

July 1, 2024

To: Objection Reviewing Officer

USDA Forest Service Northern Region
26 Fort Missoula Road
Missoula, MT 59804

Dear Objection Reviewing Officer:

Thank you for considering our Objection against the Draft
Decision Notice, FONSI, and Environmental Assessment
for the Coyote-Divide Vegetation Project, Forest Service,
Helena-Lewis and Clark National Forest, Belt Creek-White
Sulphur Springs Ranger District.

Identification of Objectors: Lead Objector:

Michael Garrity,

Executive Director,

Alliance for the Wild Rockies (Alliance)

PO Box 505 Helena, MT 59624;

Phone 406-459-5936.

And for

Sara Johnson, Director

Native Ecosystems Council

PO Box 125

Willow Creek, MT 59760

And for

Steve Kelly, Director

Council on Wildlife and Fish

P.O. Box 4641

Bozeman, MT 59772

And for

Kristine Akland

Center for Biological Diversity

P.O. Box 7274

Missoula, MT 59807

kakland@biologicaldiversity.org

Signed for Objectors this 1st day of July 2024

/s/

Michael Garrity

NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN that Alliance objects pursuant to 36 CFR section 218 to the Responsible Official's selection of the proposed action, which includes logging on 2977 acres including clearcutting on 286 acres and building 23.9 miles of new roads, 17 miles of road reconstruction, and 7.4 miles of road reconditioning.

Alliance is objecting to this project on the grounds that implementation of the Selected Alternative would not be fully in accordance with the laws governing management of the national forests such as Clean Water Act, the ESA, NEPA, NFMA, the Helena Lewis and Clark Forest Plan and the APA, and will result in additional degradation in already degraded watersheds and mountain slopes, further upsetting the wildlife habitat, ecosystem and human communities. Our objections are detailed below.

As a result of the Draft DN, individuals and members of the above-mentioned groups would be directly and significantly affected by the logging and associated activities.

Appellants are conservation organizations working to ensure protection of biological diversity and ecosystem integrity in the Wild Rockies bioregion (including the HLCNF). The individuals and members use the project area for recreation and other forest related activities. The selected alternative would also further degrade the water quality, wildlife and fish habitat. These activities, if implemented, would adversely impact and irreparably harm the natural qualities of the Project Area, the surrounding

area, and would further degrade the watersheds and wildlife habitat.

1. Objectors names and addresses:

Lead Objector Mike Garrity, Executive Director, Alliance
for the Wild Rockies

P.O. Box 505; Helena, MT 59624

Phone 406 459-5936

Objector Sara Jane Johnson

Director, Native Ecosystems Council,

P.O. Box 125

Willow Creek, MT;

Augusta, MT 59410

Objector Steve Kelly, Director

Council on Wildlife and Fish

P.O. Box 4641

Bozeman, MT 59772

Objector Kristine Akland

Center for Biological Diversity

P.O. Box 7274

Missoula, MT 59807

kakland@biologicaldiversity.org

2. Signature of Lead Objector:

Signed this 1st day of July, 2024 by Lead Objector,

/s/ Michael Garrity

3. Lead Objector: Michael Garrity, Alliance for the
Wild Rockies

4. Name of the Proposed Project, Responsible Official,
National Forest and Ranger District where Project is:

Coyote Dive Project;

Helen Smith, Belt Creek-White Sulphur Springs District Ranger, Helena-Lewis and Clark National Forest is the Responsible Official; The project is in the Townsend Ranger District of the Helena-Lewis and Clark National Forest (HLCNF). Ranger Smith chose the proposed action alternative in the Draft Decision Notice and FONSI.

NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN that AWR and Native Ecosystems Council (NEC) object pursuant to 36 CFR section 218 to the Responsible Official's adoption of the proposed alternative. As discussed below, the Coyote-Divide Project as proposed violates the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA), the National Forest Management Act (NFMA), the Endangered Species Act (ESA), the Helena-Lewis and Clark Forest Plan, the Roadless Conservation Rule and the Administrative Procedure Act (APA).

Location

This Draft Decision Notice calls for: will treat vegetation on approximately 7,941 acres across the area with a combination of commercial logging, non-commercial logging, and prescribed fire treatments. These treatments have been designed to avoid creating clearcuts larger than 75 acres but allow for logging and burning to meet the purpose and need of the project. The decision includes associated road work on approximately 63.4 miles as outlined in the Environmental Assessment in Table 2 and will obliterate approximately 100 miles of unauthorized routes (Environmental Assessment , Table 3) over time per compliance with the Little Belt Mountains, Castle Mountains, (North Half) Crazy Mountains Travel Management Plan, Record of Decision (2007).

Approximately 18.8 miles of temporary road would be constructed or reconstructed for haul in the project area, of which 16 miles would be new temporary road construction and 2.8 miles would be temporary construction on an existing road template (i.e., a road prism exists on the ground but is not an open route or system road).

The project area is in the Little Belt Mountains of central Montana. The area lies west of U.S Highway 89, between

the communities of Monarch and Neihart in Cascade County and Meagher County, MT. The responsible official for this decision is District Ranger Helen Smith. An Environmental Assessment and a draft Decision Notice, draft FONSI have been prepared and are available online at <https://www.fs.usda.gov/project/?project=59803>.

5. Specific Issues Related to the Proposed Projects, including how Objectors believes the Environmental Analysis or Draft Decision Notice and FONSI specifically violates Law, Regulation, or Policy: We included this under number 8 below.

Thank you for the opportunity to object on the Coyote-Divide Vegetation Project. Please accept this objection from me on behalf of the Alliance for the Wild Rockies, Native Ecosystems Council, and Council on Wildlife and Fish.

6. Suggested Remedies that would Resolve the Objection:

We recommend that the “No Action Alternative” be selected. We have also made specific recommendations after each problem.

7. Supporting Reasons for the Reviewing Office to Consider:

This landscape has very high wildlife values, including for the threatened grizzly bear, lynx, whitebark pine, big game species, and wildlife dependent upon unlogged forests. The project area will be concentrated within some of the best wildlife habitat in this landscape which is an important travel corridor for wildlife such as lynx, grizzly bears, and wolverine. The agency will also be exacerbating an ongoing problem of displacing elk to adjacent private lands in the hunting season due to a lack of security on public lands. The public interest is not being served by this project.

Suggested Remedies to Resolve the Objection:

The agency can choose the No Action Alternative and the agency needs to complete the surveys for lynx and whitebark pine. The agency also needs to ensure that all road that are listed as closed or no longer counted as roads

are effectively closed or have an effective barrier preventing motorized use.

The HLCNF must also consult with the Fish and Wildlife Service forest wide on and the impact of the project on lynx, grizzly bears, whitebark pine, and wolverines. The HLCNF must also survey the project area for whitebark pine. Without these corrective actions, implementation of the Coyote-Divide project, will lead to severe, irretrievable impacts on almost all wildlife species on the Forest. These impacts, if continued across the HLCNF for other projects, will erode the viability of a huge number of wildlife species across this landscape.

8. Statements that Demonstrates Connection between
Prior Specific Written Comments on the Particular
Proposed Project and the Content of the Objection.

We wrote in our August 26, 2023 comments:

EEE. Disclose how Project complies with the Roadless Rule;

We wrote in our comments:

The preliminary EA also states:

Forested Resiliency, Diversity, and Restoration

- *Develop and maintain forest and rangeland conditions across the landscape.*
- *Improve the components of forest health to promote resiliency to disturbances including insects, disease, fire, and drought through maintaining existing seral species and increasing or restoring their overall representation across the landscape.*

Maintain and Enhance Ecological Integrity of Terrestrial Vegetation

- *Promote natural openings and fire-resistant tree species within open-grown forested stands that can be maintained in a low fire hazard condition.*

The exemption to the roadless rule is for forests that are outside the normal range of variability. The EA does not demonstrate that the roadless areas are outside the normal range of variability.

Are the roadless areas in the project area currently within the natural historic range of variability?

Is the project area within natural range for wildfire conditions?

Will this prescribed Fire Project substantially alter the Roadless characteristics in the inventoried roadless areas within the project area?

Use of an EA for this project is also invalid because the proposed vegetation treatments would occur within Inventoried Roadless Areas (IRA). This qualifies as an extraordinary circumstance that invalidates use of a EA. It is the existence of a cause- effect relationship between a proposed action and the potential effects on these resource conditions and if such a relationship exists, the degree of the potential effects of a proposed action on these resource conditions that determine whether extraordinary circumstances exist (36 CFR 220.g(b)).

Page 7 of the roadless report states:

Small diameter timber would be cut (hand cutting with chainsaws and mechanically rearranging fuels or by hand) to maintain or improve the Calf Creek Inventoried Roadless Area characteristics.

In relevant part, regarding the prohibition on tree cutting, the Roadless Rule mandates:

Prohibition on timber cutting, sale, or removal in inventoried roadless areas.

(a) Timber may not be cut, sold, or removed in inventoried roadless areas of the National Forest System, except as provided in paragraph (b) of this section.

(b) Notwithstanding the prohibition in paragraph (a) of this section, timber may be cut, sold, or removed in inventoried roadless areas if the Responsible Official determines that one of the following circumstances exists. The cutting, sale, or removal of timber in these areas is expected to be infrequent.

(1) The cutting, sale, or removal of generally small diameter timber is needed for one of the following purposes and will maintain or improve one or more of the roadless area characteristics as defined in § 294.11.

(i) To improve threatened, endangered, proposed, or sensitive species habitat; or

(ii) To maintain or restore the characteristics of ecosystem composition and structure, such as to reduce the risk of uncharacteristic wildfire effects, within the range of variability that would be expected to occur under natural disturbance regimes of the current climatic period;

(2) The cutting, sale, or removal of timber is incidental to the implementation of a management activity not otherwise prohibited by this subpart;

36 C.F.R. §294.13 (2005).

The Roadless Rule further explains the meaning of the phrase “incidental to” in subsection (b)(2) above as follows:

Paragraph (b)(2) allows timber cutting, sale, or removal in inventoried roadless areas when incidental to implementation of a management activity not otherwise prohibited by this rule. Examples of these activities include, but are not limited to trail construction or maintenance; removal of hazard trees adjacent to classified road for public health and safety reasons; fire line construction for wildland fire suppression or control of prescribed fire; survey and maintenance of property boundaries; other authorized activities such as ski runs and utility corridors; or for road construction and reconstruction where allowed by this rule.

The preliminary EA does not adequately demonstrate that the project will reduce the risk of uncharacteristic wildfire effects, within the range of variability that would be expected to occur under natural disturbance regimes of the current climatic period.

We wrote in our August 26, 2023 comments:

Page one of the roadless report states:

Based on the 2021 Helena-Lewis and Clark Forest Plan Record of Decision and Final Environmental Impact Statement, it is unlikely that either Calf Creek or Pilgrim Creek inventoried roadless areas would be considered for future wilderness designation.

S. 1531, currently in the U.S. Senate would designate the Calf Creek and Pilgrim Creek inventoried roadless areas as wilderness. Since only Congress can designate wilderness, not the Forest Service, the EA needs to analyze the impact of the project on potential wilderness.

The preliminary EA does not adequately explain why the project is not in violation of the roadless rule.

For example, page 5 of the roadless report states a reason that allows the project to violate the roadless rule is:

Wildland Urban Interface

- ***Reduce threat of catastrophic wildfire by reducing hazardous fuel loads in the Wildland Urban Interface, prioritizing the Belt Park Road area and the Monarch to Neihart Highway corridor.***

But the preliminary EA does not demonstrate that the roadless areas are in the Wildland Urban Interface as defined by the Healthy Forest Act which is 1 and 1/2 miles from a community not from a highway.

The Forest Service responded:

Based on the 2021 Helena-Lewis and Clark Forest Plan

Record of Decision and Final Environmental Impact

Statement, it is unlikely that either Calf Creek or Pilgrim

Creek inventoried roadless areas would be considered for future wilderness designation.

This is incorrect. S. 1531, the Northern Rockies Ecosystem Protection Act is before the Senate and has 12 sponsors. S. 1531 would designate all inventoried roadless areas in the Helena-Lewis and Clark N.F. as wilderness, including the Calf Creek or Pilgrim Creek inventoried roadless areas.

The EA, Decision Notice and FONSI also did not consider the wilderness potential of the roadless areas

Therefore the project is in violation of NEPA, NFMA, the 2001 Roadless Conservation Rule and the APA.

Pages 4-5 of the Roadless Report states:

Issues Addressed

The proposed action includes activities that are not prohibited under the 2001 Inventoried Roadless Rule

(Roadless Rule) such as prescribed fire or activities falling under one or more exceptions allowing the cutting, sale, or removal of “generally small diameter tree cutting”. There are portions of two Inventoried Roadless Areas (IRA) as part of the Coyote Divide Project area. The roadless areas, proposed acres and anticipated allowable treatments exceptions to prohibitions for these areas are outlined below:

Pilgrim Creek IRA - approximately 799 acres of proposed treatment under rule exception

- *294.13 (b)(1)(ii) to maintain or restore the characteristics of ecosystem composition and structure, such as to reduce the risk of uncharacteristic wildfire effects, within the range of variability that would be expected to occur under natural disturbance regimes of*

the current climatic period; along with prescribed fire, a non-prohibited activity.

Calf Creek IRA - approximately 34 acres of proposed treatment including prescribed fire, a non-

prohibited activity is being proposed. Treatments would fall under a combination of exceptions to the

prohibitions:

- *294.13 (b)(1)(ii) as listed above for Pilgrim Creek*
- *294.13 (b)(2) the cutting, sale or removal of timber is incidental to implementation of management activity not otherwise prohibited*
- *No temporary roads are being proposed in Inventoried Roadless Area*

The following issues are relevant to the roadless resources within the analysis area:

- *Disclose how the project complies with the Roadless Rule*

- *Impacts of project treatments on wilderness attributes and roadless area characteristics*

This purpose and need for action reflects the difference between the current vegetation conditions and the desired vegetation conditions for this landscape. The following purposes and needs have been identified:

Life Safety

- *Improve conditions for public and firefighter safety across the landscape in the event of a wildfire, as every wildland fire requires an appropriate management response based on management direction.*

Forested Resiliency, Diversity, and Restoration

- *Develop and maintain forest and rangeland conditions across the landscape.*

- *Improve the components of forest health to promote resiliency to disturbances including insects, disease, fire, and drought through maintaining existing seral species and increasing or restoring their overall representation across the landscape.*

Maintain and Enhance Ecological Integrity of Terrestrial Vegetation

- *Promote natural openings and fire-resistant tree species within open-grown forested stands that can be maintained in a low fire hazard condition.*

Wildland Urban Interface

- *Reduce threat of catastrophic wildfire by reducing hazardous fuel loads in the Wildland Urban*

Interface, prioritizing the Belt Park Road area and the Monarch to Neihart Highway corridor.

There are several problems with this. 1) The Coyote-Divide EA and Decision Notice does not demonstrate that the area is outside the normal range of variability and doesn't demonstrate that the proposed action will make the area more resilient.

For all wildlife, the Helena-Lewis and Clark National Forest needs to quantify current habitat availability by gathering local population monitoring data. Without data, diversity will decline without any way to measure the loss to wildlife and wildlife habitat quantity and quality. This is highly irresponsible and unlawful.

Since the 1982 NFMA Planning Regulations went into effect, biological diversity was provided for (36 CFR 219.26), "maintained," "preserved and maintained" by the

following Regulations, which all **tiered to** NFMA Section 6(g)(3)(B): 36 CFR 219.27(a) Resource Protection. All management prescriptions shall – (5) Provide for and maintain diversity of plant and animal communities... as provided in paragraph (g) of this section; and 36 CFR 219.27(g) Diversity. Management prescriptions, where appropriate and to the extent practicable, shall preserve and enhance the diversity of *plant and animal* communities,... Planning **type conversions** shall be justified by an analysis showing biological, economic, social and environmental design consequences, and the relation of such **conversions** to the process of natural change. Emphasis added.

Without using Pfister to determine habitat types present in the project area, the Forest Service has no idea what "type conversions" clearcuts in roadless areas are creating, which

will most likely lead to an irreversible and irretrievable loss of vegetative and animal diversity.

What does the current status of monitored species indicate about current population health in this Project landscape?

Or in other words, is the current habitat sufficient to maintain or improve populations and maintain plant and animal diversity? If it is, how much more can you take and not trigger significant population loss and possible local extinctions? If there currently isn't enough habitat to maintain diversity, how can you justify taking more with no data, no analysis and no disclosure (NFMA and NEPA)? The new Forest Plan eliminated all diversity protections found in the 1982 Regulations.

Diversity is a non-discretionary statutory requirement, which was replaced with nothing equivalent to the regulatory mechanisms relied upon for decades in the old Forest Plan. There is ***nothing*** replacing the old measures

used to protect biodiversity, in violation of NFMA and it's implementing regulations. Emphasis added.

Remedy

Drop all management activities proposed in the inventoried roadless areas or choose the No Action Alternative or withdraw the EA, Draft Decision Notice and FONSA and write an EIS that fully complies with the law.

Whitebark pine

We wrote in our comments:

Please disclose whether you have conducted surveys in the Project area for this Project for whitebark pine, wolverines, pine martins, northern goshawk and lynx, as required by the Forest Plan.

Please disclose the last time the Project area was surveyed for whitebark pine, wolverines, pine martins, northern goshawk, and lynx.

Please disclose how often the Project area has been surveyed for whitebark pine, wolverines, pine martins, northern goshawks, and lynx.

Would the habitat be better for whitebark pine, wolverines, pine martins, northern goshawks, and lynx if roads were removed in the Project area?

Please provide us with the full BA for the whitebark pine, wolverines, pine martins, northern goshawks, and lynx.

The Forest Service responded on Page 9 of the Forest Vegetation report:

Commercial thin and improvement cuts are intermediate treatments designed to remove mature trees (generally greater than eight inches diameter at breast height) to improve forest growth and resilience. Small diameter trees with no commercial value may also be felled to achieve desired stand density, reduce the number of canopy layers, address fuels, or reduce competition around leave trees. Leave tree selection would favor the best quality trees with large, well-formed crowns, straight stems, and little to no insect or disease issues. Leave tree species

preference would be whitebark pine, ponderosa pine, limber pine, Douglas-fir, lodgepole pine, and then spruce and subalpine fir. Post-treatment residual trees would have more growing space, light, nutrients, and water to allow them to develop into larger trees more rapidly with reduced insect susceptibility. Commercial thinning would occur in units with more homogenous species composition and size class. This thinning, primarily from below, would maintain or increase average stand diameter, reduce density by about 50 percent, and create a single storied structure. Improvement cutting would occur across the diameter classes in stands with more diverse species composition, size classes, and insect damage. This treatment would reduce tree density by up to 50% while maintaining the average size class. Basal area would be reduced to less than 100 square feet per acre to reduce stand hazard ratings for Douglas-fir beetle and western spruce budworm. Reduced inter-tree competition and canopy layers would enhance diameter growth and tree vigor. Although other species would be retained where present, Douglas-fir would remain the dominant species. Residual tree mortality would be less than ten percent. Improvement cutting in the presence of mature whitebark pine would have an objective to reduce competition from other tree species and to reduce the impacts to these trees in the event of wildfire. Improvement cutting in aspen stands would have an objective to reduce competition to aspen stems of all size classes in and around aspen clones.

The Forest Service also responded:

It is determined that project implementation may affect - is likely to adversely affect whitebark pine. This determination is based upon the following rationale: Full biological assessment is contained in the project record.

- *Project activities would not contribute to the most important threats to whitebark pine (white pine blister rust, mountain pine beetle, altered fire regimes, and change).*
- *Field surveys conducted in 2020 and 2021 documented occurrences of seedlings, saplings, and mature whitebark pine in the project area.*
- *Proposed activities such as commercial harvest and prescribed burning may impact incidental seedlings and saplings.*
- *Temporary road construction or road construction could kill incidental seedlings and saplings.*

Since you admit that, “Residual tree mortality would be less than ten percent.”, please get a take permit from the FWS for taking whitebark pine.

The following sentence: “Improvement cutting in the presence of mature whitebark pine would have an objective to reduce competition from other tree species and to reduce

the impacts to these trees in the event of wildfire.” is not based on the best available science.

Please see the attached paper by Six et al 2021 Whitebark Genetics 2021. Six et al found:

“Anthropogenic change is creating or enhancing a number of stressors on forests. To aid forests in adapting to these stressors, we need to move beyond traditional spacing and age- class prescriptions and take into account the genetic variability within and among populations and the impact our actions may have on adaptive potential and forest trajectories. Because so little is known about the genetic diversity in most forest trees, and because it is key to effective conservation, studies of genetic diversity and structuring in forest trees should be a top priority in forest adaptation and conservation efforts.”

The project is not following the best available science and is not meeting the purpose and need in violation of NEPA, NFMA, the Forest Plan, the ESA and the APA. Since Whitebark pine are now listed under the ESA, you must formally reconsult with the FWS on the impact of the

project on whitebark pine. To do this the Forest Service will need to have a complete and recent survey of the entire project area for whitebark pine and consider planting whitebark pine as the best available science by Keene et al. states is the only way to get new whitebark pine to grow. The Forest Service is incorrect when it states that the project will have “No significant effects would result from this project or cumulatively with other activities on National Forest or adjacent lands that would affect at-risk plant species’ ability to persist on the landscape.”

Since you have done no surveys of whitebark pine what is the basis of the “No effect” statement?

Please formally consult with the FWS on the impact of the project on Whitebark pine.

Since whitebark pine are very slow growing trees and take years to mature, what scientific evidence to you have to

back up the following statement on page 29? “Some immature trees may be lost, but this would not result in a trend toward federal listing.”

Not all ecosystems or all Rocky Mountain landscapes have experienced the impacts of fire exclusion. In some wilderness areas, where in recent decades natural fires have been allowed to burn, there have not been major shifts in vegetation composition and structure (Keane et al. 2002).

In some alpine ecosystems, fire was never an important ecological factor. In some upper subalpine ecosystems, fires were important, but their rate of occurrence was too low to have been significantly altered by the relatively short period of fire suppression (Keane et al. 2002).

For example, the last 70 to 80 years of fire suppression have not had much influence on subalpine landscapes with fire intervals of 200 to several hundred years (Romme and Despain).

Consequently, it is unlikely that fire exclusion has yet to significantly alter stand conditions or forest health within Rocky Mountain subalpine ecosystems.

Whitebark pine seedlings, saplings and mature trees, present in subalpine forests proposed for burning, would experience mortality from project activity. Whitebark pine is fire intolerant (thin bark). Fire favors whitebark pine regeneration (through canopy opening and reducing competing vegetation) only in the presence of adequate seed source and dispersal mechanisms (Clarks Nutcracker or humans planting whitebark pine seedlings).

White pine blister rust, an introduced disease, has caused rapid mortality of whitebark pine over the last 30 to 60 years. Keane and Arno (1993) reported that 42 percent of whitebark pine in western Montana had died in the previous 20 years with 89 percent of remaining trees being infected with blister rust. The ability of whitebark pine to

reproduce naturally is strongly affected by blister rust infection; the rust kills branches in the upper cone bearing crown, effectively ending seed production.

Montana is currently experiencing a mountain pine beetle epidemic. Mountain pine beetle prefer large, older whitebark pine, which are the major cone producers. In some areas the few remaining whitebark that show the potential for blister rust resistance are being attacked and killed by mountain pine beetles, thus accelerating the loss of key mature cone- bearing trees.

Whitebark pine seedlings and saplings are very likely present in the subalpine forests proposed for burning and logging. In the absence of fire, this naturally occurring white- bark pine regeneration would continue to function as an important part of the subalpine ecosystem. Since 2005, rust resistant seed sources have been identified in the Northern Rockies (Mahalovich et al 2006). Due to the

severity of blister rust infection within the region, natural whitebark pine regeneration in the project area is prospective rust resistant stock.

Although prescribed burning can be useful to reduce areas of high-density subalpine fir and spruce and can create favorable ecological conditions for whitebark pine regeneration and growth, in the absence of sufficient seed source for natural regeneration maintaining the viability and function of whitebark pine would not be achieved through burning. Please find Keane and Arno attached.

The project is not following the best available science and is not meeting the purpose and need. Since Whitebark pine are now listed under the ESA, you must formally reconsult with the FWS on the impact of the project on whitebark pine. To do this the Forest Service will need to have a complete and recent survey of the entire project area for whitebark pine and consider planting whitebark pine as the best available science by Keene et al. states is the only way to get new whitebark pine to grow. The Forest Service is incorrect when it states that the project will have “No significant effects would result from this project or cumulatively with other activities on National Forest or

adjacent lands that would affect at-risk plant species' ability to persist on the landscape.”

It appears that you won't do surveys for whitebark pine by people qualified to be able to identify whitebark pine in violation of NEPA, NFMA, ESA and the APA. If whitebark pine seedlings and saplings are present, what measures will be taken to protect them? Please include an alternative that excludes burning in the presence of whitebark pine regeneration (consider 'Daylighting' seedlings and saplings as an alternative restoration method). Will restoration efforts include planting whitebark pine? Will planted seedling be of rust-resistant stock? Is rust resistant stock available? Would enough seedlings be planted to replace whitebark pine lost to fire activities? Have white pine blister rust surveys been accomplished? What is the severity of white pine blister rust in proposed action areas?

Please formally consult with the FWS on the impact of the project on Whitebark pine.

Whitebark pine promotes community diversity and community stability in high mountain ecosystems. Ecological conditions and processes lead to an increase in cone-bearing trees, particularly in areas projected to be suitable under future climates, and a decrease in susceptibility to succession to more shade tolerant conifers, mountain pine beetle, wildland fire and blister rust.

Whitebark pine is a keystone species with direct and indirect, interrelated ecological links to the health of the ecosystem(s) upon which grizzly bears, squirrels, mountain

pine beetle and Clark's nutcracker depend. Emphasis added.

NEPA and the ESA require that these "significant" ecosystem relationships between these four species be maintained and improved in order to recover, and eventually remove from the ESA list whitebark pine and grizzly bears. Emphasis added. "Daylighting" selected whitebark pine using industrial machines and man-induced fire will upset the delicate balance already at play in the ecosystem – with no material assistance from man and man's "brilliant" imagination. Leave Creation to the ultimate expert, leave it to Mother Nature.

There is no cumulative effects analysis in the Final EA, and no disclosure of the number of individual, stands, acres or any other estimate of the number of whitebark pine that will be killed in the project area. There is no estimate of the number of whitebark pine killed in previous projects, including those permanently lost to clearcutting and permanent and temporary roads over decades of active timber management. These cumulative effects are significant, and yet, unquantified and undisclosed.

This is a violation of NEPA, NFMA, the APA and the ESA, 16 U.S.C. §§ 1531 et seq., to ensure that its actions do not adversely affect whitebark pine and that their actions promote conservation and

recovery of these species. The federal agencies' (USFS-USDA and USFWS) mandate is to protect and recover imperiled species and their habitats.

The project will harm whitebark pine in unknown numbers, with unknown adverse cumulative impacts.

Since Whitebark pine are now listed under the ESA, the USFS-USDA must formally reconsult with the USFWS on the impact of the project on whitebark pine. To do this the Forest Service will need to have a complete and recent survey of the entire project area for the presence of whitebark pine and consider planting whitebark pine as the best available science. Keene et al. states that the only way to get new whitebark pine is to grow (seedlings) them (submitted in our DEA comments).

Hundreds of acres of clearcutting and burning threaten individual whitebark pine trees in the project area, including miles and miles of new roads, and including clearings around individual whitebark pines. The Forest Service fails to disclose the level of "take" and the incredibly high failure rate of these practices as a technique for natural restoration, regeneration and recovery of whitebark pine under these conditions.

The Forest Service does not disclose or address the results of its only long-term study on the effects of tree cutting and

burning on whitebark pine. This study, named "Restoring Whitebark Pine Ecosystems," included prescribed fire, "thinning", "selection cuttings," and "fuel enhancement cuttings" on multiple different sites. The results were that "[a]s with all the other study results, there was very little whitebark pine regeneration observed on these plots." See U.S. Forest Service, General Technical Report RMRS-GTR- 232 (January 2010). These results directly undermine the representations the Forest Service makes in the Project EIS. More specifically, the Forest Service's own research at RMRS-GTR-232 finds: "the whitebark pine regeneration that was expected to result from this [seed] caching [in new openings] has not yet materialized. Nearly all sites contain very few or no whitebark pine seedlings." Thus, even ten years after cutting and burning, regeneration was "marginal." Moreover, as the Forest Service notes on its website: "All burn treatments resulted in high mortality in both whitebark pine and subalpine fir (over 40%)."

Accordingly, the only proven method of restoration of whitebark pine is planting: "Manual planting of whitebark pine seedlings is required to adequately restore these sites."

Therefor the project's plan to log burn the project area whitebark pine will take whitebark pine. This is a violation of NEPA, NFMA, the APA and the ESA.

Please see the attached memo from the FWS about requirements for consulting with the FWS about whitebark pine now that they are listed as threatened.

For whitebark pine, spring or fall burning may kill seedlings susceptible to fire. For mature whitebark pine trees, the bark is relatively thin compared to other species such as ponderosa pine and susceptible to scorching from fire. Fires that approach the tree trunks may scorch the bark, diminishing the bark's protective properties from other stressors. Depending on the fireline intensity and residence time of lethal temperatures, the heat from the fire may also penetrate the bark, killing the underlying cambium layer. Harm to the bark and cambium may reduce individual tree vigor and also increase susceptibility to infections such as white pine blister rust or infestations by the mountain pine beetle. Whitebark pine seed banks and fine roots may also be impacted should fire move through an area when fuels and soil moisture is conducive to longer residence time of lethal temperatures. Seeds are buried by Clark's nutcrackers generally within one inch of the soil

surface and may be susceptible to longer residence time of lethal temperatures. Fine roots located near the soil surface serve as the primary water absorbing roots for trees and may be harmed or killed with longer residence times of lethal temperatures when soil moisture is low which would lead to an increase in the penetration depth of lethal temperatures. In general, the proposed prescription would

attempt to achieve a low severity surface fire in which shrubs, needle cast and upper duff layers would be consumed. In some instances, including dense stands in which commercial or non-commercial thinning is not feasible, higher severity fire effects may be preferred to achieve the desired condition for those forested stands. In the long term, broadcast burning in the vicinity of living whitebark pine stands may improve the habitat suitability for seed caching by Clark's nutcracker; seed germination; and whitebark pine seedling establishment. Clark's nutcrackers prefer to cache seeds in recently burned areas as fire removes understory plants and creates soils surfaces that are easier to penetrate for seed caching. In addition, in the long term, broadcast burning may reduce the vigor of other species that would compete with whitebark pine seedlings for sunlight, soil water, and nutrients."

Whitebark pine are now a threatened species and the project is in violation of the ESA.

On December 2, 2020, the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service issued a rule proposing to list whitebark pine (*Pinus albicaulis*) under the Endangered Species Act. The South Plateau Project area includes whitebark pine. The whitebark pine present in the project area represents a major source within the larger geographic area. The Project proposes tree cutting and burning across thousands of acres where whitebark pine may be present. Regardless of whether individual activities are intended to im-pact

whitebark pine, whitebark pine may be affected by damage from equipment and equipment trails, cutting, soil compaction and disturbance, mortality from prescribed burning, scorching from jackpot burning, trampling of seedlings and saplings, and removal of necessary microclimates and nursery trees needed for sapling survival. Additionally, thousands of acres of whitebark pine habitat manipulation are proposed for the Project, including intentionally cutting and burning Whitebark pine trees. No discussion on the success rate of natural regeneration under these conditions is provided. No discussion of the success rate of planting seedlings in clearcuts is provided. There have been no surveys for whitebark pine in violation of the ESA, NEPA, NFMA, and the APA.

The Forest Service admits that whitebark pine is known to be present in the area and that the Project “may impact individuals. . . .” The Forest Service further admits: “some adverse impacts are possible.” The Forest Service further admits that “implementation of the project may cause incidental loss of whitebark pine seedlings and saplings” Crucially, the Forest Service does not disclose or address the results of its only long-term study on the effects of tree cutting and burning on whitebark pine. This study, named “Restoring Whitebark Pine

Ecosystems,” included prescribed fire, thinning, selection cuttings, and fuel enhancement cuttings on multiple different sites. The results were that “[a]s with all the other

study results, there was very little whitebark pine regeneration observed on these plots.” See U.S. Forest Service, General Technical Report RMRS-GTR-232 (January 2010). More specifically: “the whitebark pine regeneration that was expected to result from this [seed] caching [in new openings] has not yet materialized. Nearly all sites contain very few or no whitebark pine seedlings.” Thus, even ten years after cutting and burning, regeneration was “marginal.” Moreover, as the Forest Service notes on its website: “All burn treatments resulted in high mortality in both whitebark pine and subalpine fir (over 40%).” Accordingly, the only proven method of restoration of whitebark pine is planting: “Manual planting of whitebark pine seedlings is required to adequately restore these sites.”

Please find attached “Restoring Whitebark Pine Ecosystems in the Face of Climate Change
Robert E. Keane, Lisa M. Holsinger, Mary F. Mahalovich, and Diana F. Tomback” and “Restoring Whitebark Pine Forests of the Northern Rocky Mountains, USA Robert E. Keane and Russell a. Parsons.”

The Coyote Divide project is in violation of NEPA, NFMA, the APA and the ESA. The HLCNF has to consult on the effect of the project and the revised Forest Plan on whitebark pine and get a take permit. Please find attached the FWS’ memo for consulting on whitebark pine

Remedy: Please choose the No Action Alternative or withdraw the DN and FONSI and write an EIS that fully complies with the law.

Climate Change

We wrote in our comments:

The preliminary environmental assessment that the Forest Service in the preliminary EA failed to take a “hard look” at the carbon and climate impacts of removing hundreds of thousands of trees from the Forest (including hundreds of acres of old and mature trees). Trees, particularly large and old trees, are champions of carbon storage, yet the Forest Service dismissed the impacts of logging these forests on carbon storage as “infinitesimal” based on a years-old cut-and-paste “Carbon Report” that ignored years of science and agency guidance, and failed to address the climate pollution caused by cutting, hauling, and processing timber.

The project area is part of a complex ecosystems with forests in general, and roadless areas, old growth and mature forests in particular, are important tools in combating climate change because they can store significant volumes of carbon.

To evaluate the Coyote Divide's Project's impacts on climate change, including on carbon storage and sequestration, the Forest Service relied on a "Carbon Report" that ignored the last six years of climate science, and that dismissed the project's impacts on carbon storage as "infinitesimal," without attempting to quantify those impacts. The Forest Service also declined to quantify or otherwise analyze the greenhouse gas pollution emitted to implement the Project itself.

Climate impacts are among the impacts NEPA requires agencies to consider and disclose. See, e.g., Center for Biological Diversity v. NHTSA, 538 F.3d 1172 (9th Cir. 2008); Mont. Env'tl. Info. Ctr. v. United States Office of Surface Mining, 274 F. Supp. 3d 1074 (D. Mont. 2017) (vacating and setting aside mine plan modification in part due to agency's failure to quantify coal mine climate pollution).

The Coyote Divide preliminary EA fails to disclose adequately the climate change impacts of the Coyote Divide Project. Specifically, the preliminary EA fails to disclose the impacts of the proposed action alternatives on carbon storage compared to the no action alternative. Further, the preliminary EA fails to disclose the climate pollution impacts of project implementation – the use of fossil fuel engines to build roads, cut trees, and remove and transport cut logs to mills – compared to the no action alternative. The EA thus failed to take a "hard look" at the Coyote Divide Project's climate pollution impacts, in violation of NEPA.

The project involves logging old growth forests and roadless areas and clearcutting all of which release large amounts of carbon.

The Forest Service's failure to take the required "hard look" at the Project's direct, indirect, and cumulative impacts and the agency's failure to accurately disclose the baseline conditions violates NEPA. Relying on the defective EA, the Forest Service's preliminary EA is arbitrary, capricious, an abuse of discretion, or otherwise not in accordance with law.

The Forest Service responded:

Carbon and Climate Impacts

A summary of impacts for carbon and climate have been outlined below. The carbon resource report is contained in the project record. In addition, the project record contains information about carbon and climate specific to individual resource areas were applicable.

The Coyote Divide climate and carbon analysis tiers to the 2021 Helena-Lewis and Clark National Forest Land Management Plan's (Forest Plan) Final Environmental Impact Statement Appendix J Climate and Carbon, Supplemental Information report (U.S. Department of Agriculture 2021b).

The National Forest is the most appropriate scale for analyzing carbon cycling, carbon emissions, carbon

storage, and their effects. Analysis at a smaller scale can result in inaccurate results because the carbon balance of an individual stand fluctuates cyclically over time between carbon emitter and carbon sink, depending on when natural or human disturbances have occurred to affect its development. The Council on Environmental Quality's guidance provides support for this approach:

Proposed Action

The Coyote Divide Project is designed to restore healthy forest ecosystems and reduce the chances of severe wildfire and widespread insect caused mortality. Reducing the chances of severe wildfire will serve to decrease the likelihood that large quantities of carbon are lost to the atmosphere in the event of stand-replacing fire. Large trees and old-growth stands would also be more likely to persist on the landscape if wildfire and insect outbreaks are kept at endemic levels. This allows carbon storage in old and mature stands to remain relatively intact, yet dynamic through time as natural disturbance patterns continue to influence stand structure and composition.

Currently, regeneration success on the Helena-Lewis and Clark National Forest is 98 percent. Therefore, climate change should not have significant impacts on natural regeneration in the Coyote Divide project area over the next 10 years, when regeneration harvest stands are expected to be restocked.

No- Action

Current vegetation conditions would remain with no reduction in fuel loads. Active management would not occur to promote resilience, create resistance to change, enable forests to respond to change, and there would be no stand treatments occurring to develop desired forest patterns. Greenhouse gas emissions would not be generated from timber harvest operations.

Summary

The proposed Coyote Divide Project would serve as a carbon source in the short-term. However, the Coyote Divide Project will not convert forestland to other non-forest uses. Carbon initially emitted as a result of the project would have a temporary influence on atmospheric concentrations as forest growth and regrowth continues to uptake carbon. Commercial timber harvest can provide for long-term carbon storage off-site in harvested wood products. The proposed Coyote Divide Project is consistent with the Forest Plan Environmental Impact Statement and with internationally recognized climate change adaptation and mitigation practices. The proposed Coyote Divide Project is consistent with the Forest Plan and with internationally recognized climate change adaptation and mitigation practices.

The Helena-Lewis and Clark National Forest has not yet accepted that the effects of climate risk represent a significant issue, and eminent loss of forest resilience already, and a significant and growing risk into the “foreseeable future?”

It is now time to speak honestly about unrealistic expectations relating to desired future condition.

Global warming and its consequences may also be 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.”

It is clear that the management of the planet’s forests is a nexus for addressing this largest crisis ever facing humanity. Yet the Draft Decision Notice and Final EA fail to even provide a minimal quantitative analysis of project- or agency-caused CO₂ emissions or consider the best available science on the topic. This is immensely unethical and immoral. The lack of detailed scientific discussions in the FSEIS concerning climate change is far more troubling than the document’s failures on other topics, because the consequences of unchecked climate change will be disastrous for food production, sea level rise, and water supplies, resulting in complete turmoil for all human societies. This is an issue as serious as nuclear annihilation

(although at least with the latter we're not already pressing the button).

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 Coyote=Divide project, this did not happen, in violation of NEPA.

The Final 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 provide 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.

The Forest Plan does not provide meaningful direction on climate change. Nor does the EA acknowledge pertinent and highly relevant best available science on climate change. This project is in violation of NEPA.

The EA does not analyze or disclose the body of science that implicates logging activities as a contributor to reduced carbon stocks in forests and increases in greenhouse gas emissions. The EA fails to provide estimates of the total amount of carbon dioxide (CO₂) or other greenhouse gas emissions caused by FS management actions and policies—forest-wide, regionally, or nationally. Agency policy-makers seem comfortable maintaining a position that they need not take any leadership on this issue, and obfuscate via this EA to justify their failures.

The best scientific information strongly suggests that management that involves removal of trees and other biomass increases atmospheric CO₂. Unsurprisingly the FSEIS doesn't state that simple fact.

The EA fails to present any modeling of forest stands under different management scenarios. The FS should model the carbon flux over time for its proposed stand management scenarios and for the various types of vegetation cover found on the CGNF.

The EA also ignores 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, and recreational motor vehicles. The FS is simply ignoring the climate impacts of these management and other authorized activities.

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

We have no more time to prevaricate, and it's not a battle we can afford to lose. We each have a choice: submit to status quo for the profits of the greediest 1%, or empower ourselves to limit greenhouse gas emissions so not just a couple more generations might survive.

The District Court of Montana ruled in Case 4:17-cv-00030- BMM that the Federal government did have to evaluate the climate change impacts of the federal government coal program. Please find the order attached.

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 and Physicians for Social Responsibility.

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.

The project is in violation of NEPA, NFMA, the APA, the ESA for not examining the impacts of the project on climate change. The project will eliminate the forest in the project area. Forests absorb carbon. The project will destroy soils in the project area. Soils are carbon sinks.

Please find attached, the Montana Federal District Court order on the Black Ram project in the Kootenai N.F. that deals with the same issue.

Remedy

Choose the No Action Alternative or withdraw the draft Decision Notice and write an EIS that fully complies with the law by taking a hard look at the impact of the project on Climate Change.

Road closures

We wrote in our comments:

Page 2 of the wildlife report states:

“WL-7 When implementing road restrictions to restrict motorized access, the Forest shall use devices or methods recognized by the IGBC as effective closure devices and methods (IGBC, 1998) (Forest Plan Biological Opinion Reasonable and Prudent Measure #1).”

How many road closure violations have been issued in the Belt Creek-White Sulphur Springs within the last 5 years?

Page 3 of the Wildlife report states:

Monitoring Elements

This preliminary monitoring element is required to ensure compliance with project design features. The design features referenced, and analysis below, is predicated on monitoring being conducted. As the monitoring element is preliminary, it may be subject to change for the final report.

WL-4 To ensure the efficacy of closures referenced above in WL-4, Forest personnel will monitor closures and closed routes for illegal or unauthorized uses via patrols, camera traps, or the like under the direction of a wildlife biologist. If illegal use is discovered, or other inconsistencies with closures and/or closure device efficacy, necessary measures will be taken to ensure such illegal uses are curtailed. A report of activities and data collected would be written by a wildlife biologist and stored in the project file annually on the date of decision and until project completion. The focus of this monitoring will be temporary routes, closed routes opened for project use, and other routes in the project area used for implementation that are not available to public use. Greater attention should be paid to these areas during times of heightened public motorized use, such as holidays, weekends, and the archery, rifle, and muzzleloader hunting seasons (Biological Assessment Recommendations for Removing, Avoiding, or Compensating Adverse Effects; FW-FWL-GDL-01).

Methodology

Assumptions

The primary assumption underlying this report is that effects to vegetation systems and characteristics in the project area (i.e. the coarse filter approach) as described in the Vegetation report provide the basis for understanding most of the potential effects to terrestrial wildlife species and species at-risk.

The Federal Register (volume 77, number 68, p. 21212) states that “[t]he premise behind the coarse-filter approach is that native species evolved and adapted within the limits established by natural landforms, vegetation, and disturbance patterns prior to extensive human alteration. [...] These ecological conditions should be sufficient to sustain viable populations of native plant and animal species considered to be common or secure within the planning area. These coarse-filter requirements are also expected to support the persistence of many species currently considered imperiled or vulnerable across their ranges or within the planning area.” This analysis uses the following assumptions:

- Data used are assumed to be complete and accurate, however, as they are preliminary, they are subject to change between this report and the final report.*
- Illegal motorized use could occur anywhere in the analysis area, and this report includes such uses to determine effects to species sensitive to road and other human uses.*
- Design features included here would minimize effects to those species and or habitats.*

Are the road closures in the Belt Creek-White Sulphur Springs Ranger District effective?

Please include the results of monitoring road closure effectiveness since the EA is assuming they are effective.

Any desire to keep a road in the project area WUI must be in harmony with the alleged priority goals (again, to reduce the chances that fire will destroy private structures and harm people), not driven by timber production goals. The analysis must show how all roads will in fact be in harmony with the priority goals.

The Forest Service responded on page 24 of the EA:

Unauthorized Uses

Unauthorized motorized violations in the project area and grizzly bear analysis units are sporadic based on field reviews. This is likely due to the steep, forested terrain and lack of motorized routes in the inventoried roadless areas. Law enforcement data yield similar results although these data are not systematically derived. This unauthorized motorized use could occur anywhere within the project area or grizzly bear analysis unit. Forest staff and Law Enforcement Officers opportunistically monitor

road closures for violations and enforces closures to the extent practicable. The Forest remedies the situation through repair or replacement as soon as they are able after being made aware of the violation. These types of road closure issues are repaired or augmented to deter use and are revisited to assess whether barrier repairs or barriers are effective.

While we are unable to anticipate when and where a Forest user may choose to act illegally, we do expect some very low amount of Forest users will continue to choose to act illegally and use portions of the Forest illegally via motorized access. What we can anticipate, based on information on unauthorized motorized use that has occurred in the past, and the Forest's response to such unauthorized use when it occurs, is that unauthorized motorized use will likely continue to be spatially disparate, short-term, and temporary in the majority, if not all, situations of unauthorized motorized access. Unauthorized motorized access is not likely to collectively cause an adverse effect to grizzly bears.

We recently sent a FOIA request to the Forest Service for records of road closure violations between mid-2014 and mid-2019. In response, the Forest Service disclosed over 50 reported road closure violations in the Little Belts in that 5-year time-frame. Attachment 1 provides a map of these violations, and Attachment 2 provides the underlying data

from the Forest Service law enforcement incident reports. Significantly, this data only includes the witnessed and reported violations. It is fair to assume that there are many more violations that regularly occur and are not witnessed and reported. It is also fair to assume that you have made no effort to request this available information from your own law enforcement officers, much less incorporate it into your analysis. Considering your own admissions that road density is the primary factor that degrades elk and grizzly habitat, this is a material and significant omission from your analysis— all of your ORD and HE calculations are wrong without this information.

Moreover, in light of the fact that revised Forest Plan eliminated hiding cover standards designed to protect and conserve elk habitat which is a NEPA violation because there is no way to measure the effect of roads on wildlife. The only protection left for elk habitat would be the Forest Plan open road density limits and mandates to maintain existing HE. This makes your failure to analyze road closure violations even more egregious – both in the Project analysis and your analysis of the Forest Plan amendment. Chronic, illegal road use is reasonably

foreseeable and must be addressed in the cumulative effects analysis for both the Project and the Forest Plan amendment.

Additionally, your emphasis on elk populations across entire hunting districts is disingenuous and has little relevance to whether you are meeting your Forest Plan obligations to maintain sufficient elk habitat on National Forest lands. As you note, the Forest Plan estimated that 70% of elk were taken on National Forest lands in 1986. What percentage of elk are currently taken on National Forest lands? You refuse to disclose this information. Have you asked Montana FWP for this information? Any honest biologist would admit that high elk population numbers do not indicate that you are appropriately managing National Forest elk habitat; to the contrary, high elk numbers indicate that you are so poorly managing elk habitat on National Forest lands that elk are being displaced to private lands where hunting is limited or prohibited. Your own Forest Service guidance document, Christensen et al 1993 states: “Reducing habitat effectiveness should never be considered as a means of controlling elk populations.”

Nonetheless, you plan to construct 23.9 miles of new roads, 17 miles of road reconstruction, and 7.4 miles of road reconditioning. Do your open road density calculations include all of the recurring illegal road use documented in your own law enforcement incident reports?

The Travel Plan for the Little Belts was issued in 2007. You represent that the Travel Plan “analyzed the open road density, as well as elk security as measured by areas at least 250 acres in size and greater than 1/2 mile from an open road or motorized trail.” You represent that “Open road density (for public access) was reduced in all management areas and road density standards were met or exceeded in the Little Belt . . . Mountains (USDA

Please clarify what is going on. Have you closed or obliterated all roads that were promised to be closed or obliterated in the Belts Travel Plan? Or, are you still waiting for funds to close or obliterate those roads? This distinction matters because you cannot honestly claim that you are meeting road density standards promised by the Travel Plan if you have not yet completed the road closures/obliterations promised by the Travel Plan. Furthermore, as noted above, you have a major problem

with recurring, chronic violations of the road closures created by the Travel Plan, which means that your assumptions in the Travel Plan that all closures would be effective has proven false. For this reason, you cannot tier to the analysis in the Travel Plan because it is invalid. You must either complete new NEPA analysis for the Travel Plan on this issue or provide that new analysis in the NEPA analysis for this Project. Either way, you must update your open road density calculations to include all roads receiving illegal use.

In your analysis you set forth a habitat effectiveness estimate in the Travel Plan. It is unclear whether the numbers were based on actual conditions or a promised goal for a future condition.

Please produce the full Travel Plan on your website, as well as its full NEPA analysis. Certainly, you are not taking a hard look at habitat effectiveness in this Project area if you are relying on the habitat effectiveness old estimates from the Travel Plan at the HD scale.

Christensen et al (1993) states: “Any motorized vehicle use on roads will reduce habitat effectiveness. Recognize and deal with all forms of motorized vehicles and all uses,

including administrative use.” Please disclose this to the public and stop representing that roads closed to the public should not be included in habitat effectiveness calculations. The facts that (a) you are constructing or reconstructing nearly 24 miles of road for this project, (b) you have problems with recurring illegal use, and (c) you did not disclose the amount of illegal roads in the project area means that your conclusion that this Project will have no effect on open road density or habitat effectiveness is implausible to the point of being disingenuous. You cannot exclude these roads simply because you say they are closed to the public. Every road receiving motorized use must be included in the HE calculation. You must consider all of this road use in order to take a hard look that is fully and fairly informed regarding habitat effectiveness. In the very least you must add in all “non-system” roads, i.e. illegal roads, as well as recurring illegal road use (violations) in your ORD calculations.

The Coyote-Divide project is not following the best available science for elk security in violation of the Forest Plan, NFMA, NEPA and the APA.

Pages 19-20 of the Final EA state:

- ***Elk habitat: The project proposes treatments and motorized use in modeled elk security habitat. Project activities would be ongoing during the archery and rifle hunting seasons,***

with the potential to disrupt hunting activities in the secure areas due to increases in motorized and mechanical uses that disturb elk and can impact hunting opportunity in these areas, along with disturbances to elk habitat effectiveness based on motorized use across the project area. Treatments are also proposed on elk winter range.

Pages 28-29 of the Final EA states:

- ***Elk***
Direct and Indirect Effects Proposed Action
Implementation of the proposed action would require temporary road construction. All of these roads would remain closed to the public and would be obliterated upon completion of project activities. While motorized route densities can affect elk distribution, nutritional resources during the summer were the strongest predictor of summer resource selection.
The open motorized routes Habitat effectiveness decreases in two of the 5 elk analysis units and 3 remain the same during project implementation. All

units return to the existing condition post project implementation. However, effectiveness as computed by Lyon (1983) and Leege (1984) would remain unchanged since these roads would remain closed to the public.

Only 29 acres of proposed fuels treatment overlap with elk security areas defined according to the “open motorized routes” method. Analysis shows very little elk security exists in the project area regardless of definition. There is no temporary road construction in the elk security in the project area.

Cumulative Effects

The effects of other ongoing activities on elk include disturbances related to project work, vegetation removal, elk security, and habitat effectiveness. Presently, these actions are restricted to other Forest Service lands in the analysis area, as there are no known state or private actions ongoing or proposed that the Forest is aware. Past, present and foreseeable actions have been listed for other species above and contained in the project record. Cumulatively, these ongoing projects would have impacts to elk security and elk habitat effectiveness. However, there would still be elk and elk habitat on the National Forest, and these elk would be available for ecosystem services and to hunters during the archery and general rifle hunting season.

Determination

The proposed action would have temporary impacts on elk through the use of motorized routes, logging and other mechanical work, and use of temporary routes. These impacts would result in elk seeking out other areas of security, which could be both National Forest and private lands. This would likely only occur to those elk that use the secure area between Belt Park Road and MT HWY 89. These impacts would not occur over the long term and would conclude upon completion of commercial and noncommercial logging and other mechanical uses requiring motorized travel. The analysis, along with the forested vegetation analysis, supports determinations made in the 2021 Forest Plan FEIS, which is incorporated by reference. Elk would be available for ecosystem services and for hunters during this time, the project would not preclude achievement of Forest Plan desired conditions related to elk. Applicable design features are outlined in Appendix C.

The project is in violation of NEPA, NFMA, the APA, and the ESA. The EA admits that roads negatively effect elk and grizzlies and that nearly 24 miles of roads will be constructed and reconstructed but the road density is not increased then claims somehow logging trucks and Forest Service use of roads is not bring counted as an open road. But there is no explanation of why grizzly bears and other wildlife such as lynx and big game and not bothered by logging trucks and administrative motorized use.

The analysis of habitat effectiveness is not disclosed to the public.

If the MAs have less than 50% habitat effectiveness.

Christensen et al 1993 finds: “Areas where habitat effectiveness is retained at lower than 50 percent must be recognized as making only minor contributions to elk management goals. If habitat effectiveness is not important, don't fake it. Just admit up front that elk are not a consideration.”

You fail to make this admission and instead represent that you are meeting all relevant objectives.

You are also violating your Forest Plan requirements. You are violating ORD limitations for MA A, MA B, and MA C:

- Management Area A: “Roads Management (LR2b) Achieve moderate public access by permitting Motorized use on all arterial roads and most collector roads, plus some local roads. Moderate access is defined as 1.5 - 3.0 miles of open road per square mile of area (Montana Cooperative Elk Logging Study, 1982 describes the method for determining open road densities).”

- Management Area B: “Roads Management (LR2c) Achieve moderate public access by permitting motorized use on all arterial roads and most collector roads, plus some local roads. Moderate access is defined as 1.5 - 3.0 miles of open road per square mile of area.”
- Management Area C: “Achieve low public access through permitting motorized use on all arterial and most collector roads. . . . Low access is defined as 0.5 to 1.5 miles of open road per square mile of area.”

Also, Forest Plan Management Standard C-1 (4) requires: “Incorporate recommendations from the Montana Cooperative Elk-Logging Study in the planning of timber sales and road construction projects. These recommendations are listed in Appendix F.” You have failed to incorporate the following recommendation from Appendix F: “ROAD MANAGEMENT

Recommendation: Where maintenance of elk is an important consideration, open road densities should be held

to a low level, and every open road should be carefully evaluated to determine the possible consequences for elk.”

Also, Forest Plan Management Standard C-1 (6) requires: Manage motorized use on National Forest system lands through the Forest Travel Plan, in cooperation with the public, State of Montana, and other Federal agencies, to reduce effects on wildlife during periods of high stress (hunting seasons and wintering periods). Also see Chapter III and Appendix O. The Montana Fish and Game Commission Road Management Policy and the Forest Service Road Regulations are shown in Appendix G.”

Appendix G states: “The Lewis and Clark Forest will use this policy to guide the Forests’ road management plan [].” You have failed to comply with this policy, which states:

Also, Forest Plan Management Area C Goal states: “Maintain or enhance existing elk habitat by maximizing habitat effectiveness as a primary management objective. Emphasis will also be directed toward management of indigenous wildlife species. Commodity resource

management will be practiced where it is compatible with these wildlife management objectives.” Also – MA C Standard: “Habitat effectiveness will be positively managed through road management and other necessary controls on resource activities.” Also – “Elk habitat effectiveness will be maintained.” You are violating all of these provisions for all of the above-stated reasons.

Christensen et al (1993) states: “Any motorized vehicle use on roads will reduce habitat effectiveness. Recognize and deal with all forms of motorized vehicles and all uses, including administrative use.” Please disclose this to the public and stop representing that roads closed to the public should not be included in habitat effectiveness calculations. The facts that (a) you are constructing or reconstructing temporary roads for this project, (b) you have problems with recurring illegal use, means that your conclusion that this Project will have no effect on open road density or habitat effectiveness is implausible to the point of being disingenuous. You cannot exclude these roads simply because you say they are closed to the public. Every road receiving motorized use must be included in the HE calculation. You must consider all of this road use in order to take a hard look that is fully and fairly informed regarding habitat effectiveness. In the very least you must add in all “non-system” roads, i.e. illegal roads, as well as recurring illegal road use (violations) in your ORD calculations.

Therefore the road density Standards are not currently being met and would continue during and following project implementation.

The Standard is not being met and therefore this is a NEPA, NFMA and APA violation.

Please see the attached paper by Newmark et al. 2023 titled, “Enhanced regional connectivity between western North American national parks will increase persistence of mammal species diversity.” Newmark et al. state:

Protected areas are the cornerstone of biodiversity conservation worldwide. Yet the capacity of most protected areas to conserve biodiversity over the long-term is under threat from many factors including habitat loss and fragmentation, climate change, and over-exploitation of

wildlife populations^{1–6}. Of these threats, habitat loss and fragmentation on lands adjacent to protected areas are the most immediate and overarching threats facing most national parks and related reserves (IUCN protected area categories I & II) in western North America. As a result, most parks and related reserves in western North America are becoming increasingly spatially and functionally isolated in a matrix of human-altered habitats^{1,3,7}. This is particularly problematic because few parks and related reserves worldwide are large enough to conserve intact plant and animal communities^{8–11} and many large-scale

ecological processes, such as mammal migrations and disturbance regimes^{12–16}. Consequently, there is an increasing effort worldwide to promote and establish protected area networks – networks of reserves interconnected by protected linkages^{17,18}.

Please also find attached Senator Whitehouse's bill, the Northern Rockies Ecosystem Protection Act, S. 1531 Act that would protect the Little Belts and the project area as an important wildlife corridor.

The Little Belts are an important corridor that species like grizzly bears need to survive over the long run.

The Coyote Dive project is in violation of NEPA for not responding to our comments. The standard is not being met at the project level and there is no evidence provided that it is being met at the Forest Plan level. The Coyote Divide project is not following the best available science for road density which is the Eastside assessment.

The project is in violation of NEPA, NFMA, the Forest Plan, The Travel Plan, the APA and the ESA because of the re-occurring road closure violations. Your assumptions in the Travel Plan that all closures would be effective has

proven false. For this reason, you cannot tier to the analysis in the Travel Plan because it is invalid.

Remedy: Choose the No Action Alternative or amend the revised Forest Plan to count logging and administrative use as an open road and either complete new NEPA analysis for the Travel Planned the Forest Plan on this issue or provide that new analysis in the NEPA analysis for this Project.

Either way, you must update your open road density calculations to include all roads receiving legal and illegal use. Please also amend the revised Forest Plan to include to have a direction for grizzly bears that protects grizzly bear and other wildlife habitat by following the Eastside assessment.

We wrote in our comments:

V. Please disclose whether you have conducted surveys in the Project area for this Project for wolverines, pine martins, northern goshawk and lynx as required by the Forest Plan.

W. Please disclose how often the Project area has been surveyed for wolverines, pine martins, northern goshawks, monarch butterflies, grizzly bears, whitebark pine and lynx.

X. Is it impossible for a wolverines, pine martins, monarch butterflies, northern goshawks, grizzly bears, whitebark pine and lynx to inhabit the Project area?

Y. Would the habitat be better for wolverines, monarch butterflies, pine martins, northern goshawks, grizzly bears, whitebark pine and lynx if roads were removed in the Project area?

Z. What is the U.S. FWS position on the impacts of this Project on wolverines, pine martins, monarch butterflyies, northern goshawks, grizzly bears, whitebark pine and lynx? Have you conducted ESA consultation?

AA. Please provide us with the full BA for the wolverines, monarch butterflies, pine martins, northern goshawks, grizzly bears, whitebark pine and lynx.

We could not find a response by the Forest Service on this issue.

The project is therefore in violation of NEPA, NFMA, the APA and the ESA.

Purpose and Need

We wrote in our comments:

Please see the column below by Dr. Chad Hanson.

<https://thehill.com/blogs/congress-blog/energy-environment/590415-logging-makes-forests-and-homes-more-vulnerable-to>

Logging makes forests and homes more vulnerable to wildfires

The West has seen some really big forest fires recently, particularly in California's Sierra Nevada and the Cascade Mountains of Oregon. Naturally, everyone is concerned and elected officials are eager to be seen as advancing solutions. The U.S. Senate is negotiating over the Build Back Better bill, which currently contains nearly \$20 billion in logging subsidies for "hazardous fuel reduction" in forests. This term contains no clear definition but is typically employed as a euphemism for "thinning", which usually includes commercial logging of mature and old-growth trees on public lands. It often includes clearcut logging that harms forests and streams and intensifies wildfires.

Logging interests stand poised to profit, as they tell the public and Congress that our forests are overgrown from years of neglect. Chainsaws and bulldozers are their remedy. Among these interests are agencies like the U.S. Forest Service that financially benefits from selling public timber to private logging companies.

In this fraught context, filled with a swirling admixture of panic, confusion, and opportunism, the truth and scientific evidence are all too often casualties. This, unfortunately, can lead to regressive policies that will only exacerbate the climate crisis and increase threats to communities from wildfire. We can no longer afford either outcome.

*Many of the nation's top climate scientists and ecologists recently urged Congress to **remove the logging subsidies** from the Build Back Better bill. Scientists noted that logging now emits about as much carbon dioxide each year as does burning coal. They also noted that logging conducted under the guise of "forest thinning" does not stop large wildfires that are driven mainly by extreme fire-weather caused primarily by climate change. In fact, it can often make fires burn faster and more intensely toward vulnerable homes. Unprepared towns like Paradise and Grizzly Flats, Calif., unfortunately burned to the ground as fires raced through heavily logged surroundings.*

*Nature prepares older forests and large trees for wildfires. As trees age, they develop thick impenetrable bark and drop their lower limbs, making it difficult for fire to climb into the tree crowns. Older, dense forests used by the imperiled spotted owl burn in **mixed intensities** that is good for the owl and hundreds of species that depend on these forests for survival. Our national parks and wilderness areas also burn in **lower** fire intensities compared to heavily logged areas.*

*Occasionally even some of the largest trees will succumb to a severe fire but their progeny are born again to rapidly colonize the largest and most **severe burn patches**. Dozens of cavity-nesting birds and small mammals make their homes in the fire-killed trees. Soon after fire in these forests, nature regenerates, reminiscent of the mythical*

phoenix, aided by scores of pollinating insects and seed carrying birds and mammals.

Wildfires are highly variable, often depending on what a gust of wind does at a given moment, and even the biggest fires are primarily comprised of lightly and moderately-burned areas where most mature trees survive. By chance, in any large fire there will always be some areas that were thinned by loggers that burned less intense compared to unthinned areas. Before the smoke fully clears, logging interests find those locations and take journalists and politicians to promote their agenda. What they fail to disclose are the many examples where managed forests burned hotter while older, unmanaged forests did the opposite.

This sort of self-serving show boating occurred after the 2020 Creek Fire in the Sierra National Forest in California, as news stories echoed the logging industry's "overgrown forests" narrative based on a single low-intensity burn area. When all of the data across the entire fire were [analyzed](#), it turned out that logged forests, including commercial "thinning" areas, actually burned the most intensely.

In Oregon, The Nature Conservancy has been conducting intensive commercial thinning on its Sycan Marsh Preserve. Based on satellite imagery, the northern portion of the 414,000-acre Bootleg Fire of 2021 swept through these lands. Within days, TNC began promoting its logging program, focusing on a single location around

Coyote Creek, where a “thinned” unit burned lightly. They failed to mention that nearly all of the dense, unmanaged forests burned lightly too in that area. Well-intentioned environmental reporters were misled by a carefully picked example.

Billions of dollars are being wasted to further this false logging industry narrative—funds that instead should be used to prepare communities for more climate-driven wildfires. Congress can instead redirect much needed support to damaged communities so they can build back better and adopt proven fire safety measures that harden homes and clear flammable vegetation nearest structures.

The path forward is simple, with two proven remedies that work. Protect forests from logging so they can absorb more carbon dioxide from the atmosphere and moderate fire behavior, and [adapt](#) communities to the new climate-driven wildfire era.

Chad Hanson, Ph.D., is a research ecologist with the John Muir Project and is the author of the 2021 book, “Smokescreen: Debunking Wildfire Myths to Save Our Forests and Our Climate.” Dominick DellaSala, Ph.D., is chief scientist with Wild Heritage and the author of Conservation Science and Advocacy for a Planet in Peril: Speaking Truth to Power.

Please see the article below about Logging and wildfire by Dr. Chad Hanson.

October 5, 2022

“Fuel Reduction” Logging Increases Wildfire Intensity

A large and growing body of scientific evidence and opinion concludes that commercial thinning and post-fire logging/clearcutting makes wildfires spread faster and/or burn more severely, and this puts nearby communities at greater risk.

Morris, W.G. (U.S. Forest Service). 1940. Fire weather on clearcut, partly cut, and virgin timber areas at Westfir, Oregon. Timberman 42: 20-28.

“This study is concerned with one of these factors - the fire-weather conditions near ground level - on a single operation during the first summer following logging. These conditions were found to be more severe in the clear-cut area than in either the heavy or light partial cutting areas and more severe in the latter areas than in virgin timber.”

Countryman, C.M. (U.S. Forest Service). 1956. Old-growth conversion also converts fire climate. Fire Control Notes 17: 15-19.

“Although the general relations between weather factors, fuel moisture, and fire behavior are fairly well known, the importance of these changes following conversion and their combined effect on fire behavior and control is not generally recognized. The term ‘fireclimate,’ as used here,

designates the environmental conditions of weather and fuel moisture that affect fire behavior. It does not consider fuel created by slash because regardless of what forest managers do with slash, they still have to deal with the new fireclimate. In fact, the changes in wind, temperature, humidity, air structure, and fuel

moisture may result in greater changes in fire behavior and size of control job than does the addition of more fuel in the form of slash.”

“Conversion which opens up the canopy by removal of trees permits freer air movement and more sunlight to reach the ground. The increased solar radiation in turn results in higher temperatures, lower humidity, and lower fuel moisture. The magnitude of these changes can be illustrated by comparing the fireclimate in the open with that in a dense stand.”

“A mature, closed stand has a fireclimate strikingly different from that in the open. Here nearly all of the solar radiation is intercepted by the crowns. Some is reflected back to space and the rest is converted to heat and distributed in depth through the crowns. Air within the stand is warmed by contact with the crowns, and the ground fuels are in turn warmed only by contact with the air. The temperature of fuels on the ground thus usually approximates air temperature within the stand.”

“Temperature profiles in a dense, mixed conifer stand illustrate this process (fig. 2). By 8 o'clock in the morning,

air within the crowns had warmed to 68° F. Air temperature near the ground was only 50°. By 10 o'clock temperatures within the crowns had reached 82° and, although the heat had penetrated to lower levels, air near the surface at 77° was still cooler than at any other level. At 2:00 p.m., air temperature within the stand had become virtually uniform at 87°. In the open less than one-half mile away, however, the temperature at the surface of pine litter reached 153° at 2:00 p.m.”

“Because of the lower temperature and higher humidity, fuels within the closed stand are more moist than those in the open under ordinary weather conditions. Typically, when moisture content is 3 percent in the open, 8 percent can be expected in the stand.”

“Moisture and temperature differences between open and closed stands have a great effect on both the inception and the behavior of fire. For example, fine fuel at 8-percent moisture content will require nearly one-third more heat for ignition than will the same fuel at 3-percent moisture content. Thus, firebrands that do not contain enough heat to start a fire in a closed stand may readily start one in the open.”

“When a standard fire weather station in the open indicates a temperature of 85° F., fuel moisture of 4 percent, and a wind velocity of 15 m.p.h.--not unusual burning conditions in the West--a fire starting on a moderate slope will spread 4.5 times as fast in the open as

in a closed stand. The size of the suppression job, however, increases even more drastically.”

“Greater rate of spread and intensity of burning require control lines farther from the actual fire, increasing the length of fireline. Line width also must be increased to contain the hotter fire. Less production per man and delays in getting additional crews complicate the control problem on a fast-moving fire. It has been estimated that the size of the suppression job increases nearly as the square of the rate of forward spread. Thus, fire in the open will require 20 times more suppression effort. In other words, for each man

required to control a surface fire in a mature stand burning under these conditions, 20 men will be required if the area is clear cut.”

“Methods other than clear cutting, of course, may bring a less drastic change in fireclimate. Nevertheless, the change resulting from partial cutting can have important effects on fire. The moderating effect that a dense stand has on the fireclimate usually results in slow-burning fires. Ordinarily, in dense timber only a few days a year have the extreme burning conditions under which surface fires produce heat rapidly enough to carry the fire into the crowns. Partial cutting can increase the severity of the fireclimate enough to materially increase the number of days when disastrous crown fires can occur.”

SNEP (co-authored by U.S. Forest Service). 1996. Sierra Nevada Ecosystem Project, Final Report to Congress: Status of the Sierra Nevada. Vol. I: Assessment summaries and management strategies. Davis, CA: University of California, Davis, Center for Water and Wildland Resources.

“Timber harvest, through its effects on forest structure, local microclimate, and fuel accumulation, has increased fire severity more than any other recent human activity.”

“[I]n areas where the larger trees (greater than 12 inches in diameter breast height) have been removed, stand-replacing fires are more likely to occur.”

Beschta, R.L.; Frissell, C.A.; Gresswell, R.; Hauer, R.; Karr, J.R.; Minshall, G.W.; Perry, D.A.; Rhodes, J.J. 1995. Wildfire and salvage logging. Eugene, OR: Pacific Rivers Council.

“We also need to accept that in many drier forest types throughout the region, forest management may have set the stage for fires larger and more intense than have occurred in at least the last few hundred years.”

“With respect to the need for management treatments after fires, there is generally no need for urgency, nor is there a universal, ecologically-based need to act at all. By acting quickly, we run the risk of creating new problems before we solve the old ones.”

“[S]ome argue that salvage logging is needed because of the perceived increased likelihood that an area may reburn. It is the fine fuels that carry fire, not the large dead woody material. We are aware of no evidence supporting the contention that leaving large dead woody material significantly increases the probability of reburn.”

Chen, J., et al. (co-authored by U.S. Forest Service). 1999. Microclimate in forest ecosystem and landscape ecology: Variations in local climate can be used to monitor and compare the effects of different management regimes. BioScience 49: 288–297.

When moving from open forest areas, resulting from logging, and into dense forests with high canopy cover, “there is generally a decrease in daytime summer temperatures but an increase in humidity...”

The authors reported a 5[?] C difference in ambient air temperature between a closed- canopy mature forest and a forest with partial cutting, like a commercial thinning unit (Fig. 4b), and noted that such differences are even greater than the increases in temperature predicted due to anthropogenic climate change.

Dombeck, M. (U.S. Forest Service Chief). 2001. How Can We Reduce the Fire Danger in the Interior West. Fire Management Today 61: 5-13.

“Some argue that more commercial timber harvest is needed to remove small-diameter trees and brush that are fueling our worst wildlands fires in the interior West. However, small-diameter trees and brush typically have little or no commercial value. To offset losses from their removal, a commercial operator would have to remove large, merchantable trees in the overstory. Overstory removal lets more light reach the forest floor, promoting vigorous forest regeneration. Where the overstory has been entirely removed, regeneration produces thickets of 2,000 to 10,000 small trees per acre, precisely the small-diameter materials that are causing our worst fire problems. In fact, many large fires in 2000 burned in previously logged areas laced with roads. It seems unlikely that commercial timber harvest can solve our forest health problems.”

Morrison, P.H. and K.J. Harma. 2002. Analysis of Land Ownership and Prior Land Management Activities Within the Rodeo & Chediski Fires, Arizona. Pacific Biodiversity Institute, Winthrop, WA. 13 pp.

Previous logging was associated with higher fire severity.

Donato DC, Fontaine JB, Campbell JL, Robinson WD, Kauffman JB, Law BE. 2006. Science 311: 352.

“In terms of short-term fire risk, a reburn in [postfire] logged stands would likely exhibit elevated rates of fire spread, fireline intensity, and soil heating

impacts...Postfire logging alone was notably incongruent with fuel reduction goals.”

Hanson, C.T., Odion, D.C. 2006. Fire Severity in mechanically thinned versus unthinned forests

of the Sierra Nevada, California. In: Proceedings of the 3rd International Fire Ecology and Management Congress, November 13-17, 2006, San Diego, CA.

“In all seven sites, combined mortality [thinning and fire] was higher in thinned than in unthinned units. In six of seven sites, fire-induced mortality was higher in thinned than in

unthinned units...Mechanical thinning increased fire severity on the sites currently available for study on national forests of the Sierra Nevada.”

Platt, R.V., et al. 2006. Are wildfire mitigation and restoration of historic forest structure compatible? A spatial modeling assessment. Annals of the Assoc. Amer. Geographers 96: 455- 470.

“Compared with the original conditions, a closed canopy would result in a 10 percent reduction in the area of high or extreme fireline intensity. In contrast, an open canopy [from thinning] has the opposite effect, increasing the area exposed to high or extreme fireline intensity by 36

percent. Though it may appear counterintuitive, when all else is equal open canopies lead to reduced fuel moisture and increased midflame windspeed, which increase potential fireline intensity.”

Thompson, J.R., Spies, T.A., Ganio, L.M. (co-authored by U.S. Forest Service). 2007. Reburn severity in managed and unmanaged vegetation in a large wildfire. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 104: 10743–10748.

“Areas that were salvage-logged and planted after the initial fire burned more severely than comparable unmanaged areas.”

Cruz, M.G, and M.E. Alexander. 2010. Assessing crown fire potential in coniferous forests of western North America: A critique of current approaches and recent simulation studies. Int. J. Wildl. Fire. 19: 377–398.

The fire models used by the U.S. Forest Service falsely predict effective reduction in crown fire potential from thinning:

“Simulation studies that use certain fire modelling systems (i.e. NEXUS, FlamMap, FARSITE, FFE-FVS (Fire and Fuels Extension to the Forest Vegetation Simulator), Fuel Management Analyst (FMAPlus), BehavePlus) based on separate implementations or direct integration of Rothermel’s surface and crown rate of fire spread models with Van Wagner’s crown fire transition

and propagation models are shown to have a significant underprediction bias when used in assessing potential crown fire behaviour in conifer forests of western North America. The principal sources of this underprediction bias are shown to include: (i) incompatible model linkages; (ii) use of surface and crown fire rate of spread models that have an inherent underprediction bias; and (iii) reduction in crown fire rate of spread based on the use of unsubstantiated crown fraction burned functions. The use of uncalibrated custom fuel models to represent surface fuelbeds is a fourth potential source of bias.”

Thompson, J., and T.A. Spies (co-authored by U.S. Forest Service). 2010. Exploring Patterns of Burn Severity in the Biscuit Fire in Southwestern Oregon. Fire Science Brief 88: 1-6.

“Areas that burned with high severity...in a previous wildfire (in 1987, 15 years prior) were more likely to burn with high severity again in the 2002 Biscuit Fire. Areas that were salvage-logged and planted following the 1987 fire burned with somewhat higher fire severity than equivalent areas that had not been logged and planted.”

Graham, R., et al. (U.S. Forest Service). 2012. Fourmile Canyon Fire Findings. Gen. Tech. Rep. RMRS-GTR-289. Fort Collins, CO: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Research Station. 110 p.

Thinned forests “were burned more severely than neighboring areas where the fuels were not treated”, and 162 homes were destroyed by the Fourmile Canyon Fire (see Figs. 45 and 46).

DellaSala et al. (2013) (letter from over 200 scientists):

“Numerous studies also document the cumulative impacts of post-fire logging on natural ecosystems, including...accumulation of logging slash that can add to future fire risks...”

DellaSala et al. (2015) (letter from over 200 scientists):

“Post-fire logging has been shown to eliminate habitat for many bird species that depend on snags, compact soils, remove biological legacies (snags and downed logs) that are essential in supporting new forest growth, and spread invasive species that outcompete native vegetation and, in some cases, increase the flammability of the new forest. While it is often claimed that such logging is needed to restore conifer growth and lower fuel hazards after a fire, many studies have shown that logging tractors often kill most conifer seedlings and other important re-establishing vegetation and actually increases flammable logging slash left on site. Increased chronic sedimentation to streams due to the extensive road network and runoff from logging on steep slopes degrades aquatic organisms and water quality.”

North, M.P., S.L. Stephens, B.M. Collins, J.K. Agee, G. Aplet, J.F. Franklin, and P.Z. Fule (co- authored by U.S. Forest Service). 2015. Reform forest fire management. Science 349: 1280- 1281.

“...fire is usually more efficient, cost-effective, and ecologically beneficial than mechanical treatments.”

Bradley, C.M. C.T. Hanson, and D.A. DellaSala. 2016. Does increased forest protection correspond to higher fire severity in frequent-fire forests of the western USA? Ecosphere 7: article e01492.

In the largest study on this subject ever conducted in western North American, the authors found that the more trees that are removed from forests through logging, the higher the fire severity overall:

“We investigated the relationship between protected status and fire severity using the Random Forests algorithm applied to 1500 fires affecting 9.5 million hectares between 1984 and 2014 in pine (*Pinus ponderosa*, *Pinus jeffreyi*) and mixed-conifer forests of western United States, accounting for key topographic and climate variables. We found forests with higher levels of protection [from logging] had lower severity values even though they are generally identified as having the highest overall levels of biomass and fuel loading.”

Lesmeister, D.B., et al. (co-authored by U.S. Forest Service). 2019. Mixed-severity wildfire and habitat of an old-forest obligate. Ecosphere10: Article e02696.

Denser, older forests with high canopy cover had lower fire severity.

Dunn, C.J., et al. 2020. How does tree regeneration respond to mixed-severity fire in the western Oregon Cascades, USA? Ecosphere 11: Article e03003.

Forests that burned at high-severity had lower, not higher, overall pre-fire tree densities.

Meigs, G.W., et al. (co-authored by U.S. Forest Service). 2020. Influence of topography and fuels on fire refugia probability under varying fire weather in forests of the US Pacific Northwest. Canadian Journal of Forest Research 50: 636-647.

Forests with higher pre-fire biomass are more likely to experience low-severity fire.

Moomaw et al. (2020) (letter from over 200 scientists:

<https://johnmuirproject.org/2020/05/breaking-news-over-200-top-u-s-climate-and-forest-scientists-urge-congress-protect-forests-to-mitigate-climate-crisis/>):

“Troublingly, to make thinning operations economically attractive to logging companies, commercial logging of larger, more fire-resistant trees often occurs across large

areas. Importantly, mechanical thinning results in a substantial net loss of forest carbon storage, and a net increase in carbon emissions that can substantially exceed those of wildfire

emissions (Hudiburg et al. 2013, Campbell et al. 2012). Reduced forest protections and increased logging tend to make wildland fires burn more intensely (Bradley et al. 2016). This can also occur with commercial thinning, where mature trees are removed (Cruz et al. 2008, Cruz et al. 2014). As an example, logging in U.S. forests emits 10 times more carbon than fire and native insects combined (Harris et al. 2016). And, unlike logging, fire cycles nutrients and helps increase new forest growth.”

Moomaw et al. (2021) (letter from over 200 scientists: <https://bit.ly/3BFtIAg>):

“[C]ommercial logging conducted under the guise of “thinning” and “fuel reduction” typically removes mature, fire-resistant trees that are needed for forest resilience. We have watched as one large wildfire after another has swept through tens of thousands of acres where commercial thinning had previously occurred due to extreme fire weather driven by climate change. Removing trees can alter a forest’s microclimate, and can often increase fire intensity. In contrast, forests protected from logging, and those with high carbon biomass and

carbon storage, more often burn at equal or lower intensities when fires do occur.”

Lesmeister, D.B., et al. (co-authored by U.S. Forest Service). 2021. Northern spotted owl nesting forests as fire refugia: a 30-year synthesis of large wildfires. Fire Ecology 17: Article 32.

More open forests with lower biomass had higher fire severity, because the type of open, lower-biomass forests resulting from thinning and other logging activities have “hotter, drier, and windier microclimates, and those conditions decrease dramatically over relatively short distances into the interior of older forests with multi-layer canopies and high tree density...”

Stephens, S.L., et al. (co-authored by U.S. Forest Service). 2021. Forest Restoration and Fuels Reduction: Convergent or Divergent? BioScience 71: 85-101.

While the authors continued to promote commercial thinning, they acknowledged that commercial thinning causes wildfires to move faster and become larger more quickly:

“Interestingly, surface fire rate of spread increased after restoration and fuel treatments [commercial thinning] relative to the untreated stand. This increased fire rate of spread following both treatment types is due to a combination of higher mid-flame wind speeds and a

greater proportion of grass fuels, which result from reductions to canopy cover.”

Hanson, C.T. 2021. Is “Fuel Reduction” Justified as Fire Management in Spotted Owl Habitat? Birds 2: 395-403.

“Within the forest types inhabited by California Spotted Owls, high-severity fire occurrence was not higher overall in unmanaged forests and was not associated with the density of pre-fire snags from recent drought in the Creek Fire, contrary to expectations under the fuel reduction hypothesis. Moreover, fuel-reduction logging in California Spotted Owl habitats was associated with higher fire severity in most cases. The highest levels of high-severity fire were in the categories with commercial logging (post-fire logging, private commercial timberlands, and commercial thinning), while the three categories with lower levels of high-severity fire were in forests with no recent forest management or wildfire, less intensive noncommercial management, and unmanaged forests with re-burning of mixed-severity wildfire, respectively.”

Hanson, C.T. 2022. Cumulative severity of thinned and unthinned forests in a large California wildfire. Land 11: Article 373.

“Using published data regarding the percent basal area mortality for each commercial thinning unit that burned

in the Antelope fire, combined with percent basal area mortality due to the fire itself from post-fire satellite imagery, it was found that commercial thinning was associated with significantly higher overall tree mortality levels (cumulative severity).”

Baker, B.C., and C.T. Hanson. 2022. Cumulative tree mortality from commercial thinning and a large wildfire in the Sierra Nevada, California. Land 11: Article 995.

“Similar to the findings of Hanson (2022) in the Antelope Fire of 2021 in northern California, in our investigation of the Caldor Fire of 2021 we found significantly higher cumulative severity in forests with commercial thinning than in unthinned forests, indicating that commercial thinning killed significantly more trees than it prevented from being killed in the Caldor Fire...Despite controversy regarding thinning, there is a body of scientific literature that suggests commercial thinning should be scaled up across western US forest landscapes as a wildfire management strategy. This raises an important question: what accounts for the discrepancy on this issue in the scientific literature? We believe several factors are likely to largely explain this discrepancy. First and foremost, because most previous research has not accounted for tree mortality from thinning itself, prior to the wildfire-related mortality, such research has underreported tree mortality in commercial thinning areas relative to unthinned forests. Second, some prior studies have not controlled for vegetation type, which can lead to a mismatch when comparing severity in thinned areas to

the rest of the fire area given that thinning necessarily occurs in conifer forests but unthinned areas can include large expanses of non-conifer vegetation types that burn almost exclusively at high severity, such as grasslands and chaparral. Third, some research reporting effectiveness of commercial thinning in terms of reducing fire severity has been based on the subjective location of comparison sample points between thinned and adjacent unthinned forests. Fourth, reported results have often been based on theoretical models, which subsequent research has found to overestimate the effectiveness of thinning. Last, several case studies draw conclusions

about the effectiveness of thinning as a wildfire management strategy when the results of those studies do not support such a conclusion, as reviewed in DellaSala et al. (2022).” (internal citations omitted)

Prichard, S.J., et al. (co-authored by U.S. Forest Service). 2021. Adapting western US forests to wild-fires and climate change: 10 key questions. Ecological Applications 31: Article e02433.

In a study primarily authored by U.S. Forest Service scientists, and scientists funded by the Forest Service, the authors state that “There is little doubt that fuel reduction treatments can be effective at reducing fire severity...” yet these authors repeatedly contradict their own proposition, acknowledging that thinning can cause “higher surface

fuel loads,” which “can contribute to high-intensity surface fires and elevated levels of associated tree mortality,” and mastication of such surface fuels “can cause deep soil heating” and “elevated fire intensities.” The authors also acknowledge that thinning “can lead to increased surface wind speed and fuel heating, which allows for increased rates of fire spread in thinned forests,” and even the combination of thinning and prescribed fire “may increase the risk of fire by increasing sunlight exposure to the forest floor, drying vegetation, promoting understory growth, and increasing wind speeds.”

Despite these admissions, contradicting their promotion of thinning, the authors cite to several U.S. Forest Service-funded studies for the proposition that thinning can effectively reduce fire severity, but a subsequent analysis of those same studies found that the results of these articles do not support that conclusion, and often contradict it, as detailed in Section 5.2 of DellaSala et al. (2022) (see below).

DellaSala, D.A., B.C. Baker, C.T. Hanson, L. Ruediger, and W.L. Baker. 2022. Have western USA fire suppression and megafire active management approaches become a contemporary Sisyphus? Biological Conservation 268: Article 109499.

With regard to a previous U.S. Forest Service study claiming that commercial thinning effectively reduced fire severity in the large Wallow fire of 2011 in Arizona,

DellaSala et al. (2022, Section 5.1) conducted a detailed accuracy check and found that the previous analysis had dramatically underreported high-severity fire in commercial thinning units, and forests with commercial thinning in fact had higher fire severity, overall.

DellaSala et al. (2022, Section 5.2) also reviewed several U.S. Forest Service studies relied upon by Prichard et al. (2021) for the claim that commercial thinning is an effective fire management approach and found that the actual results of these cited studies did not support that conclusion.

Bartowitz, K.J., et al. 2022. Forest Carbon Emission Sources Are Not Equal: Putting Fire, Harvest, and Fossil Fuel Emissions in Context. Front. For. Glob. Change 5: Article 867112.

The authors found that logging conducted as commercial thinning, which involves removal of some mature trees, substantially increases carbon emissions relative to wildfire alone, and commercial thinning “causes a higher rate of tree mortality than wildfire.”

Evers, C., et al. 2022. Extreme Winds Alter Influence of Fuels and Topography on Megafire Burn Severity in Seasonal Temperate Rainforests under Record Fuel Aridity. Fire 5: Article 41.

The authors found that dense, mature/old forests with high biomass and canopy cover tended to have lower fire severity, while more open forests with lower canopy cover and less biomass burned more severely.

USFS (U.S. Forest Service) (2022). Gallinas-Las Dispensas Prescribed Fire Declared Wildfire Review. U.S. Forest Service, Office of the Chief, Washington, D.C.

“A thinning project in the burn area opened the canopy in some areas, allowing more sunlight which led to lower fuel moistures. Heavy ground fuels resulting from the construction of fireline for the burn project added to the fuel loading. This contributed to higher fire intensities, torching, spotting, and higher resistance-to-control.”

The only effective way to protect homes from fire is home-hardening and defensible space pruning within 100 to 200 feet of homes or less.

Cohen, J.D. (U.S. Forest Service). 2000. Preventing disaster: home ignitability in the wildland- urban interface. Journal of Forestry 98: 15-21.

The only relevant zone to protect homes from wildland fire is within approximately 135 feet or less from each home—not out in wildland forests.

Gibbons P, van Bommel L, Gill MA, Cary GJ, Driscoll DA, Bradstock RA, Knight E, Moritz MA, Stephens SL, Lindenmayer DB (2012) Land management practices

associated with house loss in wildfires. PLoS ONE 7: Article e29212.

Defensible space pruning within less than 130 feet from homes was effective at protecting homes from wildfires, while vegetation management in remote wildlands was not. A modest additional benefit for home safety was provided by prescribed burning less than 500 meters (less than 1641 feet) from homes.

Syphard, A.D., T.J. Brennan, and J.E. Keeley. 2014. The role of defensible space for residential structure protection during wildfires. Intl. J. Wildland Fire 23: 1165-1175.

Vegetation management and removal beyond approximately 100 feet from homes provides no additional benefit in terms of protecting homes from wildfires.

Tree removal is not necessary prior to conducting prescribed fire as an additional community safety buffer.

Decades of scientific studies have proven that, even in the densest forests that have not experienced fire in many decades, prescribed fire can be applied without prior tree removal, as demonstrated in the following studies:

Knapp EE, Keeley JE, Ballenger EA, Brennan TJ. 2005. Fuel reduction and coarse woody debris dynamics with

early season and late season prescribed fire in a Sierra Nevada mixed conifer forest. Forest Ecology and Management 208: 383–397.

Knapp, E.E., and Keeley, J.E. 2006. Heterogeneity in fire severity within early season and late season prescribed burns in a mixed-conifer forest. Int. J. Wildland Fire 15: 37–45.

Knapp, E.E., Schwilk, D.W., Kane, J.M., Keeley, J.E., 2007. Role of burning on initial understory vegetation response to prescribed fire in a mixed conifer forest. Canadian Journal of Forest Research 37: 11–22.

van Mantgem, P.J., A.C. Caprio, N.L. Stephenson, and A.J. Das. 2016. Does prescribed fire promote resistance to drought in low elevation forests of the Sierra Nevada, California, USA? Fire Ecology 12: 13-25.

van Mantgem, P.J., N.L. Stephenson, J.J. Battles, E.K. Knapp, and J.E. Keeley. 2011. Long-term effects of prescribed fire on mixed conifer forest structure in the Sierra Nevada, California. Forest Ecology and Management 261: 989–994.

Overall, the EA is devoid of any useful information to the public as to why this project enhances wildlife habitat, or is needed to maintain natural ecosystem processes within an IRA. If juniper is so flammable, it is not clear why it

has to be slashed before it can be burned. It is clear that this project requires much more information to be provided to the public, and much more documentation to justify vegetation management within the IRA. And as previously noted, the criteria which the resource specialists used to estimate the level of impact needs to be provided, as well, to the public. It seems readily apparent that this project requires at a minimum an environmental assessment in order to comply with the NEPA, including the provision of valid, reliable information to the public when the Forest Service is planning resource management activities.

Please see the attached paper by Dr. William Baker titled: “Are High-Severity Fires Burning at Much Higher Rates Recently than Historically in Dry-Forest Landscapes of the Western USA?”

Dr. Baker writes: “Programs to generally reduce fire severity in dry forests are not supported and have significant adverse ecological impacts, including reducing habitat for native species dependent on early-successional burned patches and decreasing landscape heterogeneity that confers resilience to climatic change.”

Dr. Baker concluded: “Dry forests were historically renewed, and will continue to be renewed, by sudden, dramatic, high-intensity fires after centuries of stability and lower-intensity fires.”

The purpose of this project is to improve big game and grouse habitat and to make the forest more resilient and

plan for a more historic fire regime. Based on Dr. Baker's paper, the proposed action will not meet the purpose and need of the project.

Please find attached DellaSala et al 2022. Please also find attached, Baker 2023.

Countering Omitted Evidence of Variable Historical Forests and Fire Regime in Western USA Dry Forests: The Low-Severity-Fire Model Rejected

William L. Baker ^{1,}*

, Chad T. Hanson ², Mark A. Williams ³ and Dominick A. DellaSala ⁴

1 2 3 4

** Correspondence: bakerwl@uwyo.edu*

Abstract: The structure and fire regime of pre-industrial (historical) dry forests over ~26 million ha of the western USA is of growing importance because wildfires are increasing and spilling over into communities.

Management is guided by current conditions relative to the historical range of variability (HRV). Two models of HRV, with different implications, have been debated since the 1990s in a complex series of papers, replies, and rebuttals. The "low-severity" model is that dry forests were relatively uniform, low in tree density, and dominated by low- to moderate-severity fires; the "mixed-severity" model is that dry forests were heterogeneous, with both low and high tree densities and a mixture of fire

severities. Here, we simply rebut evidence in the low-severity model's latest review, including its 37 critiques of the mixed-severity model. A central finding of high-severity fire recently exceeding its historical rates was not supported by evidence in the review itself. A large body of published evidence supporting the mixed-severity model was omitted. These included numerous direct observations by early scientists, early forest atlases, early newspaper accounts, early oblique and aerial photographs, seven paleo-charcoal reconstructions, ≥18 tree-ring reconstructions, 15 land survey reconstructions, and analysis of forest inventory data. Our rebuttal shows that evidence omitted in the review left a falsification of the scientific record, with significant land management implications. The low-severity model is rejected and mixed-severity model is supported by the corrected body of scientific evidence.

Dr. Baker's and DellaSala's paper are the best available science. Please explain why this project is not following the best available science.

Please explain include a discussion of the following:

- 1. Baker and Shinneman. 2004. Fire rotation for high-severity fire in juniper is estimated at 400-480 years.*
- 2. Floyd and others. 2004. Stand replacing fires in juniper 400 years or longer.*

3. Bauer and Weisberg. 2009. The fire cycle in pinyon-juniper was estimated at 427 years.

What evidence do you have that shows fire has been suppressed in the area?

Baker and Shinneman (2004), Bauer and Weisberg (2009), and Floyd et al. 2004) that demonstrate that the fire cycle in juniper woodlands is very long, up to 400 years or longer, and has not been impacted by any fire suppression actions since settlement. In addition, Coop and Magee (Undated) noted that low-severity fire is not generally considered to have played an important role in shaping patterns of pre- settlement pinyon-juniper woodland structure, where fire regimes were mostly characterized by rare stand-replacing fire; as a result, they noted that direct management interventions such as thinning or fuel reductions may not represent ecological restoration.

Please find Schoennagel et al (2004) attached.

Schoenagel states: “we are concerned that the model of historical fire effects and 20th-century fire suppression in dry ponderosa pine forests is being applied uncritically across all Rocky Mountain forests, including where it is inappropriate.

Schoennagel et al (2004) states: “High-elevation subalpine forests in the Rocky Mountains typify ecosystems that experience infrequent, high-severity crown fires []. . . The most extensive subalpine forest types are composed of Engelmann spruce (Picea engelmannii), subalpine fir (Abies lasiocarpa), and lodgepole pine (Pinus contorta), all thin-barked trees easily killed by fire. Extensive stand-replacing fires occurred historically at long intervals (i.e., one to many centuries) in subalpine forests, typically in association with infrequent high-pressure blocking systems that promote extremely dry regional climate patterns.”

Schoennagel et al (2004) states: “it is unlikely that the short period of fire exclusion has significantly altered the long fire intervals in subalpine forests. Furthermore, large, intense fires burning under dry

conditions are very difficult, if not impossible, to suppress, and such fires account for the majority of area burned in subalpine forests.

Schoennagel et al (2004) states: “Moreover, there is no consistent relationship between time elapsed since the last fire and fuel abundance in subalpine forests, further undermining the idea that years of fire suppression have caused unnatural fuel buildup in this forest zone.”

Schoennagel et al (2004) states: “No evidence suggests that spruce–fir or lodgepole pine forests have experienced substantial shifts in stand structure over recent decades as a result of fire suppression. Overall, variation in climate rather than in fuels appears to exert the largest influence on the size, timing, and severity of fires in subalpine forests []. We conclude that large, infrequent stand replacing

fires are ‘business as usual’ in this forest type, not an artifact of fire suppression.”.

Schoennagel et al (2004) states: “Contrary to popular opinion, previous fire suppression, which was consistently effective from about 1950 through 1972, had only a minimal effect on the large fire event in 1988 []. Reconstruction of historical fires indicates that similar large, high-severity fires also occurred in the early 1700s []. Given the historical range of variability of fire regimes in high-elevation subalpine forests, fire behavior in Yellow-stone during 1988, although severe, was neither unusual nor surprising.”

Schoennagel et al (2004) states: “Mechanical fuel reduction in sub- alpine forests would not represent a restoration treatment but rather a departure from the natural range of variability in stand structure.”

Schoennagel et al (2004) states: “Given the behavior of fire in Yellowstone in 1988, fuel reduction projects probably will not substantially reduce the frequency, size, or severity of wildfires under extreme weather conditions.”

Schoennagel et al (2004) states: “The Yellowstone fires in 1988 revealed that variation in fuel conditions, as measured by stand age and density, had only minimal influence on fire behavior. Therefore, we expect fuel- reduction treatments in high-elevation forests to be generally unsuccessful in reducing fire frequency, severity, and size, given the overriding importance of extreme climate in controlling fire regimes in this zone. Thinning also will not restore subalpine forests, because they were dense historically and have not changed significantly in response to fire suppression. Thus, fuel- reduction

efforts in most Rocky Mountain sub- alpine forests probably would not effectively mitigate the fire hazard, and these efforts may create new ecological problems by moving the forest structure outside the historic range of variability.”

Likewise, Brown et al (2004) states: “At higher elevations, forests of subalpine fir, Engelmann spruce, mountain hem- lock, and lodgepole or whitebark pine predominate. These forests also have long fire return intervals and contain a high proportion of fire sensitive trees. At periods averaging a few hundred years, extreme drought conditions would prime the- se forests for large, severe fires that would tend to set the forest back to an early successional stage, with a large carry- over of dead trees as a legacy of snags and logs in the regenerating forest natural ecological dynamics are largely

preserved because fire suppression has been effective for less than one natural fire cycle. Thinning for restoration does not appear to be appropriate in these forests. Efforts to manipulate stand structures to reduce fire hazard will not only be of limited effectiveness but may also move systems away from pre-1850 conditions to the detriment of wildlife and watersheds.” “Fuel levels may suggest a high fire ‘hazard’ under conventional assessments, but wildfire risk is typically low in these settings.”

Likewise, Graham et al (2004) states: “Most important, the fire behavior characteristics are strikingly different for cold (for example, lodgepole pine, Engelmann

spruce, subalpine fir), moist (for example, western hemlock, western redcedar, western white pine), and dry forests. Cold and moist forests tend to have long

fire- return intervals, but fires that do occur tend to be high- intensity, stand-replacing fires. Dry forests historically had short intervals between fi- res, but most important, the fires had low to moderate severity.”

According to Graham et al (2004), thinning may also increase the likelihood of wildfire ignition in the type of forests in this Project area: “The probability of ignition is strongly rela- ted to fine fuel moisture content, air temperature, the amount of shading of surface fuels, and the occurrence of an ignition source (human or lightning caused) There is generally a warmer, dryer microclimate in more open stands (fig. 9) compared to denser stands. Dense stands (canopy cover) tend to provide more shading of fuels, keep- ing relative humidity higher and air and fuel temperature lower than in more open stands.

Thus, dense stands tend to maintain higher surface fuel moisture contents compared to more open stands. More open stands also tend to allow higher wind speeds that tend to dry fuels compared to dense stands. These factors may increase probability of ignition in some open canopy stands compared to dense canopy stands.”

Please see the attached report titled: “Have western USA fire suppression and megafire active management approaches become a contemporary Sisyphus?” By Dominick A. DellaSala^{a,}, Bryant C. Baker^{b,c}, Chad T. Hanson^d, Luke Ruediger^{e,f}, William Baker^g*

The abstract of the paper states:

*Fire suppression policies and “active management” in response to wildfires are being carried out by land managers globally, including millions of hectares of mixed conifer and dry ponderosa pine (*Pinus ponderosa*) forests of the western USA that periodically burn in mixed severity fires. Federal managers pour billions of dollars*

into command-and-control fire suppression and the MegaFire (landscape scale) Active Management Approach (MFAMA) in an attempt to contain wildfires increasingly influenced by top down climate forcings. Wildfire suppression activities aimed at stopping or slowing fires include expansive dozerlines, chemical retardants and igniters, backburns, and cutting trees (live and dead), including within roadless and wilderness areas. MFAMA involves logging of large, fire-resistant live trees and snags; mastication of beneficial shrubs; degradation of wildlife habitat, including endangered species habitat; aquatic impacts from an expansive road system; and logging-related carbon emissions. Such impacts are routinely dismissed with minimal environmental review and defiance of the precautionary principle in environmental planning. Placing restrictive bounds on these activities, deemed increasingly ineffective in a change climate, is urgently needed to overcome their contributions to the global biodiversity and climate crises. We urge land managers and decision makers to address the root cause of recent fire increases by reducing greenhouse gas emissions across all sectors, reforming industrial forestry and fire suppression practices, protecting carbon stores in large trees and recently burned forests, working with wildfire for ecosystem benefits using minimum suppression tactics when fire is not threatening towns, and surgical application of thinning and prescribed fire nearest homes.

This conclusion of this paper is that the purpose and need of the project will not be met by your proposed

management activities. This paper is now the best available science. Why does the Coyote Divide proposal not follow the best available science?

Schoennagel et al (2004) states: “we are concerned that the model of historical fire effects and 20th-century fire suppression in dry ponderosa pine forests is being applied uncritically across all Rocky Mountain forests, including where it is inappropriate.”

*Schoennagel et al (2004) states: “High-elevation subalpine forests in the Rocky Mountains typify ecosystems that experience infrequent, high-severity crown fires []. . . The most extensive subalpine forest types are composed of Engelmann spruce (*Picea engelmannii*), subalpine fir (*Abies lasiocarpa*), and lodgepole pine (*Pinus contorta*), all thin-barked trees easily killed by fire. Extensive stand-replacing fires*

occurred historically at long intervals (i.e., one to many centuries) in subalpine forests, typically in association with infrequent high-pressure blocking systems that promote extremely dry regional climate patterns.”

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Yellow- stone during 1988, although severe, was neither unusual nor surprising.”

Schoennagel et al (2004)(emphasis added) states:

“Mechanical fuel reduction in sub- alpine forests would not represent a restoration treatment but rather a departure from the natural range of variability in stand structure.”

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Likewise, Brown et al (2004) states: “At higher elevations, forests of subalpine fir, Engelmann spruce, mountain hemlock, and lodgepole or whitebark pine predominate. These forests also have long fire return intervals and contain a high proportion of fire sensitive trees. At

periods averaging a few hundred years, extreme drought conditions would prime these forests for large, severe fires that would tend to set the forest back to an early successional stage, with a large carry-over of dead trees as a legacy of snags and logs in the regenerating forest natural ecological dynamics are largely preserved because fire suppression has been effective for less than one natural fire cycle. Thinning for restoration does not appear to be appropriate in these forests. Efforts to manipulate stand structures to reduce fire hazard will not only be of limited effectiveness but may also move systems away from pre-1850 conditions to the detriment of wildlife and watersheds.” “Fuel levels may suggest a high fire ‘hazard’ under conventional assessments, but wildfire risk is typically low in these settings.”

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According to Graham et al (2004), thinning may also increase the likelihood of wildfire ignition in the type of forests in this Project area: “The probability of ignition is strongly related to fine fuel moisture content, air temperature, the amount of shading of surface fuels, and the occurrence of an ignition source (human or lightning caused) There is generally a warmer, dryer

microclimate in more open stands (fig. 9) compared to denser stands. Dense stands (canopy cover) tend to provide more shading of fuels, keeping relative humidity higher and air and fuel temperature lower than in more open stands. Thus, dense stands tend to maintain higher surface fuel moisture contents compared to more open stands. More open stands also tend to allow higher wind speeds that tend to dry fuels compared to dense stands. These factors may increase probability of ignition in some open canopy stands compared to dense canopy stands.”

A new study soon to be published by Dominick A.

DellaSala et. al. found that reviewed 1500 wildfires between 1984 and 2014 found that actively managed forests had the highest level of fire severity. While those forests in protected areas burned, on average, had the lowest level of fire severity. In other words, the best way to

reduce severe fires is to protect the land as wilderness, not “manage” it.

The Project will violate the NEPA if there are no valid snag surveys done for the project area both within and outside proposed harvest units.

Please see the following article:

Montana researchers urge towns to focus on wildfire preparation

<https://missoulacurrent.com/research-wildfire-preparation/>

Laura Lundquist

(Missoula Current) For more than a decade, a small group of scientists have been trying to convince people that fireproofing their homes is far more effective than logging the forest when it comes to surviving wildfire. But few people are listening.

In mid-December, six researchers published a paper in the Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences journal warning that communities across the nation, but particularly those in the West, aren't prepared to survive an urban conflagration such as the one that devastated Lahaina, Hawaii, in August.

The paper, titled "Wildland-urban fire disasters aren't actually a wildfire problem," points out that, since 2016, communities from Lahaina to Gatlinburg, Tenn., that have lost hundred of homes to fires have certain things in common: the fires occurred under extreme weather conditions - high winds and persistent drought - and most of the structures weren't fire-resistant.

"These problem fires were defined as an issue of wildfires that involved houses. In reality, they are urban fires initiated by wildfires. That's an important distinction - and one that has big repercussions for how we prepare ourselves for future fires," the authors wrote.

The authors included three researchers from the Forest Science and Fire Sciences laboratories of the U.S. Forest Service Rocky Mountain Research Station in Missoula and one from Headwaters Economics in Bozeman.

In a 2014 paper in the Proceedings of the National Academy of Science, some of the same authors developed a community risk assessment that put the focus on improving the security of individual homes in a community, not the forest around them.

The emphasis is placed on modifying the house and the home ignition zone, a region within 100 feet of a house where debris and vegetation should be eliminated or minimized to reduce the chance of fire getting close to the house.

The reason that urban conflagrations begin and spread is because wind pushes embers and heat from one unprotected building to another, overwhelming fire departments that normally train to fight fire in just one building. Conditions are made worse when buildings are close together, because radiant heat becomes a bigger factor, spreading fire quicker.

“Reducing the likelihood that a home will ignite interrupts the disaster sequence by enabling effective structure protection. New construction siting, design, construction materials, and landscaping requirements should take wildfire potential into account,” the authors wrote in the December paper.

One of the paper’s authors, Jack Cohen, is a fire-behavior analyst and heat transfer engineer who has spent 40 years investigating wildfires, particularly those that are linked to incidents where hundreds of homes burned. He has spent at least the past decade writing papers and giving talks about the need to focus on making homes less susceptible to wildfires, which are a natural process, especially in the arid West.

When asked why the researchers decided to submit the recent article that seeks to drum home points they already promoted a decade ago, Cohen said cities and agencies have done very little during that time period to put their recommendations into place.

“What prompted us this time was the Lahaina urban conflagration that was associated with a grassfire. It may be a repeated message on our part, but it’s not being received very well. Not much has changed,” Cohen said. “The federal and state agencies still don’t get it - they’re still defining the problem as a wildfire control problem.”

Since the 2014 paper, Cohen and other researchers have had to just watch as town after town has burned terribly but predictably, as if no one has read their research. In Gatlinburg and Pigeon Forge, Tenn., 2,460 buildings burned in a 2016 fire; in 2018, the Camp Fire led to the loss of almost 19,000 buildings in Paradise, Calif.; in December 2021, 1,084 buildings burned in Superior and Louisville, Colo. from a grass fire; and in November 2021, a grassfire sparked fires in 23 homes in Denton, Mont.

Each wildfire had very little connection to most of the burning buildings, Cohen said. A wildfire is the source of initial ignition, but from that point on, it’s a series of structure fires that lead to more structure fires. For example, with the Four Mile Canyon Fire in Boulder, Colo., the state of Colorado and the Forest Service had completed a number of fuel treatments nearby that they

touted as protective. But high winds carried fire brands to ignite the houses far from the fire. Cohen found that while 168 houses burned, a lot of vegetation around the houses didn't, "so the wildfire didn't sweep through town."

"In the past five years, a number of incidents with more than 100 houses burning have been initiated by grass fires, which burn quickly. The grass fires pass through and are gone while the community continued to burn," Cohen said. "What I've found, particularly over the past five or six years, is that extreme wildfire is not dependent on closed-canopy conifers that produce big flames. The only time these urban disasters occur is under extreme conditions. That typically means it's very windy."

Nothing about the Lahaina Fire surprised Cohen. Not even the overblown claims that a wildfire "roared through and destroyed the town." Again, the wildfire was over before the town really started to burn. The fire started as a grassfire fanned by high winds, and had Lahaina not been there, the fire would have burned through the buffel grass and guinea grass within a matter of minutes before it died out on the beach.

But Lahaina was there, a high-density community with several blocks of multi-story, largely-connected wooden structures. That configuration caused buildings to catch fire either due to burning embers flying from other buildings or from catching fire due to the overwhelming heat from nearby buildings.

“The ignition initiated where the grassfire came down, and that was it - it was a conflagration,” Cohen said.

“You don’t want to be in a high-density community when you can’t control the fire. Thirteen of the 26 fatalities in the 1991 Oakland Hills Fire occurred in the street when two-story buildings were burning on both sides of the street and the road became blocked. The heat was untenable.”

One house in Lahaina stood untouched and was dubbed “the miracle house.” But Cohen said it was just a good example of the points he and his fellow authors have been trying to communicate about defensible space and being fire-adapted. The owners had recently renovated the house with a nonflammable roof. It had wood walls, but the nearest building was about 30 feet away - far enough to prevent radiant heat from starting a fire - and there was little debris on the grounds or the house to actively spread the fire.

“The home ignition zone works,” Cohen said. “The home ignition zone came out of the modeling I did and then the crown fire experiments I did with wood walls to show the distance, the proximity required to produce an ignition was realistic. At the same time, California was cutting 300-foot clearances around communities, which means nothing to (airborne) burning embers, but it’s way over (what’s required) for radiant heat exposure.”

Cohen and his colleagues hope their latest paper prompts more action from local governments. Cohen is hoping

Missoula County can do a better job when it updates its Wildfire Protection Plan in the near future.

But more than likely, Cohen said, they'll be writing a similar paper in another few years, trying to make politicians and the public understand. It doesn't help that they're fighting some in their own agency, the Forest Service, who insist that logging, not home modification, will save communities.

"Fire is inevitable. But nobody's figuring it out," Cohen said. "We're starting from the presumption that it's wildfire that spreads through a community that lays it to waste. We even have the agencies responding in that fashion by being obsessed with this notion of wildfire control. So they do fuel treatments to have safe firefighting. That's not only counter ecologically, it doesn't work."

*Contact reporter Laura Lundquist
at lundquist@missoulacurrent.com.*

Please find, "Wildland-urban fire disasters aren't actually a wildfire problem," by Calkin et al. 2023 attached. Calkin et al. 2024 found that to protect homes from wildfire we have to harden homes, not cut and burn forests.

The project area should be within 100 feet of homes not on Forest Service and BL:M lands unless a home is

within 100 feet of Forest Service and BL:M lands. The purpose and need are not based on the best available science and is in violation of NEPA, NFMA and the APA.

Please see the attached paper titled: “Management for Mountain Pine Beetle Outbreak Suppression: Does Relevant Science Support Current Policy?” By Six et al. 2014.

The abstract states: While the use of timber harvests is generally accepted as an effective approach to controlling bark beetles during outbreaks, in reality there has been a dearth of monitoring to assess outcomes, and failures are often not reported. Additionally, few studies have focused on how these treatments affect forest structure and function over the long term, or our forests’ ability to adapt to climate change. Despite this, there is a widespread belief in the policy arena that timber harvesting is an effective and necessary tool to address beetle infestations.

That belief has led to numerous proposals for, and enactment of, significant changes in federal environmental laws to encourage more timber harvests for beetle control. In this review, we use mountain pine beetle as an exemplar to critically evaluate the state of science behind the use of timber harvest treatments for bark beetle suppression during outbreaks. It is our hope that this review will stimulate research to fill important gaps and to help guide the development of policy and management firmly based in science, and thus, more likely to aid in forest conservation, reduce financial waste, and bolster public trust in public agency decision-making and practice.

The paper finds:

Mountain pine beetle can remain in non-outbreak phase for very long periods of time, even when forests are

composed of suitable age classes of host trees and in a condition often considered to be highly susceptible and “unhealthy”. Outbreaks occur only when multiple thresholds involving temperature, tree defenses, and brood productivity are surpassed that allow positive feedbacks to amplify across several scales [2,64]. While outbreak development is complex, the primary elements that must exist are an abundance of suitable hosts and a trigger [63]. Triggers for mountain pine beetle that allow population amplification and subsequent widespread outbreak initiation are warm temperatures and drought, conditions that often co-occur [65]. There can also be a substantial lag period, even several years, from the initiation of the abiotic factors that trigger an outbreak to when populations actually amplify [65,66]. However, once a threshold number of beetles is surpassed, the outbreak becomes self-perpetuating.

They also state: The on-the-ground reality is that direct control efforts typically fall far below the levels needed to stabilize, let alone control, mountain pine beetle populations. In the above cited studies, rates of detection in mitigated stands ranged from 45%–79%. These situations are not unusual. Direct control treatments are laborious, extremely costly and time consuming, and require high levels of training. Logistical difficulties, including proper seasonal timing, access, inclement weather, and lack of trained personnel, increase the odds that they will not be effective. The high financial cost of such efforts coupled with a volatile market for sawtimber, pulp and pellets further complicates the use of direct controls. Importantly, outbreak development is extremely swift and the amount of mitigation required can rapidly outstrip the ability of managers to respond.

Six et al. 2014 also note:

The hypothesis that light has a strong effect on mountain pine beetle behavior, particularly in reducing attacks, has led to a new treatment called daylighting. This approach is currently being implemented on a broad scale by federal and western state agencies. Daylighting involves removing trees and vegetation from around trees that are targeted for retention and is believed to work by repelling beetles from the boles of trees by increasing light and solar radiation [117]. While widely recommended, the efficacy of this treatment is unknown; there are no published studies on its effects on bark beetles.

Six et al. 2014 found that beetles are selective in killing the least healthy trees but logging occurs without consideration of genetics.

Very importantly, the beetle exercises selectivity in the trees it kills. While extremely high numbers may override this selectivity, evidence is accumulating that, even under outbreak conditions, beetles choose trees that have particular qualities. Beetles commonly select trees for attack that exhibit lower growth rates, defenses, and higher water stress [58,74,77]. While these factors can be influenced both locally and regionally by site conditions and climate, much of the variation in these properties within individual stands that affect bark beetle choice likely has a genetic basis. Outbreaks can result in strong natural selection against trees with phenotypes (and likely genotypes) favorable for the beetle and for those that

possess unfavorable qualities [58,77]. However, when humans thin forests, trees are removed according to size, species, and density, without consideration of genetics. Thus, trees best adapted to surviving beetle outbreaks are as likely to be removed as those that are not.

When humans thin forests, they typically manage for resistance and resilience, rather than adaptation which involves genetic change. It is very important to distinguish between resistance, resilience, and adaptation, as each have different goals and operate on different temporal scales [140]. Resistance is a short-term holding action where we try to maintain an existing state. Approaches focusing on resistance often require massive interventions and increasing physical and financial investments over time. Such approaches may set forests up for future outbreaks [136] and even catastrophic failure as they surpass thresholds in a warming climate [140]. In contrast, practices that promote resilience attempt to allow forests the ability to adjust to gradual changes related to climate change and to recover after disturbance.

However, like resistance, resilience is not a long-term solution. In the long term, forests must be able to adapt to change. Adaptation involves genetic change driven by natural selection. Currently, much of forest management, including bark beetle management, focuses on resistance and resilience, mainly through direct and indirect management, respectively. However, neither approach allows for true adaptation. For long term continuity of our forests, it will be imperative to begin to incorporate this aspect of management into our approaches.

Six et al 2014 conclude: One of the biggest problems in assessing the utility of direct controls is a general lack of monitoring or post hoc assessments of the outcomes of implementing these practices. Despite decades of direct control and large-scale implementation of these practices, few rigorous studies on its efficacy have been done and there remains no agreement among scientists or foresters regarding its ability to reduce beetle populations or losses of trees. Studies conducted prior to the current outbreak have variously concluded that direct treatments may merely act to delay infestation of susceptible stands [97], or that if used correctly, can be effective [98,99]. Many studies found that while some treatments slowed the rate

of infestation, overall, they had little to no impact on mountain pine beetle populations [97,100–104].

The manner in which policy makers have accepted beetle timber harvest treatments as a panacea for responding to bark beetle outbreaks in North American forests raises a number of red flags. As ecosystems and places that have economic, social, and cultural value to human communities are altered by climate change, there is a risk that people will overreact because of a need to “do something” to respond to change, and to give themselves some sense of control over broader forces that appear to be out of control. That pressure, to “do something”, might also interact with the uncertainty about which choices are effective and appropriate (as with beetle timber harvest treatments) to create an opportunity for political pressures to force the adoption of particular choices that benefit specific interest groups [143]. It is perhaps no accident that the beetle treatments that have been most aggressively pushed for in the political landscape allow for logging activities that might provide revenue and jobs for the commercial timber industry. The result is that the push to “do something,” uncertainty, and political pressures might lead us to act to respond to climate change before we understand the consequences of what we are doing, in the end producing more harm than good.

Our argument here is not to forgo management, but rather that management should be led by science and informed by monitoring. Both direct and indirect

management for bark beetles have their place. However, to manage our forests in a way that best ensures their long-term function while wisely using limited financial resources, policy makers and the public need a clearer understanding of current science and g

We believe that best available science shows that

Commercial Logging does not reduce the threat of Forest Fires. What best available science supports the action alternatives?

Please see the attached paper by Della-Sala 2022.

Please see the column below by Dr. Chad Hanson.

<https://thehill.com/blogs/congress-blog/energy-environment/590415-logging-makes-forests-and-homes-more-vulnerable-to>

Logging makes forests and homes more vulnerable to wildfires

The West has seen some really big forest fires recently, particularly in California's Sierra Nevada and the Cascade Mountains of Oregon. Naturally, everyone is concerned and elected officials are eager to be seen as advancing solutions. The U.S. Senate is negotiating over the Build Back Better bill, which currently contains nearly \$20 billion in logging subsidies for "hazardous fuel reduction" in forests. This term contains no clear definition but is typically employed as a euphemism for "thinning", which usually includes commercial logging of mature and old-growth trees on public lands. It often includes clearcut logging that harms forests and streams and intensifies wildfires.

Logging interests stand poised to profit, as they tell the public and Congress that our forests are overgrown from years of neglect. Chainsaws and bulldozers are their remedy. Among these interests are agencies like the U.S. Forest Service that financially benefits from selling public timber to private logging companies.

In this fraught context, filled with a swirling admixture of panic, confusion, and opportunism, the truth and scientific evidence are all too often casualties. This, unfortunately, can lead to regressive policies that will only exacerbate the climate crisis and increase threats to communities from wildfire. We can no longer afford either outcome.

Many of the nation's top climate scientists and ecologists recently urged Congress to [remove the logging](#)

subsidies from the *Build Back Better* bill. Scientists noted that logging now emits about as much carbon dioxide each year as does burning coal. They also noted that logging conducted under the guise of “forest thinning” does not stop large wildfires that are driven mainly by extreme fire-weather caused primarily by climate change. In fact, it can often make fires burn faster and more intensely toward vulnerable homes. Unprepared towns like Paradise and Grizzly Flats, Calif., unfortunately burned to the ground as fires raced through heavily logged surroundings.

*Nature prepares older forests and large trees for wildfires. As trees age, they develop thick impenetrable bark and drop their lower limbs, making it difficult for fire to climb into the tree crowns. Older, dense forests used by the imperiled spotted owl burn in *mixed intensities* that is good for the owl and hundreds of species that depend on these forests for survival. Our national parks and wilderness areas also burn in *lower* fire intensities compared to heavily logged areas.*

*Occasionally even some of the largest trees will succumb to a severe fire but their progeny are born again to rapidly colonize the largest and most *severe burn patches*. Dozens of cavity-nesting birds and small mammals make their homes in the fire-killed trees. Soon after fire in these forests, nature regenerates, reminiscent of the mythical phoenix, aided by scores of pollinating insects and seed carrying birds and mammals.*

Wildfires are highly variable, often depending on what a gust of wind does at a given moment, and even the biggest fires are primarily comprised of lightly and moderately-burned areas where most mature trees survive. By chance, in any large fire there will always be some areas that were thinned by loggers that burned less intense compared to unthinned areas. Before the smoke fully clears, logging interests find those locations and take journalists and politicians to promote their agenda. What they fail to disclose are the many examples where managed forests burned hotter while older, unmanaged forests did the opposite.

This sort of self-serving show boating occurred after the 2020 Creek Fire in the Sierra National Forest in California, as news stories echoed the logging industry's "overgrown forests" narrative based on a single low-intensity burn area. When all of the data across the entire fire were [analyzed](#), it turned out that logged forests, including commercial "thinning" areas, actually burned the most intensely.

In Oregon, The Nature Conservancy has been conducting intensive commercial thinning on its Sycan Marsh Preserve. Based on satellite imagery, the northern portion of the 414,000-acre Bootleg Fire of 2021 swept through these lands. Within days, TNC began promoting its logging program, focusing on a single location around Coyote Creek, where a "thinned" unit burned lightly. They failed to mention that nearly all of the dense, unmanaged forests burned lightly too in that area. Well-

intentioned environmental reporters were misled by a carefully picked example.

Billions of dollars are being wasted to further this false logging industry narrative—funds that instead should be used to prepare communities for more climate-driven wildfires. Congress can instead redirect much needed support to damaged communities so they can build back better and adopt proven fire safety measures that harden homes and clear flammable vegetation nearest structures.

*The path forward is simple, with two proven remedies that work. Protect forests from logging so they can absorb more carbon dioxide from the atmosphere and moderate fire behavior, and **adapt** communities to the new climate-driven wildfire era.*

Chad Hanson, Ph.D., is a research ecologist with the John Muir Project and is the author of the 2021 book, “Smokescreen: Debunking Wildfire Myths to Save Our Forests and Our Climate.” Dominick DellaSala, Ph.D., is chief scientist with Wild Heritage and the author of Conservation Science and Advocacy for a Planet in Peril: Speaking Truth to Power.

Please see the article below about Logging and wildfire by Dr. Chad Hanson.

October 5, 2022

“Fuel Reduction” Logging Increases Wildfire Intensity

A large and growing body of scientific evidence and opinion concludes that commercial thinning and post-fire logging/clearcutting makes wildfires spread faster and/or burn more severely, and this puts nearby communities at greater risk.

Morris, W.G. (U.S. Forest Service). 1940. Fire weather on clearcut, partly cut, and virgin timber areas at Westfir, Oregon. Timberman 42: 20-28.

“This study is concerned with one of these factors - the fire-weather conditions near ground level - on a single operation during the first summer following logging. These conditions were found to be more severe in the clear-cut area than in either the heavy or light partial cutting areas and more severe in the latter areas than in virgin timber.”

Countryman, C.M. (U.S. Forest Service). 1956. Old-growth conversion also converts fire climate. Fire Control Notes 17: 15-19.

“Although the general relations between weather factors, fuel moisture, and fire behavior are fairly well known, the importance of these changes following conversion and their combined effect on fire behavior and control is not generally recognized. The term ‘fireclimate,’ as used here, designates the environmental conditions of weather and fuel moisture that affect fire behavior. It does not consider fuel created by slash because regardless of what forest managers do with slash, they still have to deal with the

new fireclimate. In fact, the changes in wind, temperature, humidity, air structure, and fuel

moisture may result in greater changes in fire behavior and size of control job than does the addition of more fuel in the form of slash.”

“Conversion which opens up the canopy by removal of trees permits freer air movement and more sunlight to reach the ground. The increased solar radiation in turn results in higher temperatures, lower humidity, and lower fuel moisture. The magnitude of these changes can be illustrated by comparing the fireclimate in the open with that in a dense stand.”

“A mature, closed stand has a fireclimate strikingly different from that in the open. Here nearly all of the solar radiation is intercepted by the crowns. Some is reflected back to space and the rest is converted to heat and distributed in depth through the crowns. Air within the stand is warmed by contact with the crowns, and the ground fuels are in turn warmed only by contact with the air. The temperature of fuels on the ground thus usually approximates air temperature within the stand.”

“Temperature profiles in a dense, mixed conifer stand illustrate this process (fig. 2). By 8 o'clock in the morning, air within the crowns had warmed to 68° F. Air temperature near the ground was only 50°. By 10 o'clock temperatures within the crowns had reached 82° and, although the heat had penetrated to lower levels, air near

the surface at 77° was still cooler than at any other level. At 2:00 p.m., air temperature within the stand had become virtually uniform at 87°. In the open less than one-half mile away, however, the temperature at the surface of pine litter reached 153° at 2:00 p.m.”

“Because of the lower temperature and higher humidity, fuels within the closed stand are more moist than those in the open under ordinary weather conditions. Typically, when moisture content is 3 percent in the open, 8 percent can be expected in the stand.”

“Moisture and temperature differences between open and closed stands have a great effect on both the inception and the behavior of fire. For example, fine fuel at 8-percent moisture content will require nearly one-third more heat for ignition than will the same fuel at 3-percent moisture content. Thus, firebrands that do not contain enough heat to start a fire in a closed stand may readily start one in the open.”

“When a standard fire weather station in the open indicates a temperature of 85° F., fuel moisture of 4 percent, and a wind velocity of 15 m.p.h.--not unusual burning conditions in the West--a fire starting on a moderate slope will spread 4.5 times as fast in the open as in a closed stand. The size of the suppression job, however, increases even more drastically.”

“Greater rate of spread and intensity of burning require control lines farther from the actual fire, increasing the

length of fireline. Line width also must be increased to contain the hotter fire. Less production per man and delays in getting additional crews complicate the control problem on a fast-moving fire. It has been estimated that the size of the suppression job increases nearly as the square of the rate of forward spread. Thus, fire in the open will require 20 times more suppression effort. In other words, for each man

required to control a surface fire in a mature stand burning under these conditions, 20 men will be required if the area is clear cut.”

“Methods other than clear cutting, of course, may bring a less drastic change in fireclimate. Nevertheless, the change resulting from partial cutting can have important effects on fire. The moderating effect that a dense stand has on the fireclimate usually results in slow-burning fires. Ordinarily, in dense timber only a few days a year have the extreme burning conditions under which surface fires produce heat rapidly enough to carry the fire into the crowns. Partial cutting can increase the severity of the fireclimate enough to materially increase the number of days when disastrous crown fires can occur.”

SNEP (co-authored by U.S. Forest Service). 1996. Sierra Nevada Ecosystem Project, Final Report to Congress: Status of the Sierra Nevada. Vol. I: Assessment summaries and management strategies. Davis, CA:

University of California, Davis, Center for Water and Wildland Resources.

“Timber harvest, through its effects on forest structure, local microclimate, and fuel accumulation, has increased fire severity more than any other recent human activity.”

“[I]n areas where the larger trees (greater than 12 inches in diameter breast height) have been removed, stand-replacing fires are more likely to occur.”

Beschta, R.L.; Frissell, C.A.; Gresswell, R.; Hauer, R.; Karr, J.R.; Minshall, G.W.; Perry, D.A.; Rhodes, J.J. 1995. Wildfire and salvage logging. Eugene, OR: Pacific Rivers Council.

“We also need to accept that in many drier forest types throughout the region, forest management may have set the stage for fires larger and more intense than have occurred in at least the last few hundred years.”

“With respect to the need for management treatments after fires, there is generally no need for urgency, nor is there a universal, ecologically-based need to act at all. By acting quickly, we run the risk of creating new problems before we solve the old ones.”

“[S]ome argue that salvage logging is needed because of the perceived increased likelihood that an area may reburn. It is the fine fuels that carry fire, not the large dead woody material. We are aware of no evidence

supporting the contention that leaving large dead woody material significantly increases the probability of reburn.”

Chen, J., et al. (co-authored by U.S. Forest Service). 1999. Microclimate in forest ecosystem and landscape ecology: Variations in local climate can be used to monitor and compare the effects of different management regimes. BioScience 49: 288–297.

When moving from open forest areas, resulting from logging, and into dense forests with high canopy cover, “there is generally a decrease in daytime summer temperatures but an increase in humidity...”

The authors reported a 5[?] C difference in ambient air temperature between a closed- canopy mature forest and a forest with partial cutting, like a commercial thinning unit (Fig. 4b), and noted that such differences are even greater than the increases in temperature predicted due to anthropogenic climate change.

Dombeck, M. (U.S. Forest Service Chief). 2001. How Can We Reduce the Fire Danger in the Interior West. Fire Management Today 61: 5-13.

“Some argue that more commercial timber harvest is needed to remove small-diameter trees and brush that are fueling our worst wildlands fires in the interior West.

However, small-diameter trees and brush typically have little or no commercial value. To offset losses from their removal, a commercial operator would have to remove large, merchantable trees in the overstory. Overstory removal lets more light reach the forest floor, promoting vigorous forest regeneration. Where the overstory has been entirely removed, regeneration produces thickets of 2,000 to 10,000 small trees per acre, precisely the small-diameter materials that are causing our worst fire problems. In fact, many large fires in 2000 burned in previously logged areas laced with roads. It seems unlikely that commercial timber harvest can solve our forest health problems.”

Morrison, P.H. and K.J. Harma. 2002. Analysis of Land Ownership and Prior Land Management Activities Within the Rodeo & Chediski Fires, Arizona. Pacific Biodiversity Institute, Winthrop, WA. 13 pp.

Previous logging was associated with higher fire severity.

Donato DC, Fontaine JB, Campbell JL, Robinson WD, Kauffman JB, Law BE. 2006. Science 311: 352.

“In terms of short-term fire risk, a reburn in [postfire] logged stands would likely exhibit elevated rates of fire spread, fireline intensity, and soil heating impacts...Postfire logging alone was notably incongruent with fuel reduction goals.”

Hanson, C.T., Odion, D.C. 2006. Fire Severity in mechanically thinned versus unthinned forests

of the Sierra Nevada, California. In: Proceedings of the 3rd International Fire Ecology and Management Congress, November 13-17, 2006, San Diego, CA.

“In all seven sites, combined mortality [thinning and fire] was higher in thinned than in unthinned units. In six of seven sites, fire-induced mortality was higher in thinned than in

unthinned units...Mechanical thinning increased fire severity on the sites currently available for study on national forests of the Sierra Nevada.”

Platt, R.V., et al. 2006. Are wildfire mitigation and restoration of historic forest structure compatible? A spatial modeling assessment. Annals of the Assoc. Amer. Geographers 96: 455- 470.

“Compared with the original conditions, a closed canopy would result in a 10 percent reduction in the area of high or extreme fireline intensity. In contrast, an open canopy [from thinning] has the opposite effect, increasing the area exposed to high or extreme fireline intensity by 36 percent. Though it may appear counterintuitive, when all else is equal open canopies lead to reduced fuel moisture

and increased midflame windspeed, which increase potential fireline intensity.”

Thompson, J.R., Spies, T.A., Ganio, L.M. (co-authored by U.S. Forest Service). 2007. Reburn severity in managed and unmanaged vegetation in a large wildfire. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 104: 10743–10748.

“Areas that were salvage-logged and planted after the initial fire burned more severely than comparable unmanaged areas.”

Cruz, M.G, and M.E. Alexander. 2010. Assessing crown fire potential in coniferous forests of western North America: A critique of current approaches and recent simulation studies. Int. J. Wildl. Fire. 19: 377–398.

The fire models used by the U.S. Forest Service falsely predict effective reduction in crown fire potential from thinning:

“Simulation studies that use certain fire modelling systems (i.e. NEXUS, FlamMap, FARSITE, FFE-FVS (Fire and Fuels Extension to the Forest Vegetation Simulator), Fuel Management Analyst (FMAPlus), BehavePlus) based on separate implementations or direct integration of Rothermel’s surface and crown rate of fire spread models with Van Wagner’s crown fire transition and propagation models are shown to have a significant underprediction bias when used in assessing potential

crown fire behaviour in conifer forests of western North America. The principal sources of this underprediction bias are shown to include: (i) incompatible model linkages; (ii) use of surface and crown fire rate of spread models that have an inherent underprediction bias; and (iii) reduction in crown fire rate of spread based on the use of unsubstantiated crown fraction burned functions. The use of uncalibrated custom fuel models to represent surface fuelbeds is a fourth potential source of bias.”

Thompson, J., and T.A. Spies (co-authored by U.S. Forest Service). 2010. Exploring Patterns of Burn Severity in the Biscuit Fire in Southwestern Oregon. Fire Science Brief 88: 1-6.

“Areas that burned with high severity...in a previous wildfire (in 1987, 15 years prior) were more likely to burn with high severity again in the 2002 Biscuit Fire. Areas that were salvage-logged and planted following the 1987 fire burned with somewhat higher fire severity than equivalent areas that had not been logged and planted.”

Graham, R., et al. (U.S. Forest Service). 2012. Fourmile Canyon Fire Findings. Gen. Tech. Rep. RMRS-GTR-289. Fort Collins, CO: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Research Station. 110 p.

Thinned forests “were burned more severely than neighboring areas where the fuels were not treated”, and

162 homes were destroyed by the Fourmile Canyon Fire (see Figs. 45 and 46).

DellaSala et al. (2013) (letter from over 200 scientists):

“Numerous studies also document the cumulative impacts of post-fire logging on natural ecosystems, including...accumulation of logging slash that can add to future fire risks...”

DellaSala et al. (2015) (letter from over 200 scientists):

“Post-fire logging has been shown to eliminate habitat for many bird species that depend on snags, compact soils, remove biological legacies (snags and downed logs) that are essential in supporting new forest growth, and spread invasive species that outcompete native vegetation and, in some cases, increase the flammability of the new forest. While it is often claimed that such logging is needed to restore conifer growth and lower fuel hazards after a fire, many studies have shown that logging tractors often kill most conifer seedlings and other important re-establishing vegetation and actually increases flammable logging slash left on site. Increased chronic sedimentation to streams due to the extensive road network and runoff from logging on steep slopes degrades aquatic organisms and water quality.”

North, M.P., S.L. Stephens, B.M. Collins, J.K. Agee, G. Aplet, J.F. Franklin, and P.Z. Fule (co- authored by U.S.

Forest Service). 2015. Reform forest fire management. Science 349: 1280- 1281.

“...fire is usually more efficient, cost-effective, and ecologically beneficial than mechanical treatments.”

Bradley, C.M. C.T. Hanson, and D.A. DellaSala. 2016. Does increased forest protection correspond to higher fire severity in frequent-fire forests of the western USA? Ecosphere 7: article e01492.

In the largest study on this subject ever conducted in western North American, the authors found that the more trees that are removed from forests through logging, the higher the fire severity overall:

*“We investigated the relationship between protected status and fire severity using the Random Forests algorithm applied to 1500 fires affecting 9.5 million hectares between 1984 and 2014 in pine (*Pinus ponderosa*, *Pinus jeffreyi*) and mixed-conifer forests of western United States, accounting for key topographic and climate variables. We found forests with higher levels of protection [from logging] had lower severity values even though they are generally identified as having the highest overall levels of biomass and fuel loading.”*

Lesmeister, D.B., et al. (co-authored by U.S. Forest Service). 2019. Mixed-severity wildfire and habitat of an old-forest obligate. Ecosphere10: Article e02696.

Denser, older forests with high canopy cover had lower fire severity.

Dunn, C.J., et al. 2020. How does tree regeneration respond to mixed-severity fire in the western Oregon Cascades, USA? Ecosphere 11: Article e03003.

Forests that burned at high-severity had lower, not higher, overall pre-fire tree densities.

Meigs, G.W., et al. (co-authored by U.S. Forest Service). 2020. Influence of topography and fuels on fire refugia probability under varying fire weather in forests of the US Pacific Northwest. Canadian Journal of Forest Research 50: 636-647.

Forests with higher pre-fire biomass are more likely to experience low-severity fire.

Moomaw et al. (2020) (letter from over 200 scientists:

<https://johnmuirproject.org/2020/05/breaking-news-over-200-top-u-s-climate-and-forest-scientists-urge-congress-protect-forests-to-mitigate-climate-crisis/>):

“Troublingly, to make thinning operations economically attractive to logging companies, commercial logging of larger, more fire-resistant trees often occurs across large

areas. Importantly, mechanical thinning results in a substantial net loss of forest carbon storage, and a net increase in carbon emissions that can substantially exceed those of wildfire

emissions (Hudiburg et al. 2013, Campbell et al. 2012). Reduced forest protections and increased logging tend to make wildland fires burn more intensely (Bradley et al. 2016). This can also occur with commercial thinning, where mature trees are removed (Cruz et al. 2008, Cruz et al. 2014). As an example, logging in U.S. forests emits 10 times more carbon than fire and native insects combined (Harris et al. 2016). And, unlike logging, fire cycles nutrients and helps increase new forest growth.”

Moomaw et al. (2021) (letter from over 200 scientists: <https://bit.ly/3BFtIAg>):

“[C]ommercial logging conducted under the guise of “thinning” and “fuel reduction” typically removes mature, fire-resistant trees that are needed for forest resilience. We have watched as one large wildfire after another has swept through tens of thousands of acres where commercial thinning had previously occurred due to extreme fire weather driven by climate change. Removing trees can alter a forest’s microclimate, and can often increase fire intensity. In contrast, forests protected from logging, and those with high carbon biomass and

carbon storage, more often burn at equal or lower intensities when fires do occur.”

Lesmeister, D.B., et al. (co-authored by U.S. Forest Service). 2021. Northern spotted owl nesting forests as fire refugia: a 30-year synthesis of large wildfires. Fire Ecology 17: Article 32.

More open forests with lower biomass had higher fire severity, because the type of open, lower-biomass forests resulting from thinning and other logging activities have “hotter, drier, and windier microclimates, and those conditions decrease dramatically over relatively short distances into the interior of older forests with multi-layer canopies and high tree density...”

Stephens, S.L., et al. (co-authored by U.S. Forest Service). 2021. Forest Restoration and Fuels Reduction: Convergent or Divergent? BioScience 71: 85-101.

While the authors continued to promote commercial thinning, they acknowledged that commercial thinning causes wildfires to move faster and become larger more quickly:

“Interestingly, surface fire rate of spread increased after restoration and fuel treatments [commercial thinning] relative to the untreated stand. This increased fire rate of spread following both treatment types is due to a combination of higher mid-flame wind speeds and a

greater proportion of grass fuels, which result from reductions to canopy cover.”

Hanson, C.T. 2021. Is “Fuel Reduction” Justified as Fire Management in Spotted Owl Habitat? Birds 2: 395-403.

“Within the forest types inhabited by California Spotted Owls, high-severity fire occurrence was not higher overall in unmanaged forests and was not associated with the density of pre-fire snags from recent drought in the Creek Fire, contrary to expectations under the fuel reduction hypothesis. Moreover, fuel-reduction logging in California Spotted Owl habitats was associated with higher fire severity in most cases. The highest levels of high-severity fire were in the categories with commercial logging (post-fire logging, private commercial timberlands, and commercial thinning), while the three categories with lower levels of high-severity fire were in forests with no recent forest management or wildfire, less intensive noncommercial management, and unmanaged forests with re-burning of mixed-severity wildfire, respectively.”

Hanson, C.T. 2022. Cumulative severity of thinned and unthinned forests in a large California wildfire. Land 11: Article 373.

“Using published data regarding the percent basal area mortality for each commercial thinning unit that burned

in the Antelope fire, combined with percent basal area mortality due to the fire itself from post-fire satellite imagery, it was found that commercial thinning was associated with significantly higher overall tree mortality levels (cumulative severity).”

Baker, B.C., and C.T. Hanson. 2022. Cumulative tree mortality from commercial thinning and a large wildfire in the Sierra Nevada, California. Land 11: Article 995.

“Similar to the findings of Hanson (2022) in the Antelope Fire of 2021 in northern California, in our investigation of the Caldor Fire of 2021 we found significantly higher cumulative severity in forests with commercial thinning than in unthinned forests, indicating that commercial thinning killed significantly more trees than it prevented from being killed in the Caldor Fire...Despite controversy regarding thinning, there is a body of scientific literature that suggests commercial thinning should be scaled up across western US forest landscapes as a wildfire management strategy. This raises an important question: what accounts for the discrepancy on this issue in the scientific literature? We believe several factors are likely to largely explain this discrepancy. First and foremost, because most previous research has not accounted for tree mortality from thinning itself, prior to the wildfire-related mortality, such research has underreported tree mortality in commercial thinning areas relative to unthinned forests. Second, some prior studies have not controlled for vegetation type, which can lead to a mismatch when comparing severity in thinned areas to

the rest of the fire area given that thinning necessarily occurs in conifer forests but unthinned areas can include large expanses of non-conifer vegetation types that burn almost exclusively at high severity, such as grasslands and chaparral. Third, some research reporting effectiveness of commercial thinning in terms of reducing fire severity has been based on the subjective location of comparison sample points between thinned and adjacent unthinned forests. Fourth, reported results have often been based on theoretical models, which subsequent research has found to overestimate the effectiveness of thinning. Last, several case studies draw conclusions

about the effectiveness of thinning as a wildfire management strategy when the results of those studies do not support such a conclusion, as reviewed in DellaSala et al. (2022).” (internal citations omitted)

Prichard, S.J., et al. (co-authored by U.S. Forest Service). 2021. Adapting western US forests to wild-fires and climate change: 10 key questions. Ecological Applications 31: Article e02433.

In a study primarily authored by U.S. Forest Service scientists, and scientists funded by the Forest Service, the authors state that “There is little doubt that fuel reduction treatments can be effective at reducing fire severity...” yet these authors repeatedly contradict their own proposition, acknowledging that thinning can cause “higher surface

fuel loads,” which “can contribute to high-intensity surface fires and elevated levels of associated tree mortality,” and mastication of such surface fuels “can cause deep soil heating” and “elevated fire intensities.” The authors also acknowledge that thinning “can lead to increased surface wind speed and fuel heating, which allows for increased rates of fire spread in thinned forests,” and even the combination of thinning and prescribed fire “may increase the risk of fire by increasing sunlight exposure to the forest floor, drying vegetation, promoting understory growth, and increasing wind speeds.”

Despite these admissions, contradicting their promotion of thinning, the authors cite to several U.S. Forest Service-funded studies for the proposition that thinning can effectively reduce fire severity, but a subsequent analysis of those same studies found that the results of these articles do not support that conclusion, and often contradict it, as detailed in Section 5.2 of DellaSala et al. (2022) (see below).

DellaSala, D.A., B.C. Baker, C.T. Hanson, L. Ruediger, and W.L. Baker. 2022. Have western USA fire suppression and megafire active management approaches become a contemporary Sisyphus? Biological Conservation 268: Article 109499.

With regard to a previous U.S. Forest Service study claiming that commercial thinning effectively reduced fire severity in the large Wallow fire of 2011 in Arizona,

DellaSala et al. (2022, Section 5.1) conducted a detailed accuracy check and found that the previous analysis had dramatically underreported high-severity fire in commercial thinning units, and forests with commercial thinning in fact had higher fire severity, overall.

DellaSala et al. (2022, Section 5.2) also reviewed several U.S. Forest Service studies relied upon by Prichard et al. (2021) for the claim that commercial thinning is an effective fire management approach and found that the actual results of these cited studies did not support that conclusion.

Bartowitz, K.J., et al. 2022. Forest Carbon Emission Sources Are Not Equal: Putting Fire, Harvest, and Fossil Fuel Emissions in Context. Front. For. Glob. Change 5: Article 867112.

The authors found that logging conducted as commercial thinning, which involves removal of some mature trees, substantially increases carbon emissions relative to wildfire alone, and commercial thinning “causes a higher rate of tree mortality than wildfire.”

Evers, C., et al. 2022. Extreme Winds Alter Influence of Fuels and Topography on Megafire Burn Severity in Seasonal Temperate Rainforests under Record Fuel Aridity. Fire 5: Article 41.

The authors found that dense, mature/old forests with high biomass and canopy cover tended to have lower fire severity, while more open forests with lower canopy cover and less biomass burned more severely.

USFS (U.S. Forest Service) (2022). Gallinas-Las Dispensas Prescribed Fire Declared Wildfire Review. U.S. Forest Service, Office of the Chief, Washington, D.C.

“A thinning project in the burn area opened the canopy in some areas, allowing more sunlight which led to lower fuel moistures. Heavy ground fuels resulting from the construction of fireline for the burn project added to the fuel loading. This contributed to higher fire intensities, torching, spotting, and higher resistance-to-control.”

The only effective way to protect homes from fire is home-hardening and defensible space pruning within 100 to 200 feet of homes or less.

Cohen, J.D. (U.S. Forest Service). 2000. Preventing disaster: home ignitability in the wildland- urban interface. Journal of Forestry 98: 15-21.

The only relevant zone to protect homes from wildland fire is within approximately 135 feet or less from each home—not out in wildland forests.

Gibbons P, van Bommel L, Gill MA, Cary GJ, Driscoll DA, Bradstock RA, Knight E, Moritz MA, Stephens SL, Lindenmayer DB (2012) Land management practices

associated with house loss in wildfires. PLoS ONE 7: Article e29212.

Defensible space pruning within less than 130 feet from homes was effective at protecting homes from wildfires, while vegetation management in remote wildlands was not. A modest additional benefit for home safety was provided by prescribed burning less than 500 meters (less than 1641 feet) from homes.

Syphard, A.D., T.J. Brennan, and J.E. Keeley. 2014. The role of defensible space for residential structure protection during wildfires. Intl. J. Wildland Fire 23: 1165-1175.

Vegetation management and removal beyond approximately 100 feet from homes provides no additional benefit in terms of protecting homes from wildfires.

Tree removal is not necessary prior to conducting prescribed fire as an additional community safety buffer.

Decades of scientific studies have proven that, even in the densest forests that have not experienced fire in many decades, prescribed fire can be applied without prior tree removal, as demonstrated in the following studies:

Knapp EE, Keeley JE, Ballenger EA, Brennan TJ. 2005. Fuel reduction and coarse woody debris dynamics with

early season and late season prescribed fire in a Sierra Nevada mixed conifer forest. Forest Ecology and Management 208: 383–397.

Knapp, E.E., and Keeley, J.E. 2006. Heterogeneity in fire severity within early season and late season prescribed burns in a mixed-conifer forest. Int. J. Wildland Fire 15: 37–45.

Knapp, E.E., Schwilk, D.W., Kane, J.M., Keeley, J.E., 2007. Role of burning on initial understory vegetation response to prescribed fire in a mixed conifer forest. Canadian Journal of Forest Research 37: 11–22.

van Mantgem, P.J., A.C. Caprio, N.L. Stephenson, and A.J. Das. 2016. Does prescribed fire promote resistance to drought in low elevation forests of the Sierra Nevada, California, USA? Fire Ecology 12: 13-25.

van Mantgem, P.J., N.L. Stephenson, J.J. Battles, E.K. Knapp, and J.E. Keeley. 2011. Long-term effects of prescribed fire on mixed conifer forest structure in the Sierra Nevada, California. Forest Ecology and Management 261: 989–994.

Schoennagel et al (2004) states: “we are concerned that the model of historical fire effects and 20th-century fire suppression in dry ponderosa pine forests is being applied

uncritically across all Rocky Mountain forests, including where it is inappropriate.” Please find Schoennagel et al 2004 attached.

*Schoennagel et al (2004) states: “High-elevation subalpine forests in the Rocky Mountains typify ecosystems that experience infrequent, high-severity crown fires []. . . The most extensive subalpine forest types are composed of Engelmann spruce (*Picea engelmannii*), subalpine fir (*Abies lasiocarpa*), and lodgepole pine (*Pinus contorta*), all thin-barked trees easily killed by fire. Extensive stand-replacing fires occurred historically at long intervals (i.e., one to many centuries) in subalpine forests, typically in association with infrequent high-pressure blocking systems that promote extremely dry regional climate patterns.”*

Schoennagel et al (2004) states: “it is unlikely that the short period of fire exclusion has significantly altered the

long fire intervals in subalpine forests. Furthermore, large, intense fires burning under dry conditions are very difficult, if not impossible, to suppress, and such fires account for the majority of area burned in subalpine forests.

Schoennagel et al (2004) states: “Moreover, there is no consistent relationship between time elapsed since the last fire and fuel abundance in subalpine forests, further undermining the idea that years of fire suppression have caused unnatural fuel buildup in this forest zone.”

Schoennagel et al (2004) states: “No evidence suggests that spruce–fir or lodgepole pine forests have experienced substantial shifts in stand structure over recent decades as a result of fire suppression. Overall, variation in climate rather than in fuels appears to exert the largest influence on the size, timing, and severity of fires in subalpine forests []. We conclude that large, infrequent stand

replacing fires are ‘business as usual’ in this forest type, not an artifact of fire suppression.”.

Schoennagel et al (2004) states: “Contrary to popular opinion, previous fire suppression, which was consistently effective from about 1950 through 1972, had only a minimal effect on the large fire event in 1988 [].

Reconstruction of historical fires indicates that similar large, high-severity fires also occurred in the early 1700s []. Given the historical range of variability of fire regimes in high-elevation subalpine forests, fire behavior in Yellowstone during 1988, although severe, was neither unusual nor surprising.”

Schoennagel et al (2004)(emphasis added) states:

“Mechanical fuel reduction in sub-alpine forests would not represent a restoration treatment but rather a departure from the natural range of variability in stand structure.”

Schoennagel et al (2004) states: “Given the behavior of fire in Yellowstone in 1988, fuel reduction projects probably will not substantially reduce the frequency, size, or severity of wildfires under extreme weather conditions.”

Schoennagel et al (2004) states: “The Yellowstone fires in 1988 revealed that variation in fuel conditions, as measured by stand age and density, had only minimal influence on fire behavior. Therefore, we expect fuel reduction treatments in high-elevation forests to be generally unsuccessful in reducing fire frequency, severity, and size, given the overriding importance of extreme climate in controlling fire regimes in this zone. Thinning also will not restore subalpine forests, because they were dense historically and have not changed significantly in response to fire suppression. Thus, fuel reduction efforts in most Rocky Mountain sub-alpine

forests probably would not effectively mitigate the fire hazard, and these efforts may create new ecological problems by moving the forest structure outside the historic range of variability.”

Likewise, Brown et al (2004) states: “At higher elevations, forests of subalpine fir, Engelmann spruce, mountain hemlock, and lodgepole or whitebark pine predominate. These forests also have long fire return intervals and contain a high proportion of fire sensitive trees. At periods averaging a few hundred years, extreme drought conditions would prime these forests for large, severe fires that would tend to set the forest back to an early successional stage, with a large carry-over of dead trees as a legacy of snags and logs in the regenerating forest natural ecological dynamics are largely preserved because fire suppression has been effective for less than one natural fire cycle. Thinning for restoration

does not appear to be appropriate in these forests. Efforts to manipulate stand structures to reduce fire hazard will not only be of limited effectiveness but may also move systems away from pre-1850 conditions to the detriment of wildlife and watersheds.” “Fuel levels may suggest a high fire ‘hazard’ under conventional assessments, but wildfire risk is typically low in these settings.”

Likewise, Graham et al (2004) states: “Most important, the fire behavior characteristics are strikingly different for cold (for example, lodgepole pine, Engelmann spruce, subalpine fir), moist (for example, western hemlock, western redcedar, western white pine), and dry forests. Cold and moist forests tend to have long fire-return intervals, but fires that do occur tend to be high-intensity, stand-replacing fires. Dry forests historically had short intervals between fires, but most important, the fires had low to moderate severity.”

According to Graham et al (2004), thinning may also increase the likelihood of wildfire ignition in the type of forests in this Project area: “The probability of ignition is strongly related to fine fuel moisture content, air temperature, the amount of shading of surface fuels, and the occurrence of an ignition source (human or lightning caused) There is generally a warmer, dryer microclimate in more open stands (fig. 9) compared to denser stands. Dense stands (canopy cover) tend to provide more shading of fuels, keeping relative humidity higher and air and fuel temperature lower than in more open stands. Thus, dense stands tend to maintain higher surface fuel moisture contents compared to more open stands. More open stands also tend to allow higher wind speeds that tend to dry fuels compared to dense stands. These factors may increase probability of ignition in some open canopy stands compared to dense canopy stands.”

A new study soon to be published by Dominick A. DellaSala et. al. found that re- viewed 1500 wildfires between 1984 and 2014 found that actively managed forests had the highest level of fire severity. While those forests in protected areas burned, on average, had the lowest level of fire severity. In other words, the best way to reduce severe fires is to protect the land as wilderness, not “manage” it.

The Project will violate the NEPA if there are no valid snag surveys done for the project area both within and outside proposed harvest units.

The project will violate the NEPA if there are no valid surveys for old growth habitat within each project area, as identified by Green et al. 1992; old growth types need to be defined and quantified by timber types, such as lodgepole pine,

Douglas-fir, mixed conifer, spruce, subalpine fir, and limber pine.

The project will likely violate the NEPA if the mitigation measures for MIS, sensitive species, and Montana Species of Concern (birds, mammals including bats) are not clearly de- fined, and demonstrated to be effective as per the current best science.

We request a careful analysis of the impacts to fisheries and water quality, including considerations of sedimentation, in- creases in peak flow, channel stability, risk of rain on snow events, and increases in stream water temperature. Please disclose the locations of seeps, springs, bogs and other sensitive wet areas, and the effects on these areas of the project activities. Where livestock are permitted to graze, we ask that you assess the present condition and continue to monitor the

impacts of grazing activities upon vegetation diversity, soil compaction, stream bank stability and subsequent sedimentation. Livestock grazing occurs in the Project area and causes sediment impacts, trampled or destabilized banks, increased nutrient loads in streams, and decreased density, diversity, and function of riparian vegetation that may lead to increased stream temperatures and further detrimental impacts to water quality.

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lodgepole pine, Douglas-fir, mixed conifer, spruce, subalpine fir, and limber pine.

The project will likely violate the NEPA if the mitigation measures for MIS, sensitive species, and Montana Species of Concern (birds, mammals including bats) are not clearly de-fined, and demonstrated to be effective as per the current best science.

The Forest Service did not respond to our comments in violation of NEPA. The DDN does state on page 3:

Treatments proposed to achieve the project's purpose and need fall within one of three broad areas: (1) Life-Safety; (2) Forested Resiliency, Diversity and Restoration; and (3) Wildland Urban Interface. To achieve project objectives, treatment activities as proposed would:

- Improve conditions for public and firefighter safety across the landscape in the event of a wildfire, as every wildland fire requires an appropriate management response based on management direction. This is a primary focus within the Wildland Urban Interface.*

- *Develop and maintain forest and rangeland conditions across the landscape.*
- *Improve components of forest health to promote resiliency to disturbances such as insect infestation, disease, fire, and drought by maintaining existing seral species and increasing or restoring their overall representation across the landscape.*
- *Maintain and enhance ecological integrity of terrestrial vegetation.*
- *Promote natural openings and fire-resistant tree species in stands that can be maintained in a low fire hazard condition.*
- *Reduce hazardous fuels and wildfire threats to identified values at risk, in particular the north end of the project area from Belt Park Road to Monarch and in the Wildland Urban Interface (WUI) near Neihart.*

It is not clear how vast acres of national forest lands can be intensively manipulated without a single wildlife

management objective identified. This means that the agency cannot be meeting the NFMA requirements to maintain a diversity of wildlife. And it also means that the stated purpose and need is invalid, and a violation of the NEPA, because vegetation and fuels management have a direct impact on wildlife, which means that wildlife management also has to be included as a purpose and need. In effect, the purpose and need of the project is to remove wildlife habitat, but this is never identified to the public, in violation of the NEPA.

The agency is violating the NEPA by using vague, un-measurable terms to rationalize the proposed logging to the public. How can the public measure “resiliency?” What are the specific criteria used to define resiliency, and what are the ratings for each proposed logging unit before and after treatment? How is the risk of fire as affected by the project being measured so that the public can understand whether or not this will be effective? How is forest health to be measured so that the public can see that this is a valid management strategy? What specifically constitutes a diversity of age classes, how is this to be measured, and how are proposed changes measured as per diversity? How are diversity measures related to wildlife (why is diversity need-ed for what species)? If the reasons for logging cannot be clearly identified and measured for the public, the agency is not meeting the NEPA requirements for transparency.

Please find attached the paper by Faison et al. 2023 titled, “The importance of natural forest stewardship in adaptation

planning in the United States.” They “argue that expensive management interventions are often unnecessary, have uncertain benefits, or are detrimental to many forest attributes such as resilience, carbon accumulation, structural complexity, and genetic and biological diversity. Natural forests (i.e., those protected and largely free from human management) tend to develop greater complexity, carbon storage, and tree diversity over time than forests that are actively managed; and natural forests often become less susceptible to future insect attacks and fire following these disturbances. Natural forest stewardship is therefore a critical and cost effective strategy in forest climate adaptation.”

Faison et al. 2023 shows that the project is not meeting the purpose and need of the project. Please find Faison et al. 2023 attached.

Please see the paper by Baker et al. 2023. This landmark study found a pattern of "Falsification of the Scientific Record" in government-funded wildfire studies.

Dr. Baker's paper is the best available science. Please explain why this project is not following the best available science. The Draft Decision Notice is in violation of NEPA.

This unprecedented study was published in the peer-reviewed journal Fire, exposing a broad pattern of scientific misrepresentations and omissions that have caused a "falsification of the scientific record" in recent forest and

wildfire studies funded or authored by the U.S. Forest Service with regard to dry forests of the western U.S. Forest Service related articles have presented a falsified narrative that historical forests had low tree densities and were dominated by low-severity fires, using this narrative to advocate for its current forest management and wildfire policies.

However, the new study comprehensively documents that a vast body of scientific evidence in peer-reviewed studies that have directly refuted and discredited this narrative were either misrepresented or omitted by agency publications. The corrected scientific record, based on all of the evidence, shows that historical forests were highly variable in tree density, and included "open" forests as well as many dense forests. Further, historical wildfire severity was mixed and naturally included a substantial component of high-severity fire, which creates essential snag forest habitat for diverse native wildlife species, rivaling old-growth forests.

These findings have profound implications for climate mitigation and community safety, as current forest policies that are driven by the distorted narrative result in forest management policies that reduce forest carbon and increase carbon emissions, while diverting scarce federal resources from proven community wildfire safety measures like home hardening, defensible space pruning, and evacuation assistance.

"Forest policy must be informed by sound science but, unfortunately, the public has been receiving a biased and inaccurate presentation of the facts about forest density and wildfires from government agencies," said Dr. William Baker in their press release announcing the publication of their paper.

"The forest management policies being driven by this falsified scientific narrative are often making wildfires spread faster and more intensely toward communities, rather than helping communities become fire-safe," said Dr. Chad Hanson, research ecologist with the John Muir Project in the same press release. "We need thinning of small trees adjacent to homes, not backcountry management."

"The falsified narrative from government studies is leading to inappropriate forest policies that promote removal of mature, fire-resistant trees in older forests, which causes increased carbon emissions and in the long-run contributes to more fires" said, Dr. Dominick A. DellaSala, Chief Scientist, Wild Heritage, a Project of Earth Island Institute concluded in the press release.

Remedy: Please write an Environmental Impact Statement that fully complies with NEPA, NFMA, the APA and the

ESA. The agency needs to provide the public with the specific information on what they are going to do, where they are going to do it and when they are going to do it in the project area, including a measure of detection probability for all wildlife surveys, as the NEPA requires that high-quality information be provided to the public.

We wrote in our comments:

Please include an easily understandable accounting of all costs for the various types of treatments, including burning. For commercial logging, fuels reduction, and prescribed burning, we would like to know what the estimated cost is “per acre” for that particular treatment. We would also like to know the costs for construction of new temporary roads, reconstruction of existing roads, and road obliteration and/or decommissioning per mile of road.

The Forest Service did not respond to our comments in violation of NEPA.

Your economic analysis is falsely showing the project that the Forest Service will make money on the logging in violation of NEPA because you are not including all of the costs. For example you did not demonstrate that you are including all of the cost of road construction, reconstruction on then the cost of removing temporary roads.

Remedy: Withdraw the DDN. Please perform an accurate cost benefit analysis as required by NEPA, NFMA and the APA. Then write an EIS that fully complies with the law.

LYNX

We wrote in our comments:

Please consult with the US FWS on the impacts of this project on lynx critical habitat and potential lynx critical habitat;

V. Please disclose whether you have conducted surveys in the Project area for this Project for wolverines, pine martins, northern goshawk and lynx as required by the Forest Plan.

W. Please disclose how often the Project area has been surveyed for wolverines, pine martins, northern goshawks, monarch butterflies, grizzly bears, whitebark pine and lynx.

X. Is it impossible for a wolverines, pine martins, monarch butterflies, northern goshawks, grizzly bears, whitebark pine and lynx to inhabit the Project area?

Y. Would the habitat be better for wolverines, monarch butterflies, pine martins, northern goshawks, grizzly bears, whitebark pine and lynx if roads were removed in the Project area?

Z. What is the U.S. FWS position on the impacts of this Project on wolverines, pine martins, monarch butterflyies, northern goshawks, grizzly bears, whitebark pine and lynx? Have you conducted ESA consultation?

AA. Please provide us with the full BA for the wolverines, monarch butterflies, pine martins, northern goshawks, grizzly bears, whitebark pine and lynx.

The Northern Rockies Lynx Management Direction is inadequate to ensure conservation and recovery of lynx.

The amendments fail to use the best available science on necessary lynx habitat elements, including but not limited to, failing to include standards that protect key winter habitat.

The Endangered Species Act requires the FS to insure that the GRLA project is not likely to result in the destruction or adverse modification of critical habitat. 16 U.S.C. §1536(a) (2). Activities that may destroy or adversely modify critical habitat are those that alter the

physical and biological features to an extent that appreciably reduces the conservation value of critical habitat for lynx. 74 Fed. Reg. 8644. The Northern Rockies Lynx Management Direction (NRLMD) as applied in the project violates the ESA by failing to use the best available science to insure no adverse modification of critical habitat. The NRLMD carves out exemptions from Veg Standards S1, S2, S5, and S6. In particular, fuel treatment projects may occur in the WUI even though they will not meet standards Veg S1, S2, S5, or S6, provided they do not occur on more than 6% of lynx habitat on each National Forest. Allowing the agency to destroy or adversely modify any lynx critical habitat has the potential to appreciably reduce the conservation value of such habitat. The agency cannot simply set a cap at 6% forest-wide without looking at the individual characteristics of each

LAU to determine whether the project has the potential to appreciably reduce the conservation value. The ESA requires the use of the best available science at the site-specific level. It does not allow the agencies to make a gross determination that allowing lynx critical habitat to be destroyed

forest-wide while not appreciably reduce the conservation value.

The FS violated NEPA by applying the above-mentioned exception without analyzing the impacts to lynx in the individual LAUs. The Project violates the NFMA by failing to insure the viability of lynx. According to the 1982 NFMA regulations, fish and wildlife must be managed to maintain viable populations of Canada lynx in the planning area. 36 C.F.R. 219.19. The FS has not shown that lynx will be well distributed in the planning area. The FS has not addressed how the project's adverse

modification of denning and foraging habitat will impact distribution. This is important because the agency readily admits that the LAUs already contain a “relatively large percentage of unsuitable habitat.”

The national forests subject to this new direction will provide habitat to maintain a viable population of lynx in the northern Rockies by maintaining the current distribution of occupied lynx habitat, and maintaining or enhancing the quality of that habitat.

The FS cannot insure species viability here without addressing the impacts to the already low amount of suitable habitat. By cutting in denning and foraging habitat, the agency will not be “maintaining or enhancing the quality of the habitat.”

This project is in Canada lynx habitat. 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) and the requirements of protecting lynx critical habitat. The FS did not do so with its project analysis. This project will adversely affect lynx critical habitat in violation of the Endangered Species Act. The BA/BE needs to be rewritten to reflect this information to determine if this project will adversely modify proposed critical habitat for lynx and if so conference with USFWS.

The Helena-Lewis and Clark National Forest (HLCNF) is home to the Canada lynx, listed as a Threatened species under the Endangered Species Act (ESA). In December 1999, the Forest Service and Bureau of Land Management completed their “Biological Assessment Of

The Effects Of National Forest Land And Resource Management Plans And Bureau Of Land Management Land Use Plans On Canada Lynx” (Programmatic Lynx BA). The Programmatic Lynx BA concluded that the current programmatic land management plans “may affect, and are likely to adversely affect, the subject population of Canada lynx.”

The Lynx BA team recommended amending or revising Forest Plans to incorporate conservation measures that would reduce or eliminate the identified adverse effects on lynx. The Programmatic Lynx BA’s determination means that Forest Plan implementation is a “taking” of lynx, and makes Section 7 formal consultation on the Helena-Lewis and Clark Forest Plan mandatory, before actions such as the proposed project are approved.

Continued implementation of the Forest Plan constitutes a “taking” of the lynx. Such taking can only be

authorized with an incidental take statement, issued as part of a Biological Opinion (B.O.) during of Section 7 consultation. The Helena-Lewis and Clark National Forest must incorporate terms and conditions from a programmatic B.O. into a Forest Plan amendment or revision before projects affecting lynx habitat, such as this one, can be authorized.

The Programmatic Lynx BA's "likely to adversely affect" conclusion was based upon the following rationale. Plans within the Northern Rockies:

- *Generally direct an aggressive fire suppression strategy within developmental land allocations. ...this strategy may be contributing to a risk of adversely affecting the lynx by limiting the availability of foraging habitat within these areas.*

- *Allow levels of human access via forest roads that may present a risk of incidental trapping or shooting of lynx or access by other competing carnivores. The risk of road-related adverse effects is primarily a winter season issue.*

- *Are weak in providing guidance for new or existing recreation developments. Therefore, these activities may contribute to a risk of adverse effects to lynx.*

- *Allow both mechanized and non-mechanized recreation that may contribute to a risk of adverse effects to lynx.*

The potential effects occur by allowing compacted snow trails and plowed roads which may facilitate the movements of lynx competitors and predators.

- *Provide weak direction for maintaining habitat connectivity within naturally or artificially fragmented landscapes. Plans within all geographic areas lack direction for coordinating construction of highways and*

other movement barriers with other responsible agencies.

These factors may be contributing to a risk of adverse effects to lynx.

- *Are weak in providing direction for coordinating management activities with adjacent landowners and other agencies to assure consistent management of lynx habitat across the landscape. This may contribute to a risk of adverse effects to lynx.*

- *Fail to provide direction for monitoring of lynx, snowshoe hares, and their habitats. While failure to monitor does not directly result in adverse effects, it makes the detection and assessment of adverse effects from other management activities difficult or impossible to attain.*

- *Forest management has resulted in a reduction of the area in which natural ecological processes were*

historically allowed to operate, thereby increasing the area potentially affected by known risk factors to lynx. The Plans have continued this trend. The Plans have also continued the process of fragmenting habitat and reducing its quality and quantity. Consequently, plans may risk adversely affecting lynx by potentially contributing to a reduction in the geographic range of the species.

- The BA team recommends amending or revising the Plans to incorporate conservation measures that would reduce or eliminate the identified adverse effects to lynx. The programmatic conservation measures listed in the Canada Lynx Conservation Assessment and Strategy (LCAS) should be considered in this regard, once finalized. (Programmatic Lynx BA, at 4.)*

The Programmatic Lynx BA notes that the LCAS identifies the following risk factors to lynx in this geographic area:

- *Timber harvest and pre-commercial thinning that reduce denning or foraging habitat or converts habitat to less desirable tree species*
- *Fire exclusion that changes the vegetation mosaic maintained by natural disturbance processes*
- *Grazing by domestic livestock that reduces forage for lynx prey*

The Forest Service responded on page 22 of the DDN:

Due to the small magnitude of habitat changes relative to availability, the determination for implementation of the project is “may affect, not likely to adversely affect” for Canada lynx.

The DDN and EA do not adequately explain how openings bigger than 75 acres provides for habitat that contributes to long-term persistence of lynx in violation of NEPA, NFMA, the APA, the ESA and the revised Forest Plan.

The DDN and EA did not adequately consider the cumulative impacts of the clearcutting, intensive logging, and road building on native species including lynx, grizzly bears and old growth dependent species. None of these species benefit from more logging roads and more logging and clearcuts.

Recent scientific findings undermine the Forest Plan/NRLMD direction for management of lynx habitat. This creates a scientific controversy the FS fails to resolve, and in fact it essentially ignores it.

For one, Kosterman, 2014 found that 50% of lynx habitat must be mature undisturbed forest for it to be optimal lynx habitat where lynx can have reproductive success and no more than 15% of lynx habitat should be young clearcuts, i.e. trees under 4 inched dbh. Young regenerating forest should occur only on 10-15% of a female lynx home range, i.e. 10-15% of an LAU. This renders inadequate the agency's assumption in the Forest Plan/NRLMD that 30% of lynx habitat can be open, and that no specific amount of

mature forest needs to be conserved. Kosterman, 2014 demonstrates that Forest Plan/NRLMD standards are not adequate for lynx viability and recovery.

Also, the Forest Plan essentially assumes that persistent effects of vegetation manipulations other than regeneration logging and some intermediate treatments are essentially nil. However, Holbrook, et al., 2018 “used univariate analyses and hurdle regression models to evaluate the spatio-temporal factors influencing lynx use of treatments.” Their analyses “indicated ...there was a consistent cost in that lynx use was low up to ~10 years after all silvicultural actions.” (Emphasis added.) From their conclusions:

First, we demonstrated that lynx clearly use silviculture treatments, but there is a ~10 year cost of implementing any treatment (thinning, selection cut, or regeneration cut) in terms of resource use by Canada lynx. This temporal cost is associated with lynx preferring advanced regenerating and mature structural stages (Squires et al., 2010; Holbrook et al., 2017a) and is consistent with previous work demonstrating a negative effect of precommercial thinning on snowshoe hare densities for ~10 years (Homyack et al., 2007). Second, if a treatment is implemented, Canada lynx used thinnings at a faster rate post- treatment (e.g., ~20 years posttreatment to reach 50% lynx use) than either selection or regeneration cuts (e.g., ~34–40 years post-treatment to reach 50% lynx use). Lynx appear to use regeneration and selection cuts similarly over time suggesting the difference in vegetation impact between these treatments made little difference

concerning the potential impacts to lynx (Fig. 4c). Third, Canada lynx tend to avoid silvicultural treatments when a preferred structural stage (e.g., mature, multi-storied forest or advanced regeneration) is abundant in the surrounding landscape, which highlights the importance of considering landscape-level composition as well as recovery time. For instance, in an area with low amounts of mature forest in the neighborhood, lynx use of recovering silvicultural treatments would be higher versus treatments surrounded by an abundance of mature forest (e.g., Fig. 3b). This scenario captures the importance of post-treatment recovery for Canada lynx when the landscape context is generally composed of lower quality habitat. Overall, these three items emphasize that both the spatial arrangement and composition as well as recovery time are central to balancing silvicultural actions and Canada lynx conservation.

So Holbrook et al., 2018 fully contradict Forest Plan assumptions that clearcuts/regeneration can be considered useful lynx habitat as early as 20 years post-logging.

Results of a study by Vanbianchi et al., 2017 also conflict with Forest Plan/NRLMD assumptions: “Lynx used burned areas as early as 1 year postfire, which is much earlier than the 2–4 decades postfire previously thought for this predator.” The NRLMD erroneously assumes clearcutting/regeneration logging have basically the same temporal effects as stand-replacing fire as far as lynx re-occupancy.

Kosterman, 2014, Vanbianchi et al., 2017 and Holbrook, et al., 2018, Holbrook 2019 demonstrate that the Forest Plan

direction is not adequate for lynx viability and recovery, as the FS assumes. Holbrook 2019 such all lynx habitat must be surveyed. You have not done demonstrated that this was done. The Forest Service did minimal lynx surveys but they did not need the requirements in Holbrook.

Please find Holbrook 2019 attached.

The EA claims that lynx are only transitory so they are not required to follow the ESA. This is in correct. The project area is in lynx habitat and their duty under the ESA to recover species and protect their habitat not keep them in a threatened state.

Page 23 of the final EA/Draft Decision Notice states:

- ***Habitat for a transient lynx would remain in the analysis area across 3 LAUs as demonstrated above.***

Did the Forest Service eliminate or reduce any lynx analysis units (LAUs) without taking public comment? The EA does not mention if the Forest Service did this or not. If the Forest Service eliminated or reduced the size of LAUs without taking public comment then the Coyote Divide Project in in violation of NEPA.

The Forest Service is violating NEPA by failing to prepare a stand-alone NEPA analysis, either an EA or an EIS, for remapping of lynx habitat and LAUs on the Helena-Lewis and Clark National Forest.

NEPA requires federal agencies to prepare a detailed EIS for any “major

Federal actions significantly affecting the quality of the human environment.” 42 U.S.C. § 4332(2)(c).

1. Major Federal actions “include new and continuing activities, including projects and programs entirely or partly financed, assisted, conducted, regulated, or approved by Federal agencies; new or revised agency rules, regulations, plans, policies, or procedures; and legislative proposals.” 40 C.F.R. § 1508.18(a) (2020).
2. Major Federal actions typically fall into one of four categories:
 - (i) Adoption of official policy, such as rules, regulations, and interpretations adopted pursuant to the Administrative Procedure Act, 5 U.S.C. 551 et seq.; treaties and international conventions or agreements; formal documents establishing an agency's policies which will result in or substantially alter agency programs.
 - (ii) Adoption of formal plans, such as official documents prepared or approved by Federal

agencies, which prescribe alternative uses of Federal resources, upon which future agency actions will be based.

- (iii) Adoption of programs, such as a group of concerted actions to implement a specific policy or plan; systematic and connected agency decisions allocating agency resources to implement a specific statutory program or executive directive. (d. iv) Approval of specific projects, such as construction or management activities located in a defined geographic area. Projects include actions approved by permit or other regulatory decision as well as Federal and federally assisted activities. Id. § 1508.18(b).
- An EIS must provide a “full and fair discussion of significant environmental impacts,” and inform “decisionmakers and the public of the reasonable alternatives which would avoid or minimize adverse impacts or enhance the quality of the human environment.” Id. § 1502.1.

1. Remapping of lynx habitat on the Forest removes mapped lynx habitat and thereby stripping the legal

protections of the NRLMD from those acres.

2. If the Forest Service did this it was an official agency action that was reviewed and approved by the Forest Service Region One office.
3. Remapping of lynx habitat and removal of LAUs is a major federal action that requires NEPA analysis.

REMEDY: Withdraw the draft DN and FONSA and write a supplement EA or an EIS that fully complies with the law and analyzes the cumulative effect of logging, including clearcutting clearcutting on grizzly bears, lynx, lynx t, whitebark pine, wolverine, monarch butterflies, goshawks, and all native fish and wildlife in the Townsend Ranger District or choose the No Action alternative. Also write a stand alone EIS to take public comment on removing LAUs.

Thank you for your attention to these concerns.

Sincerely yours,

Michael Garrity (Lead Objector)
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Helena, Montana 59624

406-459-5936

And for

Native Ecosystems Council
P.O. Box 125

Willow Creek, MT 59760

And for

Steve Kelly, Director

Council on Wildlife and Fish

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Bozeman, MT 59772

And for

Kristine Akland

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