPDC submitted a grant proposal to the VDEM to update the 2010 All Hazards Mitigation Plan (AHMP). Upon receipt of funding, Middle Peninsula localities signed a memorandum of understanding committing local funds and personnel to this endeavor.

SECTION I: INTRODUCTION

Section 2: The Planning Process – Public Involvement and Community Partners

While the Middle Peninsula Planning District Commission hired a Regional Preparedness Planner to facilitate the 2016 update of the All Hazards Mitigation Plan, all nine localities participated and contributed substantial staff time to the development of this plan. In addition to time spent on this plan, each locality financially contributed in order to meet FEMA funding match requirements. Therefore to begin this project and to realize local commit, MPPDC staff drafted a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) for each locality to sign. The MOU outlined the terms of agreement between the MPPDC and the County/Town concerning financial obligations of the local adoption of the 2016 Middle Peninsula PDC All Hazards Mitigation Plan Update. In response, each locality reviewed and signed the MOU (Appendix A).

Key stakeholders from the Middle Peninsula planning area, including 6-county and 3-town, were invited to participate and actively engage in the 2016 AHMP update. Their participation helped to determine the plan's outcomes and substantive content. Those invited included the Chief Administrative Officers – County Administrators and Town Managers, Planning Directors, Emergency Service Coordinators (ESC), Virginia Department of Conservation and Recreation (DCR) – Floodplain Division Staff, VDEM Staff, Virginia Department of Transportation (VDOT) – Saluda Residency Administrator and our federal partners at the National Weather Service, U.S. Corps of Engineers and U.S. Coast Guard. Local, state and federal staff/officials on the Steering Committee were targeted for their direct experience and knowledge in natural hazard mitigation efforts and/or actively involved in one or more of the 4 phases of emergency management – preparedness, response, prevention/mitigation or recovery. Due to the rural nature of the Middle Peninsula area, there are no private not-for profit environmental organizations based in the region that were identified by the Steering Committee members at the onset of the planning phase of this project that could provide meaningful input. In conjunction with the Steering Committee, Middle Peninsula Planning District Commissioners, consisting of elected officials and citizen representatives were kept abreast of the progress made throughout the plan updating process through written staff report at monthly committee meetings.

In order to provide consistency and continuity to this regional planning process, MPPDC Regional Planners, Harrison Bresee and Jackie Rickards, served as the facilitators and leaders of the Steering Committee during the revisions of the update. A list of the Steering Committee members can be found in Appendix B. For meeting minutes please see Appendix C.

2.1. Project Timeline for Update

Financial support for the update was provided by FEMA and VDEM, as well as funds contributed by the nine member jurisdictions of the MPPDC. Table I provides a timeline of the project and associated tasks of this three year project.

Table 1: Project timeline and associated tasks				
Task	Starting Point	Unit of Time	Duration	Work Completed By
Grant Implementation and kickoff	1-60	Days	60 days	Regional Planner (RP)
Organize Resources: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Form a Mitigation Advisory and Planning Committee 2. Award HAZUS Contract 3. Inventory available resources/collect data 4. Begin Public Outreach Efforts 	60-185	Days	124 days	RP and Team Members
Revise Hazard Identification and Risk Assessment <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Compile and analyze data for HIRA analysis 2. Vulnerability assessment/ loss identification 3. Provide HIRA, vulnerability & loss estimation analysis to public 4. VDEM review of HIRA, vulnerability & loss estimation analysis 	186-445	Days	259 days	RP and Team Members VDEM and FEMA
Community Assessment/Profile <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Review current community profiles with each locality 	446-565	Days	119 days	RP and Team Members
Revise Mitigation Plan <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Update mitigation goals, strategies and actions 2. Solicit/incorporate public comments 3. Prepare implementation strategy 4. Compile/ review draft plan 5. Solicit / incorporate public comment on final draft 6. VDEM/FEMA review and final plan 	566-825	Days	259 days	RP and Team Members VDEM and FEMA
Adoption and Implementation <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Final VDEM/FEMA review and plan approval 2. Publish VDEM/FEMA approved HMP for public distribution 3. Each Locality adopts the plan 	826-1005	Days	179 days	RP/VDEM/FEMA
Project Closeout with VDEM	1006-1095	Days	89 days	RP/VDEM

SECTION 2: THE PLANNING PROCESS – PUBLIC INVOLVEMENT AND COMMUNITY PARTNERS

Beginning in January 2014, MPPDC staff hosted regular meeting of the AHMP Steering Committee. A lead Steering Committee Member from each of the nine jurisdictions in the Middle Peninsula was designated to coordinate the hazard identification, capability assessment, completed mitigation strategy reporting, strategy development, and plan adoption. The lead member was the jurisdiction's Emergency Services Coordinator/Emergency Manager. They undertook tasks within the guidelines and time-frames noted below:

Task 1 - Hazard Identification/Capability Assessment

AHMP Steering Committee completed a series of 5 tasks using the hazard worksheets provided by VDEM staff to:

1. Identify all natural hazards;
2. Compile a history detailing the nature of each identified hazard;
3. Develop an inventory of assets that are at risk from each identified natural hazard;
4. Write a narrative describing the vulnerability of the community's assets to these natural hazards; and
5. Assess their locality's capability to use the local regulatory tools and the jurisdiction's technical staff to implement hazard mitigation activities.

To gather the appropriate information, Steering Committee members were asked to complete hazard worksheets by June 30, 2014 in order to provide the Regional Emergency Preparedness Planner time to compile community assessments by the August 2014 Steering Committee meeting. However since several localities were late or did not complete the worksheets until December 2014, there was a delay in completing community assessments. Also as King William County had vacancies in its Emergency Coordinator and County Administrator positions for a large part of 2014, a completed worksheet was finally received in April 2015.

Next a Hazards Identification and Risk Assessment (HIRA) was conducted using the HAZUS version 2.2 software from FEMA. MPPDC staff contracted with Dewberry to have this assessment completed. Results anticipated damages from hurricanes and severe wind storms. Additionally a sea level rise assessment was added to the HAZUS analysis for this 2016 plan update.

In conjunction with HAZUS, the Natural Hazards ranking, developed by the Kaiser Permanente Model, from the 2010 MPAHMP was made available to the Steering Committee for reference and to update the 2016 plan. Upon review four new hazards were added to the list and regional hazards were re-ranked.

Task 2 - Review of the Strategies from the 2010 MPNHMP

At the August 13, 2015 meeting of Steering Committee, the Regional Emergency Preparedness Planner reviewed each strategy within the 2010 with members. They were able to see the strategies that they committed to in 2010 and had an opportunity to make changes as a reflection of their local priority changes. Additionally jurisdictions were given a spreadsheet to report the status - completed, deleted, not started, cancelled or in progress - of the mitigation strategies since 2010.

Steering Committee Members were asked to update this information on April 14, 2015 and return the updated spreads sheets by June 1, 2015 for inclusion into the plan.

Task 3 - Inform the Public – Hazard Identification/Assessment Phase

Once the natural hazards were identified and assessed, Steering Committee members solicited comments from residents. Two sets of public meetings were scheduled in the region. The first two meetings were scheduled for July 29, 2015 in King & Queen County and July 30, 2015 in Saluda, Virginia, while the second two meetings were scheduled for January 5, 2016 in Saluda, Virginia and January 6, 2016 in King & Queen County. Only one citizen attended the public meetings. The sign-in sheet can be found in Appendix D

To advertise for the public meetings, the MPPDC Regional Emergency Preparedness Planner wrote and sent a press release to the area newspapers that serve Middle Peninsula residents to solicit public input on the All Hazards Mitigation Plan and the hazards that affect them and/or their communities. The same press release was posted on the Middle Peninsula Planning District Commission's website (Appendix E) from June 29th to July 28, 2015 as well as December 16, 2015 to January 14, 2016 to solicit additional input from residents. A copy of this press release in the Gazette Journal can be found in Appendix F.

Resident's comments were collected and considered by the All Hazards Mitigation Plan Local Planning Team for incorporation into the AHMP update.

Task 4 - Develop Goals and Objectives

At the June 25, 2015 Steering Committee meeting, the group reviewed existing mitigation goals and decided no changes would be needed to the regional goals and objectives for the MPAHMP update. Also at their June meeting, the Committee members reviewed the criteria used to develop their mitigation strategies and again decided to make no changes..

The evaluation criteria used to develop the mitigation strategies included the following:

Social Considerations

1. Will the proposed strategy be considered acceptable to the residents?
2. Will the proposed strategy treat all residents of the locality equally?
3. Will the proposed strategy cause any social disruption in the community?

Technical Considerations

1. Will the proposed strategy work?
2. Will the proposed strategy create more problems than it solves?
3. Will the proposed strategy solve the problem or just mask a symptom?
4. Is the proposed action in line with other locality goals?

Administrative Factors

1. Does the locality have the capacity to implement the proposed strategy?
2. Who in the locality will spearhead the strategy?
3. Is there sufficient funding, staff and technical support to undertake this effort?

Political Considerations

1. Will members of the governing body accept and support the proposed strategy?
2. Is there support to implement and maintain the proposed strategy by members of the governing body?

Legal Issues

1. Is the locality legally authorized to undertake this proposed strategy?
2. Will the proposed strategy constitute a legal taking?
3. Is the proposed activity in compliance with the jurisdiction's comprehensive plan?
4. Will the locality face legal liability if the proposed strategy is not implemented or conversely, legally challenged if the strategy is implemented?

Economic Concerns

1. What are the costs and the benefits of implementing the proposed strategy?
2. Do the benefits outweigh the costs? Construction projects seeking FEMA financial assistance to mitigate the adverse affects of natural hazards will utilize FEMA's Benefit/Cost Formula to insure that the proposed project benefits exceed the anticipated project costs.
3. Are the capital, maintenance and administrative costs accounted for with the proposed strategy?
4. Has the funding been secured for this project?
5. What burden will this strategy place on the locality's tax base or local economy?
6. Does the proposed strategy contribute to other jurisdictional goals?

Environmental Factors

1. What affect will the action have on the environment?
2. Will this action need environmental regulatory approvals?
3. Approvals from whom and does this create any concerns about the feasibility of the proposed action?

Task 5 - Strategy Development

At the August 13, 2015 Steering Committee meeting, the members developed and updated mitigation strategies to address the hazards that they determined adversely affected their communities.

Task 6 - Inform the Public – Strategy Development Phase

The Steering updated and developed mitigation strategies. This task was completed at the August 13, 2015 Steering Committee Meeting. These mitigation strategies were included in the Plan and were available to the public comment during the second comment period during December 16, 2015 to January 14, 2016.

Task 7 - Draft Plan

The draft plan was completed by December 16, 2016 and submitted to VDEM/FEMA for their review and comments. The Steering Committee Members also received a copy of the draft plan to review and circulate amongst their communities for further input by their co-workers – who will be involved in the implementation phase of the plan - and residents affected by the proposed action items.

The draft plan was reviewed, revised and approved by the Steering Committee members on December 15, 2015.

Task 8 - Adoption

Once VDEM/FEMA staff gave conditional approval of the draft plan, jurisdictional staff presented the updated plan to their governing body and requested its adoption.

Once adopted, jurisdictional staff and others identified in the plan will begin with the implementation phase of the strategies based on the schedule outlined in Section 9 of the update.

Task 9 - Public Input during Plan Development

Most of the Steering Committee members that are listed in Appendix B are staff from the Middle Peninsula localities that either create or implement ordinances and policies that affect development in areas that are susceptible to damage from natural hazards. The Steering Committee members were able to provide community based information about specific flood hazards as well as determining what mitigation tools their communities could adopt and implement to decrease flood hazards. The local Building Officials and Planning Directors on the Committee have brought their experience working with local residents, businesses and non-government organizations by providing guidance on proposed development projects in flood prone areas during the development of the plan update. Overall all these steering committee members have the ability to incorporate mitigation strategies and goals into the locality's building regulations, zoning ordinance, environmental regulations and/or comprehensive plan and enforced by the county code compliance employees in their respective departments.

During this 2016 update the Gazette Journal published news releases about the plan on June 24, 2015, December 16, 2015 and December 30, 2015. A copy of the press releases is included in Appendix F.

A similar version of this news release was posted on the MPPDC website from June 29, 2015 to July 29, 2015 as well as December 16, 2015 to January 14, 2016 soliciting public comments. A copy of the MPPDC's website homepage is shown in Appendix E. As a result of the news releases the Regional Preparedness Planner collected a total of 10 public comments from Middle Peninsula citizens during the entire project period (Appendix G).

Steering Committee Members from the jurisdictions – more specifically the local Emergency Services Coordinators/Emergency Managers - solicited comments from residents within their network of community contacts.

The local newspapers were also utilized to announce public informational sessions surrounding the adoption of the updated plan. Public informational opportunities to view/comment on the draft of the update included the following:

1. Middlesex County and the Town of Urbanna posted a short description of the AHMP and a link to the draft plan for public comment on December 16, 2015. While Gloucester County and King William County reposted the news release on their county websites encouraging citizens to comment on the plan.
2. At the January 2016 Board of Supervisors Meeting, Middlesex County presented the plan and reviewed the remaining project timeline.

Summary of Steering Committee Actions

During the update process, the Steering Committee members were instrumental in reviewing and significantly improving the original natural mitigation plan. A brief summation of their contributions include:

1. Meetings: Throughout the course of this project the Steering Committee meet on 12 separate occasions to discuss the plan update. Meeting dates were:

March 13, 2014	November 13, 2014
April 10, 2014	April 16, 2015
May 8, 2014	June 25, 2015
August 14, 2014	August 13, 2015
September 18, 2014	January 26, 2016

For meeting minutes visit Appendix C.

2. March 2014
 - Reviewed project timeline
 - Reviewed hazard ranking from the 2010 Plan and the Kaiser Permanente Hazard Vulnerability Tool.
 - Expressed interest in adding air quality to the 2010 hazards list.
3. April 2014
 - Discussed and added HAZMAT, ditch flooding, air quality, and summer storms to the list of hazards. Also agreed to not remove hazards from the hazards list presented in the 2010 AHMP.
4. May 2014
 - Finalized the public outreach process for this plan
5. August 2014
 - Gloucester County and the Towns of Urbanna and West Point completed the Kaiser Permanente Hazard Vulnerability Tool worksheet.
6. September 2014
 - Essex, King & Queen, and Middlesex Counties and the Town of Tappahannock completed the Kaiser Permanente Hazard Vulnerability Tool worksheet.
7. April 2015
 - Contracted with Dewberry to complete a regional HAZUS analysis (ie. flooding, hurricane winds, and sea level rise).
 - Reviewed 2010 Mitigation Strategies.
8. June 2015
 - Public comment period scheduled and advertised for.
 - Draft plans were sent to local libraries
 - Public meetings were scheduled.
9. July 2015
 - Public meetings were held on July 29, 2015 (King & Queen County Regional Library) and June 30, 2015 (Saluda, Va).

SECTION 2: THE PLANNING PROCESS – PUBLIC INVOLVEMENT AND COMMUNITY PARTNERS

10. August 2015

- Local Planning Team reviewed public comments received during the public comment period.
- The Local Planning Team completed a National Flood Insurance Program Survey and a capability assessment survey.

11. December 2015

- The Local Planning Team reviewed and approved the updated All Hazards Mitigation Plan on December 15, 2015.
- Scheduled and advertised for the 2nd public comment period.
- Final plans were sent to local region libraries for the public to review.
- Sent the final plan to VDEM for review.

12. January 2016

- Hosted two public meetings on January 5, 2016 (Saluda, VA) and January 6, 2016 (King & Queen Library Branch).
- Reviewed public comments at the January 26, 2016 meeting.
- Reviewed VDEM comments.

Summary of Primary Revisions of the 2010 MPNHMP

The below will list the sections of the plan and updates that the All Hazards Mitigation Plan Local Planning Team made to keep this plan current.

Section 1 – Introduction

- Added a visual of the four-step mitigation planning process (FEMA, 2015).

Section 2 – Planning Process

- Updated the planning process to reflect the activities that took place during the plan update.
- Included public comments received during the public comment periods of this plan (Appendix G).

Section 3 – Community Profiles

- Updated community profiles to include the 2010 Census data.
- Added information about Economic Resiliency within the Middle Peninsula as well as the Health Opportunity Index from Virginia Department of Health (VDH).

Section 4 – Hazard Assessment

- Added air quality, HAZMAT, Ditch Flooding and Summer Storms to the list of hazards impacting the Middle Peninsula region. The Local Planning Team also changed the plan from a natural hazards mitigation plan to an all hazards mitigation plan in order to include air quality, HAZMAT, and ditch flooding.
- Updated the prioritization worksheet for hazards impacting to include the new hazards listed above and the LPT reassessed and re-prioritized hazards. In 2010 the critical hazards included hurricanes, winter ice storms, tornadoes and coastal flooding where as in 2016 plan the most critical hazards included: Winter Storms (Ice), Coastal Flooding, Lightning, Hurricanes, and Summer Storms.
- Updated the Repetitive Loss and Severe Repetitive Loss data.

SECTION 2: THE PLANNING PROCESS – PUBLIC INVOLVEMENT AND COMMUNITY PARTNERS

- Updated the flood plain maps with new Flood Insurance Rate Map GIS data.
- Added a description of the derecho to further the description of windstorms
- Updated wildfire data for 2010-2015 events
- Added Point Source Emissions Inventory and air quality index to describe air quality in the region

Section 5 – Hazus Assessment

- The flood, hurricane wind, and sea level rise analysis for the HIRA was completed using the FEMA Hazus – MH V2.2 software. In part it included updated data including:
 - new 2010 Census Data
 - new Hazus Dasymeric Census Geographies inventory (general building stock)
 - utilized stock Hazus inventory values (Version 2.2 – Census 2010)
 - All modeling utilized stock Hazus facilities
 - Utilized 1 square mile drainage runs instead of 10 square mile drainage runs used in the 2010 analysis
- Integrated and utilized new coastal elevation studies from FEMA
- Integrated and utilized coastal studies from the US Army Corps of Engineers. This included 1% depth grids.
- Developed hot spot maps that identified the location where the loss would be the highest
- Methodology of Hazus analysis has been added to the Appendices (Appendix J)

Section 6 – Capability Assessment

- Added capability assessment tables to this updated plan that focus on the planning and regulatory, administrative and technical, education and outreach, and financial capabilities of each Middle Peninsula localities.
- Included National Flood Insurance Program compliance tables to the report (Appendix K)
- Updated the Stormwater Management Ordinance paragraph to reflect Virginia’s stormwater management regulations.

Section 7 – Review of Strategies from the 2010 Middle Peninsula Natural Hazards Mitigation Plan (MPNHMP)

- Updated the status of mitigation strategies.
- Color coated the tables of strategies to show those strategies that have been completed.
- Added multiple updated to goal 1: Prevent Future Hazard Related Losses, including:
 - Added dates of when localities adopted ordinances to implement the Drought Response and Contingency Plan which was a strategy from the 2010 plan.
 - Included dates of when localities adopted new Flood Insurance Rate Maps.

Section 8 - New Mitigation Goals, Objectives and Strategies

- Color coated the “Goals”, “Objectives” and “Strategies”
- Updated repetitive loss properties and sever repetitive loss properties in the Middle Peninsula.
- Updated flood prone roads in Strategy 1.1.6
- Merged Strategy 1.1.6 and 1.1.16. The Local Planning Team believed that these strategies duplicated each other and could be merged into one.
- Added Strategies 1.1.19 and 1.3.1 and added Objective 1.3.

- Strategy 1.1.19 focuses on integrating mitigation strategies into locality plans, policies, codes and programs across disciplines and departments.
- Objective 1.3 focuses on localities supporting implementation of structural and nonstructural mitigation activities to reduce exposure to natural and man-made hazards
- Strategy 1.3.1 focuses on specific mitigation projects to protect public and private property from natural hazards.
- Updated strategies with localities interested in participating:

Strategy	Locality(ies added to the Strategy
1.1.1	King William County
1.1.2	Town of Urbanna
1.1.4	Middlesex and King William Counties
1.1.5	Gloucester, Mathews, and Middlesex Counties and the Town of West Point
1.1.7	Gloucester and Mathews Counties and the Town of West Point
1.1.10	Middlesex County
1.1.11	King William County
1.1.18	Middlesex and Gloucester County
1.1.19	All nine Middle Peninsula Localities were added
1.3.1	Gloucester County
3.1.5	King William County
3.1.7	Middlesex and King William Counties

Section 9 – Implementation Plan

- Included how this plan will be integrated into locality plans, policies, codes and programs across disciplines and departments.
- Included information about how the Chesapeake Bay Nation Estuarine Research Reserve intends to educate students and teacher about climate science, which will assist in developing more resilient communities.

Section 10 – Plan Adoption

- The dates that Board of Supervisors and Town Councils adopt the 2016 All Hazards Mitigation Plan will be updated.

Section 11 – Plan Maintenance

- Developed a worksheet that will be used as an annual survey for localities to track progress and updates towards meeting mitigation strategies.

Section 3: Community Profile of Middle Peninsula Localities

The Middle Peninsula region encompasses six (6) counties and three (3) towns including Essex, Gloucester, King and Queen, King William, Mathews, and Middlesex Counties as well as the Towns of Tappahannock, Urbanna, and West Point (Figure 1). According to the 2010 Census, the total population of the Middle Peninsula is 90,826.

The Middle Peninsula is located on the western shore of the Chesapeake Bay, bound to the north by the Rappahannock River and to the south by the York River. As the region is located in the Virginia coastal plain, it has a relatively flat topography. The southeastern-most portions of the region are at sea level, while elevation rises to approximately 200 feet above sea level moving in a northwesterly direction.

Based on the regions low topography, 1200+ miles of coastline, and its proximity to waterways-broad rivers, meandering creeks, wide bays and tidal marshes, the Middle Peninsula is highly susceptible to floods and coastal storms. Additionally with a high water table in lower elevations of the Middle Peninsula, water cannot easily drain from land and thus exacerbates flooding from summer thunderstorms, hurricanes, nor'easters, as well as rising seas. Tidal surges associated with these severe storms often compound the flooding within this region.

While the Middle Peninsula region remains largely rural, it lies in close proximity to the metropolitan areas of Hampton Roads, Richmond and the Fredericksburg-Northern Virginia Metropolitan Areas. Suburban growth from these urban areas is spreading into the Middle Peninsula, affecting the region's natural resource-based industries and traditional rural lifestyle. For instance the region's traditional land use patterns can best be described as having:

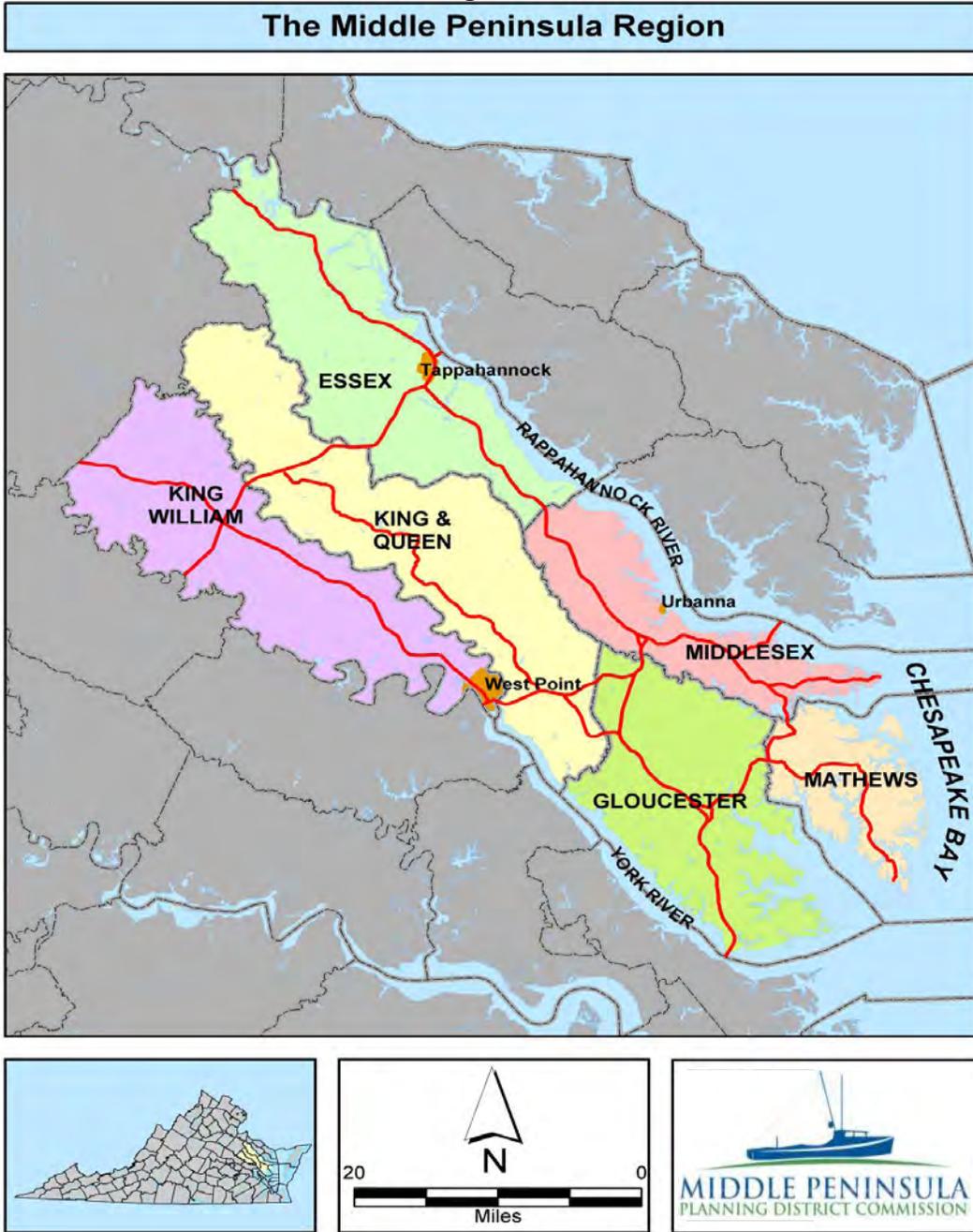
- A predominantly rural character with large, scattered farms and forested tracts;
- A number of closely-knit, small communities surrounded by working farms and forests;
- Small scale commercial fishing communities along the lower reaches of the watersheds;
- Three small towns that provide a focal point for commercial, industrial, and residential development at a modest scale; and
- Government operation centers that provide another focal point of local activity in the region.

However the last 20 to 30 years, the region has seen a slight shift to:

- Growing sectors in tourism, retiree housing and related retiree services;
- Large forested tracts are converting from woodlands to residential development;
- Waterfront communities transitioning from commercial fisheries with a reduced level of fisheries to an increasing number of marinas and residential developments; and
- Commercial development being located along Route 33 in Middlesex, Route 360 in King William, and Route 17 in southern Gloucester County between the Court House and the Coleman Bridge.

In summary, changes in land uses that concentrate development along the region's waterfront poses the greatest risk for hazard prevention and mitigation activities – particularly in the low-lying southeastern areas of Gloucester, Mathews, and Middlesex Counties.

Figure 1:



Essex County

Essex County is predominantly a rural county located at the northern end of the Middle Peninsula. It is bound on the north and east by the Rappahannock River, on the south by Middlesex County and on the west by Caroline and King and Queen Counties. The County comprises of approximately 261 square miles (Essex County Comprehensive Plan, 2015). Residential developments exist as small rural communities along the Rappahannock River or along the primary and many secondary roads. With a history of slow/gradual growth and strong land use control regulations, the County has remained mostly rural.

According to the 2010 Census figures, the population in Essex consists of 11,151 people, an increase of 1,162 (11.63%) from the 2000 Census. The population has 5,274 men and 5,877 women and is comprised of 6,370 whites, 4,247 African Americans, and 534 people of other races. The population aged somewhat during the period from 2000 to 2010 with a modest reduction in school age population. These trends suggest that County programs may require redirection to meet the specific needs (i.e. health care, transportation, etc.) of an older population. A low to moderate trend in growth in the County's population is expected to continue into the future.

Town of Tappahannock

Tappahannock is an incorporated town located along the shores of the Rappahannock River in the east-central portion of Essex County. The Town of Tappahannock is both the employment and population center of the County. Occupying less than three square miles of land, Tappahannock features an active waterfront, a historic downtown, residential subdivisions, schools, public buildings, an old airport and industrial center, a business corridor, and extensive wetland areas. Tappahannock serves as the county seat for Essex County.

According to the 2010 Census, the population in Tappahannock consists of 2,375 people, an increase of 307 (14.8%) from the 2000 Census. The population has 975 men and 1,400 women and is comprised of 1,076 whites, 1,128 African Americans, and 171 people of other races.

Gloucester County

Gloucester County's proximity to urban centers to the south, and the northwestward migration of suburban development from the greater Hampton Roads/Newport News area has transformed portions of the County into a suburban landscape. This is most pronounced at the southern reaches of the County from the Historic Court House Village and Gloucester Point. Residents from the Hampton Roads area and other areas of the urban crescent are lured to the County by the promise of lower taxes, lower housing costs, rural character, and relative freedom from the congestion evident in metropolitan areas. This has created increased traffic volumes on the limited collector roads not designed for such heavy use within the county. Commuters, travelers and trucks from the Middle Peninsula and points north use Route 17 as an alternative to interstate 64 to get to the Peninsula, Southside and the Outer Banks. Route 17 is the primary route through Gloucester and is also the heart of Gloucester's Development District where public water and sewer are available and where the county has expressed a desire to see continued economic development along this corridor. The need for alternative routes and connection to take local traffic off of Route 17 to reduce congestion is one of the goals expressed in the adopted Comprehensive Plan and the proposed update to the plan.

Despite the urban/suburban character of the County's Development District, the majority of the County remains relatively rural with low density development and active farm and timberlands. Much of the eastern portion of the County, east of Route 17 and South of Route 3/14 is characterized by low lying lands, low to moderate density housing and waterfront homes and communities. North of the Court House is very similar to other localities on the Middle Peninsula with a mixture of low and moderate density residential development and large tracts of farms and forests. Route 33, which runs along the northern portion of the County, provides convenient access from the interstate to upper Gloucester and Mathews County.

According to the 2010 Census, the population in Gloucester County consists of 36,858 people, an increase of 2,078 (5.97%) from the 2000 Census. The population has 18,239 men and 18,619 women, comprised of 32,149 whites, 3,197 African Americans, and 1,512 people of other races. A moderate trend in growth is expected to continue in the future (Virginia Employment Commission, 2013).

King and Queen County

King and Queen County is located in the north-central portion of the Middle Peninsula and is bounded on the west by the York and Mattaponi Rivers which separate King and Queen from King William and New Kent Counties. The Dragon Swamp separates King and Queen County from Essex, Middlesex and Gloucester Counties on the east. Often called the "shoestring county", King and Queen County is about 65 miles long and less than 10 miles wide. Farming and logging continue to be the mainstays to the local economy.

King and Queen County is the least populous county of the Middle Peninsula and one of the most rural counties in Virginia today. In 1990, the population density was only 20 people per square mile. Nearly three-fourths of the County's 318.1 square miles of land area is timberland. Over the past four decades, King and Queen County has experienced slow, but steady population growth. In 2010 the population density was 22 people per square mile.

According to 2010 Census figures, the population in King and Queen County consist of 6,945 people, an increase of 315 (4.8%) from the 2000 Census. The population has 3,454 men and 3,491 women and is comprised of 4,663 whites, 1,975 African Americans, and 307 people of other races. A moderate trend in population growth is expected to continue in the future and the overall population distribution appears to be experiencing a gradual shift to the upper and lower ends of the County where transportation routes to jobs and retail markets are most favorable.

King William County

Located approximately 20 miles northeast of the City of Richmond, King William County is rapidly growing into a bedroom community of the metro-Richmond area. Much of the county's 286 square miles are made up of gently rolling farmland and scenic timberland located between the Pamunkey and Mattaponi Rivers. Farming and logging continue to be the mainstays of the local economy. King William is home to the only Native American Indian Reservations in the Commonwealth and to the oldest courthouse in continuous use in the United States. The Mattaponi and Pamunkey Tribes operate fish hatcheries on the rivers. Residents and visitors enjoy the numerous recreational opportunities that the rivers provide.

According to 2010 Census figures, the population in King William County consists of 15,935 people, an increase of 2,789 (21.2%) from the 2000 Census. The population has 7,759 men and 8,176 women and is comprised of 12,297 whites, 2,819 African Americans, and 819 people of other races. Projections indicate that King William County will continue to experience moderate to accelerated population growth. By the year 2020, it is estimated that the County's population will grow at a rate of 8.62%, increasing the population by 1,373 persons. Growth management will become more important as competing uses vie for space and facilities.

Town of West Point

The Town of West Point lies at the extreme southern end of King William County where the Mattaponi and Pamunkey Rivers join to form the York River. The town is relatively flat, with large sections comprised of tidal marshes, particularly along the Mattaponi River. The highest elevations occur at the northern end of town at a height of 30+ feet above sea level. Most of the Pamunkey River waterfront is on a bluff averaging 20 feet in height. Union forces destroyed the town and the railroad, completed in 1859, during the Civil War. Only four houses survived the torching and remain intact today. West Point became an incorporated town in 1870. During the late 19th and early 20th centuries, West Point was a popular tourist destination. After the decline of tourism, a shipyard, built in 1917, and a pulp mill, built in 1918, revitalized the town.

The river areas surrounding the town are primarily used for recreation and barge access to the WestRock, a Meadwestvaco and Rock Tenn Corporation, where pulping operations convert wood chips, sawdust and recyclable paper products into pulp for use in producing various types of paperboard. The Old Dominion Grain Corporation also benefits from barge access.

According to 2010 Census figures, the population in King William County consists of 3,306 people, an increase of 400 (15.4%) from the 2000 Census. The population has 1543 men and 1763 women and is comprised of 2618 whites, 509 African Americans, and 179 people of other races.

Mathews County

Mathews County is located at the eastern tip of the Middle Peninsula. The County is bordered mostly by water, with the Chesapeake Bay to the east, the Mobjack Bay to the south, the North River to the west, and the Piankatank River to the north. Except for approximately five miles that border Gloucester County, the County's perimeter is formed by its 217 mile shoreline. Mathews is predominantly a rural community that has attracted an increasing number of retirees and vacationers. More than half of the working residents earn their living outside the County. The mainstays of the local economy are agriculture, trade, seafood, and tourism.

Much of the housing in Mathews is traditional single family dwellings, but the County also has a growing number of manufactured homes and vacant seasonal housing (built typically for summer occupancy). Seasonal housing, in the form of cottages, recreational vehicles, rental mobile homes, and a few condominium units increased in number from 448 in 1970, to 583 in 1980, to 783 in 1990. Residents of seasonal housing are often not accounted for in the census counts because the units were not occupied during the census survey. It is estimated that only about 75% of the housing units in Mathews County are occupied year-round, adding significantly to the summer population of Mathews County.

According to 2010 Census figures, the population in Mathews County consists of 8,978 people, a decrease of 229 (-2.5%) from the 2000 census. The population has 4,363 men and 4,615 women and is comprised of 7,898 whites, 823 African Americans, and 257 people of other races. Projections indicate that Mathews County will continue to experience low population growth. By the year 2020, it is estimated that the County's population will grow at a rate of 3.41%, increasing the population by 9,284 persons. Mathews County's population changed little between 1840 and 1900. The population peaked in 1910 with 8,922 residents, but gradually declined over the next five decades to a low point of 7,121 in 1960. This was in keeping with a national trend of population shifts from rural to urban areas because of the increased job opportunities in the cities. The population began to grow in the 1970's and it took until the mid 1990's before the population reached the peak reported in 1910.

Middlesex County

Middlesex County, located at the eastern end of the Middle Peninsula, is comprised of 131 square miles of land and 135 linear miles of shoreline. The County is surrounded by three significant waterways; the Rappahannock River to the northeast, the Piankatank River to the southwest, the Chesapeake Bay to the east. The County is also bordered by Gloucester County to the southeast, King and Queen County to the West, and Essex County to the north. The geographic location of Middlesex County, particularly with the close proximity to two significant rivers, the Chesapeake Bay and the Atlantic Ocean, make Middlesex County communities much more vulnerable to tropical weather events, affecting the eastern seaboard of the United States. The county government operations are managed by a County Administrator, who is appointed by a five-person elected Board of Supervisors. The Government Seat, Board of Supervisors Meeting Room, and Courts Complex, are located in the area known as Saluda, Virginia. The Middlesex County School System is comprised of an elementary, middle and high school,

with the School Board Administration Offices located in the Cooks Corner Office Building, just east of Saluda.

Middlesex has remained largely rural over the years, with farming, forestry, and fin and shell fishing providing the principal elements of the economic base. The County's relatively remote geographical location adds to the community's rural character. The 2013 Census reports the county population to be 10,762 full-time residents, a decrease of 197 (2%), from the 2010 census of 10,959. The population is made up by 5,413 females, and 5,349 males, comprised of 8,545 Whites, 1,937 African-Americans, and 280 people of other races. A total of 3,056 residents, or 28.4% of the population of Middlesex, are over 65 years-of-age. With the population dropping 2% in the past three years, it is estimated that the county's population will not see any drastic fluctuations, up or down, throughout the next decade.

The county population lives in 7,184 dwellings, with only 3.5% of the occupancies being comprised of multi-family dwelling units, a figure significantly lower than the Commonwealth's average of 21.7%. County officials estimate that 30% of the housing units in the community are seasonal, increasing the population between May and October with an additional 20,000 residents. Middlesex, Virginia, is home to one of the top boating populations in the Commonwealth of Virginia, another factor which adds to the seasonal population of the county.

Public Safety Services in Middlesex County are provided by the Office of the Sheriff, four individual volunteer fire companies, Deltaville, Hartfield, Urbanna, and Waterview; two volunteer rescue squads, Deltaville and Urbanna. The collective departments work hand-in-hand responding to law enforcement situations, fires, medical emergencies, and all-hazards incidents throughout the community. All Emergency Management activities, including operations of the Emergency Operations Center as well as maintenance and oversight of the Emergency Operations Plan, are managed by a county appointed Emergency Services Coordinator. This individual works in conjunction with the Middlesex Emergency Management Director, who is an appointed member, from the Board of Supervisors. The Emergency Services Coordinator also works in conjunction with the leadership and members of the volunteer fire departments and volunteer rescue squads.

Town of Urbanna

The Town of Urbanna is located in Middlesex County on the Rappahannock River on a finger of land bounded by Perkins Creek and Urbanna Creek. The Town is one of America's original harbor towns and is located approximately five miles from Saluda, VA. Incorporated in 1902, the present town boundary comprises an area of about one-half square mile. The town operates an active boat harbor which is a major gateway for the fishing and recreational boating industries serving the area.

According to 2010 Census figures, the population in the Town of Urbanna consists of 476 people, a decrease of 67 (-12.3%) from the 2000 Census. The population has 204 men and 272 women and is comprised of 431 whites, 35 African Americans, and 10 people of other races. The Town of Urbanna experiences a seasonal swelling of the population to well above 2,000 people within the town and at the nearby Bethpage Campground due to seasonal use of vacation homes and campsites. This influx of tourists brings in much needed revenue and helps support the service industry and the tax base for the county. Also, the Town is the location of an annual Urbanna Oyster Festival. Since 1958, this event features oyster specialties and other Chesapeake Bay seafood, a parade, a fine arts exhibit and visiting tall ships. Crowds for the two-day event reach approximately 75,000 people.

Regional – Health Opportunity Index

The Health Opportunity Index (HOI) is a measure of social determinants of health at the census tract level. It is a composite measure comprising of 13 indices that may impact social conditions thought to

influence an individual's ability to live a long and health life. It does not, however, include data on disease incidence. Indices taken into account include:

Affordability: Measures how affordable an area is

- The affordability index is developed to measure the proportion of income spent on housing and transportation. The index of affordability is calculated by combining housing and transportation costs in a neighborhood and dividing that number by income

Towsend Material Deprivation Index (“Towsend Index”):

- Townsend deprivation index is a measure of material deprivation. According to Townsend, “Material deprivation entails the lack of goods, services, resources, amenities and physical environment which are customary, or at least widely approved in the society under consideration
- 4 indicators make up Towsend:
 - overcrowding (>2 persons per room),
 - unemployment,
 - % of persons no vehicle or car,
 - % of person who rent

Job Participation Index: Information about the workforce

- Job Participation Rate is the percentage of individuals 16-64 years of age in the active labor force. The job participation rate is often used by economics as an indicator for economic development and growth

Employment accessibility index: you may have a workforce but how accessible are

- Poor job access leads to difficulties in job search or job retention and, consequently, to poverty and socioeconomic disadvantages
- Employment accessibility index: you may have a workforce but how accessible are they to the potential jobs --- how far are you (distance) from a potential job. In other words, the index is based on jobs and distance decay function
- Ownership of a vehicle plays a function

EPA (Air quality Index):

- Measures air pollution from road, off-road, non point (fertilizer, farming, erosion)
- Areas of high concentration are more vulnerable to environmental pollution

***Population Weighted Density (Dasymetric)**

- Weighted density is to capture the density at which the average person lives

- Example Craig County has 1 census tract which is large, however there is a concentration of people live in a small area; we weighted the density of the population by subtracting the census tracts that had no population to better predict where the concentration of people reside

Population Churning: how mobile the people are what is the turnover of the people

- Population churning rates relate the combined inflow and outflow for an area to the resident population.
- The rates can provide a useful measure of the potential disruption to local services caused by migration into and out of the Census tract.

Food Accessibility Index

- Low access was measured as living far from a supermarket, where 1 mile was used in urban areas and 10 miles was used in rural areas to demarcate those who are far from a supermarket.

Access to Care

- HRSA definition based on distance. Look at the population at the center of the census tract and look at the number of FTEs within a 30 mile radius
- Combined with the proportion of insured.

Walkability is accessed using 4 concepts:

- ***Density – Residential and employment***
 - Indicator: Total activity units per acre of land
 - Measures the concentration of activity types within a walkable area
- ***Diversity – Land use and destinations***
 - Indicator: Range of land uses by census tract
 - Measures the mix of activities available within a walkable area
- ***Design – Built environment and safety features***
 - Indicator: Number of street crossings by census tract
 - Measures the degree of connectivity to support safe pedestrian travel
- ***Distance – Transit accessibility***
 - Indicator: Aggregate frequency of transit service per square mile
 - Measures level of accessibility for pedestrian to reach a transit stop

Education Index

- Average years of schooling
- Preschool through doctorate (this index is weighted based upon how far you have advanced in education)
- Higher the number the higher average number of schooling

Income Inequality Index (GINI coefficient): Measures inequality of income

- The GINI coefficient (also known as the index of income concentration).
- Measures inequality of income.
- Measures how homogeneous or diversity of actual earned income by neighborhood

Spatial Segregation Index

- Measures how (whether the racial composition of the population of the census tract has the same composition as the state).
- It also measures the influence of those census tracts that are adjacent

The following images provide visuals of the entire region’s HOI (Figure 2) and the results from the walkability index, average years in schooling, local multi-Group Spatial Dissimilarity Indx and the GINI Index of Income Inequality (Figure 3).

Figure 2: Middle Peninsula Region’s Health opportunity index (Virginia Department of Health, 2015)

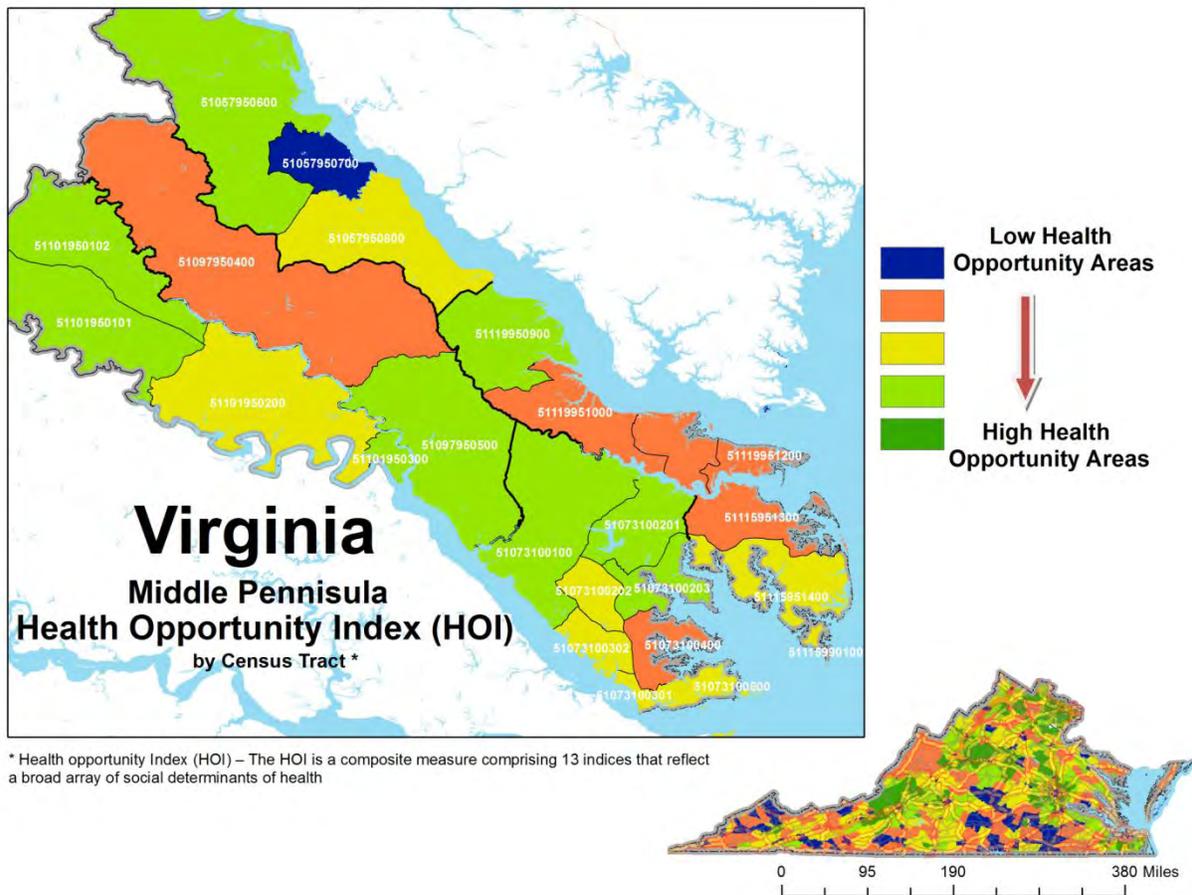
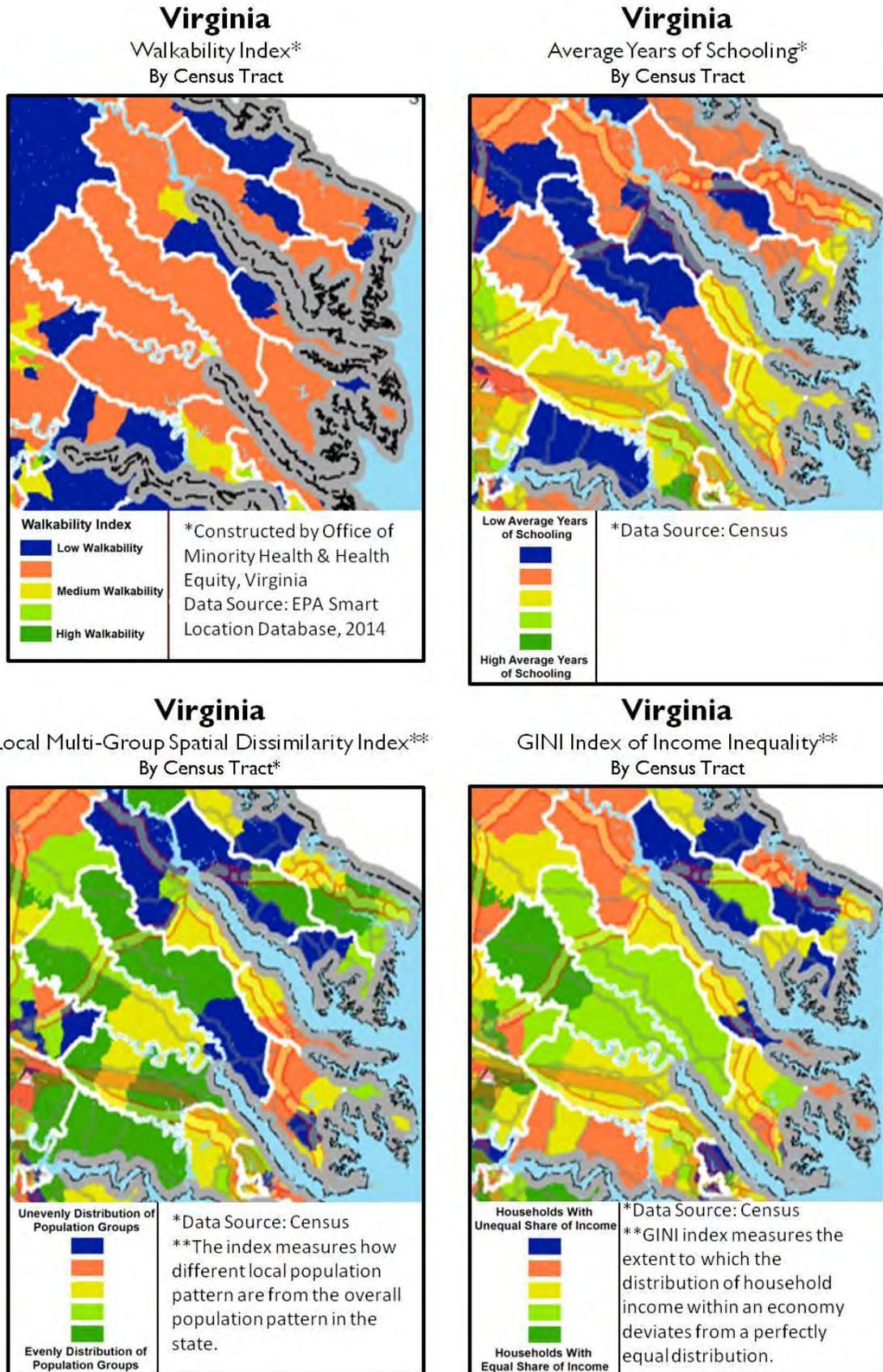


Figure 3: Middle Peninsula Region's walkability index, average years in schooling, local multi-Group Spatial Dissimilarity Indx and the GINI Index of Income Inequality (VDH, 2015).



SECTION 3: COMMUNITY PROFILE OF MIDDLE PENINSULA LOCALITIES

Economic Resiliency

In 2013, the MPPDC adopted a Regional Comprehensive Economic Development Strategy (CEDS) that sets forth goals and objects necessary to improve the regional economy. As hazards pose threats to the local and regional economy, economic resiliency of the region is critical to the regions long term success. The three primary attributes of economic resiliency include: the ability to recover quickly from a shock, the ability to withstand a shock, and the ability to avoid the shock altogether.

Based on mapping efforts by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) in 2012, maps of Employment in Hurricane Storm Surge Flood Zones were developed that provide an example of impacts to employment in hurricane storm surge flood zones in Gloucester, Mathews, and Middlesex Counties (Figures 4-6). These maps show that in Mathew County 61% of all business establishments would be impacted by hurricane storm surge that would reduce quarterly revenues by at least 54%. In Middlesex County 7.8% of all business establishments would be impacted by hurricane storm surge that would reduce quarterly revenues by at least 6%. In Gloucester County 17% of all business establishments would impacted by hurricane storm surge that would reduce quarterly revenues by at least 8%. Needless to say this will have economic consequences to the overall region.

Figure 4: Employment in Hurricane Storm Surge Flood Zones in Mathews County (BLS, 2012).

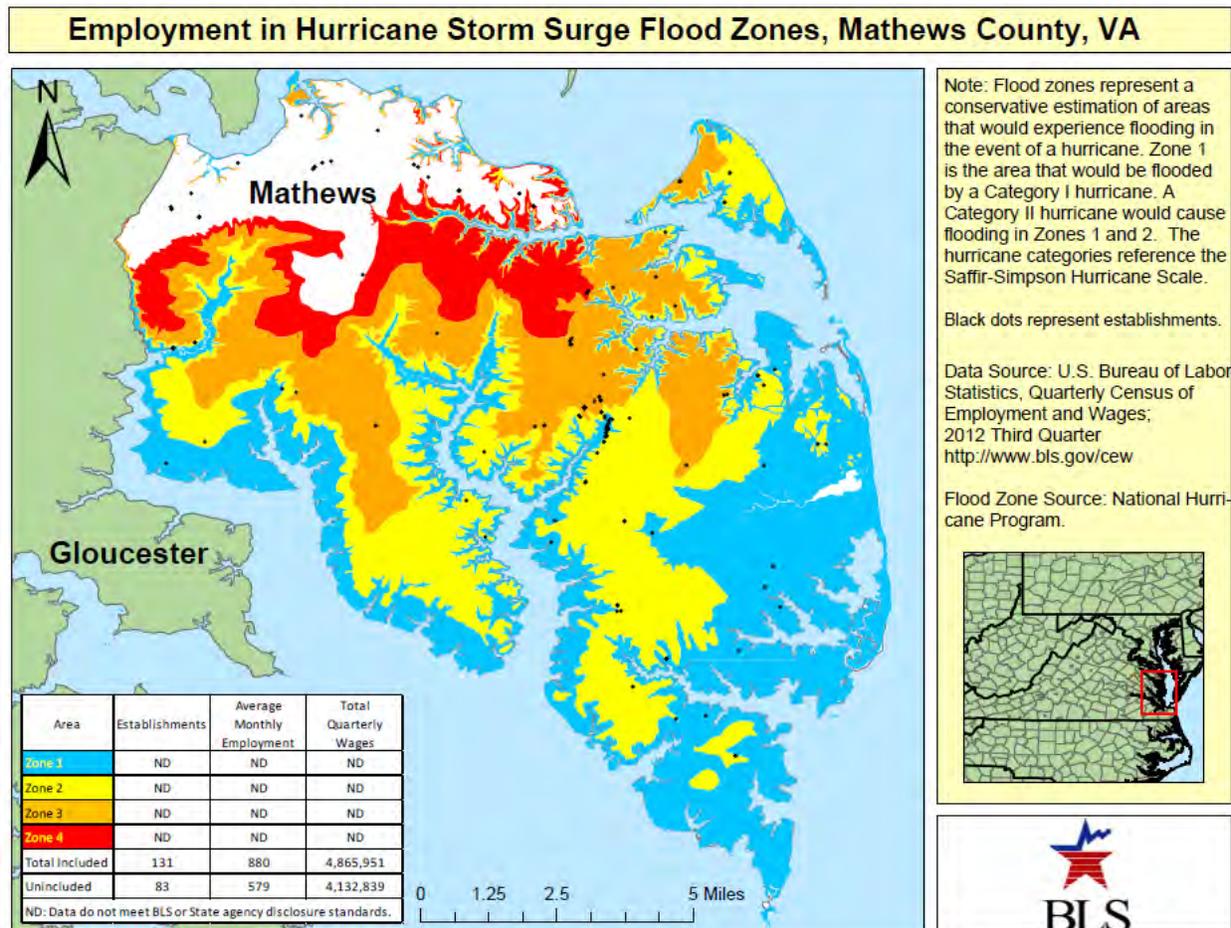


Figure 5: Employment in Hurricane Storm Surge Flood Zones in Middlesex County (BLS, 2012).

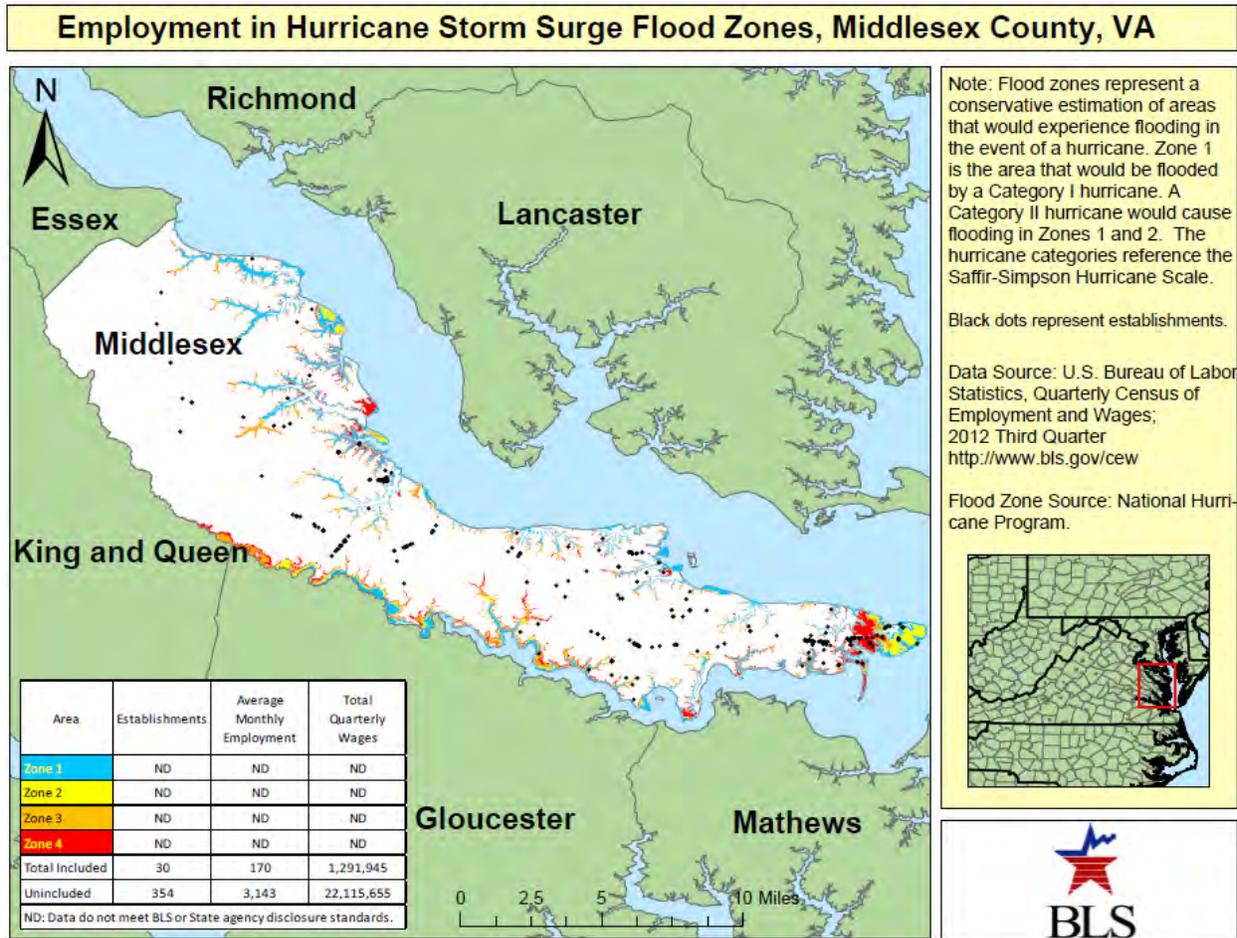
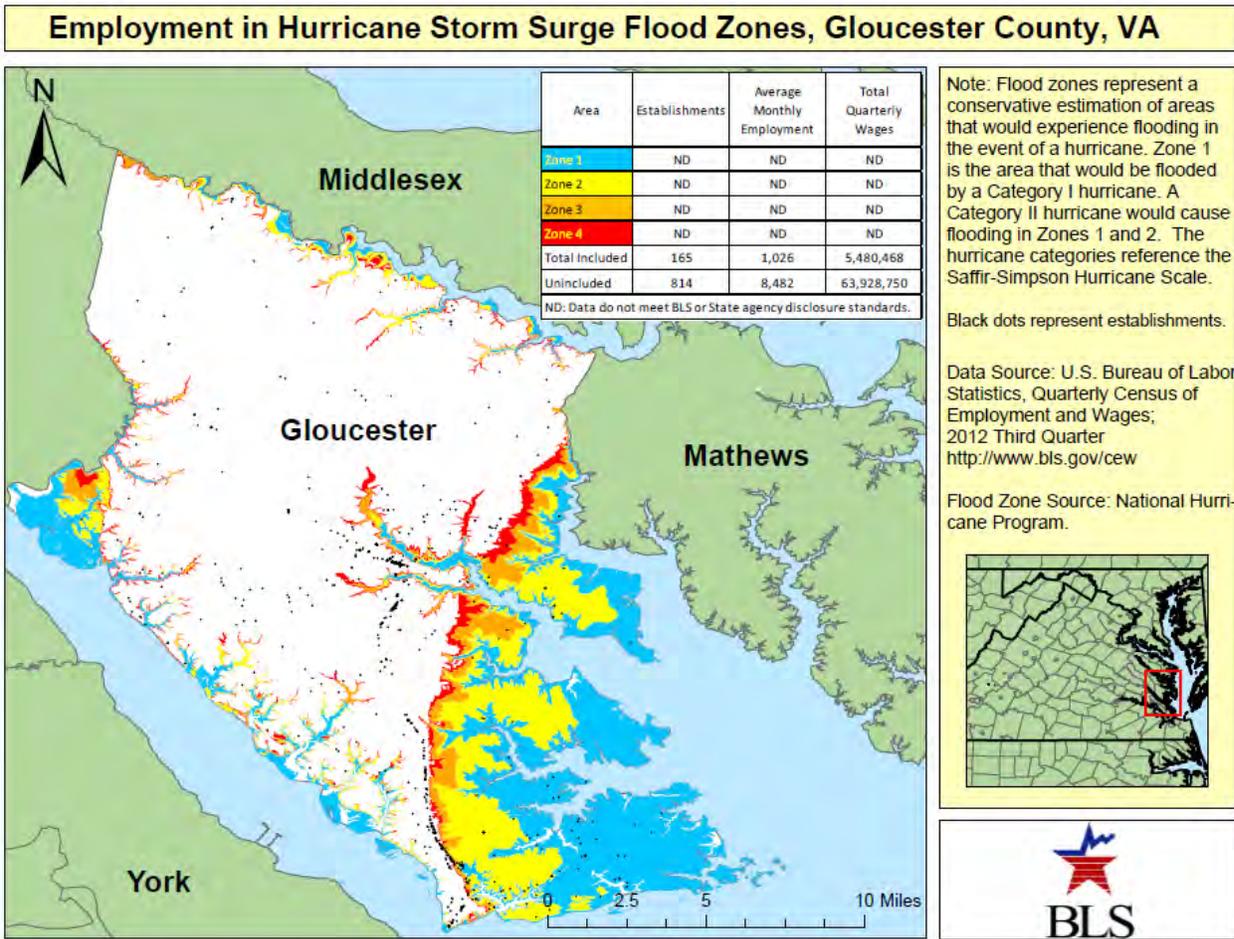


Figure 6: Employment in Hurricane Storm Surge Flood Zones in Gloucester County (BLS, 2012).



Therefore to minimize impacts, not only from hurricane storm surge, but from all other hazards identified in this plan, local business leaders should anticipate, prepare, and plan for impacts and consider how to recover if such events occur.

Section 4 – Hazard Identification and Risk Assessment

To update this hazard identification section MPPDC staff engaged community partners as well as the general public concerning the nature of hazards that may potentially threaten the Middle Peninsula localities. A Local Planning Team (LPT) was created to provide local insight and expertise. The LPT identified hazards of the Middle Peninsula, how they should be prioritized as critical, moderately-critical and non-critical hazards, and they also decided that an in depth analysis was needed for critical hazards. Non- Critical and moderately hazards were not re-analyzed with the exception of recent occurrences due to their minimal impact.

Based on the Federal Guidelines [Disaster Mitigation Act of 2000, §201.1(b)], the Hazards Identification and Risk Assessment (HIRA) is only focused on natural hazards and their impacts. It measures potential loss of life, personal injury, economic impairment, and property damage resulting from natural hazards that threaten the Middle Peninsula. The Middle Peninsula HIRA involved:

1. Hazard Identification,
2. Risk Assessment Analysis, and
3. Financial Loss Estimations.

4.1 Hazard Identification

The LPT first reviewed and evaluated the 2010 list of hazards that could potentially affect the Middle Peninsula and added four new hazards that they deemed to be of concern to the region (Table 2). However instead of just focusing on natural hazards the LPT decided to be inclusive of all hazards that may threaten Middle Peninsula localities.

Table 2: List of Hazards. <i>The LPT identified the following as hazards that may impact the region.</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hurricanes • Ice Storms • Tornadoes • Coastal Flooding/Nor-easters • Coastal/Shoreline Erosion • Sea Level Rise (added in 2010) • Snow Storms • Riverine Flooding • Wildfires • High Winds/Windstorms • Dam Failure • Droughts • Lightning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Earthquakes • Shrink-swell Soils • Extreme Cold • Extreme Heat • Land Subsidence/Karst • Landslides • Tsunamis • Volcanoes • Air Quality (added in 2016) • HAZMAT (added in 2016) • Ditch Flooding (added in 2016) • Summer Storms (added in 2016)

Based on discussions had by the LPT, four new hazards were added to the list they have caused new concern to the region. More specifically the LPT agreed to add the following new hazards:

HAZMAT is carried by a number of vehicles throughout the region, and while the Commonwealth has a HAZMAT plan, local jurisdictions would be the first responders on scene if an accident/spill were to occur.

Ditch Flooding is a specific hazard that results in flooded roads during localized and widespread events in the whole region. This hazard specifically causes issues for first responders attempting to reach people in distress.

Summer Storms include straight line wind events and are a clearly defined natural hazard that can unexpectedly cause downed trees, power outages, etc. These storms are specific to the warmer months and are clearly different and separate from other storm events.

Air Quality is a hazard that affects many citizens, specifically those suffering from asthma. Developing an Air Quality alert system for our area would be beneficial.

In conjunction with the list of hazards, the LPT reviewed the 2010 prioritization (Table 3) of natural hazards as a result of utilizing the Hazards Vulnerability Tool worksheet provided by VDEM staff (originally designed to estimate medical center hazard and vulnerability by Kaiser Permanente).

Table 3: Prioritization Worksheet for Hazards on the Middle Peninsula (2010 worksheet)

**MIDDLE PENINSULA HAZARD AND VULNERABILITY ASSESSMENT TOOL
NATURAL HAZARDS – SUMMARY SHEET**

EVENT	PROBABILITY	HUMAN IMPACT	PROPERTY AND FACILITY IMPACT	BUSINESS IMPACT	Mitigation Options	UNMITIGATED RISK	RANKING
	<i>Likelihood this will occur</i>	<i>Possibility of death or injury to public and responders</i>	<i>Physical losses and damages</i>	<i>COOP and Interruption of services</i>	<i>Pre-Planning</i>	<i>Relative Threat</i>	<i>Based only on probability and threat</i>
SCORE	0 = N/A 1 = Low 2 = Moderate 3 = High	0 = N/A 1 = Low 2 = Moderate 3 = High	0 = N/A 1 = Low 2 = Moderate 3 = High	0 = N/A 1 = Low 2 = Moderate 3 = High	0 = N/A 1 = Low 2 = Moderate 3 = High	0 - 100%	
Hurricanes	3	3	3	3	2	92%	
Winter Storms (Ice)	2	2	2	3	2	50%	
Tornadoes	2	2	2	2	2	44%	
Coastal Flooding	3	2	3	2	2	75%	
Coastal/Shoreline Erosion	3	1	2	1	2	50%	
Sea Level Rise	3	0	2	2	2	50%	
Winter Storm (Snow)	2	2	2	2	2	44%	
Wildfire	2	1	1	1	2	28%	
Riverine Flooding	2	2	1	1	2	33%	
High Wind/Windstorms	2	2	2	1	1	33%	
Dam Failure	2	1	1	1	2	28%	
Drought	2	0	1	2	2	28%	
Lightning	3	1	2	2	1	50%	
Earthquake	1	0	0	0	0	0%	
Shrink-Swell Soils	2	0	1	0	1	11%	
Extreme Cold	1	2	0	0	1	8%	
Extreme Heat	2	2	0	0	1	17%	
Landslides	1	0	0	0	0	0%	
Land Subsidence/Karst	1	0	0	0	0	0%	
Tsunami	1	0	0	0	0	0%	
Volcano	0	0	0	0	0	0%	
AVERAGE	2.27	1.27	1.67	1.53	1.67	25%	

*Threat increases with percentage.

UNMITIGATED RISK=	PROBABILITY * IMPACT
0.25	0.63 0.39



Modifications by:
Revised: 2/25/2010

Similar to the 2006 and 2010 updates, the LPT agreed to continue using the Kaiser Permanente Hazard Vulnerability Assessment Tool for this AHMP update. In doing so, this would provide a measure of continuity and consistency between the MPAHMPs. Therefore the emergency services coordinator/manager from each of the nine jurisdictions were asked to complete the vulnerability worksheet for their locality and turn it into the MPPDC Regional Emergency Preparedness Planner. Emergency services coordinators/managers evaluated each hazard based on five criteria to rank the hazards from highest to lowest priorities. The five categories included the probability based on past events, the potential impacts to structures, primary impacts (percentage of damage to a typical structure or industry in the community), secondary impacts (based on impacts to the community at large), and potential mitigation options. The definitions given in Table 4 were used as a standard for evaluation of all the hazards.

Table 4: Prioritization Criteria for Hazards on the Middle Peninsula	
Probability - <i>Frequency of occurrence based on historical data of all potential hazards</i>	
<u>Level</u>	
0	Not Applicable
1	Unlikely (less than 1% occurrence: no events in the last 100 years)
2	Likely (between 1% and 10% occurrence: 1-10 events in last 100 years)
3	Highly Likely (over 10% occurrence: 11 events or more in last 100 years)
Affected Structures - <i>Number of Structures affected</i>	
<u>Level</u>	
0	Not Applicable
1	Small (limited to 1 building)
2	Medium (limited to 2-10 buildings)
3	Large (over 10 buildings)
Primary Impacts - <i>Based on percentage of damage to a typical structure or industry in the community</i>	
<u>Level</u>	
0	Not Applicable
1	Negligible (less than 3% damage)
2	Limited (between 3% and 49% damage)
3	Critical (more than 49% damage)
Secondary Impacts - <i>Based on impacts to the community at large</i>	
<u>Level</u>	
0	Not Applicable
1	Negligible (no loss of function, no displacement time, no evacuations)
2	Limited (some loss of function, displacement time, some evacuations)
3	Critical (major loss of loss of function, displacement time, major evacuations)
Mitigation Options - <i>Number of cost effective mitigation options</i>	
<u>Level</u>	
0	Not Applicable
1	Many (over 3 cost effective mitigation options)
2	Several (2-3 cost effective mitigation options)
3	Few (1 cost effective mitigation option)

After much consideration of the criteria, as well as consider of readily available data, local knowledge and observations the LPT re-ranked the hazards for this update. Table 5 provides the new ranking of the hazards.

Table 5: Prioritization worksheet for Hazards in the Middle Peninsula for the 2016 update.

**MIDDLE PENINSULA HAZARD AND VULNERABILITY ASSESSMENT TOOL
NATURAL HAZARDS -- SUMMARY SHEET
Priority Worksheet for Hazards**

EVENT	PROBABILITY	HUMAN IMPACT	PROPERTY AND FACILITY IMPACT	BUSINESS IMPACT	Mitigation Options	UNMITIGATED	
	<i>Likelihood this will occur</i>	<i>Possibility of death or injury to public and responders</i>	<i>Physical losses and damages</i>	<i>COOP and Interruption of services</i>	<i>Pre-Planning</i>	RISK	RANKING
SCORE	0 = N/A 1 = Low 2 = Moderate 3 = High	0 = N/A 1 = Low 2 = Moderate 3 = High	0 = N/A 1 = Low 2 = Moderate 3 = High	0 = N/A 1 = Low 2 = Moderate 3 = High	0 = N/A 1 = Low 2 = Moderate 3 = High	0 - 100%	<i>Based only on probability and threat</i>
Winter Storms (Ice)	3	3	2	2	2	75%	1
Coastal Flooding	3	2	3	2	2	75%	1
Lightning	3	2	2	2	1	58%	2
Hurricanes	2	2	3	2	2	50%	3
Summer Storms	3	2	2	1	1	50%	3
Tornados	2	2	2	2	2	44%	4
Winter Storm (Snow)	2	2	2	2	2	44%	4
Coastal/Shoreline Erosion	2	2	2	1	2	39%	5
Wildfire	2	2	2	1	2	39%	5
Riverine Flooding	2	2	2	1	2	39%	5
Sea Level Rise	2	1	2	1	2	33%	6
High Wind/Windstorms	2	2	2	1	1	33%	6
HAZMAT	2	2	2	1	1	33%	6
Ditch Flooding	2	1	2	1	2	33%	6
Drought	2	1	2	1	1	28%	7
Extreme Cold	2	2	1	1	1	28%	7
Extreme Heat	2	2	1	1	1	28%	7
Dam Failure	1	1	1	1	1	11%	8
Earthquake	1	1	1	1	1	11%	8
Air Quality	1	1	1	1	1	11%	8
Shrink-Swell Soils	1	0	1	0	1	6%	9
Landslides	1	1	1	0	0	6%	9
Land Subsidence/Karst	1	0	0	0	0	0%	10
Tsunami	0	0	0	0	0	0%	10
Volcano	0	0	0	0	0	0%	10
AVERAGE	1.64	1.32	1.48	0.96	1.16	28%	

*Threat increases with percentage.

UNMITIGATED RISK=	PROBABILITY * IMPACT
0.28	0.65 0.43

Spreadsheet developed by:



As an outcome of the reassessment and re-ranking of hazards, there were five hazards ranked as having the highest relative risk and thus considered “**Critical Hazards**”. These five hazards include:

1. Winter Storms (Ice),
1. Coastal Flooding,
2. Lightning,
3. Hurricanes, and
3. Summer Storms.

The hazards considered “**Moderately Critical**” have historically occurred in the Middle Peninsula, yet ranked lower than the Critical Hazards in terms of risk during the hazard prioritization exercise. These Moderately-Critical hazards include:

4. Tornadoes,
4. Winter Storms (snow),
5. Coastal/shoreline Erosion,

- 5. Wildfires,
- 5. Riverine Flooding,
- 6. Sea Level Rise,
- 6. High Wind/Windstorms,
- 6. HAZMAT, and
- 6. Ditch Flooding.

Hazards considered “**Non-Critical**” have occurred very infrequently, or have not occurred at all – based on the available historical records. These hazards are not considered a widespread threat that would result in significant losses of property and life in the Middle Peninsula. These Non-Critical hazards included:

- 7. Drought,
- 7. Extreme Cold,
- 7. Extreme Heat,
- 8. Dam Failure,
- 8. Earthquake,
- 8. Air Quality,
- 9. Shrink-swell Soils,
- 9. Landslide,
- 10. Land Subsidence / Karst,
- 10. Tsunami, and
- 10. Volcano.

4.2. Hazards Considered “Non-Critical” Hazards to the Middle Peninsula

The following section describes hazards that are uncommon throughout the Middle Peninsula region and deemed “Non-Critical” Hazards to the Middle Peninsula by the LPT.

4.2.1. Drought

Empirical studies conducted over the past century have shown that drought is never the result of a single cause. It is the result of many causes, often synergistic in nature, and therefore often difficult to predict more than a month or more in advance. In fact, an area may already be in a drought before drought is even recognized. The immediate cause of drought is the predominant sinking motion of air (subsidence) that results in compressional warming or high pressure, which inhibits cloud formation and results in lower relative humidity and less precipitation. Most climatic regions experience varying degrees of dominance by high pressure, often depending on the season. Prolonged droughts occur when large-scale anomalies in atmospheric circulation patterns persist for months or seasons (or longer). The extreme drought that affected the United States and Canada during 1988 resulted from the persistence of a large-scale atmospheric circulation anomaly (National Drought Mitigation Center, 2004).

There have been four major statewide droughts since the early 1900's (USGS, 2002). The drought of 1930-32 was one of the most severe recorded in the Commonwealth while the droughts of 1938-42 and 1962-71 were less severe; however, the cumulative stream flow deficit for the 1962-71 drought was the greatest of the droughts because of its duration. The drought of 1980-82 was the least severe and had the shortest duration. Tidewater Virginia experienced “Severe Drought” conditions during the drought of 2001-2002 when stream flow into Chesapeake Bay was only half the average annual flow into the Bay (Virginia State Climatology Office, 2002).

In 2007, seventeen counties fell into severe drought status as over \$10 million in crop damages occurred in Southwest Virginia.

Virginia is one of 44 states that have implemented a Drought Plan. The goals of these plans are to reduce water shortage impacts, personal hardships, and conflicts between water and other natural resource users. These plans promote self-reliance by systematically addressing issues of principal concern. The National Drought Policy Commission's report to Congress and the president, "Preparing for Drought in the 21st Century" (available on-line at: <http://www.fsa.usda.gov/drought/finalreport/fullreport/pdf/reportfull.pdf>), emphasizes the need for drought planning at the state, local, federal, and tribal levels of government. While some state plans focus on mitigation strategies, Virginia's Plan emphasizes response strategies.

In a parallel effort, Middle Peninsula localities with the exception of Gloucester County, participated in the development of the Middle Peninsula Regional Water Supply Plan (MPRWSP) in 2009. Gloucester County participated in the development of the Hampton Roads Regional Water Supply Plan. Overall the water supply plans contain proposed strategies and polices that the localities can undertake to mitigate adverse affects of periodic droughts

As both the Regional Water Supply Plan and Drought Response plans focus on responding to drought, both plans should identify the role the jurisdiction's Emergency Services Coordinator/Manager will have with the locality's County Administrator/Town Manager during the implementation of both plans.

Drought Vulnerability

Drought is a phenomenon that, affects the Commonwealth on nearly an annual basis. Drought has several definitions, depending upon the impact. **Agricultural drought** is the most common form of drought, and is characterized by unusually dry conditions during the growing season. **Meteorological drought** is defined as an extended period (generally 6 months or more) when precipitation is less than 75 percent of normal during that period. If coincident with the growing season, agricultural and meteorological drought can occur simultaneously. In general, hydrologic drought is the most serious, and has the most wide reaching consequences. **Hydrologic drought** occurs due to a protracted period of meteorological drought, which reduces stream flows to extremely low levels ("Dry years" in Figure 7), and creates major problems for public (reservoir/river) and private (well) water supplies.

Extended periods of drought can impact crop and hay yields, and significant crop losses can result. The impact of meteorological drought can vary significantly depending upon dry years indicated by red bars the length of the dry period, the time of year the dry period occurs, the antecedent moisture conditions prior to the onset of the dry period, and the relative dryness (in percent of normal precipitation) of the period in question. Drought duration is highly variable by region. The duration also depends on when the precipitation is needed for such activities as planting and irrigation.

In addition to the primary impacts of drought, there are also secondary impacts that can increase the potential for other hazards to occur. Extended periods of drought can increase the risk of wildfire occurrences.

Specific impacts of drought to Middle Peninsula localities may be experienced differently. In particular economic losses may due to crop loss and water shortages.

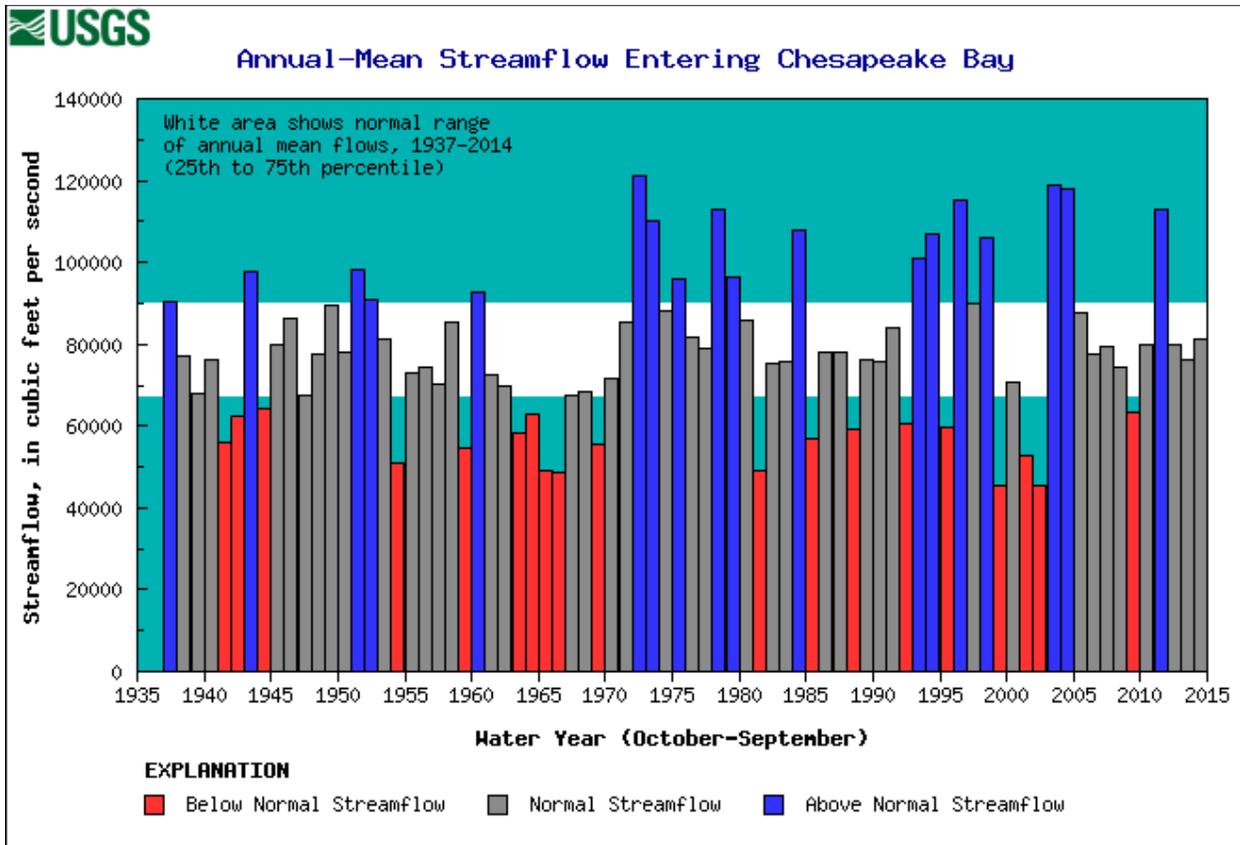


Figure 7: Annual mean stream inflow into Chesapeake Bay 1937 – 2015. (USGS, 2016).

Drought Extent (Impact)

To assist in identifying the severity of a drought event a classification system is utilized and will dictate public water restriction (Table 6). Notice that water restrictions start as voluntary and then become required as the severity of the drought increases.

Table 6: Drought Severity Classification		
Category	Description	Possible Impacts
D0	Abnormally Dry	Going into drought: short-term dryness slowing planting, growth of crops or pastures; fire risk above average. Coming out of drought: some lingering water deficits; pastures or crops not fully recovered.
D1	Moderate Drought	Some damage to crops, pastures; fire risk high; streams, reservoirs, or wells low, some water shortages developing or imminent, voluntary water use restrictions requested
D2	Severe Drought	Crop or pasture losses likely; fire risk very high; water shortages common; water restrictions imposed
D3	Extreme Drought	Major crop/pasture losses; extreme fire danger; widespread water shortages or restrictions

4.2.2. Extreme Cold and Extreme Heat

Extreme cold temperatures are not an annual event in Virginia. Although wind chill advisories are issued nearly every year, especially in Western and Northern portions of the state, life-threatening extreme cold,

requiring wind chill warnings, is a rare occurrence in the Middle Peninsula. The frequency of occurrence is dependent entirely upon the extreme cold criteria used - wind chill vs. air temperature. The primary impact of extreme cold is increased potential for frostbite, hypothermia, and potentially death because of over-exposure to extreme cold. Some secondary impacts of extreme/excessive cold may present a danger to livestock and pets, and frozen water pipes in homes and businesses.

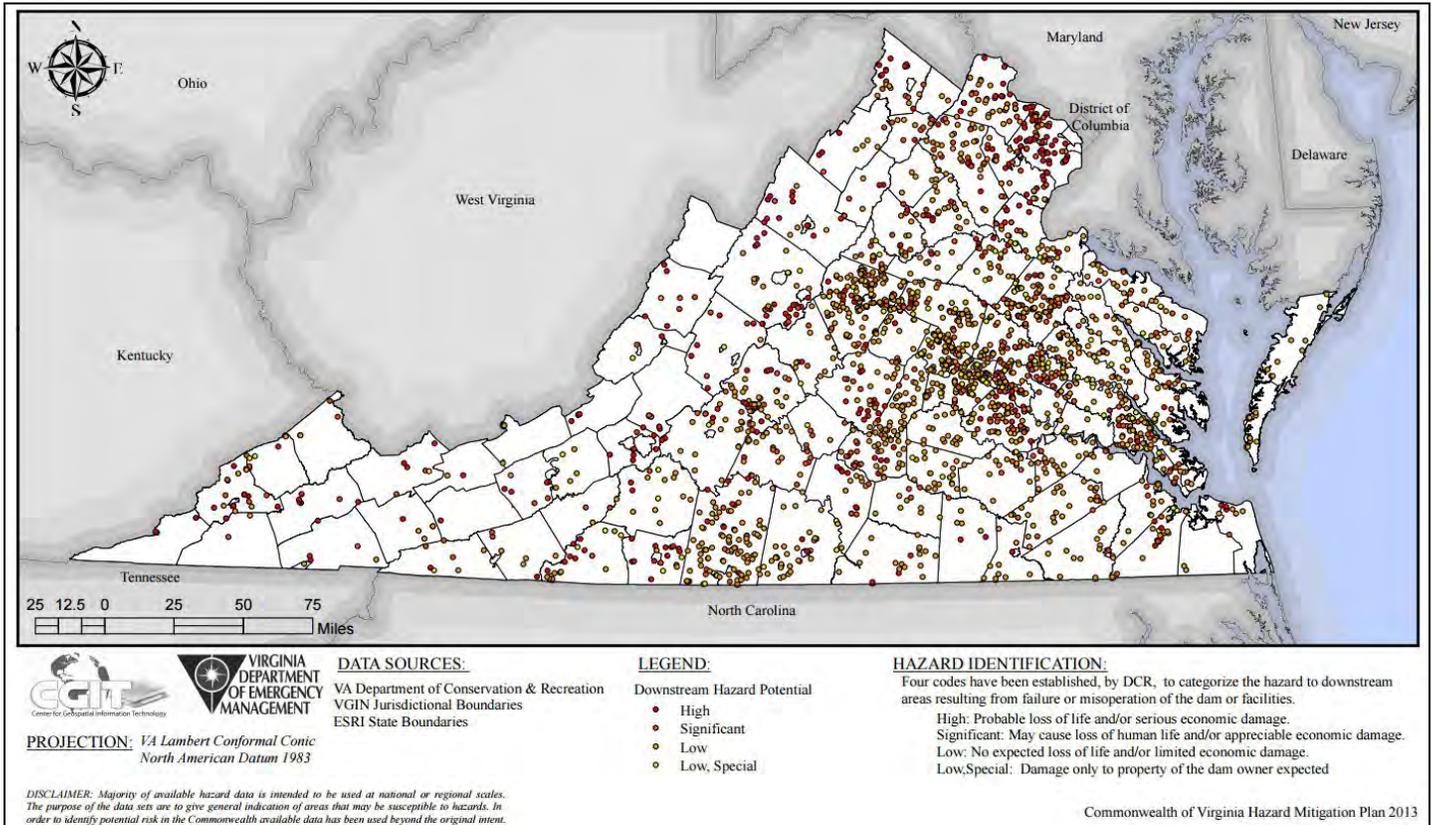
Extreme heat, generally associated with drought conditions, is a phenomenon that is generally confined to the months of July and August, although brief periods of excessive heat have occurred in June and September. Extreme heat can be defined either by actual air temperature, or by the heat index, which relates the combined effects of humidity and air temperature on the body. Extreme heat is not an annual event in the Middle Peninsula. Although heat advisories are issued near every year, especially in the urban areas of Northern Virginia, life-threatening extreme heat is a rare occurrence in the Middle Peninsula region. The frequency of occurrence is dependent entirely upon the extreme heat criteria used (i.e. heat index vs. air temperature). The primary impact of extreme heat is increased potential for hyperthermia, which can be fatal to the elderly and infirmed. In addition, there is an increased risk of dehydration, if proper steps are not taken to ingest adequate amounts of non-alcoholic fluids. The impact of extreme heat is most prevalent in urban areas, which are not found in the Middle Peninsula. Secondary impacts of excessive heat are severe strain on the electrical power system, and potential brownouts or blackouts.

Specific impacts to Middle Peninsula localities will vary due to extreme cold and extreme heat.

4.2.3. Dam Failure

Since the last plan, the Virginia Department of Conservation and Recreation (DCR) created an inventory of dams throughout the Commonwealth. According to DCR data there are approximately 2,406 dams within the Commonwealth and approximately 101 in the Middle Peninsula (Table 7). Figure 8 provides a map of dam locations and their associated hazard potentials.

Figure 8: Dam locations and associated hazard potential (Source: Commonwealth of Virginia Hazard Mitigation Plan, 2013).



Dam Failure Extent (Impacts)

As failure of dams may result in a localized major impact, including loss of human life, economic loss, lifeline disruption, and environmental impact such as destruction of habitat, there are also secondary impacts including flooding to the surrounding areas. Thus a scale has been developed to classify the hazard potentials of dams due to their overall impact to a given area:

- **High** – dams that upon failure would cause probable loss of life or serious economic damage.
- **Significant** – dams that upon failure might cause loss of life or appreciable economic damage.
- **Low** – dams that upon failure would lead to no expected loss of life or significant economic damage. This classification includes dams that upon failure would cause damage only to property of the dam owner. **Special criteria** – includes dams that upon failure would cause damage only to property of the dam owner.

Table 7: Inventory of dams within the Middle Peninsula and their risk classification.

County	High	Significant	Low	Low, Special	Unknown	Total # of Dams
Essex	0	1	15	1	0	17
Gloucester	1	3	6	1	0	11
King and Queen	0	6	8	7	1	22
King William	1	8	23	4	0	36
Mathews	0	0	0	0	0	0
Middlesex	0	2	11	2	0	15
TOTAL	2	20	63	15	1	101

Dam Failure Vulnerability

Dams are classified with a hazard potential depending on the downstream losses estimated in event of failure. The recent regulatory revisions bring Virginia’s classification system into alignment with the system already used in the National Inventory of Dams maintained by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers. Hazard potential is not related to the structural integrity of a dam but strictly to the potential for adverse downstream effects if the dam were to fail. Regulatory requirements, such as the frequency of dam inspection, the standards for spillway design, and the extent of emergency operations plans, are dependent upon the dam classification. The owner of each regulated Class I, II, and III dam is required to apply to the Soil and Water Conservation Board for an operation and maintenance certificate.

The Virginia DCR Division of Dam Safety’s mission is to conserve, protect, enhance, and advocate the wise use of the Commonwealth’s unique natural, historical, recreational, scenic and cultural resources. The program’s purpose is to provide for safe design, construction, operation, and maintenance of dams to protect public safety. Disaster recovery programs include assistance to dam owners and local officials in assessing the condition of dams following a flood disaster and assuring the repairs and reconstruction of damaged structures are compliant with the National Flood Insurance Program (NFIP) regulations.

For those dam failures that pose a risk when there are large potential areas with large populations surrounding dams. On-going dam inspections and Virginia’s participation in the National Dam Safety Program maintained by FEMA and the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers serve as preventative measures against dam failures.

Most dam failures occur due to lack of maintenance of dam facilities in combination with excess precipitation events, such as hurricanes and thunderstorms. During Hurricane Floyd in 1999, floods broke open at least 12 unregulated dams in eastern Virginia. One of those failures, at the Cow Creek Dam near Gloucester Courthouse, temporarily closed state Route 14; No one was hurt. Rebuilding the dam cost about \$160,000 (U.S. Water News Online, 2002). During Tropical Storm Gaston in late summer of 2004, a dam was overtopped in King William County and caused a washout of Route 610 between Rt. 608 and Rt. 609. The road was closed to traffic for several weeks (VDOT, 2004).

Each Middle Peninsula locality, with the exception of Mathews County, has dams and therefore vulnerable to dam failure. However the degree of vulnerability and impact will vary between the localities if a dam failure occurs. For instance Gloucester County may experience the most impact from a failure at Beaver Dam as it is the largest in the region. The 39’ high dam structure, covers approximately 635 acres of land, and is in close proximity to the Gloucester County Courthouse area which is a main residential and business corridor for the County. This increases the potential of economic loss.

Dam Impoundments

In 2001, Virginia's legislature broadened the definitions of "impounding structure" to bring more dams under regulatory oversight. On February 1, 2008, the Virginia Soil and Water Conservation Board approved major revisions to the Impounding Structure Regulations in the Virginia Administrative Code, changing the dam hazard potential classification system, modifying spillway requirements, requiring dam break inundation zone modeling, expanding emergency action plan requirements, and making a variety of other regulatory changes.

All dams in Virginia are subject to the Virginia Dam Safety Act and Dam Safety Regulations unless specifically excluded. A dam is excluded from these regulations if it meets one or more of the following criteria:

1. is less than 6 feet high,
2. has a maximum capacity of less than 50 acre-feet and is less than 25 feet in height,
3. has a maximum capacity of less than 15 acre-feet and is more than 25 feet in height,
4. is used primarily for agricultural purposes and has a maximum capacity of less than 100 acre-feet or is less than 25 feet in height (if the use or ownership changes, the dam may be subject to the Dam Safety Regulations),
5. is owned or licensed by the federal government,
6. is operated for mining purposes under 45.1-222 or 45.1-225.1 of the Code of Virginia, or
7. is an obstruction in a canal used to raise or lower water levels.

The height of the dam is defined as the vertical distance from the streambed at the downstream toe to the top of the dam. The maximum capacity of a dam is defined as the maximum volume capable of being impounded at the top of the dam.

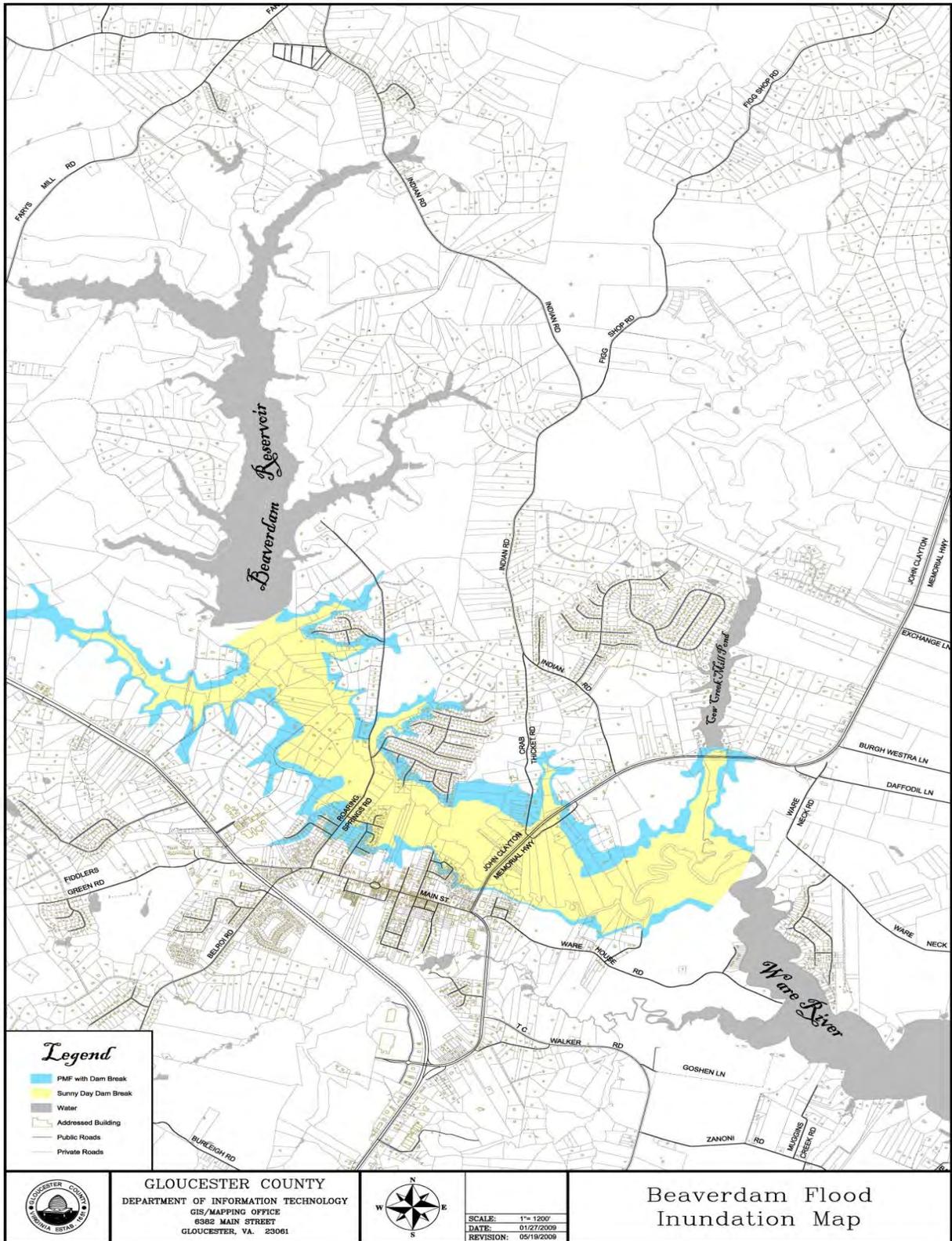
The DCR – Division of Dam Safety is the state agency responsible for enforcing the Virginia Dam Safety Act and overseeing the issuance of Operation and Maintenance Certificates for regulated dams.

Beaverdam Reservoir Dam – Gloucester, County

The Beaverdam Reservoir, located to the north of the Gloucester Courthouse area, is contained by a 39' high dam structure and covers approximately 635 acres of land. The reservoir is primarily surrounded by land zoned for low density development and there is a 300' by 600' buffer area surrounding this water impoundment. The property is owned by Gloucester County and it is an actively used local recreational site known as Beaverdam Park as well as a drinking water source for Gloucester County residents.

Figure 9 shows areas shaded in yellow and blue that would be inundated if the reservoir dam were to fail. According to Gloucester County officials, these shaded areas represent 405 homes just north of the Gloucester Courthouse Complex and the downtown business district that would be inundated if the dam were to fail.

Figure 9: Beaverdam. Flood Inundation Map (Source: Gloucester County)



Lake Anna Dam

The Lake Anna Dam, located near Mineral in Louisa County, Virginia, creates an impoundment with a surface area of approximately 13,000 acres. Periodic major water releases from Lake Anna flow into the Pamunkey River which can have adverse affects on river levels during major releases.

Depending on the amount of water released by the dam owner, Dominion/Virginia Power Company, a potential flooding hazard exists for King William County residents, which would include flooding of low-lying agricultural land, some roads, threes (3) bridges along these roads, a scattering of residences and some agricultural structures.

4.2.4. Earthquakes

An earthquake is a sudden movement or trembling of the Earth, caused by the abrupt release of strain that has accumulated over a long time. For hundreds of millions of years, the forces of plate tectonics have shaped the Earth as the huge plates that form the Earth's surface slowly move over, under, and past each other. Sometimes the movement is gradual; at other times, the plates are locked together, unable to release the accumulating energy. When the accumulated energy grows strong enough, the plates break free and result in an earthquake (Shedlock and Pakister, 1997). If the earthquake occurs in a populated area, it may cause deaths, injuries, and extensive property damage.

Earthquake Vulnerability

During an earthquake when the ground is shaking, it experiences acceleration. The peak acceleration (PA) is the largest acceleration recorded by a particular station during an earthquake (expressed as %g). When acceleration acts on a physical body, the body experiences the acceleration as a force. The force we are most experienced with is the force of gravity, which causes us to have weight. Units of acceleration are measured in terms of g, the acceleration due to gravity. For example, an acceleration of 11 feet per second per second is $11 \times 12 \times 2.54 = 335$ cm/sec/sec. The acceleration due to gravity is 980 cm/sec/sec, so an acceleration of 11 feet/sec/sec is about $335/980 = 0.34$ g. Expressed as a percent; 0.34 g is 34 %g.

The United States Geological Survey (USGS) rates the susceptibility of areas of the United States to earthquakes and has published risk maps, which give the probability of various levels of ground motion being exceeded in 5 years. An approximate threshold for shaking that causes building damage (for pre-1965 dwellings or dwellings not designed to resist earthquakes) is 10 %g. According to USGS predictions, the Middle Peninsula is located within the 1-2%g, 2-3%g and 3-4%g contour lines (Figure 10).

Historical data is supportive of this low risk assessment. Virginia has had over 160 earthquakes since 1977 of which 16% were felt (Stover and Coffman, 1993). This equates to an average of one earthquake occurring every month with two felt each year. Figure 11 depicts the historical earthquake epicenters in and near Virginia from 1568 through 2011. The largest earthquake in Virginia was a magnitude 5.8 earthquake in Giles County in 1897. This earthquake was the third largest in the eastern US in the last 200 years was felt in twelve states. Based on the map there were no earthquake epicenters recorded within the area of the Middle Peninsula. However in 2011 a 5.8 earthquake in Mineral, Virginia was felt in the Middle Peninsula region and causes damages according to VDEM (Figure 12).

Depending on the epicenter of the earthquake Middle Peninsula localities may experience varying impacts. According to the USGS (2015) the eastern most portions of Mathews and Gloucester County have a lower chance of being impacted by earthquakes.

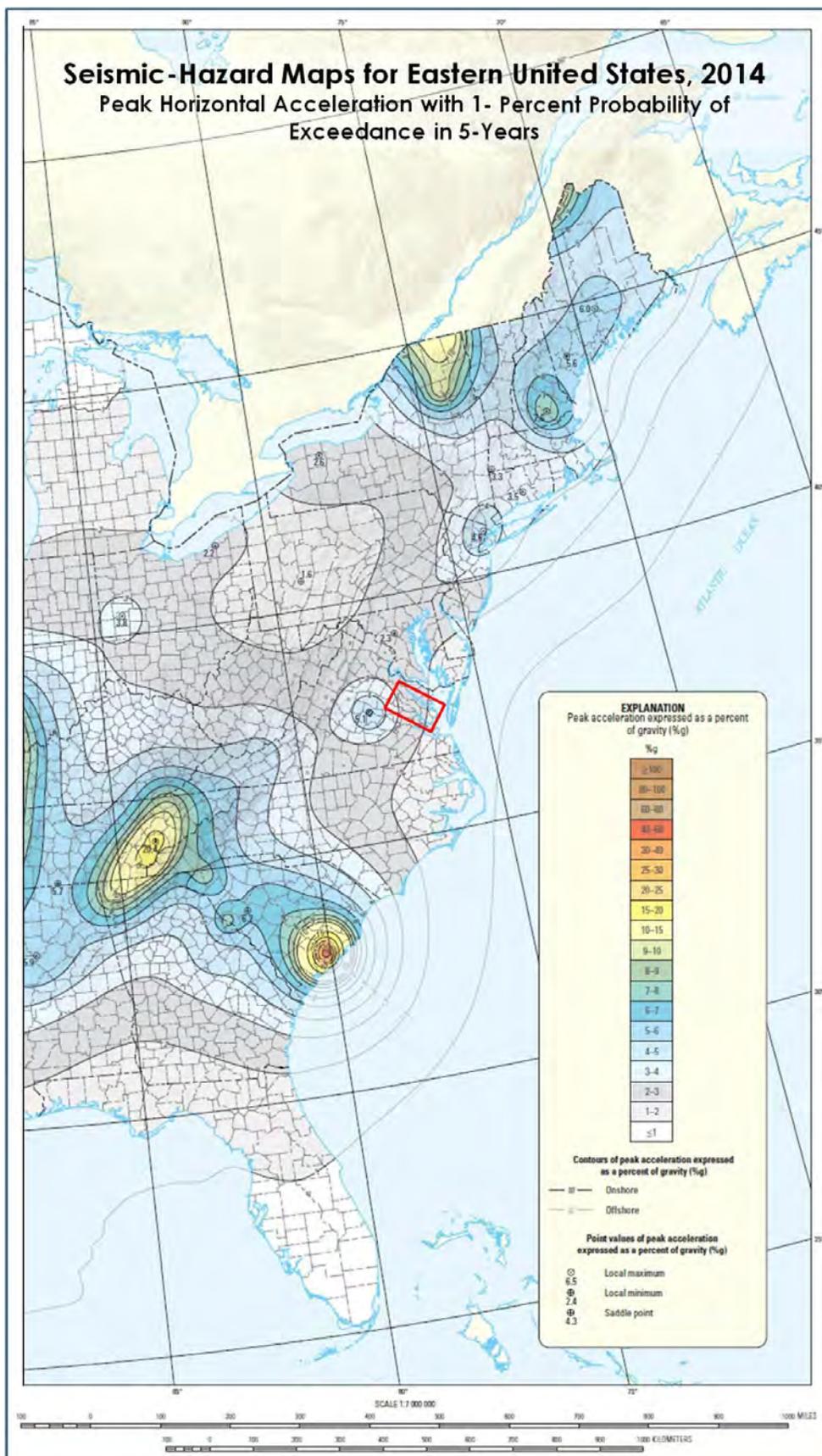


Figure 10: Seismic- Hazard Map of the Eastern United States. Predicted earthquake hazards are depicted by contour values of earthquake ground motions that have a 1% probability if being exceeded in 5 years. The Middle Peninsula of Virginia (highlighted by the red square on the map) falls within the 1-2%g, 2-3%g and 3-4%g contour. Image courtesy of Petersen, et. al. with USGS (2015)

Figure 11: Significant Earthquakes 1568 – 2011 - Historical earthquake epicenters in and near Virginia from 1568 through 2011. The Middle Peninsula of Virginia (highlighted by the red square on the map) is void of any historic earthquake epicenters (Source: Commonwealth of Virginia Hazard Mitigation Plan 2013).

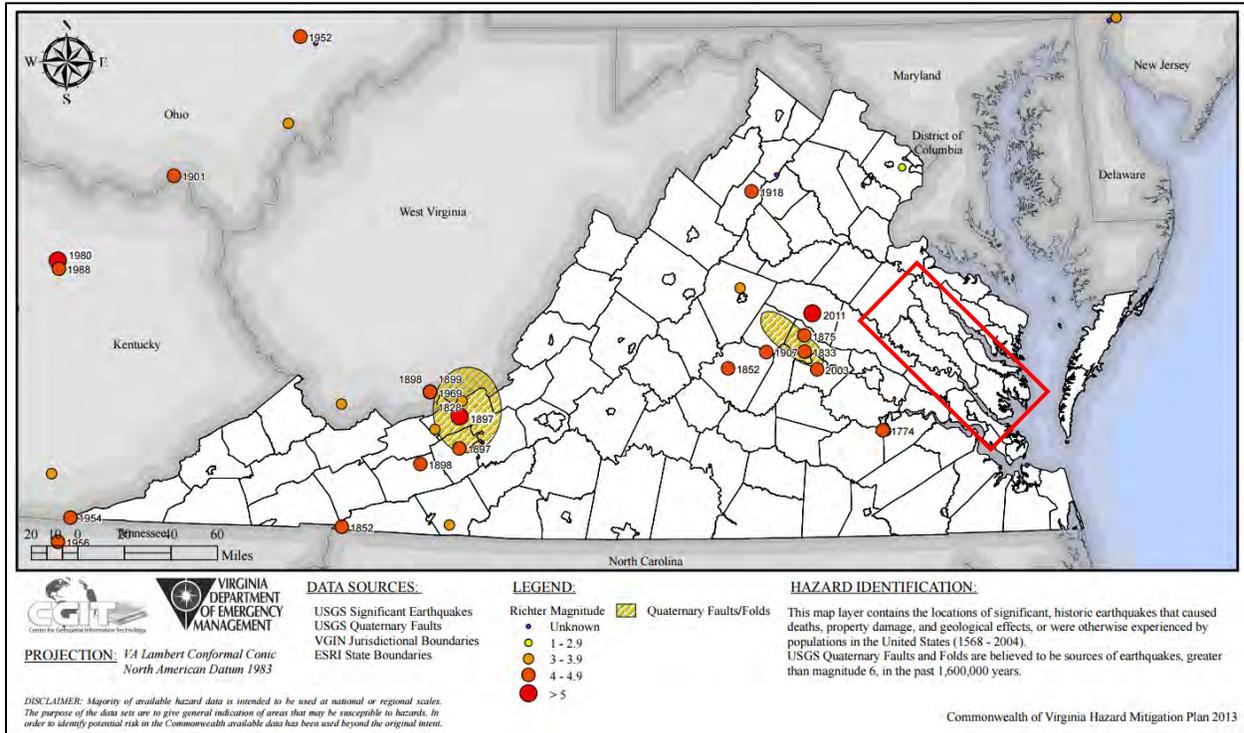
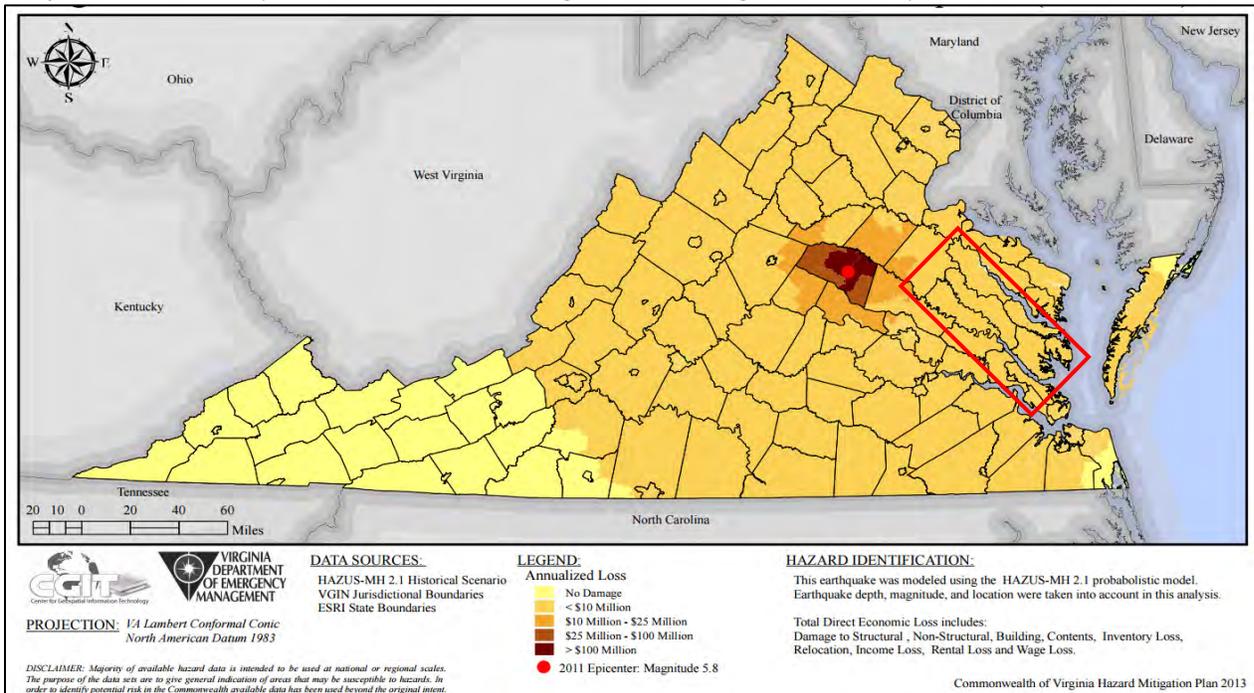


Figure 12: Total loss from 2011 Mineral, VA Earthquake (HAZUS). The Middle Peninsula of Virginia (highlighted by the red square) is void of any historic earthquake epicenters, however endured losses as a result of impact from the 2011 earthquake in Mineral, VA (Source: Commonwealth of Virginia Hazard Mitigation Plan 2013).



Earthquake Extent (Impact)

The severity of an earthquake can be expressed in terms of both intensity and magnitude. However, the two terms are quite different, and they are often confused. Intensity is based on the observed effects of ground shaking on people, buildings, and natural features. It varies from place to place within the disturbed region depending on the location of the observer with respect to the earthquake epicenter. Magnitude is related to the amount of seismic energy released at the hypocenter of the earthquake. It is based on the amplitude of the earthquake waves recorded on instruments which have a common calibration. The magnitude of an earthquake is thus represented by a single, instrumentally determined value.

Earthquake severity is commonly measured on two different scales: the Modified Mercalli Intensity scale and the Richter Magnitude scale. The following provides ranking and classification definitions for the two scales (Table 8).

Table 8: Ranking and classification definitions for two scales that measure earthquake severity.	
Richter Magnitude Scale	Modified Mercalli Intensity Scale
1.0 to 3.0	I
3.0 to 3.9	II to III
4.0 to 4.9	IV to V
5.0 to 5.9	VI to VII
6.0 to 6.9	VII to IX
7.0 and Higher	VIII or Higher
Defined Modified Mercalli Intensity Scale Rating	
I	Not Felt except by a very few under especially favorable conditions
II	Felt only by a few persons at rest, especially on upper floors of buildings
III	Felt quite noticeably by persons indoors, especially on upper floors of buildings. Many people do not recognize it as an earthquake. Standing motor cars may rock slightly. Vibrations similar to the passing of a truck.
IV	Felt indoors by many, outdoors by few during the day. At night, some awakened. Dishes, windows, doors, disturbed; walls make cracking sound. Sensation like heavy truck striking building. Standing motor cars rocked noticeably.
V	Felt by nearly everyone; many awakened. Some dishes, windows broken. Unstable objects overturned. Pendulum clocks may stop.
VI	Felt by all, many frightened. Some heavy furniture moved; a few instances of fallen plaster. Damage slight.
VII	Damage negligible in buildings of good design and construction; slight to moderate in well-built ordinary structures; considerable damage in poorly built or badly designed structures; some chimneys broken
VIII	Damage slight in specially designed structures; considerable damage in ordinary substantial buildings with partial collapse. Damage great in poorly built structures. Fall of chimneys, factory stacks, columns, monuments, walls. Heavy furniture overturned
IX	Damage considerable in specially designed structures; well-designed frame structures thrown out of plumb. Damage great in substantial buildings, with partial collapse. Buildings shifted off foundations.
X	Some well-built wooden structures destroyed; most masonry and frame structures destroyed with foundations. Rails bent.
XI	Few, if any (masonry) structures remain standing. Bridges destroyed. Rails bent greatly.
XII	Damage total. Lines of sight and level are distorted. Objects thrown into the air.

4.2.3. Air Quality

Good air quality is taken for granted by most of the citizens of the Middle Peninsula of Virginia. However there are natural and human-caused factors that may influence the air quality within the region.

First emissions from human activity can influence overall air quality within the region. From vehicle emissions to local businesses (ie. industry), Virginia Department of Environmental Quality (DEQ) Air Division's monitors and regulates emissions as they responsible for carrying out the mandates of the Virginia Air Pollution Control Law as well as the Federal obligations under the Clean Air Act on behalf of the State Air Pollution Control Board. For local industry, DEQ issues air quality permits to regulate emitted pollutants to ensure that these emissions do not cause harm to the public or the environment. Each year DEQ will compile an inventory of criteria pollutants air emissions from point, area, mobile and biogenic sources (ie. natural sources, from vegetation and soils as well as other relevant sources include volcanic emissions, lightning, and sea salt). Table 9 displays the most recent 2013 Point Source Criteria Pollutant Emissions Report for Middle Peninsula localities.

Table 9: 2013 Point Source Emissions Inventory. DEQ periodically compiles an inventory of criteria pollutant air emissions from point, area, mobile, and biogenic sources in the state. Point source emissions are inventoried annually (DEQ, 2014).

County	Plant Name	Emissions (tons)							
		NH ₃	NO ₂	Pb	PM 10	PM 2.5	SO ₂	VOC	Plant Total
Essex	Tidewater Lumber				35.55	35.55			71.11
Essex	June Parker Oil Co Inc							2.31	2.31
Essex	FDP Brakes of Virginia		1.80		2.64	2.64	0.00	14.83	22.14
Essex	Perdue Foods LLC - Tappahannock/Essex		0.75		16.06	15.51	0.00	0.03	32.45
Essex	Essex Concrete Corporation - Tappahannock				0.46	0.46			0.93
Essex	O'Malley Timber Products, Inc.	0.00	9.96		16.24	7.70	1.13	26.82	89.02
Gloucester	Rappahannock Concrete White Marsh		0.02		0.36	0.36	0.04	0.00	0.79
Gloucester	Philips Energy Inc							5.91	5.91
Gloucester	Riverside Walter Reed Hospital	0.04	0.74	0.00	0.09	0.08	0.24	0.01	1.39
Gloucester	Rappahannock Concrete Saluda				0.27	0.27			0.54
Gloucester	Canon Environmental Technologies Incorporated				27.80	27.80			55.59
Gloucester	Middle Peninsula Landfill		109.27		17.73	17.08	4.69	15.25	368.33
Gloucester	C. W. Davis Asphalt Division				0.14	0.14			0.29
Gloucester	Hogg Funeral Home				0.01	0.01			0.04
Gloucester	Contract Crushing/Construction Inc		0.00		0.06	0.06		0.00	0.13
Gloucester	Branscome Incorporated - Gloucester				0.36				0.36
Gloucester	Mid Atlantic Materials Incorporated - Gloucester				2.28	0.41			2.69
Gloucester	Shadow Farms Animal Cremation Services Inc		0.00		0.00				0.00
King and Queen	Ball Lumber Company Incorporated		9.42	0.00	24.77	11.25	1.07	45.72	117.92
King and Queen	Bennett Mineral Company Inc		2.87	0.00	1.07	0.99	1.13	1.36	57.30
King and Queen	Essex Concrete Corporation - Aylett				6.28	6.28			12.56
King and Queen	BFI King and Queen Landfill		24.21		10.45	7.42	6.19	18.05	146.98
King and Queen	INGENCO - King and Queen		96.87		57.45	57.45	0.17	76.12	407.41
King and Queen	Helena Chemical Company - Portable 52353				0.12	0.11		0.00	0.22
King William	West Point Veneer LLC	0.00	5.28	0.00	10.13	10.13	0.27	36.24	71.76

County	Plant Name	Emissions (tons)							
		NH ₃	NO _x	Pb	PM10	PM 2.5	SO ₂	VOC	Plant Total
King William	Tribble-Perry Oil Co/PAPCO Oil Co.							3.85	3.85
King William	RockTenn CP LLC - West Point	64.45	1717.38	0.14	489.52	455.36	814.68	599.83	5524.43
King William	Old Dominion Grain		2.18	0.00	18.04	3.13	0.00	0.06	23.77
King William	Augusta Wood Products LC - Sawmill		1.28	0.00	11.62	11.62	0.25	14.51	48.55
King William	NPPC King William		45.16		38.25	38.25	0.23	1.02	138.97
King William	West Point Chips Incorporated				40.43	40.43			80.85
King William	Aggregate Industries MAR - Mattaponi Plant				0.12	0.12			0.24
King William	Powerhouse Equipment and Engineering Co Inc		0.00		0.00		0.00	0.00	0.00
King William	Cross Land Harbour LLC				0.43	0.43			0.86
King William	Powerhouse Equipment and Enginrng - Portable 52322		11.20		0.56		3.98		18.54
King William	Gillies Creek Recycling Center - Portable 52420		4.90		1.19		0.32	0.08	7.40
King William	Vincent Funeral Home - West Point		0.00		0.00		0.00	0.00	0.00
Mathews	Wrotten Oil Company							2.67	2.67
Middlesex	J T and C A Thrift Incorporated							2.01	2.01
Total Regional Admissions		64.49	2043.29	0.15	830.5	751.05	834.4	866.65	866.65

****Note:** Blank squares within the table indicate that there are no emissions to be measured.
NH₃ – Ammonia; **NO₂**- Nitrogen dioxide; **Pb** – Lead; **PM 10** –particulate matter 10 micrometers or less in diameter; **PM 2.5** – particulate matter 2.5 micrometers or less in diameter, generally described as fine particles; **SO₂**- Sulfur dioxide; **VOC**- Volatile organic compound

With the passing of the Clean Air Act in 1970 and then amendments in 1990, the US Congress required DEQ to enhance the vehicle emissions inspection program in order to keep improving air quality and to reduce emission further. In response Virginia now requires the inspection of vehicles operating in the counties of Arlington, Fairfax, Loudoun, Prince William, Stafford and the Cities of Alexandria, Fairfax, Falls Church, Manassas and Manassas Park. Vehicle emission contain pullulates that contribute to the formation of ozone, the main component of smog that builds up at ground level in hot sunny weather and may impact water quality in the Chesapeake Bay and its tributaries (ie. through atmospheric deposition).

In conjunction with emissions caused by humans there are natural, such as forest fires and controlled burns, may cause the air quality to deteriorate and become unsafe, especially for those who suffer medical conditions that make them sensitive to poor air quality. As a rural region of Virginia, the Middle Peninsula landscape is dominated by fields and forests. To properly manage these resources, property owners may carry out prescribed burning, a deliberate use of fire under specified and controlled conditions to achieve a resource management goal. Benefits including:

- site preparation for reforestation,
- hardwood control in pine stands,
- wildfire hazard reduction,
- improved wildlife habitat, and
- threatened and endangered species management.

According to the VDOF: *Products from the combustion of forest fuels are mainly carbon-containing compounds. The most important pollutants being particulate matter and carbon monoxide (CO).*

Two products of complete combustion are carbon dioxide (CO₂) and water, these make up over 90% of the total emissions. Under ideal conditions it takes 3.5 tons of air to completely burn 1 ton of fuel. The combustion of 1 ton

of fuel will produce the following:

Carbon dioxide (CO ₂)	2,000 to 3,500 lbs
Water Vapor	500 to 1,500 lbs
Particulate Matter	10 to 2000 lbs
Carbon Monoxide (CO)	20 to 500 lbs
Hydrocarbons	4 to 40 lbs
Nitrogen Oxides	1 to 9 lbs
Sulfur Oxide	Negligible amounts

To assist with the management of the smoke generated from prescribed burning, the VDOF has developed voluntary smoke management guidelines to lessen the public health and welfare impacts (www.dof.virginia.gov/resources/fire/prescribed-fire-smoke-mgmt.pdf). In addition to prescribed burns there are also unplanned forest fires that would impact the region's air quality. For instance, on August 4, 2011, a lightning strike caused a fire in the Great Dismal Swamp that kept smoldering for 111 days. This impacted air quality impacted Southern Virginia, Middle Peninsula Localities as well as northward across Virginia and as far as Annapolis, Maryland. Wind currents over the Chesapeake Bay provided a channel for the ash-heavy smoke to travel north and caused a CODE ORANGE (See Table 10 below) for most of coastal Virginia.

Each locality within the Middle Peninsula will have varying vulnerability to air quality impacts. Localize events (i.e. wildfires, emissions for business, etc.) as well as wind currents may influence air quality within a given area.

Air Quality Extent

To monitor and assess daily air quality, the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) has established the Air Quality Index (AQI). This scale determines how clean or polluted the air is and its impacts on human health. Based on a 0-500 scale, the higher the AQI value the greater the level of air pollutions and the greater the health concern. Table 10 identifies the AQI levels of health concern, the associated numerical value and the meaning:

Table 10: AQI Scale. *AQI levels and associated numerical values and meaning of the index (AirNow, 2015).*

Air Quality Index Levels of Health Concern	Numerical Value	Meaning
Good	0 to 50	Air Quality is considered satisfactory, and air pollution poses little or no risk
Moderate	51 to 100	Air quality is acceptable; however, for some pollutants there may be a moderate health concern for a very small number of people who are unusually sensitive to air pollution
Unhealthy for Sensitive Groups	101 to 150	Members of sensitive groups may experience health effects. The general public is not likely to be affected.
Unhealthy	151 to 200	Everyone may begin to experience health effects; members of sensitive groups may experience more serious health effects
Very Unhealthy	201 to 300	Health warning of emergency conditions. The entire population is more likely to be affected.
Hazardous	301 to 500	Health alert: everyone may experience more serious health effects

Based on this scale the EPA will calculate daily AQI number for each of the five major air pollutants regulated by the Clean Air Act, including ground ozone, particle pollution, carbon dioxide, sulfur dioxide, and nitrogen dioxide (Table 11).

Table 11: Description of regulated pollutants (AirNow, 2015)).	
Pollutant	Description
Ozone (O₃)	<p>Ozone is a form of oxygen with three atoms instead of the usual two atoms. It is a photochemical oxidant and, at ground level, is the main component of smog. Unlike other gaseous pollutants, ozone is not emitted directly into the atmosphere. Instead, it is created in the atmosphere by the action of sunlight on volatile organic compounds and nitrogen oxides.</p> <p>Higher levels of ozone usually occur on sunny days with light winds, primarily from March through October. An ozone exceedance day is counted if the measured eight-hour average ozone concentration exceeds the standards.</p>
Carbon Monoxide (CO)	<p>Carbon Monoxide (CO) is a colorless, odorless, very toxic gas produced by the incomplete combustion of carbon-containing fuels, most notably by gasoline powered engines, power plants, and wood fires. CO can cause harmful health effects by reducing oxygen delivery to the body's organs (like the heart and brain) and tissues. At extremely high levels, CO can cause death.</p>
Sulfur Dioxide (SO₂)	<p>Sulfur dioxide (SO₂) is one of a group of highly reactive gasses known as "oxides of sulfur." The largest sources of SO₂ emissions are from fossil fuel combustion at power plants (73%) and other industrial facilities (20%). Smaller sources of SO₂ emissions include industrial processes such as extracting metal from ore, and the burning of high sulfur containing fuels by locomotives, large ships, and non-road equipment. SO₂ is linked with a number of adverse effects on the respiratory system.</p>
Nitrogen Dioxide (NO₂)	<p>Nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) is one of a group of highly reactive gasses known as "oxides of nitrogen", or "nitrogen oxides (NO_x)". Other nitrogen oxides include nitrous acid and nitric acid. While EPA's National Ambient Air Quality Standard covers this entire group of NO_x, NO₂ is the component of greatest interest and the indicator for the larger group of nitrogen oxides. NO₂ forms quickly from emissions from cars, trucks and buses, power plants, and off-road equipment. In addition to contributing to the formation of ground-level ozone and fine particle pollution, NO₂ is linked with a number of adverse effects on the respiratory system.</p>
Particulate Matter (PM-2.5 PM-10)	<p>Particle pollution (also called particulate matter or PM) is the term for a mixture of solid particles and liquid droplets found in the air. Some particles, such as dust, dirt, soot, or smoke, are large or dark enough to be seen with the naked eye. Others are so small, they can only be detected using an electron microscope. Particle pollution includes <i>inhalable coarse particles</i>, with diameters larger than 2.5 micrometers and smaller than 10 micrometers and <i>fine particles</i>, with diameters that are 2.5 micrometers and smaller. How small is 2.5 micrometers? Think about a single hair from your head. The average human hair is about 70 micrometers in diameter -- making it 30 times larger than the largest fine particle. These particles come in many sizes and shapes and can be made up of hundreds of different chemicals. Some particles, known as <i>primary particles</i>, are emitted directly from a source, such as construction sites, unpaved roads, fields, smokestacks or fires. Others form in complicated reactions in the atmosphere of chemicals such as sulfur dioxides and nitrogen oxides that are emitted from power plants, industries and automobiles. These particles, known as <i>secondary particles</i>, make up most of the fine particle pollution in the country.</p> <p>Coarse particulates (PM-10) come from sources such as windblown dust from the desert or agricultural fields (sand storms) and dust kicked up on unpaved roads by vehicle traffic. PM-10 data is the near real-time measurement of particulate matter 10 microns or less in size from the surrounding air. This measurement is made at standard conditions, meaning it is corrected for local temperature and pressure.</p> <p>Fine particulates (PM-2.5) are generally emitted from activities such as industrial and residential combustion and from vehicle exhaust. Fine particles are also formed in the atmosphere when gases such as sulfur dioxide, nitrogen oxides, and volatile organic compounds, emitted by combustion activities, are transformed by chemical reactions in the air. Large-scale agricultural burning or sand storms can produce huge volumes of fine particulates. PM-2.5 data is the near real-time measurement of particulate matter 2.5 microns or less in size from the surrounding air. This measurement is made at local conditions, and is not corrected for temperature or pressure.</p>

AirNow.com provides a daily air quality forecast for select regions of Virginia including Hampton Roads, Northern Virginia, Richmond, Roanoke, Shenandoah National Park and Winchester. This site also provides calendars of air quality nationally as well as at the state level (Figure 13 & 14).

Figure 13: Calendar of air quality throughout across the nation (AirNow, 2015).

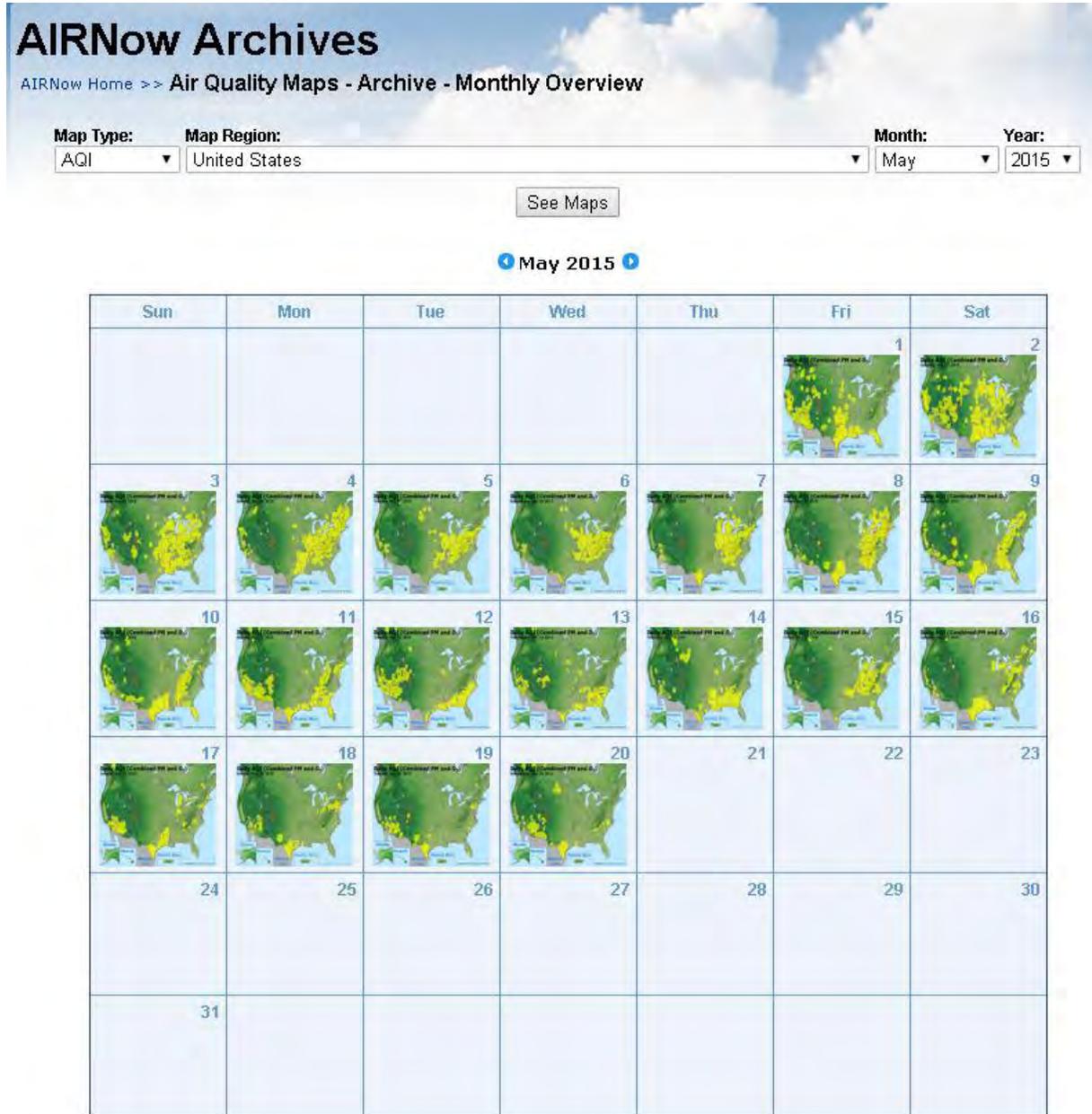
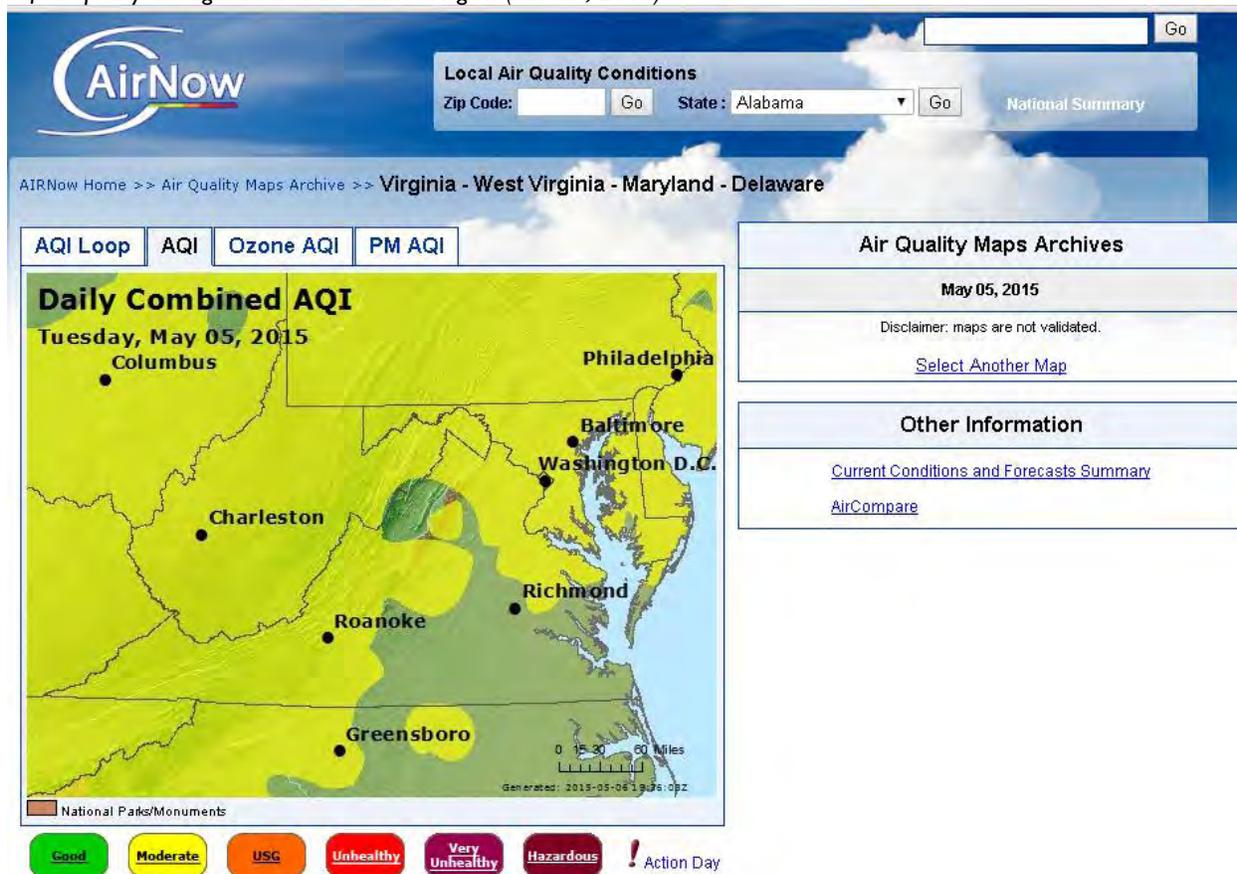


Figure 14: Regional map of Virginia, West Virginia, Maryland, and Delaware on May 5, 2015. This provides an example of air quality throughout the Mid Atlantic Region (AirNow, 2015).



Air Quality Vulnerability

Poor air quality can impact a variety of factors including human health, the local economy as well as the environment.

Human health impacts of air pollution can range from minor breathing problems to premature death. The more common effects include changes in breathing and lung function, lung inflammation, and irritation and aggravation of existing heart and lung conditions (e.g., asthma, emphysema and heart disease). For instance, PM_{2.5} and ground-level O₃ can affect human respiratory and cardiovascular systems. PM_{2.5} and ground-level O₃ has also been associated with eye, nose and throat irritation, shortness of breath, exacerbation of respiratory conditions, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and asthma, exacerbation of allergies, increased risk of cardiovascular diseases and premature death. Another example is as CO enters the lungs it forms a compound known as carboxyhemoglobin that inhibits the blood capacity to carry oxygen to organs and tissues. Therefore, heart disease patients may be sensitive to CO pollution. Additionally infants, elderly and individuals with respiratory diseases are also sensitive to air pollution. Such negative health effects increase with concentrations of pollutants in the air increases.

Economic impacts of air pollution can result from the health effects air pollution. Air pollution may not only reduce work attendance and overall participation in the labor force, it can increase health care costs, missed days of work, and reduced work productivity. Ultimately this would impact a local and regional economy and profit. While the impacts to human health can be detrimental to the economy, increased O₃ levels may reduce the growth of crops, plants and trees, leading to economic losses in agriculture and

forestry. Finally, smog can lower tourism since it reduces and impair visibility of surroundings and scenic views.

Environmental impacts of air pollution consist of:

- Ground-level O₃ can significantly impact vegetation and reduce the productivity of some crops. It can also injure flowers and shrubs and may contribute to forest decline. Ecosystem changes can also occur, as plant species that are more resistant to O₃ can become more dominant than those that are less resistant.
- Plant response to PM is largely due to the resultant changes in soil chemistry rather than direct deposition on the plant. Various PM constituents taken up by the plant from the soil can reduce plant growth and productivity. PM can also cause physical damage to plant surfaces via abrasion.
- NO_x and SO₂ can become acidic gases or particulates, and cause or accelerate the corrosion and soiling of materials. Together with NH₃, they are also the main precursors of acid rain. Acid rain affects soils and water bodies, and stresses both vegetation and animals.

4.2.4. Shrink-swell Soils

Various areas of the Middle Peninsula have expandable soils that may have the potential to shrink and /or swell with changes in moisture content. The sensitivity of a soil to shrink or swell is related to the amount of clay minerals in the soil. These soils are very affected by changes in moisture content. They have a high tendency to expand (swell) when receiving a lot of moisture and contract (shrink) during times of little or no precipitation. Soils that have a high shrink-swell rating may cause damage to buildings, roads, or other structures if not compensated for by engineering. Special design is often needed for construction in such soils.

House Joint Resolution No. 243 (passed by the Virginia House of Delegates and Senate in March 1996) requires mandatory education for Virginia building code officials on the issue of expansive soils. Where expansive or other problem soils are identified, various methods for responding to them are permitted, including removal and replacement of soils, stabilization by dewatering or other means, or the construction of special footings, foundations, or slabs on how to deal with such soil conditions. This mandatory education is intended to provide guidance on the type of construction techniques to be employed where problem soils are present. While not preventing a site from being used, a high shrink-swell capability places a potential restriction on the size and weight of the building that may be built upon it.

Shrink-swell soils are not specifically addressed in the Essex County Comprehensive Plan (1998 & 2015), however soils associations are generally described. The Rappahannock-Molena-Pamunkey soil association is located on tidal marshes along the Rappahannock River and along floodplain of major creeks that feed into the River. The soil association is predominately Rappahannock soils, which are not suitable for any type of development because of flooding, high water table, and high organic content. These soils are very poorly drained with a surface layer of loam and subsurface of loam, fine sandy loam, and clay loam. About half of the land within this soil association is farmed; the rest is tidal and freshwater marshes. Some areas are used for waterfront development, but seasonal wetness, flooding, and unsuitability for septic systems limits the uses of this land. The suitability of the soil for septic systems and for agriculture is a prime consideration in making general land use policy decisions in Essex County.

Some of the area of the Town of Tappahannock is also on soils of the Rappahannock-Molena-Pamunkey soil association, primarily along Hoskin's Creek and Tickner's Creek (Town of Tappahannock Comprehensive Plan, 2014). These areas are not suitable for development, therefore eliminating potential problems associated with structures built on shrink-swell soils.

Shrink-swell soils are not specifically addressed in the Gloucester County Comprehensive Plan (amended 2001). However, in an analysis of soil suitability for development, clayey soils account for roughly 6,600 acres, or approximately 5% of the area of the county. Because these conditions are often coincident with shrink-swell soils, this is an approximate estimation of shrink-swell soil conditions within the county. These clayey soils are also listed as being unsuited for housing septic systems. The Gloucester County Land Use Plan generally coordinates the Bayside Conservation District and Resource Conservation District with large areas of soils unsuitable for septic tank use or otherwise unsuitable for high density or commercial development due to physical constraints. Shrink-swell soils are also not addressed in the King and Queen County Comprehensive Plan (2006).

Only one area in King William County (Bohicket) is rated high for shrink-swell soils (King William Comprehensive Plan, 2003). According to the Comprehensive Plan, the County uses the Soil Survey results in formulating future land use policies. Goals and implementation strategies within the County's Comprehensive Plan include increasing public awareness of potential problems resulting from building on soils with moderate to high shrink-swell characteristics, discouraging development in areas that are unsuited for development because of soil conditions, continue policies that require soil feasibility studies prior to approval of residential rezonings, include in the plan review process a requirement for evaluating shrink-swell soil qualities, and provide builders and developers with advice and information on shrink-swell qualities of soils and the need to evaluate these conditions before committing to construction. Shrink-Swell soils are not addressed in the Town of West Point's Comprehensive Plan (2000).

High shrink-swell soils are present in the northeastern tip of Mathews County and along the waterfront of the rivers and streams. Most of the wetlands in the County and most of the areas within the Chesapeake Bay Resource Protection Areas (protected from development by the Chesapeake Bay Preservation Act, adopted by the Virginia General Assembly in 1988) are shrink-swell soils. These soils account for just a little more than 7,000 acres of Mathews County.

According to the Middlesex County Comprehensive Plan (2009), shrink-swell soils within Middlesex County limit community development in the Ackwater, Craven, and Slagle soil series. Together, the lands comprised of these soils make up approximately 12,350 acres, or roughly 15% of the area of the county. Community development in these areas is restricted because the limitations caused by these soils cannot normally be overcome without exceptional, complex, or costly measures.

Only low to moderate shrink-swell soil potential exists in the Town of Urbanna, leaving the soils of the Town generally moderately suited for development (Town of Urbanna Comprehensive Plan, 2012). The Town's Comprehensive Plan states that individual sites should be examined in detail prior to any development.

Therefore it's important to note that there are varying degrees of vulnerability amongst Middle Peninsula localities.

Shrink-swell Soil Vulnerability

As shrink-swell soil expands and shrinks this may cause pressure and stress on house foundations. If foundations are not properly designed to handle this, then the foundation may crack, ultimately causing harm to residents.

Shrink-swell Soil Extent (Impact)

A soil survey is a scientific inventory of soils. This inventory can include maps that show soil's location and type, detailed descriptions of each soil and laboratory data on many physical and chemical properties of the soil. The data can be used to make decisions on how to use the land.

These surveys show the extent and hazards of flood-prone areas, give the amount of sand, silt and clay in soil, and rate the shrinking and swelling potential of soils high in clay content. They also detail erodibility, slope, permeability, wetness, depth to bedrock and water tables to determine, for example, whether a septic tank absorption field can be safely installed.

The amount of clay present in the soil determines its shrink-swell potential. Soils containing 60% or more of clay are considered to have a high shrink-swell potential.

4.2.5. Landslides

Similar to karst, Figure 15 shows that most landslide hazards are located in western and southwestern Virginia. The term “landslide” is used to describe the downward and outward movement of slope-forming materials reacting under the force of gravity. The term covers a broad category of events, including mudflows, mudslides, debris flows, rock falls, rock slides, debris avalanches, debris slides, and earth flows. These terms vary by the amount of water in the materials that are moving.

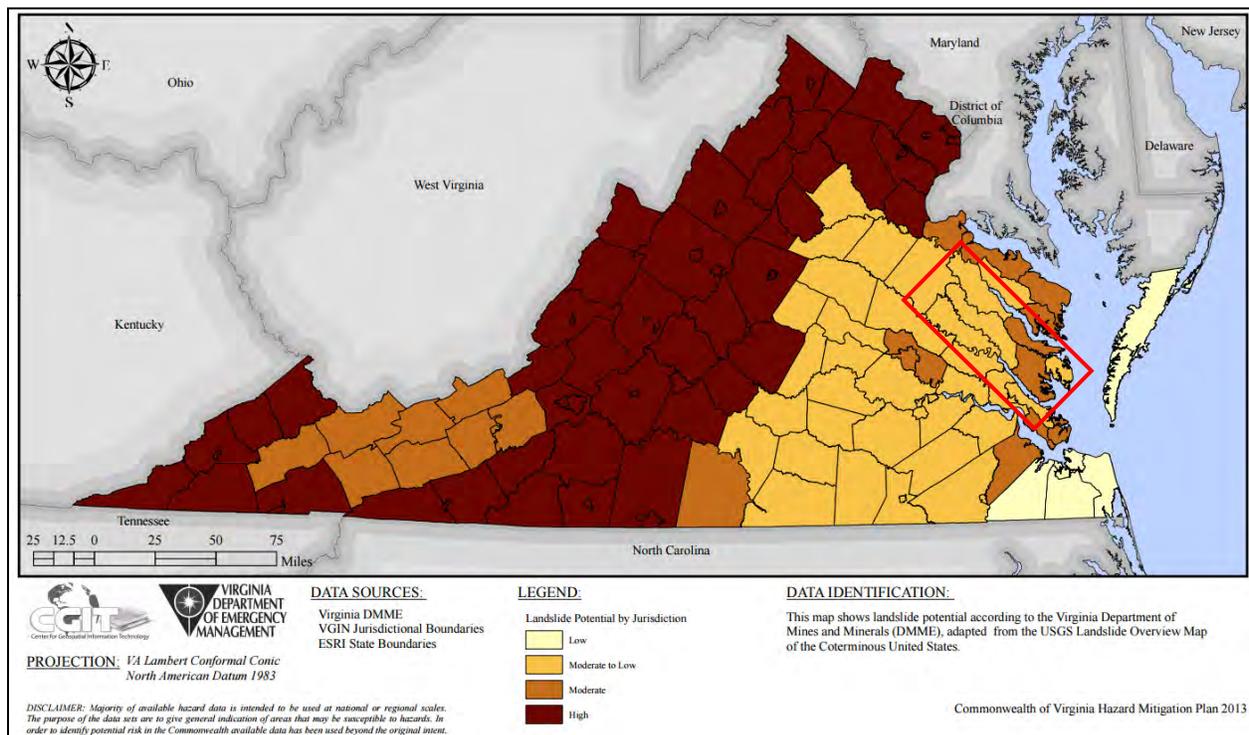


Figure 15: Landslide Potential as assessed by VDEM. Middle Peninsula localities have a potential of landslides ranging from Moderate or Low to Moderate. The area encompassing the Middle Peninsula is highlighted on the map with a red square. (Source: Commonwealth of Virginia Hazard Mitigation Plan, 2013)

Landslide Vulnerability

Several natural and human factors may contribute to or influence landslides. How these factors interrelate is important in understanding the hazard. The three principal natural factors are topography, geology, and precipitation. The principle human activities are cut-and-fill construction for highways, construction of buildings and railroads, and mining operations. Landslides can cause serious damage to highways, buildings, homes, and other structures that support a wide range of economies and activities. Landslides commonly

coincide with other natural disasters. Expansion of urban development contributes to greater risk of damage by landslides.

As depicted in Figure 15, there are varying degrees of vulnerability throughout the region. While Essex, King William, King & Queen and Mathews County have a moderate to low potential of landslides, Gloucester and Middlesex County have a higher potential for landslides. Additionally, Figure 16 identified that that a small portion of King William County is highly susceptibility to landslides.

Landslide Impact (Extent)

The USGS divides landslide risk into six categories. These six categories were grouped into three, broader categories to be used for the risk analysis and ranking; geographic extent is based off of these groupings. The categories include:

High Risk

1. High susceptibility to landsliding and moderate incidence.
2. High susceptibility to landsliding and low incidence.
3. High landslide incidence (more than 15% of the area is involved in landsliding).

Moderate Risk

4. Moderate susceptibility to landsliding and low incidence.
5. Moderate landslide incidence (1.5 - 15% of the area is involved in landsliding).

Low Risk

6. Low landslide incidence (less than 1.5 % of the area is involved in landsliding).

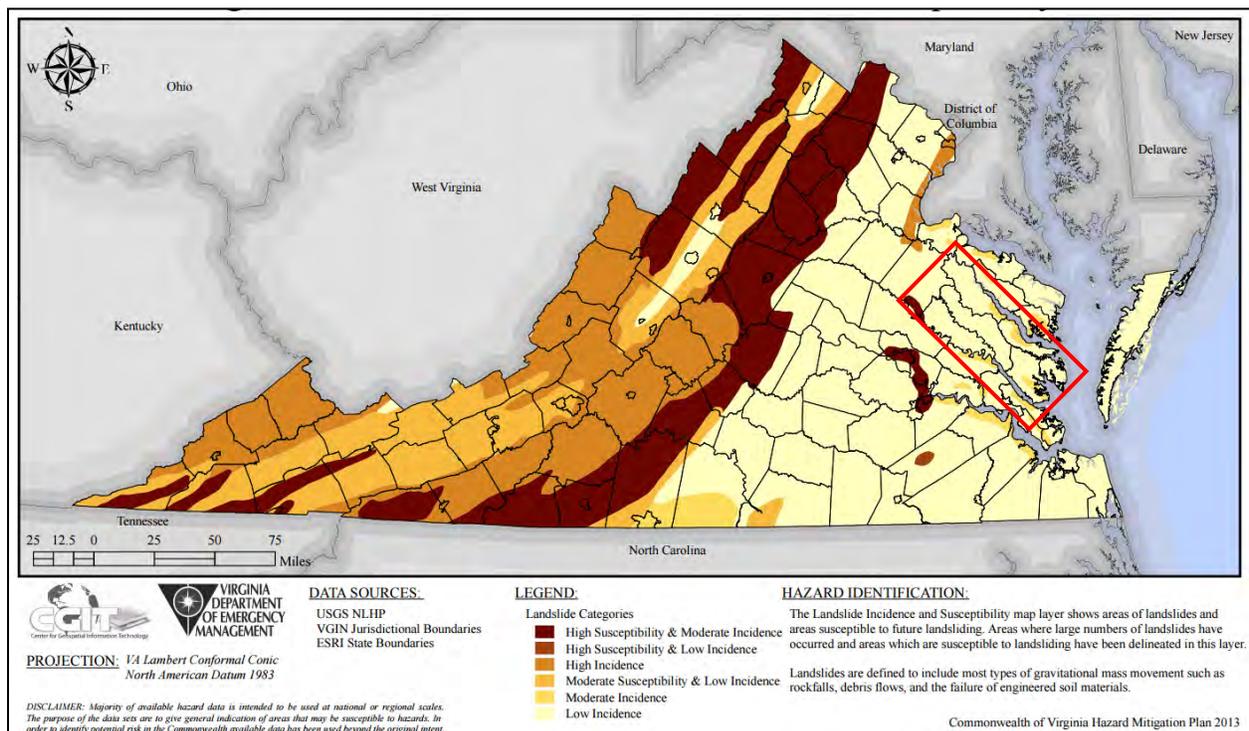


Figure 16: Landslide Incidence and Susceptibility. The area encompassing the Middle Peninsula is highlighted on the map with a red square. (Source: Commonwealth of Virginia Hazard Mitigation Plan, 2013)

4.2.5. Land Subsidence due to Karst

According to the United States Geological Survey, land subsidence is the gradual settling or sudden sinking of the Earth's surfaces. Principal causes of land subsidence may include aquifer system compaction, drainage of organic soils, underground mining, hydro-compaction, natural compaction, sinkholes and thawing permafrost. In particular, human activity such as withdrawing water, oil, or gas from underground reservoirs may cause land subsidence.

Land subsidence often occurs in regions with mildly acidic groundwater and where the geology is dominated by limestone, dolostone, marble or gypsum. In western parts of the Commonwealth the geology consists of karst which is limestone and similar soluble rocks. Therefore as karst is easily dissolved by acidic groundwater sinkholes are created. Sinkholes are classified as natural depressions of the land surface. Areas with large amounts of karst are characterized by the presence of sinkholes, sinking streams, springs, caves and solution valleys. As karst is not part of the Middle Peninsula geology, land subsidence due to karst does not occur within the region (Figure 17).

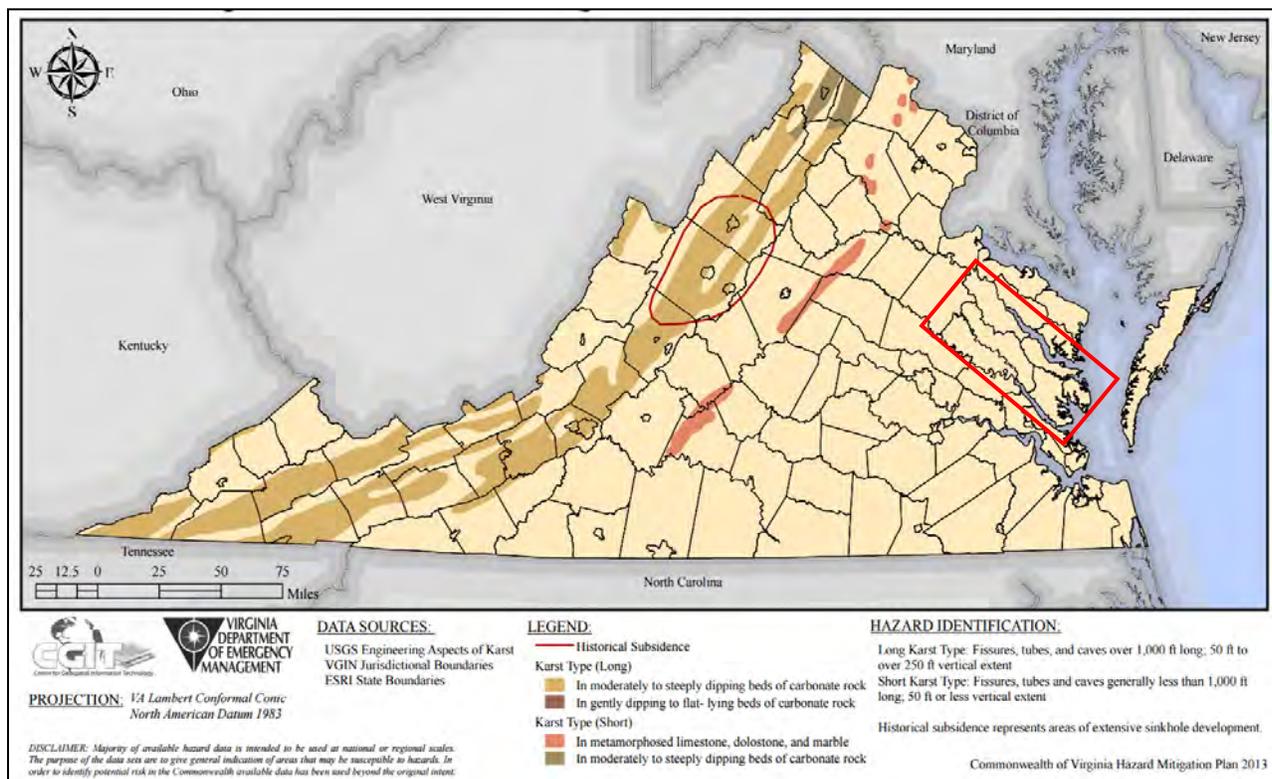


Figure 17: Karst regions and Historical Subsidence are primarily limited to the mountainous regions of the state. The area encompassing the Middle Peninsula is highlighted on the map with a red square. (Source: Commonwealth of Virginia Hazard Mitigation Plan, 2013)

While the Middle Peninsula may not be impacted by land subsidence due to karst it's important to note that the region is impacted by land subsidence due to water withdraws as well as rebounding land from the last glacial period. Land subsidence rates on the order of 0.05-0.06 in/yr (1.2-1.4 mm/yr) are attributed to the postglacial forebulge collapse within the Bay region (Douglas 1991). It can take many thousands of years for impacted regions to reach isostatic equilibrium.

Land Subsidence due to Karst Extent

The USGS recognizes four major impacts caused by land subsidence: (1) Changes in elevation and slope of streams, canals, and drains; (2) Damage to bridges, roads, railroads, storm drains, sanitary sewers, canals and levees; (3) Damage to private and public buildings; and (4) Failure of well casings from forces generated by compaction of fine-grained materials in aquifer systems.

Land Subsidence due to Karst Extent

Since the Middle Peninsula region does not have karst the region is not susceptible to land subsidence due to karst.

4.2.7. Tsunami

A tsunami is a wave, or series of waves, generated in a body of water by a disturbance that vertically displaces (moves up or down) the water column. Earthquakes, landslides, explosions, volcanic eruptions, and meteorites can generate tsunamis (Musick, 2005). Earthquakes can cause tsunamis when large areas of the sea floor move and vertically displace the overlying water. If the sea floor movement is horizontal, a tsunami is not generated. After a large-scale vertical sea-floor movement, waves are formed when the displaced water mass travels across the surface of the ocean.

Tsunami Vulnerability

Tsunamis along the east coast of the United States are extremely unlikely. However, geologists Steven N. Ward and Simon Day (2001) describe a landslide that could cause a collapse of a massive piece of the west flank of Cumbre Vieja Volcano on La Palma Island in the Canary Islands (off the western coast of Africa) into the Atlantic Ocean. This could generate tsunami waves that arrive on the coasts of the Americas as much as 70 ft in height. The scientists used modeling techniques to produce their conclusion of this “worst case scenario”. The Cumbre Vieja Volcano last erupted in 1949 and shows no signs of activity.

Tsunamis have great erosion potential, stripping beaches of sand that may have taken years to accumulate and undermining trees and other coastal vegetation. Tsunamis are capable of inundating, or flooding, hundreds of miles inland past the typical high-water level, the fast-moving water associated with the inundating tsunami can crush homes and other coastal structures.

There are varying degrees of vulnerability amongst Middle Peninsula localities. While the majority of the region would be impacted, the lowest lying localities, including Gloucester and Mathews County would get the brunt of the water damage. As one moves up the region to King William, King & Queen and Essex Counties, the impacts would be less; however ultimately this would be depended on the direction and strength of the tsunami.

Tsunami Extent (Impact)

Tsunamis can be measured in a variety of manner including tide gauges, satellites, and the DART System. Through tide gauges the height of the sea-surface is measured. While they may not be able to predict a tsunami the tide gauges can measure the tsunami. Satellite altimeters measure the height of the ocean surface directly by the use of electro-magnetic pulses. These are sent down to the ocean surface from the satellite and the height of the ocean surface can be determined by knowing the speed of the pulse, the location of the satellite and measuring the time that the pulse takes to return to the satellite. One problem with this kind of satellite data is that it can be very sparse - some satellites only pass over a particular location about once a month. The Deep-ocean Assessment and Reporting of Tsunamis (DART system) created by the National Ocean and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) was developed in 1995. This system is currently deployed in the Pacific Ocean to measure the pressure of the pressure of the water column which relates to the height of the sea surface.

4.2.8. Volcanoes

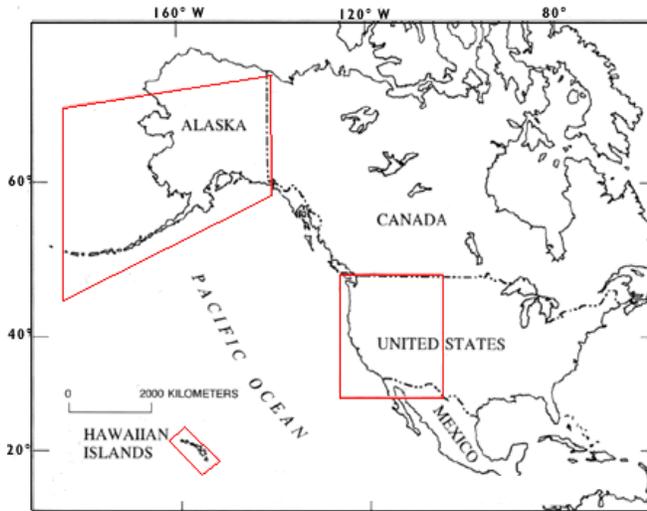


Figure 18: Map of United States showing areas where active volcanoes are located (USGS, 1997).

The United States ranks third, behind Indonesia and Japan, in the number of historically active volcanoes. In addition, about 10 percent of the more than 1,500 volcanoes that have erupted in the past 10,000 years are located in the United States (Brantley, 1997). Most of these volcanoes are found in the Aleutian Islands, the Alaska Peninsula, the Hawaiian Islands, and the Cascade Range of the Pacific Northwest; the remainders are widely distributed in the western part of the Nation (Figure 18).

Volcano Vulnerability

Volcanoes are considered hazardous because of the dangers associated with pyroclastic flows emitted from them during an eruption (USGS, 1999).

Pyroclastic flows are high-density mixtures of hot, dry rock fragments and hot gases that move away from the vent that erupted them at high speeds.

They may result from the explosive eruption of

molten or solid rock fragments, or both. They may also result from the non-explosive eruption of lava when parts of dome or a thick lava flow collapses down a steep slope. A pyroclastic flow will destroy nearly everything in its path. With rock fragments ranging in size from ash to boulders traveling across the ground at speeds typically greater than 80 km per hour, pyroclastic flows knock down, shatter, bury or carry away nearly all objects and structures in their way. The extreme temperatures of rocks and gas inside pyroclastic flows, generally between 200°C and 700°C, can cause combustible material to burn, especially petroleum products, wood, vegetation, and houses.

Volcano Extent (Impact)

The Eastern United States does not have any active volcanoes; therefore, pyroclastic flows are not considered a critical hazard to the Middle Peninsula.

4.3. Hazards considered “Moderately-Critical” Hazards to the Middle Peninsula

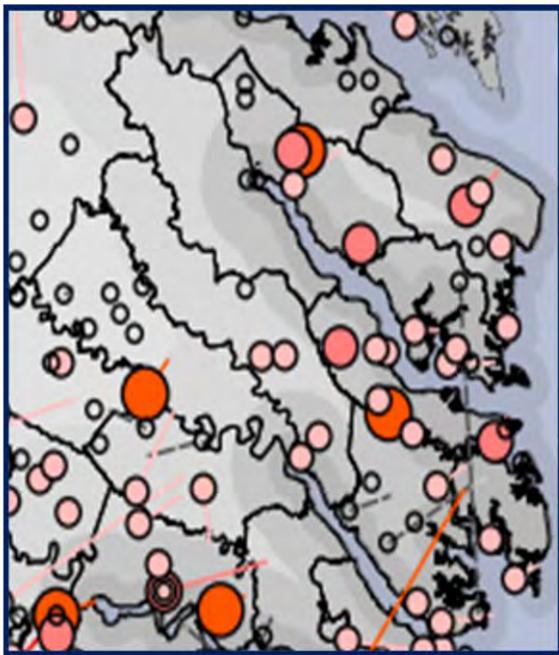
The following sections describe hazards that have historically occurred in the Middle Peninsula, yet ranked lower than the Critical Hazards in terms of risk during hazard prioritization. These hazards were deemed “Moderately-Critical Hazards” to the Middle Peninsula region by the LPT.

4.3.1 Tornadoes

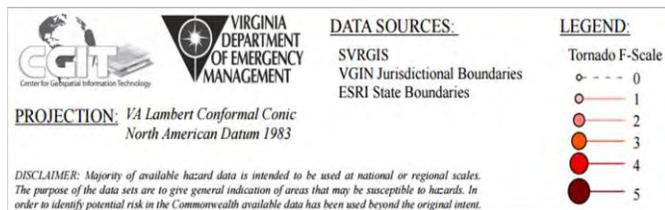
The National Weather Service (NWS) defines a tornado as a violently rotating column of air in contact with the ground and extending from the base of a thunderstorm. A condensation funnel does not need to reach to the ground for a tornado to be present; however a debris cloud beneath a thunderstorm is all that is needed to confirm the presence of a tornado, even without a condensation funnel. Tornadoes are distinguishable from waterspouts, which are small, relatively weak rotating columns of air over water beneath a cumulonimbus or towering cumulus cloud. Waterspouts are most common over tropical or subtropical waters. The exact definition of waterspout is debatable. In most cases the term is reserved for small vortices over water that are not associated with storm-scale rotation (i.e., they are the water-based equivalent of landspouts). Yet there is sufficient justification for calling virtually any rotating column of air a waterspout if it is in contact with a water surface.

Tornadoes often appear as a funnel shaped cloud or a spiraling column of debris extending from storm clouds to the ground. They are created during severe weather events like thunderstorms and hurricanes when cold air overrides a layer of warm air, causing the warm air to rise rapidly. Tornadoes may be only several yards across, or in rare cases, over a mile wide. Winds within a tornado can reach speeds over 250 mph, but most tornado winds are 100 mph or less. Weak tornadoes (categorized as F0 and F1 on the Fujita scale, Table 12 & 13) are most common on the Middle Peninsula and often last only a minute before dissipating. From 1950 through the year 2014, 673 tornadoes were documented in Virginia (Tornado History Project, 2015). Within Middle Peninsula localities 38 tornadoes that touched down between 1950 to 2014 (See Appendix H). While the most tornadoes touched down in the Middle Peninsula during April, July is considered the most active month for tornadoes in Virginia. The hot, humid days common to July are often accompanied by a late afternoon or evening thunderstorm.

Figure 19: Historic Tornado Touchdowns and Tracks 1950-2011.



HAZARD IDENTIFICATION: Historic tornado touchdowns and tracks are symbolized for visual effect and are not drawn to scale. Actual tornado swath widths vary considerably, although more intense tornadoes are generally wider.



The hot temperatures and humidity of the late afternoon fuel the thunderstorm's growth. If certain conditions are right, a tornado may develop. Hurricane-induced tornadic activity can also occur close to the coastline as a hurricane makes landfall (Watson, 2002). Virginia's tidewater counties see a fair number of tornadoes for two reasons, both of which are related to the region's proximity to Chesapeake Bay and the coast. For instance, as waterspouts are common they will occasionally come onshore and do some damage. Once the waterspout comes onshore, it is considered a tornado and is generally classified as a F0. The second instance this area sees an increase in tornadoes is that often during the warm months there is a bay breeze or sea breeze front (bay or sea cooled air on one side of the front and land heated air on the other). When a large rotating thunderstorm moves over a boundary/front such as this, there is an increased chance that conditions will be right for the development of a tornado (Watson, 2002).

Between 1950 and 2014, twelve tornadoes were reported in Gloucester County, seven in Middlesex, seven in Mathews, six in King and Queen County, two in Essex County, and seven in King William County (NCDC Storm Event Database, 2015). The Virginia State Hazard Plan illustration above shows historic tornado touchdowns within the Middle Peninsula (Figure 19). While the historic data appears to show that the Middle Peninsula has a low annual probability

of being struck by a tornado, it is important to note that because tornadoes can result from severe thunderstorms and hurricanes, the susceptibility of this region to these storms carries the threat of tornadoes along with it. However it's important to mention that the vulnerability will vary from locality to locality. This is clear when looking at Figure 19. Those localities within the closest proximity to the water seem to be more vulnerable where as the upper localities (i.e. King William, King & Queen and Essex) are less vulnerable.

On April 16, 2011, three separate tornadoes touched down in the Middle Peninsula. The first tornado came from the southwest. The tornado took a 46 mile path that hit Surry, James City, York, Gloucester and Mathews County. This tornado registered as a F3 tornado on the Fujita Scale which means that winds were 158-206 miles per hour (mph) that can severely damage roofs and wall and can throw cars. In Gloucester County alone this tornado tore the roof off Page Middle School and crumpled fences and buses on the property (Figure 20). Overall this tornado caused approximately \$8,020,000 in damages, caused 2 fatalities and 60 injuries. The second and third tornadoes touched down in Middlesex County. The second tornado registered as a F1 tornado on the Fujita Scale. This path was 1.06 miles and caused approximately \$100,000 in damages. The third tornado registered as a F2 tornado on the Fujita Scale. This path was 2.8 miles and caused approximately \$6,000,000 in damages.



Figure 20: Photo of the damage at Page Middle School in Gloucester County (*Gloucester-Mathews Gazette Journal, 2011*).

Tornado Vulnerability

Weak tornadoes may break branches or damage signs. Damage to buildings (ie. mobile homes or weak structures) primarily affects roofs and windows, and may include loss of the entire roof or just part of the roof covering and sheathing. Windows are usually broken from windborne debris.

In a strong tornado, some buildings may be destroyed but most suffer damage like loss of exterior walls or roof or both; interior walls usually survive.

Violent tornadoes cause severe to incredible damage, including heavy cars lifted off the ground and thrown and strong frame houses leveled off foundations and swept away; trees are uprooted, debarked and splintered.

Weak tornadoes make up 74% of all tornadoes, while 67% of all tornado deaths come from violent tornadoes.

Tornado Extent (Impact)

In Virginia, tornadoes primarily occur from April through September, although tornadoes have been observed in every month. Low-intensity tornadoes occur most frequently; tornadoes rated F2 or higher are very rare in Virginia, although F2, F3, and a few F4 storms have been observed. In comparison to other states, Virginia ranks 28th in terms of the number of tornado touchdowns reported between 1950 and 2006; Midwestern and Southern states ranked significantly higher.

F #	Est. Wind (mph)	Typical Damage
F0	< 73	Light: chimneys damaged, shallow-rooted trees pushed over
F1	73-112	Moderate: mobile homes pushed off foundations, cars blown
F2	113-157	Considerable: mobile homes demolished, trees uprooted, roofs torn off frame houses
F3	158-206	Severe: roof and walls torn down, trains overturned, cars thrown
F4	207-260	Devastating: well-constructed walls leveled, large objects thrown
F5	261-318	Incredible: homes lifted and carried, cars thrown 300 ft, trees debarked

Fujita Scale			Derived EF Scale		Operational EF Scale	
F #	Fastest ¼ mile (mph)	3 Second Gust (mph)	EF #	3 Second Gust (mph)	EF #	3 Second Gust (mph)
0	40-72	45-78	0	65-85	0	65-85
1	73-112	79-117	1	86-109	1	86-110
2	113-157	118-161	2	110-137	2	111-135
3	158-207	162-209	3	138-167	3	136-165
4	208-260	210-261	4	168-199	4	166-200
5	261-318	262-317	5	200-234	5	Over 200

4.3.2. Snow Storm

The winter months can bring a wide variety of hazards to the Middle Peninsula, including blizzards, snowstorms, ice, sleet, freezing rain, and extremely cold temperatures. All of these weather events can be experienced throughout the state, depending on the depth of cold air that is in place over the region when the storm event comes. The Middle Peninsula’s biggest winter weather threats come from Northeasters or Nor’easters. These large storms form along the southern Atlantic coast and move northeast into Virginia along the Mid-Atlantic coast. These events are explained in detail in the following section describing Critical Hazards to the Middle Peninsula, under the sub-heading “Winter Ice Storms”. Winter storm events can bring strong winds and anything from rain to ice to snow to even blizzard conditions over a very large area. This combination of heavy frozen precipitation and winds can be quite destructive and lead to widespread utility failures and high cleanup costs. Nor’easters may occur from November through April, but are usually at their worst in January, February, and March.

Snow Storm Vulnerability

The impacts of winter storms are minimal in terms of property damage and long-term effects. The most notable impact from winter storms is the damage to power distribution networks and utilities. Severe winter storms with significant snow accumulation have the potential to inhibit normal functions of the Middle Peninsula. Governmental costs for this type of event are a result of the needed personnel and equipment for clearing streets. Private sector losses are attributed to lost work when employees are unable to travel. Homes and businesses suffer damage when electric service is interrupted for long periods. Health threats can become severe when frozen precipitation makes roadways and walkways very slippery and due to prolonged power outages and if fuel supplies are jeopardized. Occasionally, buildings may be damaged when snow loads exceed the design capacity of their roofs or when trees fall due to excessive ice accumulation on branches. The primary impact of excessive cold is increased potential for frostbite, and potentially death as a result of over-exposure to extreme cold. Some secondary hazards extreme/excessive cold present is a danger to livestock and pets, and frozen water pipes in homes and businesses.

Snowstorms do not occur every year in the Middle Peninsula. The West Virginia University Extension Service developed estimates the likelihood for snowfall frequency and accumulation for 152 monitoring stations across the Commonwealth based on historic snowfall accumulation and frequency data (Rayburn and Lozier 2001, these data are available on-line at: <http://www.wvu.edu/~agexten/forglvst/VAsnow/index.htm>). Three of these stations are located on the Middle Peninsula: Urbanna in Middlesex County, Walkerton in King and Queen County, and West Point in King William County. While the other counties of the Middle Peninsula were not included in the West Virginia University Extension Office data, these stations may be considered representative to predict annual snow cover likelihood for the rest of the Middle Peninsula.

At the Urbanna Station in Middlesex County, snow cover data was collected for 24 years between 1949 and 1973. Based on snowfall frequency and accumulation during this period, a general risk of snow cover and snow depth in a given year was calculated. Rayburn and Lozier determined that there is a 50% risk of having between 1 and 8 inches of snow on the ground for 8 days or more. This means that, in one (1) year out of two (2), Urbanna will probably have snow of up to 8 inches on the ground for 8 days. In one (1) year out of four (4), Urbanna may have snow cover up to 8 inches deep for 12 days (in other words, there is a 25% chance of having snow for 12 days). In one year out of ten, Urbanna may have up to 8 inches of snow for 17 days (there is a 10% chance of having snow for 17 days). For deeper accumulations (greater than 8 inches), there is a 10% risk of having snow cover for 2 days or more. This means that, in 1 year out of 10, this location probably will have snow cover of at least 8 inches for 2 days.

At the Walkerton Station in King and Queen County, snow cover data was collected for 66 years between 1931 and 1997. Based on snowfall frequency and accumulation during this period, a general risk of snow cover and snow depth in a given year was calculated. Rayburn and Lozier determined that there is a 50% risk of having between 1 and 8 inches of snow on the ground for 6 days or more. This means that, in one year out of two, Walkerton will probably have snow of up to 8 inches on the ground for 6 days. In one year out of 4, Walkerton may have snow cover up to 8 inches deep for 13 days (in other words, there is a 25% chance of having snow for 13 days). In one year out of ten, Walkerton may have up to 8 inches of snow for 22 days (there is a 10% chance of having snow for 22 days). For deeper accumulations (greater than 8 inches), the risk is the same as reported for Urbanna and there is a 10% risk of having snow cover for 2 days or more. This means that, in 1 year out of 10, this location probably will have snow cover of at least 8 inches for 2 days. The average annual snowfall for 2014 at the Walkerton Station was 10.0 inches.

At the West Point station in King William County, snow cover data was collected for 44 years between 1953 and 1997. Based on snowfall frequency and accumulation during this period, a general risk of snow cover and snow depth in a given year was calculated. Rayburn and Lozier determined that there is a 50%

risk of having between 1 and 8 inches of snow on the ground for 8 days or more. This means that, in one year out of two, West Point will probably have snow of up to 8 inches on the ground for 8 days. In one year out of 4, West Point may have snow cover up to 8 inches deep for 15 days (in other words, there is a 25% chance of having snow for 15 days). In one year out of ten, West Point may have up to 8 inches of snow for 19 days (there is a 10% chance of having snow for 19 days). For deeper accumulations (greater than 8 inches), the risk is the same as reported for both Urbanna and Walkerton. There is a 10% risk of having snow cover for 2 days or more. This means that, in 1 year out of 10, this location probably will have snow cover of at least 8 inches for 2 days. The average annual snowfall for 2014 at the West Point Station was 10.1 inches.

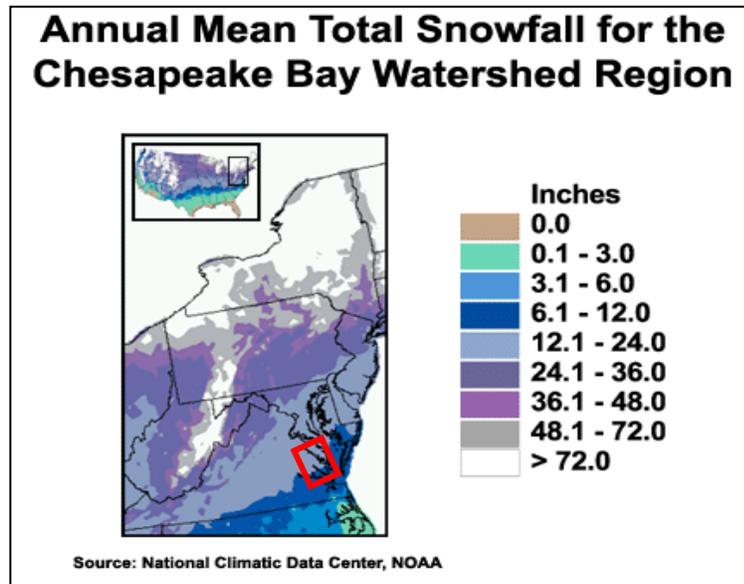


Figure 21: Map of annual mean total snowfall for the Chesapeake Bay Watershed region (StormCenter Communications, 2003). The area encompassing the Middle Peninsula is highlighted on the map with a red square.

Compared to western, northern, and mountainous regions of the state, the risk of high snow accumulations in the Middle Peninsula is low and will vary amongst localities (Figure 21). According to the National Climatic Data Center, mean annual snowfall in the Middle Peninsula ranges from between 6 and 12 inches at the lower reaches of the region (primarily in Gloucester and Mathews Counties) to as much as 12 to 24 inches in the upper reaches of the region (primarily in Essex, King and Queen, King William, and Middlesex Counties). The proximity of adjacent water bodies bordering the region (Chesapeake Bay and its tributaries) to the Atlantic Ocean allows the Bay to retain heat and buffer to the region from intense snow. The amount of snow that falls across the watershed varies both from year to year and from location to location. Generally, areas to the north, such as in Pennsylvania and New York, see more snow in an average year than locations in the southern part of the watershed. For areas to the south, such as Norfolk, winters typically pass without a measurable amount of snowfall.

Snow without ice has adverse impacts for the road transportation network, which therefore limits the ability of residents to have access to essential and for some, life-critical emergency medical care.

The ability of the local jurisdictions to provide critical public safety services (ie. fire, emergency medical and law enforcement) could be a focus of any mitigation strategies proposed in the update during the emergency response phase when severe snow events hit the Middle Peninsula.

In December of 2009, a major snowstorm slammed the East Coast and snarled the busy holiday travel season as airports shut down runways, rail service slowed and bus routes were suspended on the last weekend before Christmas. Record snowfall totals were reported at Washington Dulles and Reagan

National airports. Accumulation at Dulles reached 16 inches, breaking the old record of 10.6 inches set December, 12, 1964; 13.3 inches was reported at Reagan. The old record there was 11.5 inches set December 17, 1932.

Snowfall Extent (Impact)

The Northeast Snowfall Impact Scale (NESIS) developed by Paul Kocin and Louis Uccellini of the NWS (Kocin and Uccellini, 2004) characterizes and ranks high-impact Northeast snowstorms. These storms have large areas of 10 inch snowfall accumulations and greater. NESIS has five categories: Extreme, Crippling, Major, Significant, and Notable. The index differs from other meteorological indices in that it uses population information in addition to meteorological measurements. Thus NESIS gives an indication of a storm's societal impacts.

NESIS categories, their corresponding NESIS values, and a descriptive adjective:

Category	NESIS Value	Description
1	1—2.499	Notable
2	2.5—3.99	Significant
3	4—5.99	Major
4	6—9.99	Crippling
5	10.0+	Extreme

Winter Weather Section

Since the original plan was developed there has only been one significant snowfall event in the Middle Peninsula. According to the National Climatic Data Center (NCDC), on February 10, 2010 between 1 and 5 inches fell across the region. All of the land area within the region is subject to snowfall. Due to only two operating weather stations in King and Queen and King William Counties, there is little data available for additional analysis. Therefore the information described in the West Virginia Extension Service in the original plan will suffice.

Additional impacts include downed power lines, roof collapses during heavy snow loads, as well as frozen utility lines during extreme cold events.

4.3.3 Coastal/Shoreline Erosion

As flooding is the most frequent and costly natural hazard in the United States - besides fire, nearly 90% of Presidential Disaster Declarations result from natural events where flooding is a major component. Excess water from snowmelt, rainfall, or storm surge accumulates and overflows onto adjacent floodplains and other low-lying land adjacent to rivers, lakes, ponds and the Chesapeake Bay.

Coastal flooding is typically a result of storm surge, wind-driven waves, and heavy rainfall. These conditions are produced by hurricanes during the summer and fall, and nor'easters and other large coastal storms during the winter and spring. Storm surges may overrun barrier islands and push sea water up coastal rivers and inlets, blocking the downstream flow of inland runoff.

Soil Erosion

Hurricanes and nor'easters produce severe winds and storm surges that create significant soil erosion along rivers and streams in the Middle Peninsula. In addition to the loss of soil along these water bodies, there is damage to man-made shoreline hardening structures such as bulkheads and rap-rap as well as to piers, docks, boat houses and boats due to significant storm surges.

These damages are more severe along the broad open bodies of water on major rivers located closer to the Chesapeake Bay. In general terms, the damage is less intense as you move up the watershed from the southeastern area of the region towards the northwestern end of the Middle Peninsula. Therefore, the soil erosion would be most severe in Mathews, Gloucester and Middlesex Counties and to a lesser degree in the 3 remaining Middle Peninsula Counties of King and Queen, King William and Essex Counties.

The location and the angle at which these hurricanes/nor'easters come ashore region can significantly affect the amount of soil erosion during a particular storm. It can generally be said that hurricane generated soil erosion is uneven in occurrence and that the storm surge affords 2 opportunities for erosion – once as water inundates low-lying amount coast lands and again as floodwaters ebb.

For example with Hurricane Isabel in 2003, its enormous wind field tracked in a north-northwest direction to the west of the Chesapeake Bay with the right front quadrant blowing from the south-southeast. This pushed the storm surge up the Bay and piling it into the western shore – causing serious soil erosion to the eastern land masses in Mathews, Gloucester and Middlesex Counties.

Destructive as it was, Hurricane Isabel might have been worse. If it had been stronger at landfall, the storm surge generated in the Chesapeake Bay may have been higher. Had it stalled along its path and lingered through several tide cycles, prolonged surge conditions, exacerbated by high winds, might have caused more severe erosion. If rainfall has been higher, bank erosion due to slope failure might have been more common, particularly given the wetter than normal months that preceded Hurricane Isabel.

Coastal/Shoreline Erosion Vulnerability

Thousands of acres of crops and forest lands may be inundated by both saltwater and freshwater. Escape routes, particularly from barrier islands, may be cut off quickly, stranding residents in flooded areas and hampering rescue efforts. Coastal flooding is very dangerous and causes the most severe damage where large waves are driven inland by the wind. These wind driven waves destroy houses, wash away protective dunes, and erode the soil so that the ground level can be lowered by several feet. Because of the coastal nature of the Middle Peninsula, the region is very susceptible to this type of flooding and resulting damage.

Coastal/Shoreline Erosion Extent (Impacts)

While coastal/shoreline erosion can be seen by the naked eye, it can also be observed through the comparison of historical coastal aerial photographs and current ones.

4.3.4. Wildfire

A wildfire is an uncontrolled burning of grasslands, brush, or woodlands. The potential for wildfire depends upon surface fuel characteristics, recent climate conditions, current meteorological conditions, and fire

behavior. Hot, dry summers, and dry vegetation increase susceptibility to fire in the fall, a particularly dangerous time of year for wildfire.

The three leading causes of wildfires in Virginia are escaped debris fires, arson, and machine use. Wildfires can also result from natural occurrences, such as lightning strikes. Wildfire danger can vary greatly season to season and is often exacerbated by dry weather conditions.

The VDOF indicates that there are three principle factors that can lead to the formation of wildfire hazards: topography, fuel, and weather. The environmental conditions that exist during spring (March and April) and fall (October and November) exacerbate the hazard. When relative humidity is low and high winds are coupled with a dry forest floor (brush, grasses, leaf litter), wildfires may easily ignite. Years of drought can lead to environmental conditions that promote wildfires. In Virginia, accidental or intentional setting of fires by humans is the largest contributor to wildfires. Residential areas that expand into wild land areas also increase the risk of wildfire threats.

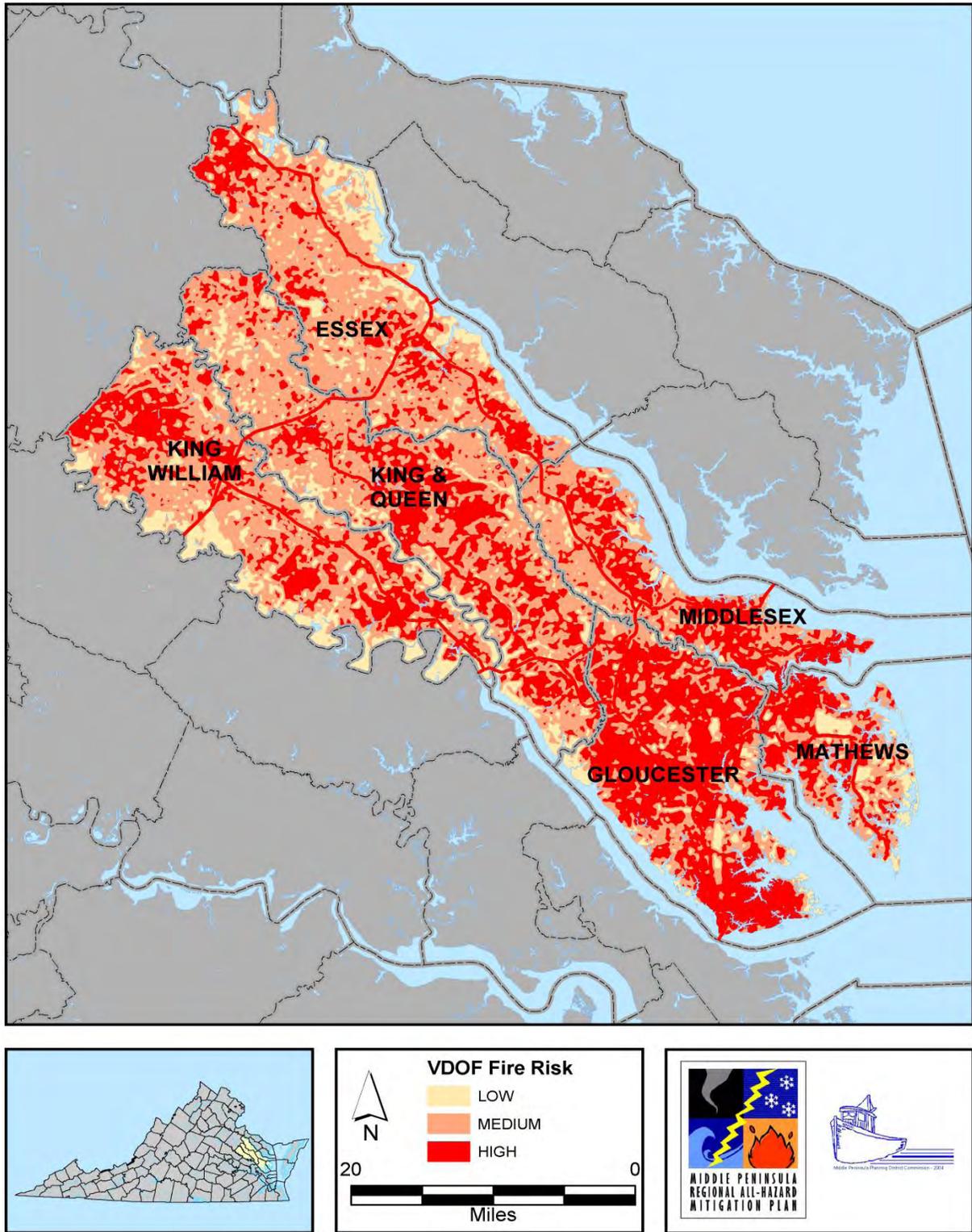
Wildfire Vulnerability

As development has spread into areas which were previously rural, new residents have been relatively unaware of the hazards posed by wildfires and have used highly flammable material for constructing buildings. This has not only increased the threat of loss of life and property, but has also resulted in a greater population of people less prepared to cope with wildfire hazards.

The impacts of wildfires can be widespread leading to many secondary hazards. During a wildfire, the removal of groundcover that serves to stabilize soil can lead to hazards such as landslides, mudslides, and flooding. In addition, the leftover scorched and barren land may take years to recover and the resulting erosion can be problematic.

Because of wild fire risk, the Virginia Department of Forestry (VDOF) has provided new information on identifying high-risk fire areas. Their Fire Risk Assessment Mapping Database was designed to help communities determine areas with the greatest vulnerability to wildfire. Since wildfire occurrence is based on multiple factors, the VDOF developed a fire ranking map to assist to wildfire prevention efforts, as shown in Figure 22. In 2002 and 2003, VDOF examined which factors influence the occurrence and advancement of wildfires and how these factors could be represented in a Geographic Information System (GIS) model. VDOF determined that historical fire incidents, land cover (fuels surrogate), topographic characteristics, population density, and distance to roads were critical variables in a wildfire risk analysis. The resulting high, medium, and low risk category reflect the results of these analyses. Figure 22 and Table 14 show the varying degree of risk amongst Middle Peninsula localities.

Figure 22: Middle Peninsula Wildfire Risk. Throughout the region risk to wildlife varies due to historic fire incidents, land cover, topographic, characteristics, population density and distance to roads.



County	LOW	MEDIUM	HIGH	Total Acreage
Essex	33,894	105,885	31,999	171,778
Gloucester	16,267	46,195	90,182	152,644
King and Queen	28,569	117,897	59,440	205,906
King William	42,127	89,417	51,039	182,583
Mathews	14,903	28,819	21,966	65,688
Middlesex	8,619	50,251	33,320	92,190
Middle Peninsula Total	144,389	438,464	287,946	870,789

County	LOW	MEDIUM	HIGH
Essex	19.7	61.6	18.6
Gloucester	10.7	30.3	59.1
King and Queen	13.9	57.3	28.9
King William	23.1	49.0	28.0
Mathews	22.7	43.9	33.4
Middlesex	9.3	54.5	36.1
Middle Peninsula	16.6	50.4	33.1

As a region, most of the area making up the Middle Peninsula falls within the “Medium” Fire Risk category (Table 14 and 15). It is noteworthy that nearly 60 percent of the area of Gloucester County falls within the “High” Fire Risk category (Table 15).

Debris burning continues to be the leading cause of forest fires in Virginia. The Commonwealth of Virginia has several laws that help to reduce the risk of wildfires. Most notably is the ‘Virginia’s 4:00 PM Burning Law’, which goes into effect each spring. The 4:00 PM Burning Law is different from the burning bans, which are invoked only during periods of extreme fire danger. Briefly, the 4:00 PM Burning Law states: from February 15 through April 30 of each year, no burning before 4:00 PM is permitted if the fire is in, or within 300 feet of, woodland, brushland or fields containing dry grass or other flammable material.

Since forest fuels cure during the winter months, the danger of fire is higher in early spring than in summer when the forest and grasses are green with new growth. The 4:00 PM Burning Law is an effective tool in the prevention of forest fires.

Areas where homes meet the Wildland are called the Wildland/Urban interface. Flammable forest fuels often surround homes located in the woods. The VDOF suggests the following safety tips to minimize the threat to homes:

- Have a least 30 feet of defensible space surrounding a home. This will reduce the wildfire threat to a home by changing the characteristics of the surround vegetation. Defensible space also allows firefighters room to put out fires.
- Build with fire-resistant exterior construction materials, such as cement, brick, plaster, and stucco and concrete masonry. Double pane glass windows can make a home more resistant to wildfire heat and flames. Roofs should be Class A.
- Use landscaping materials and design to also create defensible space. Remove flammable plants that contain resins, oils and waxes that burn readily. Large, leafy hardwood trees should be pruned so that the lowest branches are at least 6 to 10 feet high to prevent a fire on the ground from spreading up to the treetops.

- Identify a home and neighborhood with legible and clearly marked street names and numbers so emergency vehicles can rapidly find the location of the emergency. Include a driveway that is at least 12 feet wide with a vertical clearance of 15 feet – provide access to emergency apparatus.

Since the 2010 plan there has been a total of 100 wildfires within the region (Appendix I). Based on VDOF records, each locality has been impacted by wildfire (Table 16 and 17):

County	Number of Wildfires in a Given Year						Total
	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015*	
Essex	7	7	5	2	3	2	26
Gloucester	7	9	7	13	4	6	46
Middlesex	3	7	4	0	3	1	18
Mathews	3	1	3	1	2	0	10
King & Queen	2	1	3	2	2	1	11
King William	8	3	3	0	4	3	21

*Please note that the 2015 data is only through mid-June.

County	Number of Acres Burned in a Giver Year						Total
	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015*	
Essex	88.7	28.9	4.7	.9	7.5	3.1	133.8
Gloucester	4	664	132.4	4.3	14.6	145	964.3
Middlesex	7.5	479.9	1.4	0	0.7	1	490.5
Mathews	30.5	0.2	3.5	0.5	4.4	0	39.1
King & Queen	3.1	5	20.1	7	50.5	16	101.7
King William	14.1	52	22	0	1.6	1.4	91.1

*Please note that the 2015 data is only through mid-June.

Previous wildfire events identified in the 2011 Mitigation Plan include:

- During 2009, Middlesex County experienced a major wildfire north of Urbanna between route 602 and US Route 17 near Hilliard Pond.
- During 2008, Gloucester County experienced a significant fire in the Guinea area that burned several acres. While this fire did not require any evacuations it did require mutual aid from other jurisdictions. This fire was coordinated through Abington Volunteer Fire and Rescue.

In 2008, drought conditions combined with strong winds resulted in sporadic wildfires in numerous locations throughout the Middle Peninsula region. Mutual aid assistance between area fire departments, as well as from the VDOF, was widely used during these wildfire events.

As discussed at the PENEX '09 Regional Training Exercise in September 2009, there is a need for more formalized written agreements between some neighboring jurisdictions when it comes to mutual aid assistance. Also, the lack of operable communications between neighboring jurisdictions willing to offer mutual aid to one another, as well as with state forces, is an issue that was also cited in the After-Action-Report from the PENEX '09 Regional Training Exercise. The PENEX '09 exercise covered jurisdictions in both the Middle Peninsula and Northern Neck regions.

Mitigation strategies formalizing MOUs between area fire departments to quickly respond to the adverse effects of the wildfire hazard should be included as part of the MPNHMP update.

Mitigation strategies to improve communication systems between the local jurisdictions and with their state fire-fighting partners should also be proposed with this update.

In addition, the VDOF safety tips - as noted above - lend themselves to a public education mitigation strategy dealing with wildfires and should be included with this update.

Wildfire Extent (Impact)

The VDOF thoroughly tracks the number of acres burned and estimated damages for each incident in the Commonwealth. Timing and coordination resulted in limitations in using this data as part of the ranking methodology.

4.3.5. Riverine Flooding

A flood is partial or complete inundation of normally dry land areas. *Riverine flooding* is defined as the overflow of rivers, streams, drains, and lakes due to excessive rainfall, rapid snowmelt, or ice. This type of flooding is different from *coastal flooding*, which is caused by storm surge and wave action and affects coastal areas, especially those along the beachfront. There are several types of riverine floods, including headwater, backwater, interior drainage, and flash flooding. Flash flooding is characterized by rapid accumulation or runoff of surface waters from any source. This type of flooding impacts smaller rivers, creeks, and streams and can occur because of dams being breached or overtopped. Because flash floods can develop in a matter of hours, most flood-related deaths result from this type of event.

Periodic flooding of lands adjacent to non-tidal rivers and streams is a natural and inevitable occurrence. When stream flow exceeds the capacity of the normal water course, some of the above-normal stream flow spills over onto adjacent lands within the floodplain. Riverine flooding is a function of precipitation levels and water runoff volumes within the watershed of the stream or river. The recurrence interval of a flood is defined as the average time interval, in years, expected to take place between the occurrence of a flood of a particular magnitude and an equal or larger flood. Flood magnitude increases with increasing recurrence interval.

The major rivers of the Middle Peninsula are tidal in nature, serving as estuarine tributaries of the Chesapeake Bay. Flood hazard varies by locality and type of flooding. Riverine flooding is more of a threat to mountainous regions, where population areas typically lie in narrow valleys, which lack the ability to store and dissipate large amounts of water. Consequently, stream flow tends to increase rapidly.

Riverine flooding was addressed during the flood mitigation planning process and mitigation strategies in this update will include:

1. Continuing to maintain and enforce a strong NFIP,
2. Investigating the feasibility of undertaking a FEMA-promoted Community Rating System (CRS) for enhanced floodplain protection policies, and
3. Actively promoting public education programs about development in and adjacent to areas with a history of flooding from rivers and creeks.

Riverine Flooding

As riverine flooding is defined as the overflow of rivers, streams, drains, and lakes due to excessive rainfall, rapid snow melt, rapid ice melt or a combination of all three and this type of flooding involves the partial or

complete inundation of normally dry land areas. It differs from coastal flooding, which is caused by a combination of rain, storm surge and wave action and affects coastal areas, especially those along the beachfront.

Approximately 60% of Virginia's river flooding begins with flash flooding from tropical systems passing over or near the state. Riverine flooding also occurs because of successive rainstorms. Rainfall from any one storm may not be enough to cause a problem, but with each successive storm's passage over the basin, rivers rise until eventually they overflow their banks. If this occurs in late winter or spring, melting snow in the mountains can produce additional runoff that can compound flooding problems.

There are several types of riverine flooding including headwater, backwater, interior drainage, and flash flooding:

Headwater flooding results from significant rain events that occur at the upper reaches of a watershed that then flow downstream within a short period of time.

Backwater flooding results when the lower portion of a river or stream is blocked by debris or backed up due to a storm surge along the coast.

Interior drainage flooding results when a dam gives way and the water being held in the impoundment is released all at once to the downstream receiving channel.

Flash flooding is characterized by rapid accumulation and runoff of surface waters from any source. This type of flooding impacts smaller rivers, creeks, and streams and can occur because of dams being breached or overtopped. Because flash floods can develop in a matter of hours, most flood-related deaths result from this type of event.

Although flash flooding is more of a threat in the steeper mountainous regions of the state where population areas typically lie in narrow valleys that lack the ability to store and dissipate large amounts of water, some of the hilly areas in the upper reaches of the Middle Peninsula watersheds can experience rapid increase in stream flow resulting in some riverine flooding and subsequent threats to life and property.

Periodic flooding of lands adjacent to non-tidal rivers and streams is a natural and inevitable occurrence. When stream flow exceeds the capacity of the normal water course, some of the above-normal stream flow spills over onto adjacent lands within the floodplain. Riverine flooding is a function of precipitation levels and water runoff volumes within the watershed of the stream or river.

The recurrence interval of a flood is defined as the average time interval, in years, expected to take place between the occurrence of a flood of a particular magnitude and a second one of equal or greater magnitude. Flood magnitude increases with increasing recurrence interval. The interval most referred to and also the basis for many local government regulations is known as the 100-year flood or storm event.

The major rivers in the lower Middle Peninsula are tidal in nature and they serve as estuarine tributaries of the Chesapeake Bay. Flood hazards vary due to the river's location and the type of storm event taking place.

Riverine Flooding Vulnerability

Populations and property are extremely vulnerable to flooding. Homes, business, public buildings and critical infrastructure may suffer damage and be susceptible to collapse due to heavy flooding. Floodwaters can

carry chemicals, sewage, and toxins from roads, factories, and farms; therefore any property affected by the flood may be contaminated with hazardous materials. Debris from vegetation and man-made structures may also be hazardous following the occurrence of a flood. In addition, floods may threaten water supplies and water quality, as well as initiate power outages, and create health issues such as mold.

Riverine Flooding Extent (Impact)

The FEMA Special Flood Hazard Area designations area associated with the probability of flooding (Tables I 8):

Table I 8: FEMA Flood Zone Designations and probabilities (VDEM, 2013).

Zone V	Coastal flood zone with velocity hazard (wave action); no Base Flood Elevations determined
Zone VE	Coastal flood zone with velocity hazard (wave action); wave heights above 3 feet; Base Flood Elevations determined.
Zone A	100 Year flood area (1% annual change of flood). Base Flood Elevations determined.
Zone AE	100 year flood area (1% annual chance of flood). Base Flood Elevations determined.
Zone AO	Subject to 100 year shallow flooding with flood depths of 1 to 3 feet (usually sheet flow on sloping terrain); Base Flood Elevations undetermined
Zone X	Areas with 0.2% annual chance of flood or less; areas in 100 year flood zone with average depths of less than 1 foot or with drainage areas less than 1 square mile; and areas protected by levees from 1% annual chance flood.
Zone X500	The same description as Zone X, however, this area falls between the 100 and 500-year flood zone.
UNDES	Area in which flood hazards are undetermined.

4.3.6. Sea Level Rise

A look at the geologic record of Chesapeake Bay shows a long and dynamic history - from the bolide (asteroid or comet) impact about 35 million years ago which formed the Chesapeake Bay impact crater, to the melting of glaciers beginning about 18,000 years ago, resulting in a continued rise of sea level and drowning of the Susquehanna River valley. Given that the rise in sea level has been occurring for thousands of years and is fundamental to the present formation of the Chesapeake Bay and our local tidal waters, there has been a heightened level of concern in recent years. Concern is justified given that current and projected rates of sea level rise represent a significant increase over what we experienced during the last century. There is general consensus that rise in sea level will continue for centuries to come, and that human and natural communities within the Middle Peninsula will be vulnerable. Understanding the challenge is vital for local government to develop strategies to reduce the regions vulnerability to sea level rise.

Causes and Current Rates of Local Sea Level Rise

Processes responsible for rising sea levels are complex. To help simplify the matter, it is useful to make a distinction between the concepts of eustatic and relative sea level (RSL) change. Eustatic change, which can vary over large spatial scales, describes sea level changes at the oceanic to global scale that result from changes in the volume of seawater or the ocean basins themselves. The two major processes responsible for eustatic change are the thermal expansion of seawater due to warming and the melting and discharge of continental ice (i.e., glaciers and ice sheets) into the oceans. The global average for current (2003-mid 2011) eustatic sea level change is 0.11 in/yr(2.8 mm/yr) (NOAA Laboratory for Satellite Altimetry, 2008) with estimates for the Chesapeake Bay region on the order of 0.07 in/yr (1.8 mm/yr; Boon et al. 2010) for the approximate same time period.

RSL change describes the observed change in water level at a particular location and represents the sum of eustatic sea level change and local vertical land movement (subsidence or uplift) at that location. Within the Chesapeake Bay region, land subsidence represents a significant component of RSL change. Processes contributing to land subsidence include tectonic (movement of the earth's crust) and man-induced impacts (e.g., groundwater withdrawal, hydrocarbon removal). During the last glacial period (maximum extent approximately 20,000 yr BP), the southern East Coast limit of the Laurentide ice sheet coincided with northern portions of Pennsylvania (Mickelson and Colgan, 2003). As a consequence, land subsided under the ice load and, in turn, created a fore-bulge or upward displacement of lands south of the ice load. Upon retreat of the glacier, the land continued to redistribute, rebounding in previously glaciated areas and subsiding in the more southern forebulge region. Land subsidence rates on the order of 0.05-0.06 in/yr (1.2-1.4 mm/yr) are attributed to the postglacial forebulge collapse within the Bay region (Douglas, 1991). It can take many thousands of years for impacted regions to reach isostatic equilibrium.

At a more local level, overdrafting of groundwater is a significant factor driving land subsidence rates. Within the Eastern Virginia Groundwater Management Area, large industrial and domestic use groundwater withdrawals from the Potomac aquifer series occur in the areas of Franklin, Suffolk and West Point, VA. Elevated subsidence rates, which integrate both regional and local causes, were first observed near the centers of large groundwater withdrawals through repetitive high-precision relevelings and analysis of tide records, and later through studies that directly measured aquifer system compaction. Land subsidence rates within the Middle Peninsula, based on releveling analysis, vary between 0.09-0.15 in/yr (2.4-3.8 mm/yr) with maximum values being observed at West Point (Holdahl and Morrison 1974; Davis 1987). Pope and Burbey (2004) reported average aquifer system compaction rates of 0.06 in/yr (1.5 mm/yr; 1979-1995) and 0.15 in/yr (3.7 mm/yr; 1982-1995) near the Franklin and Suffolk pumping centers, respectively, and that compaction appeared to correlate with groundwater withdrawal; West Point was not included as part of this study. It has been suggested that the Chesapeake Bay impact structure, whose outer rim traverses the lower Middle Peninsula (Powars and Bruce, 1999) may contribute to local land subsidence. While observations suggest post impact subsidence at a geologic scale (Johnson et al. 1998), present day influence is currently unknown.

It is important to note however that the lower lying counties like Gloucester and Mathews County will most likely see the largest impact from sea level rise.

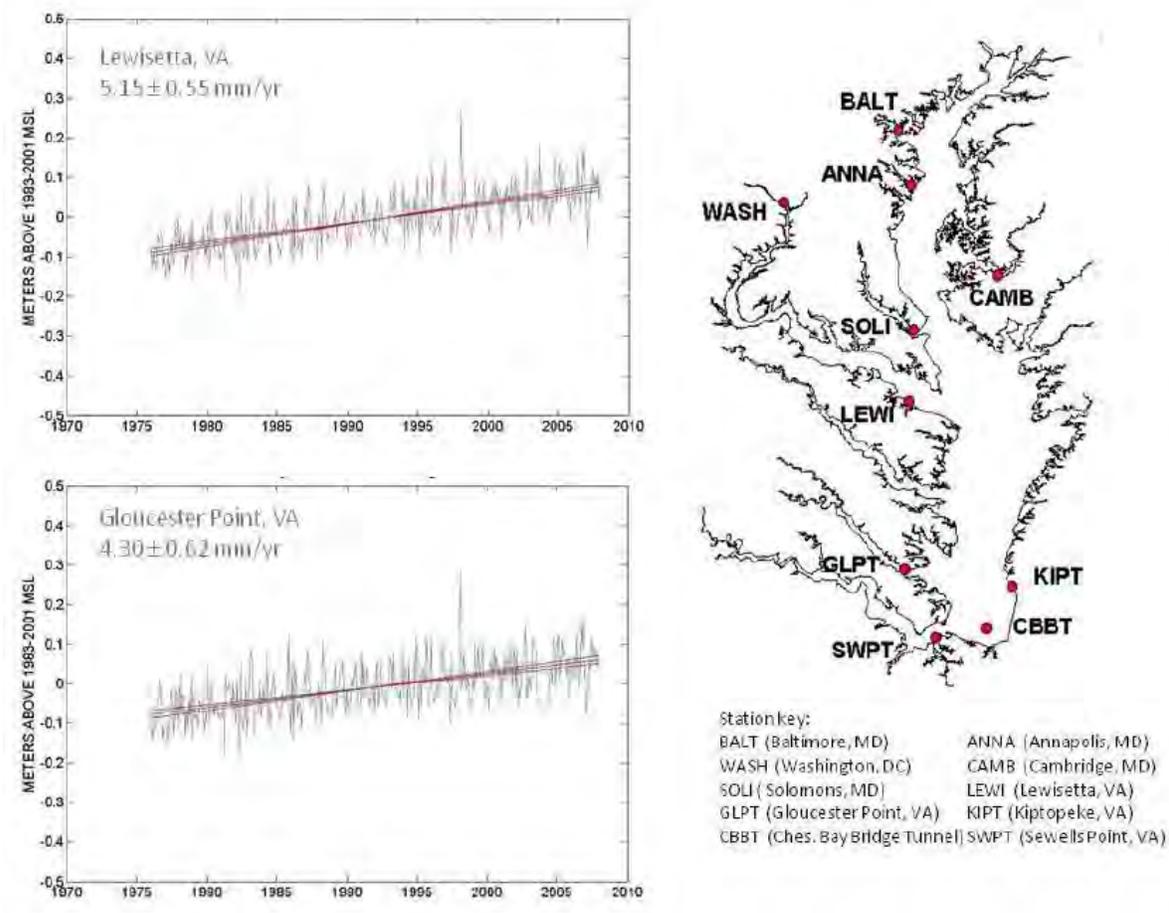


Figure 23: RSL Trends. RSL trends and 95% confidence intervals for Lewissetta, VA and Gloucester Point, VA (after removal of Seasonal cycle and decadal signal) from the 1976-2007 period and location map for Chesapeake Bay National Water Level Observation Network Stations (Boon et al. 2010).

Sea Level Rise Vulnerability

Coastal habitat as well as activity may be impacted by sea level rise. As the water reaches further inland it will influence humans, the environment and the economy. Table 19 shows the potential impacts to sea level rise.

Table 19: Impacts of sea level rise on humans, the environment and the economy.	
Sector	Effect
IMPACTS TO HUMANS	
Recreation	-Public access point throughout the region may be inundated
Transportation	-Roads may be inundated -Travel disruptions
Infrastructure	-Property loss and increased need to mitigate -Increased demands on stormwater management systems -Inundation of public and private infrastructure
Health	-Sanitation concerns will increase as rising groundwater levels and sea waters may inundate onsite wastewater disposal systems and drainfields.
Emergency Response	-The ability to provide emergency services to all inundated areas may be reduced. There may be difficulty reaching these locations due to high waters.
IMPACTS TO THE ENVIRONMENT	
Hydrology and Water resources	-Water quality could be impacted as rising groundwater levels and sea waters may inundate onsite wastewater disposal systems and drainfields. -Changes in hydrology could impact local natural resources.
Agricultural crops	-Increased inundation of crop fields. This could drown the crops. -Salt water intrusion could destroy crops.
Forests	-Salt water intrusion could destroy forests creating “ghost forests”.
IMPACT TO THE ECONOMY	
Transportation	-As roads are inundated this may cause travel and commerce disruptions -Increase road maintenance and cost
Business	-Reduced interest in the region to locate business -Higher insurance rates -Impacts to business infrastructure
Agriculture	-As the region’s economy is based on natural resources, salt water intrusion could damage silviculture stands and crops that will have a negative impact on the local and regional economy.

Sea Level Rise Extent (Impact)

RSL rise rates at the local level are derived from accurate time series of water level measurements spanning several decades or more. A recent analysis of tide gauge data by the Virginia Institute of Marine Science reported RSL rise rates ranging from 0.11-0.23 in/yr (2.9-5.8 mm/yr; period: 1976-2007; 10 stations) within the Chesapeake Bay region, with a number of the values representing the highest rates reported along the U.S. Atlantic coast (Boon et al. 2010). With respect to the Middle Peninsula, the two nearest stations located at Gloucester Point and Lewisetta, VA indicate current RSL rise rates of 0.17 (4.30 mm/yr) and 0.20 in/yr (5.15 mm/yr), respectively (see Figure 23). Although there are no additional adequate tidal records available for the Middle Peninsula’s bordering rivers (i.e. York and Rappahannock Rivers), one would expect RSL rise rates to increase as one approached areas of elevated land subsidence such as West Point, VA. Based on land subsidence and eustatic sea level information, the RSL rise rate would be expected to be on the order of 0.22 in/yr (5.6 mm/yr) at or near West Point, VA. Extrapolating current Gloucester Point and Lewisetta rates, RSL would increase by another 0.7- 0.8 ft (21-25 cm) by 2050 and 1.4-1.7 ft (43-51 cm) by 2100; this represents a conservative and low-end estimate. There is growing

concern that RSL rise rates will accelerate in the future with projections of sea level increases in the Bay region of approximately 2.3-5.3 ft (70-160 cm) by 2100 (Pyke et al. 2008).

4.3.7. High Wind / Windstorms (excluding tornados and hurricanes)

High winds and windstorms, when not a result of hurricanes or tornadoes, are often associated with thunderstorms. The NWS defines a severe thunderstorm as having winds 50 kts (58 mph) or hail greater than 3/4" in diameter (about dime-sized). A thunderstorm is considered severe if it produces hail larger than 3/4 of an inch (2 cm), winds greater than 58 mph (93 kph), or tornadoes. This strong frontal system could produce violent damaging effects to the community, such as hail, lightning, high winds (sometimes including tornadoes), and flash floods. Numerous thunderstorms occur in Middle Peninsula every year and vary amongst localities.

High Wind/Windstorms Vulnerability

The threat that any particular thunderstorm presents varies depending on its intensity, structure, and the ground below it. Many thunderstorms simply require people and their belongings to seek shelter inside a sturdy building. However, severe thunderstorms can be very dangerous and require seeking shelter underground because of the damage, they can cause to buildings. Historically the most severe occur during the spring and summer. In the U.S., only about 10% of all thunderstorms are classified as severe. Seeking shelter before a thunderstorm has arrived is best because high wind and lightning can form well in advance of any precipitation. Hail-resistant roofs can reduce property damage, as can properly attached roofs. As always, learning about what safety measures to take during a thunderstorm is the first and most important step in coping with thunderstorms.

In the U.S., the NWS issues severe thunderstorm watches and warnings. A watch is issued when atmospheric conditions are favorable for the development of a severe thunderstorm. A warning is issued when severe thunderstorms have developed. Similar to tornado watches and warnings, severe thunderstorm warnings are broadcast via media (ie. radio and television), Internet, and NOAA weather radios. Particularly of note for coastal communities, such as the Middle Peninsula, are wind advisories associated with water bodies. A Small Craft Advisory is issued for sustained winds 25-33 knots and/or Seas > 7 feet within 12 hours; There is no legal definition of "small craft" but the Coast Guard generally recommends boats smaller than 33 feet should avoid being on the water, but it depends on the experience of the crew. A Gale Warning is issued for 1-minute sustained surface winds in the range 34 kt (39 mph or 63 kph) to 47 kt (54 mph or 87 kph) inclusive, either predicted or occurring not directly associated with tropical cyclones. Reliable forecasting is essential to providing communities with adequate warnings about incoming thunderstorms and the specific threats that each storm possesses.

Damage from strong winds associated with thunderstorms can result in scattered, but severe damage to buildings and vegetation. Although these severe weather events usually occur during the spring and summer months, the emergency management staff should be prepared for them to occur at any time throughout the year.

Utilizing VDEM-generated information available on the state website and/or other information sources, community preparedness mitigation strategies should be developed by the localities for quick dissemination to their residents. Dissemination outlets should include jurisdictional websites, local radio and TV stations as well as social media sites such as Facebook and twitter.

Derecho

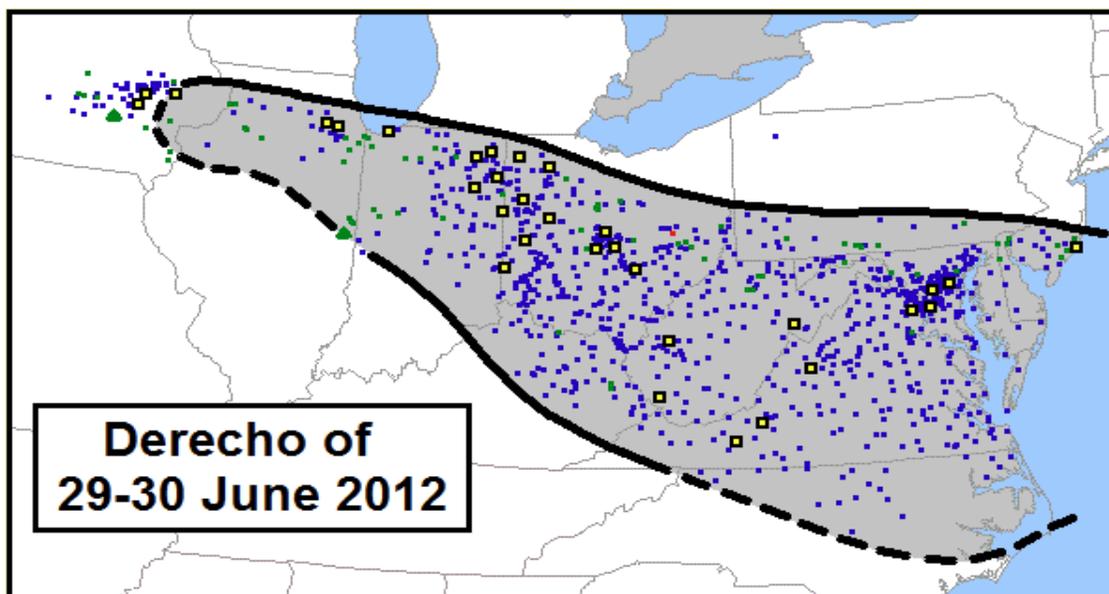
According to the National Weather Service, a derecho is a complex of thunderstorms or a mesoscale convective system (MCS) that produce large swaths of severe, straight-line wind damage at Earth's surface. To be classified as a derecho, the following conditions must be met:

- There must be a concentrated area of convectively induced wind damage or gust greater than or equal to 58 mph occurring over a path length of at least 250 miles.
- Wind reports much show a pattern of chronological progression in either a singular swath (progressive; this event was a classic example) or a series of swaths (serial).
- There must be at least three reports separated by 64 kilometers (km) or more of Enhanced Fujita (EFI) damage/or measured convective wind gusts of 74 mph or greater.
- No more than 3 hours can elapse between successive wind damage/gust events.

Derechos can occur year-round but are most common from May to August (Coniglio et al., 2004)

On June 29, 2012, a derecho struck the Ohio Valley and Mid-Atlantic states. The derecho traveled 700 miles, impacting 10 states and Washington, D.C. (Figure 24). The hardest hit states were Ohio, West Virginia, Virginia, and Maryland, as well as Washington, D.C. The winds generated by this system were intense, with several measured gusts exceeding 80 mph, thirteen people were killed by the extreme winds, mainly by falling trees. An estimated 4 million customers lost power for up to a week. The region impacted by the derecho was also in the midst of a heat wave. The heat, coupled with the loss of power, led to a life-threatening situation. Heat claimed 34 lives in areas without power. The Middle Peninsula experienced wind gusts ≥ 65 kts (74 mph).

Figure 24: Area affected (black contours) and storm reports (colored symbols) associated with the June, 29, 2012 derecho. Reports are for the 24-hour period from 7:00 a.m. (Central Daylight Time (CDT)) Friday, June 29 to 7:00 a.m. CDT Saturday, June 30. Areal outline based in Iowa and Illinois to reflect the derecho's origin from convection in the region that did not immediately produce continuous derecho-like conditions. In addition, some of the report in those states occurred not with the system here discussed, but rather with a subsequent storm complex that formed on the evening of June 29. The areal outline also is dashed in North Carolina to reflect that many of the damaging wind gusts in the state occurred south of the thunderstorms that produced them. Storm reports depicted as follows. Wind damage or wind gust ≥ 50 kts (59 mph), small blue squares, estimated or measured with gusts ≥ 65 kts (74 mph), large black squares with yellow centers, hail ≥ 0.75 inches, small green squares, hail ≥ 2.0 inches, large green triangles, tornadoes, small red squares (NWS, 2012).



High Wind / Windstorms Extent (Impact)

Wind risk can be determined by measuring the speed of the winds. The categories used to determine risk and ranking hazards include the following:

Hurricane Risk	Wind Speed (mph)	Category
Low	≤59.9	High Wind
Medium – Low	60.0-73.9	Tropical Storm
Medium – High	74.0-94.9	Category 1 Hurricane
High	≥95.0	Category 2 +

4.3.8. HAZMAT

HAZMAT can be defined as a material (as flammable or poisonous material) that would be a danger to life or to the environment if released without precautions. Furthermore, a hazardous material is any substance or material in a quantity or form that may pose a reasonable risk to health, the environment, or property. The risk of hazardous material risks will vary amongst Middle Peninsula as it includes incidents involving substances such as toxic chemicals, fuels, nuclear wastes and/or products, and other radiological and biological or chemical agents. In addition to accidental or incidental releases of hazardous materials due to fixed facility incidents and transportation accidents, regions must be ready to respond to hazmat releases as potential terrorism. It's important to note that the risk of a Hazmat incident are unpredictable and will vary amongst Middle Peninsula localities.

According to VDEM, all jurisdictions in Virginia have a Local Emergency Planning Committee that identified local industrial hazardous materials and keeps the community informed of the potential risks. With a fixed facility, the hazards are pre-identified, and the facility is required to prepare a risk management plan and provide a copy of this plan to local governments.

Hazardous materials carried through Middle Peninsula localities by commercial vehicle may also cause a risk, particularly if the vehicle is involved in an accident. While the vehicle should have placards on the vehicle to identify the hazard on board, however they are less predictable. In accordance with 9VAC20-110 the Virginia Waste Management Board is responsible for promulgating regulations governing the transport of hazardous materials within the Commonwealth. Additionally the VAC also provides requirements for "every person who transports or offers for transportation of hazardous materials within or through the Commonwealth of Virginia" (9VAC20-110-110) Therefore there are measures in place to help reduce the risk of hazards materials being transported through the Middle Peninsula Region.

HAZMAT Vulnerability

The effects of hazardous material is ultimately dependent on the type and amount of hazardous material, however injuries and/or deaths could occur as a result of a hazmat incident. They can pose risk to health, safety, and property during transportation. According to VDEM, "A business might have to evacuate depending on the quantity and type of chemical released or local officials might close a facility or area for hours, possibility days until a substance is properly cleaned up. Businesses that store, produce or transport hazardous materials will be fined for spills. The business involve in the release would typically be responsible for the cost of the clean up. A business that is located near the site of the hazardous site of a hazardous materials spill or release is likely to be unaffected unless the substance is airborne and poses a threat to areas outside the accident site. In that case local emergency official would order an immediate evaluation of areas that could potentially be affected. Depending on the type of hazardous substance, it could take hours or days for emergency official to deem the area safe for return." Ultimately this would impact business productivity and could impact the local/regional economy.

HAZMAT Extent (Impact)

Hazardous materials are categorized into nine major hazard classes that communicated the risk associated with it. Table 20 shows categories and provides examples of the hazardous material.

Table 20: Hazardous material are divided into 9 categories (VDEM, 2013).

CLASS	Division	NAME OF CLASS OR DIVISION	EXAMPLE
1	1.1	Explosives (mass detonation)	Dinitrophenol
	1.2	Projections Hazards	Ammunition Smoke, White Phosphorous
	1.3	Mass Fire Hazards	Article, Explosive No. 5
	1.4	Minor Hazards	Fireworks
	1.5	Very Insensitive	Blasting Agents Explosive, Blasting, Type E
	1.6	Extremely Insensitive	Article, Explosive Extremely Insensitive
2	2.1	Flammable Gases	Propane
	2.2	Non Flammable Gases	Helium, Compressed
	2.3	Poisonous/Toxic Gases	Fluorine, Compressed
3		Flammable Liquids	Gasoline, Alcohol, Diesel Fuel, Fuel Oils
4	4.1	Flammable Solids	Ammonium Picrate, Wetted
	4.2	Spontaneously Combustible	Phosphorus, White Dry
	4.3	Dangerous when wet	Sodium
5	5.1	Oxidizers	Ammonium Nitrate, Liquid
	5.2	Organic Peroxides	Organic Peroxide Type B, Liquid
6	6.1	Poisons (Toxic Material)	Potassium Cyanide
	6.2	Infectious Substance	Diagnostic Specimen
7		Radioactive	Uranium, Plutonium
8		Corrosives	Hydrochloric Acid, Battery Acid, Formaldehyde, Sulfuric Acid
9		Miscellaneous Hazardous Materials	Asbestos, Airbag Inflaters
None		ORM-D (Other Regulated Material – Domestic)	Consumer Commodity (Hair Spray or Charcoal)
Combustible Liquid		Combustible Liquid	Heating Oil, Diesel Fuel

In addition to the categories of hazardous material, when shipping hazardous material driver must keep shipping papers and use the following to identify that they have hazardous material on board:

Package labels are diamond-shaped hazard warning labels found on most hazardous materials packages. These labels inform others of the hazard. If the diamond label does not fit on the package, shippers may put the label on a tag attached to the package. For example, compressed gas cylinders often have tags or decals.

Placards warn others of hazardous materials. They are placed on the outside of the vehicle and identify the hazard class of the cargo. A placarded vehicle must have at least four identical placards. Placards must be readable from all four directions. Therefore, they are put on the front, rear and both sides of the vehicle. Placards measure 10 ¾ inches square and are turned in a diamond shape. Cargo tanks and other bulk packaging display the identification number of their contents on placards. Or they may use orange panels or white diamond-shape displays the same size as placards.

4.3.9. Ditch Flooding

As per the Commonwealth of DEQ Guidance Memorandum No. 08-2004 Regulation of Ditches under the Virginia Water Protection (VWP) Program, ditch is defined as a linear feature excavated for the purpose of draining or directing surface or groundwater. Ditches may also be constructed to collect groundwater or surface water for the purposes of irrigation.

Ditch Flooding Vulnerability

Throughout the Middle Peninsula of Virginia, the network of aging roadside ditches and outfalls, serving 670 miles of roads, creates the region's primary stormwater conveyance system. Currently each locality in the region experiences inadequate drainage and as a result, roads and private properties are frequently flooded after a storm event. The lowest lying localities (ie. Mathews and Gloucester County) are more vulnerable to ditch flooding as most of their land is either at or slightly above sea level. This low topography and lack of grade does not assist the flow of water out of areas. Therefore, roadway flooding frequently cuts residents and business off from the county and emergency services for extended periods of time. Flooding has also caused the county school system to be closed due safety concerns. Flooding, risks to public health and safety, property damage, and long-term loss of property use and values are consequences of the inadequate drainage systems, all of which ultimately negatively impact the economy of the Middle Peninsula.

Conditions contributing to the failure of the drainage system, include, but are not limited to, the following:

1. A lack of maintenance, including removal of sediment and overgrown vegetation, causing slopes to be inadequate or reverse slope and/or tides not allowed to recede;
2. Insufficient elevation change (topographic constraints);
3. Cross-culverts are filled with sediment, not adequately maintained, damaged, and/or installed with an inadequate / reverse slope;
4. Unclear ownership and ditch maintenance responsibility (VDOT or private);
5. Sea level rise; and
6. Land subsidence.

When high exposure to hurricanes, nor'easters, tropical storms, sea level rise, and land subsidence is coupled with clogged roadside ditches and outfalls, illicit filling of the ditches on private property, and/or failing ditches, there are significant social, economic, and environmental impacts.

Ditch Flooding Extent (Impact)

Ditch flooding is currently measured through observations. Currently in Mathews County a citizen group records observations and takes photos of the ditch flooding. Additionally in 2015 the Draper Aden Associated partnered with Mathews County to develop a Stormwater Ditch Steering Committee that consisted of private citizens, VDOT, and MPPDC representatives. Areas within Mathews were selected to focus on that were prone to ditch flooding and were called priority areas. These priority areas were visited and existing conditions were noted. Based on findings in the field, DAA provided site recommendations to improve the given ditch as well as associated costs of the improvements. This information will be the basis of a roadside ditch database underdevelopment in 2016.

4.4. Hazards Considered "Critical" Hazards to the Middle Peninsula

The following sections describe hazards that are common throughout the Middle Peninsula region and deemed "Critical Hazards" to the Middle Peninsula by the Steering Committee.

4.4.1. Winter Ice Storms

Virginia's biggest winter storms are the great "Nor'easters". At times, Nor'easters have become so strong that they have been labeled the "White Hurricane". In order for these storms to form, several things need

to occur. High pressure builds over New England. Arctic air flows south from the high center into Virginia. The colder and drier the air is, the denser and heavier it becomes. This cold, dry air is unable to move west over the Appalachian Mountains and it remains trapped to the east side, funneling down the valleys and along the coastal plain toward North Carolina. To the east of the arctic air is the warm water of the Gulf Stream. The contrast of cold air sinking into the Carolinas and the warm air sitting over the Gulf Stream creates a breeding ground for storms. Combine this with the right meteorological conditions such as the position of the jet stream, and storm development may become "explosive" (sudden, rapid intensification; dramatic drop in the central pressure of the storm) (Watson and Sammler, 2004) (Figure 25).

Winter Ice Storms occur generally as freezing rain, when precipitation, starts falling as snow, melts as it passes through a warm layer of air several thousand feet above the ground. Beneath the warm layer of air is a shallow layer of freezing air just above the ground. As the liquid precipitation falls through this layer of freezing air, it becomes super-cooled, meaning that its temperature falls below freezing, but it remains a liquid. Before it has a chance to freeze solid (into sleet or ice pellets), the super-cooled liquid droplets hit the ground (or some object such as a tree limb or power line), whose temperature is also below freezing; the water then freezes on contact.

For a good Nor'easter to develop, the jet stream entering the West Coast of the United States splits. The northern branch crosses the northern Rockies and Canada while the southern branch dips to cross the Gulf Coast states, where it picks up a disturbance that it carries northeast across Virginia to rejoin the northern branch over Newfoundland. The northern branch of the jet supports the southward sinking cold air. When this disturbance interacts with the temperature boundary formed by the warm Gulf Stream waters and the arctic air mass inland, a low-pressure system forms. The strong wind from the northeast gives the low-pressure storm its name, *Nor'easter*. Wind blowing counter-clockwise around the storm center carries warm, moist air from the Gulf Stream up and over the cold inland air. The warm air rises and cools, and snow begins. The storm's speed and exact track to the north become critical in properly forecasting and warning for heavy snow across Virginia. On the Middle Peninsula, it is quite common for the rain-snow line to fall right over the northern sections of King William, King and Queen, and Essex Counties. Heavy snow often falls in a narrow 50-mile wide path about 150 miles northwest of the low-pressure center. Closer to the low's center, the warmer ocean air changes the precipitation to sleet, freezing rain and eventually rain. If the forecasted storm track is off by just a little bit, it may mean - 64 - the difference between forecasting heavy rain, freezing rain or sleet, and a foot of snow (Watson and Sammler, 2004). Therefore Middle Peninsula localities will not experience winter ice storms the same.

Intense winds around the storm's center build waves that rack the coastline and sometimes drive water inland, causing extensive coastal flooding and severe beach erosion. Unlike a hurricane, which usually comes and goes within one tidal cycle, the Nor'easter can linger through several tides, each one piling more water on shore and into the bays. The March 5-9, 1962 Nor'easter, known as the "Ash Wednesday Storm", lingered off the Virginia Capes for days. It caused over \$200 million (in 1962 dollars) in property damage and major coastal erosion from North Carolina to Long Island, N.Y.