

December 3, 2021

Carin Vadala, District Ranger
Newport-Sullivan Lake Ranger Districts
Colville National Forest

RE: Sweet-Ione Project

Dear Ranger Vadala,

Please accept these comments from me on behalf of the Alliance for the Wild Rockies, Paul Seracki, and Native Ecosystems Council on the Sweet-Ione Project.

We submit the following comments to guide the development of the environmental analysis for the proposal. The Forest Service must complete a full environmental impact statement (EIS) for this Project because the scope of the Project will likely have a significant individual and cumulative impact on the environment. Alliance has reviewed the statutory and regulatory requirements governing National Forest Management projects, as well as the relevant case law, and compiled a check-list of issues that must be included in the EIS for the Project in order for the Forest Service's analysis to comply with the law. Following the list of necessary elements, Alliance has also included a general narrative discussion on possible impacts of the Project, with accompanying citations to the relevant scientific literature. These references should be disclosed and discussed in the EIS for the Project.

I. NECESSARY ELEMENTS FOR PROJECT EIS or that need to be answered in an EA:

- Disclose the acreages of past, current, and reasonably foreseeable logging, grazing, and road-building activities within the Project area;
- Solicit and disclose comments from the Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife regarding the impact of the Project on wildlife habitat;
- Solicit and disclose comments from the Washington Department of Environmental Quality regarding the impact of the Project on water quality;
- Disclose the biological assessment for the candidate, threatened, or endangered species with potential and/or actual habitat in the Project area;
- Disclose the biological evaluation for the sensitive and management indicator species with potential and/or actual habitat in the Project area;
- Disclose the snag densities in the Project area, and the method used to determine those densities;

- Disclose the current, during-project, and post-project road densities in the Project area;
- Disclose the Colville National Forest's record of compliance with state best management practices regarding stream sedimentation from ground-disturbing management activities;
- Disclose the Colville National Forest's record of compliance with its monitoring requirements as set forth in its Forest Plan;
- Disclose the Colville National Forest's record of compliance with the additional monitoring requirements set forth in previous DN/FONSI and RODs on the Colville National Forest;
- Disclose the results of the field surveys for threatened, endangered, sensitive, and rare plants in each of the proposed units;
- Disclose the level of current noxious weed infestations in the Project area and the cause of those infestations;

- Disclose the impact of the Project on noxious weed infestations and native plant communities;
 - Disclose the timeline for implementation;
 - Disclose if the project complies with the Forest Service standards for big game security and thermal cover;
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- . Disclose the amount of big game (moose and elk) hiding cover, winter range, and security currently available in the area;
 - . Disclose the amount of big game (moose and elk) hiding cover, winter range, and security during Project implementation;
 - . Disclose the amount of big game (moose and elk) hiding cover, winter range, and security after implementation;
 - . Disclose the method used to determine big game hiding cover, winter range, and security, and its rate of error as determined by field review;
 - . Disclose and address the concerns expressed by the ID Team in the draft Five-Year Review of the Forest Plan regarding the failure to monitor population trends of

MIS and the failure to compile data to establish a reliable inventory of sensitive species on the Forest;

. Disclose how Project complies with the Roadless Rule;

Please include a complete cost benefit analysis for the project.

Please consult with the Washington State Historic Preservation Office to ensure the project complies with the National Historic Preservation Act.

Please formally consult with the FWS on the impact of this project on wolverines, lynx, lynx critical habitat, grizzly bears, bull trout and bull trout critical habitat.

CANADA LYNX VIABILITY

There have been two groundbreaking articles about lynx. “Correlates of Canada Lynx Reproductive Success in Northwestern Montana” by Megan K. Kosterman.

And “Understanding and predicting habitat for wildlife conservation: the case of Canada lynx at the range periphery” by HOLBROOK et al that confirms Kosterman’s findings.

Does the action alternative comply with Kosterman and Holbrook’s recommendations?

Page 29 of the EA states: “Shelterwood harvest (Unit 1) would create an opening on approximately 87 acres of the mapped lynx range.”

Why haven’t you given the public a 60 day notice to comment on openings bigger than 40 acres?

Have you sought approval from the Regional office for openings great than 40 acres?

How many openings over 40 acres are proposed?

1) USFS needs to take a hard look at impacts to lynx under NEPA, apply the lynx conservation measures and standards of the NRLMD, and consult on lynx via section 7 of the ESA b/c the best available science -- including recent tracking surveys conducted by WTU -- confirm lynx's presence and use of the area;

(3) USFS has failed to survey for lynx as required by the Biolog-

ical Opinion on the Northern Rockies Lynx Management Direction (NRLMD).

In order to meet the requirements of the FS/USFWS Conservation Agreement, the FS agreed to insure that all project activities are consistent with the Lynx Conservation Assessment and Strategy (LCAS).

LCAS requirements include:

Project planning—standards.

1. Within each LAU, map lynx habitat. Identify potential denning habitat and foraging habitat (primarily snowshoe hare habitat, but also habitat for important alternate prey such as red squirrels), and topographic features that may be important for lynx movement (major ridge systems, prominent saddles, and riparian corridors). Also identify non-forest vegetation (meadows), shrub-grassland communities, etc.) adjacent to and intermixed with forested lynx habitat that may provide habitat for alternate lynx prey species.

2. Within a LAU, maintain denning habitat in patches generally larger than 5 acres, comprising at least 10 percent of lynx habitat. Where less than 10 percent denning habitat is currently present within a LAU, defer any management actions that would delay development of denning habitat structure.

3. Maintain habitat connectivity within and between LAUs.

Programmatic planning-standards.

1. Conservation measures will generally apply only to lynx habitat on federal lands within LAUs.

2. Lynx habitat will be mapped using criteria specific to each geographic area to identify appropriate vegetation and environmental conditions. Primary vegetation includes those types necessary to support lynx reproduction and survival. It is recognized that other vegetation types that are intermixed with the primary vegetation will be used by lynx, but are considered to contribute to lynx habitat only where associated with the primary vegetation. Refer to glossary and description for each geographic area.
3. To facilitate project planning, delineate LAUs. To allow for assessment of the potential effects on an individual lynx, LAUs should be at least the size of area used by a resident lynx and contain sufficient year-round habitat.
4. To be effective for the intended purposes of planning and monitoring, LAU boundaries will not be adjusted for individual projects, but must remain constant.
5. Prepare a broad-scale assessment of landscape patterns that compares historical and current ecological processes and vegetation patterns, such as age-class distributions and patch size characteristics. In the absence of guidance developed from such an assessment, limit disturbance within each as follows: if more than 30 percent of lynx habitat within an LAU is currently in unsuitable condition, no further reduction of suitable conditions shall occur as a result of vegetation management activities by federal agencies.

Project planning-standards.

1. Management actions (e.g., timber sales, salvage sales) shall not change more than 15 percent of lynx habitat within a LAU to an unsuitable condition within a 10- year period.

Programmatic planning-standards.

1. Identify key linkage areas that may be important in providing landscape connectivity within and between geographic areas, across all ownerships.
2. Develop and implement a plan to protect key linkage areas on federal lands from activities that would create barriers to movement. Barriers could result from an accumulation of incremental projects, as opposed to any one project.

Please demonstrate that project activities are consistent with above and all other applicable programmatic and project requirements.

The U.S. Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit hold that “[o]nce an agency is aware that an endangered species may be present in the area of its proposed action, the ESA requires it to prepare a biological assessment” *Thomas v. Peterson*, 753 F. 2d 754, 763 (9thCir. 1985). If the biological assessment concludes that the proposed action “may affect” but will “not adversely affect” a threatened or endangered species, the action agency must consult informally with the appropriate expert agency. 50 C.F.R. §§ 402.14 (b)(1), 402.12(k)(1).

Canada lynx are listed under the ESA.

Canada lynx may be present in the project area and the proposed project may affect lynx by temporarily increasing road density, removing vegetative cover, and engaging in mechanized activities that could displace lynx.

Please complete a biological assessment for lynx and formally consult with USFWS regarding the project's potential impacts on lynx.

Grizzly Bears

In May 2019, the United Nations released a report finding that the current rate of species extinction “is already at least tens to hundreds of times higher than it has averaged over the past 10 million years.”¹ The mountain caribou in the lower 48 states went extinct just a few months ago. Like the Selkirk grizzly bear, the mountain caribou lived primarily on National Forest land, had a population of less than 50 individuals, and was threatened by logging and roads.

Alliance reiterates this point here because the agencies issued similar assurances regarding the mountain caribou that they now issue for the Selkirk grizzly bear. For example, in litigation to protect the mountain caribou in this Court, the agencies represented that they would “meet caribou needs” by using the best available science and applying forest plan protections, and not approving logging projects unless they concluded that the project was “not likely to adversely affect” the mountain caribou. *Jayne v. Sherman*, 706 F.3d 994, 1001 (9th Cir.2013)(quoting FWS Biological Opinion).

In *Jayne*, these statements were accepted as adequate protections for the mountain caribou. Now the mountain caribou is extinct. It is not too late to avoid the same fate for the Selkirk grizzly bear. As members of Congress stated when

¹https://www.ipbes.net/sites/default/files/downloads/sp-m_unedited_advance_for_posting_htn.pdf

they passed the ESA: “The agencies of Government can no longer plead that they can do nothing about [the grizzly bear]. They can, and they must. The law is clear.” *Tennessee Valley Auth. v. Hill*, 437 U.S. 153, 184 (1978) (quoting Congressional Record).

The preservation of endangered species takes “priority over the ‘primary missions’ of federal agencies.” Accordingly, courts must “afford[] endangered species the highest of priorities,” and act with “institutionalized caution” when reviewing ESA cases. *Cottonwood Env'tl. Law Ctr. v. USFS*, 789 F.3d 1075, 1091 (9th Cir.2015). This Court holds that the “fundamental principle [of institutionalized caution] remains intact and will continue to guide district courts when confronted with requests for injunctive relief in ESA cases.” *Id.* Although the district court did not apply this fundamental principle in this case, this Court may now remedy that error by issuing a temporary injunction pending appeal to preserve the status quo until a final decision is issued on the merits.

Page 23 of the Black Ram EA states:

Measures implemented beginning in the 1990s for protection of the threatened grizzly bear have decreased the amount of road available for motorized public travel and management activities, while increasing security for grizzly bears as well as other wildlife species. The creation of grizzly bear core security areas has resulted in roughly 66 percent of the NFS lands on the Dis-

trict being unavailable to motorized travel during the active bear year.

The Access Amendment is the product of years of public interest litigation on behalf of the imperiled Selkirk grizzly bear. The well-established scientific consensus is that roads pose the most imminent risk to this grizzly population. Ninety percent of this population's Recovery Zone habitat is located on public National Forest lands. Thus, the federal government has the power to limit road density for grizzly bear protection on the vast majority of its habitat and thereby prevent the extinction of this grizzly population. Ostensibly, this is the purpose of the Access Amendment.

However, since the Access Amendment was approved in 2011, the U.S. Forest Service has prepared multiple years of monitoring reports regarding its implementation of road closures in grizzly habitat. These monitoring reports establish that these road closures are routinely violated and therefore ineffective: members of the public regularly ignore signs, drive around gates or earthen berms, remove obstructions such as boulders or logs, or simply create their own new motorized routes.

Although these monitoring reports are only required for the Recovery Zone, there are incidental observations in these reports regarding closure violations found in grizzly habitat outside of the Recovery Zone, in the government-designated "Bears Outside Recovery Zone" or "BORZ" areas.

In 2017, Alliance hired its own investigators to determine whether there were road closure violations in these areas.

Due to time and funding constraints, this initial investigation was limited in scope to the Tobacco and Clark Fork “Bears Outside Recovery Zone” areas. As a result of one visit to each required closure device in these two areas, the investigators discovered numerous failed closure devices, roads that were categorized as closed but were open upon inspection, and illegal user-created roads that were simply unaccounted for in the Forest Service road databases. Thus, the independent investigation confirms the fact that these road closures are routinely violated both inside and outside the Recovery Zone.

The recurring problem of road closure failures undermines the foundation of the Access Amendment management regime, which relies on these road closures to achieve certain densities of open and total roads both inside and outside the Recovery Zone. The agencies must address this problem and its impacts in an updated ESA consultation for the Access Amendment. The agencies must also address this problem and its impact in an updated ESA consultation and in the Sweet-Ione project and is another reason that an EIS should be written for the Sweet-Ione Project.

When the CNF can not ensure that close roads remain closed, will this project just increase the miles of motorized roads in grizzly bear habitat?

How many road closure violations have been issued in the Ramger District in the last 5 years?

How does the FP comply with the “best available science” on grizzly recovery, or the 2012 Planning Rule that required Forest to emphasize “Connectivity?”

The majority of the Selkirk Grizzly Bear Ecosystem – 90% – is National Forest land, managed by the Forest Service. 64 Fed. Reg. 26725, 26728 (May 17, 1999). In terms of all of the human uses that affect grizzly bears, “[r]oads probably pose the most imminent threat to grizzly habitat today []. The management of roads is one of the most powerful tools available to balance the needs of people with the needs of bears.” Accordingly, the U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service (FWS) states: “It is strongly recommended that road management be given the highest priority within all recovery zones.” Roads pose a threat to grizzly bears because roads provide humans with access into grizzly bear habitat, which leads to direct bear mortality from accidental shootings and intentional poachings.

Human access also leads to indirect bear mortality by creating circumstances in which bears become habituated to human food and are later killed by wildlife managers. Human access also results in indirect mortality by displacing grizzly bears from good habitat into areas that provide sub-optimal habitat conditions.

Displacement may have long term effects: “Females who have learned to avoid roads may also teach their cubs to avoid roads. In this way, learned avoidance behavior can persist for several

generations of bears before they again utilize habitat associated with closed roads.” Both open and closed roads displace grizzly bears: “grizzlies avoided roaded areas even where existing roads were officially closed to public use []. Females with cubs remained primarily in high, rocky, marginal habitat far from roads. Avoidance behavior by bears of illegal vehicular traffic, foot traffic, and/or authorized use behind road closures may account for the lack of use of areas near roads by female grizzly bears in this area.

This research demonstrated that a significant portion of the habitat in the study area apparently remained unused by female grizzlies for several years. Since adult females are the most important segment of the population, this lack of use of both open-roaded and closed-roaded areas is significant to the population.” In addition to having a significant impact on female grizzly bears, displacement may also negatively impact the survival rates of grizzly cubs: “survivorship of the offspring of females that lived in unroaded, high elevation habitat was lower than that recorded in other study areas in the [Northern Continental Divide Ecosystem].

The majority of this mortality was due to natural factors related to the dangers of living in steep, rocky habitats. This is important in that the effects of road avoidance may result not only in higher mortality along roads and in avoidance of and lack of use of the resources along roads, but in the survival of young when their mothers are forced to live in less favorable areas away from roads.”

Current peer-reviewed science still finds that roads have the most significant impact on grizzly bear survival: “[o]f all the covariates we examined, the amount of secure habitat and the density of roads in nonsecure habitat on public lands had the greatest effect on grizzly bear survival.”

Roads, even if nominally “temporary,” can still have long-lasting generational displacement effects on grizzly bears because females teach their cubs to avoid these areas.

These roads can therefore result in direct mortality, indirect mortality, and reduced cub survival. When applied to an extremely small, endangered² population of fewer than 50 individuals that is already experiencing high mortality rates, failing recovery targets, and hovering at less than half the numbers needed for viability, these harms are amplified and create a great cause for concern for Alliance’s members. Neither the “imminent harm” posed by roads nor the dire status of this population are acknowledged by the agencies.

It is misleading to state that this population is merely “threatened.” The District of Montana vacated FWS’s rule finding that endangered status was not warranted and “reinstate[d] the FWS’s November 2013 warranted but precluded finding.” *All. for the Wild Rockies v. Zinke*, 265 F. Supp. 3d 1161, 1181 (D. Mont. 2017). Thus, the population is currently warranted for listing as an endangered species, but it is still on the waiting list.

The project will not maintaining and enhancing grizzly habitat and will increase the potential for grizzly-human conflicts in violation of NFMA, NEPA, the APA and the ESA.

The Forest does not have a good track record of keeping closed roads closed. The Forest Service does not disclose the road mileage behind these ineffective closures; therefore it is unclear how many miles of additional open and total roads must be added to the existing condition calculations as a result of these ineffective closures.

In a recent Ninth Circuit Opinion, the court found that the Forest Service had failed to establish whether similar “undetermined” roads of unknown origin caused an increase above the Tobacco BORZ baseline:

The error cannot be treated as harmless in light of the ambiguity in the record as to whether the “undetermined” roads at issue were, in fact, included in the Access Amendments baseline calculation.

There are at least three problems with the CNF’s record of amount of roads. First, because “undetermined” is a sub-category of “unauthorized” roads, it is possible that the particular undetermined roads at issue in this case were created—without authorization from the Forest Service—in the interim between the measurement of the Access Amendments baseline and the Forest Service’s survey of existing roads for the Project.

All. for the Wild Rockies v. Savage, 897 F.3d 1025, 1036, n.18 (9th Cir. 2018). In light of these circumstances that (1) road closures/barriers are regularly breached but the Forest Service conducts no systematic monitoring to determine how many miles of illegal road use are occurring behind barriers each year, and (2) the Forest Service simply ignores illegal “undetermined” roads

and does not include them in its calculations for open or total roads in the annual monitoring reports, the open and total road numbers in the monitoring reports are not accurately reflecting the conditions on the ground. It is therefore reasonable to assume that the baselines in the project area regularly exceeded because the reported conditions hover at or near the baseline.

Chronic recurring road closure breaches cannot reasonably be construed as “temporary;” and illegal road use does not fall within the scope of Access Amendment “temporary” roads.

The Forest Service and FWS have acknowledge that road closure breaches (and resulting illegal road use) are not addressed in the Access Amendment. Nonetheless, the agencies argue that all road closure breaches regardless of whether they are chronically recurring and regardless of how long they last on the landscape must be construed as “temporary” road increases. Onto this premise, the agencies then bootstrap an additional argument that because certain specific types of temporary roads were addressed in the Access Amendment, that discussion must also apply to “temporary” road increases from illegal road use.

First, it is not reasonable to construe recurring illegal road use as “temporary” road density increases. The monitoring reports indicate that public users may repeatedly breach the same closure year after year. See, e.g., AR42:000059-62 (noting that boulders placed in 2015 have been removed and unauthorized users are again circumventing gate on Road 2236). Moreover, the Forest Service may take years to act on known violations. See, e.g., AR42:000061 (“The Clatter Creek gate (268) was included on

the 2015 gate repair contract but after the bids came in the Clatter Creek gate was dropped due to repair costs for all gate repairs exceeding available funding. In BY2016 the gate remained damaged and ineffective.”); see also AR43:000081-82 (note 2) (during planning for the Hanna Flats logging project, the Forest Service found illegal motorized use on 15.7 miles of road that were not included in the baseline but the agency postponed remedial action until implementation of the logging project; in the 2018 monitoring report, the agency concedes it has still not yet eliminated this illegal use); see also AR232:000767 (finding that four barriers did not effectively prevent motorized use but deferring any action to fix the problems).

Thus, while the Forest Service insists that all breaches are temporary, those same breaches may be recurring or may have lasted for many years prior to discovery and remedial action, resulting in a chronic situation. The situation with the BORZ is a good illustration of this problem. Although the Forest Service insists that it fixes all breaches as soon as possible, nonetheless at least four out of seven BORZ areas chronically fail to meet both the open and total road baseline conditions from the Access Amendment, as shown above in the table in Section B.

Second, even assuming that illegal road use could be construed as “temporary,” it still does not have the same effect as lawful temporary road use. A breach of a closure device that results in public motorized use in effect results in an open road. The Access Amendment severely restricts temporary increases in open

roads: “immediately following completion of all mechanized harvest and post- harvest slash activities requiring use of the road, to allow motorized public use during the bear summer season prior to the fall bear hunt (i.e., June 16 - August 31) for activities such as personal firewood collection. This public access would only be provided in cases where the mechanized harvest and/or post-harvest slash activities occurred during the same active bear year.”

Thus, temporary increases in open roads are limited to a June 16-August 31 window, and may only occur in the same year in which logging activities have already occurred and used that particular road, presumably because grizzlies would have already been displaced from those areas. In contrast, illegal motorized use behind road closure breaches is not limited to a June 16-August 31 window, and is not limited to a single year entry on a road along and on which logging activities have already been occurring.

Moreover, illegal road use would also constitute an increase in total roads. However, temporary increases in total roads are only permitted if the roads are “effectively” gated to prevent public use during a project, (2) after project use, the roads are treated so as to “effectively prevent[] motorized access” and require no motorized access for maintenance for at least 10 years, and (3) upon project completion, the area is “returned to or below the baseline levels contained in Table 16” of the Access Amendment ROD. Obviously a road that has illegal road use is not “effectively” gated to prevent public use.

Thus, illegal road use does not comply with the restrictions set for lawful increases in temporary roads neither open nor closed in the Access Amendment and therefore cannot possibly have the same effects. It is simply implausible that unlimited illegal road use occurring at any time in any location would have the same effect on grizzly bears as Access Amendment temporary roads that are significantly restricted in both timing and location. Indeed, illegal road use is illegal precisely because the Forest Service has already closed these specific roads to protect grizzly bears. If illegal motorized use occurs on these roads that were closed to protect grizzly bears, it may displace grizzly bears from areas that they would otherwise not be displaced from.

2017 DNA sampling identified only 44 individual bears. 1 Specifically, the recent sampling identified 20 females and 24 males, with 23 bears in the Cabinets and 21 bears in the Yaak portion of the ecosystem.

Recognizing that the grizzly bear population in the Cabinets portion of the ecosystem is likely much smaller than the estimated population for the entire ecosystem, we are likely looking at a much larger percentage of the population being seriously impacted during the life because of this project.

Because of the serious impacts to grizzly bears, please demonstrate compliance with Forest Plan standards relevant to grizzly bears, and analyze the direct, indirect, and cumulative impacts to grizzly bears.

The Forest Service must comply with National Forest Management Act (“NFMA”) and its implementing regulations. NFMA requires the Forest Service to ensure that site-specific management projects are consistent with the applicable forest plan. 16 U.S.C. § 1604(i). Thus, the Forest Service must ensure that all aspects of the proposed action comply with the Colville National Forest Land Management Plan.

The Grizzly Bear Access Amendment set standards for open motorized route density (“OMRD”), total motorized route density (“TMRD”), and retention of core grizzly bear habitat within the Selkirk and Selkirk Recovery Zones bear management units. The Forest Service must comply with the Access Amendment TMRD standards during and after project implementation, if not the project directly violates NFMA.

Dr. David Mattson makes the following points.

The assessment of prospective effects of the this project on grizzly bears in the is premised on several critical assumptions. First, status of the Selkirk grizzly bear population is assumed to have improved since 2012. Second, and related, the CNF assumes that some erosion of security for grizzly bears is therefore permissible, conditioned on a related assumption that security and road access standards employed by the Colville National Forest (NF) are sufficient for recovery of grizzly bears in this ecosystem.

All of these assumptions are unwarranted.

Briefly:

- The weight of available evidence does not support concluding that population status has improved. For one, the methods used to estimate trend and current population size are beset with a host of problems. For another, the information able to be distilled from demographic data suggests that any improvement has stalled since 2014.
- Variations in population size and trajectory between 1999 and 2010 are more likely attributable to variations in abundance of natural foods—berries in particular—that affect exposure of bears to humans rather than to any increased mitigations. During years of scant berries, bears likely forage more widely and more often end up in conflict situations or exposed to malicious killing.
- The population of grizzly bears in the Yaak/Yahk is far smaller than even the smallest size posited to be viable by any researcher. Related, the population remains acutely vulnerable to even the smallest increases in bear mortality that are predictably more likely to occur with any increase in road access and associated human activity.



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- Malicious and other unjustified killing by humans remains the dominant cause of death for grizzly bears in the Selkirk Ecosystem. These kinds of killings are predictably associated with roads. As a result, levels of road access need to be substantially reduced and related levels of habitat security substantially increased rather than the opposite, as is being proposed for the Sweet-Ione Project.
- Road density and habitat security standards used by the Colville NF are patently deficient, partly because they are based on research that conflates behavioral phenomena such as avoidance and displacement with demographic phenomena, notably survival. The scale is wrong as well, given that exposure to mortality hazards logically accrues over years as a consequence of cumulative annual movements of bears vis-à-vis hazardous environs. As a corollary, the fact that standards on the Colville NF are more lax than

standards on the Flathead NF is self-evidently nonsensical given that grizzly bears in the Selkirk Ecosystem remain in a much more precarious status compared to grizzly bears in the Northern Continental Divide Ecosystem.

- There is little or no evidence that food abundance is a significantly limiting factor for grizzly bears in the Selkirk Ecosystem—especially as manifest in reproduction. On the other hand, there is ample evidence that human-caused mortality had governed and continues to govern the fate of this population, with food effects manifest primarily in the extent to which grizzly bears are exposed to human-related hazards during years when berries are in shorter supply.
- Compounding prospective problems with the project, proposed activities are concentrated in an area that is vital for facilitating movement of grizzly bears between core habitats. Project activities will diminish rather than enhance security needed not only to facilitate transit of bears, but also increase odds that exposed bears will survive. In short, the Sweet-Ione project promises to harm grizzly bears in the Selkirk Ecosystem.

A.1. The 2.1% Per Annum Growth Rate for the Selkirk Population is Not Justified or Applicable

Use of a 2.1% per annum growth rate to project total size of the Selkirk population from the Kendall et al. (2016) 2012 point estimate, as was done by Kasworm et al (2018), is not defensible. Such use is, moreover, guaranteed to produce spurious results that cannot legitimately be used to reach conclusions of management relevance. There are several unambiguous reasons.

A.1.a. The growth rate is not representative of the total population

First, the estimated 2.1% per annum growth rate only applies to an unknown fraction of the total Selkirk grizzly bear population. Vital rates used to estimate this growth rate were based solely on “native” or “natural” research-trapped bears, and expressly excluded bears captured because of conflicts or part of the augmentation program (Kasworm et al. 2018: 10). The growth rate, moreover, applies almost exclusively to the Yaak portion of the population given that 95% of the data used to estimate survival rates and 85% of the data used to estimate reproductive rates came from this subpopulation (ibid: 36)—protestations by the authors notwithstanding (ibid: 36). On top of this, the 2.1% per annum rate was estimated only for the female portion of this high-grade (ibid: 10), which is of consequence even though female survival is disproportionately important in determining growth rate, as such.

In other words, the 2.1% per annum growth rate can only be legitimately applied to females residing in the Yaak subpopulation that were not trapped and marked as a result of conflicts nor part

of the augmentation program. Put another way, management-trapped bears, augmentation bears, and males would need to be represented in a modeling framework if any estimated population growth rate were to be *prima facie* representative of the total population. Moreover, if the fates of all such bears were to be considered, estimated population growth rate would almost certainly be lower given that survival rates of males, augmentation bears, and management bears are substantially less than survival rates of the females used to estimate the 2.1% per annum growth rate (ibid: 33-35).

If a growth rate were to be used to project a total population estimate, comparable to the Kendall et al. 2012 point estimate of 49 bears (95% CI = 44-62), then such a growth rate would need to represent birth and death rates of the total population, and apply specifically to the period of interest (e.g., 2012-2017) rather than a longer period of time that masks the relevant trajectory (see my point below).

A.1.b. The growth rate does not represent 2012-2017

The 2.1% per annum growth rate used by Kasworm et al to project 2017 population size was calculated using data that span 1983-2017 and so, therefore, axiomatically represent a generalized growth rate for Yaak females during this lengthy 35-year period. Put another way, the 2.1% per annum growth is not an estimate of growth for the period 2012-2017. For it to be so, the rate would have necessarily been estimated only using data from the approximate 2012-2017 period.

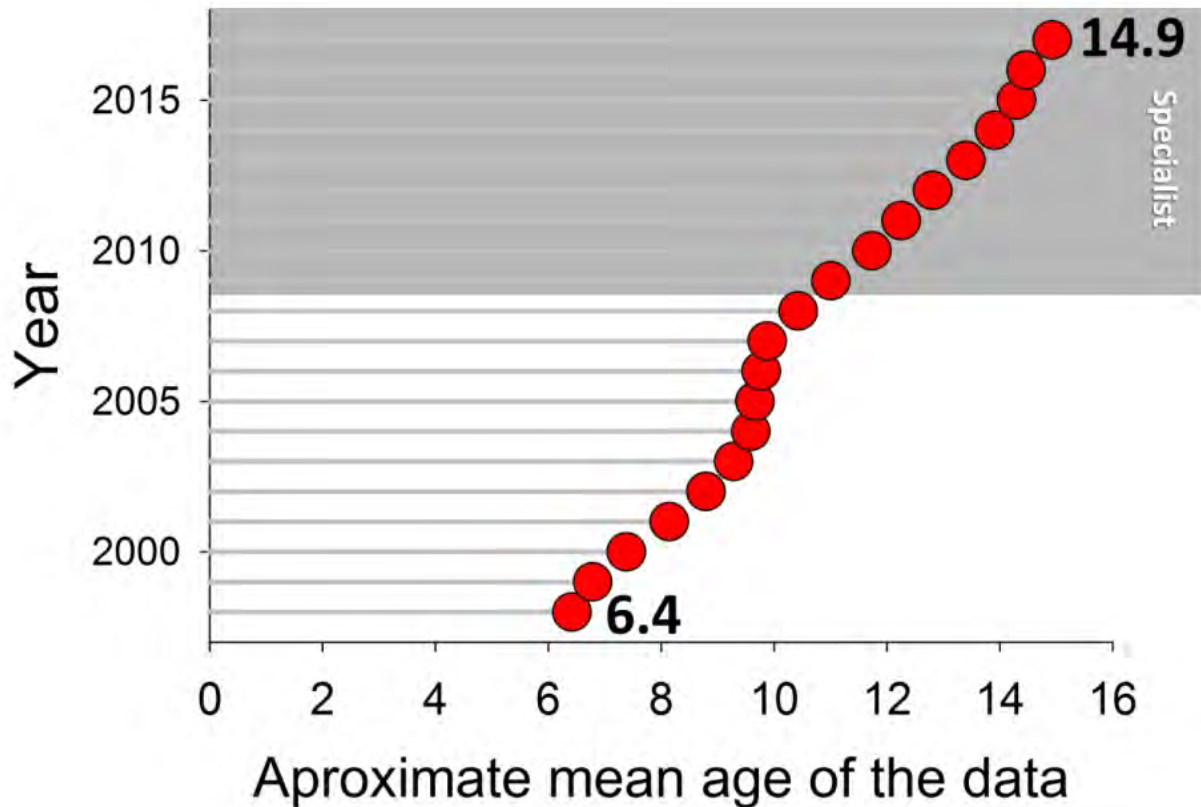
More to the point, estimates of growth for the Yaak female population are increasing back-weighted by inclusion of data that are, on average, increasingly old. Figure 1 (herein) shows the approximate average age of data used to calculate vital rates with the passage of time (from *ibid*: Table 17, 40-42). Notice that average age has increased from around 6-7 years in 1998 to nearer 15 years in 2017. In other words, with the progression of time estimates of population growth for the female segment of the Yaak population have become increasingly irrelevant to judging current population trajectory.

The Government retort to these contentions would probably be that the data from such a short period of time would be so sparse as to preclude a usefully accurate estimate. That is almost certainly the case, and a commentary in its own right on the profound limitations imposed by intrinsically small sample sizes. Nonetheless, this does not negate the point that the 2.1% per annum growth rate for 1983-2017 is spurious when applied to the 2012-2017 period. As Figure 11 clearly suggests (*ibid*: 37), population growth rate has almost certainly varied over time, albeit in largely indeterminate ways (see my following point).

Figure 1. Trend in mean age of data used to calculate vital rates of Selkirk grizzly bears with passage of years from 1998 to 2017. Mean age has more than doubled, with trend towards increased aging accelerating since deployment of a conflict management specialist in the ecosystem. Increasing age renders estimated vital rates increasingly irrelevant to current conditions.

A.1.c. Uncertainty of the growth rate as currently (or even ideally) calculated debars use

Small sample sizes impose very real constraints on the precision and accuracy of all demographic rates being used by Selkirk researchers and managers. These constraints follow ineluctably from the small size of the Selkirk grizzly bear population, which is a non-negotiable feature of this ecosystem.



As a practical upshot, all of the population growth rates calculated to date have uncertainty intervals (e.g., 95% confidence intervals) that not only substantially overlap zero (i.e., no growth) but also, over time, each other. More specifically, despite purporting to show trend in cumulative growth rate over time, the confidence intervals shown in Figure 10 (ibid: 37) all overlap—most almost completely (see also Figure 2A herein). Because of this, there is little or no basis for concluding that growth rate has

varied with time. Likewise, taking a precautionary approach, there is little or no justifiable basis for concluding that growth rate is currently positive, despite statements in Kasworm et al. such as “The probability that the population was stable or increasing was 73%” (ibid: 36), especially in light of the fact that the point estimate of 2.1% per annum is a cumulative rate spanning 1983-2016 with little or no known relationship to current rate of population increase or decline.

Moreover, when the totality of point estimates and uncertainty is taken into consideration for the period 1998-2017, there is a cumulative 62% probability that the population was declining during these 19 years, consistent with the 2017 estimate of population size for Yaak females still being around 52% less than the estimate of population size for 1998 (Figure 2A and 2B herein).

The implications of uncertainty are thrown into relief by examining the specifics of projecting population size forward in time from 1983 to 2017 using the 1.021 (95% CI = 0.949-1.087) growth rate, noting up front that uncertainty in annual growth rate magnifies exponentially over time when manifest in population size. For example, after back-casting to obtain a plausible 1983 population starting point, deterministic projections of population size using the upper and lower confidence intervals of growth allow for a current population (2017) of anywhere between 3 and 256. Stochastic projections, e.g., using the software RISKMAN, generate a similar and not particularly useful range of 4 to 154 individuals.

The point here is that the raw cumulative uncertainty is huge, especially when dealing with a time period as long as 1983-2017. It is also important to note that this exercise takes

the 1.021 estimate of λ at face value, which, as per my previous points, is unwarranted.

Related to this last point, the current basis for modeling population growth rate using Booter (ibid: 10- 11) is egregiously simplistic given the self-evident structural complexity of grizzly bear population demography in the Selkirk Ecosystem. For any estimate of growth rate to be realistic, explanatory, relevant, and accurate, all of the main structure needs to be accommodated. More specifically, a relevant demographic model would ideally include source-sink structures accounting for management-trapped versus research-trapped bears, bears in the Yaak area versus the Cabinet Mountains, augmentation bears versus in situ bears—in addition to accounting for the male segment as well as inter-annual variation attributable to variation in key food resources (see later). The model described in Kasworm et al. does none of this.

Again, the probable retort would be that sample sizes are too small to support estimating the many rates required for such a model. But that is, indeed, the point. And no amount of hand-waving or protest will make it otherwise nor redeem the deficiencies in current estimates of demographic rates. The uncertainty is real and unavoidable, and should be acknowledged in management decision-making.

A.2. Even taking estimated growth rate at face value, current population status is problematic

Even taking the population growth rate estimated by Kasworm et al. at face value, the most defensible conclusions would be,

first, that status of the population has worsened during 2014-2017 compared to 2006-2013, and, second, that numbers are still substantially less than the presumed peak reached around 1998. These conclusions are based on trend in population growth rate over time (as per *ibid*: 37), and trend in population size estimated by projections using year-specific cumulative population growth rates (e.g., projecting population size for 1998 using the 1983-1998 growth rate estimate, and then doing the same for each successive year, with 1983 the starting year throughout).

Figure 2 (herein) shows seminal results. In Figure 2A I've identified three periods typified by trends in population growth: rapid decline of 2% per annum during 1998-2006, coincident with the berry famine (see below); a nearly as rapid 1.1% rate of improvement during 2006-2014; followed by stalling in the rate of improvement to around 0.2% per annum since 2014—an 82% decline in rate of change—coincident with population growth rate finally reaching positive territory. Importantly, this refers to the per annum rate of deterioration or improvement in population trajectory, which is perhaps the most relevant information to be gleaned from the estimates of population growth rate presented by Kasworm et al.

Finally, Figure 2B (herein) shows trend in estimated size of the Yaak female population, both as a central tendency (dark green line) as well as bounding uncertainty (light green band, based on projections using the upper and lower confidence intervals for each cumulative estimate of growth rate). Parenthetically, I transformed the values to a natural log scale in Figure 2B to visually emphasize trends given that the bounds of uncertainty ex-

plode with projections increasingly farther forward in time. The take-away point is that, according to these values, population size peaked during 1998, reached a nadir during the height of the berry famine in 2006, increased through 2014, and then stalled during 2015-2017 at a size that was still around 52% less than peak numbers reached during 1998.

The key points here are that improvement in status of the female segment of the Yaak population stalled beginning in 2014 at numbers that were still approximately 52% less than the peak reached during 1998. Having said this, both of these conclusions remain severely compromised by the intrinsic uncertainties, lack of relevance, and bias of methods used by Kasworm et al.

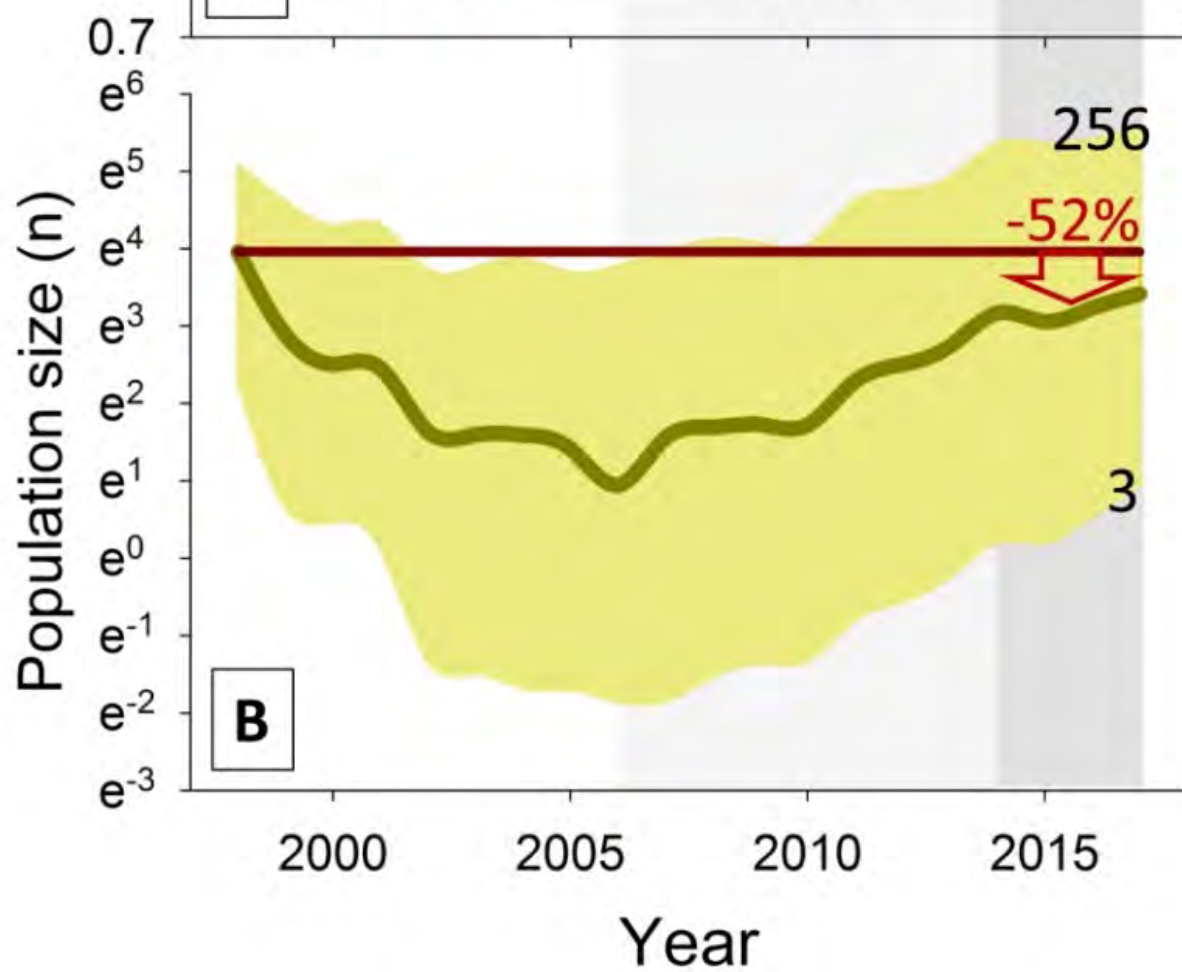
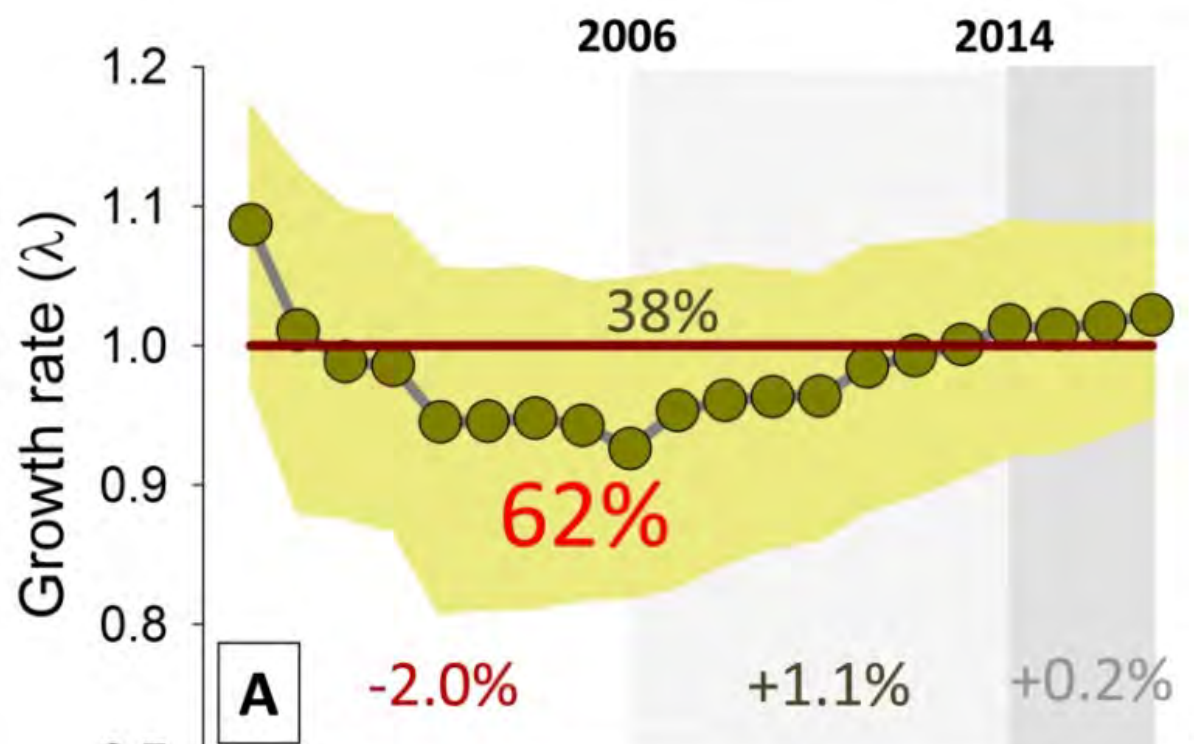
A.3. Conclusion

The upshot of all this is that there is no legitimate basis for estimating current population size (e.g., 55- 60) by applying a biased 1983-2017 growth rate—based on high-graded data representing only a fraction of the population—to a point population estimate made during 2012. Moreover, even taken at face value, the current cumulative population growth rate shows stalled improvement in population status and a population still substantially less than peak numbers reached during 1998.

The best that can be perhaps be invoked is a contrast between the presumed minimum estimate of 35 bears during 2014-2017 (ibid: 27) and the 2012 estimate of 49 (44-62) bears reported by Kendall et al.

(2016). The estimate of 35 for 2014-2016 is self-evidently less than the lower bound of the 2012 confidence interval, more consistent with a static or even declining population than with an increasing one. Of greater relevance to the draft EIS, this general conclusion also holds for comparisons specific to the Cabinet population (a current minimum of 13 bears compared to lower confidence intervals of around 20 reported by Kendall et al. for 2012).

Figure 2. Trend in estimated population growth rate (A) and related estimated total population size (B) for Selkirk grizzly bears, with the notable proviso that both sets of estimates are based almost wholly on data obtained from female grizzly bears in the Yaak population. Dark green dots or lines denote central tendencies, large green bands bounds of uncertainty. The horizontal dark red line in (A) denotes no growth, with any values above leading to increase and any values below leading to decline. The red line in (B) corresponds with estimated population size in 1998. In (A) I also show the cumulative weight of evidence for population declines versus increases for 1998-2017 along with average annual rates of change in λ during three periods characterized by non-stationary shifts in dynamics. The numbers at right in (B) correspond to the range in estimated population size given uncertainties in growth rate (3-256), as well as the deviance in current estimated population size from the 1998 benchmark.



B. Comparison of Pooled Survival Rates in Kasworm et al. (2018) is Not Legitimate

As ancillary support for the proposition that size of the Selkirk population has increased between 1999-2006 and 2007-2017, Kasworm et al state that “Grizzly bear survival of all sex and age classes decreased from 0.899 during 1983–1998 to 0.792 during 1999–2006 and then rose to 0.934” (ibid: 34), and then summarize these same numbers in Table 13 (ibid: 34).

Most of the problems and associated bias noted above applies to this comparison. Note, first, that the 95% confidence intervals reported in Table 13 for pooled estimates from all three time periods overlap, which precludes confidently concluding there is any difference in mean rates. Moreover, note the restriction to “native” bears, which excludes any consideration of conflict-trapped or augmentation bears, which were very much a component of the 2012 point estimate of population size.

The other problematic aspect of this comparison is that data from all bear sex and age-classes were pooled, without any apparent attempt to determine whether this collapse of data preserves representation of the population at large. Are males over- or under-represented?...likewise subadults versus adults? Some sort of weighting scheme reflective of current or even stable population structure could provide some remedy, but without compensating for other biases.

The other interesting aspect of this data-pooling is the extent to which it is at odds with other results and commentary in Kasworm et al. More specifically, this aggregation of data ignores

the disproportionate importance of subadult females to population dynamics. This importance is evident in the near 85% variance in estimated population trend attributed to survival of subadult and adult female bears in Booter calculations (but with 60% attributable to subadult female survival, Table 15; *ibid*: 37), as well as the different contextual emphasis placed by the authors on female survival on Pages 32 (“...it is important to consider the rate of female mortality”) and 37.

The implication of all this is that the comparison of survival rates estimated from pooled data presented by Kasworm et al on Pages 33 and 34 does not mitigate the many fatal problems with their estimates of population growth rate.

C. Comparison of Annual Average Deaths in Kasworm et al. (2018) is Uninformative

Kasworm et al. (2018) present information on grizzly bear deaths in the Selkirk Ecosystem in terms of numerous contrasts and adjustments presumably designed to be of relevance to various management deliberations. On pages 15-16 a running average of annual mortalities is related to recovery criteria; on pages 16-18 a full list of deaths with ancillary details is provided; and on pages 31- 33 mortality is summarized in multiple ways presumably relative to different management considerations.

Throughout, the parsing, categories, and nomenclature are confusing, obfuscated, and confounded. As a result, I needed to reconstruct much of the analysis of mortalities presented by

Kasworm from the raw data on pages 16-18. The contrast among time periods presented in Table 11 (ibid: 33) was a particular focus.

C.1. Table 11 in Kasworm et al. (2018) is a Tangled Mess

The totals in the column farthest right in Table 11 of Kasworm et al. (2018) include all mortalities—human-caused, natural, within 16-km of the Recovery Area boundary, in the US as well as Canada—plus the estimated unrecorded human-caused mortalities. For some inexplicable reason, and unlike in the NCDE and GYE, natural mortalities and mortalities of unknown cause were not accounted for in estimations of unrecorded mortalities.

The upshot is that the row totals in Table 11 represent a mish-mash of natural, human-caused, and estimated unrecorded human-caused mortalities, without any straight-forward connection to judging overall population status. In fact, the inattention and even outright dismissal in this context of natural mortality as a factor in judging population status is mystifying given that a dead bear, for whatever reasons, matters in assessing the toll taken by mortality.

C.2. Comparison of ‘rates’ between 1999-2006 and 2007-2017 is Uninformative

By contrast, the comparison of annually-averaged human-caused mortality between 1999-2006 and 2007-2017 on Page 32 of Kasworm et al. only considers human-caused mortality, but without including any of the estimated unrecorded human-caused mortality included in Table 11—and without any cogent explanation. The confusion implicit to this inexplicable parsing is compounded by use of the term ‘rate’ in reference to an annu-

al average, in context of ‘rate’ being used elsewhere in reference to survival and reproductive rates referenced to fates of individual bears. On top of this, a typo was made in reference to the 2007-2017 ‘rate,’ which should be 2.2, not 2.1. This error amplified the potential for confusion arising from comparing ‘2.1’ with ‘2.25’ and calling the first value an increase over the second.

Reducing this chaos to something comprehensible: the annually averaged number of known and probable human-caused deaths during 1999-2006 was 2.13. Using all currently available data, for 2007- 2018 the average was 2.08. When the estimate of unreported human-caused deaths is included, the average for 1999-2006 was 2.75 (95% CI 1.6-3.9). For 2007-2018 it was 3.2 (95% CI 2.2-4.2). Considering total known-probable mortality plus estimated unreported human-caused mortality—but without any correction for unreported natural deaths—the annual averages for 1999-2006 and 2007-2018 were virtually identical: 3.9 and 3.8.

The important point is, here again, that rote statistical uncertainty debars any conclusion about increase, stasis, or decrease in numbers of human-caused deaths. The confidence intervals of annual averages overlap substantially, which is not surprising given the small sample of years and dead bears. This statistical uncertainty is amplified by uncertainty attached to detecting any bear death other than that of an actively radio-monitored animal. Considering only human-caused deaths, this certainly holds for poached bears, deaths ‘under investigation,’ and deaths from unknown (but human-related) causes. A back-of-the-envelope cal-

culatation suggests that such deaths need to be increased by around 70 to 120% in year-end tallies.

In the face of such irrefutable uncertainty, Kasworm et al resort to focusing on and then emphasizing female mortality, which reduces the absolute values of calculated averages even further. When an estimate of unreported human-caused female mortalities is added to known mortalities (using the long-term proportion of F:M deaths=0.4), the result is an annual average of 1.75 (95% CI 0.83-2.67) female deaths for 1999-2006 and 0.80 (95% CI 0.34-1.54) female deaths for 2007-2018. All of the reported differences in mean values are so far within the range of statistical uncertainty as to render these comparisons a bit absurd.

C.3. Conclusion

Again, researchers and managers in this ecosystem might argue that small samples prevent any degree of certainty about conclusions, but this does not obviate the obligation to acknowledge uncertainty. Nor does it eliminate the practical consequences of small sample sizes and the compromising effects of chance processes—highlighted recently by a jump in recorded deaths from 1 in 2017 to 3 in 2018, a tripling in just one year. More certainly, it recommends humility and precaution in the face of such statistical ambiguities.

But all of this still leaves open the question of why natural mortalities as well as mortalities that cannot be definitively ascribed to human causes are not accounted for in assessing population status. This question is especially relevant given that Kasworm et al comment in several places on the extent to which variation

in abundance of key natural foods likely drives population dynamics, often through the ‘natural’ death of dependent young (see below). Or, even, why, when considering only human-caused mortality, adjustments to account for unrecorded deaths were not included. This is all a bit mystifying as well as *prima facie* unjustified.

D. Status of the Selkirk Population Remains Highly Precarious

The current vulnerability of the Selkirk population can be illustrated through a simple exercise, even without accounting for spatial structure of the Cabinet and Yaak subpopulations. I input vital rates into a commonly-used risk management program named RISKMAN (currently being proposed for management of grizzly bear mortality in the NCDE). Using the stochastic function, I was able to reconstruct the c. 2.1% growth rate reported by Kasworm et al (2018) for 1983-2017. More specifically, the cumulative geometric mean growth rate (λ) varied from a maximum of 1.035 to a minimum of 1.008. Accounting for variation in vital rates, the median ending population size at year 34 was 43, although the upper and lower 95% percentiles of simulated trajectories produced ending populations as small as 4 and as large as 154.

I then simulated what would have happened if just one additional female died each year. In this scenario, the geometric cumulative mean growth rate dropped from 0.952 (already much less than 1) to an astounding 0.202 at year 34 of the simulation (Figure 3 herein). Median total population size had reached 0 by year 23, with an upper 95th percentile of only 11 animals at the end of simulations. Results were not much improved when an

additional 1 female was lost only once every 2 or 3 years. This is not

presented as any definitive modeling result, but rather illustrative of how little the margin of error is, and how vulnerable this population is to even the smallest increased increments of mortality (e.g., Kendall et al. 2016). This point is especially germane given that one adult female was killed by humans each of the last two years, during 2018 and 2019. And this does not account for adult females that died and were not documented.

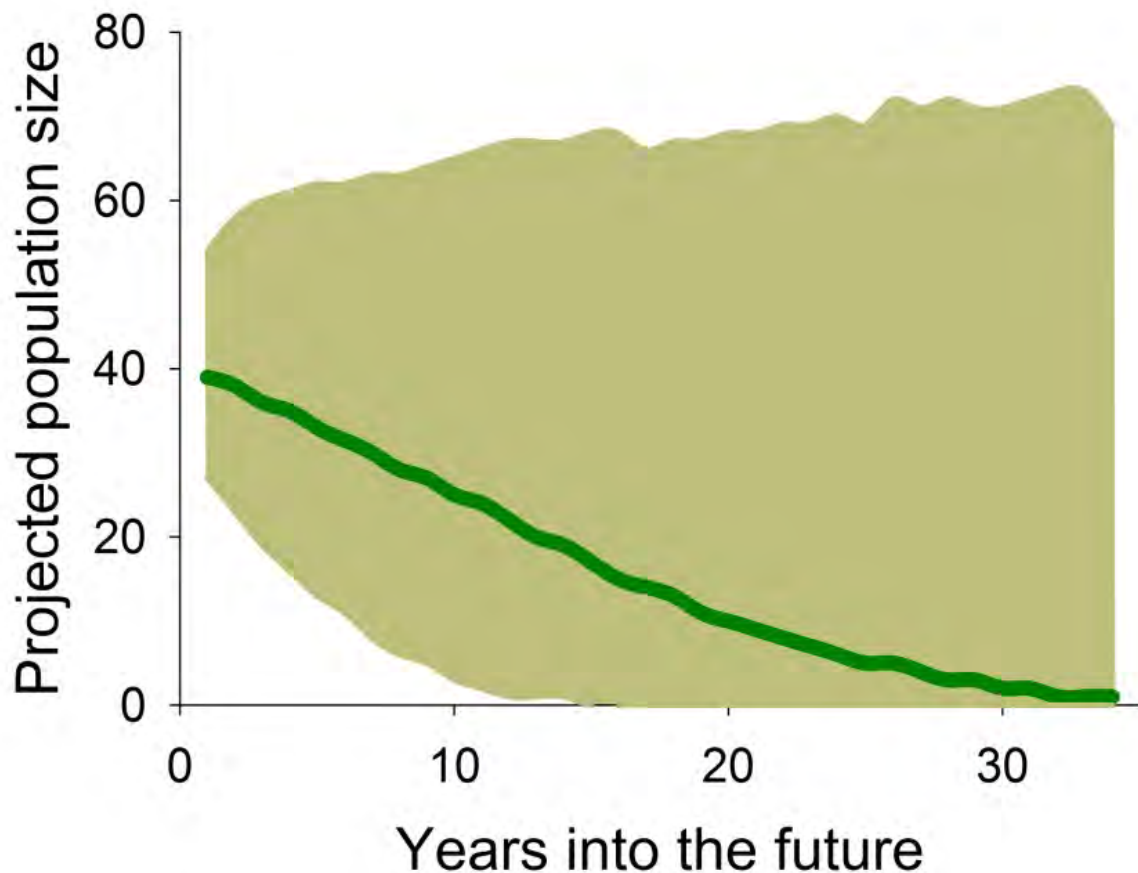
Figure 3. Results of RISKMAN projections for the Selkirk population using vital rates reported by Kasworm et al. (2018), but introducing the death of an additional female grizzly bear once every 2 years. The thick green line represents the median trend of projections; the dusky green band above and below the variability of projections.

E. Weight of Available Evidence Emphasizes the Continued Importance of Malicious Killing

The extent to which poaching, malicious killing, or other suspect circumstances are associated with human-caused deaths is also instructive regarding the overall effectiveness of conflict mitigation efforts during 1999-2017 to offset the problematic effects of road-access and poaching. By its nature, malicious killing/poaching is a criminal act undertaken by criminals. Such behavior is rooted in attitudes and outlooks that are notoriously unresponsive to education and ‘outreach’. The phenomenon is about willful malfeasance. As such, limitations on road access coupled with improved law enforcement and successful prosecutions are

logically the most appropriate redress—not, for example, conflict mitigation by a specialist who is not tasked primarily with law enforcement.

Before pursuing this any farther, some clarification of obfuscations in the dead bear database is needed. During 1999-2017 a number of deaths were ascribed to ‘Undetermined’ human causes, ‘Poaching’ or listed as ‘Under investigation’. The first and last categories are not explicit, but nonetheless strongly suggestive. Certainly, ‘Under investigation’ suggests that the death occurred under suspicious circumstances warranting investigation—with a strong likelihood of either poaching or other



unwarranted lethal action by the involved people. Such suspicions are rarely definitively resolved. ‘Undetermined’ is also more suggestive of malfeasance rather than innocence on the part of the involved people. Given the alternatives, such deaths are more defensibly allocated to causes more resistant than not to mitigation.

With all of this as context, there were a total of 7 known-probable deaths during 1999-2006 attributed to either poaching or undetermined causes, representing 58% of total human-caused deaths. During 2007-2018 there were a total of 13 deaths either under investigation or ascribed to poaching, representing a nearly identical 59% of the total known-probable human-caused deaths. These are major fractions in their own right, but leave estimated numbers of unreported deaths unaccounted for. As Kasworm et al make clear (ibid: 33), their estimate of ‘unreported’ deaths did not apply to bears that were radio-collared or removed by managers, which leaves this unreported estimate levied almost entirely against malicious or otherwise suspect causes. When these unreported estimates are added to the known-probable toll taken by poaching, unknown causes, or suspicious circumstances, the percentage increases to around 70% during 1999-2006 and approximately 77% during 2007-2016.

Taken together, these figures support concluding that (1) malicious or otherwise suspect causes account for a large portion—if not majority—of grizzly bear deaths in the Selkirk Ecosystem; (2) the fraction and even total numbers of deaths attributable to such causes did not decrease from 1999-2006 to 2007-2018; and (3) that aggressive limitations to road access by the USFS are

needed, especially in areas with concentrations of productive habitat (Proctor et al. 2015, 2017).

F. Access Management is Critical to Limiting Malicious & Other Unjustified Killing

The consensus of relevant research is unambiguous about the link between road access and grizzly bear mortality. The more access, the more dead bears there are, with disproportionate concentrations near roads (Brannon et al. 1988; Benn & Herrero 2002; Nielsen et al. 2004; Wakkinen & Kasworm 2004; Boulanger & Stenhouse 2014; McLellan 2015; Proctor et al. 2017, 2018). Dead bears tend to be concentrated within 100 to 500 m of roads, averaging around 300 m ($\pm$ 195 m) among studies where distance was noted.

Unfortunately, there is a common conflation of the extent to which radio-marked grizzly bears spatially avoid roads with the geospatial configuration of mortality risk and, even more important, decrements in survival and population growth. These parameters are not synonymous. Even though a bear might underuse habitats within a certain distance of roads, this does not translate into a 1:1 correlation with exposure to risk of human-related mortality during a bear's lifetime. Conflation of avoidance with mortality risk has led to the unstated assumption that the former can be used to set standards for the latter. Such is the case for road density and habitat security standards set by the Colville National Forest based on the results of Wakkinen & Kasworm (1997).

Taking 300 m as a ballpark figure, road densities of roughly 0.6 km/km² translate into areas remote from where human-caused

mortality is concentrated that amount to only 84 ha (208 acres), which is trivially

small for a grizzly bear. This sort of geospatial buffer still means that grizzly bears are frequently exposed to hazards of human-caused death to the predictable extent that they must and will move from one presumably secure area to another—even assuming that these bears exhibit “average” avoidance of human features such as roads. In other words, the level of buffering from human-caused mortality offered by road density and related security standards invoked in the Sweet-Ione Project is guaranteed to be inadequate.

The inadequacy and inappropriateness of road density and security standards used by the Colville National Forest in application to the Sweet-Ione Project are highlighted in contrast to standards applied in the Northern Continental Divide Ecosystem (NCDE), as well as in contrast to trajectories of populations in the NCDE and Greater Yellowstone Ecosystem. The populations of already relatively numerous grizzly bears in the NCDE and GYE have increased substantially since the early 1990s to 2000s, in contrast to in the Selkirk where precariously few bears have fared poorly (see my Points A-D, herein). Tellingly, Wilderness Areas and Inventoried Roadless Areas where road access is not allowed comprise around 56% of the NCDE and GYE. In the Selkirk Ecosystem this figure is less than half as much, nearer 21%. This difference alone can explain much of the corresponding difference in fates of grizzly bear populations.

Despite these telling differences in fates and trajectories of grizzly bear populations, the road density and habitat security standards applied by the Colville National Forest are more lax, not less, than those applied on the Flathead National Forest. On the Colville, areas allowed with >1 mile/mile² of roads are 1.7-times greater; areas with >2 miles/mile² of roads are 1.4-times greater; and extents of secure habitat nearly 20% less compared to what is ostensibly allowed on the Flathead NF. These disparities are perverse and not able to be explained on the basis of differences in the extent of movements by grizzly bears. If anything, bears range more widely in the Selkirk Ecosystem compared to the NCDE (Kasworm et al. 2018).

As a bottom line, existing and proposed access management in the Sweet-Ione Project Areas has jeopardized and will continue to jeopardize grizzly bears.

G. More Grizzly Bear Deaths Are Occurring On USFS Jurisdictions Now Compared to During 1999-2006

The argument for more aggressive management to prevent human-caused grizzly bear mortality on USFS jurisdictions is given greater weight by differences in locations of bear deaths between 1999-2006 and 2007-2018. Data from Kasworm et al. (2018) and Kasworm (2018) show an increase in the proportion of grizzly bear deaths on USFS lands from 25% (95% CI = 0.5-49.5%) during 1999-2006 to 56.5% (36.3-76.8%) during 2007-2018. Although sample sizes are small, confidence intervals large, and overlap of the intervals non-trivial (17%), these results do not support concluding that hazards for grizzly bears have remained constant or declined on USFS lands. Rather, by

weight of evidence, the better supported conclusion is that hazards have increased and, because of that, imperatives to control

mortality on public lands have likewise increased, including on lands part of the proposed Sweet-Ione Project. As per my point F, above, the most efficacious means available to the USFS for addressing this imperative is through providing increased rather than diminished habitat security, axiomatically through reducing road access in the Project area.

Activities of the Sweet-Ione Project Are Problematic in a Larger Geospatial Context

Please examine the cumulative effects of this project.

Please evaluate the impacts of proposed activities on grizzly bears in a larger geospatial context. Mattson & Merrill (2004) and Proctor et al. (2015) are perhaps most relevant to such an evaluation. The former research mapped existing core habitat as well as higher-probability source habitats in the Selkirk

Moreover, with the Selkirk Recovery Area as a logical unit of analysis, any assessment of cumulative effects needs to account for other on- going and planned human activities associated with forest treatments and harvest in this Ecosystem, as well as foreseeable impacts associated with the proposed Rock Creek and Montanore Mines; as well as on-going and foreseeable impacts associated with the human transportation infrastructure (e.g., railways and associated highways that already fragment grizzly

bear distribution in this Ecosystem, Mattson et al. [2019b]), all with the potential to amplify impacts arising from the Sweet-Ione Project.

K. A Devil's Bargain Will Not Rescue This Small Population

K.1. The Selkirk Population is Not Viable and Remains Acutely Vulnerable to Increased Mortality

The Selkirk grizzly bear population is smaller than the smallest census population size ever posited as being viable. The Yaak/Yahk subpopulation has limited connectivity with grizzly bear populations elsewhere, and the Cabinet Mountains subpopulation is more isolated yet (Apps et al. 2016; Kendall et al. 2016; Proctor et al. 2012, 2015). Such isolation is well-known to magnify risk. The degree of this risk is evident in the fact that fates of populations as small of that of the Selkirk grizzlies can be dictated solely by chance variation in birth and death rates, known as demographic variation. Yet demographic variation is a relatively minor stressor compared to environmental variation, catastrophes, negative deterministic trends, and loss of genetic diversity—all of which are documented or potential factors in the Selkirk. The contemporary consensus of researchers is that populations of large mammals such as grizzly bears need to consist of thousands of animals to withstand all of these stochastic and deterministic threats over meaningful periods of time.

The Yaak and Cabinet grizzly bear populations remain acutely vulnerable to even small changes in levels of mortality. Under such circumstances, a precautionary approach to managing spa-

tial hazards and habitat security is not only advisable, but mandatory. Unfortunately, there is no evidence of caution or even meaningful recognition of threats to the Cabinet population.

K.2. Variation in Population Trajectory Has Likely Been Driven by Exposure to Humans

As a hypothetical, it is worth taking claims regarding an improvement in status of the Selkirk grizzly bear population between 1999-2006 and 2007-2018 at face value. Again, the emphasis here is on the hypothetical given all of the compromising or even fatal flaws in analyses and conclusions reported in Kasworm et al. More specifically, if an improvement did occur, what was (were) the likely driver(s)?

Causation is notoriously hard to establish with any reliability or confidence. Nonetheless, even taking comments in Kasworm et al (again) at face value, one can establish how these authors ascribed causation based on the balance of their comments. The relevant quotes include:

“The increase in total known mortality beginning in 1999 may be linked to poor food production during 1998-2004 (Fig. 9). Huckleberry production during these years was about half the long term average...Poor nutrition may not allow females to produce cubs in the following year and cause females to travel further for food, exposing young to greater risk of mortality from conflicts with humans, predators, or accidental deaths.” (emphasized in Figure 10; *ibid*: 32; see Fig. 6, herein).

“Some of this decrease [in survival] in the 1999-2006 period could be attributed to an increase in natural mortality probably

related to poor berry production during 1998-2004. Mortalities on private lands within the U.S. increased during this period, suggesting that bears were searching more widely for foods to replace the low berry crop.” (ibid: 34).

In reference to a probable increase in size of the Cabinet Mountains subpopulation from around <15 (possibly 5-10) in 1988 to around 22-24 in 2012: “These data indicate the Cabinet Mountains population has increased 2-4 times since 1988, but this increase is largely a product of the augmentation effort with reproduction from that segment.” (ibid: 36).

L. Conclusion

Reiterating my conclusion in the Introduction to these comments, the Sweet-Ione Project as described in the scoping notice promises to harm grizzly bears in the Selkirk Ecosystem. The Forest Service could unequivocally benefit grizzly bears in this area by the closure and retirement of roads.

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1. Will the Forest Service be considering binding legal standards for noxious weeds in its Land Management Plan?
2. Has the State Historic Preservation Office signed off that this project complies with the Historic Preservation Act? The project is in violation of the National Historic Preservation Act if this is not done.

5. How effective has the Forest Service been at stopping (i.e. preventing) new weed infestations from starting during logging and road building operations?
6. Is it true that new roads are the main cause of new noxious weed infestations?
7. Is it true that noxious weeds are one of the top threats to biodiversity on public lands?
8. How can the Forest Service be complying with NFMA's requirement to maintain biodiversity if it has no legal standards that address noxious weeds?
9. How will the decreased elk security affect wolverines and have you formally consulted with the FWS on the effects of this project on wolverines? The wolverine was recently determined to be warranted for listing under the ESA. 75 Fed.

Reg.78030 (Dec. 14, 2010). It is currently a candidate species, proposed for listing.. The USFWS found that “[s]ources of human disturbance to wolverines include . . . road corridors, and extractive industry such as logging . . .” . The Forest Service must go through ESA formal consultation for the wolverine for this project.

Please prepare a Biological Assessment and formally consult with the USFWS as required by law.

THE AGENCIES MUST COMPLETE A BIOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT, BIOLOGICAL OPINION, INCIDENTAL TAKE STATEMENT, AND MANAGEMENT DIRECTION AMENDMENT FOR THE RMP FOR THE WOLVERINE.

The agencies do not have in place any forest plan biological assessment, biological opinion, incidental take statement, and management direction amendment for wolverines.

THE AGENCIES MUST CONDUCT ESA CONSULTATION FOR THE WOLVERINE.

Wolverines may be present in the Project area. The Forest Service concedes that the Project “may affect” wolverines. The agencies’ failure to conduct ESA consultation for a species that may be present and may be affected by the Project violates the ESA. Wolverines are currently warranted for listing under the ESA. As the agencies are well aware, the scheduled, court ordered listing date for the wolverine is this year. In fact, FWS has recently filed the a document in federal court committing to a listing date for the wolverine. Accordingly, the wolverine will be listed under the ESA before the final decision is made to authorize and implement this Project, and long before any project activities commence. Regardless, even candidate species must be included in a biological assessment.

Did the Forest Service survey for wolverines in the project area? Fish and wildlife habitat shall be managed to maintain viable populations of existing native and desired non-native vertebrate species in the planning area. For planning purposes, a viable population shall be regarded as one which has the estimated numbers and distribution of reproductive individuals to insure its continued existence is well distributed in the planning area. In order to insure that viable populations will be maintained, habitat must be provided to support, at least, a minimum number of reproductive individuals and that habitat must be well distributed so that those individuals can interact with others in the planning area. Ruggiero et al 2000;

Wolverines generally scavenge for ungulates along valley bottoms and forage and den in remote, high-elevation areas (Hornocker and Hash 1981; Morgan and Copeland 1998). Thus if managers wished to provide habitat for wolverines, they could pay particular attention in the planning process to ungulates winter range and other aspects of habitat quality for ungulates to provide a consistent supply of carcasses for wolverine to scavenge. In addition, wolverines generally avoid areas of human activity. To limit the threat of human-caused disturbance or mortality, managers could restrict access to portions of the landscape where wolverines are most likely to occur.

In order to meet this viability mandate, the 1982 NFMA planning regulations require that the Forest Service select “management indicator species” whose “population changes are believed to indicate the effects of management activities.” 36 C.F.R. § 219.19 (1) (2000). 253.

The 1982 NFMA planning regulations require the Forest Service to monitor the population trends of these species and to state and evaluate land management alternatives

“in terms of both amount and quality of habitat and of animal population trends of the management indicator species.” 36 C.F.R. § 219.19 (2),(6) (2000).

The wolverine was recently determined to be warranted for listing under the ESA. 75 Fed. Reg. 78030 (Dec. 14, 2010). It is currently a proposed species, waiting for work to be completed on other species before it is officially listed. The USFWS found that “[s]ources of human disturbance to wolverines include . . . road corridors, and extractive industry such as logging . . .” .The Forest Service admits that the wolverine and/or its habitat are present within the project area and would be impacted by the project. The Forest Service must go through ESA consultation for the wolverine for this project.

Would native species such as grizzly bears, lynx, wolverine, elk, bull trout and bull trout critical habitat be better off if you instead spent this money removing roads in the project area?

Why did you not analyze a restoration only alternative that did not include logging?

Has the money already been appropriated to do restoration work called for in the EA?

Do the action alternatives comply with PACFISH-INFISH?

Are you meeting the INFISH Riparian Management Objectives for temperature, pool frequency, and sediment?

With all of the bull trout spawning streams and designated as critical habitat in the project area we would expect robust road decommissioning and culvert removals, and no logging in riparian areas of streams. Instead the Sweet-Ione project is a robust logging and roading project that will degrade, not improve aquatic ecosystems.

The best available science shows that roads are detrimental to aquatic habitat and logging in riparian areas is not restoration.

Fish evolved with fire, they did not evolve with roads and logging.

What are the redd counts in bull trout critical habitat in the project area? Please also provide the all the historical bull counts that you have in the project area?

The EIS must fully and completely analyze the impacts to bull trout critical habitat and westslope cutthroat trout habitat. What is the standard for sediment in the Forest Plan? Sediment is one of the key factors impacting water quality and fish habitat. [See USFWS 2010]

The introduction of sediment in excess of natural amounts can have multiple adverse effects on bull trout and their habitat (Rhodes et al. 1994, pp. 16-21; Berry, Rubinstein, Melzian, and Hill 2003, p. 7). The effect of sediment beyond natural back-

ground conditions can be fatal at high levels. Embryo survival and subsequent fry emergence success have been highly correlated to percentage of fine material within the stream-bed (Shepard et al. 1984, pp. 146, 152). Low levels of sediment may result in sublethal and behavioral effects such as increased activity, stress, and emigration rates; loss or reduction of foraging capability; reduced growth and resistance to disease; physical abrasion; clogging of gills; and interference with orientation in homing and migration (McLeay et al. 1987a, p. 671; Newcombe and MacDonald 1991, pp. 72, 76, 77; Barrett, Grossman, and Rosenfeld 1992, p. 437; Lake and Hinch 1999, p. 865; Bash et al. 2001n, p. 9; Watts et al. 2003, p. 551; Vondracek et al. 2003, p. 1005; Berry, Rubinstein, Melzian, and Hill 2003, p. 33). The effects of increased suspended sediments can cause changes in the abundance and/or type of food organisms, alterations in fish habitat, and long-term impacts to fish populations (Anderson et al. 1996, pp. 1, 9, 12, 14, 15; Reid and Anderson 1999, pp. 1, 7-15). No threshold has been determined in which fine sediment addition to a stream is harmless (Suttle et al. 2004, p. 973). Even at low concentrations, fine-sediment deposition can decrease growth and survival of juvenile salmonids.

Aquatic systems are complex interactive systems, and isolating the effects of sediment to fish is difficult (Castro and Reckendorf 1995d, pp. 2-3). The effects of sediment on receiving water ecosystems are complex and multi-dimensional, and further compounded

by the fact that sediment flux is a natural and vital process for aquatic systems (Berry, Rubinstein, Melzian, and Hill 2003, p. 4). Environmental factors that affect the magnitude of sediment impacts on salmonids include duration of exposure, frequency of exposure, toxicity, temperature, life stage of fish, angularity and size of particle, severity/magnitude of pulse, time of occurrence, general condition of biota, and availability of and access to refugia (Bash et al. 2001m, p. 11). Potential impacts caused by excessive suspended sediments are varied and complex and are often masked by other concurrent activities (Newcombe 2003, p. 530). The difficulty in determining which environmental variables act as limiting factors has made it difficult to establish the specific effects of sediment impacts on fish (Chapman 1988, p. 2). For example, excess fines in spawning gravels may not lead to smaller populations of adults if the amount of juvenile winter habitat limits the number of juveniles that reach adulthood. Often there are multiple independent variables with complex interrelationships that can influence population size.

The ecological dominance of a given species is often determined by environmental variables. A chronic input of sediment could tip the ecological balance in favor of one species in mixed salmonid populations or in species communities composed of salmonids and nonsalmonids (Everest et al. 1987, p. 120). Bull trout have more spatially restrictive biological requirements at the individual and population levels than other salmonids (US-FWS (U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service) 1998, p. 5). Therefore,

they are especially vulnerable to environmental changes such as sediment deposition.

Aquatic Impacts

- Classify and analyze the level of impacts to bull trout and westslope cutthroat trout in streams, rivers and lakes from sediment and other habitat alterations:

Lethal: Direct mortality to any life stage, reduction in egg-to-fry survival, and loss of spawning or rearing habitat. These effects damage the capacity of the bull trout to produce fish and sustain populations.

Sublethal: Reduction in feeding and growth rates, decrease in habitat quality, reduced tolerance to disease and toxicants, respiratory impairment, and physiological stress. While not leading to immediate death, may produce mortalities and population decline over time.

Behavioral: Avoidance and distribution, homing and migration, and foraging and predation. Behavioral effects change the activity patterns or alter the kinds of activity usually associated with an unperturbed environment. Behavior effects may lead to immediate death or population decline or mortality over time.

Direct effects:

Gill Trauma - High levels of suspended sediment and turbidity can result in direct mortality of fish by damaging and clogging gills (Curry and MacNeill 2004, p. 140).

Spawning, redds, eggs - The effects of suspended sediment, deposited in a redd and potentially reducing water flow and smothering eggs or alevins or impeding fry emergence, are related to sediment particle sizes of the spawning habitat (Bjornn and Reiser 1991, p. 98).

Indirect effects:

Macroinvertebrates - Sedimentation can have an effect on bull trout and fish populations through impacts or alterations to the macroinvertebrate communities or populations (Anderson, Taylor, and Balch 1996, pp. 14-15).

Feeding behavior - Increased turbidity and suspended sediment can affect a number of factors related to feeding for salmonids, including feeding rates, reaction distance, prey selection, and prey abundance (Barrett, Grossman, and Rosenfeld 1992, pp. 437, 440; Henley, Patterson, Neves, and Lemly 2000, p. 133; Bash et al. 2001d, p. 21).

Habitat effects - All life history stages are associated with complex forms of cover including large woody debris, undercut banks, boulders, and pools. Other habitat characteristics important to bull trout include channel and hydrologic stability, substrate composition, temperature, and the presence of migration corridors (Rieman and McIntyre 1993, p. 5).

Physiological effects - Sublethal levels of suspended sediment may cause undue physiological stress on fish, which may reduce the ability of the fish to perform vital functions (Cederholm and Reid 1987, p. 388, 390).

Behavioral effects - These behavioral changes include avoidance of habitat, reduction in feeding, increased activity, redistribution and migration to other habitats and locations, disruption of territoriality, and altered homing (Anderson, Taylor, and Balch 1996, p. 6; Bash et al. 2001, pp. 19-25; Suttle, Power, Levine, and McNeely 2004, p. 971).

- How will this project affect native fish? What is the current condition in the riparian areas?

How will this project protect rather than adversely impact fish habitat and water quality? No logging or road building should be done in riparian areas. There should not be any stream crossings. Roads should be decommissioned and removed, not upgraded and rebuilt.

- Hauer, et al. (1999) found that bull trout streams in wilderness habitats had consistent ratios of large to small and attached to unattached large woody debris. However, bull trout streams in watersheds with logging activity had substantial variation in these ratios. They identified logging as creating the most substantive change in stream habitats.

“The implications of this study for forest managers are twofold: (i) with riparian logging comes increased unpredictability in the frequency of size, attachment, and stability of the LWD and (ii) maintaining the appropriate ratios of size frequency, orientation, and bank

attachment, as well as rate of delivery, storage, and transport of LWD to streams, is essential to maintaining historic LWD characteristics and dynamics. Our data suggest that exclusion of logging from riparian zones may be necessary to maintain natural stream

morphology and habitat features. Likewise, careful upland management is also necessary to prevent cumulative effects that result in altered water flow regimes and sediment delivery regimes. While not specifically evaluated in this study, in general, it appears that patterns of upland logging space and time may have cumulative effects that could additionally alter the balance of LWD delivery, storage, and transport in fluvial systems.

These issues will be critical for forest managers attempting to prevent future detrimental environmental change or setting restoration goals for degraded bull trout spawning streams.”

Muhlfeld, et al. (2009) evaluated the association of local habitat features (width, gradient, and elevation), watershed characteristics (mean and maximum summer water temperatures, the number of road crossings, and road density), and biotic factors (the distance to the source of hybridization and trout density) with

the spread of hybridization between native westslope cutthroat trout *Oncorhynchus clarkii lewisi* and introduced rainbow trout *O. mykiss* in the upper Flathead River system in Montana and British Columbia.

They found that hybridization was positively associated with mean summer water temperature and the number of upstream road crossings and negatively associated with the distance to the main source of hybridization. Their results suggest that hybridization is more likely to occur and spread in streams with warm water temperatures, increased land use disturbance, and proximity to the main source of hybridization.

The EIS must use the best available science to analyze how logging riparian habitat will impact native fish and water quality.

We wrote in our scoping comments:

The following article from the 9/25/15 Missoulian disagrees with the Forest Service and says it is habitat destruction causing bull trout declines.

http://missoulian.com/news/local/montana-fwp-biologist-despite-successes-bull-trout-populations-still-in/article_2798e4c6-0658-522f-be4c-4274f903129e.html

Montana FWP biologist: Despite successes, bull trout populations still in peril

Ladd Knotek is disturbed by the lack of attention being paid

to the many western Montana streams where bull trout populations are struggling to survive.

The fisheries biologist with Montana Fish, Wildlife and Parks knows people love to latch on to the success stories from streams like Fish Creek and several Blackfoot tributaries, where bull trout populations are viable.

“But what nobody talks about is all these other populations that, 50 years ago, these were all viable populations,” he said Tuesday as part of a presentation on bull trout in Rattlesnake Creek. “You know, Gold Creek, Belmont Creek, Trout Creek, there’s a whole list of them. There’s a whole bunch of them that are just basically on the verge of disappearing. And what we like to talk about are the ones that are doing OK. But in places like Lolo Creek and some Bitterroot tributaries, bull trout there are just barely hanging on.”

Bull trout have faced a long, slow decline over the past century, to the point where they are now listed as a threatened species under the Endangered Species Act. Success is a relative term even in the places where they are doing well.

“They’re nowhere near what they were historically,” Knotek said of the tributaries where the populations are relatively healthy. “But they have a fair number of adult

spawners coming in. People see them in the fishery. But we need to start looking at all these other tributaries that used to be bull trout spawning tributaries and recognize what's going on in the bigger picture. We're just looking at a very thin slice instead of looking at the whole thing. A lot of this stuff is just symptoms of what's going on at the larger scale. Bull trout are the canary. They're very susceptible to environmental change, whether it's temperature, whether it's physical, whether it's sediment. There's something going on in these drainages and the symptoms we're seeing are the bull trout distribution is shrinking, we're losing populations and we're seeing expansion of nonnatives."

Bull trout – which are native to the Columbia River Basin and are only found west of the Continental Divide in Montana – need clear, cold mountain waters to spawn and require clean gravel beds, deep pools, complex cover, good in-stream flows in the fall and large systems of interconnected waterways for their migrations. Rising temperatures and falling water levels trigger their migration to spawning tributaries in June, and they hang out until they spawn in the fall. They are much more susceptible to warming temperatures and habitat change than nonnative species such as brown and rainbow trout.

Knotek was the featured presenter Friday for a discussion on restoration efforts and the importance of Rattlesnake

Creek as a bull trout habitat. The event was organized by the Clark Fork Coalition, a nonprofit in Missoula that aims to protect water quality for the 22,000-square-mile Clark Fork River Basin.

Knotek explained that because Rattlesnake Creek is south-facing and doesn't have much groundwater recharging, it has much less of a buffer against a warming climate than other streams.

"The water temperatures are significantly higher than they were 10 years ago," he said. "The types of temperatures we're seeing in late summer and early fall, we never saw those 10 to 15 years ago. Water temperature is driving a lot of what we're talking about. It's definitely stressful on fish. It doesn't spell good news for bull trout."

Knotek said it's a common misconception that brown trout and rainbows are driving out bull trout, and he explained that those nonnative species are simply moving in because the native species is dying off.

"It's replacement rather than displacement," he said.

In Rattlesnake Creek, biologists have conducted redd counts of the migratory population in the lower reaches since 1999. There is a healthy resident population in the upper reaches, but researchers are more interested in the

fish that actually migrate to the Clark Fork River.

The results have been disturbing.

They found a high of 36 in 2006 and 24 in 2008, before Milltown Dam was removed. There was an expected drop to just four redds – spawning beds – after the dam was removed in 2009, because of the massive disturbance. However, the number of redds has not bounced back since, and researchers found just six last year.

“That tells us that it wasn’t just the dam removal that caused it, because they should be recovering by now,” Knotek said. “And there are lots of populations like this stream that are not doing well but need more attention. We’ve got a problem here, but it’s not inconsistent with other tributaries. There’s something bigger going on.”

Knotek said that Rattlesnake Creek was historically braided before the area was developed, and that eliminated a lot of the back channels the juvenile fish need to grow.

“You need complexity,” he said. “When you have a straight ditch in a system that used to be braided, it ain’t good.”

He's also seen much more algae growth in the upper sections, something that is obviously related to higher temperatures and added nutrients.

"We have browns and rainbows progressing upstream, and we attribute that to water temperature," he said. "That's consistent with other streams, too. It's very obvious something is going on here."

Knoteck believes that a "ramping up" of current conservation work is the only thing that can save bull trout populations. Fish screens, the removal of dams, awareness of anglers and water conservation – especially by people using stream irrigation to water their lawns – is crucial.

"Bull trout are the canary," he said. "But there are a lot of other species that we could be looking at as indicators as well. A lot of research needs to be done. There's a lot of species being affected."

As Knoteck pointed out, bull trout need clear, cold mountain waters to spawn and require clean gravel beds, deep pools, complex cover, good in-stream flows in the fall and large systems of interconnected waterways for their migrations.

Page 66 of the EA shows the total amount of sediment currently going into the streams in the project area per year is 286 tons. Under Alternative 2 this will increase to 511 tons of sediment per year. Un-

der Alternative 3 is will increase to 461.3 tons per year and under alternative 4 it will increase to 516 tons per year. The amount of sediment going into the streams will barely go down post project. Assuming your table is accurate, how many years it will take post-project to make up for all of the increase in sediment during the project? Will there be any bull trout left in the streams by then? How many bull trout will be killed during the implementation of the project?

How will the Sweet-Ione project make the waters clearer in the short term?

How will the Sweet-Ione project make the waters colder in the short term?

How will the Sweet-Ione project make the gravel beds of the streams in the project area cleaner in the short and long term?

How will the Sweet-Ione project make the affect deep pools in streams in the project area in the short and long term?

How will the Sweet-Ione project make the affect complex cover over the streams in the project area in the short and long term?

How will the Sweet-Ione project make the affect the in-stream flows in the fall in the short and long term?

How will the Sweet-Ione project make the affect large systems of interconnected waterways for bull trout migrations?

Critical habitat receives protection under section 7 of the Endangered Species Act through the prohibition against destruction or adverse modification of critical habitat with regard to actions carried out, funded, or authorized by a Federal agency. There is no exception for the short run? How long is the project scheduled to last?

Will this project adversely modify bull trout critical habitat in the short run?

How will the Sweet-Ione project affect the temperature of the streams in the project area including bull trout critical habitat?

Will all of the proposed logging increase the temperature of the streams in the project area?

Will all of the proposed road building and road use by log truck, clearcutting, and other logging put more sediment into streams in the project area?

How will this affect bull trout and bull trout critical habitat?

When was the last time the project area was surveyed for bull trout?

What was the results of these surveys?

The EA does not characterize or evaluate the project area watersheds based on the Watershed Condition Framework or the baseline condition developed for bull trout. We do not know what the current condition of streams are in the project area, i.e., are they functioning acceptably, at risk or at unacceptable risk? And for what ecosystem parameters? How will this project affect stream function, i.e., degrade, maintain, restore?

- The project relies on BMPs to protect water quality and fish habitat. First, there is no evidence that application of BMPs actually protects fish habitat and water quality.
- Second, BMPs are only maintained on a small percentage of roads or when there is a logging project.

BMPs fail to protect and improve water quality because of the allowance for “naturally occurring degradation.” In Montana, “naturally-occurring degradation” is defined in ARM 16.20.603(11)

as that which occurs after application of “all reasonable land, soil and water conservation practices have been applied.” In other words, damage caused directly by sediment (and other pollution) is acceptable as long as BMPs are applied. The result is a never-ending, downward spiral for water quality and native fish. Here’s how it works:

- Timber sale #1 generates sediment damage to a bull trout stream, which is “acceptable” as long as BMPs are applied to project activities.
- “Natural” is then redefined as the stream condition after sediment damage caused by Timber Sale #1.
- Timber sale #2 – in the same watershed – sediment damage would be acceptable if BMPs are applied again – same as was done before.
- “Natural” is again redefined as the stream condition after sediment damage caused by Timber Sale#2.

The downward spiral continues with disastrous cumulative effects on bull trout, westslope cutthroat trout and most aquatic life. BMPs are not “reasonable.” Clearly, beneficial uses are not being protected. Please show that the Sweet-Ione project complies with state water quality policy.

The EA provided a pittance of information on climate change effects on project area vegetation. The EA provides no analysis as to the veracity of the project’s Purpose and Need, the project’s objectives, goals, or desired conditions. The FS has the responsibility to inform the public that climate change is and will be bringing forest change. For the Sweet-Ione project, this did not happen, in violation of NEPA.

The EA fails to consider that the effects of climate change on the project area, including that the “desired” vegetation conditions will likely not be achievable or sustainable. The EA fails to pro-

vide any credible analysis as to how realistic and achievable its desired conditions are in the context of a rapidly changing climate, along an unpredictable but changing trajectory.

Hayward, 1994 essentially calls into question the entire manipulate and control regime, as represented in project design. The managed portion of the IPNF has been fundamentally changed, as has the climate, so the FS must analyze how much land has been fundamentally changed forest wide compared to historic conditions, and disclose such information to the public in the context of an EIS.

We add this observation from Frissell and Bayles (1996):
Most philosophies and approaches for ecosystem management put forward to date are limited (perhaps doomed) by a failure to acknowledge and rationally address the overriding problems of uncertainty and ignorance about the mechanisms by which complex ecosystems respond to human actions. They lack humility and historical perspective about science and about our past failures in management. They still implicitly subscribe to the scientifically discredited illusion that humans are fully in control of an ecosystemic machine and can foresee and manipulate all the possible consequences of particular actions while deliberately altering the ecosystem to produce only predictable, optimized and socially desirable outputs. Moreover, despite our well-demonstrated inability to prescribe and forge institutional arrangements capable of successfully implementing the principles and practice of integrated ecosystem management over a sustained time frame and at sufficiently large spatial scales, would-be ecosystem managers have neglected to acknowledge

and critically analyze past institutional and policy failures. They say we need ecosystem management because public opinion has changed, neglecting the obvious point that public opinion has been shaped by the glowing promises of past managers and by their clear and spectacular failure to deliver on such promises.

And as the KNF's March 2017 Galton Final Environmental Impact Statement explains:

This analysis identifies specific disturbance processes, together with landform and other environmental elements, which have influenced the patterns of vegetation across the Decision Area.

Vegetative Response Units (VRUs) were used to define and describe the components of ecosystems. VRUs are used to describe an aggregation of land having similar capabilities and potentials for management. These ecological units have similar properties in natural communities: soils, hydrologic function, landform and topography, lithology, climate, air quality, and natural processes (nutrient and biomass cycling, succession, productivity, and fire regimes).

Each VRU has a characteristic frequency and type of disturbance based on its climate, soils, vegetation, animals, and other factors. Populations of native plants and animals have responded and adapted to these characteristic disturbance regimes over time (~2500 years) and the resulting vegetation patterns, processes, and structure within a historical range of variability.

These characteristic processes, patterns, and structure are termed "Reference Conditions".

It's clear that "reference conditions" are no longer valid conceptually as a management target. Pederson et al. (2009) note that western Montana has already passed through 3 important, tem-

perature-driven ecosystem thresholds. Westerling, et al. 2006 state:

Robust statistical associations between wildfire and hydro-climate in western forests indicate that increased wildfire activity over recent decades reflects sub-regional responses to changes in climate. Historical wildfire observations exhibit an abrupt transition in the mid-1980s from a regime of infrequent large wildfires of short (average of one week) duration to one with much more frequent and longer-burning (five weeks) fires. This transition was marked by a shift toward unusually warm springs, longer summer dry seasons, drier vegetation (which provoked more and longer-burning large wildfires), and longer fire seasons. Reduced winter precipitation and an early spring snowmelt played a role in this shift. Increases in wildfire were particularly strong in mid-elevation forests. ...The greatest increases occurred in mid-elevation, Northern Rockies forests, where land-use histories have relatively little effect on fire risks, and are strongly associated with increased spring and summer temperatures and an earlier spring snowmelt.

Running, 2006 cites model runs of future climate scenarios from the 4th Assessment of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, stating:

(S)even general circulation models have run future climate simulations for several different carbon emissions scenarios. These simulations unanimously project June to August temperature increases of 2° to 5°C by 2040 to 2069 for western North America. The simulations also project precipitation decreases of up to 15% for that time period (11). Even assuming the most optimistic result of no change in precipitation, a June to August

temperature increase of 3°C would be roughly three times the spring-summer temperature increase that Westerling et al. have linked to the current trends. Wildfire burn areas in Canada are expected to increase by 74 to 118% in the next century (12), and similar increases seem likely for the western United States.

The Pacific Northwest Research Station, 2004 recognizes “(a) way that climate change may show up in forests is through changes in disturbance regimes—the long-term patterns of fire, drought, insects, and diseases that are basic to forest development.”

The EA fails to analyze and disclose how climate change is already, and is expected to be even more in the future, influence forest ecology. This has vast ramifications as to whether or not the forest in the project area will respond as the FS assumes. As the forest plan FEIS states, “Forest Plan management strategies may affect the composition, structure, and landscape pattern of forests. This could influence the susceptibility and resiliency of the forests to significant disturbance agents such as large intense wildfires, insect and disease epidemics, weather events, and climate change.” One of the needs for forest plan revision revolves around “concerns that the forest composition, structure, and pattern had shifted away from historical conditions to the extent that ecosystems, and the goods and services that it provided, may not be sustainable, especially in light of potential impacts from climate change.” (Id.) It also states:

The 1987 Forest Plan does not contain direction on moving towards historic conditions or to improve resistance and resiliency in the light of climate change. Continued deviation from historic conditions would lead to changes in disturbance and succession

processes, making it difficult to provide for a sustainable ecosystem.

The EA fails to to water stress, competing vegetation, and repeat fires that burn young stands,” which will likely lead to a dramatic increase in non-forest land acres. (Johnson, et al., 2016.)

acknowledge the likelihood that “...high seedling and sapling mortality rates due

The District Court of Montana ruled in Case 4:17-cv-00030-BMM that the Federal government was required to evaluate the climate change impacts of the federal government coal program.

In March 2019, U.S. District Judge Rudolph Contreras in Washington, D.C., ruled that when the U.S. Bureau of Land Management (BLM) auctions public lands for oil and gas leasing, officials must consider emissions from past, present and foreseeable future oil and gas leases nationwide. The case was brought by WildEarth Guardians.

In March of 2018 the Federal District Court of Montana found the Miles City (Montana) and Buffalo (Wyoming) Field Office’s Resource Management Plans unlawfully overlooked climate impacts of coal mining and oil and gas drilling. The case was brought by Western Organization of Resource Councils, Montana Environmental Information Center, Powder River Basin Resource Council, Northern Plains Resource Council, the Sierra Club, and the Natural Resources Defense Council.

In the recent revised Forest Plan Draft EIS for the Custer-Gallatin National Forest, the FS states, “Climate change is expected to continue and have profound effects on the Earth’s ecosystems in the coming decades (IPCC 2007).” As alarming as that might sound, perhaps the Sweet-Ione IDT members should familiarize themselves with the most recent report from the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, which makes that 2007 report seem optimistic.

A landmark report from the United Nations’ scientific panel on climate change paints a much darker picture of the immediate consequences of climate change than previously thought and says that avoiding the damage requires transforming the world economy at a speed and scale that has “no documented historic precedent.”

[The report](#), issued late 2018 by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, a group of scientists convened by the United Nations to guide world leaders, describes a world of worsening food shortages and wildfires, and a mass die-off of coral reefs as soon as 2040 — a period well within the lifetime of much of the global population.

The report “is quite a shock, and quite concerning,” said Bill Hare, an author of previous I.P.C.C. reports and a physicist with Climate Analytics, a nonprofit organization. “We were not aware of this just a few years ago.” The report was the first to be commissioned by world leaders under the Paris agreement, [the 2015 pact by nations to fight global warming](#).

The authors found that if greenhouse gas emissions continue at the current rate, the atmosphere will warm up by as much as 2.7

degrees Fahrenheit (1.5 degrees Celsius) above preindustrial levels by 2040, inundating coastlines and intensifying droughts and poverty. Previous work had focused on estimating the damage if average temperatures were to rise by a larger number, 3.6 degrees Fahrenheit (2 degrees Celsius), because that was the threshold scientists previously considered for the most severe effects of climate change.

The new report, however, shows that many of those effects will come much sooner, at the 2.7- degree mark.

Past conditions will not predict the future in the wake of climate change. The Montana Climate Assessment (MCA) (Found at <http://montanacclimate.org/>) is an effort to synthesize, evaluate, and share credible and relevant scientific information about climate change in Montana. It must be considered in development of the revised forest plan. Following are key messages and conclusions:

KEY MESSAGES

- Annual average temperatures, including daily minimums, maximums, and averages, have risen across the state between 1950 and 2015. The increases range between 2.0-3.0°F (1.1-1.7°C) during this period. [high agreement, robust evidence]
- Winter and spring in Montana have experienced the most warming. Average temperatures during these seasons have risen by 3.9°F (2.2°C) between 1950 and 2015. [high

agreement, robust evidence]

- Montana's growing season length is increasing due to the earlier onset of spring and more extended summers; we are also experiencing more warm days and fewer cool nights. From 1951-2010, the growing season increased by 12 days. In addition, the annual number of warm days has increased by 2.0% and the annual number of cool nights has decreased by 4.6% over this period. [high agreement, robust evidence]
- Despite no historical changes in average annual precipitation between 1950 and 2015, there have been changes in average seasonal precipitation over the same period. Average winter precipitation has decreased by 0.9 inches (2.3 cm), which can mostly be attributed to natural variability and an increase in El Niño events, especially in the western and central parts of the state. A significant increase in spring precipitation (1.3-2.0 inches [3.3-5.1 cm]) has also occurred during this period for the eastern portion of the state. [moderate agreement, robust evidence]
- The Northern Rockies projected to continue to warm in all geographic locations, seasons, and under all emission scenarios throughout the 21st century. By mid century, Northern Rockies temperatures are projected to increase by approximately 4.5-6.0°F (2.5-3.3°C) depending on the emission scenario. By the end-of-century, Northern Rockies

temperatures are projected to increase 5.6-9.8°F (3.1-5.4°C) depending on the emission scenario. These state-level changes are larger than the average changes projected globally and nationally. [high agreement, robust evidence]

- The number of days in a year when daily temperature exceeds 90°F (32°C) and the number of frost-free days are expected to increase across the state and in both emission scenarios studied. Increases in the number of days above 90°F (32°C) are expected to be greatest in the eastern part of the state. Increases in the number of frost-free days are expected to be greatest in the western part of the state. [high agreement, robust evidence]
- Across the state, precipitation is projected to increase in winter, spring, and fall; precipitation is projected to decrease in summer. The largest increases are expected to occur during spring in the southern part of the state. The largest decreases are expected to occur during summer in the central and southern parts of the state. [moderate agreement, moderate evidence]

In a literature review, Simons (2008) states, “Restoration efforts aimed at the maintenance of historic ecosystem structures of the pre-settlement era would most likely reduce the resilient characteristics of ecosystems facing climate change (Millar 1999).” The project area and IPNF have been fundamentally changed, so the agency must consider how much native forest it has funda-

mentally altered compared to historic conditions forestwide before pursuing “treatments” here. And that includes considering the effects of human-induced climate change. Essentially, this means considering new scientific information on all kinds of changes away from historic conditions.

The FS’s position on project impacts on climate change is that the project would have a miniscule impact on global carbon emissions. The obvious problem with that viewpoint is, once can say the same thing about every source of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gas emission on earth, and likewise justify inaction as does this EA. In their comments on the KNF’s Draft EIS for the Lower Yaak, O’Brien, Sheep project, the EPA rejected that sort of analysis, basically because that cumulative effects scale dilutes project effects. We would add that, if the FS wants to refer to a wider scope to analyze its carbon footprint, we suggest that it actually conduct such a cumulative effect analysis and disclose it in a NEPA document.

The FS (in USDA Forest Service, 2017b) discusses some effects of climate change on forests, including “In many areas, it will no longer be possible to maintain vegetation within the historical range of variability. Land management approaches based on current or historical conditions will need to be adjusted.” The Sweet-Ione EA has no scientific basis for its claims that proposed vegetation “treatments” will result in sustainable vegetation conditions under likely climate change scenarios. It also fails to provide a definition of “increasing resilience” that includes metrics for valid and reliable measurement of resilience. The scientific literature even debates if the same tree species mix that has historically inhabited sites can persist after distur-

bances, including the types of disturbances proposed under project action alternatives.

The Sweet-Ione EA ignores scientific opinion on forest management's negative effects on carbon sequestration. The forest plan FEIS states, "Carbon sequestration is the process by which atmospheric carbon dioxide is taken up by vegetation through photosynthesis and stored as carbon in biomass (trunks, branches, foliage, and roots) and soils." Best available science supports the proposition that forest policies must shift away from logging if a priority is carbon sequestration. Forests should be preserved indefinitely for their carbon storage value.

We incorporate the following article from the Missoulian (" 2019):

March 11,

Fire study shows landscapes such as

Bitterroot's Sapphire Range too hot, dry to restore trees") written by Rob Chaney (

Burned landscapes like this drainage in the Sapphire Mountains hasn't been able to grow new trees since the Valley Complex fire of 2000, due to lack of soil moisture, humidity and seed trees, as well as excess heat during the growing season. University of Montana students Erika Berglund and Lacey Hankin helped gather samples for a study showing tree stands are getting re-

placed by grass and shrubs after fire across the western United States due to climate change.



Courtesy Kim Davis



Fire-scarred forests like the Sapphire Range of the Bitterroot Valley may become grasslands because the growing seasons have become too hot and dry, according to new research from the University of Montana.

“The drier aspects aren’t coming back, especially on north-facing slopes,” said Kim Davis, a UM landscape ecologist and lead investigator on the study. “It’s not soil sterilization.

Other vegetation like grasses are re-sprouting. It’s too warm. There’s not enough moisture for the trees.”

Davis worked with landscape ecologist Solomon Dobrowski, fire paleoecologist Philip Higuera, biologist Anna Sala and geoscientist Marco Maneta at UM along with colleagues at the U.S. Forest Service and University of Colorado-Boulder to produce the study, which was released Monday in the Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences journal.

“What’s striking is if you asked scientists two decades ago how climate warming would play out, this is what they expected we’d see,” Higuera said. “And now we’re starting to see those predictions on the impact to ecosystems play out.”

The study concentrated on regrowth of Ponderosa pine and Douglas fir seedlings in Montana, Idaho, Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona and northern California. Field workers collected trees from 90 sites, including 40 in the northern Rocky Mountains, scattered within 33 wildfires that had occurred within the past 20 years.

“We did over 4,000 miles of road-tripping across the West, as well as lots of miles hiking and backpacking,” Davis said. The

survey crews brought back everything from dead seedlings to 4-inch-diameter tree rings; nearly 3,000 samples in total. Then they analyzed how long each tree had been growing and what conditions had been when it sprouted.

Before the 1990s, the test sites had enough soil moisture, humidity and other factors to recruit new seedlings after forest fires, Dobrowski said.

“There used to be enough variability in seasonal conditions that seedlings could make it across these fixed thresholds,” Dobrowski said. “After the mid-‘90s, those windows have been closing more often. We’re worried we’ll lose these low-elevation forests to shrubs or grasslands. That’s what the evidence points to.”

After a fire, all kinds of grasses, shrubs and trees have a blank slate to recover. But trees, especially low-elevation species, need more soil moisture and humidity than their smaller plant cousins. Before the mid-90s, those good growing seasons rolled around every three to five years. The study shows such conditions have evaporated on virtually all sites since 2000.

“The six sites we looked at in the Bitterroots haven’t been above the summer humidity threshold since 1997,” Higuera said. “Soil moisture hasn’t crossed the threshold since 2009.”

The study overturns some common assumptions of post-fire recovery. Many historic analyses of mountain forests show the hillsides used to hold far fewer trees a century ago, and have become overstocked due to the efforts humans put at controlling fire in the woods. Higuera explained that some higher elevation

forests are returning to their more sparse historical look due to increased fires.

“But at the lower fringes, those burn areas may transition to non-forest types,” Higuera said, “especially where climate conditions at the end of this century are different than what we had in the early 20th Century.”

The study also found that soil sterilization wasn’t a factor in tree regrowth, even in the most severely burned areas. For example, the 2000 Sula Complex of fires stripped forest cover in the southern end of the Bitterroot Valley. While the lodgepole pine stands near

Lost Trail Pass have recovered, the lower- elevation Ponderosa pine and Douglas firs haven’t.

Another factor driving regeneration is the availability of surviving seed trees that can repopulate a burn zone. If one remains within 100 meters of the burned landscape, the area can at least start the process of reseeding. Unfortunately, the trend toward high-severity fires has reduced the once-common mosaic patterns that left some undamaged groves mixed into the burned areas.

Higuera said he hoped land managers could use small or prescribed fires to make landscapes more resilient, as well as restructure tree-planting efforts to boost the chances of heavily burned places.

The Resources Planning Act of 1974 (RPA) and National Forest Management Act of 1976 (NFMA) mandate long-range planning which impose numerous limitations on timber extraction practices and the amount of timber sold annually. These long range plans are based on assumptions, which are based on data, expert opinion, public participation and other factors which mostly view from a historical perspective. So it's time to peer into the future to examine closely (NEPA: "take a hard look at") those assumptions.

Clearly, the FS is not considering best available science on this topic.

The EA and Forest Plan FEIS fail to reexamine the assumptions relating to timber suitability, resilience and sustainability as a result of recent fires, past regeneration success/failures, and climate-risk science.

Conventional wisdom dictates that forests regenerate and recover from wildfire. If that's true, then it's logical to conclude that forests can regenerate and recover from logging. And these days, "resilience" is a core tenant of Forest Service planning. Unfortunately, assumptions of the EA and Forest Plan FEIS relating to desired conditions are incorrect. NEPA requires a "hard look" at the best available science relating to future concentrations of greenhouse gases and gathering climate risk as we move forward into an increasingly uncertain and uncharted climate future. This has not been done. The Forest Plan and Sweet-Ione EA do not include a legitimate climate-risk analysis.

Scientific research indicates that increasing CO₂ and other greenhouse gas concentrations may preclude maintaining and at-

taining the anticipated forest conditions in the project area and across the IPNF. The agency downplays the implications across the entire Northern Rockies bioregion and beyond, seeming unaware of the likelihood that its desired conditions are at great risk.

No amount of logging, thinning and prescribes burning will cure the cumulative effects (irretrievable loss) already baked into the foreseeably impending climate chaos. “Treatments” must be acknowledged for what they are: adverse cumulative environmental effects. Logging can neither mitigate, nor prevent, the effects of wildfire or logging. Both cause disturbance to forests that cannot be restored or retrieved—the resilience assumed no longer exists. It is way too late in the game to pretend to ignore the elephant in the room.

The Forest Service ignores best available science indicating prescribed fire, thinning and logging are actually cumulative with the dominant forces of increased heat, drought, and wildfire.

NEPA requires analysis of an alternative that reflects our common understanding of climate risk. A considerable amount of data and scientific research repeatedly confirms that we may be looking in the wrong direction (back into history, e.g., “natural range of variability”) for answers to better understand our forest future.

The Forest Service fails to analyze an alternative projecting climate science into the forest’s future. It fails to adequately consider that the effects of climate risk represent a significant and eminent loss of forest resilience already, and growing risk into the “foreseeable future.”

Funk et al., 2014 indicate that at least five common tree species, including aspens and four conifers, are at great risk unless atmospheric greenhouse gases and associated temperatures can be contained at today's levels of concentration in the atmosphere. It is indeed time to speak honestly about unrealistic expectations relating to desired conditions.

And according to scientific literature it seems highly unlikely that greenhouse gas concentrations and the heat they trap in the atmosphere will be held at current levels.

The Forest Service fails to analyze and disclose conditions we can realistically expect as heat trapped by increasing greenhouse gas concentrations steadily tightens its grip—and impacts on forests accrue locally, regionally, nationally, and globally.

The EA fails to assess and disclose all risks associated with vegetative-manipulation as proposed.

NEPA requires disclosure of impact on “the human environment.” Climate risk presents overarching adverse impacts on cultural, economic, environmental, and social aspects of the human environment—people, jobs, and the economy—adjacent to and near the Forests. Challenges in predicting responses of individual tree species to climate are a result of species competing under a never-before-seen climate regime that we have not seen before—one forests may not have experienced before either.

Golladay et al., 2016 state, “In an uncertain future of rapid change and abrupt, unforeseen transitions, adjustments in management approaches will be necessary and some actions will fail. However, it is increasingly evident that the greatest risk is

posed by continuing to implement strategies inconsistent with and not informed by current understanding of our novel future... (Emphasis added).

In the face of increasing climate risk, growing impacts of wild-fire and insect activity, plus scientific research findings, the Forest Service must disclose the significant trend in post-fire regeneration failure. The EA fails to do so. The national forests have already experienced considerable difficulty restocking on areas that have been subjected to clear-cut logging, post-fire salvage logging and other even-aged management “systems.” NFMA (1982) regulation 36CFR 219.27(c)(3) implements the NFMA statute, and requires restocking in five years.

The EA doesn’t address the question of how lands were determined to be suitable for the type of management ongoing or proposed. It does not cite the specific documentation which determined that the specific areas proposed for logging in this proposal are suitable for timber production.

It’s time to analyze and disclose the fact that the IPNF can no longer “insure that timber will be harvested from the National Forest system lands only where...there is assurance that such lands can be restocked within five years of harvest.” [NFMA §6(g)(3)(E)(ii)].

Davis et al., 2019 state: “

At dry sites across our study region, seasonal to annual climate conditions over the past 20 years have crossed these thresholds, such that conditions have

become increasingly unsuitable for regeneration. High fire severity and low seed availability

further reduced the probability of postfire regeneration. Together, our results demonstrate that

climate change combined with high severity fire is leading to increasingly fewer opportunities

for seedlings to establish after wildfires and may lead to ecosystem transitions in low-elevation

ponderosa pine and Douglas-fir forests across the western United States.”

Forests are already experiencing emissions-driven deforestation, on both the post-fire and post- logging acreage.

The EA does not disclose restocking monitoring data and analysis.

Stevens-Rumann, et al., (2018) state: “In the US Rocky Mountains, we documented a significant trend of post-fire tree regeneration, even over the relatively short period of 23 years covered in this analysis. Our findings are consistent with the expectation of reduced resilience of forest ecosystems to the combined impacts of climate warming and wildfire activity. Our results suggest that predicted shifts from forest to non-forested vegetation. (Emphases added.)

The FS must finally accept scientific research and opinion that recognizes the critical challenge posed by climate change to global ecosystems and the IPNF. The statement in the 2010

KIPZ Climate Change Report, “Harvested wood products increase the net sequestration on these forests by an undetermined amount” is unsubstantiated by cited scientific research or information. The statement frames the position of denial that FS officials adopt as policy.

The Forest Plan and Sweet-Ione EA are based on assumptions largely drawn from the past. These assumptions must be rejected where overwhelming evidence demonstrates a change of course is critical. It is time to take a step back, assess the future and make the necessary adjustments, all in full public disclosure to the Congress and the public.

The EA fails to analyze how proposed management actions would be affected by likely climate change scenarios. The EA fails to quantify all human-caused CO₂ emissions for all project activities or quantify carbon sequestration for each alternative. The EA doesn’t disclose how climate change has affected ecological conditions in the project area, and include an analysis of these conditions under climate change scenarios.

Some politicians, bureaucrats, and industry profiteers pretend there’s nothing to do about climate change because it isn’t real. The FS acknowledges it’s real, pretends it can do nothing, provides but a limited focus on its symptoms and—like those politicians and profiteers—ignores and distracts from the causes of climate change they enable.

Global climate change is a massive, unprecedented threat to humanity and forests. Climate change is caused by excess CO₂ and other greenhouse gases transferred to the atmosphere from other pools. All temperate and tropical forests, including those in this

project area, are an important part of the global carbon cycle. There is significant new information reinforcing the need to conserve all existing large stores of carbon in forests, in order to keep carbon out of the atmosphere and mitigate climate change. The agency must do its part by managing forests to maintain and increase carbon storage. Logging would add to cumulative total carbon emissions so is clearly part of the problem, so it must be minimized and mitigated. Logging would not only transfer carbon from storage to the atmosphere but future regrowth is unlikely to ever make up for the effects of logging, because carbon storage in logged forests lags far behind carbon storage in unlogged forests for decades or centuries. And before recovery, the agency plans even more activities causing greenhouse gas emissions.

Clearly, the management of the planet's forests is a nexus for addressing the largest crisis ever facing humanity. This is an issue as serious as nuclear annihilation (although at least with the latter we're not already pressing the button).

There is no cumulative effects analysis of IPNF carbon sequestration over time.

Respected experts say that the atmosphere might be able to safely hold 350 ppm of CO₂.⁵ So when the atmosphere was at pre-industrial levels of about 280 ppm, there was a cushion of about 70 ppm which represents millions of tons of greenhouse gas emissions. Well, now that cushion is completely gone. The atmosphere is now over 400 ppm CO₂ and rising. Therefore the safe level of additional emissions (from logging or any other activity) is negative. There is no safe level of additional emissions

that our earth systems can tolerate. We need to be removing carbon from the atmosphere—not adding to it.⁶ How? By allowing forest to grow. Logging moves us away from our objective while conservation moves us toward our objective.

Pecl, et al. 2017 “review the consequences of climate-driven species redistribution for economic development and the provision of ecosystem services, including livelihoods, food security, and

⁵ <http://www.350.org/about/science>.

⁶ “To get back to 350 ppm, we’ll have to run the whole carbon-spewing machine backwards, sucking carbon out of the atmosphere and storing it somewhere safely. ... By growing more forests, growing more trees, and better managing all our forests...” (<http://blog.cleanenergy.org/2013/11/26/exploringbio-carbon-tools/comment-page-1/#comment-375371>)

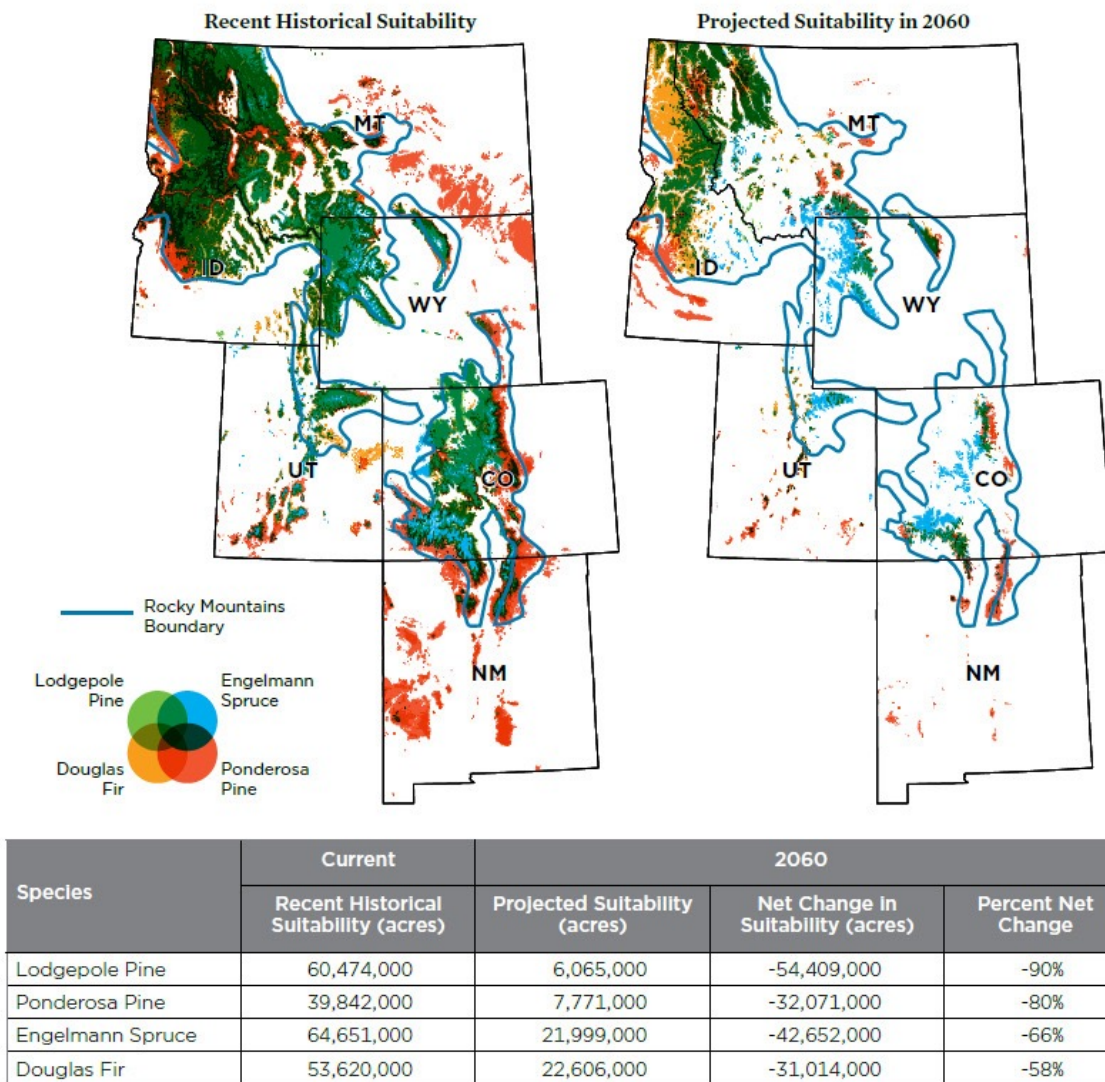
culture, as well as for feedbacks on the climate itself.” They state, “Despite mounting evidence for the pervasive and substantial impacts of a climate-driven redistribution of Earth’s species, current global goals, policies, and international agreements fail to account for these effects. ... To date, all key international discussions and agreements regarding climate change have focused on the direct socioeconomic implications of emissions reduction and on funding mechanisms; shifting natural ecosystems have not yet been considered in detail.” (Emphasis added.)

From a report by the Union of Concerned Scientists & Rocky Mountain Climate Organization (Funk et al., 2014):

The caption under Funk et al.'s Figure 5 and Table 1 states: Much of the current range of these four widespread Rocky Mountain conifer species is projected to become climatically unsuitable for them by 2060 if emissions of heat-trapping gases continue to rise. The map on the left shows areas projected to be climatically suitable for these tree species under the recent historical (1961–1990) climate; the map on the right depicts conditions projected for 2060 given medium-high levels of heat-trapping emissions. Areas in color have at least a 50 percent likelihood of being climatically suitable according to the models, which did not address other factors that affect where species occur (e.g., soil types). Emissions levels reflect the A2 scenario of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. For more about this methodology, see www.ucsusa.org/forestannex.

Pecl, et al. 2017 conclude:

FIGURE 5 AND TABLE 1. Projected Changes in Suitable Ranges for Key Rocky Mountain Tree Species



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The breadth and complexity of the issues associated with the global redistribution of species driven by changing climate are creating profound challenges, with species movements already affecting societies and regional economies from the tropics to polar regions. Despite mounting evidence for these impacts, current global goals, policies, and international agreements do not sufficiently consider species range shifts in their formulation or targets. Enhanced awareness, supported by appropriate gover-

nance, will provide the best chance of minimizing negative consequences while maximizing opportunities arising from species movements—movements that, with or without effective emission reduction, will continue for the foreseeable future, owing to the inertia in the climate system.

Moomaw and Smith, 2017 identify the need for forest protection to be an urgent, national priority in the fight against climate change and as a safety net for communities against extreme weather events caused by a changing climate. As those authors explain,

Global climate change is caused by excess CO₂ and other greenhouse gases transferred to the atmosphere from other pools. Human activities, including combustion of fossil fuels and bioenergy, forest loss and degradation, other land use changes, and industrial processes, have contributed to increasing atmospheric CO₂, the largest contributor to global warming, which will cause temperatures to rise and stay high into the next millennium or longer.

The most recent measurements show the level of atmospheric carbon dioxide has reached 400 parts per million and will likely to remain at that level for millennia to come. Even if all fossil fuel emissions were to cease and all other heat-trapping gases were no longer emitted to the atmosphere, temperatures close to those achieved at the emissions peak would persist for the next millennium or longer.

Meeting the goals of the Paris Agreement now requires the implementation of strategies that result in negative emissions, i.e., extraction of carbon dioxide from the atmosphere. In other

words, we need to annually remove more carbon dioxide from the atmosphere than we are emitting and store it long-term. Forests and soils are the only proven techniques that can pull vast amounts of carbon dioxide out of the atmosphere and store it at the scale necessary to meet the Paris goal. Failure to reduce biospheric emissions and to restore Earth's natural climate stabilization systems will doom any attempt to meet the Paris (COP21) global temperature stabilization goals.

The most recent U.S. report of greenhouse gas emissions states that our forests currently “offset” 11 to 13 percent of total U.S. annual emissions. That figure is half that of the global average of 25% and only a fraction of what is needed to avoid climate catastrophe. And while the U.S. government and industry continue to argue that we need to increase markets for wood, paper, and biofuel as climate solutions, the rate, scale, and methods of logging in the United States are having significant, negative climate impacts, which are largely being ignored in climate policies at the international, national, state, and local levels.

The actual carbon stored long-term in harvested wood products represents less than 10 percent of that originally stored in the standing trees and other forest biomass. If the trees had been left to grow, the amount of carbon stored would have been even greater than it was 100 years prior. Therefore, from a climate perspective, the atmosphere would be better off if the forest had not been harvested at all. In addition, when wood losses and fossil fuels for processing and transportation are accounted for, carbon emissions can actually exceed carbon stored in wood products.

Like all forests, the IPNF is an important part of the global carbon cycle. Clear scientific information reinforces the critical need to conserve all existing stores of carbon in forests to keep it out of the atmosphere. Given that forest policies in other countries and on private lands are politically more difficult to influence, the FS must take a leadership role to maintain and increase carbon storage on publicly owned forests, in order to help mitigate climate change effects.

The effects of climate change have already been significant, particularly in the region. Westerling, et al. 2006 state:

Robust statistical associations between wildfire and hydro-climate in western forests indicate that increased wildfire activity over recent decades reflects sub-regional responses to changes in climate. Historical wildfire observations exhibit an abrupt transition in the mid-1980s from a regime of infrequent large wildfires of short (average of one week) duration to one with much more frequent and longer-burning (five weeks) fires. This transition was marked by a shift toward unusually warm springs, longer summer dry seasons, drier vegetation (which provoked more and longer-burning large wildfires), and longer fire seasons. Reduced winter precipitation and an early spring snowmelt played a role in this shift. Increases in wildfire were particularly strong in mid-elevation forests. ...The greatest increases occurred in mid-elevation, Northern Rockies forests, where land-use histories have relatively little effect on fire risks, and are strongly associated with increased spring and summer temperatures and an earlier spring snowmelt.

Running, 2006 cites model runs of future climate scenarios from the 4th Assessment of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, stating:

(S)even general circulation models have run future climate simulations for several different carbon emissions scenarios. These simulations unanimously project June to August temperature increases of 2° to 5°C by 2040 to 2069 for western North America. The simulations also project precipitation decreases of up to 15% for that time period (11). Even assuming the most optimistic result of no change in precipitation, a June to August temperature increase of 3°C would be roughly three times the spring-summer temperature increase that Westerling et al. have linked to the current trends. Wildfire burn areas in Canada are expected to increase by 74 to 118% in the next century (12), and similar increases seem likely for the western United States.

Pederson et al. (2009) note that western Montana has already passed through 3 important, temperature-driven ecosystem thresholds.

The Pacific Northwest Research Station, 2004 recognizes “(a) way that climate change may show up in forests is through changes in disturbance regimes—the long-term patterns of fire, drought, insects, and diseases that are basic to forest development.”

Depro et al., 2008 found that ending commercial logging on U.S. national forests and allowing forests to mature instead would remove an additional amount of carbon from the atmosphere equivalent to 6 percent of the U.S. 2025 climate target of 28 percent emission reductions.

Forest recovery following logging and natural disturbances are usually considered a given. But forests have recovered under climatic conditions that no longer exist. Higher global temperatures and increased levels of disturbance are contributing to greater tree mortality in many forest ecosystems, and these same drivers can also limit forest regeneration, leading to vegetation type conversion. (Bart et al., 2016.)

The importance of trees for carbon capture will rise especially if, as recent evidence suggests, hopes for soils as a carbon sink may be overly optimistic. (He et al., 2016.) Such a potentially reduced role of soils doesn't mean that forest soils won't have a role in capture and storage of carbon, rather it puts more of the onus on aboveground sequestration by trees, even if there is a conversion to unfamiliar mixes of trees.

The IPNF Forest Plan draft EIS defines carbon sequestration: "The process by which atmospheric carbon dioxide is taken up by trees, grasses, and other plants through photosynthesis and stored as carbon in biomass (trunks, branches, foliage, and roots) and soils."

The analysis fails to quantify CO₂ and other greenhouse gas emissions from other common human activities related to forest management and recreational uses. These include emissions associated with machines used for logging and associated activities, vehicle use for administrative actions, recreational motor vehicles, and emissions associated with livestock grazing. The FS is simply ignoring the climate impacts of these management and other authorized or allowed activities.

Kassar and Spitler, 2008 provide an analysis of the carbon footprint of off-road vehicles in California. They determined that:

Off-road vehicles in California currently emit more than 230,000 metric tons — or 5000 million pounds — of carbon dioxide into the atmosphere each year. This is equivalent to the emissions created by burning 500,000 barrels of oil. The 26 million gallons of gasoline consumed by off-road vehicles each year in California is equivalent to the amount of gasoline used by 1.5 million car trips from San Francisco to Los Angeles.

. . . Off-road vehicles emit considerably more pollution than automobiles. According to the California Air Resources Board, off-road motorcycles and all-terrain vehicles produce 118 times as much smog-forming pollutants as do modern automobiles on a per-mile basis.

. . . Emissions from current off-road vehicle use statewide are equivalent to the carbon dioxide emissions from 42,000 passenger vehicles driven for an entire year or the electricity used to power 30,500 homes for one year.

Also, Sylvester, 2014 provides data on the amount of fossil fuel being consumed by snowmobiles in Montana, from which one can calculate the carbon footprint. The study finds that resident snowmobilers burn 3.3 million gallons of gas in their snowmobiles each year and a similar amount of fuel to transport themselves and their snowmobiles to and from their destination. Non-residents annually burn one million gallons of gas in snowmobiles and about twice that in related transportation. So that adds up to 9.6 million gallons of fuel consumed in the pursuit of

snowmobiling each year in Montana alone. Multiply that by 20 pounds of carbon dioxide per gallon of gas (diesel pickups spew 22 pounds per gallon) and snowmobiling releases 192 million pounds (96 thousand tons) of climate-warming CO₂ per year into the atmosphere. Can we really afford this?

The FS distracts from the emerging scientific consensus that removing wood or any biomass from the forest only worsens the climate change problem. Law and Harmon, 2011 conducted a literature review and concluded ...

Thinning forests to reduce potential carbon losses due to wild-fire is in direct conflict with carbon sequestration goals, and, if implemented, would result in a net emission of CO₂ to the atmosphere because the amount of carbon removed to change fire behavior is often far larger than that saved by changing fire behavior, and more area has to be harvested than will ultimately burn over the period of effectiveness of the thinning treatment.

Best available science supports the proposition that forest policies must shift away from logging if carbon sequestration is prioritized. Forests must be preserved indefinitely for their carbon storage value. Forests that have been logged should be allowed to convert to eventual old-growth condition. This type of management has the potential to double the current level of carbon storage in some regions. (See Harmon and Marks, 2002; Harmon, 2001; Harmon et al., 1990; Homann et al., 2005; Law, 2014; Solomon et al., 2007; Turner et al., 1995; Turner et al., 1997; Woodbury et al., 2007.)

Kutsch et al., 2010 provide an integrated view of the current and emerging methods and concepts applied in soil carbon research.

They use a standardized protocol for measuring soil CO₂ efflux, designed to improve future assessments of regional and global patterns of soil carbon dynamics:

Excluding carbonate rocks, soils represent the largest terrestrial stock of carbon, holding approximately 1,500 Pg (10¹⁵ g) C in the top metre. This is approximately twice the amount held in the atmosphere and thrice the amount held in terrestrial vegetation. Soils, and soil organic carbon in particular, currently receive much attention in terms of the role they can play in mitigating the effects of elevated atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) and associated global warming. Protecting soil carbon stocks and the process of soil carbon sequestration, or flux of carbon into the soil, have become integral parts of managing the global carbon balance. This has been mainly because many of the factors affecting the flow of carbon into and out of the soil are affected directly by land-management practices. (Emphasis added.)

Moomaw and Smith, 2017 state:

Multiple studies warn that carbon emissions from soil due to logging are significant, yet under-reported. One study found that logging or clear-cutting a forest can cause carbon emissions from soil disturbance for up to fifty years. Ongoing research by an N.C. State University scientist studying soil emissions from logging on Weyerhaeuser land in North Carolina suggests that “logging, whether for biofuels or lumber, is eating away at the carbon stored beneath the forest floor.”

Moomaw and Smith, 2017 examined the scientific evidence implicating forest biomass removal as contributing to climate change:

All plant material releases slightly more carbon per unit of heat produced than coal. Because plants produce heat at a lower temperature than coal, wood used to produce electricity produces up to 50 percent more carbon than coal per unit of electricity.

Trees are harvested, dried, and transported using fossil fuels. These emissions add about 20 percent or more to the carbon dioxide emissions associated with combustion.

In 2016, Professors Mark Harmon and Bev Law of Oregon State University wrote the following in a letter to members of the U.S. Senate in response to a bill introduced that would essentially designate the burning of trees as carbon neutral:

The [carbon neutrality] bills' assumption that emissions do not increase atmospheric concentrations when forest carbon stocks are stable or increasing is clearly not true scientifically. It ignores the cause and effect basis of modern science. Even if forest carbon stocks are increasing, the use of forest biomass energy can reduce the rate at which forest carbon is increasing. Conservation of mass, a law of physics, means that atmospheric carbon would have to become higher as a result of this action than would have occurred otherwise. One cannot legislate that the laws of physics cease to exist, as this legislation suggests.

Van der Werf, et al. 2009 discuss the effects of land-management practices and state:

(T)he maximum reduction in CO₂ emissions from avoiding de-

forestation and forest degradation is probably about 12% of current total anthropogenic emissions (or 15% if peat degradation is included) - and that is assuming, unrealistically, that emissions from deforestation, forest degradation and peat degradation can be completely eliminated.

...reducing fossil fuel emissions remains the key element for stabilizing atmospheric CO₂ concentrations.

(E)fforts to mitigate emissions from tropical forests and peatlands, and maintain existing terrestrial carbon stocks, remain critical for the negotiation of a post-Kyoto agreement. Even our revised estimates represent substantial emissions ...

Keith et al., 2009 state:

Both net primary production and net ecosystem production in many old forest stands have been found to be positive; they were lower than the carbon fluxes in young and mature stands, but not significantly different from them. Northern Hemisphere forests up to 800 years old have been found to still function as a carbon sink. Carbon stocks can continue to accumulate in multi-aged and mixed species stands because stem respiration rates decrease with increasing tree size, and continual turnover of leaves, roots, and woody material contribute to stable components of soil organic matter. There is a growing body of evidence that forest ecosystems do not necessarily reach an equilibrium between assimilation and respiration, but can continue to accumulate carbon in living biomass, coarse woody debris, and soils, and therefore may act as net carbon sinks for long periods. Hence, process-based models of forest growth and carbon cycling based on an assumption that stands are even-aged and carbon exchange reaches an equilibrium may underestimate productivity

and carbon accumulation in some forest types. Conserving forests with large stocks of biomass from deforestation and degradation avoids significant carbon emissions to the atmosphere. Our insights into forest types and forest conditions that result in high biomass carbon density can be used to help identify priority areas for conservation and restoration.

Hanson, 2010 addresses some of the false notions often misrepresented as “best science” by agencies, extractive industries and the politicians they’ve bought:

Our forests are functioning as carbon sinks (net sequestration) where logging has been reduced or halted, and wildland fire helps maintain high productivity and carbon storage.

Even large, intense fires consume less than 3% of the biomass in live trees, and carbon emissions from forest fires is only tiny fraction of the amount resulting from fossil fuel consumption (even these emissions are balanced by carbon uptake from forest growth and regeneration).

"Thinning" operations for lumber or biofuels do not increase carbon storage but, rather, reduce it, and thinning designed to curb fires further threatens imperiled wildlife species that depend upon post-fire habitat.

Campbell et al., 2011 also refutes the notion that fuel-reduction treatments increase forest carbon storage in the western US:

It has been suggested that thinning trees and other fuel-reduction practices aimed at reducing the probability of high-severity forest fire are consistent with efforts to keep carbon (C) sequestered in terrestrial pools, and that such practices should therefore be

rewarded rather than penalized in C-accounting schemes. By evaluating how fuel treatments, wildfire, and their interactions affect forest C stocks across a wide range of spatial and temporal scales, we conclude that this is extremely unlikely. Our review reveals high C losses associated with fuel treatment, only modest differences in the combustive losses associated with high-severity fire and the low-severity fire that fuel treatment is meant to encourage, and a low likelihood that treated forests will be exposed to fire. Although fuel-reduction treatments may be necessary to restore historical functionality to fire-suppressed ecosystems, we found little credible evidence that such efforts have the added benefit of increasing terrestrial C stocks.

Mitchell et al. (2009) also refutes the assertion that logging to reduce fire hazard helps store carbon, and conclude that although thinning can affect fire, management activities are likely to remove more carbon by logging than will be stored by trying to prevent fire.

Forests affect the climate, climate affects the forests, and there's been increasing evidence of climate triggering forest cover loss at significant scales (Breshears et al. 2005), forcing tree species into new distributions "unfamiliar to modern civilization" (Williams et al. 2012), and raising a question of forest decline across the 48 United States (Cohen et al. 2016).

In 2012 Forest Service scientists reported, "Climate change will alter ecosystem services, perceptions of value, and decisions regarding land uses." (Vose et al. 2012.)

The 2014 National Climate Assessment chapter for the Northwest is prefaced by four "key messages" including this one:

“The combined impacts of increasing wildfire, insect outbreaks, and tree diseases are already causing widespread tree die-off and are virtually certain to cause additional forest mortality by the 2040s and long-term transformation of forest landscapes. Under higher emissions scenarios, extensive conversion of subalpine forests to other forest types is projected by the 2080s.” (Mote et al. 2014.)

None of this means that longstanding values such as conservation of old-growth forests are no longer important. Under increasing heat and its consequences, we’re likely to get unfamiliar understory and canopy comprised of a different mix of species. This new assortment of plant species will plausibly entail a new mix of trees, because some familiar tree species on the (IPNF) may not be viable—or as viable—under emerging climate conditions.

That said, the plausible new mix will include trees for whom the best policy will be in allowing them to achieve their longest possible lifespan, for varied reasons including that big trees will still serve as important carbon capture and storage (Stephenson et al. 2014).

Managing forest lands with concerns for water will be increasingly difficult under new conditions expected for the 21st century. (Sun and Vose, 2016.) Already, concerns have focused on new extremes of low flow in streams. (Kormos et al. 2016.) The 2014 National Climate Assessment Chapter for the Northwest also recognizes hydrologic challenges ahead: “Changes in the timing of streamflow related to changing snowmelt are already observed and will continue, reducing the supply of water for

many competing demands and causing far-reaching ecological and socioeconomic consequences.” (Mote et al. 2014.)

Heat, a long-established topic of physics, plays an equally important role at the level of plant and animal physiology—every organism only survives and thrives within thermal limits. For example, Pörtner et al. (2008) point out, “All organisms live within a limited range of body temperatures... Direct effects of climatic warming can be understood through fatal decrements in an organism's performance in growth, reproduction, foraging, immune competence, behaviors and competitiveness.” The authors further explain, “Performance in animals is supported by aerobic scope, the increase in oxygen consumption rate from resting to maximal.” In other words, rising heat has the same effect on animals as reducing the oxygen supply, and creates the same difficulties in breathing. But breathing difficulties brought on by heat can have important consequences even at sub-lethal levels. In the case of grizzly bears, increased demand for oxygen under increasing heat has implications for vigorous (aerobically demanding) activity including digging, running in pursuit of prey, mating, and the play of cubs.

Malmsheimer et al. 2008 state, “Forests are shaped by climate. Along with soils, aspect, inclination, and elevation, climate determines what will grow where and how well. Changes in temperature and precipitation regimes therefore have the potential to dramatically affect forests nationwide.”

Kirilenko and Sedjo, 2007 state “The response of forestry to global warming is likely to be multifaceted. On some sites, species more appropriate to the climate will replace the earlier species that is no longer suited to the climate.”

Some FS scientists recognize this changing situation, for instance Johnson, 2016:

Forests are changing in ways they've never experienced before because today's growing conditions are different from anything in the past. The climate is changing at an unprecedented rate, exotic diseases and pests are present, and landscapes are fragmented by human activity often occurring at the same time and place.

The current drought in California serves as a reminder and example that forests of the 21st century may not resemble those from the 20th century. "When replanting a forest after disturbances, does it make sense to try to reestablish what was there before? Or, should we find re-plant material that might be more appropriate to current and future conditions of a changing environment?"

"Restoration efforts on U.S. Forest Service managed lands call for the use of locally adapted and appropriate native seed sources. The science-based process for selecting these seeds varies, but in the past, managers based decisions on the assumption that present site conditions are similar to those of the past.

"This may no longer be the case."

The issue of forest response to climate change is also of course an issue of broad importance to community vitality and economic sustainability. Raising a question about persistence of forest stands also raises questions about hopes—and community economic planning—for the sustainability of forest-dependent jobs. Allen et al., 2015 state:

Patterns, mechanisms, projections, and consequences of tree mortality and associated broad-scale forest die-off due to drought accompanied by warmer temperatures—hotter drought”, an emerging characteristic of the Anthropocene—are the focus of rapidly expanding literature.

...(R)ecent studies document more rapid mortality under hotter drought due to negative tree physiological responses and accelerated biotic attacks. Additional evidence suggesting greater vulnerability includes rising background mortality rates; projected increases in drought frequency, intensity, and duration; limitations of vegetation models such as inadequately represented mortality processes; warming feedbacks from die-off; and wild-fire synergies.

...We also present a set of global vulnerability drivers that are known with high confidence: (1) droughts eventually occur everywhere; (2) warming produces hotter droughts; (3) atmospheric moisture demand increases nonlinearly with temperature during drought; (4) mortality can occur faster in hotter drought, consistent with fundamental physiology; (5) shorter droughts occur more frequently than longer droughts and can become lethal under warming, increasing the frequency of lethal drought nonlinearly; and (6) mortality happens rapidly relative to growth intervals needed for forest recovery.

These high-confidence drivers, in concert with research supporting greater vulnerability perspectives, support an overall viewpoint of greater forest vulnerability globally. We surmise that mortality vulnerability is being discounted in part due to difficulties in predicting threshold responses to extreme climate events. Given the profound ecological and societal implications

of underestimating global vulnerability to hotter drought, we highlight urgent challenges for research, management, and policy-making communities.

Moomaw and Smith, 2017 conclude:

With the serious adverse consequences of a changing climate already occurring, it is important to broaden our view of sustainable forestry to see forests ...as complex ecosystems that provide valuable, multiple life-supporting services like clean water, air, flood control, and carbon storage. We have ample policy mechanisms, resources, and funding to support conservation and protection if we prioritize correctly.

...We must commit to a profound transformation, rebuilding forested landscapes that sequester carbon in long-lived trees and permanent soils. Forests that protect the climate also allow a multitude of species to thrive, manage water quality and quantity and protect our most vulnerable communities from the harshest effects of a changing climate.

Protecting and expanding forests is not an “offset” for fossil fuel emissions. To avoid serious climate disruption, it is essential that we simultaneously reduce emissions of carbon dioxide from burning fossil fuels and bioenergy along with other heat trapping gases and accelerate the removal of carbon dioxide from the atmosphere by protecting and expanding forests. It is not one or the other. It is both!

Achieving the scale of forest protection and restoration needed over the coming decades may be a challenging concept to embrace politically; however, forests are the only option that can operate at the necessary scale and within the necessary time

frame to keep the world from going over the climate precipice. Unlike the fossil fuel companies, whose industry must be replaced, the wood products industry will still have an important role to play in providing the wood products that we need while working together to keep more forests standing for their climate, water, storm protection, and biodiversity benefits.

It may be asking a lot to “rethink the forest economy” and to “invest in forest stewardship,” but tabulating the multiple benefits of doing so will demonstrate that often a forest is worth much more standing than logged. Instead of subsidizing the logging of forests for lumber, paper and fuel, society should pay for the multiple benefits of standing forests. It is time to value U.S. forests differently in the twenty-first century. We have a long way to go, but there is not a lot of time to get there.

The FS doesn’t consider that the “desired” vegetation conditions may not be achievable or sustainable, nor conduct an analysis as to how realistic and achievable Forest Plan desired conditions are in the context of a rapidly changing climate, along an unpredictable but changing trajectory.

Global warming and its consequences are effectively irreversible which implicates certain legal consequences under NEPA and NFMA and ESA (e.g., 40 CFR § 1502.16; 16 USC §1604(g); 36 CFR §219.12; ESA Section 7; 50 CFR §§402.9, 402.14). All net carbon emissions from logging represent “irretrievable and irreversible commitments of resources.”

The Committee of Scientists, 1999 recognize the importance of forests for their contribution to global climate regulation. Also, the 2012 Planning Rule recognizes, in its definition of Ecosys-

tem services, the “Benefits people obtain from ecosystems, including: (2) Regulating services, such as long term storage of carbon; climate regulation...”

Harmon, 2009 is the written record of “Testimony Before the Subcommittee on National Parks, Forests, and Public Lands of the Committee of Natural Resources for an oversight hearing on The Role of Federal Lands in Combating Climate Change.” The author “reviews, in terms as simple as possible, how the forest system stores carbon, the issues that need to be addressed when assessing any proposed action, and some common misconceptions that need to be avoided.” His testimony begins, “I am here to ...offer my expertise to the subcommittee. I am a professional scientist, having worked in the area of forest carbon for nearly three decades. During that time I have conducted numerous studies on many aspects of this problem, have published extensively, and provided instruction to numerous students, forest managers, and the general public.”

Climate change science suggests that logging for sequestration of carbon, logging to reduce wild fire, and other manipulation of forest stands does not offer benefits to climate. Rather, increases in carbon emissions from soil disturbance and drying out of forest floors are the result. The FS can best address climate change through minimizing development of forest stands, especially stands that have not been previously logged, by allowing natural processes to function. Furthermore, any supposedly carbon sequestration from logging are usually more than offset by carbon release from ground disturbing activities and from the burning of fossil fuels to accomplish the timber sale, even when couched in the language of restoration. Reducing fossil fuel use is vital.

Everything from travel planning to monitoring would have an important impact in that realm.

There is scientific certainty that climate change has reset the deck for future ecological conditions. For example, Sallabanks, et al., 2001:

(L)ong-term evolutionary potentials can be met only by accounting for potential future changes in conditions. ...Impending changes in regional climates ...have the capacity for causing great shifts in composition of ecological communities.

The EA claims there is a need to “Promote resilient vegetation conditions” and “Reduce the potential for high intensity wildfire while promoting desirable fire behavior characteristics and fuel conditions;”

First, the EA doesn’t demonstrate insect and disease or fire activity in the project area is in any way unusual or uncharacteristic of the forests in this ecosystem.

“Resiliency” tends to be a black box or red herring used by the FS to claim the forest isn’t healthy in the absence of data or analysis to back up such claims. The FS doesn’t disclose the metrics the agency uses to measure resiliency, so that objective measures of resiliency can be applied to the Sweet-Ione project area by a scientist or any rational person now, immediately after the project is completed, and/or at later intervals.

Ecological resilience, which the FS implies it is creating through this project, is not the absence of natural disturbances like wild-

fire or beetle kill, rather it is the opposite (DellaSala and Hanson, 2015, Chapter 1, pp. 12-13). What the FS promotes is the human control of the forest ecosystem through mechanical and other heavy-handed means to maintain unnatural stasis by eliminating, suppressing or altering natural disturbances such as wild-fire, to facilitate the extraction of commercial resources for human use. This is the antithesis of ecological resilience and conservation of native biodiversity. Ecological resilience is the ability to ultimately return to predisturbance vegetation types after a natural disturbance, including higher-severity fire. This sort of dynamic equilibrium, where a varied spectrum of succession stages is present across the larger landscape, tends to maintain the full complement of native biodiversity on the landscape. (Thompson et al., 2009).

The FS's view of ecosystems is inconsistent with a holistic ecosystem management approach, which would acknowledge the forest's capability of operating in a self-regulatory manner. For example, Harvey et al., 1994 state:

Although usually viewed as pests at the tree and stand scale, insects and disease organisms perform functions on a broader scale.

...Pests are a part of even the healthiest eastside ecosystems. Pest roles—such as the removal of poorly adapted individuals, accelerated decomposition, and reduced stand density—may be critical to rapid ecosystem adjustment.

...In some areas of the eastside and Blue Mountain forests, at least, the ecosystem has been altered, setting the stage for high pest activity (Gast and others, 1991). This increased activity

does not mean that the ecosystem is broken or dying; rather, it is demonstrating functionality, as programmed during its developmental (evolutionary) history.

Castello et al. (1995) state:

Pathogens help decompose and release elements sequestered within trees, facilitate succession, and maintain genetic, species and age diversity. Intensive control measures, such as thinning, salvage, selective logging, and buffer clearcuts around affected trees remove crucial structural features. Such activities also remove commercially valuable, disease-resistant trees, thereby contributing to reduced genetic vigor of populations.

In dozens of places the EA uses the word “resilient” or “resilience” in terms of how the project increases it, or how its chasing Forest Plan DCs by increasing the “resilience” of the ecosystem or some aspect of it. The Forest Plan defines “resilience” as: “The ability of a social or ecological system to absorb disturbances while retaining the same basic structure and ways of functioning, the capacity for self-organization, and the capacity to adapt to stress and change.” The Forest Plan defines “restoration” in part, as “the process of assisting the recovery of resilience.” And the Forest Plan defines Forest Health as “An ecological perspective that looks at the resiliency of an ecosystem and its ability to be sustainable.”

However, the Rose Cedar Project EA provides absolutely no operational definition of resilience that would allow anybody to actually measure the resilience of the ecosystem as it stands now, or measure the change in resilience following project activities.

An essential component of an operational definition is measurement. A simple and accurate definition of measurement is the assignment of numbers to a variable in which we are interested. In this case, the variable in which we are interested is resilience, and how the FS measures it in these ecosystems.

Resilience is a scientific term that may be used to characterize forest ecosystems. However, mostly what we read about resilience from the EA and Forest Plan is that it's what happens when the forest is managed (i.e., mostly logged or prescribe burned), and the more the forest is logged and burned, the more resilient it becomes. Also we read that nothing that happens naturally, without management, will increase resilience. In other words, from the FS's perspective, resilience can only be manufactured, engineered, or imposed by management. So the term "resilience" as used by the FS is invalid, rendering much of the analyses confusing and misleading.

Since the Rose Cedar project is tiered to the Forest Plan, then in order to consider best available science the FS must finally explain what science it has considered for all forest plan components/direction.

Fire, insects & disease are endemic to western forests and are natural processes resulting in the forest self-thinning. This provides for greater diversity of plant and animal habitat than logging can achieve. In areas that have been historically and logged there are less diversity of native plants, more invasive species, and less animal diversity. Six et al., 2014 documented that logging to prevent or contain insect and disease has not been empirically proven to work, and because of lack of monitoring the FS

can't content this method is viable for containing insect outbreaks.

Wales, et al. 2007 modeled various potential outcomes of fire and fuel management scenarios on the structure of forested habitats in northeast Oregon. They projected that the natural disturbance scenario resulted in the highest amounts of all types of medium and large tree forests combined and best emulated the Natural Range of Variability for medium and large tree forests by potential vegetation type after several decades. Restoring the natural disturbances regimes and processes is the key to restoring forest structure and functionality similar to historical conditions. The FS fails to reconcile this science with the premises behind the Sweet-Ione proposal.

Other scientific information contradicts some of the premises upon which the EA is based. Bradley, et al. 2016 “found forests with higher levels of protection had lower severity values even though they are generally identified as having the highest overall levels of biomass and fuel loading.” Among the major findings were that areas undisturbed by logging experienced significantly less intensive fire compared with areas that have been logged. From a news release announcing the results of the study (<http://www.biologicaldiversity.org/publications/papers/>):

“We were surprised to see how significant the differences were between protected areas managed for biodiversity and unprotected areas, which our data show burned more severely,” said lead author Curtis Bradley, with the Center for Biological Diversity.

The study focused on forests with relatively frequent fire regimes, ponderosa pine and mixed-conifer forest types; used multiple statistical models; and accounted for effects of climate, topography and regional differences to ensure the findings were robust.

“The belief that restrictions on logging have increased fire severity did not bear out in the study,” said Dr. Chad Hanson, an ecologist with the John Muir Project. “In fact, the findings suggest the opposite. The most intense fires are occurring on private forest lands, while lands with little to no logging experience fires with relatively lower intensity.”

“Our findings demonstrate that increased logging may actually increase fire severity,” said Dr. Dominick A. DellaSala, chief scientist of Geos Institute. “Instead, decision-makers concerned about fire should target proven fire-risk reduction measures nearest homes and keep firefighters out of harm’s way by focusing fire suppression actions near towns, not in the back country.”

Elsewhere we explain there is no need to “Maintain or improve old growth character within existing old growth” nor is there scientific support for this agenda.

Does the project comply with the old growth standards in the Forest Plan?

How will the project effect old growth dependent species?

When was the last time the Colville surveyed for old growth dependent species and what was the result of this surgery?

What species will benefit from this project?

What species will be harmed by this project?

The EA claims there is a need to “Promote early seral tree species” but if this were true, there is no explanation why the FS doesn’t manage consistently with Forest Plan direction to accept natural processes and respond to the EA’s expressed need to “Encourage fire’s ecological function” which would do the job if the FS wasn’t continuously suppressing fire and other natural processes.

The EA also fails to provide a rational explanation of the alleged need to conduct logging with “treatments ...consistent with the patch size and pattern” that would naturally occur anyway. Churchill, 2011 points out:

Over time, stand development processes and biophysical variation, along with low and mixed-severity disturbances, break up these large patches into a finer quilt of patch types. These new patterns then constrain future fires. Landscape pattern is thus generated from a blend of finer scale, feedback loops of vegetation and disturbance and broad scale events that are driven by extreme climatic events.

(Emphases added.) Churchill describes above the ongoing natural processes that will alleviate the need to “Diversify successional stages” alleged in the EA—without expensive and ecologically risky logging and road building. Since no proper spatial

analysis of the landscape pattern's departure has been completed, the EA has no scientifically defensible logging solution.

The definition of Wildland Urban Interface does not conform to any rational criteria, in regards to the alleged need to reduce fire risk in the project area.

The U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service found that bull trout are exceptionally sensitive to the direct, indirect, and cumulative effects of roads. Dunham and Rieman demonstrated that disturbance from roads was associated with reduced bull trout occurrence. They concluded that conservation of bull trout should involve protection of larger, less fragmented, and less disturbed (lower road density) habitats to maintain important strongholds and sources for naturally recolonizing areas where populations have been lost. (USFS 2000, page 3-82.

Hitt and Frissell showed that over 65% of waters that were rated as having high aquatic biological integrity were found within wilderness-containing subwatersheds.

Trombulak and Frissell concluded that the presence of roads in an area is associated with negative effects for both terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems including changes in species composition and population size. (USFS 2000, pages 3-80-81).

"High integrity [forests] contain the greatest proportion of high forest, aquatic, and hydrologic integrity of all are dominated by wilderness and roadless areas [and] are the least altered by management. Low integrity [forests have] likely been altered by past management are extensively roaded and have little wilderness." (USFS 1996a, pages 108, 115 and 116).

"Much of this [overly dense forest] condition occurs in areas of high road density where the large, shade-intolerant, insect-, disease- and fire-resistant species have been harvested over the past 20 to 30 years. Fires in unroaded areas are not as severe as in the roaded areas because of less surface fuel, and after fires at least some of the large trees survive to produce seed that regenerates the area. Many of the fires in the unroaded areas produce a forest structure that is consistent with the fire regime, while the fires in the roaded areas commonly produce a forest structure that is not in sync with the fire regime. In general, the effects of wildfires in these areas are much lower and do not result in the chronic sediment delivery hazards exhibited in areas that have been roaded." (USFS 1997a, pages 281-282).

"Increasing road density is correlated with declining aquatic habitat conditions and aquatic integrity. An intensive review of the literature concludes that increases in sedimentation [of streams] are unavoidable even using the most cautious roading methods." (USFS 1996b, page 105).

"This study suggests the general trend for the entire Columbia River basin is toward a loss in pool habitat on managed lands and stable or improving conditions on unmanaged lands." (McIntosh et al 1994).

"The data suggest that unmanaged systems may be more structurally intact (i.e., coarse woody debris, habitat diversity, riparian vegetation), allowing a positive interaction with the stream processes (i.e., peak flows, sediment routing) that shape and maintain high-quality fish habitat over time." (McIntosh et al 1994).

"Although precise, quantifiable relationships between long-term trends in fish abundance and land-use practices are difficult to obtain (Bisson et al. 1992), the body of literature concludes that land-use practices cause the simplification of fish habitat." (McIntosh et al 1994).

"Land management activities that contributed to the forest health problem (i.e., selective harvest and fire suppression) have had an equal or greater effect on aquatic ecosystems.

If we are to restore and maintain high quality fish habitat, then protecting and restoring aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems is essential." (McIntosh et al 1994).

"Native fishes are most typically extirpated from waters that have been heavily modified by human activity, where native fish assemblages have already been depleted, disrupted, or stressed []." (Moyle et al 1996).

"Restoration should be focused where minimal investment can maintain the greatest area of high-quality habitat and diverse aquatic biota. Few completely roadless, large watersheds remain in the Pacific Northwest, but those that continue relatively undisturbed are critical in sustaining sensitive native species and important ecosystem processes (Sedell, et. al 1990; Moyle and Sato 1991; Williams 1991; McIntosh et al. 1994;

Frissell and Bayles 1996). With few exceptions, even the least disturbed basins have a road network and history of logging or other human disturbance that greatly magnifies the risk of deteriorating riverine habitats in the watershed." (Frissell undated).

"[A]llocate all unroaded areas greater than 1,000 acres as Strongholds for the production of clean water, aquatic and riparian-dependent species. Many unroaded areas are isolated, relatively small, and most are not protected from road construction and subsequent timber harvest, even in steep areas. Thus, immediate protection through allocation of the unroaded areas to the production of clean water, aquatic and riparian-dependent resources is necessary to prevent degradation of this high quality habitat and should not be postponed." (USFWS et al 1995).

"Because of fire suppression, timber harvest, roads, and white pine blister rust, the moist forest PVG has experienced great changes since settlement of the project area by Euroamericans. Vast amounts of old forest have converted to mid seral stages."(USFS/BLM 2000, page 4-58).

"Old forests have declined substantially in the dry forest PVG []. In general, forests showing the most change are those that have been roaded and harvested. Large trees, snags, and coarse woody debris are all below historical levels in these areas."

(USFS/BLM 2000, page 4-65).

"High road densities and their locations within watersheds are typically correlated with areas of higher watershed sensitivity to

erosion and sediment transport to streams. Road density also is correlated with the distribution and spread of exotic annual grasses, noxious weeds, and other exotic plants. Furthermore, high road densities are correlated with areas that have few large snags and few large trees that are resistant to both fire and infestation of insects and disease. Lastly, high road densities are correlated with areas that have relatively high risk of fire occurrence (from human caused fires), high hazard ground fuels, and high tree mortality." (USFS 1996b, page 85, parenthesis in original).

In simpler terms, the Forest Service has found that there is no way to build an environmentally benign road and that roads and logging have caused greater damage to forest ecosystems than has the suppression of wildfire alone. These findings indicate that roadless areas in general will take adequate care of themselves if left alone and unmanaged, and that concerted reductions in road densities in already roaded areas are absolutely necessary.

Indeed, other studies conducted by the Forest Service indicate that efforts to "manage" our way out of the problem are likely to make things worse. By "expanding our efforts in timber harvests to minimize the risks of large fire, we risk expanding what are

well established negative effects on streams and native salmonids. The perpetuation or expansion of existing road networks and other activities might well erode the ability of [fish] populations to respond to the effects of large scale storms and other disturbances that we clearly cannot change." (Reiman et al 1997).

The following quotes demonstrate that trying to restore lower severity fire regimes and forests through logging and other management activities may make the situation worse, compared to allowing nature to reestablish its own equilibrium. These statements are found in "An Assessment of Ecosystem Components in the Interior Columbia Basin and Portions of the Klamath and Great Basins, Volume 3 (ICBEMP):

"Since past timber harvest activities have contributed to degradation in aquatic ecosystems, emphasis on timber harvest and thinning to restore more natural forests and fire regimes represent risks of extending the problems of the past." (ICBEMP page 1340).

"Proposed efforts to reduce fuel loads and stand densities often involve mechanical treatment and the use of prescribed fire. Such activities are not without their own drawbacks -- long-term

negative effects of timber harvest activities on aquatic ecosystems are well documented (see this chapter; Henjum and others 1994; Meehan 1991; Salo and Cundy 1987).” (ICBEMP page 1340).

“Species like bull trout that are associated with cold, high elevation forests have probably persisted in landscapes that were strongly influenced by low frequency, high severity fire regimes. In an evolutionary sense, many native fishes are likely well acquainted with large, stand-replacing fires.” (ICBEMP page 1341).

“Attempts to minimize the risk of large fires by expanding timber harvest risks expanding the well-established negative effects on aquatic systems as well. The perpetuation or expansion of existing road networks and other activities might well erode the ability of populations to respond to the effects of fire and large storms and other disturbances that we cannot predict or control (National Research Council 1996). (ICBEMP page 1342).

“Watersheds that support healthy populations may be at greater risk through disruption of watershed processes and degradation of habitats caused by intensive management than through the effects of fire.” (ICBEMP page 1342).

"Timber harvest, through its effects on forest structure, local microclimate, and fuels accumulation, has increased fire severity more than any other recent human activity. If not accompanied by adequate reduction of fuels, logging (including salvage of dead and dying trees) increases fire hazard by increasing surface dead fuels and changing the local microclimate. Fire intensity and expected fire spread rates thus increase locally and in areas adjacent to harvest". (USFS 1996c, pages 4-61-72).

"Logged areas generally showed a strong association with increased rate of spread and flame length, thereby suggesting that tree harvesting could affect the potential fire behavior within landscapes...As a by-product of clearcutting, thinning, and other tree-removal activities, activity fuels create both short- and long-term fire hazards to ecosystems. Even though these hazards diminish over time, their influence on fire behavior can linger for up to 30 years in dry forest ecosystems of eastern Oregon and Washington". (Huff et al 1995).

The answer, therefore, is not to try managing our way out of this situation with more roads and timber harvest/management. In summary:

- Roads have adverse effects on aquatic ecosystems. They facilitate timber sales which can reduce riparian cover, increase water temperatures, decrease recruitment of coarse woody debris, and disrupt the hydrologic regime of watersheds by changing the timing and quantity of runoff. Roads themselves disrupt hydrologic processes by intercepting and diverting flow and contributing fine sediment into the stream channels which clogs spawning gravels. High water temperatures and fine sediment degrade native fish spawning habitat.

According to the U.S. Forest Service 82% of all bull trout populations and stream segments range-wide are threatened by degraded habitat conditions. Roads and forest management are a major factor in the decline of native fish species on public lands in the Northern Rockies and Pacific Northwest.

- An open road density (ORD) of one mile per square mile of land reduces elk habitat effectiveness to only 60% of potential. When ORD increases to six miles per square mile, habitat effectiveness for elk decreases to less than 20%. (Lyon 1984).

Thank you for your time.

Sincerely yours,

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