September 14, 2023

Matt Anderson, Forest Supervisor
Bitterroot National Forest
1801 North 1st Street
Hamilton, MT 59840

RE: Bitterroot Front Project EA Comments

Dear Supervisor Anderson,

Please accept these comments from me on behalf of the Alliance for the Wild Rockies, Native Ecosystems Council, the Council on Wildlife and Fish, Friends of the Bitterroot, Stephen S. Goheen, Gail H. Goheen, and the Center for Biological Diversity (herein after Alliance) on the Bitterroot Front Project EA.

The project is violating NEPA since you have already decided to go forward with the project since you made an emergency determination.

What is the emergency? Fire season is winding down and Montana had a below average fire season. You have not adequately shown that an emergency exits in violation of NEPA, NFMA and the APA.

The 2nd page of the Draft EA (DEA) states: ***The 30-day comment period for this draft environmental assessment began on the date that the legal notice of availability published in the Ravalli Republic. This draft environmental assessment, appendices, and supporting documents are available on the***

project website at https://www.fs.usda.gov/project/?project=57341.

The legal notice is not on the Bitterroot N.F.'s website in violation of the appeals reform act, NEPA and NFMA. Please post it and issue a new comment period.

This is a Condition-Based management approach that violates NEPA's hard-look requirements and is fundamentally flawed. True project planning includes the disclosing of specific activities proposed for specific locations, identifying the current conditions in those specific locations and project area. An evaluation of site-specific condition, based on current data gathering, should inform a detailed analysis that includes the direct, indirect, and cumulative impacts of the proposed activities. Project planning also requires disclosing details on how the suggested management activities are consistent with all relevant management direction in the current (1987) Forest Plan.

Conditions based analysis relies heavily on design features to minimize the detrimental effects of project actions on soils, streams, ecological resources, bull trout, lynx, white bark pine, elk, rare plants, and all other flora and fauna in the project area. Design features are mentioned 227 times in the DEA alone. How will BNF guarantee that these design features will be followed? Are any of these design features dependent on future funding? What will be the consequences for not fulfilling the necessary design features to minimize effects to the forest?

The agency needs to identify all existing old growth stands in the Bitterroot Front project area and define their individual patch size, and map their locations across the project area. The agency

also needs to identify what the proposed logging and/or burning treatment is for each of these old growth stands, is required by the NEPA for project decisions.

The Forest Service cannot approve the proposed actions without providing the public with a detailed analysis that discloses and discusses relevant information and applicable studies the Agency used to support the Project's purpose and need. We disagree with the FS against that the underlying science the Agency relies upon, and cites, is settled. Significant controversy and uncertainty exist regarding the efficacy of vegetation management as a tool to reduce high-intensity wildfires, to improve wildlife habitat, or to increase forest resilience. The Forest Servicemust conduct a detailed analysis that addresses the significant effects that will result under the proposed actions. NEPA regulations state that:

> NEPA procedures ensure that environmental information must be available to public officials and citizens before decisions are made and before actions are taken. The information must be of high quality. Accurate scientific analysis, expert Agency comments, and public scrutiny are essential to implementing NEPA. [40 C.F.R. § 1500.1(b) (1978)]

To ensure an Agency has taken the required "hard look," courts hold that the Agency must use "public comment and the best available scientific information."

This proposed Project involves delaying site-specific data gathering and analysis until after a decision has already been reached —all under a predetermined assumption that there would be no

significant impacts. The legality of Condition-Based projects has been litigated and found to be illegal.

How can the public comment on the effect of the project on threaten species like whitebark pine, grizzly bears, lynx and bull trout when the Forest Service isn't specific on what they plan to do?

The project's use of conditions based management is a violation of NEPA, NFMA, the Clearwater Act, the APA and the ESA based on the Federal Court ruling on a Forest Service logging project in the Tongass N.F.

Please see the following article by the American bar Association about the use of Condition-Based Management.

May 10, 2021

The U.S. Forest Service's Expanding Use of Condition-Based Management: Functional and Legal Problems from Short-Circuiting the Project-Planning and Environmental Impact Statement Process

Andrew Cliburn, Paul Quackenbush, Madison Prokott, Jim Murphy, and Mason Overstreet

https://www.americanbar.org/groups/environment_energy_resources/publications/fr/20210510-the-us-forest-services-expanding-use-of-condition-based-management/

Condition-based management (CBM) is a management approach that the U.S. Forest Service has increasingly used to authorize timber harvests purportedly to increase flexibility, discretion, and efficiency in project planning, analysis, and implementation. The agency believes it needs this flexible approach because sometimes conditions on the ground can change more quickly than decisions can be implemented. In practice, however, CBM operates to circumvent the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) review framework by postponing site-specific analysis until the Forest Service implements the project, which effectively excludes the public from site-specific decisions, reduces transparency, and removes incentives for the agency to avoid harming localized resources. The practice should be curtailed by the Biden administration

NEPA requires federal agencies including the Forest Service to provide the public with "notice and an opportunity to be heard" in the analysis of "specific area[s] in which logging will take place and the harvesting methods to be used." Ohio Forestry Ass'n v. Sierra Club, 523 U.S. 726, 729–30 (1998). Site-specific public involvement can significantly improve projects because the agency may be unaware of harmful impacts or resource concerns until the public flags them during the environmental analysis process. Nationally, the Forest Service drops about one out of every five acres it proposes for timber harvest based on information or concerns presented during the NEPA process, often due to public comments regarding site-specific information. Public Lands Advocacy Coalition, Comments on Proposed Rule, National Environmental Policy

Act (NEPA) Compliance (June 13, 2019) (analyzing 68 projects that relied on environmental assessments).

The Forest Service appears to be abandoning the site-specific analysis model in favor of CBM. CBM projects use an overarching set of "goal variables"—predetermined management criteria that guide implementation—that Forest Service staff apply to on-the-ground natural resource "conditions" encountered during the course of project implementation, a period that can span years or even decades: essentially, when the Forest Service finds X resource condition on the ground, it applies Y timber harvest prescription. However, basic information regarding the project's details—such as unit location, timing, roadbuilding, harvesting methods, and site-specific environmental effects—is not provided at the time the Forest Service conducts its NEPA environmental review (when the public can weigh in), nor when it gives its final approval to a project (when the public can seek administrative review). Instead, site-level disclosures are made after NEPA environmental and administrative review is complete, depriving the public of opportunities to comment and influence the decision based on localized conditions.

While CBM is not a new management tool, the Forest Service has employed it for over a decade and it was used sparingly during the Obama administration. However, its use accelerated during the Trump administration and shows no sign of slowing. To date, dozens of Forest Service projects across the country have used CBM. See, e.g., Red Pine Thinning Project, Ottawa National Forest; Medicine Bow Landscape Vegetation

Analysis, Medicine Bow-Routt National Forest; Sage Hen Integrated Restoration Project, Boise National Forest.

As the Forest Service's use of CBM continues, questions remain about its legality. Public-lands advocates argue that CBM violates NEPA's mandate that agencies take a hard look at the consequences of their actions before a project commences. This "look before you leap" approach was the primary purpose of NEPA and remains the statute's greatest strength. NEPA works by requiring an agency to consider alternatives and publicly vet its analysis whenever its proposal may have "significant" environmental consequences, 42 U.S.C. § 4332(2)(C), or implicates "unresolved conflicts" about how the agency should best accomplish its objective. Id. at § 4332(2)(E). However, CBM allows the Forest Service to circumvent the effects analysis process when exercising discretion about where and how to log decisions that often may have "significant" environmental consequences.

Only two federal cases have addressed CBM's legality. In WildEarth Guardians v. Connor, 920 F.3d 1245 (10th Cir. 2019), the Tenth Circuit approved a CBM approach for a logging project in southern Colorado in Canada lynx habitat. The environmental assessment utilized CBM and analyzed three different alternatives, one of which was a worst-case scenario. For the worst-case scenario, the Forest Service assumed that the entire lynx habitat in the project area would be clear-cut. The Forest Service "took the conservative approach" because it "did not know precisely" where it would log in the lynx habitat areas. WildEarth Guardians, 920 F.3d at 1255. Based on this conservative approach, coupled with a comprehensive, re-

gion-wide lynx management agreement and its associated environmental impact statement, the court agreed with the Forest Service that its future site-specific choices were "not material" to the effects on lynx—i.e., that no matter where logging occurred, "there would not be a negative effect on the lynx." Id. at 1258–59.

However, a second case addressing CBM found that site-specific analysis was needed to satisfy NEPA's "hard-look" standard. In Southeast Alaska Conservation Council v. U.S. Forest Service, 443 F. Supp. 3d 995 (D. Ak. 2020), the court held that the Forest Service's Prince of Wales Landscape Level Analysis Project—a 15-year logging project on Prince of Wales Island in the Tongass National Forest—violated NEPA. The project would have authorized the logging of more than 40,000 acres, including nearly 24,000 acres of old growth, along with 643 miles of new and temporary road construction, but it "d[id] not include a determination—or even an estimate—of when and where the harvest activities or road construction . . . w[ould] actually occur." Id. at 1009. The court found that this analysis was not "specific enough" without information about harvest locations, methods, and localized impacts. Id. at 1009–10. The court further held that a worst-case analysis could not save the project, because site-specific differences were consequential. Id. at 1013.

The Forest Service's widespread use of CBM also creates compliance challenges under the Endangered Species Act (ESA). Section 7(a)(2) of the ESA requires federal agencies to consult with the Fish and Wildlife Service and/or National Marine Fisheries Service whenever a proposed action "may af-

fect" listed species or destroy or adversely modify its critical habitat to ensure that the action is "not likely to jeopardize" these species. 16 U.S.C. § 1536. CBM conflicts with that statutory requirement because it does not allow agencies to properly determine whether an action "may affect" or is "likely to jeopardize" a listed species when the consulting agencies do not know the specifics of when or where the action will be implemented, or what the site-specific impacts of the action may be.

For some projects, the Forest Service has tried to avoid this tension by conducting section 7 consultation prior to each phase of a CBM project, but this approach has run headlong into the general rule against segmenting project consultation duties under the ESA. See, e.g., Conner v. Burford, 848 F.2d 1441, 1457 (9th Cir. 1988). With few exceptions, section 7 consultation must cover the overall effects of the entire project at the initial stage before the project can commence. Thus, regardless of whether agencies choose to consult up front or to consult in stages, the Forest Service is likely to face significant legal hurdles when its CBM project "may affect" listed species.

CBM is not only legally dubious, but also unnecessary. The Forest Service already has NEPA-compliant methods to deal with situations that require a nimble response to the needs of a dynamic landscape. In these cases, the Forest Service can complete a single "programmatic" analysis to which future site-specific decisions will be tiered. This programmatic approach allows the Forest Service to speed the consideration and implementation of site-specific, step-down proposals. Unlike CBM, this approach allows for public review of site-specif-

ic decision-making and administrative review of those decisions.

Surveying the regulatory horizon, the future of CBM in the Forest Service system is uncertain. The national forests face a host of complex challenges including climate-related crises, insect and forest pestilence, protecting and restoring biodiversity, and wildfire management. These challenges are made worse by budget and staff restrictions. Without adequate funding, the Forest Service must rely on imperfect tools like commercial logging, which can cause more harm than good in the wrong places.

But this is not the time to shortchange the most consequential decisions that the agency must make: determining where and how to act. During the final two years of the Trump administration, the Forest Service attempted to explicitly codify CBM provisions in revisions to its NEPA regulations, although those provisions were dropped from the final rule. Simultaneously, other federal land-management agencies like the Bureau of Land Management have started to use CBM analogues in their NEPA-related planning documents. Although it is still early, the Biden administration's newly appointed Council on Environmental Quality team has yet to weigh in on CBM. If use of CBM continues in a manner that undermines public participation and NEPA's "hard look" standard, some of our riskiest land management projects may not receive proper environmental oversight.

This is a violation of NEPA to not identifying specific areas where logging would have occurred and where roads and how many roads will be built.

Please see the article below about a similar timber sale in Alaska which a federal district court ruled was illegal.

Federal court blocks timber sale in Alaska's Tongass National Forest

https://www.adn.com/alaska-news/2020/06/25/federal-court-blocks-timber-sale-in- alaskas-tongass-national-forest/

JUNEAU — A federal judge has blocked what would have been the largest timber sale in Alaska's Tongass National Forest in decades.

Wednesday's ruling ends the U.S. Forest Service's plan to open 37.5 square miles of old- growth forest on Prince of Wales Island to commercial logging, CoastAlaska reported.

The ruling by Judge Sharon L. Gleason also stops road construction for the planned 15- year project.

Conservationists had already successfully blocked the federal government's attempt to clear large amounts of timber for sale without identifying specific areas where logging would have occurred.

Gleason allowed the forest service to argue in favor of correcting deficiencies in its re- view and moving forward without throwing out the entire project, but ultimately ruled against the agency.

Gleason's ruling said the economic harm of invalidating the timber sales did not outweigh "the seriousness of the errors" in the agency's handling of the project.

The method used in the Prince of Wales Landscape Level Analysis was the first time the agency used it for environmental review on an Alaska timber sale.

The forest service, which can appeal the decision, did not return calls seeking comment.

Gleason's decision affects the Prince of Wales Island project and the Central Tongass Project near Petersburg and Wrangell.

The ruling triggers a new environmental review under the National Environmental Policy Act, said Meredith Trainor, executive director of the Southeast Alaska Conservation Council.

The ruling in the lawsuit brought by the council includes a requirement for public input on specific areas proposed for logging, Trainor said.

Tessa Axelson, executive director of the Alaska Forest Association, said in a statement that the ruling "threatens the viability of Southeast Alaska's timber industry."

The project is in violation of NEPA, NFMA, the Clean Water Act, the APA and the ESA.

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

Because the project did not tell the public where, when and how the project will be implemented the project is in violation of NEPA, NFMA, the CleanWater Act and the ESA.

We believe because of the size of the project and the cumulative effects of past current and future logging by the Forest Service and private logging in the area the Forest Service must complete a full environmental impact statement (EIS) for at the minimum an EA for this Project. The scope of the Project will likely have a significant individual and cumulative impact on the environment. An analysis showing no possibility of any significant impact must be made with public involvement, preferably in an EIS or at the minimum an EA and decision notice.

Alliance has reviewed the statutory and regulatory requirements governing National Forest Management projects, as well as the relevant case law, and compiled a checklist of issues that must be included in the EIS for he Project in order for the Forest Service's analysis to comply with the law. Following the list of nec-

essary elements, Alliance has also included a general narrative discussion on possible impacts of the Project, with accompanying citations to the relevant scientific literature. These references should be disclosed and discussed in the EIS or an EA in you refuse to write an EIS.

I. NECESSARY ELEMENTS FOR NEPA document:

A. Disclose all Bitterroot National Forest Plan requirements for logging/burning projects and explain how the Project complies with them;

B. Will this project comply with the eastside assessment?

C. Disclose the acreages of past, current, and reasonably foreseeable logging, grazing, mining, and road building activities within the Project area;

D. Solicit and disclose comments from the Montana Department of Fish, Wildlife, and Parks regarding the impact of the Project on wildlife habitat;

E. Solicit and disclose comments from the Montana Department of Environmental Quality regarding the impact of the Project on water quality;

F. Disclose the biological assessment for the candidate, threatened, or endangered species with potential and/or actual habitat in the Project area;

G. Disclose the biological evaluation for the sensitive and management indicator species with potential and/or actual habitat in the Project area;

H. Disclose the snag densities in the Project area, and the method used to determine those densities;

I. Disclose the current, during-project, and post-project road densities in the Project area;

J. Disclose the Bitterroot National Forest's record of compliance with state best management practices regarding stream sedimentation from ground-disturbing management activities;

K. Disclose the Bitterroot National Forest's record of compliance with its monitoring requirements as set forth in its Forest Plan;

L. Disclose the Bitterroot National Forest's record of compliance with the additional monitoring requirements set forth in previous DN/FONSIs and RODs on the Bitterroot National Forest;

M. Disclose the results of the field surveys for threatened, endangered, sensitive, and rare plants in each of the proposed units;

N. Please formally consult with the US FWS on the impacts of this project on candidate, threatened, or endangered species and plants;

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

P. Will this Project exacerbate existing noxious weed infestations and start new infestations?

Q. Do unlogged old growth forest store more carbon than the wood products that would be removed from the same forest in a logging operation?

R. What is the cumulative effect of National Forest logging on U.S. carbon stores? How many acres of National Forest lands are logged every year? How much carbon is lost by that logging?

S. Is this Project consistent with "research recommendations (Krankina and Harmon 2006) for protecting carbon gains against the potential impacts of future climate change? That study recommends "[i]ncreasing or maintaining the forest area by avoiding deforestation," and states that "protecting forest from log-

ging or clearing offer immediate benefits via prevented emissions." That study also states that "[w]hen the initial condition of land is a productive old-growth forest, the conversion to forest plantations with a short harvest rotation can have the opposite effect lasting for many decades . . . ." The study does state that thinning may have a beneficial effect to stabilize the forest and avoid stand- replacing wildfire, but the study never defines thinning. In this Project, where much of the logging is clear-cutting and includes removing large trees without any diameter limit, and where the removal of small diameter surface and ladder fuels is an unfunded mandate to the tune of over $3 million dollars, it is dubious whether the prescriptions are the same type of "thinning" envisioned in Krankina and Harmon (2006).

T. Please list each visual quality standard that applies to each unit and disclose whether each unit meets its respective visual quality standard. A failure to comply with visual quality Forest Plan standards violates NFMA.

U. For the visual quality standard analysis please define "ground vegetation," i.e. what age are the trees, "reestablishes," "short term," "longer term," and "revegetate."

V. Please disclose whether you have conducted surveys in the Project area for this Project for wolverines, bull trout, 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, bull trout, northern goshawks, monarch butterflies, grizzly bears, whitebark pine and lynx.

X. Is it impossible for a wolverines, bull trout, 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, bull trout, bull trout critical habitat, 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, bull trout, bull trout critical habitat, monarch butterflies, northern goshawks, grizzly bears, white-bark pine and lynx? Have you conducted ESA consultation?

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

BB. What is wrong with uniform forest conditions?

CC. Has the beetle kill contributed to a diverse landscape?

DD. Why are you trying to exclude stand replacement fires when these fires help aspen and whitebark pine?

EE. Please disclose what is the best available science for restoration of whitebark pine and lynx critical habitat;

FF. Disclose the level of current noxious weed infestations in the Project area and the cause of those infestations;

GG. Disclose the impact of the Project on noxious weed infestations and native plant communities;

HH. Disclose the amount of detrimental soil disturbance that currently exists in each proposed unit from previous logging and grazing activities;

II. Disclose the expected amount of detrimental soil disturbance in each unit after ground disturbance and prior to any proposed mitigation/remediation;

JJ. Disclose the expected amount of detrimental soil disturbance in each unit after proposed mitigation/remediation;

KK. Disclose the analytical data that supports proposed soil mitigation/ remediation measures;

LL. Disclose the timeline for implementation;

MM. Disclose the funding source for non- commercial activities proposed;

NN. Disclose the current level of old growth forest in each third order drainage in the Project area;

OO. Disclose the method used to quantify old growth forest acreages and its rate of error based upon field review of its predictions;

PP. Disclose the historic levels of mature and old growth forest in the Project area;

QQ. Disclose the level of mature and old growth forest necessary to sustain viable populations of dependent wildlife species in the area;

RR. Disclose the amount of mature and old growth forest that will remain after implementation;

SS. Disclose the amount of current habitat for old growth and mature forest dependent species in the Project area;

TT. Disclose the amount of habitat for old growth and mature forest dependent species that will remain after Project implementation;

UU. Disclose the method used to model old growth and mature forest dependent wildlife habitat acreages and its rate of error based upon field review of its predictions;

VV. Disclose the amount of big game (moose and elk) hiding cover, winter range, and security currently available in the area;

WW. Disclose the amount of big game (moose and elk) hiding cover, winter range, and security during Project implementation;

XX. Disclose the amount of big game (moose and elk) hiding cover, winter range, and security after implementation;

YY. Disclose the method used to determine big game hiding cover, winter range, and security, and its rate of error as determined by field review;

ZZ. Disclose and address the concerns expressed by the ID Team in the draft Five-Year Review of the Forest Plan regarding the failure to monitor population trends of MIS, the inadequacy of the Forest Plan old growth standard, and the failure to compile data to establish a reliable inventory of sensitive species on the Forest;

AAA. Disclose the actions being taken to reduce fuels on private lands adjacent to the Project area and how those activities/or lack thereof will impact the efficacy of the activities proposed for this Project;

BBB. Disclose the efficacy of the proposed activities at reducing wildfire risk and severity in the Project area in the future, including a two-year, five-year, ten-year, and 20-year projection;

CCC. Disclose when and how the Bitterroot National Forest made the decision to suppress natural wildfire in the Project area and replace natural fire with logging and prescribed burning;

DDD. Disclose the cumulative impacts on the Forest-wide level of the Bitterroot National Forest's policy decision to replace natural fire with logging and prescribed burning;

EEE. Disclose how Project complies with the Eastside Assessment recommendations;

FFF. Disclose the impact of climate change on the efficacy of the proposed treatments;

GGG. Disclose the impact of the proposed project on the carbon storage potential of the area;

HHH. Disclose the baseline condition, and expected sedimentation during and after activities, for all streams in the area;

III. Disclose maps of the area that show the following elements:

1. Past, current, and reasonably foreseeable logging units in the Project area;

2. Past, current, and reasonably foreseeable grazing allotments in the Project area;

3. Density of human residences within 1.5 miles from the Project unit boundaries;

4. Hiding cover in the Project area according to the Forest Plan definition;

5. Old growth forest in the Project area; 6. Big game security ar- eas;

7. Moose winter range;

The best available science, Christensen et al (1993),recommends elk habitat effectiveness of 70% in summer range and at least 50% in all other areas where elk are one of the prima- ry re- source considerations. According to Figure 1 in Christensen et al (1993), this equates to a maximum road density of approximate- ly 0.7 mi/sq mi. in sum- mer range and approximately 1.7 mi/sq mi. in all other areas.

Do any of the 6th Code watersheds in the Project area meet either of these road density thresholds? It appears the Project area as a whole also far exceeds these thresholds. Please disclose this type of Project level or watershed analysis on road density.

Are all of the roads that the Travel Plan closed actually closed?

How many road closure violations have there been in the Bitterroot National Forest is the last 5 years?

It appears that the project violates the roadless rule. Please demonstrate that the project complies with the roadless rule.

Christensen et al (1993) state that if an area is not meeting the 50% effectiveness threshold of 1.7 mi/sq mi, the agency should admit that the area is not being man- aged for elk: “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." Please address this in the EIS or EA.

The Forest Service should provide an analysis of how much of the Project area, Project area watersheds, affected land- scape areas, or affected Hunting Districts provide "elk security area[s]" as defined by the best available science, The Eastside assessment, Christensen et al (1993) and Hillis et al (1991), to be comprised of contiguous 250 acre blocks of forested habitat 0.5 miles or more from open roads with these blocks encom- passing 30% or more of the area.

Please provide a rational justification for the deviation from the Hillis security definition and numeric threshold that represent the best available science on elk security areas.

Grizzly bears

Page 110 of the EA states:

The project area is in Bitterroot Grizzly Bear Experimental Population Area and is adjacent to the Bitterroot Grizzly Bear Recovery Area. Grizzly bears may be present as transient individuals. One transient male was confirmed within the recovery area, but not within the project area, in summer 2019. However, the latest USFWS grizzly bear "may-be-present" habitat modeling has some overlap with the project area.

The project call for building new roads and extensive logging. The EA's not likely to adversely effect determination is not believable and is arbitrary and capricious.

In 2000, the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service issued a Record of Decision to (1) establish the Bitterroot Grizzly Recovery Area, (2) form a committee to recommend land use management standards for the bears, (3) implement an information campaign to prepare the public for the presence of grizzly bears in the area,

and (4) release a minimum of 25 grizzly bears into the Recovery Area over a period of five years as an "experimental non-essential population."

One of the primary reasons grizzly recovery is essential in this area is because the Selway-Bitterroot is the vital connecting corridor between the Cabinet-Yaak, Selkirk, Northern Continental Divide and Yellowstone grizzly populations. Connecting those populations provides the genetic interchange necessary to prevent inbreeding and ensure the long-term survival of the bears, which will eventually lead to true recovery and lawful removal from the Endangered Species List.

The attached order by the federal district court states that grizzly bears are in the Bitterroot ecosystem. Therefore you are required to formally consult with the USFWS on the impact of the project on grizzly bears.

On November 13, 2000, USFWS signed the Record of Decision on the Final EIS, and selected the Preferred Alternative – Restoration of Grizzly Bears as

a Nonessential Experimental Population with Citizen Manage-

ment 12

50. The Decision states: "The purpose of this alternative is to restore grizzly bears to central Idaho, designate this population as "nonessential experimental," and implement provisions within sections 4 and 10(j) of the Endangered Species Act (ESA) to conduct special management to address local concerns."

51. As noted above, however, on June 22, 2001, USFWS issued a Proposed Rule to select the No Action Alternative.

52. The "No Action Alternative" in the EIS is something of a misnomer because it includes the following required actions:

- The USFWS would designate the Bitterroot Grizzly Bear Recovery
  Zone as delineated in Figure S-4, and consistent with the 5,500 square mile Bitterroot Grizzly Bear Evaluation Area (BEA) as defined in the Bitterroot Ecosystem Recovery Plan Chapter - Supplement to the Grizzly Bear Recovery Plan (USFWS 1993, 1996).

- The USFWS would establish a tentative long-term recovery goal of approximately 280 grizzly bears (bears distributed over 5,500 mi of designated 2 wilderness and adjacent lands) within the recovery zone (USFWS 1996) (Figure S-4).

- Primary grizzly bear management responsibility would reside with the
  USFWS and include active participation by federal land management agencies, the states of Idaho and Montana, and the Nez Perce Tribe.

- Upon documentation of grizzly bear(s) in the BE, the USFWS would conduct an extensive and objective public education and information
  program to inform the public about grizzly bears and their

management under the ESA.

- The USFWS would continue to evaluate reported sightings of grizzly bears in the BE to determine their presence. The USFWS would also coordinate a monitoring program within the recovery zone to determine the status of recolonization.

- The national forests within the recovery zone would continue to manage habitat to meet or exceed their existing Forest Plan standards for big game habitat management. ESA Section 7(a)(2) would apply upon documentation of grizzly bear presence in the BE, and all federal actions within the recovery zone would be subject to Section 7 consultation with the USFWS.

- Upon documentation of grizzly bear(s) in the BE, the USFWS would evaluate the adequacy of land-use restrictions to protect suitable grizzly bear habitat within the Bitterroot recovery zone and within potential linkage zones to other occupied recovery zones. The USFWS would use the existing evaluation of adjacent wilderness areas to consider them as additions to the recovery zone (to include the portion of the Frank Church-River of No Return Wilderness south of the Salmon River).

- The USFWS, in cooperation with IDFG and MDFWP would apply the IGBC nuisance grizzly bear management guidelines to grizzly bears in conflict with humans or domestic animals.

- Land-use restrictions could be implemented when necessary if illegal killing threatens grizzly bear recovery.

53. EIS Figure S-4, the Recovery Zone for Alternative 4, is set forth below:

Figure S-4. The Bitterroot Grizzly Bear Recovery Zone for Alternative 2 - *the No Action Alternative - Natural Recovery*.

The No Action Alternative in the EIS further states: "Ongoing land-use activities (including timber harvest, minerals extraction, and public access and recreation) could be altered solely for grizzly bears if grizzly bear presence was documented in the BE, and research indicates that current habitat management is not adequate to maintain suitable grizzly bear habitat, or that linkage zone restrictions are necessary to promote grizzly bear recolonization.

Changed Conditions – Grizzly Bears in the Bitterroot

When the Final Rule was published in November 2000, "[t]he last verified death of a grizzly bear in the Bitterroot Mountains [had] occurred in 1932, and the last tracks [had been] observed in 1946 []."

When the Final Rule was published in November 2000, "no verified tracks or sightings [had] been documented in more than 50 years, and [there was no current] evidence of any grizzly bears in the Bitterroot ecosystem[]."

When the Final Rule was published in November 2000, USFWS stated that due to the "10j" status of the reintroduced grizzly bears, "[f]ormal section 7 consultation will not be required for any proposed U.S. Forest Service activity in the Bitterroot ecosystem as a result of the experimental reintroduction of bears, and the requirements of section 7(a)(2) will not apply . . . . However, because nonessential experimental

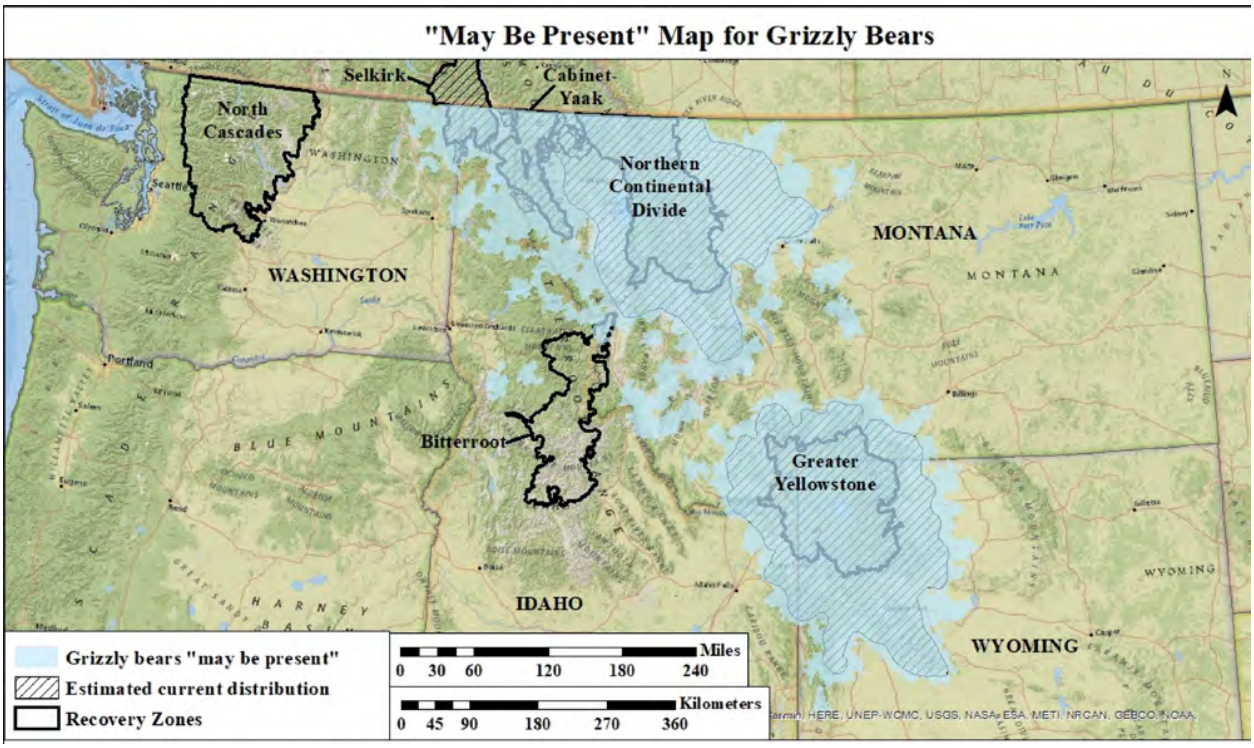
grizzly bears will be treated as a species proposed for listing, the conferencing requirements under section 7(a)(4) will apply."

When the Final Rule was published in November 2000, USFWS stated:
"We do not foresee any likely situation that would require us to change the nonessential experimental status until the grizzly bear is recovered and delisted in the Bitterroot ecosystem according to provisions outlined in the Recovery Plan."

Nonetheless, almost 20 years later, on January 21, 2020, USFWS sent a letter to the National Forest Supervisors of the Bitterroot, Nez Perce- Clearwater, Lolo, and Salmon-Challis National Forests in Montana and Idaho, which states in part (emphasis added):
The [Bitterroot Grizzly Bear Experimental Population Area] was designated as a nonessential experimental population by 50 CFR § 17.84(1), and the rule authorized the release of grizzly bears into the BGBEPA, outside its current range, under certain conditions. The Service is aware of one collared bear within the BGBEPA, and it travelled into the BGBEPA from the Cabinet-Yaak recovery zone. This grizzly bear was not released or reintroduced into the BGBEPA by the Service, and Service has not released or reintroduced any grizzly bears into the BGBEPA. Therefore, grizzly bears that are present in the BGBEPA are not covered by the 10(j) rule and are considered threatened under the ESA. This means that ESA section 7

consultation obligations apply to proposed federal agency actions that may affect grizzly bear in the BGBEPA, as with any grizzly bear in the lower 48 States.
We are updating the species occurrence map with locations where grizzly bears may be present within and near the BGBEPA. Upon completion, we will provide that map to you, to inform where section 7 consultation is advised.

The most recent version of USFWS's "may be present" grizzly bear map (dated January 11, 2021) is set forth below, and includes areas with known populations, as well as watersheds with a verified occurrence, and watersheds directly adjacent to watersheds with a verified occurrence:



As noted in the map above, USFWS concedes that grizzly bears may be present in a number of locations between the Bitterroot Recovery area and other Recovery Zones, as well as within the Bitterroot Recovery Area itself.

Over the past five years, grizzly bears have been encountered or confirmed in Montana in the town of Lolo, up Bass Creek, in the Rock Creek area, in the Big Hole, in the Sapphires, on the border of the Lee Metcalf Wildlife Refuge on the Bitterroot River (on a small golf course), in the Lolo Hots Springs area, in Missoula's North Hills, outside of Missoula in the Miller Creek area, in the Eight Mile area northeast of Florence, and near the headwaters of the east fork of the Bitterroot River.

Over the past five years, grizzly bears have also been encountered or confirmed in Idaho traveling through the St. Joe area into the Selway- Bitterroot Wilderness Area, in the Fish Creek Meadows area south of Grangeville, in the Newsome Creek/Red River area, in the Clear Creek/Big Cedar area, and east of Leadore, Idaho. Idaho Fish and Game also confirmed grizzly DNA in a den on Blackdome Peak in the St. Joe in 2017.

In USFWS's Grizzly Bear Recovery Program 2020 Annual Report, the agency states: "grizzly bears have increasingly been confirmed nearby and within the [Bitterroot Ecosystem] . . . ."

The agency further states that in addition to known, verified grizzly bears, "[i]t is possible that additional undetected individuals are currently in the area."

In the 2020 Annual Report, USFWS states: "In 2000, the Service issued a rule designating the Bitterroot Grizzly Bear Experimental Area as a nonessential experimental (10(j)) population and

authorized reintroduction of grizzly bears under certain conditions. Reintroduction has not occurred and there are currently no plans to do so."
In March 2021, USFWS issued a "5-Year Status Review for Grizzly Bears
in the Lower-48 States."

The 5-Year Review finds that the grizzly bear population in the lower 48
States is likely to become in danger of extinction within the foreseeable
future throughout all of its range.

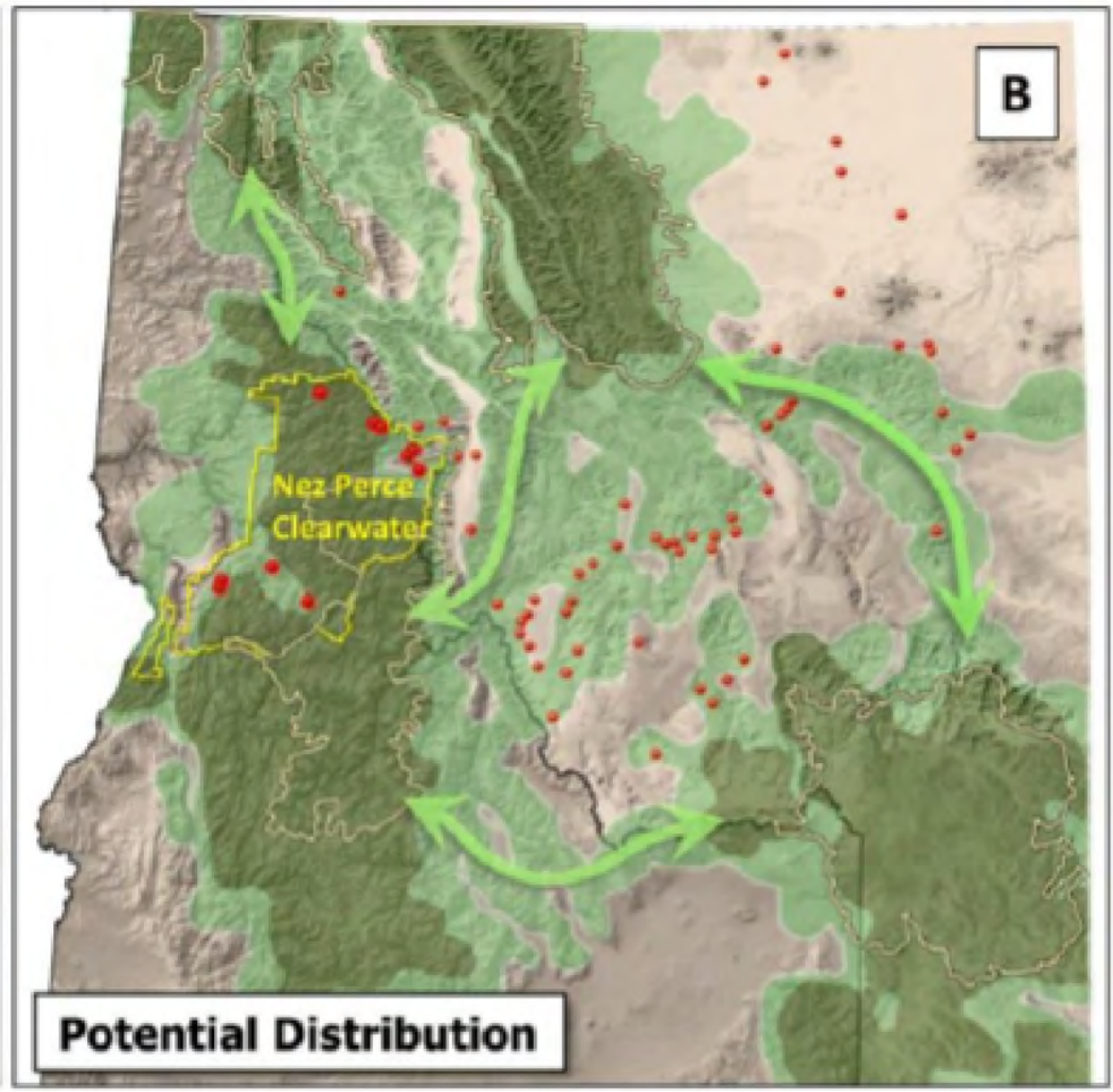
The 5-Year Review states: "viability for the grizzly bear in the lower-48 States as a whole only increases under the two optimistic future scenarios, which rely on increases in conservation efforts such that the [Bitterroot Ecosystem] and North Cascades support resilient populations."

More specifically, "Future Scenario 5 is an optimistic scenario under which conservation increases significantly. As a result, resiliency, redundancy, and representation for the grizzly bear improve. . . .The [Bitterroot Ecosystem] and North Cascades shift from functionally extirpated condition with no resiliency, to low resiliency under this scenario, due to human-facilitated restoration of the North Cascades and augmentation of the [Bitterroot Ecosystem]."

In other words, one of the best chances for recovery of the lower-48 States grizzly population is recovery in the Bitterroot area.

A recent report entitled, "The Grizzly Bear Promised Land: Past, Present & Future of Grizzly Bears in the Bitterroot, Clearwater, Salmon & Selway Country," by Dr. David Mattson, finds that grizzly recovery in the Bitterroot population is the lynchpin to a long-term, sustainable, viable grizzly population in the lower-48 States. Please find Dr. Mattson's report attached.

The map below from "Promised Land" shows estimated potential distribution of grizzly bears in the Northern Rockies with full occupancy of potential suitable habitat. Dark green is core distribution; light green is peripheral distribution; red dots are verified grizzly locations; and green arrows are main connectors between ecosystems:



1.

The EA and the Forest Plan needs to be amended to include habitat protection standards for grizzly bears including road density restrictions.

The EA states that the project calls for extensive fuel breaks.

What evidence do you have that fuel breaks work?

Do Fuel Breaks Work?

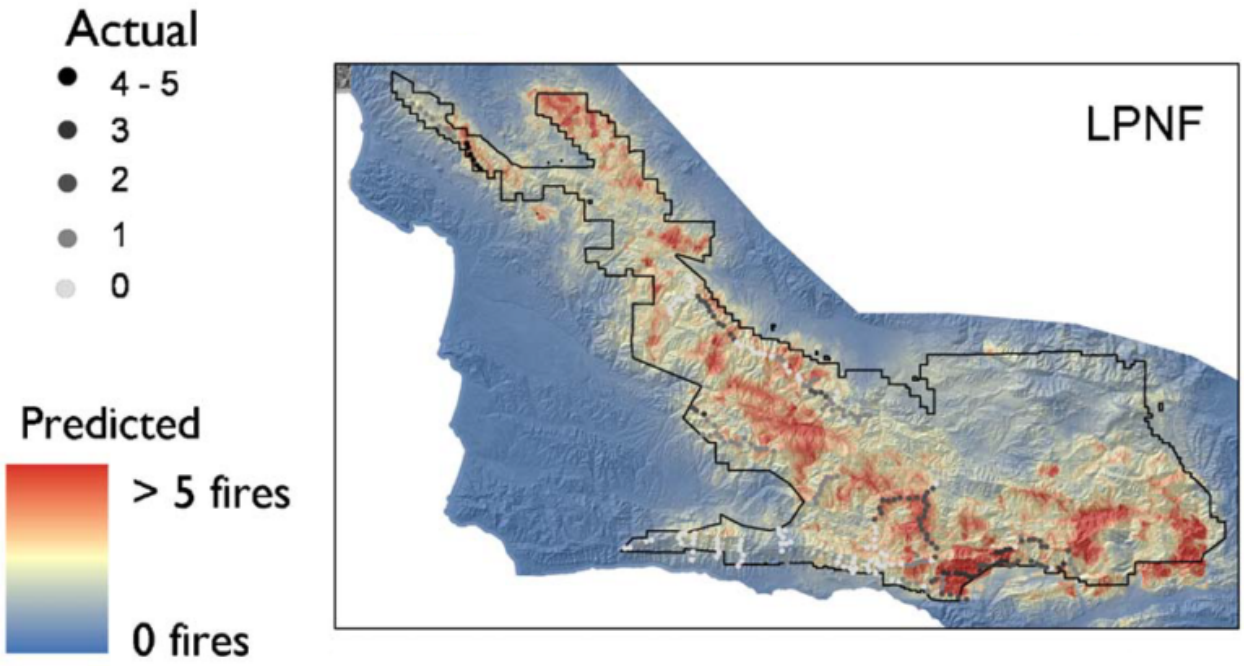
We have long known that fuel breaks do not passively stop wildfires, and they are not very effective when manned by firefighters—especially under extreme weather conditions. In 1977, the Forest Service published a handbook on fuel breaks. In it they have a section titled "What Fuelbreaks Cannot Do" which states this:

A strong criticism of the fuelbreak approach to fire control is that the headlong rush of a large fire can carry it across a wide break-manned or not under extreme conditions.

Numerous scientific studies have since confirmed that fuel breaks generally do not stop wildfires burning under extreme conditions such as low humidity and high wind, even when firefighters are present.

A 2011 study (please find attached) confirmed on the Los Padres National Forest specifically what the Forest Service seemed to already know in the 1970s. The researchers found that fuel breaks helped stop a wildfire approximately 46% of the time between 1980 and 2007. However, this was only true when firefighters were able to access the fuel breaks quickly ahead of a fire. Generally, fuel breaks do not passively stop a wildfire as

winds can blow embers up to a mile in front of a fire. These embers can then ignite vegetation on the other side of a fuel break, which is why we often see wildfires "jump" fuel breaks, roads, and other barriers.



As firefighters must be present on a fuel break for it to have a chance of impacting the progression of a wildfire, scientists recommend that fuel breaks be built immediately adjacent to communities rather than in remote areas. The most destructive types of wildfires are wind-driven and generally occur in high heat and low moisture conditions. These are the types of wildfires are least likely to stop. Such fires move across the landscape too quickly, not allowing enough time for firefighters to deploy onto fuel breaks in their path.

The 2017 Thomas Fire progressed far beyond over 70 miles of fuel breaks as well as three major highways as it moved from Santa Paula to Santa Barbara. The fire progressed far too quickly for firefighters to access these existing fuel breaks in time.

The limited firefighting resources that were available were instead deployed to urban areas to protect lives and properties.

Ecological Impacts of Fuel Breaks

Along with limited effectiveness, fuel breaks also impact surrounding landscapes in several ways. Typically, fuel breaks in our region are first created through a process called mastication — the mechanical crushing of all vegetation. When building fuel breaks, agencies use heavy equipment to masticate the native chaparral. Fuel breaks are also bulldozed to initially remove vegetation.

The Camino Cielo Fuel Break — seen here in 2008 — is frequently cleared of native vegetation.

Because fire season generally lasts from June until December each year, fuel break construction occurs in spring to avoid using heavy equipment in fire-prone during dry conditions and to avoid using such equipment in muddy conditions following winter rains. Unfortunately, this means that fuel break construction

and maintenance often happens in the most important season for local and migratory birds. A 2018 study found that mastication of chaparral—which is the most common method of fuel break construction in our region—is particularly devastating to bird communities.

Fuel breaks are also dominated by non-native, invasive plants such as highly flammable cheatgrass, wild oats, and black mustard. These plants have been shown to dry out earlier in the year and spread wildfire more quickly. Fuel breaks thus offer a springboard from which invasive species can invade the adjacent chaparral and other ecosystem types. And because fuel breaks lack the dense, native chaparral and are therefore more easily accessible, they often become areas of off-road vehicle trespass. This can in turn cause further erosion and other issues.

A Better Way to Protect Communities

The most effective vegetation management occurs immediately around structures and directly adjacent to communities. Establishing and maintaining smart defensible space is key to protecting homes and firefighter safety during a wildfire. Other steps such as retrofitting existing structures with fire-safe materials and curbing development in fire-prone areas are also critical in better protecting communities from the impacts of wildfire.

These projects are a violation of the Healthy Forest Restoration Act (HFRA) and the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) because they are not fuels management projects within 1.5 miles of communities at-risk.

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 alternative?

Please see the attached paper by Della-Sala 2022.

Please see the attached paper by Baker et al 2023.

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 Moun-

tains 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 dri-

ven 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.

The federal district court of Montana recently ruled against the Kootenai National Forest on the same boiler plate analysis,

writing:Ultimately, greenhouse gas reduction must happen quickly, and removing carbon from forests in the form of logging, even if trees are going to grow back, will take decades to centuries to re-sequester. Put more simply, logging causes immediate carbon losses, while re-sequestration happens slowly over time, time that the planet may not have.

Please find the court's order attached.

Please follow NEPA and take a hard look at the impact of the project on climate change.

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 regard-

less 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 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 expecta-

tions 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 im- possible, 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 fo- rests, fire behavior in 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.”

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 the- se forests for large, severe fires that would tend to set the fo- rest 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 suppres- sion has been effective for less than one natural fire cycle. Thin- ning for restoration does not appear to be appropriate in these forests. Efforts to manipulate stand structures to reduce fire haz- ard 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 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, 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."

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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FAILURE TO REVIEW AND PROTECT CULTURAL AND HISTORICAL RESOURCES

Consultation with the State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO) must be completed prior to a decision being signed.

Any required protection measures provided from SHPO will be incorporated into my final decision.

Crucial to the preservation of the historical and cultural foundations of the nation, Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) and its implementing regulations, 36 C.F.R.

Part 800 (PDF) (revised August 5, 2004) require Federal agencies to consider the effects of projects they carry out, approve, or fund on historic properties. Additionally, Federal agencies must provide the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation (ACHP) opportunity to comment on such projects prior to the agency's final decision.

A Federal project that requires review under Section 106 is defined as an "undertaking." An undertaking means a project, activity or program funded in whole or in part under the direct or indirect jurisdiction of a Federal agency, including those carried out by or on behalf of a Federal agency; those carried out with Federal financial assistance; and those requiring a Federal permit, license, or approval.

Section 110 of the NHPA

Added to the NHPA in 1992, Section 110 requires Federal agencies to emphasize the preservation and enhancement of cultural

resources. Section 110 directs agencies to initiate measures necessary to direct their policies, plans, and pro- grams in such a way that federally-owned sites, structures, and objects of historical architectural or archaeological significance are preserved, restored, and maintained for the inspiration and benefit of the public. The agencies are also encouraged to institute (in consultation with the ACHP) procedures to assure Federal plans and programs contribute to the preservation and enhancement of non-Federally owned sites, structures, and objects of historical, architectural, and archaeological significance. Has the MT SHPO received this survey? The cultural surveys need to be done before the NEPA and NHPA process can be completed, which has not occurred. The project must be approved by the SHPO and the public needs to given a chance to comment on this.

Did the Forest Service conduct NEPA analysis (i.e. an EA or EIS) for the Fire Plan the Forest is using for this project? If you

don’t the project will be in violation of NEPA, NFMA, and the APA.

Please provide a map showing the Wildland Urban Interface (WUI) and the locations of all homes in comparison to the project area.

Does the WUI comply with the statutory definition of theWUI under the Healthy Forest Restoration Act?

Please demonstrate that there is an emergency that this requires this project.

If the Forest Service did not conduct NEPA for the Fire Plan, please disclose the cumulative effects of Forest-wide implementation of the Fire Plan in the project EIS, or EA if you refuse to write an EIS, to avoid illegally tiering to a non NEPA document. Specifically analyze the decision to prioritize mechanical, human-designed, somewhat arbitrary treatments as a replacement for naturally-occurring fire.

Did the Forest Service conduct ESA consultation for the Fire Plan?

Why didn't the Forest Service be considering binding legal standards for noxious weeds in its revision of the Bitterroot Forest Plan?

How effective have BMPs been at stopping (i.e. preventing) new weed infestations from starting during logging and related road operations?

Is it true that new roads are the number one cause of new noxious weed infestations?

Why isn't the Forest Service considering a Forest Plan amendment in this Project to amend the Forest Plan to include binding legal standards that address noxious weeds?

Is it true that noxious weeds are one of the top threats to biodiversity on our National Forests?

How can the Forest Service be complying with NFMA's requirement to maintain biodiversity if it has no legal standards that address noxious weeds?

Will this Project address all Project area BMP needs, i.e. will the BMP road maintenance backlog and needs from this Project all be met by this Project?

The scoping notice was not clear if any MIS were found. What MIS did you find, how many and how did you look for these MIS?

How will the decreased elk security and thermal cover affect wolverines? Please formally consult with the US FWS on the impact of this project on wolverines. The U.S. District Court ordered the USFWS to reconsider if wolverines should be listed untie ESA. Wolverines need secure habitat in big game winter range.

Which wildlife species and ecosystem processes, if any, does the fire-proofing in the proposed project benefit? Which species and processes do fire-proofing harm?

What is your definition of healthier?

What evidence do you have that this logging will make the forest healthier for fish and wildlife? What about the role of mixed severity and high severity fire – what are the benefits of those natural processes?

How have those processes (mixed and high severity fire) created the ecosystems we have today?

Over how many millennia have mixed and high severity fire have been occurring without human intervention?

What beneficial ecological roles do beetles play? You didn't answer this in violation of NEPA, NFMA and the APA.

Can the forest survive without beetles?

Will all WQLS streams in the project area have completed TMDLs before a decision is signed?

Will this project leave enough snags to follow the Forest Plan requirements and the requirements of sensitive old growth species such as flammulated owls and goshawks?

Will this Project exacerbate existing noxious weed infestations and start new infestations?

Do unlogged old growth forests store more carbon than the wood products that would be removed from the same forest in a logging operation?

What is the cumulative effect of National Forest logging on U.S. carbon stores? How many acres of National Forest lands are logged every year? How much carbon is lost by that logging?

Is this Project consistent with "research recommendations (Krankina and Harmon 2006) for protecting carbon gains against the potential impacts of future climate change? That study rec-

ommends “[i]ncreasing or maintaining the forest area by avoiding deforestation,” and states that “protecting forest from logging or clearing offer immediate benefits via prevented emissions.”

Please list each visual quality standard that applies to each unit and disclose whether each unit meets its respective visual quality standard.

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. Holbrook 2019 (attached) found that all lynx habitat has to be surveyed.

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.

Please provide us with a survey for all of the whitebark pine in the project area.

Weeds

Native plants are the foundation upon which the ecosystems of the Forest are built, providing forage and shelter for all native wildlife, bird and insect species, supporting the natural processes of the landscape, and providing the

context within which the public find recreational and spiritual opportunities. All these uses or values of land are hindered or lost by conversion of native vegetation to invasive and noxious plants. The ecological threats posed by noxious weed infestations are so great that a former chief of the Forest Service called the invasion of noxious weeds "devastating" and a "biological disaster." Despite implementation of Forest Service "best management practices" (BMPs), noxious weed infestation on the Forest is getting worse and noxious weeds will likely overtake native plant populations if introduced into areas that are not yet infested. The Forest Service has recognized that the effects of noxious weed invasions may be irreversible. Even if weeds are eliminated with herbicide treatment, they may be replaced by other weeds, not by native plant species.

Invasive plant species, also called noxious weeds, are one of the greatest modern threats to biodiversity on earth. Noxious weeds cause harm because they displace native plants, resulting in a

loss of diversity and a change in the structure of a plant community. By removing native vegetative cover, invasive plants like knapweed may increase sediment yield and surface runoff in an ecosystem. As well knapweed may alter organic matter distribution and nutrient through a greater ability to uptake phosphorus over some native species in grasslands. Weed colonization can alter fire behavior by increasing flammability: for example, cheatgrass, a widespread noxious weed on the Forest, cures early and leads to more frequent burning. Weed colonization can also deplete soil nutrients and change the physical structure of soils.

The Forest Service's own management activities are largely responsible for noxious weed infestations; in particular, logging, prescribed burns, and road construction and use create a risk of weed infestations. The introduction of logging equipment into the Forest creates and exacerbates noxious weed infestations. The removal of trees through logging can also facilitate the es-

tablishment of noxious weed infestations because of soil disturbance and the reduction of canopy closure In general, noxious weeds occur in old clearcuts and forest openings, but are rare in mature and old growth forests. Roads are often the first place new invader weeds are introduced. Vehicle traffic and soil disturbances from road construction and maintenance create ideal establishment conditions for weeds. Roads also provide obvious dispersal corridors. Roadsides throughout the project area are infested with noxious weeds. Once established along roadsides, invasive plants will likely spread into adjacent grass- lands and forest openings.

Prescribed burning activities within the analysis area would likely cumulatively contribute to increases to noxious weed distribution and populations. As a disturbance process, fire has the potential to greatly exacerbate infestations of certain noxious weed species, depending on burn severity and habitat type (Fire Effects Information System 2004). Soil disturbance, such as that

resulting from low and moderate burn severities from prescribed fire and fire suppression related disturbances (dozer lines, drop spots, etc.), provide optimum conditions for noxious weed invasion. Dry site vegetation types and road corridors are extremely vulnerable, especially where recent ground disturbance (timber management, road construction) has occurred. Units proposed for burning within project area may have closed forest service access roads (jammers) located within units. These units have the highest potential for noxious weed infestation and exacerbation through fire activities. Please provide an alternative that eliminates units that have noxious weeds present on roads within units from fire management proposals.

Please address the ecological, social and ascetic impact of current noxious weed infestations within the project area. Include an analysis of the impact of the actions proposed by this project on the long and short term spread of current and new noxious weed infestations. What treatment methods will be used to ad-

dress growing noxious weed problems? What noxious weeds are currently and historically found within the project area? Please include a map of current noxious weed infestations which includes knapweed, Saint Johnswort, cheat grass, bull thistle, Canada thistle, hawkweed, hound's-tongue, oxeye daisy and all other Category 1, Category 2 and Category 3 weeds classified as noxious in the MONTANA COUNTY NOXIOUS

WEED LIST. State-listed Category 2 noxious weed species yellow and orange hawkweeds are recently established (within the last 5 to 10 years) in Montana and are rapidly expanding in established areas. They can invade undisturbed areas where native plant communities are intact. These species can persist in shaded conditions and often grow underneath shrubs making eradication very difficult. Their stoloniferous (growing at the surface or below ground) habit can create dense mats that can persist and spread to densities of 3500 plants per square mile (Thomas and

Dale 1975). Are yellow and orange hawkweeds present within the project area?

Please address the cumulative, direct and indirect effects of the proposed project on weed introduction, spread and persistence that includes how weed infestations have been and will be influenced by the following management actions: road construction including new permanent and temporary roads and skid trails proposed within this project; opening and decommissioning of roads represented on forest service maps; ground disturbance and traffic on forest service template roads, mining access routes, and private roads; removal of trees through commercial and pre-commercial logging and understory thinning; and prescribed burns. What open, gated, and decommissioned Forest Service roads within the project area proposed as haul routes have existent noxious weed populations and what methods will be used to assure that noxious weeds are not spread into the proposed action units?

Noxious weeds are not eradicated with single herbicide treatments. A onetime application may kill an individual plant but dormant seeds in the ground can still sprout after herbicide treatment. Thus, herbicides must be

used on consistent, repetitive schedules to be effective.

What commitment to a long-term, consistent strategy of application is being proposed for each weed infested area wi- thin the proposed action area? What long term monitoring of weed populations is proposed?

When areas treated with herbicides are reseeded on national forest land, they are usually reseeded with exotic grasses, not native plant species. What native plant restoration activities will be implemented in areas disturbed by the actions proposed in this project? Will disturbed areas including road corridors, skid trails, and burn units be planted or reseeded with native plant species?

The scientific and managerial consensus is that prevention is the most effective way to manage noxious weeds. The Forest Service concedes that preventing the introduction of weeds into uninfested areas is "the most critical component of a weed management program." The Forest Service's national management strategy for noxious weeds also recommends "develop[ing] and implement[ing] forest plan standards . . . ." and recognizes that the cheapest and most effective solution is prevention. Which units within the project area currently have no noxious weed populations within their boundaries? What minimum standards are in the Bitterroot National Forest Plan to address noxious weed infestations? Please include an alternative in the DEIS that includes land management standards that will prevent new weed infestations by addressing the causes of weed infestation. The failure to include preventive standards violates NFMA because the Forest Service is not ensuring the protection of soils and native plant communities. Additionally, the omission of an EIS al-

ternative that includes preventive measures would violate NEPA because the Forest Service would fail to consider a reasonable alternative.

Rare Plants

The ESA requires that the Forest Service conserve endangered and threatened species of plants as well as animals. In addition to plants protected under the ESA, the Forest Service identifies species for which population viability is a concern as "sensitive species" designated by the Regional Forester (FSM 2670.44). The response of each of the sensitive plant species to management activity varies by species, and in some cases, is not fully known. Local native vegetation has evolved with and is adapted to the climate, soils, and natural processes such as fire, insect and disease infestations, and windthrow. Any management or lack of management that causes these natural processes to be altered may have impacts on native vegetation, including threatened and sensitive plants. Herbicide application – intended to

eradicate invasive plants – also results in a loss of native plant diversity because herbicides kill native plants as well as invasive plants.

Whitebark Pine

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 at- tacked 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 re-generation maintaining the viability and function of whitebark pine would not be achieved through burning. Please find Keane and Parsons and Keane 2017 attached.

Planting of rust-resistant seedlings would likely not be sufficient to replace whitebark pine lost to fire activities.

What surveys have been conducted to determine presence and abundance of whitebark pine re-generation? 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 re-

sistant stock available? Would enough seedlings be planted to replace whitebark pine lost to fire activities? Have white pine blister rust surveys been accompli- shed? What is the severity of white pine blister rust in proposed action areas?

Does the Bitterroot N.F. have any forest plan biological assess- ment, biological opinion, incidental take statement, and man- agement direction amendment for whitebark pine?

The agency is violating the NEPA by providing false reasons for logging to the public by claiming that insects and disease in for- est stands are detrimental to the forest by reducing stand vigor (health) and increasing fire risk. There is no cur- rent science that demonstrates that insects and disease are bad for wildlife, including dwarf mistletoe, or that these increase the risk of fire once red needles have fallen.

The agency is violating the NEPA by claiming that logging is needed to create a diversity of stand structures and age classes;

this is just agency rhetoric to conceal the real purpose of logging to the public.

The agency is violating the NEPA by promoting fuel reduction projects as protection of the public from fire, when this is actually a very unlikely event; the probability of a given fuel break to actually have a fire in it before the fuels reduction benefits are lost with conifer regeneration are extremely remote; forest drying and increased wind speeds in thinned forests may increase, not reduce, the risk of fire.

The agency is violating the NEPA by using vague, unmeasureable terms to rationalize the proposed logging to the public. How can the public measure "resiliency?" Please demonstrate that fuel breaks work.

We summarize below the expert findings of Dr. Joseph Werne, extracted from his attached 4/4/21 Declaration regarding the inadequacy of current fire models and fuels management prescriptions (see DROD DVD, Werne Declaration.pdf):

a. When ladder fuels are removed (by thinning), ground-level wind speed and turbulent mixing both increase, leading to faster fire spread and greater oxygen- transport efficiency; this, in turn, results in increased fire intensity.

b. In many cases this aerodynamic effect is more important than the fire-dampening effects of the fuels reduction being evaluated.

c. Two recent studies demonstrate just how consequential neglecting canopy wind-drag effects can be, leading to potentially disastrous results if aggressive ladder-fuel removal is applied. See Atchley et al. 2021 (attached), and Banerjee et al. 2020 (attached).

d. Both papers demonstrate that the removal of ladder fuels reduces the sub-canopy wind drag, ultimately leading to increased fire spread.

e. In other words, they both show how fuels-reduction treatments can increase fire spread, which is the opposite of what currently-used operational model studies predict.

f. Furthermore, the Banerjee et al. 2020 paper goes further and also shows that aggressive ladder fuel removal increases the likelihood of overstory crown fires compared to more modest ladder fuel reductions, which is again opposite to operational model-run predictions.

g. Other recent studies also confirm these findings. Coen et al. 2018 (attached) demonstrate that drought and fuel load were sec-

ondary effects compared to fire-induced atmospheric motions, which operational fire-behavior models neglect.

h. Bradley et al. (2016) (attached) analyzed satellite data for 1500 fires from 1984 to 2014, affecting 23.5 million acres of forestland. Their results show that the more heavily forestland is managed, the more severely it burns, and the least-managed land (i.e., our National Parks and Wilderness Areas) are the most firesafe.

i. By omitting atmospheric dynamics and wind-drag effects associated with vegetation treatments, fuels reductions designed to reduce fire intensity and fire spread are undoubtedly producing the opposite effect.

Please find A More Effective Approach for Preventing Wildland-Urban Fire Disasters Jack Cohen attached.

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 needed 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.

The agency will violate the Forest Plan by logging riparian areas; almost all wildlife species will be harmed by this treatment.

The agency will violate the NFMA by failing to ensure that old growth forests are well-distributed across the landscape with the all of the CE projects.

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 U.S. District Court just ruled that the Forest Service has to formally consult with the U.S. FWS on the Northern Rockies Lynx Management Direction effect on lynx and lynx critical habitat. Have you done this? If not please do so.

THE AGENCIES MUST REINITIATE

CONSULTATION ON THE NORTHERN ROCKIES LYNX MANAGEMENT DIRECTION.

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 these project are 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 Nation- al 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 al- lowing 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 in- sure the viability of lynx. Ac- cording to the 1982 NFMA regulations, fish and wildlife must be managed to maintain vi- able 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 Bitterroot National Forest (BNF) is home to the Canada lynx, and lynx critical habitat. Canada lynx are 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 cur- rent 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 Bitterroot 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 Bitterroot 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. There- fore, these activities may contribute to a risk of ad- verse 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 affect- ing 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

Bull Trout

The Project area includes 29 miles of bull trout critical habitat and many more miles of bull trout occupied streams. The Draft EA finds that Project activities are likely to adversely affect bull trout (Draft EA, p. 116). The Draft EA claims that design features will minimize impacts but the EA did not demonstrated this to be true.

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

What was the results of these surveys?

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

Do the action alternatives comply with PACFISH-INFISH?

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

With all of the bull trout spawning streams and designated as critical habitat in the project area we would expect robust road decommissioning and culvert removals, and no logging in riparian areas of streams. Instead Redd Bull project is a robust log-

ging and roading project that will degrade, not improve aquatic ecosystems.

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

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

Although wildfires may create important changes in watershed processes often considered harmful for fish or fish habitats, the spatial and temporal nature of disturbance is important. Fire and the associated hydrologic effects can be characterized as "pulsed" disturbances (sensu Yount and Niemi 1990) as opposed to the more chronic or "press" effects linked to permanent road networks. Species such as bull trout and redband trout appear to have been well adapted to such pulsed disturbance. The population characteristics that provide for resilience in the face of such events, however, likely depend on large, well-connected, and spatially complex habitats that can be lost through chronic effects of other management. Critical elements to resilience and persistence of many populations for these and similar species will be maintaining and restoring complex habitats across a network of streams and watersheds. Intensive land management could make that a difficult job. (Rieman and Clayton 1997)

If the restoration work does not get done. How much sediment will go into the streams in the project area post-project?

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

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

The introduction of sediment in excess of natural amounts can have multiple adverse effects on bull trout and their habitat (Rhodes et al. 1994, pp. 16-21; Berry, Rubinstein, Melzian, and Hill 2003, p. 7). The effect of sediment beyond natural background conditions can be fatal at high levels. Embryo survival and subsequent fry emergence success have been highly correlated to percentage of fine material within the stream-bed (Shepard et al. 1984, pp. 146, 152). Low levels of sediment may result in sublethal and behavioral effects such as increased activity, stress, and emigration rates; loss or reduction of foraging capability; reduced growth and resistance to disease; physical abrasion; clogging of gills; and interference with orientation in homing and migration (McLeay et al. 1987a, p. 671; Newcombe and MacDonald 1991, pp. 72, 76, 77; Barrett, Grossman, and Rosenfeld 1992, p. 437; Lake and Hinch 1999, p. 865; Bash et al. 2001n, p. 9; Watts et al. 2003, p. 551; Vondracek et al. 2003, p. 1005; Berry, Rubinstein, Melzian, and Hill 2003, p. 33). The effects of increased suspended sediments can cause changes in the abundance and/or type of food organisms, alterations in fish

habitat, and long-term impacts to fish populations (Anderson et al. 1996, pp. 1, 9, 12, 14, 15; Reid and Anderson 1999, pp. 1, 7-15). No threshold has been determined in which fine sediment addition to a stream is harmless (Suttle et al. 2004, p. 973). Even at low concentrations, fine-sediment deposition can decrease growth and survival of juvenile salmonids.

Aquatic systems are complex interactive systems, and isolating the effects of sediment to fish is difficult (Castro and Reckendorf 1995d, pp. 2-3). The effects of sediment on receiving water ecosystems are complex and multi-dimensional, and further compounded by the fact that sediment flux is a natural and vital process for aquatic systems (Berry, Rubinstein, Melzian, and Hill 2003, p. 4). Environmental factors that affect the magnitude of sediment impacts on salmonids include duration of exposure, frequency of exposure, toxicity, temperature, life stage of fish, angularity and size of particle, severity/magnitude of pulse, time of occurrence, general condition of biota, and availability of and access to refugia (Bash et al. 2001m, p. 11). Potential impacts caused by excessive suspended sediments are varied and complex and are often masked by other concurrent activities (Newcombe 2003, p. 530). The difficulty in determining which environmental variables act as limiting factors has made it difficult to establish the specific effects of sediment impacts on fish (Chapman 1988, p. 2). For example, excess fines in spawning gravels may not lead to smaller populations of adults if the amount of juvenile winter habitat limits the number of juveniles that reach adulthood. Often there are multiple independent vari-

ables with complex inter-relationships that can influence population size.

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

Aquatic Impacts

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

"The implications of this study for forest managers are twofold: (i) with riparian logging comes increased unpredictability in the frequency of size, attachment, and stability of the LWD and (ii) maintaining the appropriate ratios of size frequency, orientation, and bank
attachment, as well as rate of delivery, storage, and transport of LWD to streams, is essential to maintaining historic LWD characteristics and dynamics. Our data suggest that exclusion of logging from riparian zones may be necessary to maintain natural stream
morphology and habitat features. Likewise, careful upland management is also necessary to prevent cumulative effects that result in altered water flow regimes and sediment delivery regimes. While not specifically evaluated in this study, in general, it appears that
patterns of upland logging space and time may have cumulative effects that could additionally alter the balance of LWD delivery, storage, and transport in fluvial systems.

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

Muhlfeld, et al. (2009) evaluated the association of local habitat features (width, gradient, and elevation), watershed characteristics (mean and maximum summer water temperatures, the number of road crossings, and road density), and biotic factors (the distance to the source of hybridization and trout density) with the spread of hybridization between native westslope cutthroat trout Oncorhynchus clarkii lewisi and introduced rainbow trout in the upper Flathead River system in Montana and British Columbia.

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

Page 6 of the Watersheds and Aquatics Effects Analysis shows that there already 49 miles of impaired streams in the project area. It also states, “At least 18 streams in the planning area are known to contain bull trout, and 9 streams have been designated as critical habitat, for a total of 29 critical habitat miles in the project area (USFS GIS 2023).”

Page 14 of the Watersheds and Aquatics Effects Analysis states:

Of the proposed project activities, harvest, prescribed fire, the use of the existing road system, temporary and/or permanent road construction, and other road-related activities have the potential to increase erosion production and sediment delivery into streams within and adjacent to treatment units over the short term (0–5 years). As ground cover is re–established, hills-lope erosion would diminish over the time span of 0– 5 years.

In particular, proposed road actions could increase sediment delivery to streams during implementation and in the short term (up to 5 years) after implementation. Road actions asso-ciated with the proposed action are summarized in table 3 of the Transportation Specialist Report (PF-TRANSPORTA-TION-001). The proposed road actions that would occur with-in HUC12 watersheds and <100' from streams at the HUC12 watershed level are shown in table 8. In total, 92 miles of pro-posed road actions would occur within HUC12 watersheds and 7 miles would occur within 100 feet of streams (values exclude administrative-only actions). Those actions that would occur within 100 feet of streams were considered as having potential to deliver sediment to streams, and therefore influence water quality.

Assuming your assumptions are accurate, how many years it will take post-project to make up for all of the increase in sedi-ment during the project? Will there be any bull trout left in the streams by then? How many bull trout will be killed during the implementation of the project?

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

Page 16 of the Watersheds and Aquatics Effects Analysis states: ***The WEPP:Road model (table 9) estimated that proposed road activities 10 to 100 feet of streams would contribute approximately 862 to 4,000 pounds of sediment over the short term (5 years).***

The Draft EA (DEA) calls for building 28.98 miles of new roads. Page 101-102 of the Draft EA states:

In total, approximately 92 miles of proposed road actions would occur within HUC12 watersheds and approximately 7 miles of proposed road actions would occur within 100 feet of streams (values exclude administrative-only actions). Those actions that would occur within 100 feet of streams were considered to have the highest potential to deliver sediment to streams, and, therefore, influence water quality.

Proposed road actions could cause temporary increases in sediment delivery due to short-term pulses of sediment from road construction, maintenance, and use that would occur during project implementation. This is because construction and maintenance activities (for example, use of equipment or vegetation removal) as well as increased road use can cause soil compaction, erosion, and displacement, all of which can increase sediment delivery to streams and impact water quality. Roads on steep slopes are a greater potential source for soil erosion from water runoff (Sugden and Woods 2007).

The project as described in the DEA is a violation of NFMA, the Clean Water Act, the ESA, the APA, PACFISH-INFISH, the Forest Plan and the ESA.

One of the Endangered Species Act's strongest provisions, designation of "critical habitat" is required for all domestic species listed under the Act. Critical habitat includes specific areas within a species' current range that have "physical or biological features essential to the conservation of the species," as well as areas outside the species' current range upon a determination "that such areas are essential for the conservation of the species." In other words, the original definition of critical habitat said it must include all areas deemed important to a species' survival or recovery, whether the species currently resides in those areas, historically resided in those areas, uses those areas for movement, or needs them for any other reason.

The Draft EA calls for building 28.98 miles of new roads. Page 101-102 of the Draft EA states:

In total, approximately 92 miles of proposed road actions would occur within HUC12 watersheds and approximately 7 miles of proposed road actions would occur within 100 feet of streams (values exclude administrative-only actions). Those actions that would occur within 100 feet of streams were considered to have the highest potential to deliver sediment to streams, and, therefore, influence water quality.

Proposed road actions could cause temporary increases in sediment delivery due to short-term pulses of sediment from road

construction, maintenance, and use that would occur during project implementation. This is because construction and maintenance activities (for example, use of equipment or vegetation removal) as well as increased road use can cause soil compaction, erosion, and displacement, all of which can increase sediment delivery to streams and impact water quality. Roads on steep slopes are a greater potential source for soil erosion from water runoff (Sugden and Woods 2007).

Critical habitat provides key protections for listed species by prohibiting federal agencies from permitting, funding, or carrying out actions that "adversely modify" designated areas. Designating critical habitat also provides vital information to local governments and citizens about where important habitat for endangered species is located — and why they should help conserve it.

The Draft EA does not fully disclose or analyze the direct, indirect, and cumulative effects of Project activities.

Thank you for your attention to these concerns.

Sincerely yours,

Mike Garrity

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