



Haleakalā National Park

Suppression of Invasive Mosquito Populations to Reduce Transmission of Avian Malaria to Threatened and Endangered Forest Birds on East Maui



Environmental Assessment

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AGL	above ground level
CEQ	Council on Environmental Quality
dba	A-weighted decibel
DLNR	Hawai'i Department of Land and Natural Resources
DOFAW	Hawai'i Division of Forestry and Wildlife
EA	Environmental Assessment
EPA	Environmental Protection Agency
ESA	Endangered Species Act
FAA	Federal Aviation Administration
HEPA	Hawai'i Environmental Policy Act
IIT	Incompatible Insect Technique
IVUMC	Interagency Visitor Use Management Council
LOS	line of sight
LZ	landing zone
MFBRP	Maui Forest Bird Recovery Project
NEPA	National Environmental Policy Act
NPS	National Park Service
OGG	Helibase - Kahului Airport
OSHA	Occupational Safety and Health Administration
PEPC	Planning, Environment, and Public Comment
TNC	The Nature Conservancy
USFWS	U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service
USGS	U.S. Geological Survey

CHAPTER 1: PURPOSE OF AND NEED FOR ACTION

INTRODUCTION

This environmental assessment (EA) analyzes the impacts of the proposed action to suppress invasive mosquito populations with the goal of addressing the effects of avian malaria on threatened and endangered forest birds on Maui, Hawai‘i versus a no-action alternative. The project area primarily consists of Haleakalā National Park and adjacent properties managed by the State of Hawai‘i, The Nature Conservancy (TNC), and other private conservation lands. This EA has been prepared consistent with the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) and the Hawai‘i Environmental Policy Act (HEPA) and provides compliance for project implementation on both federal and state lands.

Haleakalā National Park (the park) was established in 1916 and manages over 33,000 acres of federal land on the island of Maui. There are two districts in the park: the Summit District and the Kīpahulu District. The Summit District includes a portion of Haleakalā Highway (known as Crater Road within the park), Haleakalā Crater, Kaupō Gap, and Nu‘u. The Kīpahulu District includes ‘Ohe‘o Gulch, Kīpahulu Valley, Manawainui, and Ka‘āpahu. Recognized as an International Biosphere Reserve, the park’s stated purpose is: *"For the inspiration of current and future generations, [the park] protects a wild volcanic landscape with a wild array of fragile and diverse native ecosystems, including plant and animal species found nowhere else on Earth. Our stewardship perpetuates the unique and continuing connections between Hawaiian culture and this sacred and evolving land"* (NPS 2015; see Appendix A: References). The National Park Service (NPS) is the lead agency for this EA.

The State of Hawai‘i Department of Land and Natural Resources (DLNR) Division of Forestry and Wildlife (DOFAW) manages forest and wildlife resources, including plant and wildlife habitats and native ecosystems, lands designated as forest reserves, natural area reserves, wildlife sanctuaries, and game management areas, and partners broadly for the protection and management of natural resources on agency and private land throughout the state. DOFAW reserves on East Maui include the Ko‘olau Forest Reserve, Hāna Forest Reserve, Hanawī Natural Area Reserve, Kīpahulu Forest Reserve, and Makawao Forest Reserve. DLNR is serving as a cooperating agency for this project.

TNC manages lands in the Waikamoi Preserve, while several private partners, including East Maui Irrigation, Mahi Pono, LLC., and Haleakala Ranch, manage adjacent properties on East Maui to protect native ecosystems and watersheds. TNC, NPS, DLNR, and partners would work together to implement this mosquito suppression project on these lands. These cooperative actions do not alter the jurisdiction of each agency, organization, or private landowner; rather, this collaboration is the most efficient way to achieve the goals of the project.

PROJECT BACKGROUND

More than 30 species of forest birds known as Hawaiian honeycreepers have gone extinct over the last 20–200 years (Banko and Banko 2009, Elphick et al. 2010, USFWS 2021). Many of the remaining 17 species are considered at risk, with some populations exhibiting rapid and recent declines (Paxton et al. 2016, Judge et al. 2021). The primary cause of these declines is avian malaria, a non-native disease that is caused by a parasite (*Plasmodium relictum*) spread by the invasive southern house mosquito (*Culex quinquefasciatus*). Hawaiian honeycreepers have little resistance to avian malaria, and most cannot survive infection (Atkinson et al. 1995, LaPointe and Atkinson 2009). Until recently, honeycreepers were able to persist in high elevation forests where it is too cold for mosquitoes and the avian malaria parasite to reproduce. Recent climate changes have allowed mosquitoes and associated avian malaria to start invading these upper elevation forests on Maui, killing native forest birds in their last remaining locations. At least two endangered bird species on East Maui, kiwīkiu (Maui Parrotbill, *Pseudonestor xanthophrys*) and ‘ākohekohe (*Palmeria doeli*), are expected to become extinct within two to fifteen years if avian malaria is left unchecked (Mounce et al. 2018, Paxton et al. 2022). There are currently fewer than 200 kiwīkiu and fewer than 2,000 ‘ākohekohe persisting in the wild, all of which are located within the project area of this EA on East Maui (Judge et al. 2021). Both species have declined by more than 70 percent over the last two decades. Four additional Hawaiian honeycreepers also reside on East Maui: the threatened ‘i‘iwi (*Drepanis coccinea*), Maui ‘alauahio (only lives on Maui; *Paroreomyza montana*),

Hawai'i 'amakihi (*Chlorodrepanis virens*), and 'apapane (*Himatione sanguinea*). These species are also affected by avian malaria and addressed in this EA.

The NPS and DLNR propose to reduce native forest bird mortality from avian malaria by suppressing southern house mosquito populations on East Maui. These non-native invasive mosquitoes are the only insect that transmits avian malaria in this area. The proposed action consists of repeatedly releasing incompatible male southern house mosquitoes (hereafter "incompatible mosquitoes"), which would prevent mosquitoes within the project area from being able to reproduce. This approach employs the incompatible insect technique (IIT), which uses a naturally occurring bacteria called *Wolbachia* that is present in many insect species on Maui. When male mosquitoes with an incompatible strain of *Wolbachia* are introduced to a population of female mosquitoes, mating is unproductive, thereby suppressing mosquito populations (Atyame et al 2015). When releases are done repeatedly over time, they further suppress the mosquito population and, in turn, would suppress transmission of avian malaria.

In response to comments received during public scoping, the following are key points regarding mosquitoes and the proposed action:

1. Male mosquitoes do not bite animals or humans. This project would only release male mosquitoes.
2. *Wolbachia* is already present in many insects in Hawai'i, including the southern house mosquito populations present on Maui. This project would release only male mosquitoes with a different strain of *Wolbachia* bacteria to that occurring in southern house mosquitoes in East Maui.
3. *Wolbachia* bacteria cannot transfer between animal species or to humans. Similarly, it cannot transfer between male mosquitoes and female mosquitoes; mosquitoes can only inherit *Wolbachia* from their mother.
4. The southern house mosquito, like all mosquitoes in Hawai'i, is an invasive species on Maui. It occupies higher elevations and cooler environments than other species of mosquitoes found on Maui. Other mosquito species would not expand their ranges in response to elimination of southern house mosquitoes.
5. Southern house mosquitoes are not an important source of food for native bats, birds, or other insects in Hawai'i.
6. Neither southern house mosquitoes nor *Wolbachia* bacteria are new organisms to Maui; this project would not result in introduction of any new species to the island.
7. The proposed use of IIT does not include genetic engineering techniques which result in genetically modified organisms (GMOs).

PURPOSE OF AND NEED FOR ACTION

The purpose of the project is to substantially suppress or eliminate southern house mosquitoes and, thus, avian malaria in threatened and endangered forest bird populations on East Maui, thereby reducing extinction risks and contributing to the recovery of these species. To prevent the extinction of threatened and endangered forest birds on East Maui, timely management action needs to be taken to control avian malaria. The populations of two endangered Hawaiian forest birds, kiwikiu and 'ākohekohe, have decreased by more than 70 percent over the last 20 years, and population projections predict their extinction in the next two to ten years (Mounce et al. 2018, Paxton et al. 2022). The avian malaria parasite and the mosquitoes that spread avian malaria are unable to successfully reproduce in cold environments, thus these two honeycreepers have been able to persist in high elevation native forest habitat on East Maui. Recently, increasing temperatures associated with climate change are allowing mosquito populations and avian malaria to expand into these high elevation native forests where some of the last populations of these forest birds remain. This expansion is the primary cause of these endangered species' rapid decline and threat of extinction (Fortini et al. 2015, Mounce et al. 2018, Judge et al. 2021, Paxton et al. 2022).

PROJECT AREA

The NPS and DLNR identified the project area through a collaborative process, during which all public lands within much of the current and historic ranges of threatened and endangered forest birds on East Maui were evaluated for inclusion. The project area (**Figure 1**) includes areas downslope from many birds’ current ranges that may serve as high-density mosquito breeding grounds from which mosquitoes may move upward in elevation into native forest bird habitat. The upper elevation limit of the project area was defined by the boundary of the park along the north slope and Palikū Ridge between Pōhaku Pālaha and Kuiki, separating native forest from Haleakalā Crater. The lower limit of the project area, 1,969 feet above sea level, is the low elevation range of vulnerable native forest birds, such as the ‘apapane and ‘i‘iwi (Judge et al. 2019) except within the boundaries of the park in the lower Kīpahulu Valley and Ka‘apahu where the project area extends to sea level. The project area includes approximately 64,666 acres, including NPS land (12,042 acres), DLNR lands in forest reserves and natural area reserves (37,989 acres), adjacent lands privately managed in a conservation easement by TNC (8,606 acres), East Maui Irrigation Company, LLC (4,409 acres), Haleakala Ranch (393 acres), and Mahi Pono (1,227 acres) lands managed for conservation (**Table 1** and **Figure 1**).

TABLE 1: PROJECT AREA ACREAGE AND MANAGEMENT

Name	Management	Acres
Haleakalā National Park	NPS	12,042
Ko‘olau Forest Reserve	DLNR/DOFAW	15,179
Hāna Forest Reserve	DLNR/DOFAW	10,679
Hanawī Natural Area Reserve	DLNR/DOFAW	7,713
Kīpahulu Forest Reserve	DLNR/DOFAW	2,318
Makawao Forest Reserve	DLNR/DOFAW	2,100
Waikamoi Preserve (TNC)	TNC	8,606
East Maui Irrigation Company, LLC	Private	4,409
Mahi Pono	Private	1,227
Haleakala Ranch	Private	393
TOTAL		64,666

ISSUES AND IMPACT TOPICS ANALYZED IN THIS ENVIRONMENTAL ASSESSMENT

This EA analyzes environmental consequences associated with the implementation of the proposed action or the no-action alternative. Issues and impact topics address the following resources and values: threatened and endangered wildlife species and wildlife species of concern, threatened and endangered plant species and state plant species at risk, wilderness character, acoustic environment, and visitor use and experience. Numerous other issues and impact topics were considered but dismissed from further analysis for reasons specified in “Appendix B: Issues, Impact Topics, and Alternatives Dismissed from Detailed Analysis.”

The interdisciplinary team consulted with scientific experts and environmental planners from NPS, DLNR, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS), and U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) familiar with the native forest bird species and ecosystems of East Maui to determine which environmental issues would be carried forward for detailed analysis in the EA. The team also reviewed public scoping comments for additional insight on issues and impact topics relevant to this project. Details of the civic engagement and public scoping processes are available in Chapter 4 of this EA.

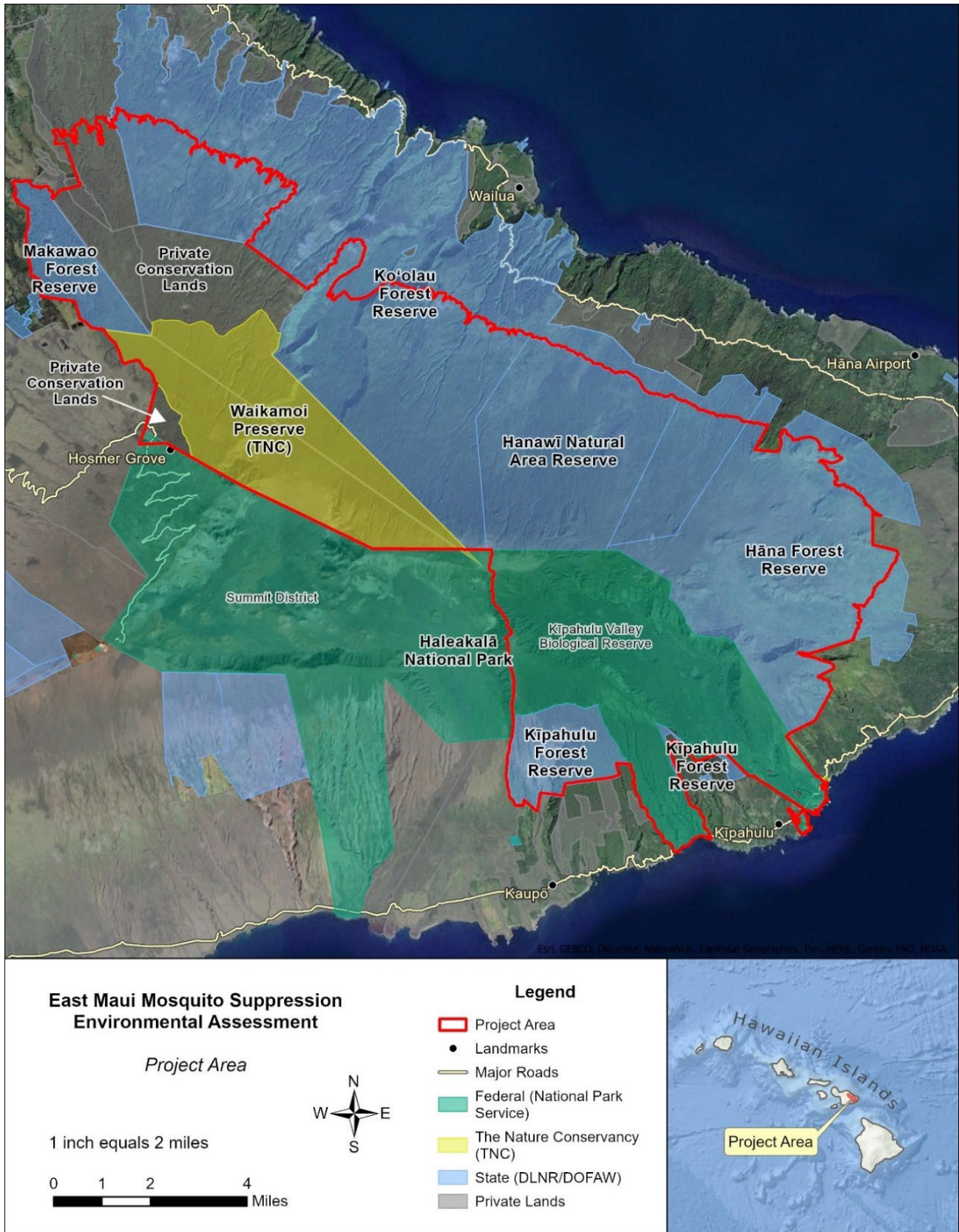


FIGURE 1: PROJECT AREA FOR RELEASE OF INCOMPATIBLE MOSQUITOES

CHAPTER 2: ALTERNATIVES

INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes alternatives for reducing mosquito populations and, thus, avian malaria transmission to threatened and endangered forest birds on East Maui, consistent with the purpose and need for action. Two alternatives are presented: the no-action alternative and the proposed action. Mitigation measures are included in the proposed action. Several other potential alternatives were considered and discussed during internal and public scoping but were dismissed from detailed analysis in this EA as described in “Appendix B: Issues, Impact Topics, and Alternatives Dismissed from Detailed Analysis.”

NO-ACTION

Under the no-action alternative, release of incompatible mosquitoes would not occur. Although ongoing conservation and other management activities would continue on East Maui (e.g., fencing, removal of non-native ungulates and predators, invasive plant control), native forest birds would continue to be adversely affected by their primary threat, avian malaria, because the mosquitoes that carry this disease would remain uncontrolled.

PROPOSED ACTION

The NPS and DLNR propose to reduce threatened and endangered forest bird mortality from avian malaria by suppressing mosquito populations on East Maui. The proposed action was developed in consideration of park and state statutory missions and responsibilities; environmental factors; preliminary impact analysis; Native Hawaiian consultation and public input; existing infrastructure (such as helibases, landing zones [LZs], camps, trails, fence lines, and roads); and input from agency personnel, technical experts, and the public. The proposed action consists of repeatedly releasing incompatible male mosquitoes to reduce the reproductive potential of mosquitoes in the project area. This approach employs IIT, which, as described in Chapter 1, uses a naturally occurring bacteria called *Wolbachia* that is present in the eggs and sperm of many insect species, including the southern house mosquito (Hilgenboecker et al. 2008, Bennett et al. 2012). When male mosquitoes with an incompatible strain of *Wolbachia* are introduced to a population of female mosquitoes, mating is unproductive, thereby suppressing mosquito populations (Atyame et al 2015). Releases under the proposed action must be conducted repeatedly over time to achieve and maintain significant suppression of the mosquito population, and like other similar mosquito suppression projects, this project has the potential to suppress the mosquito population by 90 percent or more (Beebe et al. 2021, Crawford et al. 2020, and Zheng et al. 2019). Monitoring mosquito populations would guide the frequency, number, and location of releases, and would need to continue for as long as the proposed action is implemented. The park would oversee implementation on federal lands and DLNR on state and private conservation lands or those managed by TNC.

Effective implementation of the proposed action would be dependent on the numbers and availability of lab-reared southern house mosquitoes that carry incompatible strains of *Wolbachia*. The proposed action would start with small scale on-the-ground or aerial releases of incompatible mosquitoes within the project area, where field teams would be able to monitor effectiveness of IIT implementation. The majority of the project area is inaccessible by ground, and thus would require uncrewed aircraft systems (i.e. drones) to implement large-scale mosquito releases throughout the project area. Releases via helicopter may be required as a short-term (up to two months), temporary release method if drones are not available. Mosquito release technologies would resemble those established for IIT (or related techniques) suppression projects of the yellow fever mosquito (*Aedes aegypti*), which have been successfully implemented in the United States and other parts of the world (Mains et al. 2016, Bouyer et al. 2020, Crawford et al. 2020, Moreira et al. 2009, Hoffman et al. 2011, Ritchie et al. 2014, Dutra et al. 2016). Releases would be expected to continue until southern house mosquito populations are significantly reduced and the status of threatened and endangered forest birds stabilizes, or until new mosquito population suppression techniques are developed. Releases may be conducted in a piecemeal fashion over the project area because of limitations in resources (e.g., availability of

drones, personnel, or incompatible mosquitoes). The details of the proposed action are described below and include descriptions of the project area, frequency, timing, mosquito release methodology, and monitoring techniques.

Mosquito Transport and Storage

Under the proposed action, incompatible mosquitoes would be reared in a sterile laboratory environment to ensure that they are free from invasive organisms, parasites, and diseases. The lab-reared incompatible mosquitoes may be derived from southern house mosquito eggs initially collected on Maui. The lab would likely be located at a U.S. mainland facility, at least at the outset of this project, and incompatible mosquitoes would be transported to Maui from the rearing facility in containers designed for transport and/or field release. Upon arrival on Maui and following agricultural inspection, the incompatible mosquitoes would be held by a permitted importer in a climate-controlled environment, then promptly distributed by NPS or DLNR staff and designated agents. The timing of release following shipment is critical for success as the survivorship, and thus time to find a mate, of the incompatible mosquitoes is influenced by the length of time held in transport containers. During implementation, mosquitoes may be released directly from drones or handheld containers, or from small biodegradable packages that could be dispersed by drones or helicopters (as discussed in the following sections).

Number of Mosquitoes to be Released

As previously mentioned, the goal of the proposed action is to dramatically reduce the distribution and abundance of the mosquito population within the project area. Many previous successful IIT projects resulted in mosquito population declines of 90 percent or more (Beebe et al. 2021, Crawford et al. 2020, and Zheng et al. 2019). A similar decline would ensure that there would be very few remaining mosquitoes capable of biting and infecting threatened or endangered forest birds with avian malaria. The number of incompatible mosquitoes per release would be based on the local population densities of wild mosquitoes. Population densities of mosquitoes are dependent on precipitation patterns, habitat availability, and temperature. Adults, eggs, and larvae develop faster and in higher densities within warmer low-elevation areas (Ahumada et al. 2004). Estimates range from an abundance of approximately 600 mosquitoes per acre near sea level on Hawai‘i Island where monthly temperatures average 70–75° F, to an abundance of five mosquitoes per acre at an elevation of approximately 4,000 feet where temperatures average 55–60° F (Samuel et al. 2011, Giambelluca et al. 2014). Estimates assume an equal sex ratio of males to females; therefore, the number of prescribed incompatible mosquitoes released would be based upon approximately one-half of the estimated mosquito population. Incompatible males would need to outcompete wild males; thus, it is desirable to release males in such numbers as to “overflow” the wild males. Statistical models suggest that 10 to 20 incompatible males for every wild male mosquito in the population may be required to achieve population suppression (McClure 2020). Based on current estimates, we expect to release between 50 and 6,000 incompatible mosquitoes per acre per treatment (which would occur up to twice per week) depending on elevation and local temperature and capture data gathered during monitoring. The quantity of incompatible mosquitoes released for this project would likely be less than other IIT mosquito projects that have occurred in urban areas throughout the world (involving yellow fever mosquitoes) because the southern house mosquito population density in East Maui is believed to be lower than yellow fever mosquito population densities in these urban areas. In addition, the uppermost elevations in the project area may have even fewer mosquitoes than estimated by Samuel et al. (2011) and population suppression in these areas may only require infrequent releases of incompatible mosquitoes. Alternatively, suppression at lower elevations may be sufficient to reduce or eliminate the threat of disease at the higher elevations by eliminating the individuals that could disperse uphill.

Release Locations and Spacing

The project team used all available data to estimate the distribution of mosquitoes within the project area. The current range of kiwiku and ‘ākohekohe (Judge et al. 2021) and mosquito movements were applied to identify areas where mosquitoes might occur and spread disease. This information was also used to determine the locations to release mosquitoes. Based on past research, southern house mosquitoes are estimated to travel (disperse) approximately 650 feet in a 24-hour period (LaPointe 2008); thus, incompatible males would have the highest probability of finding a female and mating during the first day of release when locations are spaced 1,300 feet apart. Based on the estimated

dispersal of mosquitoes into the range of threatened and endangered birds, a total of 1,389 proposed release locations were identified within the center of the project area (**Figure 2**). The area encompassing these 1,389 release locations is hereafter referred to as the “core area.” The number of release locations, based on 1300-foot spacing within the core area, within each land management area are included in **Table 2**. The core area may expand, contract, or shift within the project area. Release spacing would be determined through a series of trials within the core area and may differ from those estimated here. This spacing would dictate the total number of release locations. Releases would be conducted systematically within each management area (the park, state forest and natural area reserves, TNC’s Waikamoi Preserve, and private conservation lands), potentially by a variety of tools simultaneously (release methods are described in the following sections).

TABLE 2: MOSQUITO RELEASE LOCATIONS PER MANAGEMENT UNIT IN THE PROPOSED PROJECT AREA.

Land Manager and Reserve	Area (acres)	% Of Project Area	Release Locations
Hawai’i Dept. of Land and Natural Resources			
Hāna Forest Reserve	9,117	14.1%	262
Hanawā Natural Area Reserve	6,072	9.4%	174
Kīpahulu Forest Reserve	1,953	3%	51
Ko’olau Forest Reserve	11,668	18%	340
Makawao Forest Reserve	1,986	3.1%	59
National Park Service			
Haleakalā National Park	7,099	11%	211
Private			
East Maui Irrigation, LLC	3,927	6%	112
Haleakala Ranch Company	15	<0.1%	0
Mahi Pono	1,226	1.9%	36
The Nature Conservancy			
Waikamoi Preserve	5,101	7.8%	144
Grand Total	48,164	74.5% *	1,389

Note: Release locations are spaced 1,300 feet apart. The core area is smaller than the project area because the distribution of mosquitoes and range of native forest birds do not overlap (in all months of the year) in some high-elevation areas.

* At this time, 74.5% of the project area represents the core area between 2,200 and 4,300 feet where incompatible mosquito releases would be most important (as described in earlier sections).

Frequency and Timing of Release

Incompatible mosquito releases could occur throughout the project area during all seasons. However, releases would likely occur across the largest portion of the project area in the summer and fall months when mosquito populations in Hawai’i peak (LaPointe 2000; Gaudioso-Levita et al. 2005; Warren et al. 2020). These are months when the temperatures are suitable for avian malaria transmission within the greatest elevation extent, including areas above 4,300 feet in elevation (where most threatened and endangered birds currently live and breed). Incompatible mosquito releases may be reduced during the cooler spring and winter months when the abundance of mosquitoes at high elevations is thought to be reduced. The breeding season of most native forest birds peaks during the colder months from December through April (Berlin and Vangelder 2020, Fancy and Ralph 2020a,b, Simon et al. 2020), when incompatible mosquito releases may be curtailed at higher elevations due to temperature (and low mosquito density). Limited disturbance from release efforts to breeding forest birds is expected during this time. Concurrent monitoring would help identify seasonal fluctuations in mosquito populations and help guide the release strategy. Implementation may also be limited by inclement weather conditions and availability of mosquitoes.

To achieve the greatest possible reduction in the mosquito population, incompatible mosquitoes would be released at a maximum of twice per week per release location and potentially less frequently as wild mosquito population suppression is achieved over time. Release frequency would be determined by initial trials to determine longevity and dispersal of the incompatible males. The rate of release would be determined by the length of time the incompatible males survive at sufficient densities after release. The frequency of releases may also be reduced if there are advances in technologies for transporting mosquitoes (including lab-rearing in Hawai‘i) or releases, both of which could reduce mortality and improve longevity and competitiveness (the ability of incompatible male mosquitoes to compete with wild male mosquitoes for breeding). The release locations shown in **Figure 2**, each spaced 1,300 feet apart, have distinct temperature and precipitation characteristics because of elevation, topography, and aspect. Low elevation areas (red release locations) would require releases throughout the year, while high elevation areas (blue release locations) may require less frequent releases primarily during summer months. Higher frequency release locations (red) are in areas with temperatures that are conducive to year-round reproduction of mosquitoes and the avian malaria parasite (in infected mosquitoes). Medium frequency (orange) and low frequency (blue) release locations correspond to areas with lower average monthly temperatures and reduced distribution of mosquitoes and avian malaria during cooler months, typically from December through April. The frequency and number of incompatible mosquitoes released could decrease over time depending on the project’s success in suppressing the mosquito population.

Release Methods

Mosquito releases would be primarily conducted via drones. If there are obstacles to using drones for aerial releases in the core area, NPS and DLNR would release incompatible mosquitoes from helicopters over the short term (up to two months), either from a release device attached to the belly of a helicopter or from a long cable affixed with a device that could allow release of mosquitoes closer to the forest canopy or floor (described below). It is expected that limited pedestrian releases and monitoring would be conducted simultaneously with broadscale aerial releases.

Drone Release

Drones would allow for efficient incompatible mosquito releases throughout the core area and are considerably safer, less expensive, and quieter than helicopters. This method has been successfully used elsewhere for other mosquito control projects (Virginio et al. 2018, Bouyer et al. 2020). Although the specific mosquito release mechanism is still under development, it is expected that it will be available by the time the project is ready for implementation. It has also been assumed that drones would be flown from “front country” locations accessible by major roads and that no helicopter use would be required to transport drone operation crews into the remote or ground-inaccessible “backcountry” areas.

Drones would operate somewhat automatically (monitored by an operator), flying a prescribed route and releasing incompatible mosquitoes at the pre-determined release locations in the core area (**Figure 2**). It is estimated that drones would fly approximately 50–100 feet above the tree canopy during mosquito releases but no higher than 500 feet above ground level (AGL) when ferrying between release locations and the operator. Larger areas would require multiple days to conduct releases (e.g., Ko‘olau Forest Reserve), while smaller areas (e.g., Kīpahulu Forest Reserve) may only require a few hours for each aerial release. The drone operator would ensure that the drone and release mechanism are operating correctly and safely during each flight. Incompatible mosquitoes would likely be released in small biodegradable packages designed to open upon contact with the canopy or forest floor.

The drone model(s) to be used has yet to be determined and would depend on a host of factors including environmental conditions and agency approvals. The choice of drone model affects the release rate as different models have varying flight speed capabilities and battery capacities. Available convertible fixed wing/multirotor drone models that could be used for this project can fly approximately 15 minutes in multirotor mode or 90 minutes during fixed wing mode before battery life is expended with a maximum payload (carrying weight). The flight speeds possible during releases of incompatible mosquitoes are also dependent on drone model and weather conditions (e.g., wind speed) as well as optimal speeds for the release mechanism, which are still to be determined. Estimates provided are based on a flight

speed of 22 mph (following Bouyer et al. 2020) during mosquito releases and 62 miles per hour while in fixed wing mode when ferrying to and from release locations and the drone operator.

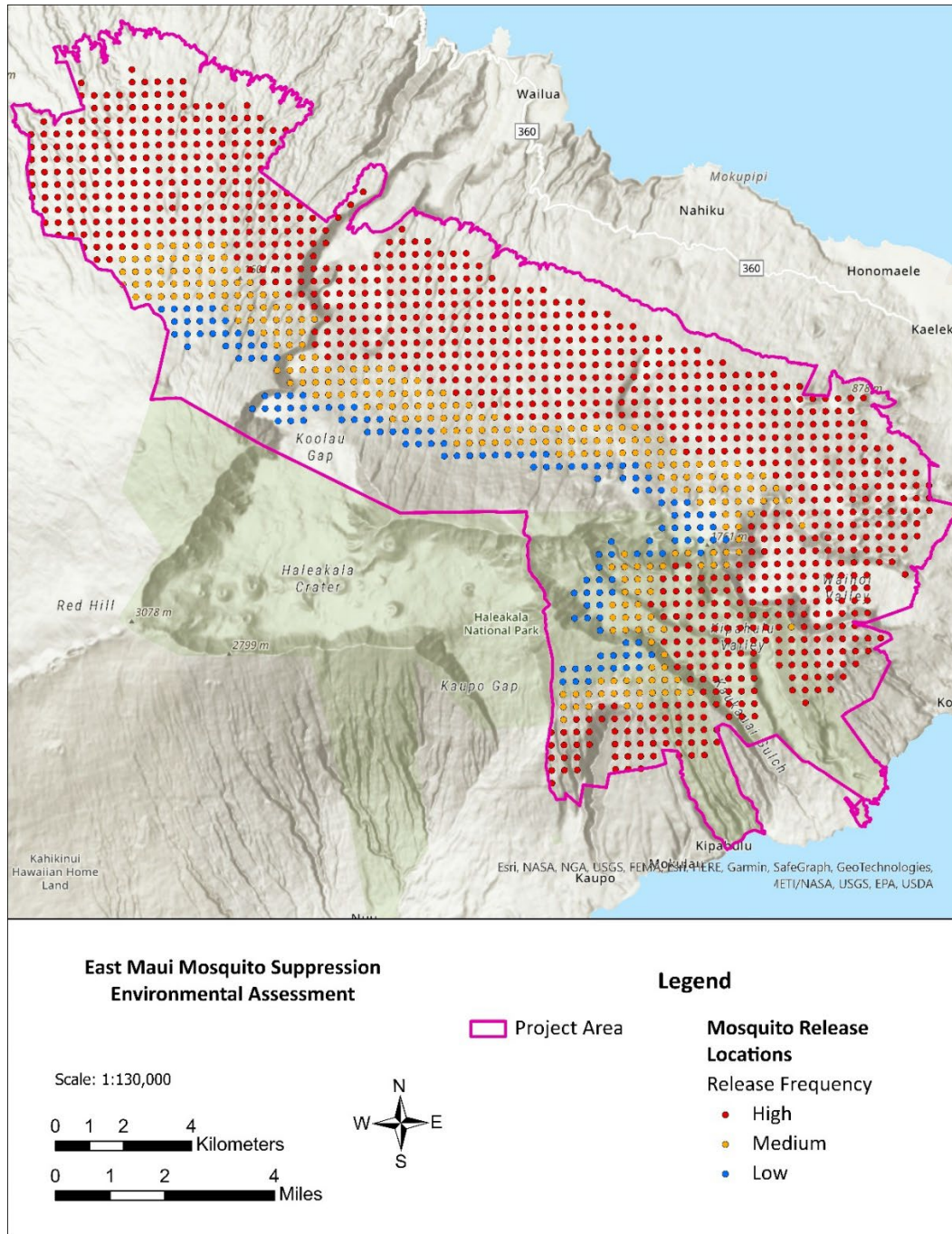


FIGURE 2: RELEASE LOCATIONS¹, SPACED 1,300 FEET APART, WITHIN THE PROJECT AREA BETWEEN 2,300 AND 6,000 FEET IN ELEVATION.

¹ Release frequency was determined by seasonal temperature patterns where warmer low elevation areas (red) may require releases throughout the year, while high elevation areas (blue) would only require releases during warmer summer months.

Proposed release locations would be spaced 1,300 feet apart, so a drone flying at 22 mph would be able to release incompatible mosquitoes at 24 release locations in a 15-minute period. At 62 miles per hour, the ferry times for the

various parts of the core area vary widely. For example, a drone would only need to travel for approximately 1.5 minutes to reach some release locations in Makawao Forest Reserve but would need more than 5 minutes to reach certain areas of Hanawā Natural Area Reserve and Hāna Forest Reserve from a drone operator located in the front country. **Figure 3** provides a depiction of the drone launch locations (temporary helibases) and the general directions that the drones could fly into the core area to reach release locations. With an estimated maximum of 6 hours of release time possible per day, 576 release locations could be reached per day by one drone, based on the flight assumptions (e.g., speed, battery life) described above. The drone would likely spend 15 seconds or less hovering over each mosquito release location; it may be possible that drones would be able to release without pausing. A “treatment” is defined as releasing incompatible mosquitoes at all release locations within the entire core area. At least two drones would need to be working simultaneously each week to achieve two complete treatments per week in the core area. However, as described in the previous sections, the number of release locations could vary based on release location spacing and/or because of seasonal temperature trends, which can be simplified into “warm months” and “cold months.” Additionally, the number of release locations planned for a given treatment may be less than what is estimated for the entire core area based on limited available resources.

Table 3 illustrates the expected number of drone flight hours and total flights, both per week and for the entire core area, in both cold (December–April) and warm months (May–November). Note that the number of release locations during cold months is a minimum estimate and numbers of locations could increase incrementally over the course of each year to include the entire core area under unusually warm climatic conditions. The estimates presented in **Table 3** are for the entire core area. Multiple drones operating simultaneously would greatly decrease the number of total flying days. The estimates in **Table 3** are based on a convertible fixed wing/multicopter drone type and other drone models may be available that have increased speed, payload, and battery capacity which would alter flight estimates provided in the table.

TABLE 3. ESTIMATED NUMBER OF DRONE FLIGHT HOURS AND ROUND-TRIP FLIGHTS PER TREATMENT (RELEASING MOSQUITOES AT EACH LOCATION) AND PER WEEK (ASSUMING 2 TREATMENTS PER WEEK) PER LAND MANAGER.

<i>Land Manager</i>	Per Treatment				Per Week			
	warm months		cold months		warm months		cold months	
	hrs	flights	hrs	flights	hrs	flights	hrs	flights
Hawai'i Dept. of Land and Natural Resources	23.2	43	18.2	35	46.5	87	36.4	70
National Park Service	5.5	10	2.9	6	11.0	21	5.9	11
Private	3.4	7	3.0	6	6.7	14	6.1	12
The Nature Conservancy	3.6	7	0.3	1	7.3	14	0.6	1
TOTAL	36	67	24	48	72	134	49	94

Note: Presented in this table are estimated flight information for lower elevations only (2000–4300 ft) during colder months (December–April) when releases at higher elevations are not expected to be needed (“cold months”) and all elevations (2000–5600 ft) within the core area where releases are expected to be needed during warmer months. These elevations are based on thermal limits of the malaria parasite (>55° F) below which transmission from mosquitoes is limited (Ahumada et al. 2004).

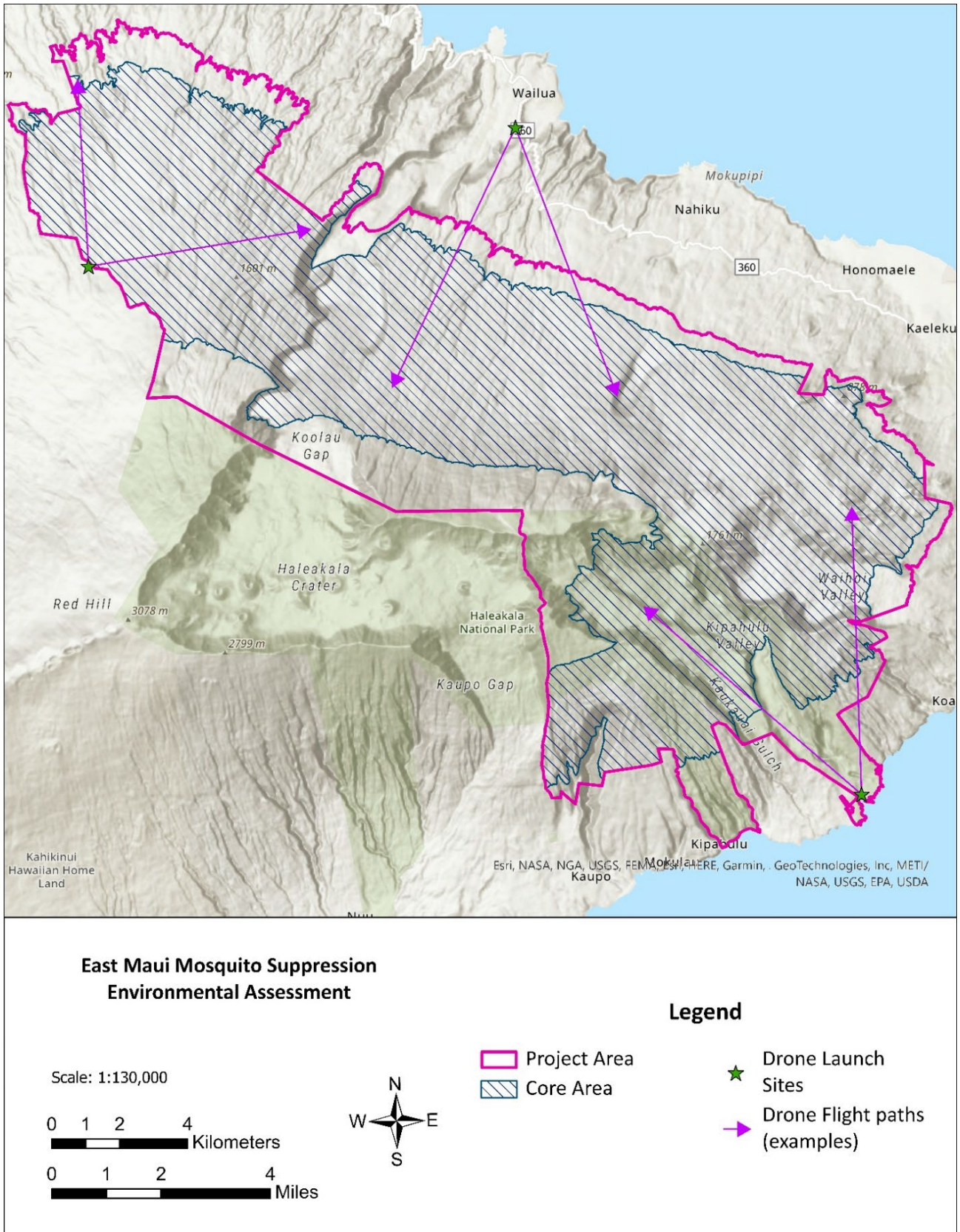


FIGURE 3: EXAMPLE DRONE FLIGHT PATHS FROM PRIMARY LAUNCH LOCATIONS INTO THE CORE AREA.

Helicopter Longline Release

Helicopters are an essential tool for natural resource management on East Maui. Because of the steep topography and dense vegetation in the project area, helicopters are invaluable for transporting personnel and equipment to remote areas. Given the noise and visual impacts, logistics, and financial requirements of helicopters, the use of helicopters for releasing incompatible mosquitoes is proposed as a short-term (up to two months), temporary release method if drone releases are unavailable. In that event, helicopters could release incompatible mosquitoes for up to two months in management units where population suppression can be sustained.

Several projects worldwide have used helicopters to release sterile insects to control or eradicate agricultural pests (Dyck et al. 2021), and several projects on Maui have had success controlling pests and weeds from devices attached to longlines (Tuttle et al. 2008). The helicopter, operated by a pilot and carrying one spotter (unless the load calculation precludes the weight of a passenger), would be equipped with an approximately 50–100-foot longline attached to the belly hook of the helicopter. Longlines are heavy-duty steel cables that can be attached to the underside of a helicopter. This type of cable allows the helicopter to place loads in areas where the helicopter could not safely land or distribute a load while hovering above the surface.

With an approximately 50-foot tree canopy, a 50–100-foot longline, and a 50-foot buffer for safety, the helicopter would fly approximately 150–200 feet AGL while releasing mosquitoes above the tree canopy. A release mechanism would be attached to the end of the longline, and mosquito releases may be triggered remotely by the pilot or spotter. While the detailed design for longline release of mosquitoes is not yet known, the method is considered feasible based on current longline operations on federal and state lands in Hawai‘i. On East Maui, the NPS and DLNR regularly conduct helicopter herbicide applications using longlines to control high priority invasive plants and animals. These methods would be adapted to mosquito releases within the core area, and have been used to estimate flight speed, flight times, and specific logistics for suppression of mosquito populations on East Maui.

During a typical operation, it is expected that the helicopter would fly at a speed of 69 miles per hour and approximately 500–2000 feet AGL from the main heliport (Kahului Airport, OGG) to a designated temporary helibase (20–90 miles; 10–25 minutes) where the longline and release mechanism would be attached by ground teams. The helicopter would then fly at a slower speed with the longline to the core area (approximately 22 miles per hour) for releases. The helicopter could complete 68–74 release locations per hour and 137–148 release locations per flight before refueling (based on the spacing assumptions previously described for drones). The helicopter could complete three flights per day. Thus, one day of helicopter flights could consist of six hours of flying covering 412–443 release locations. The helicopter would likely spend 15 seconds or less hovering over each mosquito release location. Here we assume repeat visits to any given area would not likely occur more than twice per week, based on logistic constraints, but would be refined over time based on monitoring of mosquito populations.

Table 4 describes the estimated number of helicopter flights (including round trip to and from the main heliport [OGG] and round trip from a front country launch location and release area) and number of flight hours required to release mosquitoes via helicopter longline throughout the entire core area. These estimates are further broken down into warm and cold months. **Table 4** also estimates the number of helicopter flights and flight hours per month based on the assumption that releases would be possible twice per month. Treatment estimates are multiplied by two to reflect two treatments per month. As mentioned earlier, it should be noted that the use of helicopters for releasing incompatible mosquitoes is proposed as a short-term (up to two months), temporary release method if drone releases are unavailable.

TABLE 4. ESTIMATED NUMBER OF HELICOPTER FLIGHT HOURS AND ROUND-TRIP FLIGHTS PER TREATMENT (RELEASING MOSQUITOES AT EACH LOCATION) AND PER MONTH (ASSUMING 2 TREATMENTS PER MONTH) PER LAND MANAGER AS A SHORT-TERM, TEMPORARY MEASURE.

<i>Land Manager</i>	Per Treatment				Per Month			
	warm months		cold months		warm months		cold months	
	hrs	flights	hrs	flights	hrs	flights	hrs	flights
Hawai'i Dept. of Land and Natural Resources	12.4	6.2	10.1	5.0	24.9	12.4	20.2	10.1
National Park Service	3.1	1.5	1.7	0.9	6.1	3.1	3.4	1.7
Private	2.0	1.0	1.8	0.9	4.0	2.0	3.6	1.8
The Nature Conservancy	2.0	1.0	0.2	0.1	3.9	2.0	0.4	0.2
TOTAL	20	10	14	7	39	20	28	14

Note: Presented in the above table are estimated flight information for lower elevations only (2000–4300 ft) during colder months (December–April) when releases at higher elevations are not expected to be needed (“cold months”) and all elevations (2000–5600 ft) within the core where releases are expected to be needed during warmer months. These elevations are based on thermal limits of the malaria parasite (>55° F) below which transmission from mosquitoes is limited.

Pedestrian Mosquito Release

Pedestrian release is not expected to be a primary release method as it is much less efficient than aerial release methods and it is only possible in limited areas within the project area. Under this method, pedestrian teams would receive helicopter deliveries and then distribute mosquitoes to the release locations and conduct concurrent mosquito monitoring. Pedestrian releases would involve field teams walking the terrain on foot, using existing management trails and fence lines, as well as camping at established remote camps or helicopter LZs if necessary. Teams may spend several days hiking and releasing mosquitoes at designated release locations every 1,300 feet along existing management trails. The number of release locations that can be accessed would be determined by the terrain and availability of management trails at each location. Some non-mechanized trail clearing and re-flagging would be required by NPS or DLNR staff in some areas, with generally more effort required at the lower elevation locations where brushy vegetation is thicker and encroaches on trails and fence lines more frequently. As such, trail maintenance may take more effort per release location at the lower elevation locations. Protocols would be followed to prevent invasive weed dispersal, particularly from lower elevation areas to higher-elevation areas, including sanitation procedures and limiting all movement between camps (either hiking or successive trips) from only higher to lower elevations.

Pedestrian mosquito release, especially at remote sites, would likely be primarily for necessary field trials because it can be implemented immediately and would allow for simultaneous monitoring. Consistent pedestrian release is only possible in portions of Makawao Forest Reserve and Waikamoi Preserve. Although pedestrian releases could occur throughout the year in Makawao Forest Reserve and Waikamoi Preserve, pedestrian releases may only be possible within Haleakalā National Park, Hanawī Natural Area Reserve, and other remote sites on a quarterly basis simultaneous with ground-based mosquito monitoring. A helicopter would be required to transport crews into the field to reach LZs near monitoring and release locations in Haleakalā National Park and Hanawī Natural Area Reserve, and the frequency and duration of these helicopter flights is described in the following section, “Mosquito Monitoring.”

Mosquito Monitoring

Field teams would conduct a variety of monitoring activities to measure the effectiveness of the proposed action. Field teams would trap mosquitoes in release areas to determine relative abundance of the mosquito population, dispersal distance of incompatible mosquitoes, and estimated hatch success. Field teams would place traps along existing trails and fence lines, collect mosquitoes from traps, and preserve the captured mosquitoes for additional testing, e.g., for absence or presence of avian malaria. As a result of monitoring, the NPS and DLNR would be able to prioritize future

releases, optimize the number and location of incompatible mosquitoes, improve mosquito release methods, and minimize costs for project implementation. Sustained and regular mosquito trapping would be necessary to understand the proposed action’s effectiveness and track seasonal fluctuations in population densities.

Monitoring would likely occur quarterly (four times/year). Baseline monitoring data are available from areas of Kīpahulu Valley, TNC’s Waikamoi Preserve, and Hanawī Natural Area Reserve (Aruch et al. 2007, MFBRP unpublished), and monitoring would be continued at these locations. Monitoring would be more frequent at the start of the project and would vary depending on the availability of incompatible mosquitoes and personnel. It is assumed that four locations would be selected on state lands (e.g., two within Hanawī Natural Area Reserve and two within Forest Reserves), two locations within the park (within the Kīpahulu Valley Biological Reserve), and two locations within TNC’s Waikamoi Preserve. Field teams at the five remote monitoring locations would need to use portable generators to charge the batteries in the mosquito traps.

Mosquito monitoring would involve field teams camping at established remote shelters or helicopter LZs for overnight stays for approximately one week at a time. Where needed, a helicopter would deliver field teams to established LZs within Haleakalā National Park, TNC’s Waikamoi Preserve, Hanawī Natural Area Reserve, or other state reserves. **Table 5** estimates helicopter flight hours required to transport teams in and out of the field for necessary mosquito population monitoring. **Figure 4** shows existing helicopter infrastructure that includes the main heliport at Kahului Airport (OGG) and several LZs throughout the project area.

TABLE 5. ESTIMATED HELICOPTER FLIGHT HOURS TO TRANSPORT MONITORING TEAMS

<i>Land Manager</i>	Helicopter Flight Hours	
	per quarter	per year
	hrs	hrs
Hawai’i Dept. of Land and Natural Resources	7	28
National Park Service	7	28
The Nature Conservancy	3.5	14
TOTAL	17.5	70

Note: The flight estimates in this table are based on the need to reach 2 monitoring locations within DLNR, 2 within the park, and 1 within TNC Waikamoi Preserve with a helicopter. Additional monitoring may be conducted but helicopter assistance may not be required. Flights hours are estimated for one visit per location quarterly (4 × per year).

Vehicle Support

Where access roads exist (shown in **Figure 5**), motorized vehicles (trucks or SUVs) would be used to transport field teams and equipment for ground-based monitoring and pedestrian releases. Vehicles would be used in the project area on a quarterly basis to support monitoring and likely more frequently to support pedestrian mosquito releases. Vehicles would be used on existing roads that are currently used and maintained by their respective landowners for maintenance, management, and public recreation. None of these existing roads are within designated wilderness. During monitoring, vehicles would drive along the Flume Road shown (in brown) on **Figure 5** for up to 4 hours per day for 7 consecutive days on a quarterly basis to reach three monitoring locations in Makawao Forest Reserve and TNC’s Waikamoi Preserve. Vehicles would drive along the same road once or twice weekly for up to 2 hours per day when or if pedestrian mosquito releases are occurring (for perhaps 50-100 locations in Makawao Forest Reserve and TNC’s Waikamoi Preserve). This road crosses Makawao Forest Reserve and private conservation lands but provides pedestrian access to TNC’s Waikamoi Preserve.

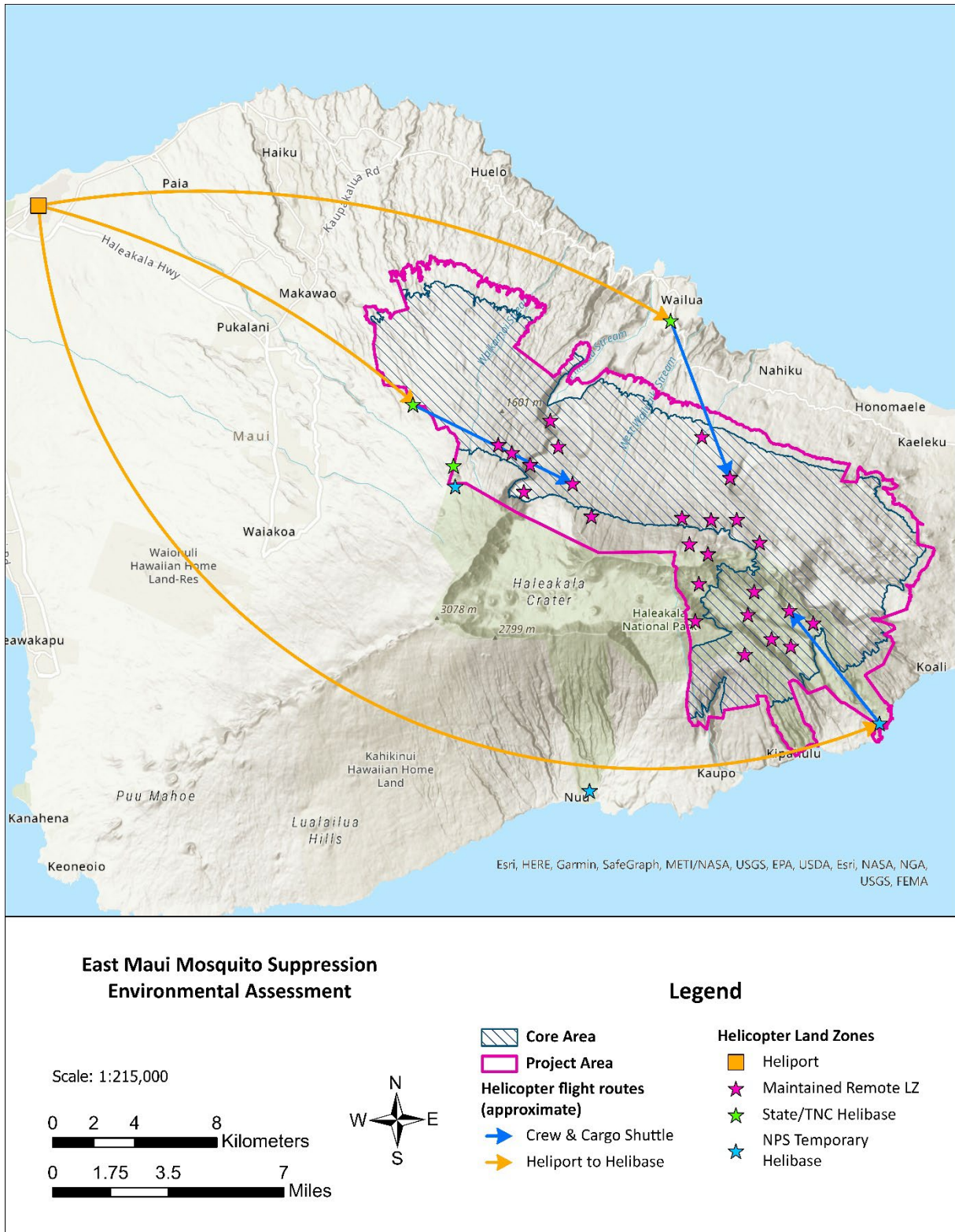


FIGURE 4: EXAMPLE FLIGHT PATHS¹ FROM THE HELIPORT TO HELIBASES (ORANGE) AND THEN ON TO REMOTE LANDING ZONES (BLUE).

¹ Many of the landing zones without arrows would also be used during project implementation but this map has been provided to show several example scenarios for various flight paths from the heliport to helibases and then to remote landing zones.

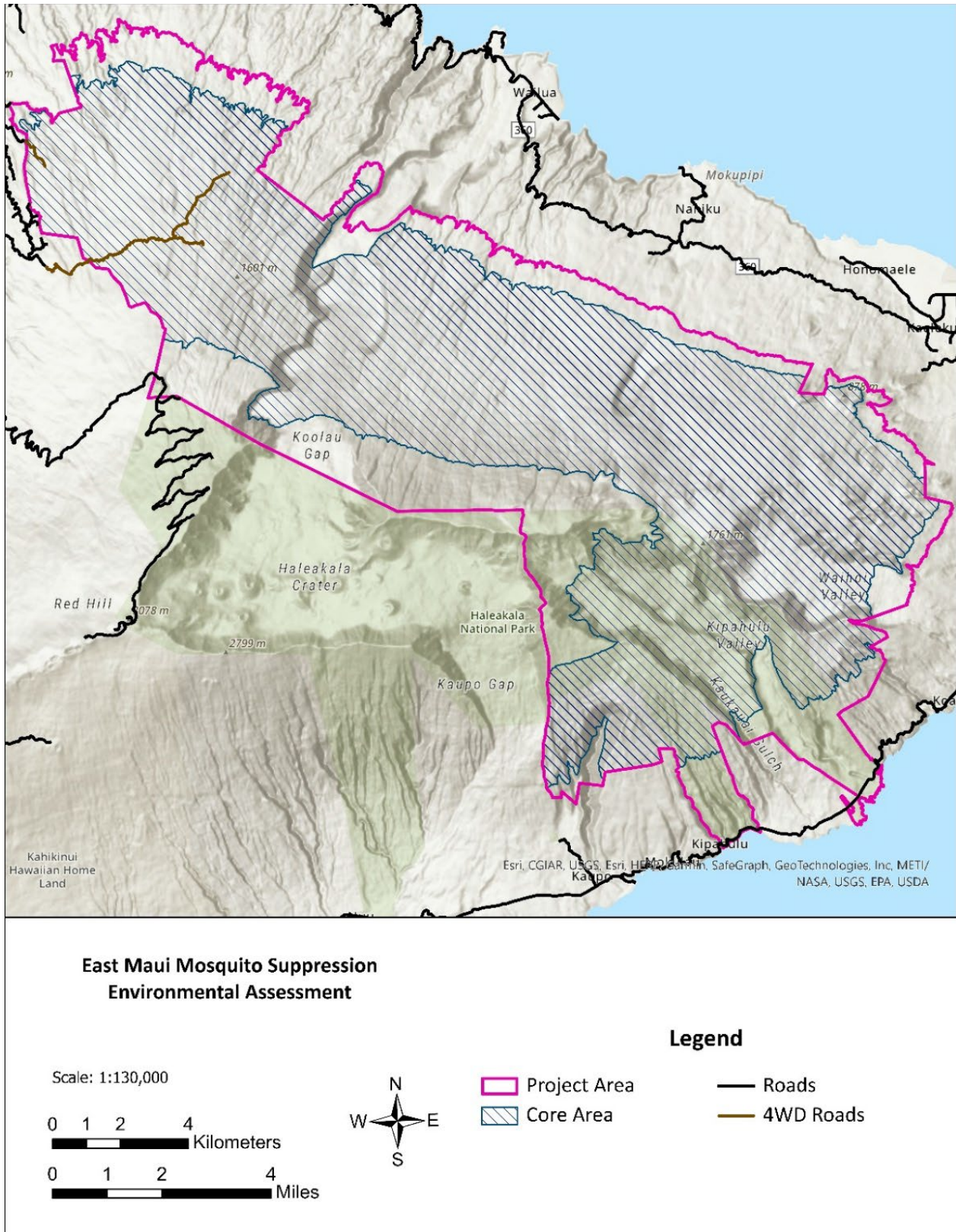


FIGURE 5: ROAD ACCESS TO THE PROJECT AREA

Required Permits and Approvals

To implement the proposed action as described, the NPS expects to obtain approval from the Department of the Interior to operate drones in the park. Currently, the state can use drones on state Forest and Natural Area Reserves and TNC within Waikamoi Preserve if compliant with the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) regulations. Certification by the FAA would be required for drone use in all areas, and all drone and helicopter flights would comply with all FAA rules and regulations.

In June 2022, the State of Hawai‘i Board of Agriculture approved the addition of the southern house mosquito to the Chapter 4-71, Hawai‘i Administrative Rules (HAR) “Non-Domestic Animal Import Rules” list of restricted animals (Part A) and set permit conditions to allow the importation and field release of male southern house mosquitoes inoculated with incompatible strains of *Wolbachia* bacteria. In October 2022, the Hawai‘i Department of Agriculture (HDOA), Plant Quarantine Branch issued a permit to DLNR to allow for the import of southern house mosquitoes for mosquito control projects; however, the permit would need to be amended for broad-scale implementation of releases as part of this project. The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) regulates incompatible mosquitoes as biopesticide products. An EPA Section 18 application has been prepared for submittal by the HDOA, in collaboration with USFWS and DLNR, to request an emergency exemption from Section 3 pesticide registration, given the imminent extinction risks to threatened and endangered forest bird species. If approved, the Section 18 process would result in temporary product registration and a label which identifies appropriate product use, application rates, restrictions, safety, and quality control requirements. If control projects are initiated for the southern house mosquito, HDOA, DLNR and USFWS would then collect and share post-application monitoring data with the EPA to contribute towards a formal Section 3 pesticide registration package.

The release of incompatible mosquitoes for landscape scale control of the southern house mosquito on state lands is contingent on the results of the impact analysis in this EA. However, in June 2022, DLNR filed an exemption notice regarding the preparation of an environmental assessment under the authority of Chapter 343, Hawai‘i Revised Statutes (HRS) and Section 11-200.1-17, HAR, to conduct limited import of male mosquitoes for preliminary transport trials and mark release recapture studies. The Chairperson of the DLNR has the authority to declare exempt from the preparation of an environmental assessment those department actions that are included in the DLNR exemption list when the Board of Land and Natural Resources has delegated authority to conduct those actions. The exemption notice cited General Exemption Type 5 “Basic data collection, research, experimental management and resource and infrastructure testing and evaluation activities that do not result in a serious or major disturbance to an environmental resource” (DLNR exemption list November 10, 2020).

Mitigation Measures and Best Management Practices

Table 6 summarizes general best management practices that would be implemented for this project to avoid and minimize potential impacts.

TABLE 6: GENERAL BEST MANAGEMENT PRACTICES INCLUDED IN THE PROPOSED ACTION

Resource Mitigation Measures	
Wildland Fire	Especially in dry areas, personnel would take all precautions to avoid igniting wildland fires. Vehicles would not be left to idle, especially in tall grass. Vegetation within LZs would be maintained to avoid possible ignition by helicopters. Personnel would follow all applicable DLNR and NPS regulations in the project area that includes but is not limited to no open fires and closed cooking devices.
	Helicopters would use appropriate mufflers to minimize fire potential.

Resource Mitigation Measures	
	<p>NPS and DLNR staff regularly conduct on-site measurements of temperature, humidity, and wind to determine fire risk. If the level is moderate-high, fire teams would warn staff and restrict or eliminate activity in high-fire risk areas. Water tanks would be maintained and could provide a water source for suppression if needed.</p> <p>Although not anticipated, the local fire department, in coordination with NPS and DLNR, would respond to and extinguish potential fires ignited by project activities as soon as possible.</p>
Vegetation	<p>Transport of weeds by equipment, including helicopters, would be mitigated by strictly following NPS and DLNR sanitation protocols. Specifically, concerns regarding the spread of invasive weeds would dictate the order of which LZs are accessed, who is sent to each LZ and when. Project personnel would implement and follow the USFWS “<i>Avoidance, Minimization, and Conservation Measures for listed plants in the Pacific Islands</i>” (revised September 2020; Appendix D), the USFWS January 20, 2022, letter addressed to the park regarding this project (Appendix D), and the [<i>Pacific Islands Fish and Wildlife Office</i>] PIFWO <i>Invasive Species Biosecurity Protocol</i> (USFWS 2022a; Appendix D). Personnel would follow DLNR and NPS Rapid ‘Ōhi‘a Death sanitation protocols.</p>
Wildlife	<p>NPS and DLNR staff would observe native wildlife while conducting mosquito suppression and monitoring activities. If noise-producing activities appear to be adversely affecting native wildlife, the park or DLNR wildlife biologists would be consulted as to what, if any, restrictions would be implemented. Restrictions could include re-routing, delaying, or modifying flight times or motor vehicle use. No flights (either drone or helicopter) would occur between “civil sunset” and “civil sunrise.”</p>
Special Status Plant Species	<p>NPS and DLNR personnel and contractors working in the area would be required to demonstrate the ability to identify special status plants (i.e. federally- and state-listed plants and plant species at risk) and would be trained on how to avoid adverse impacts to them. Project personnel would implement and follow the USFWS “<i>Avoidance, Minimization, and Conservation Measures for listed plants in the Pacific Islands</i>” (revised September 2020; Appendix D), the PIFWO <i>Invasive Species Biosecurity Protocol</i> (USFWS 2022a; Appendix D), and the mitigation measures provided in the USFWS January 20, 2022, letter addressed to the park regarding this project (Appendix D). The boundary of the area occupied by listed plants and plant species at risk would be marked with flagging by a surveyor and these areas would be avoided. All project personnel would be provided with maps showing the locations of designated critical habitat areas and trained on how to avoid unnecessary adverse impacts within designated critical habitat, including disturbance to native and special status plant species and activities that could accelerate erosion. This sensitive information (i.e. localities of listed plants) would be protected and not shared outside of the personnel assigned to this project.</p>
Special Status Wildlife Species	<p>All team members working on the project would be trained in special status wildlife species identification and ways to minimize impacts to listed species. This information would include maps showing locations of all known nesting or roosting sites. This sensitive information would be protected and not shared outside of the personnel assigned to this project. Project personnel would implement and follow the USFWS “<i>Animal Avoidance and Minimization Measures</i>” for listed wildlife in the Pacific Islands (February 2022; summarized in Table 7; Appendix D), the “<i>PIFWO Invasive Species Biosecurity Protocol</i>” (Appendix D), and the mitigation measures provided in the USFWS January 20, 2022, letter addressed to the park regarding this project (Appendix D). Additionally, the park does not fly out of ‘Ohe‘o/Kīpahulu temporary helibase until after 8 am to prevent early morning noise disturbance, which would double as a mitigation for birds that are active at dawn. No flights (either drone or helicopter) would occur between “civil sunset” and “civil sunrise.”</p>

Resource Mitigation Measures	
Special Status Species Habitat	Personnel tasked with working in or traversing across designated critical habitat would be trained and evaluated in plant identification (especially listed plant identification). Disturbance to special status species would be avoided. Avoidance measures would include confining pedestrian travel to existing trails and camps and restricting project activities for a certain period of time or in a certain area. If deemed necessary by park or DLNR wildlife biologists, noise-producing activities may be prohibited near breeding or nesting habitat of endangered or threatened wildlife. All project personnel would be provided with maps showing the locations of critical habitat areas and trained in biosecurity (see Invasive Species below) and on how to avoid adverse impacts within critical habitat.
Invasive Species	All vehicles, equipment, clothes, and footwear would be inspected and cleaned to prevent transport and establishment of introduced species including weeds and diseases/pathogens before and after field deployments.
Cultural, Historic, and Ethnographic Resources	Archaeological features would be avoided during all ground-based activities. Staff would be provided with maps depicting the locations of cultural and historic resources and buffer zones and trained in best practices for avoiding adverse impacts. This sensitive information would be protected and not shared outside of the personnel assigned to this project.
	Project-related helicopter and drone flights would be avoided on park's six (6) designated commercial free days (calendar dates vary slightly from year to year) to avoid disturbance of traditional cultural practices (see Appendix C for more information): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • End of Makahiki (January) • Zenith Noon (May) • Summer Solstice (June) • Zenith Noon (July) • Start of Makahiki (October) • Winter Solstice (December)
Human Health and Safety	All appropriate precautions and safety measures would be taken when operating helicopters and drones and conducting release activities to avoid threats to human health and safety. Specifically, regulations for safe operation of helicopters/drones, camping, and hiking during release activities would be strictly enforced.
Acoustic Environment	LZs, camps, helibases, flight paths, timing of flights, and height above ground level would be selected to minimize noise impacts on visitors, nearby landowners or communities, wilderness, and sensitive environmental resources. Helicopter flights out of the 'Ohe'o/Kīpahulu temporary helibase would not occur until after 8 am to prevent early morning noise disturbance. A communication plan would be developed to include coordination with interpretation staff to avoid conducting flights when an interpretive program is scheduled or when Native Hawaiian ceremonies, plant collecting, or other traditional activities would be conducted.
Visitor Experience	There would be no flights or operations conducted after dark, before civil sunrise, or on weekends. When flights are conducted near areas open to public access, flight path and timing would be selected to minimize noise and viewscape impacts on visitor experience.
Wilderness Preservation	All actions taken that involve a prohibited use pursuant to Section 4(c) of the Wilderness Act would be subject to a Minimum Requirements Analysis and would strive to minimize the impacts to wilderness character.

Table 7 summarizes USFWS-recommended mitigation measures (Appendix D) that would be implemented to avoid and minimize potential impacts on federally listed wildlife species.

TABLE 7. USFWS-RECOMMENDED MITIGATION MEASURES

Resource Mitigation Measures	
Nēnē (Hawaiian Goose)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personnel would not approach, feed, or disturb nēnē. • If nēnē are observed resting or foraging within a particular release location or helicopter/drone launch location during the breeding season (October through May), a biologist familiar with nēnē nesting behavior would survey for nests in and around the launch site prior to the resumption of work. Repeat surveys after any subsequent delay of work of three or more days (during which the birds may attempt to nest). • If a nest is discovered within 150 feet of a proposed worksite, all work within 150 feet would cease and USFWS would be contacted for guidance before resuming work within this area proximate to the nest. • In areas where nēnē are known to be present, personnel would post and implement reduced speed limits, and inform project personnel and contractors about the presence of endangered species on-site.
Hawaiian Forest Birds	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personnel would avoid activities that may increase the wildfire threat to montane forest habitats. • Personnel would avoid removing tree cover during the typical breeding season between November 1 and June 30. • Personnel would prevent the spread of invasive species. • Personnel would avoid increasing stagnant water habitat. • To the extent possible, personnel would conduct mosquito suppression in threatened and endangered forest bird habitat outside the peak of the breeding season (January-March). Where breeding seasons cannot be avoided, drone operations would occur only above tree height level, and hovering in one place would be minimized to limit the risk that breeding birds would flush from active nests. Helicopters would avoid flying low near forest bird habitats to avoid rotor wash and disturbing nesting forest birds.
Hawaiian Seabirds	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • During the seabird breeding season (February 1 to November 15), NPS and DLNR would avoid flights between dusk and dawn to protect night-flying seabirds.
Hawaiian Waterbirds	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Endangered waterbirds do not occupy, or breed within the project area. If waterbirds were to be detected, personnel would post and implement reduced speed limits and inform project personnel and contractors about the presence of endangered species on-site.
‘Ōpe‘ape‘a (Hawaiian Hoary Bat)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personnel would not disturb, remove, or trim woody plants greater than 15 feet tall during the bat birthing and pup rearing season (June 1 through September 15). • NPS and DLNR would avoid drone and helicopter flights between dusk and dawn to protect flying bats. • During the breeding season, drone operations would occur only 50-150 feet above tree height level, and hovering in one place would be minimized to limit the risk of disturbing pup rearing. Helicopters would avoid flying low near ‘Ōpe‘ape‘a habitats to avoid rotor wash and disturbing day roosting bats.

CHAPTER 3: AFFECTED ENVIRONMENT AND ENVIRONMENTAL CONSEQUENCES

INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes both the affected environment (the existing conditions of resources, including trends and ongoing and planned actions) and environmental consequences (impacts) of the proposed action on each resource. The affected environment and environmental consequences if no action is taken are described in each “Current and Expected Future Condition of the [Resource] if No Action is Taken” section. This is consistent with direction from the Council on Environmental Quality (CEQ), which states that agencies “may contrast the impacts of the proposed action and alternatives with the current and expected future conditions of the affected environment in the absence of the action, which constitutes consideration of a no-action alternative” (85 FR 43323). The environmental consequences of the proposed action are described in the “Effects of the Proposed Action on [Resource]” section for each resource. For the purposes of describing the affected environment and resource trends, past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future actions on NPS, DLNR, and TNC lands were assessed and are further described in Appendix E.

Methods and Assumptions

The following analysis evaluates direct, indirect, and cumulative impacts that would result from the implementation of the alternatives. A factual description of the direct and indirect impacts provides the reader with an understanding of how the current condition of a resource would likely change as a result of implementing the alternatives. The approach includes the following elements:

- The analysis is focused, to the greatest extent possible, on management changes and associated issues that could have meaningful impacts on the resources being evaluated.
- The description of the affected environment and analysis of impacts follow the CEQ NEPA regulations, as amended in May of 2022, the Department of the Interior NEPA regulations, and the 2015 NPS NEPA Handbook.
- As the proposed action is a joint NPS/DLNR project, the impact analysis in this EA is also in accordance with the Hawai‘i Environmental Policy Act (HEPA). According to HAR Chapter 11-200.1, Environmental Impact Statement Rules, “(a) In considering the significance of potential environmental effects, agencies shall consider the sum of effects on the quality of the environment, and shall evaluate the overall and cumulative effects of an action. (b) In determining whether an action may have a significant effect on the environment, the agency shall consider every phase of a proposed action, the expected consequences, both primary and secondary, and the cumulative as well as the short-term and long-term effects of the action.” HEPA Significance criteria are evaluated in Appendix G.
 - One of the specific considerations under HEPA is that the effects of a proposed action on the cultural practices of the community be analyzed. Impacts to cultural resources were considered and dismissed from detailed analysis, as described in Appendix B. However, a Cultural Impact Assessment was prepared for the project as required by HEPA and is included in Appendix C.

The NPS and DLNR interdisciplinary planning team reviewed a substantial body of scientific literature and studies applicable to the proposed mosquito release methods, project area, and associated resource issues and impact topics. This information augmented previous site-specific observations and documentation gathered by team personnel to support the qualitative and quantitative statements presented for each analyzed resource.

The following basic guiding assumptions were used to provide context for this analysis:

- *Mitigation.* All mitigations/best management practices included in Chapter 2 would be implemented for the proposed action.

- *Analysis Period.* The proposed action provides objectives and specific implementation actions needed to manage mosquito populations into the future. To understand the potential long-term impacts associated with mosquito population management, this document considers actions and effects over a 20-year period.
- *Overall Analysis Area.* The overall analysis area includes 64,666 acres of NPS, DLNR, and private lands managed for conservation. Haleakalā National Park lands within the analysis area include the Kīpahulu District and small portions of the northern edge of the Summit District. State lands within the analysis area include the Ko‘olau, Hāna, Kīpahulu, and Makawao Forest Reserves and Hanawī Natural Area Reserve. Private lands managed by TNC, East Maui Irrigation, and Mahi Pono are also within the analysis area. Based on proposed ground activities under the proposed action or a more limited extent of a resource within the analysis area, a smaller area was analyzed (such as for threatened and endangered plants, which would only potentially be impacted by pedestrian teams, and wilderness character, which is only applicable to the designated Haleakalā Wilderness within Haleakalā National Park).

Cumulative Impacts

The CEQ regulations for implementing NEPA require the assessment of cumulative impacts in the decision-making process for federal projects. Cumulative impacts are defined as “effects on the environment which results from the incremental impact of the action when added to other past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future actions regardless of what agency (federal or nonfederal) or person undertakes such other actions” (40 CFR 1508.1(g)(3)).

Cumulative impacts were determined for each impact topic by combining the impacts of other past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future actions that also would result in beneficial or adverse impacts. Therefore, it was necessary to identify other ongoing or reasonably foreseeable future projects and plans at the park, on adjacent DLNR and TNC-managed lands in the project area, and, if applicable, the surrounding region. Past projects or plans with ongoing effects and reasonably foreseeable future projects or plans on NPS, DLNR, and TNC-managed lands are identified in Appendix E). Cumulative impacts of past, present, and reasonably foreseeable actions are included in the “Current and Expected Future Condition of the [Resource] if No Action is Taken” section of each resource, and the cumulative impacts of the proposed action are included under the “Effects of the Proposed Action on [Resource]” section of each resource.

ACOUSTIC ENVIRONMENT

The acoustic environment is the combination of all the acoustic resources and sounds within a given area as modified by the environment (such as meteorological conditions, absorption, reverberation, reflection, and diffraction). Acoustic resources are the individual types of sounds, including both natural sounds (for example, wind, water, wildlife, weather) and cultural sounds (for example, Native Hawaiian ceremonies). The natural soundscape of a park, according to the NPS soundscape management policy (Section 4.9 in NPS 2006), refers to the combination of all the natural sounds occurring in the park, absent the human-induced sounds, as well as the physical capacity for transmitting those natural sounds that can be perceived and comprehended by humans. Natural sounds include those within and beyond the range that humans can perceive and can be transmitted through air, water, or solid materials (NPS 2006b). The character and quality of the acoustic environment influence human perceptions of an area, providing a sense of place that differentiates it from other regions. In addition, the acoustic environment is a critical component of wilderness character and plays an important role in wildlife communication, behavior, and other ecological processes (Wood 2015).

Noise generally refers to sounds which are unwanted or intrusive, either because of its effects on humans and wildlife, or its interference with the perception or detection of other sounds (Section 4.9 in NPS 2006; Lee et al. 2016). Primary sources of human-caused noise can include cars, aircraft, buses, and other motorized vehicles and equipment. Sound levels can vary greatly, depending on location, topography, vegetation, biological activity, weather conditions, and other factors. The magnitude of sound levels is usually described by its sound pressure. The A-weighted decibel (dBA) scale is commonly used to describe sound levels because it reflects the frequency range to which the human ear is most sensitive.

Current and Expected Future Condition of the Acoustic Environment if No Action is Taken

The current condition of the acoustic environment is described below. A detailed discussion of past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future projects within the park contributing to the existing conditions and current trends of the acoustic environment are described in more detail in Appendix E. The description below includes an overview of how these ongoing and future actions would affect the acoustic environment. Details regarding impacts of noise from the no-action alternative on wildlife, visitors, and wilderness are discussed further in the “Federally Listed Wildlife Species and Wildlife Species of Concern,” “Visitor Use and Experience,” and “Wilderness” sections of this chapter.

Under the no-action alternative, the acoustic environment would remain the same or similar to existing conditions, including trends and impacts from past, present, and foreseeable planned actions. Therefore, the affected environment and impacts of no-action are the same and discussed only once here.

Haleakalā National Park

NPS *Management Policies 2006* and Director’s Order 47 require the agency to manage, preserve, and restore park acoustical environments and soundscapes. These policies require the NPS to protect and restore the natural soundscapes of parks, including those that have been affected by unnatural and unacceptable noise. In addition to these policies, the park’s Foundation Document (NPS 2015b) identifies natural sounds as one of the fundamental resources and values of the park. As discussed in the Foundation Document, natural soundscapes are vital components of a healthy, intact, biological community, that play an important role in wildlife communication and behavior and are critical to effective wilderness management. In addition, natural soundscapes are highly desired by park visitors. As a fundamental resource and value, natural soundscapes are “*warranted primary consideration during planning and management processes*” (NPS 2015b).

The natural acoustic environment of the park is a key fundamental resource and value (NPS 2015b), and is important for wildlife, visitors, and native Hawaiian ceremonies. Because of this importance, the park has invested in over three decades of extensive acoustic monitoring, scientifically documenting the acoustic environment and where human caused noise may impact key resources. Overall, the findings of these studies revealed that across the park, the acoustic environment is generally in good condition, while aircraft are documented as the most prevalent noise source affecting the soundscape (Wood 2015, Lee et al. 2016). Helicopters are most common during the daytime and high-altitude jets are most common at night (Wood 2015). Further, the crater of Haleakalā National Park boasts intensely quiet sound pressure levels, around 10 dBA (Wood 2015). It is necessary to note that the intent of these acoustic monitoring reports is to identify the general acoustic conditions of the park. Sampling locations are generally chosen to represent larger areas of the park based upon considerations such as vegetation cover and topography. The acoustic monitoring in these reports was not intended to measure any specific noise, including aircraft or air tour noise. Further, what is mostly reported below are median sound pressure levels during the day from 6am to 6pm (LA_{50, 12hr, daytime}). Like any median measure, this metric does not drastically change if only a few loud events per day occur. Additionally for reference, because decibels are measured on a logarithmic scale, an increase in 3 dB represents a doubling of sound pressure level.

Most of the project area within park lands is in the Kīpahulu District. Common natural sounds in that portion of the project area include weather-related sounds (wind in the forest canopy, thunder, and rain), water flowing, waterfalls rushing, bird calls, insects buzzing, and other animal calls or communications (Lynch 2012, Lee et al. 2016, Job et al. 2018). **Table 8** presents the results of acoustical monitoring conducted for the park within or near the project area and **Figure 6** depicts noise monitoring locations identified in the table. The project area includes the entire Kīpahulu District and a small portion of the Summit District of the park.

The baseline acoustic measurement of natural ambient sound levels for upper Kīpahulu Valley (ST9) is approximately 30 dB (LA_{50, 12hr, daytime}) and the measurement of existing ambient sound levels is approximately 35 dB (LA_{50, 12hr, daytime}) (Lee et al. 2016). Natural ambient in upper Kīpahulu Valley is 30 dB (LA_{50, 12hr, daytime}) due to more vegetation, rain and streams, birds, and insects. The existing ambient of 35 dB (LA_{50, 12hr, daytime}) includes the noise of aviation, which is the dominant (and possibly the only) non-natural sound that could be heard in the area. Visitors are not allowed in Kīpahulu Valley Biological Reserve (see **Figure 6**).

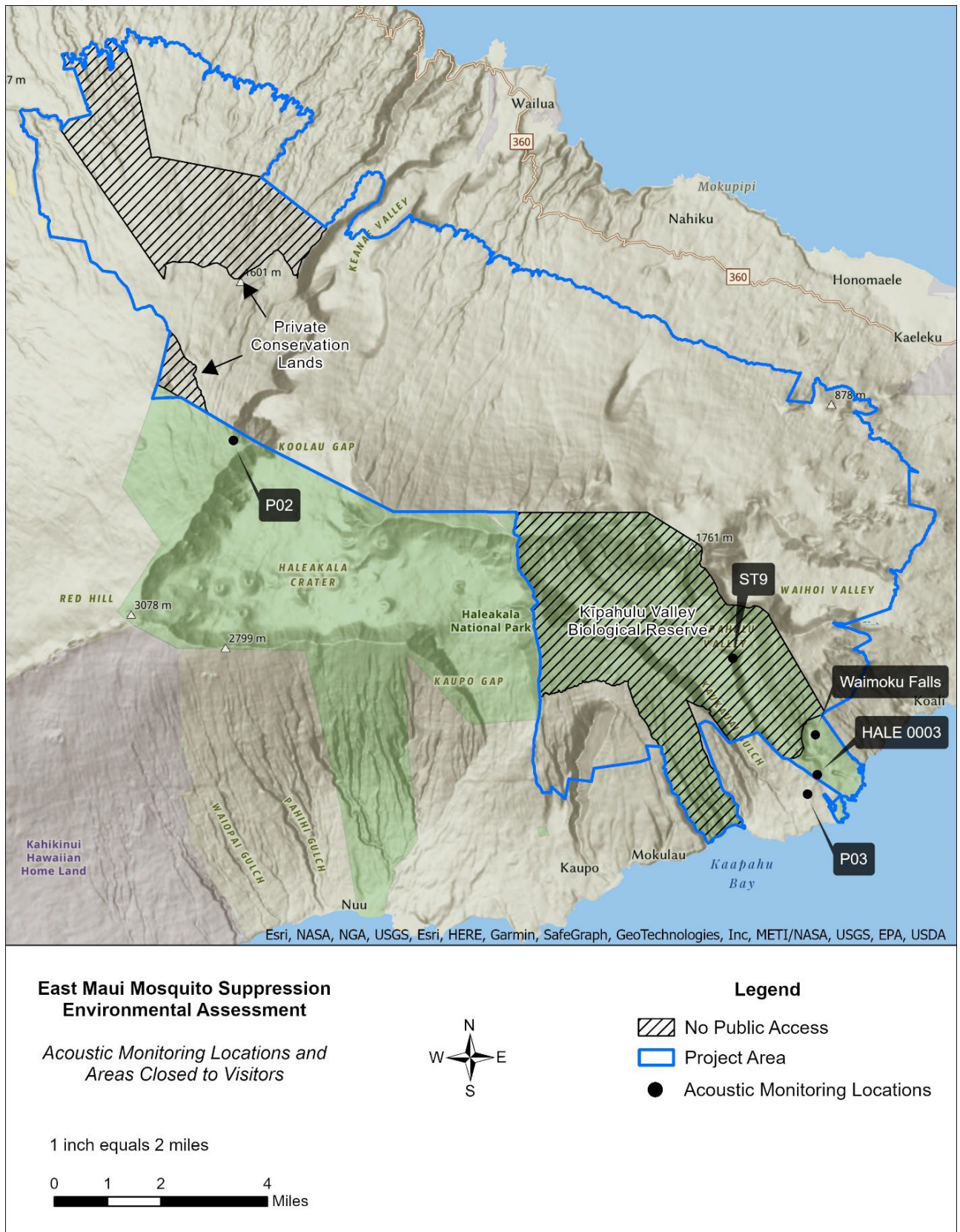


FIGURE 6: AREAS CLOSED TO PUBLIC ENTRY AND ACOUSTIC MONITORING LOCATIONS WITHIN HALEAKALĀ NATIONAL PARK

Commercial air tours, commercial flights, private aviation, and other administrative flights contribute noise to this area. The difference between the natural and existing ambient, as measured in 2003 for upper Kīpahulu Valley, represents a meaningful change. In other words, the natural ambient is noticeably quieter than the existing ambient due to the factors described earlier in this section.

The lower-elevation portion of the Kīpahulu District acoustic measures are represented by Kīpahulu Coastal (P03) measured in 2003 and Kīpahulu (HALE003) measured in 2008 (Lee et al. 2016, Lynch 2012). Natural ambient sound levels for these areas were 45.3 dB (L_{A50, 12hr, daytime}) for P03 and 38.0 dB (L_{A50, 12hr, daytime}) for HALE003. The existing ambient sounds levels were 43.5 dB (L_{A50, 12hr, daytime}) for P03 and 38.9 dB (L_{A50, 12hr, daytime}). These sound pressure levels (both natural and existing) are much higher due to the proximity to the coast and more natural sound activity; however, the small differences between natural and existing ambient here suggest lower levels of noise than the upper portion of the valley. The higher natural and existing ambient sound pressure levels do allow for masking of anthropogenic or unwanted noise in these areas.

A small portion of the project area occurs within the Summit District of the park. **Table 8** includes the results of acoustical monitoring conducted along the Supply Trail within the Summit District (P02) with the natural ambient at approximately 27.2 dB (L_{A50, 12hr, daytime}) and the measurement of existing ambient sound levels is approximately 27.7 dB (L_{A50, 12hr, daytime}) (Lee et al. 2016). These measures indicate a relatively quiet acoustic environment, dominant in natural sounds such as the sound of wind, rain, and the occasional animal noise (Lee et al. 2016). In addition to sounds of hikers, day-use visitors, campers, and human-generated noises that are part of the soundscape on a regular to intermittent basis, there is also noise generated by park management activities, vehicles along the small portion of Crater Road within the project area, and administrative and commercial aircraft flying overhead (primarily helicopter flights).

TABLE 8: SUMMARY OF SOUNDSCAPE DATA COLLECTED WITHIN THE PARK PORTIONS OF THE PROJECT AREA

Site Name (Site Number)	Vegetation Type	Year Data Collected ¹	L _{Anat, 12hr, daytime} ²	L _{A50, 12hr, daytime} ³	L _{A90, 12hr, daytime} ³
Kīpahulu (HALE003) *	Grassland; coastal	2008	38.0	38.9	35.1
Upper Kīpahulu Valley / Kīpahulu Scientific Reserve (ST9) *	Evergreen forest	2003	30.7	34.9	30.0
Kīpahulu Coastal (P03) *	Forested upland	2003	45.3	43.5	38.2
West Rim Crater / Supply Trail (P02)	Shrubland	2003	27.7	27.2	21.5

Sources: Lee et al. 2016 Lynch 2012.

¹ Different techniques were used to calculate natural ambient sound in 2003 versus 2008. See Lee et al. 2016 for data collection protocol in 2003 and see Lynch 2012 for data collection protocol for data collected in 2008

² L_{nat} = natural ambient sound level and is the natural sound conditions in national parks, which exist in the absence of any human-produced noise.

³ L₅₀ and L₉₀ = metric used to describe existing sound pressure level (L) in decibels, exceeded 50 and 90 percent of the time respectively; in other words, half the time the measured levels of sound are greater than the L₅₀ value, while 90 percent of the time the measured levels are higher than the L₉₀ value.

* Located in lower Kīpahulu Valley.

Helicopters are used for transporting park personnel to various park locations for resource monitoring, rescue actions, and maintenance activities. These flights contribute noise to the park’s acoustic environment. Park staff conduct management and resource monitoring activities in remote areas of the park and fieldwork may last a few hours to a week at a time. Ongoing activities that use mechanized tools include fencing to exclude ungulates and facilities maintenance for existing cabins within wilderness enclaves. Helicopter use for these administrative activities averaged approximately 200 hours/year (approximately 100 operations) between 2011 and 2022 (T. Bailey, *pers. comm.* 5/26/2022) and would likely continue at current levels into the future. Approximately 30 percent of current administrative flights travel within the Summit District and 70 percent (140 hours/year or 12 hours/month) travel within the Kīpahulu District including many areas where incompatible mosquito releases would occur under this project. The

park would continue current management actions and respond to future needs and conditions without major changes in the present course.

Unlike administrative flights, commercial air tours in the park occur seven days a week year-round except during inclement weather and on the following commercial-free days (end of Makahiki [January], Zenith Noon [May], Summer Solstice [June], Zenith Noon [July], start of Makahiki [October], and Winter Solstice [December]). Between 2013 and 2019, the number of commercial air tours in the park ranged between 4,543 and 4,932 per year (Lignell 2020). From 2013 through 2018, the number of commercial air tours averaged approximately 13 air tours per day (an estimated 2.05 hours per day or 750 hours per year). In 2019, a study identified a total of 321 helicopter air tours between March 15–April 15, with an average of 10 flights per day over this period (Beeco et al. 2020). **Figure 7** displays the travel patterns and helicopter model of these flights (figure from Beeco et al. 2020). These flights intersect the project area in the southernmost reaches, primarily around Kīpahulu Valley, Ka‘āpahu, and Kaupō Gap. Based on acoustical monitoring in 2003, commercial aircraft were audible 10.2 percent of the time at the Supply Trail (P02) monitoring station (in the Summit District) and 27.8 percent of the time at the monitoring station located in the highest monitoring station in upper Kīpahulu Valley (ST9), Kīpahulu District (Lee et al. 2016). The park is developing an Air Tour Management Plan (ATMP) with the FAA to mitigate or prevent substantial adverse impacts of commercial air tour operations on the park’s natural and cultural landscapes and resources, areas of historic and spiritual significance to Native Hawaiians, wilderness character, and visitor experience. A decision is expected in 2023.

The impacts of these ongoing and future actions (Appendix E) have been considered. Under the no-action alternative, the acoustic environment would remain the same or similar to existing conditions, including trends and impacts from past, present, and foreseeable planned actions. Because these actions are part of the existing acoustic environment conditions, the no-action alternative would not result in any indirect or direct impacts to the acoustic environment on NPS lands. In turn, because there are no direct or indirect effects of the no-action alternative, there would be no cumulative effects associated with the no-action alternative.

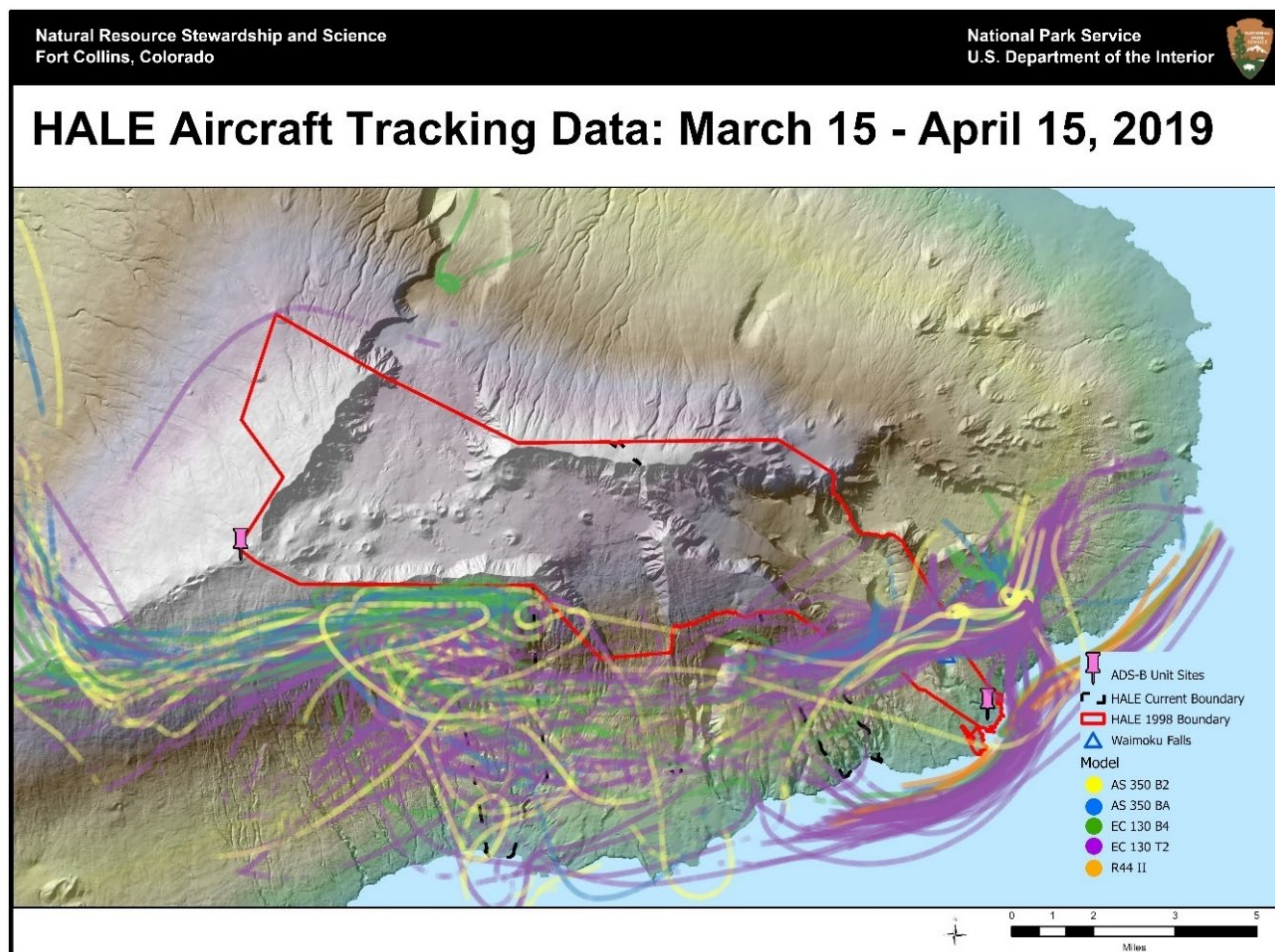


FIGURE 7: COMMERCIAL HELICOPTER FLIGHTS OVER THE PROJECT AREA (BEECO ET AL. 2020).

State Lands

The State of Hawai‘i regulates noise through the HAR, Title 11, Chapter 46 (HAR 11-46), “Community Noise Control.” The purpose of these rules is to “*provide for the prevention, control, and abatement of noise pollution in the State from the following noise sources: stationary noise sources; and equipment related to agricultural, construction, and industrial activities*” (HAR 11-46). Community Noise Control Regulations are not applicable to most moving sources, i.e. transportation and vehicular movements.

State lands within the project area are depicted in **Figure 1**. Other than administrative and commercial helicopter flights and the occasional noise from hunters and management activities on state forest reserves (e.g., invasive animal and plant control, habitat restoration, resource monitoring, rare species protection and research, fire management, and infrastructure maintenance), the state forest and natural area reserves are extremely quiet (based on anecdotal experience of state staff working in the project area). Although the state has no acoustic monitoring data in the project area, the soundscape likely consists primarily of natural sounds coming from wind, rain, animal noises, and waterfalls, based on NPS acoustic monitoring results as the baseline for the entire project area. Most state forest reserves within the project area are open to the public, however, visitor use is very low due to the difficult terrain and limited roads and trails. State natural area reserves within the project area (such as Hanawā Natural Area Reserve) are open to the public, but access is extremely difficult, and permits may be required for access and certain activities. Therefore, visitor use in these areas is extremely limited.

On state lands, DOFAW oversees fence construction and maintenance, control of ungulates, control of invasive plants, and predator control to preserve native ecosystems and species. The Maui Forest Bird Recovery Project (MFBRP) conducts mosquito and avian malaria monitoring. Mechanized equipment and ground teams would generate noise during fencing activities and regular planned maintenance of trails and LZs. Approximately 165 helicopter operations are conducted per year for management activities within the reserves. These flights are typically quick trips to drop off field staff and supplies. Over the past 12 years, DOFAW used helicopters for approximately 208 hours/year (4 hours/week) to conduct natural resource management activities (Safecom 2022). It is unknown how many commercial or tour flights fly over the state forest reserves within the project area, and site-specific acoustic data have not been collected within the state forest reserves. However, for analysis purposes and because the majority of state forest reserves occur within the project area, it has been assumed that approximately 200 hours/year of administrative helicopter flights occur within or immediately near the project area. As in the park, the number of state administrative helicopter flights and associated noise levels would likely continue at current levels within the project area. There are no anticipated changes to public access within the project area, so ongoing noise impacts to visitors would remain unchanged in the foreseeable future.

The impacts of these ongoing and future actions (as listed in Appendix E) have been considered as part of the affected environment as described above. Under the no-action alternative, the acoustic environment would remain the same or similar to existing conditions, including trends and impacts from past, present, and foreseeable planned actions. Because these actions are part of the existing acoustic environment conditions, the no-action alternative would not result in any indirect or direct impacts to the acoustic environment on state lands. In turn, because there are no direct or indirect effects of the no-action alternative, there would be no cumulative effects associated with the no-action alternative.

The Nature Conservancy and Other Private Conservation Lands

Other than the noise associated with occasional commercial air tours and helicopter administrative flights, as well as the sounds of human visitors and employees, TNC's Waikamoi Preserve is extremely quiet, with natural sounds coming from wind, rain, vegetation, and animals (assuming conditions are similar to those within the park). Because acoustic data has not been collected within the preserve (other than bird recordings), the NPS acoustic monitoring results were used as a baseline for the entire project area. However, within the other private conservation lands adjacent to the park and Waikamoi Preserve, human-caused noise is likely lower than in the park, state, and TNC-managed lands because there is no public access allowed within these areas. Noises in the private conservation lands primarily consist of occasional commercial overflights, and vehicle use for management activities and landowner/manager/employee recreational hunting.

Public access to the Waikamoi Preserve is limited to guided hikes, educational and service trips, and scientific research. TNC staff typically lead public hikes into the preserve three times per month with a maximum of 15 participants per hike. In addition, approximately one volunteer work trip is conducted per month and TNC typically provides trips into the preserve twice a month (once for local groups, and once for donors or other special guests). Research projects typically occur for a period of one week a couple of times a year. In total, visitation to the preserve is approximately 1,000 people per year (A. Cohan, *pers. comm.* 9/30/21).

In addition to the sound of walking and talking by visitors, noises are generated by management activities including fence maintenance, ungulate control, treatment of non-native plant species, and resource monitoring within the preserve. Because much of Waikamoi Preserve is remote and relatively inaccessible by foot, many management activities are conducted by helicopter. Approximately 60 helicopter operations are conducted per year (estimated 75 flight hours/year) into and out of the preserve (A. Cohan, *pers. comm.* 9/30/21). These flights typically drop off employees and supplies. Management activities are expected to continue as described in this section on the private conservation and TNC-managed lands. In addition to helicopter flights to and from the preserve, commercial flights over the preserve also create intermittent noise.

The impacts of these ongoing and future actions (see Appendix E) have been considered. Under the no-action alternative, the acoustic environment would remain the same or similar to existing conditions, including trends and impacts from past, present, and foreseeable planned actions. Because these actions are part of the existing acoustic

environment conditions, the no-action alternative would not result in any indirect or direct impacts to the acoustic environment of TNC and other private conservation lands. In turn, because there are no direct or indirect effects of the no-action alternative, there would be no cumulative effects associated with the no-action alternative.

Effects of the Proposed Action on the Acoustic Environment

Activities associated with the proposed action would result in noise that could impact the acoustic environment, visitor experience, sensitive wildlife, and wilderness character. Noise impacts would be mitigated through careful planning of flight paths and timing of mosquito releases (see mitigation measures in Chapter 2). Details regarding impacts of noise on wildlife, visitors, and wilderness are discussed further in the “Federally Listed Wildlife Species and Wildlife Species of Concern,” “Visitor Use and Experience,” and “Wilderness” sections of this chapter.

Methods and Assumptions

The baseline for evaluating potential impacts to the acoustic environment was developed using the available existing ambient sound measurements in the park (Lynch 2012, Lee et al. 2016). No baseline sound metrics are available for state, TNC, or privately managed conservation lands; however, given the similarity of conditions on state, TNC, and privately managed lands to park lands, existing sound levels in these areas are assumed to be similar to those within the park. The existing ambient sound measurements were then compared to the expected noise levels that would occur during incompatible mosquito releases, specifically the use of drones, and occasionally other mechanized equipment such as ground vehicles, generators, and helicopters, relative to the existing ambient sound levels. Impacts were evaluated based on the potential for mosquito release activities to create noise impacts over sustained periods of time that would surpass ambient existing sound levels and indicators for human and wildlife impacts. Notably, the attenuation (reduction) of noise depends on site-specific conditions such as the terrain conditions between the noise source and receiver (i.e. visitors and/or wildlife), vegetation, and meteorological conditions. A detailed analysis of mechanized noise (from drone, helicopter, ground vehicle, or other mechanized equipment) in specific locations that take these factors into account would be impracticable because impacts to the acoustic environment would be dispersed over the entire core area; however, a general understanding of how the acoustic environment may be impacted is presented.

The acoustic environment analysis area includes not only the core area where most releases would occur, but also the area surrounding it where project-related noise could impact the acoustic environment. Specific locations included in the acoustic environment analysis area that lie outside of the project area include temporary helibases outside of the core area and drone or helicopter flight paths to and from the core area.

Sound pressure levels are often measured with the logarithmic decibel (dB) scale relative to a reference value. The relative loudness of sounds as perceived by the human ear is expressed in dBA (OSHA 2013). The following values illustrate some key sound level indicators and the effects that they have on humans:

- 35 dBA – This value is designed to address health effects of sleep interruption; noises at this loudness can have effects on blood pressure while sleeping (Harabaldis et al. 2008).
- 45 dBA – This value represents the recommendation from the World Health Organization that noise levels inside bedrooms remain below 45 dBA (Berglund, Lindvall, and Schwela 1999).
- 52 dBA – This value is based on the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency’s level for speaking in a raised voice to an audience at 33 feet (EPA 1974). This represents the sound level at which an interpretive program would be affected.
- 60 dBA – This value is the sound level where normal communications with individuals standing 3.3 feet apart would be interrupted. This represents the sound level at which recreational visitors conversing would be affected, including hikers (EPA 1974).

Although noise levels are usually measured and expressed in dBA, which is based on the sensitivity of the human ear to different frequencies, this measurement may not reflect the noise sensitivity of birds or other wildlife (NPS 1995). For additional information regarding noise impacts to wildlife from the proposed action, refer to the “Noise Impacts on

Wildlife” section within the Threatened and Endangered Wildlife Species and Wildlife Species of Concern impact analysis.

An increase of the existing ambient sound level affects the ability of humans and animals to perceive other sounds within a certain distance or area. In general, the higher the existing ambient sound level, the shorter the distance from which other sounds (for example, those of a forest bird) can be heard. This concept is expressed in terms of listening area (the area in which humans and wildlife can perceive sounds) and alerting distance (distance at which alerting communications can be heard). Reduction in listening area and alerting distance is a way of quantifying degradation of hearing performance in humans and animals as a result of an increase in ambient noise level. **Table 9** shows the relationship between increases in ambient sound levels and percent reduction in listening area and alerting distance. The impact criteria are based on the distance at which project impacts would result in a 3 dBA increase over ambient conditions (EPA 1974). A 3 dBA increase above the existing ambient sound level is considered an important indicator of potential noise impact because it results in a 50 percent reduction in listening area for humans and animals and a 30 percent reduction in alerting distance, as shown in **Table 9** (NPS 2010).

TABLE 9: REDUCTION IN LISTENING AREA AND ALERTING DISTANCE DUE TO INCREASES IN AMBIENT SOUND LEVELS

50% dBA Ambient Increase	Percent Reduction in Listening Area	Percent Reduction in Alerting Distance
3	50%	30%
6	75%	50%
10	90%	70%
20	99%	90%

Drone Noise Levels

The primary method of incompatible mosquito release within the project area would be through the use of drones. The sound produced by a consumer-grade battery-powered rotary or fixed-wing drone at ground level is similar to loud highway noise (Schaffer et al. 2021). Most consumer-grade drones are far quieter than helicopters with some being up to 40 dBA quieter than a manned helicopter at roughly 328 feet AGL (Airborne Drones 2020). For this project, drones would fly at approximately 50–100 feet above the tree canopy (likely approximately 100–200 feet AGL) during mosquito releases. When multiple drones are in use, they would likely be releasing in different areas (such as one on state lands and one in the park) rather than releasing in close proximity. Therefore, it is not anticipated that noise impacts would be compounded by the use of multiple drones. When ferrying to and from release locations, drones would fly no higher than 500 feet AGL. Drone noise levels for various heights above ground are presented in **Table 10** and are based on a decrease of 6 dB for every doubling of distance from a sound perceiver. Along the same lines, the noise produced by a drone would likely blend in with the existing ambient noise levels of the project area at a lateral distance of approximately 0.25–0.5 mile depending upon the height of flight (Airborne Drones 2020, Schaffer et al. 2021). Notably, the noise levels presented in this section are not actual measured noise levels; actual noise levels during mosquito releases would vary during specific operations depending on altitudes, topography, vegetation, speed, and drone power settings.

TABLE 10: DRONE NOISE LEVELS AT VARIOUS HEIGHTS

Drone Type	Height Above Ground Level (AGL) from Source (feet)			
	25 feet AGL	100 feet AGL	200 feet AGL	500 feet AGL
Consumer Multirotor	~ 68–75 dBA	~ 58–65 dBA	~ 52–59 dBA	~ 44–52 dBA
Small, fixed wing drone	~ 63–70 dBA	~ 53–60 dBA	~ 47–54 dBA	~ 40–47 dBA
Quiet Commercial Multirotor	~ 57–68 dBA	~ 47–58 dBA	~ 41–52 dBA	< 44 dBA

Source: Airborne Drones (2020) and Schaffer et al. (2021)

Helicopter Noise Levels

Helicopter noise levels were estimated using the sliding scale approach presented in the Interagency Visitor Use Management Council Framework (IVUMC 2016) and the NPS Natural Sounds and Night Skies Division (NSNSD) developed Attenuation Calculator. The Attenuation Calculator maps and provides noise metric statistics for the attenuation (i.e. spread and reduction) of noise using the ISO 9613-2 (*Attenuation of sound during propagation outdoors — Part 2: General method of calculation*) standard. The main limitation of this tool is that terrain effects are not incorporated into the calculation; it is strictly the attenuation loss due to the atmosphere and distance. Practically, this means that the distances with associated noise metrics identified are a worst-case scenario. Further, the Attenuation Calculator only calculates a single operational mode (hover in ground effect) and cannot incorporate multiple operational parameters such as aircraft performance, thrust settings, directivity, and other operational modes. Despite these limitations, the tool provides valuable information regarding noise attenuation and is a means of comparison between different release methods for this project. For the purposes of this analysis, two primary approaches were taken. First, noise was calculated for the helicopter in transit and the other for the helicopter hovering.

For the transit analysis, it was assumed that:

- the park and state would be using a Hughes 500D helicopter for all flight operations, which is a typical aircraft used for park and state administrative flights;
- the analysis used the Hughes 500D in the ‘hover in ground effect’ operational mode;
- the speed was set to 57 mph which is similar to the anticipated transiting flight speed (62 mph)
- altitude was set at 500 feet above the receiver (person on the ground).
- natural ambient and existing ambient sounds levels were set to 30 dB (A-weight) and 35 dB, respectively, which are consistent with the baseline acoustic measures of natural ambient for the upper Kīpahulu Valley (Lee et al. 2016).

For the hovering analysis, the assumptions were the same as for transit, except:

- the speed was set to stationary.
- altitude was set at 150 feet above the receiver (person on the ground).

As summarized in **Table 11**, results of the Attenuation Calculator under the worst-case scenario suggest that helicopter noise could be audible¹ up to 3.5 miles from a given flight path at 500 feet AGL, and noise could be above existing ambient levels (35 dB) up to 1.8 miles from the flight path. Modeled flight paths were chosen as representative flight paths into and out of the Kīpahulu Valley portion of the project area for mosquito releases that would commonly be used for dropping off teams for monitoring or conducting helicopter longline releases. Speech or interpretive program interference (levels above 52 dB) could begin to occur at 0.47 miles from a flight path. Speech or interpretive program interference is based on the EPA’s level for when speaking in a raised voice to an audience at 33 feet would begin to be affected (EPA 1974). Finally, when hovering within 50 lateral feet of a given location at 150 feet AGL, helicopter sound levels could reach a maximum of 82 dB (L_{AMax}) at ground level. The maximum sound pressure levels directly under the helicopter at 50 feet AGL are estimated to be 93 dB (L_{AMax}).

TABLE 11: ATTENUATION CALCULATOR HELICOPTER SOUND EXPOSURE LEVELS AT DIFFERENT DISTANCES

Aircraft Name	Operational Mode	Lateral Distance from Source (feet or miles)				
		0 feet	50 feet	0.47 miles	1.8 miles	3.5 miles
Hughes 500D	Hover in ground effect	93.1 dB (L _{AMax}) at 50 feet AGL	82.1 dB (L _{AMax}) at 150 feet AGL	Speech Interference (> 52 dB) at 500 feet AGL	Above Existing Ambient (> 35 dB) at 500 feet AGL	Audible (~27 dB) at 500 feet AGL

Source: NSNSD attenuation calculation for this project

¹ Audibility was defined to be sounds levels that are 8 dB below existing ambient levels

Generators and Vehicle Noise Levels

The estimated noise levels of generators and vehicles proposed for use under the proposed action are included in **Table 12**. Trucks or SUVs would be used on existing roads (see **Figure 5**) to reach monitoring and pedestrian release sites in Makawao Forest Reserve, TNC’s Waikamoi Preserve, Mahi Pono, and East Maui Irrigation lands and to reach drone launch sites at road-accessible helibases. Generators would only be used at up to four monitoring locations on state lands, two locations within the park, and two locations within TNC’s Waikamoi Preserve. Notably, these noises would occur at ground level and would be substantially muffled by the surrounding dense vegetation.

TABLE 12: GROUND MECHANIZED EQUIPMENT PROPOSED FOR USE IN THE ANALYSIS AREA.

Type of Equipment	Estimated Maximum Noise Level (dBA)
Quiet Honda Generator	~ 52–58 dBA* at 23 feet from source
Truck or SUV	~75 dBA** at 50 feet from source

* Source: Honda (2022)

** Source: FHWA (2006)

Analysis

Drone Release

The park and state would use drones as the primary mosquito release method in the core area. Drone operators would be positioned at temporary helibases accessible by ground vehicles. Noise from vehicles would only occur when drone operators drive (outside the project area) to or from helibases at the beginning and end of each drone operation day (operation days could include five workdays per week) or if resupply trips are needed. As described in Chapter 2, it is conservatively estimated that this project would require up to 72 hours of drone flight time per week during warm months and up to 49 hours during cold months to achieve the desired mosquito release rate (**Table 3**). Of those hours, 37–47 flight hours per week would occur over state lands (approximately 64 percent of the core area or 30,796 acres), 6–11 hours per week would occur over NPS lands (approximately 15 percent of the core area or 7,099 acres), 6–7 hours per week would occur over private conservation lands (approximately 11 percent of the core area or 5,168 acres), and 1–7 hours per week would occur over TNC-managed lands (approximately 10 percent of the core area or 5,101 acres). Two or more drones would fly for up to five days per week between civil sunrise and civil sunset on weekdays. Drone flight paths would vary substantially depending upon the release locations being treated each day, and drones would likely only pass over a specific location twice per week. Depending upon the drone model in use, noise levels experienced by wildlife or a person on the ground during releases where the drone is flying at 100 feet AGL could range from 47 to 65 dBA and from 41 to 59 dBA at 200 feet AGL for less than 15 seconds because the drones would be moving swiftly through the core area during releases (up to 22 mph; see **Table 10**) (Airborne Drones 2020; Schaffer et al. 2021). For birds or other wildlife near the top of the tree canopy, drone noise levels could range from 47 to 71 dBA for less than 15 seconds again depending upon the type of drone in use and the height above canopy. For reference, a Hughes 500D helicopter at 150 feet AGL would produce a maximum noise level of 82 dBA (**Table 11**). During ferrying flights at approximately 500 feet AGL, drone sound levels would range between less than existing ambient (~35 dBA in upper Kīpahulu Valley) to 53 dBA (see **Table 10**) for wildlife or a person on the ground or wildlife in the tree canopy. These noise levels are estimated to only last for less than 5 seconds at a time because the drones can travel up to 62 mph while ferrying.

Under the worst-case scenario, drone noise could potentially be heard (above approximately 27 dBA) up to 0.5 mile of the drone. Notably, the extensive tree canopy cover and rugged terrain can have a dampening effect on sound and may reduce the distance (likely by half or more based on anecdotal experience of park and state staff working in the project area) where sound is heard. The nearest recreational areas where people could experience drone noise are in Makawao Forest Reserve and lower Kīpahulu District. People in these areas could very briefly experience drone noise if drones pass within 0.5 mile of recreational trails or other public use areas, but these impacts could be reduced, for example, by conducting regular pedestrian releases in Makawao Forest Reserve, should that be deemed necessary. Most of the areas where drones would be conducting releases would be out of earshot for hikers along the Pipīwai Trail to Waimoku

Falls. Drone flight paths, timing of flights, and flight heights would be selected to reduce noise impacts on visitors, nearby landowners or communities, wilderness, and sensitive environmental resources. Mosquito releases would occur outside the breeding season of Hawaiian forest birds, to the extent possible. Where breeding seasons cannot be avoided, drone operations would occur above the tree canopy to limit the noise impact to nesting forest birds. It should also be noted that there would be no mosquito releases at night or on the weekends, so noise impacts from drones would only occur during daylight hours on weekdays.

Overall, people would not likely notice a noise difference at popular visitor use areas near the park and other publicly accessible areas during the anticipated 49–72 hours of drone flights per week. The anticipated drone use under the proposed action would require two or more drones flying simultaneously in different areas of the core area for a total of approximately 220–325 hours per month throughout the core area. The perceived drone noise levels (approximately 47–59 dBA at 100–200 feet AGL) experienced by wildlife or people on the ground in the core area would fluctuate rapidly because drones would be moving swiftly, and noises would be muffled by the tree canopy and rugged terrain. At the upper limit of the estimated decibel levels, drone noise could possibly be loud enough to disrupt conversations, but this disruption would be brief, due to the minimal time that a drone would be overhead in one location. With the exception of the Kīpahulu District of Haleakalā National Park and Makawao Forest Reserve, very little recreation or hunting occurs in the project area, so noise impacts to visitors or other users would be minimal. Noise from drones would be present in the project area during release operations until sufficient mosquito population suppression is achieved but would largely go unnoticed by humans and may only briefly cause annoyance to wildlife.

Helicopter Longline Release

The helicopter longline release method would only be used as a short-term (up to two months), temporary release method for intermittent time periods if drones are unavailable. Decibel levels directly under flight paths are expected to be substantially higher than existing ambient levels based on the maximum sound levels produced by a helicopter. Notably, higher sound level estimates were used for a more conservative analysis. Under this worst-case scenario, helicopter noise could be audible up to 3.5 miles from a given flight path at 500 feet AGL, and noise could be above existing ambient levels up to 1.8 miles from the flight path. Speech interference could occur at 0.47 miles (the area within a 0.47 mile-radius is 448 acres; see **Table 11**). When a helicopter is hovering within 50 feet laterally of a given location at approximately 150 feet AGL (at which most helicopter longline releases would occur), helicopter sound levels at the ground could reach a maximum of 82 dBA for 15 seconds or less at any given location in the core area. Sound levels would decrease as the distance from a given flight path increases. Notably, actual distances and sound levels would likely be far lower than the modeled results provided in **Table 11** due to the rugged terrain and extensive tree canopy cover in the project area, which would block and absorb some of the helicopter noise. Additionally, the noise levels presented in this section are not actual measured noise levels; actual noise levels would vary during specific operations depending on the altitudes, types of maneuvers, speed, and power settings during helicopter flight. These factors also affect the intensity, duration, and spatial distribution of noise.

For purposes of estimating helicopter noise impacts during mosquito releases, it has been assumed that an average of two treatments of the entire core area could occur per month for up to two months per year. The average anticipated helicopter flight time would occur for up to 6 hours per day, 5–7 days per month for a total of 39 hours per month during warm months and 28 hours per month during cold months. Flight time would not exceed 56–78 flight hours/year. However, as stated in Chapter 2, this estimate is a maximum and the occasional helicopter longline releases would only be needed as a short-term (up to two months), temporary release method should drones become unavailable. For reference, this maximum estimate of helicopter flight hours for helicopter longline release (56–78 flight hours/year) is far less than the current estimate of annual administrative flight hours (approximately 415 hour/year) for park, state, and TNC-managed lands within the project area.

Helicopters would avoid flying low near forest bird breeding habitats to avoid rotor wash and excessive noise disturbance to nesting forest birds. There would be no mosquito releases at night or on the weekends, so noise impacts would only occur during daylight hours (between civil sunrise and civil sunset) on weekdays. During helicopter longline releases, adverse impacts on the acoustic environment would primarily occur along flight paths, at helibases, and when hovering over mosquito release locations. Helicopters would hover for less than 15 seconds over each mosquito release location. At any given location in the core area, the perceived noise levels from helicopter operations

would fluctuate for humans or wildlife because helicopters would be moving through the area quickly (22 mph during releases and up to 115 mph during transit). Impacts from helicopter longline releases could occur anywhere within the core area but would be targeted depending upon the need at the time. The core area contains many places where there is little to no public use. The most well-used areas with established public trails include Makawao Forest Reserve and the lower Kīpahulu District area where many people use the Pīpīwai Trail to access Waimoku Falls. **Table 13** provides estimates for the duration that helicopter noise along several example flight paths would be audible under the worst-case scenario provided by the Attenuation Calculator (above existing ambient) for a visitor at Waimoku Falls. As shown in the table, most flights to the Kīpahulu Valley and Manawainui locations of the core area would produce audible noise for less than 4 consecutive minutes. The flight paths included in **Table 13** are intended to provide a representative of potential flight paths and the times they would be audible in visitor use areas. Actual flight paths would vary and be determined by weather, and targeted release locations.

TABLE 13: COMMON FLIGHT PATHS IN KĪPAHULU VALLEY AREA

Flight Path	Path Distance (round trip)	Potential Speed of Travel	Travel Time (round trip)	Closest Point along Flight Path to Waimoku Falls	Time Noise above 35dB at Waimoku Falls
‘Ohe’o to Wing	13.0 miles	115 mph	6.8 min	0.7 mile	3.0 min
‘Ohe’o to Palikea	11.2 miles	115 mph	5.9 min	0.3 mile	3.5 min
‘Ohe’o to Charlie	10.6 miles	115 mph	5.6 min	0.4 mile	3.5 min
Nu’u to Wing	12.0 miles	115 mph	6.3 min	~ 5.0 miles	0 min

Overall, adverse impacts on the acoustic environment from helicopter longline releases could occur anywhere in the core area (up to 48,164 total acres) but would be targeted depending upon the need at the time. However, it should be noted that this method would only be used as a short-term (up to two months), temporary release method when drones are not available. Up to 28–39 hours of helicopter flight time could occur per month (up to 6 hours per day, 5–7 days per month) for up to two months per year. Because the helicopters would be flying or hovering well above the canopy, noise levels on the ground would not exceed 82 dBA for a person or wildlife on the ground. While noise levels immediately beneath flight paths would exceed levels that would be expected to disrupt human communication and potentially cause annoyance to wildlife, these noise levels would not be sustained at that level for more than 15 seconds at any given point. Impacts could potentially extend over thousands of acres at a given time, impacting wildlife habitat and visitor use areas within that range. However, little public use occurs in the very remote sections of the core area, and visitors would only experience intermittent noise if flights paths were near their location. Further, this short-term release method would only temporarily occur in necessary situations for less than 2 months per year and would therefore largely be unnoticed by people and would rarely cause annoyance to wildlife.

Pedestrian Release

As stated in Chapter 2, pedestrian release of mosquitoes may occur within an area of up to 5,000 acres in the western portion of the project area including portions of Makawao Forest Reserve (State land), TNC’s Waikamoi Preserve, and other private lands. These locations are accessible for pedestrian release due to existing four-wheel-drive roads (shown in brown on **Figure 5**) and established trails with drive-up trailheads. Pedestrian releases may also occur within approximately 400 acres of the park and approximately 400 acres of Hanawī Natural Area Reserve but only on a quarterly basis simultaneous with ground-based mosquito monitoring (see analysis of impacts from pedestrian releases at these monitoring sites in the “Mosquito Monitoring” section below).

Motorized vehicles (SUVs or trucks) would assist in the transportation of field teams and gear for treatments in Makawao Forest Reserve, TNC’s Waikamoi Preserve, and other private lands. Noise from vehicles is estimated to not exceed 2 hours per day up to 2 days per week along the Flume Road shown (in brown) on **Figure 5** during pedestrian releases. As previously mentioned, ground vehicles can reach 75 dBA at 50 feet from the source but would be muffled by the surrounding canopy and would not be expected to exceed 60 dBA at 50 feet from the source of noise. The noise produced by crews releasing mosquitoes would be similar to that produced by any other recreational visitor on the trails

in Makawao Forest Reserve. Trails within TNC's Waikamoi Preserve are private and not regularly travelled by the public except during guided trips.

Overall, noise from this release method would be minimal and would include noise of up to 75 dBA at 50 feet from vehicles approaching and leaving trailheads up to 2 hours per day, 2 days per week. Noise impacts from vehicles would blend into the vehicle traffic/noise already occurring at trailheads and would largely be unnoticeable to wildlife and humans along the Flume Road.

Mosquito Monitoring

As described in Chapter 2, monitoring activities would consist of intermittent ground-based monitoring to trap and evaluate mosquito populations and would be conducted concurrently with ground-based pedestrian or aerial releases, on a quarterly basis (four times/year). Monitoring activities would continue indefinitely over the life of the project. Four monitoring locations would be selected on state lands, two locations within the park, and two locations within Waikamoi Preserve. It is anticipated that three of the locations (two on state lands and one in Waikamoi Preserve) would be accessible by ground vehicles and the other five locations (two on state lands, two within the park, and one within Waikamoi Preserve) would require helicopter access. Pedestrian releases may occur concurrently with monitoring and could potentially cover up to 1,000 acres within the core area (400 acres in the park, 400 acres on state lands, and 200 acres in Waikamoi Preserve), and potential impacts are discussed in the preceding section.

The estimated total required helicopter flight time for mosquito monitoring is 70 hours/year (approximately 17.5 hours per week for one week each quarter) and would include the time required to land and drop off or pick up crews and supplies at the LZs. For reference, the current estimate of park, state, and TNC administrative flights is 415 hours/year. Helicopters would fly 2–6 hours per day for pick-ups and drop offs at LZs during these quarterly trips. As listed in **Table 11**, in the worst-case scenario, helicopter noise could be audible up to 3.5 miles from a given flight path at 500 feet AGL, and noise could be above existing ambient levels up to 1.8 miles from the flight path. Speech interference could occur when helicopters are operating 0.47 miles away. Finally, when hovering within 50 lateral feet of a given location at 150 feet AGL, helicopter sound levels could reach 82 dBA and grow louder (up to 93 dBA) as the helicopter descends below the canopy to land at LZs. As described previously, actual distances and sound levels would likely be far lower than the modeled results provided in **Table 11** due to the rugged terrain and extensive tree canopy cover in the project area, which would block and absorb some of the sound generated by helicopters. Additionally, the noise levels presented in this section are not actual measured noise levels; actual noise levels vary during specific operations depending on the altitudes, types of maneuvers, speed, and power settings during helicopter flight. These factors also affect the intensity, duration, and spatial distribution of noise.

Generators would be needed for monitoring trips and could produce intermittent noise at the five backcountry camps four times per year at each camp, for up to 3 hours per day for up to 7 consecutive days. As listed in **Table 11**, a quiet Honda generator can produce noise levels of up to 58 dBA at 23 feet from the source. However, due to the density of vegetation where generators would be used, this noise is expected to be lower, and generators would only be running in the evening when crews return to camp. While there would be no impact to public visitors from generator noise due to the remote location of these camps, there could be some mild annoyance to wildlife.

Motorized vehicles (SUVs or trucks) would assist in the transportation of field teams and gear to reach three ground-accessible monitoring sites in Makawao Forest Reserve and TNC's Waikamoi Preserve. Noise from vehicles used during monitoring would primarily occur along the Flume Road shown (in brown) on **Figure 5** and is not expected to exceed 4 hours per day for up to 7 days on a quarterly basis. It should be noted that vehicles would not be running constantly during that 4-hour time period because crews would be stopping periodically to check mosquito traps. As previously mentioned, ground vehicles can reach 75 dBA at 50 feet from the source but would be muffled by the surrounding canopy and would not be expected to exceed 60 dBA at 50 feet from the source of noise.

Overall, the noise from helicopters and generators would be primarily focused at the five helicopter-only accessible monitoring camps and LZs. Noise from approaching or departing vehicles would occur at trailheads in Makawao Forest Reserve and TNC's Waikamoi Preserve but would be minimal throughout the duration of the project and would blend into the vehicle traffic/noise already occurring at trailheads. Impacts from noise would be affected by topography,

vegetation, distance to source, and in the case of helicopters, speed of travel. The duration and frequency of helicopter flights required for monitoring (2–6 hours per day for a total of approximately 17.5 hours per week for one week each quarter) and, therefore, the amount of time visitors or wildlife could experience helicopter noise impacts, would vary by distance from the source. Noise levels along helicopter flight paths would reach less than 72 dBA at 500 feet AGL during overflights at the beginning and end of each monitoring session. Adverse noise impacts from helicopter drop offs and pick ups would only occur at five helicopter-accessible only monitoring sites and could reach 82–93 dBA during pick ups and drop offs (less than 10 minutes each). During the 7-day quarterly monitoring sessions, adverse noise impacts from generators would be limited to less than 58 dBA at 23 feet for up to 3 hours per day at five monitoring camps, and noise from vehicles would be limited to 4 hours per day in Makawao Forest Reserve and TNC’s Waikamoi Preserve to reach the three ground-accessible monitoring sites. Therefore, adverse impacts on the acoustic environment during monitoring activities from helicopters, generators, and vehicles would be highly variable and not sustained (would only occur every three months). In addition, it is unlikely that any visitors or recreationists would be aware of the helicopter landings or generator noise due to the remoteness of the LZs used during monitoring and the infrequency of trips required for quarterly monitoring.

Cumulative Impacts

The impacts of past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future actions (see Appendix E) and the no-action alternative are as described in the “Current and Expected Future Condition of the Acoustic Environment if No Action is Taken” section. Because past, present and reasonably foreseeable future actions are part of the existing acoustic environment conditions and because the no-action alternative would not result in any indirect or direct impacts to the acoustic environment, there would be no cumulative effects associated with the no-action alternative. When compared to the no-action alternative, mosquito release activities under the proposed action would contribute periodic adverse impacts on the acoustic environment near LZs, helibases, flight paths, trails, trailheads, and roads from the use of drones, mechanized equipment, and helicopters.

Under the proposed action, noise from drones could occur throughout the 48,164-acre core area for 49–72 hours per week. Noise levels from drones could reach a maximum of 47–59 dBA at 100–200 feet AGL (the altitude where most releases would occur) for less than 15 seconds as the drone passes over any given location in the core area one to two times per week. Helicopter noise would only occur for 2–6 hours per day potentially spread over the course of 7 days for a total of approximately 17.5 hours per week for quarterly monitoring trips. Most helicopter flight noise would be highly variable depending upon the flight height and lateral distance to a person or wildlife but could reach a maximum of 82–93 dBA during pick ups and drop offs at LZs. Short-term, temporary helicopter longline releases (up to 6 hours of flight time per day, 5–7 days per month for up to two months per year) could produce a maximum of 82 dBA at 150 feet AGL for less than 15 seconds at any given release location in the core area. Generator noise (maximum of 52–58 dBA at 23 lateral feet) could occur for up to 3 hours per day for up to 7 consecutive days on a quarterly basis at the five backcountry monitoring locations. Noise from vehicles (maximum of 75 dBA at 50 feet from the source) would occur intermittently in Makawao Forest Reserve and TNC’s Waikamoi Preserve for up to 4 hours per day for up to 7 days during quarterly monitoring and up to 2 hours per day, up to 2 times per week for pedestrian releases that are scheduled to occur in those areas.

As described above, the proposed action would contribute a measurable but largely unnoticeable adverse impact to the acoustic environment. Humans and animals would experience slight increases in perceptible sound/noise compared to the no-action alternative in certain areas at certain times, but in many cases, the project-related noises would be imperceptible due to remoteness of the project area. The locations affected by the proposed action are where most past, present, and reasonably foreseeable management actions are already occurring on park, state, and private conservation lands. When the impacts of the proposed action are added to the impacts of present and reasonably foreseeable actions, an overall adverse cumulative impact on the acoustic environment spread over the entire core area would last until sufficient mosquito population suppression is achieved.

Conclusion

Under the no-action alternative, conditions and trends would remain the same or similar as existing conditions. Compared to the no-action alternative, mosquito release activities under the proposed action would contribute periodic adverse impacts on the acoustic environment near LZs, helibases, flight paths, trails, trailheads, and roads from the use of drones, vehicles, mechanized equipment, and helicopters.

Noise from drones (the primary method for mosquito releases) could occur throughout the 48,164-acre core area (30,796 acres of state land, 7,099 acres of NPS land, 5,168 of private conservation land, and 5,101 acres of TNC-managed land) for 49–72 hours per week. Specifically, 37–47 flight hours per week would occur over state lands, 6–11 hours per week would occur of NPS lands, 6–7 hours per week would occur over private conservation lands, and 1–7 hours per week would occur over TNC-managed lands. Noise levels from drones could reach 47–59 dBA at 100–200 feet AGL (the altitude where most releases would occur) for less than 15 seconds as the drone passes over any given location in the core area one to two times per week.

Helicopter noise would only occur if a short-term (up to two months), temporary release method is needed for releases and when monitoring needs to occur in the backcountry (on a quarterly basis). Helicopter noise impacts would occur primarily at LZs, helibases, and along selected flight paths. To reach the five helicopter-only accessible monitoring sites, helicopter flights could occur for 2–6 hours per day potentially spread over the course of 7 days for a total of approximately 17.5 hours per week. Because monitoring would occur quarterly, the total annual estimate of helicopter flight time is estimated to be 70 hours per year. Most helicopter flight noise would be highly variable depending upon the flight height and lateral distance to a person or wildlife but could reach 82–93 dBA during pick ups and drop offs at LZs. For short-term temporary helicopter longline releases, it is anticipated that up to 6 hours per day, 5–7 days per month for up to two months could occur and result in a total of up to 56–78 hours of flight time per year. Noise levels could reach a maximum 82 dBA at 150 AGL for up to 15 seconds while the helicopter hovers over release locations within targeted portions of the core area.

Noise from generators (maximum of 52–58 dBA at 23 lateral feet) would be highly variable and would be limited to the five helicopter-only accessible monitoring areas and camps for up 3 hours per day for up to 7 consecutive days on a quarterly basis during monitoring trips. Noise from vehicles (maximum of 75 dBA at 50 feet from the source) would occur intermittently in Makawao Forest Reserve and TNC’s Waikamoi Preserve for up to 4 hours per day for up to 7 days during quarterly monitoring and up to 2 hours per day, up to 2 times per week for pedestrian releases that are scheduled to occur in those areas.

Noise from the drone and helicopter longline release methods and monitoring would be the most intense acoustic impacts to result from this project. However, the adverse impacts from the drone and helicopter longline release methods and monitoring would be confined largely to backcountry areas and would largely go unnoticed by humans and would only briefly disturb wildlife. Humans and animals would experience slight perceptible increases in sound/noise compared to the no-action alternative in certain areas at certain times resulting in fleeting disruption or annoyance. Though considerable analysis is presented here, the proposed action would contribute a measurable but largely unnoticeable adverse impact to the acoustic environment during mosquito release and monitoring activities.

WILDERNESS

The Wilderness Act of 1964 established the National Wilderness Preservation System, which is currently comprised of over 800 congressionally designated wilderness areas and over 111 million acres. Congress passed the Act in order to preserve and protect certain lands “in their natural condition” and “to secure for the present and future generations the benefits of wilderness.” The Wilderness Act and NPS policy mandate preservation of wilderness character, which includes five tangible qualities (untrammled, natural, undeveloped, outstanding opportunities for solitude or primitive and unconfined recreation, and other features of value). The Haleakalā Wilderness is designated by federal statute and there is no wilderness on state or private lands.

Analysis Area

The area of analysis for impacts on wilderness character includes the eastern portion of the Haleakalā Wilderness within the park focused on Kīpahulu Valley and Manawainui, where IIT mosquito releases would occur under the proposed action. Additionally, the area of analysis for wilderness includes locations outside of the mosquito release area where helicopters would travel from helibases outside of wilderness including the lower Kīpahulu Valley and the portion of the designated Haleakalā Wilderness in the park's Summit District.

Current and Expected Future Condition of Wilderness if No Action is Taken

The current condition of these wilderness character qualities is described below. A detailed discussion of past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future actions within the park contributing to the existing conditions and current trends within designated wilderness are located in Appendix E. The description below provides an overview of how these ongoing and future actions would affect wilderness character. Under the no-action alternative, the qualities of wilderness would remain the same or similar to existing conditions, including trends and impacts from past, present, and foreseeable planned actions. Therefore, the affected environment and impacts of no-action are the same and discussed only once here.

Qualities of Wilderness Character

In 2006, formal definitions of wilderness character were developed by an interagency monitoring team, including NPS, using the five qualities of wilderness set forth in the Wilderness Act. These qualities are used nationwide to monitor the status and trends in wilderness (preservation or degradation) over time by accounting for stewardship actions as well as impacts from modernization, visitation, and changes occurring outside of the wilderness itself (NPS 2015a). All five qualities occur within the congressionally designated wilderness in Haleakalā National Park and are analyzed in detail: untrammeled, natural, undeveloped, solitude or primitive and unconfined recreation, and other features of value.

Haleakalā Wilderness

Approximately 24,719 acres, or 74 percent, of Haleakalā National Park is congressionally designated wilderness (**Figure 8**). Two distinct areas comprise the Haleakalā Wilderness: the Haleakalā Crater and Kīpahulu Valley above 2,000 feet in elevation, the adjacent Manawainui and Hāna Rainforest areas. Kīpahulu Valley and adjacent areas are a designated Biological Reserve and are closed to visitors. Approximately 14 percent of the project area is in wilderness.

Untrammeled

An untrammeled wilderness is one that is unhindered and free from the intentional actions of modern human control or manipulation. The untrammeled quality is preserved or sustained when actions to intentionally control or manipulate the components or processes of ecological systems inside wilderness (e.g., suppressing fire, stocking lakes with fish, installing water catchments, or removing predators) are not taken. Actions that intentionally manipulate the biophysical environment, such as the removal of nonnative species, intervention in the behavior or lives of native plants and animals, projects to restore the natural conditions of wilderness, and interference in natural processes and energy flows, degrade the untrammeled quality.

Several threats to Haleakalā National Park's unique natural environment have spurred management action to preserve the rare ecological communities and individual species of the park. The ongoing extreme degradation of wilderness ecosystems caused by invasion of non-native species has led the park to take management actions (trammeling) to slow down and address these threats. These include non-native wildlife removal, activities to restore and protect native wildlife, and re-establishment of unique native plant communities. Because of the severe threats to native species, Haleakalā's Wilderness is a setting where manipulation of the biophysical environment is required to maintain, protect, and revive the native environment. Because these actions are necessary to preserve the natural environment, it is important to carefully consider restraint before taking actions that impact the untrammeled quality.

The park is currently implementing predator and ungulate control and ground and aerial herbicide spray operations for invasive plant control. Additional ongoing or planned activities include fencing to exclude ungulates, manual removal of invasive plants, and native plant outplantings all of which adversely affect the untrammeled quality of wilderness. The park would continue current management actions and respond to future needs and conditions to improve the natural quality of the wilderness, while designing these activities to minimize adverse impacts on the untrammeled quality.

Natural

A natural wilderness is one where ecological systems are substantially free from the effects of modern civilization. When indigenous species and ecological conditions are protected and managed to preserve natural conditions, the natural quality is preserved. The natural quality may be improved by controlling or removing non-native species or by restoring ecological conditions. The natural quality is degraded by human-caused changes to the natural environment (i.e. human-caused effects on plants, animals, air, water, ecological processes, etc.).

Kīpahulu Valley and adjacent Manawainui and Hāna Rainforest areas provide refuge for some of Hawai‘i’s most unique native plant communities. East of Palikū Ridge, forests of koa and ‘ōhi‘a inhabit Kīpahulu Valley, providing the necessary matrix to sustain intact native watersheds and provide canopy over a wealth of rare species. The diverse plant communities of the Haleakalā Wilderness support several endemic animal species, many of which are now threatened or endangered. Birds are the primary wildlife species here and, like Haleakalā’s native plants, native bird species have evolved to occupy a range of specialized niches. For threatened and endangered birds, such as the ‘ua‘u, nēnē, ‘ākohekohe, and kiwīkiu, the wilderness provides integral habitat and refuge from predators. Important pollinators, such as Hawaiian yellow-faced bees and nocturnal residents such as the ‘ōpe‘ape‘a (Hawaiian hoary bat), benefit from and contribute to this diversity (NPS 2015a).

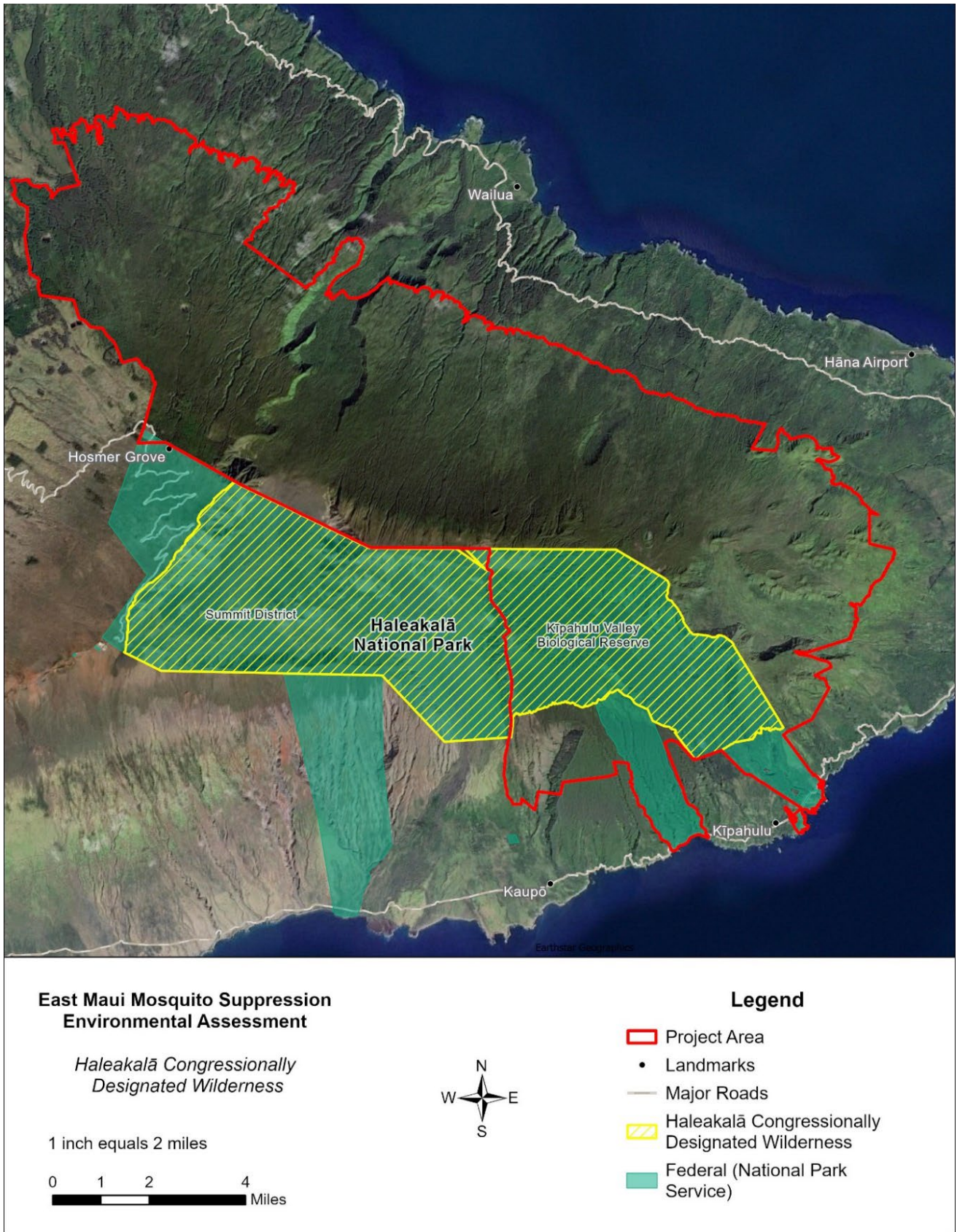


FIGURE 8: DESIGNATED HALEAKALĀ WILDERNESS WITHIN THE PROJECT AREA

The natural quality of the Haleakalā Wilderness has been severely impacted by non-native species introductions, which have led to the extinction or severe decline of many native species. Invasive plants grow quickly and outcompete native vegetation. Prior to rigorous management, feral ungulates overgrazed, trampled, and severely disturbed the crater and wet forest landscapes, damaging and altering vegetative communities, and significantly impacting ground-nesting birds. Invasive mammalian predators negatively impact the natural quality of wilderness, particularly populations of native bird species that have not evolved with this type of pressure. Avian diseases, such as avian malaria spread by introduced insects, have also taken a toll on native bird distribution and survival (NPS 2015a), thus substantially impacting the natural character of wilderness in the park.

The park is currently implementing predator and ungulate control, forest bird monitoring, and ground and aerial herbicide spray operations for invasive plant control which benefit the natural quality of wilderness. Mosquito surveys and monitoring of avian malaria prevalence have been conducted within the park in the past and recently by USGS and NPS and allow the NPS to evaluate the success of these programs. Additional ongoing or planned activities include fencing to exclude ungulates, manual removal of invasive plants, and native plant outplantings which also improve the natural quality of wilderness. The park would continue current management actions (see Appendix E) and respond to future needs and conditions to improve the natural quality of the wilderness, while minimizing adverse impacts on the untrammeled and undeveloped qualities of the wilderness. However, if no new actions are taken, avian malaria would continue to devastate native forest bird populations and would likely result in a permanent adverse impact on the natural quality of wilderness character, (i.e. the extirpation and extinction of native forest bird species). This degradation of the natural quality of wilderness would not be a natural phenomenon (the species loss would be caused by invasive mosquitoes and the diseases they transmit).

Undeveloped

An undeveloped wilderness retains its primeval character and influence and is essentially without permanent improvements or modern human occupation. The undeveloped quality is preserved or sustained when it remains free from modern structures, installations, human habitation, motor vehicles, motorized equipment, mechanical transport, and landing of aircraft. It is improved when these prohibited uses are removed or reduced.

Any evidence of human presence, whether large or small, detracts from the undeveloped quality of wilderness. Due to the remote location and difficult access of Kīpahulu Valley and adjacent areas, protection and restoration of this vulnerable environment may sometimes require non-recreational wilderness developments and installations. The developments present within Haleakalā Wilderness include fencing and fence supply caches, snares, monitoring transects, research plots, stream and weather monitoring stations, research shelters, traps and bait stations, trail and tool caches, and administrative trails (NPS 2015a). Developments are intermittent throughout Kīpahulu Valley and are located at maximum distances to achieve management goals. Research shelters exist near adjacent LZs and monitoring transects or administrative trails may be used to strategically travel to both a management site (i.e. invasive plant removal site) and another shelter within an 8-hour hike. These developments would remain in the wilderness in the future and continue to detract from the undeveloped quality of wilderness. A high demand for research permits and research installations also risk impact to the undeveloped nature of this naturally wild area of wilderness, as does the potential need to access these remote areas by helicopter (NPS 2015a).

The 2002 addition of congressionally designated wilderness to the park noted, “construction of fences to exclude feral animals and access into the wilderness via helicopter for fence maintenance, to control destructive invasive alien plants and non-native animals may be necessary to preserve wilderness resources and ecosystem processes” (NPS 2002).

Solitude or Primitive and Unconfined Recreation

Wilderness provides outstanding opportunities for recreation in an environment that is relatively free from the hindrance of modern society. The ability to experience solitude is an integral component of wilderness, while opportunities for primitive and unconfined recreation make the wilderness experience unique. In preserving this wilderness quality, it is important to consider the value of maintaining these places where present and future generations have the opportunity to feel free, at peace, and self-reliant. The solitude or primitive and unconfined recreation quality is preserved or improved when visitors experience minimal encounters, observe landscapes without

modern human effects, and experience self-reliance, discovery, self-discovery, traditional skills, and mental and physical challenge. The solitude or primitive and unconfined recreation quality is degraded by sights and sounds of human activity, and by facilities that decrease self-reliant recreation and management restrictions on visitor behavior.

Solitude in Haleakalā Wilderness is impacted by administrative flights, commercial helicopter air tours, hikers, campers, and day-use visitors, and administrative use of motorized equipment which audibly and visibly affect the primitive wilderness experience. Administrative flights are more frequent in the Kīpahulu District but are intermittent and do not occur on weekends or after dark (see **Figure 4** for existing flight infrastructure). Alternatively, commercial air tours occur constantly throughout the day and flights that occur just outside of the park can have impacts within Haleakalā Wilderness (see **Figure 7** for flight paths). Haleakalā Wilderness includes enclaves with both visitor and management cabins, and horse pastures to support visitor activities. Recreational infrastructure like cabins that are still visible to visitors may degrade the solitude or primitive and unconfined recreation quality. Sights and sounds of other visitors, along with restrictions for off-trail travel may impact this quality when visiting the Haleakalā Crater area of wilderness. Entry restrictions into areas of the Kīpahulu District of wilderness may also degrade opportunities for unconfined recreation. These impacts to solitude or primitive and unconfined recreation are expected to continue into the future.

Other Features of Value

This quality captures important elements or “features” of a particular wilderness that are not covered by the other four qualities and are truly unique and essential to the character of that wilderness. The Wilderness Act states that wilderness “may also contain ecological, geological, or other features of scientific, educational, scenic, or historical value.” Typically, other features of value occur in a specific wilderness location, such as archeological, historical, or paleontological features; some, however, may occur over a broad area such as an extensive geological or paleontological area, or a cultural landscape. This quality is preserved when these “other features of value” are preserved. The other features of value quality are degraded by deterioration or loss of integral site-specific features of value.

Haleakalā, a major geographical and cultural landmark of East Maui, remains intrinsically tied to contemporary Native Hawaiian culture by tangible and intangible cultural resources and values, place names, landscape features, and oral traditions and history. Additionally, the summit of Haleakalā, Kīpahulu Valley, and Kaupō Gap are eligible for the National Register of Historic Places as Traditional Cultural Properties for their association with the cultural landscape of Maui, primarily due to the known uses, oral history, mele (Hawaiian songs and chants), and legends associated with these areas. Potential threats to wilderness cultural sites originate from both environmental and human sources. In a wilderness context, the presence of cultural sites in their natural condition and the continued use of wilderness for traditional practices contribute value to the visitor’s sense of human history, provide for the continuation of cultural practices associated with wilderness, and speak to the larger role of humans as an important element of their environment. The rare forest birds within the Haleakalā Wilderness not only have ecological value as captured under the natural quality but also contribute to the cultural resources of the wilderness given their importance to Native Hawaiians. These birds continue to be subject to mortality due to avian malaria, degrading the wilderness character. The proposed action will not adversely affect cultural resources and thus they were dismissed from detailed analysis (see Appendix B); however, a Cultural Impact Assessment has been prepared as required by HEPA (see Appendix C). Cultural resources are briefly considered here as a feature of value of Haleakalā Wilderness that may benefit from the proposed action.

Effects of the Proposed Action on Wilderness

Methods and Assumptions

Potential impacts on designated wilderness were evaluated based on four of the five qualities of wilderness character as described earlier in this section. Impacts on the untrammelled, natural, undeveloped, and solitude or primitive and unconfined recreation qualities are analyzed for the no-action alternative and the proposed action alternative. The

analyses only apply to the actions taken within or near the designated Haleakalā Wilderness within the park under each alternative as there is no designated wilderness outside of federal lands.

To ensure an enduring resource of wilderness, the Wilderness Act (section 4(c)) prohibits certain uses within wilderness: “there shall be no temporary road, no use of motor vehicles, motorized equipment, or motorboats, no landing of aircraft, no other form of mechanical transport, and no structure or installation within such area.” The exception for utilizing these prohibited uses is only if they are “necessary to meet minimum requirements for the administration of the area.”

Analysis

Under the proposed action, incompatible mosquitoes would be released within the project area using aerial methods, primarily drones. Monitoring activities associated with the proposed action would also include helicopter use and landings within two sites in wilderness in addition to the use of portable generators at two sites in wilderness. The untrammelled, natural, undeveloped, and opportunities for solitude or primitive and unconfined recreation qualities of wilderness would be impacted by the proposed action.

Untrammelled

All three mosquito release deployment methods under the proposed action would have the same impact on the untrammelled quality of wilderness. The broad intervention of wildlife through the release of mosquitoes using any of the three methods would result in an adverse impact on the untrammelled quality of wilderness for the life of the plan, likely at least 20 years, as the methods described in the proposed action are used to suppress mosquito populations to reduce avian malaria mortality in native forest birds.

Natural

Minimal clearing of vegetation at LZs, trails, and fence lines would be required at the onset of the project to accommodate mosquito monitoring, but impacts would be limited to areas that have already been cleared for administrative use and mechanized equipment would not be used. Noise from drone flights (maximum of 47–59 dBA at 100–200 feet AGL) once or twice per week would briefly disturb wildlife from 15 seconds to a few minutes. More pronounced noise would occur from short-term (up to two months), temporary helicopter longline releases (maximum of 82 dBA at 150 feet AGL), but from 15 seconds to a few minutes at any given location. Quarterly pedestrian monitoring and release efforts would include helicopter landings, human activity, and generator use resulting in slightly longer and louder noise impacts. However, noise from helicopters would only occur for minutes at a time during take-off and landing and just once every three months. Generator noise (maximum of 52–58 dBA at 23 lateral feet) could occur for up to 3 hours per day for up to 7 consecutive days on a quarterly basis at two monitoring locations within wilderness. The presence of and noise from these motorized and mechanized uses would result in adverse impacts on the natural quality of wilderness during mosquito release and monitoring activities. The reduction in the mosquito population under the proposed action, and the subsequent reduction in native forest bird mortality from the transmission of avian malaria, would result in substantial beneficial impacts to the natural quality of wilderness character because of the resultant stabilization or increase in native forest bird populations over time. The planned incompatible mosquito releases would be a long-term action aimed at restoring natural ecosystem processes that have been degraded by invasive mosquitoes spreading avian malaria. Over the long term, the proposed action would substantially benefit the natural quality of wilderness compared to the existing conditions.

Undeveloped

The use of motorized equipment, such as drones, helicopters, and generators (during monitoring) would result in intermittent, direct, adverse impacts on the undeveloped quality of wilderness character given the presence of this technologically advanced equipment in a wilderness setting. Pedestrian releases may occur within designated wilderness in the Kīpahulu Valley Biological Reserve but only on a quarterly basis simultaneous with ground-based mosquito monitoring. Helicopters would land briefly in wilderness during each incompatible mosquito monitoring and release operation, to pick up and drop off teams and supplies. Generators would likely be used for up to 3 hours per day

for up to seven consecutive days during the monitoring trips. The presence of helicopters and generators within wilderness would briefly adversely impact the undeveloped quality given the presence of this technologically advanced equipment in a wilderness setting. Incompatible mosquitoes may be released in small biodegradable packages designed to open upon contact with the canopy or forest floor. These mosquito packages (dropped via aerial means would result in an impact to the undeveloped quality of wilderness for as long as they remain in the environment (until they biodegrade).

Solitude or Primitive and Unconfined Recreation

Of lands within the designated Haleakalā Wilderness, only the Kīpahulu Valley Biological Reserve portion is within the project area and is closed to all recreation. However, drone and helicopter flights to and from the project area over the Summit District portion of designated wilderness would occur on an intermittent basis (approximately once or twice per week), very briefly (perhaps 15 seconds to a few minutes) audibly and visibly impacting the primitive wilderness experience. As described in Chapter 2, it is conservatively estimated that this project would require up to 72 hours of drone flight time per week during warm months and 49 hours during cold months to achieve the desired mosquito release rate; however, flights over or near designated wilderness within the Kīpahulu Valley Biological Reserve (2,318 acres of the 64,666 project acre) would likely require only approximately 2–3 hours of flight time and at any given location these drones would be perceptible either visually or aurally for less than 30 seconds (hovering would last 15 seconds or less over a particular location). The helicopter longline method could result in a maximum estimate of 28–39 hours of flight time per month, but this method would only be used as a short-term (up to two months), temporary release method if or when drones are unavailable and the time to cover areas near or within designated wilderness would likely be approximately 1–2 hours. When helicopters fly or hover above the canopy, noise levels on the ground would not exceed 82 dBA and would only approach that level for less than 15 seconds in any given location. Although helicopter noise would be short lived in any particular area, it would adversely impact the ability of wilderness users to enjoy a sense of solitude or primitive recreation. Pedestrian releases may also occur within designated wilderness in the Kīpahulu Valley Biological Reserve but only on a quarterly basis simultaneous with ground-based mosquito monitoring. Helicopters would land briefly in wilderness during each incompatible mosquito release operation, to pick up and drop off teams and supplies. Direct adverse impacts on the primitive wilderness experience would result, though these would be rarely and intermittently perceptible to visitors in accessible wilderness areas. Project noise created within the Kīpahulu Valley Biological Reserve portion of designated wilderness that does not travel beyond that boundary would not affect opportunities for solitude and primitive experiences in wilderness areas open to public access.

Other Features of Value

As stated previously, the proposed action would have no impact on physical historical resources within designated wilderness. The proposed action would likely support a considerable recovery of native forest birds which are of cultural importance to Native Hawaiians, thus benefiting the cultural landscape and the other features of value quality of wilderness.

Cumulative Impacts

When the impacts of the proposed action are added to impacts from past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future projects within the park described under Current and Expected Future Condition of the Environment (see Appendix E), the overall cumulative impact on wilderness character would be beneficial. Although the proposed action would adversely impact some wilderness character qualities due to the noise and presence of drones, helicopters, and generators, these impacts would not permanently affect wilderness and the overall result of reduced mosquito populations would be a long-term beneficial impact to the natural quality of wilderness and other features of value (native forest bird populations). Natural conditions in wilderness would dramatically improve as a result of the suppression of mosquito populations, which would reduce avian malaria mortality in native forest birds.

Conclusion

The no-action alternative is likely to result in fewer impacts to the untrammeled, undeveloped, opportunity for solitude and other features of value in wilderness compared to the proposed action. However, under the no-action alternative, the natural quality of wilderness would continue to severely degrade with the irreparable harm to native forest bird species. The proposed action impacts additional wilderness character qualities including the untrammeled quality, undeveloped quality, and opportunity for solitude from the use of mechanized equipment for incompatible mosquito releases. However, this alternative would likely support a considerable recovery to natural conditions previously present on the island, thus benefiting the natural and other features of value qualities of wilderness. Therefore, both alternatives detract from wilderness character qualities, but under the proposed action the small adverse impacts to the undeveloped quality, untrammeled quality, and opportunity for solitude from mosquito releases provide a substantial benefit to the natural and other features of value qualities through the protection of native forest birds. Though considerable analysis is presented here, overall adverse impacts to wilderness would be brief and minimal.

VISITOR USE AND EXPERIENCE

Current and Expected Future Condition of Visitor Use and Experience if No Action is Taken

The character and quality of the visitor experience influences perception of natural areas, providing a unique encounter with a place that differentiates it from other regions. Public enjoyment of resources is a fundamental purpose of all national parks (NPS 2006). DLNR manages forest reserves for multiple uses, including visitation. TNC also allows visitors by appointment within the Waikamoi Preserve. The project area lands managed by the park, state, TNC, and private entities are largely inaccessible and remote. Less than 5 percent of the total project area is open to visitors without a permit or readily accessible to visitors, while nearly 40 percent is completely closed to visitation (without a permit) to protect ecologically sensitive resources, including the Kīpahulu Biological Reserve and Hanawi Natural Area Reserve (**Figure 9**).

The current condition of visitor use and experience is described below. A detailed discussion of past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future projects within the park and adjacent lands contributing to the existing conditions and current trends for visitor use and experience are described in more detail in Appendix E. The description below provides an overview of how these ongoing and future actions would affect visitor use and experience.

Under the no-action alternative, visitor use and experience would remain the same or similar to existing conditions, including trends and impacts from past, present and foreseeable planned actions. Therefore, the affected environment and impacts of no-action are the same and discussed only once here.

Haleakalā National Park

The fundamental purpose of the park is to offer opportunities for public education and enjoyment. Visitors come to the park to participate in a range of recreational activities, including viewing sunrise and sunset, hiking, swimming, bicycling, attending ranger programs, scenic flights or driving, stargazing and astronomy, birdwatching, and camping. The enabling legislation that created the park—H.R. 9525, Public, No. 171, Chapter 264—states that, “...the tracts of land on the island of Hawai‘i and on the island of Maui...shall be perpetually dedicated and set apart as a public park or pleasure ground for the benefit and enjoyment of the people of the United States...” Between 2014 and 2017, the park averaged 1.2 million visitors annually (NPS 2018). Visitation was approximately 850,000 in 2021 (NPS 2021). Within the park, the Summit District sees approximately 3–4 times as much visitation as the Kīpahulu District. Most visitors enter the park in vehicles or tour buses.

The majority of the project area within the park is within the Kīpahulu Biological Reserve, which is closed to the public. Access is restricted to authorized scientists and land managers conducting research and management. The absence of public access to the reserve helps conserve the fragile biodiversity of the area (NPS 2018).

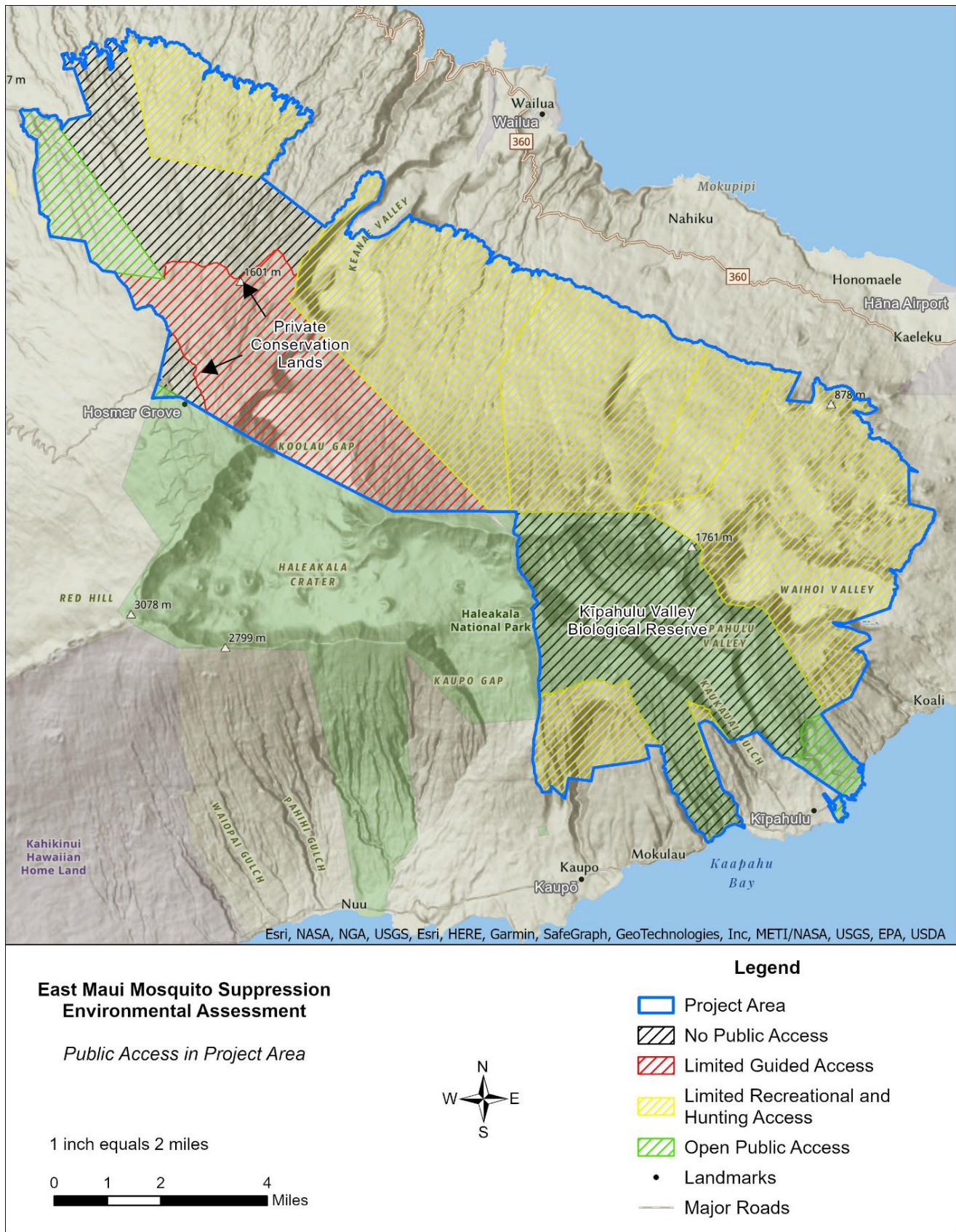


FIGURE 9: PUBLIC ACCESS IN THE PROJECT AREA

The lower portion of the Kīpahulu District (~766 acres) is the second most visited destination in the park. Approximately 325,000 visitors come to the lower Kīpahulu District annually (NPS 2021, FY 2018–2019). Recreational activities in the lower Kīpahulu Valley area include hiking, ranger-led interpretive hikes, commercial vehicle tours of the area, and camping, which all generate noise (NPS 2018). The Kīpahulu Campground has 21 designated sites for camping. Several popular trails include the Pīpīwai and Kūloa Point trails. The Kīpahulu District Visitor Center is open daily (usually from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.) and the Kīpahulu campground (also open daily) offers 15 drive-up campsites, one group site, and five walk-in campsites.

Other than the lower Kīpahulu District, only 124 acres of the park-managed land within the project area has public visitation, including Hosmer Grove, located in the northwest corner of the project area. Hosmer Grove provides opportunities to camp, picnic, hike and birdwatch throughout the year, and is considered a birdwatching “hot spot” (eBird 2022). Neither the lower Kīpahulu Valley or Hosmer Grove areas are within the core mosquito release area.

Commercial air tours and recreational activities such as birdwatching and hiking are anticipated to continue or increase in or near portions of the project area. Periodic management helicopter flights on park lands are also anticipated to continue to facilitate resource stewardship projects and scientific research. Visitor use and experience may be disrupted by helicopter use for park management, but audible and visual impacts are intermittent and average 2–4 hours in duration. Commercial air tours operate year-round and may be constant near visitor use and recreational areas; within the project area air tours are most common above the Kīpahulu District. Visitors to the park may experience disruptions from ongoing infrastructure updates or health and safety management operations. For park projects, disturbance and impacts on visitor experience are assessed and efforts are made to reduce the duration of impacts, for example by avoiding use of load machinery during peak visitation hours or using an alternate tool. Improvements to trails would periodically occur, such as along the Pīpīwai Trail in the lower Kīpahulu District where a new viewing platform is planned. Visitors may also encounter park staff performing surveys or conducting invasive plant or wildlife control projects. Under the no-action alternative, mosquitoes would continue to spread avian malaria which would severely impact native forest birds leading to considerable mortality and likely extinction, which would diminish the experience of visitors seeking to enjoy these birds.

State Forest Reserves

The DLNR Forest Reserve System was initially created to protect and restore watersheds in Hawai‘i. Today, DOFAW manages the forest reserves for conservation and public benefits in addition to the original watershed protections. Multiple management objectives include native ecosystem protection, endangered species recovery, forest restoration, public recreation, forest products, opportunities for cultural practices, and archaeological preservation. Visitor use in the Ko‘olau Forest Reserve is relatively low as the lands within the reserve are encumbered by a permit issued to a private party for water use. Under the terms of that permit, public access is officially limited to permitted access and hunter access on weekends and state holidays through a reservation system. Unauthorized entries do occur but are generally limited to locations adjacent to the Hāna Highway. Visitor use to the Hāna Forest Reserve is relatively low due to the limited number of public access locations. Much of the reserve is bordered by private lands that require landowner permission to cross. Visitor use to the Kīpahulu Forest Reserve is also low as the adjacent private and national park lands do not allow public access without permission. Visitor use in the Makawao Forest Reserve is relatively high, and includes uses for hiking, hunting, mountain biking, and other outdoor recreational activities. Each of the reserves is characterized by difficult terrain and limited access infrastructure, such as roads and trails. The most popular area for the non-hunting public is Makawao Forest Reserve, which has readily accessible hiking trails such as the Kahakapao Loop. DOFAW issues a small number of permits each year for collecting and scientific research. Each permit is considered on its own merits, including its potential effect on the specific forest reserve resources and the public’s use and enjoyment of the forest reserve (DLNR 2021).

Each of the reserves is open for public hunting, year-round daily on the Hāna and Kīpahulu Forest Reserves and on weekends and state holidays in the Ko‘olau Forest Reserve. Hunting of the following game mammals is permitted with a valid hunting license and in accordance with DLNR rules: (1) feral pig (*Sus scrofa*), (2) axis deer (*Axis axis*), and (3) feral goat (*Capra aegagrus hircus*) (DLNR 2003).

Under the no-action alternative, commercial air tours and recreational activities such as hunting are anticipated to continue or increase in or near portions of the project area. Commercial air tours are not as common above state lands as compared to NPS lands but visitors could occasionally be impacted by these flights as well as administrative flights. Visitors may also encounter DLNR staff performing surveys or conducting invasive plant or wildlife control projects. Mosquitoes would continue to spread avian malaria which would severely impact native forest birds leading to considerable mortality and likely extinction, which would diminish the experience of visitors seeking to enjoy these birds, particularly in Makawao Forest Reserve.

State Natural Area Reserves

The Natural Area Reserves System (NARS) was created to preserve and protect representative samples of Hawaiian biological ecosystems and geological formations (DLNR 1997). The Natural Area Reserves are managed by DLNR DOFAW Native Ecosystem and Protection Program. Areas that are designated as NARs are protected by rules and management activities designed to maintain and restore native ecosystems intact, so a sample of that natural community would be preserved. NARs are some of Hawai'i's most valued, pristine, and biologically diverse forests, coastal areas, and marine ecosystems. Visitor use in the Hanawā NAR is low as there are no legal access locations through adjacent lands. A small number of permits are issued each year for scientific research.

The Nature Conservancy and Private Lands

Public access to TNC's Waikamoi Preserve is limited to guided hikes, educational and service trips, and scientific research. TNC typically leads public hikes into Waikamoi Preserve one to two times per month throughout the year with a maximum of 15 participants. In addition, approximately one volunteer work trip is conducted once a month, and TNC typically provides trips into the preserve twice a month, once for local groups, and once a month for donors or other special guests. Visitation to the preserve by visitors is approximately 1,000 persons per year (TNC 2021). East Maui Irrigation/Mahi Pono lands are closed to the public unless given permission by land managers (M. Vaught, *pers. comm.*, 10/27/21). Mosquitoes would continue to spread avian malaria which would severely impact native forest birds leading to considerable mortality and likely extinction, which would diminish the experience of visitors seeking to experience these birds, particularly in this preserve where birdwatching and visitation is popular.

Effects of the Proposed Action on Visitor Experience

Methods and Assumptions

Potential impacts to visitor use and experience under the proposed action would include noise and visual distractions from drones and helicopters. The baseline for evaluating potential impacts to visitor experience was developed using an assumption that visitors are seeking an experience in nature and that proposed management activities would impact that experience. Without a survey of visitors, there is an assumption that most visitors would consider activities under the proposed action to be a distraction, though they may possibly be of interest, as some visitors may not interpret seeing helicopter or drones engaged in conservation activities as an adverse impact to their experience. Given the similarity of conditions on state and TNC-managed lands outside the park, it is assumed existing noise levels in these areas would be similar to those occurring within park boundaries. Impacts were evaluated based on the potential for incompatible mosquito release activities under any of the release methods to create impacts that could affect the visitor experience.

Analysis Area

The area of analysis for impacts of the alternatives on visitor use and experience includes the portions of the park, state, and TNC lands where management activities overlap with visitor use (**Figure 9**). Although the project area encompasses 64,666 acres, any considerable visitor use is largely limited to a much smaller area including the lower Kīpahulu District in the park (3,706 acres), Makawao Forest Reserve and scattered hunting in remote areas of State Forest Reserves, and guided hikes in some areas of TNC's Waikamoi Preserve (on less than approximately 10 percent of this preserve). The Summit District outside of the mosquito release area is discussed in this section to account for drone and helicopter flights over this area to reach the mosquito release areas under the proposed action. Much of the

project area is remote, roadless, and consists of steep topography, deep ravines, and dense vegetative cover inhibiting sound and sight.

With the exception of Makawao Forest Reserve, with popular hiking trails, hunting is the primary visitor use in much of the State Forest Reserves (343 sq mi). The Kīpahulu Biological Reserve within the park is closed to visitors. It is assumed for this analysis that the type of impacts on visitor use and experience would be similar for management activities occurring on NPS and adjacent state and private lands within the project area.

Analysis

Under the proposed action, visitor impacts would primarily be associated with some disturbance from aerial operations and pedestrian teams during project implementation. The noise disturbance and other visitor experience impacts vary with release method, location of release activities, and level of visitor access. Because incompatible mosquito releases would only occur during the daytime on weekdays, there would be no impacts to visitor experience at night or on weekends. Potential intermittent disturbance may be offset by potentially successful mosquito suppression and conservation of Hawaiian honeycreepers, which would result in a long-term beneficial impact on the visitor experience, especially for visitors that would enjoy hearing and seeing the iconic Hawaiian honeycreepers.

Drone Release

As described in Chapter 2, drones would be the primary mosquito release method and it is conservatively estimated that the proposed action would require up to 49–72 hours of drone flight time per week (depending upon the time of year) to achieve the desired incompatible mosquito release rate for mosquito suppression. Drone flight paths would vary substantially depending upon the release locations being treated each day, and drones would likely pass over a specific location twice per week or less. Visitors at or near release locations would experience noise (maximum of 47–59 dBA at 100–200 feet AGL) and visual disturbance while the drone is flying above. This method would have minimal adverse impacts on visitor experience on park, state, and TNC lands as the visual and auditory disturbance would be short in duration, likely from 15 seconds to a few minutes (drones may hover for less than 15 seconds over a particular location). Drone mosquito releases would occur in areas largely inaccessible to visitors and would not occur at night or on weekends. Drone noise could potentially be heard (above approximately 27 dBA) up to 0.5 mile of the drone. Notably, the extensive tree canopy cover and rugged terrain can have a dampening effect on sound and may reduce the distance (likely by half or more based on anecdotal experience of park and state staff working in the project area) where sound is heard. The nearest recreational areas where people could experience drone noise are in Makawao Forest Reserve and lower Kīpahulu District. People in these areas could very briefly experience drone noise if drones pass within 0.5 mile of recreational trails or other public use areas. Most of the areas where drones would be conducting releases would be out of earshot for hikers along the Pīpīwai Trail to Waimoku Falls.

Helicopter Longline Release

When drones are not available, intermittent adverse impacts on visitor experience from helicopter overflights would occur. Adverse impacts would result from elevated sound levels along helicopter flight paths while accessing the project area. Impacts to the visitor experience could occur over a relatively short duration (15 seconds to a few minutes) primarily due to noise (maximum of 82 dBA at 150 feet AGL). Brief visual impacts would also be likely. As described in previous sections, under the worst-case scenario, helicopter noise could be audible up to 3.5 miles from a given helicopter flight path, and noise levels could be above existing ambient up to 1.8 miles from the flight path. Speech interference could occur at 0.47 miles from the flight path. Visitors in the Summit District of the park outside of the core mosquito suppression area could see an increase of helicopter flights, approximately one or two additional flights per week for up to two months, over this area to reach the incompatible mosquito release locations. However, the vast majority of flights (helicopter or drone) would likely be based out of temporary helibases outside of the Summit District and flights would not cross the area. For flight paths to and from ‘Ohe‘o, helicopter noise would be audible at Waimoku Falls for a duration of less than four minutes. Speech interference would likely not occur, and noises would rarely exceed existing ambient in lower Kīpahulu Valley as a result of project-related flights. Additionally, lower Kīpahulu Valley already experiences consistent helicopter noise disturbance from commercial air tours. The Kīpahulu acoustic monitoring station recorded noise from helicopters approximately 28 percent of the time (likely up to 10

commercial tour flights per day). Therefore, the limited use of helicopters under the proposed action would likely not be noticeable to the public.

There would be no mosquito releases at night or on the weekends, so noise impacts would only occur during daylight hours (between civil sunrise and civil sunset) on weekdays. During helicopter longline releases, adverse impacts on visitor use and experience would primarily occur along flight paths, at helibases, and when hovering over mosquito release locations. Helicopters would hover for less than 15 seconds over each mosquito release location. At any given location in the core area, the perceived noise levels from helicopter operations would fluctuate for visitors because helicopters would be moving through the area quickly (22 mph during releases and up to 115 mph during transit). The core area contains many places where there is little to no public use. The most well-used areas with established public trails include Makawao Forest Reserve and the lower Kīpahulu District area where many people use the Pīpīwai Trail to access Waimoku Falls. The proposed action would only minimally elevate noises experienced by visitors in the vicinity of lower Kīpahulu Valley.

Pedestrian Release

Using this method, mosquito releases would result in a minimal adverse impact on visitor experience from the use of helicopters, mechanized and motorized equipment, and human activity associated with mosquito release and monitoring activities. Only Makawao Forest Reserve, TNC's Waikamoi Preserve, and other private lands within the project area could be subject to consistent pedestrian releases up to twice per week. Adverse noise impacts on visitor experience from helicopters (maximum of 82 dBA at 150 feet AGL) would be variable but would not be sustained, as ground teams and equipment would only be dropped off and picked up on a quarterly basis at the beginning and end of each monitoring effort (when some pedestrian releases could occur) at five remote LZs in the project area which do not see consistent visitor use other than occasional hunting. Generator noise (maximum of 52–58 dBA at 23 lateral feet) could be audible for up to 3 hours per day and 7 days per week on a quarterly basis. However, generators would only be used during mosquito monitoring activities which occur in remote areas, out of earshot of public visitors. Popular birdwatching areas in the project area include Waikamoi (TNC), Hosmer Grove (park), and Kahakapao Trail (Makawao Forest Reserve, state). While the Summit District does offer backpacking and hiking opportunities, mosquito release activities within the project area would be largely shielded from the Summit District by the rim of the crater and only limited visitors, if any, would hear or see helicopters operating in the project area. Overall, noise from this release method would be minimal and would include noise of up to 75 dBA at 50 feet from vehicles approaching and leaving trailheads up to 2 hours per day, 2 days per week. Noise impacts from vehicles would blend into the vehicle traffic/noise already occurring at trailheads.

Mosquito Monitoring

Motorized vehicles (SUVs or trucks) would assist in the transportation of field teams and gear to reach three ground-accessible monitoring sites in Makawao Forest Reserve and TNC's Waikamoi Preserve. Noise from vehicles used during monitoring would primarily occur along the Flume Road shown (in brown) on **Figure 5** and is not expected to exceed 4 hours per day for up to 7 days on a quarterly basis. It should be noted that vehicles would not be running constantly during that 4-hour time period because crews would be stopping periodically to check mosquito traps. As previously mentioned, ground vehicles can reach 75 dBA at 50 feet from the source but would be muffled by the surrounding canopy and would not be expected to exceed 60 dBA at 50 feet from the source of noise.

Overall, the noise from helicopters and generators would be focused at the five helicopter-only accessible monitoring camps and LZs. Noise from approaching or departing vehicles would occur at trailheads in Makawao Forest Reserve and TNC's Waikamoi Preserve. Adverse impacts on visitor use and experience during monitoring activities from helicopters, generators, and vehicles would be highly variable and not sustained (would only occur every three months). In addition, it is unlikely that any visitors or recreationists would be aware of the helicopter landings or generator noise due to the remoteness of the LZs used during monitoring and the infrequency of trips required for quarterly monitoring.

Cumulative Impacts

The impacts of past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future actions (see Appendix E) and the no-action alternative are as described in the “Current and Expected Future Condition of Visitor Use and Experience if No Action is Taken” section. Because the no-action alternative would not result in any new actions that would have indirect or direct impacts to visitor use and experience, there would be no cumulative effects associated with the no-action alternative. Under the proposed action, there would be impacts to visitor experience mostly from the use of drones and helicopters to release mosquitoes. However, these impacts to visitor experience would be limited to drone and helicopter flight paths and landing zones as much of the core mosquito release areas are closed to the public.

When the impacts of the proposed action are added to the impacts of present and reasonably foreseeable actions, an adverse cumulative impact on visitor experience would continue for visitors, due to ongoing actions, primarily in the form of commercial air tours. The proposed action would add a limited incremental adverse impact to visitor use and experience from increased drone and helicopter overflights. In addition, the suppression of invasive mosquitoes would result in a long-term beneficial impact on the visitor experience especially visitors that would enjoy hearing and seeing the iconic Hawaiian honeycreepers. Overall, cumulative impacts would remain adverse, primarily due to the other past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future actions.

Conclusion

Under the no-action alternative, conditions and trends would remain the same or similar as existing conditions. Visitors would not experience additional disturbances from mosquito release activities and invasive mosquitoes would continue to spread avian malaria which would severely impact native forest birds leading to considerable mortality and likely extirpation and extinction. Compared to the no-action alternative, mosquito release activities under the proposed action would contribute additional periodic adverse impacts on visitor experience near LZs, helibases, flight paths, and trails from the use of drones, mechanized equipment, and helicopters largely in the form of noise and visual intrusion. Adverse impacts from the pedestrian release method would be confined to a small portion of the overall project area. Because the majority of the project area is closed to the general public, there will be only minimal impacts to visitor experience from mosquito release and monitoring activities. A permanent beneficial impact on the visitor experience is anticipated under the proposed action, if the mosquito control effort is successful and native forest bird populations stabilize or recover. For those who are visiting portions of the analysis area to enjoy a unique native rainforest ecosystem or birdwatching, the beneficial impact could be considered substantial. Though considerable analysis is presented here, overall adverse impacts to visitor use and experience would be brief and minimal.

THREATENED AND ENDANGERED PLANT SPECIES AND STATE PLANT SPECIES AT RISK

Plant species listed as threatened or endangered receive federal and state protection under the ESA and Chapter 195D, Hawai‘i Revised Statutes, respectively, and are characterized as those that are in danger of or threatened with extinction throughout all or a significant portion of their range. State plant species at risk include species that are not federally or state listed but are recognized as imperiled or vulnerable by the state and have been identified as important to protect and manage by biologists or land managers as there are fewer than 50 individuals remaining in the wild. Some plant species at risk may be considered vulnerable to population declines, or extinction, by state or global metrics (e.g., NatureServe Global Conservation Rank), others are lacking enough information to make a status determination.

The analysis area for listed plant species, designated critical habitat, and plant species at risk includes portions of the project area that would be used for ground-based pedestrian mosquito releases and monitoring activities. This includes a 20-foot buffer around management trails, fence lines, and established helicopter LZs and camps that would be used to support ground-based activities. Although there are a few listed plant species and plant species at risk that grow on trees and occur within the project area, these are extremely unlikely to be affected by aerial activities (e.g., rotor wash during helicopter longline release). Therefore, portions of the project area that only include aerial activities (e.g., drone and helicopter longline flights) are not included in the analysis area, as these activities would not affect listed plant species, designated critical habitat, and plant species at risk.

Current and Expected Future Condition of Threatened and Endangered Plant Species and State Plant Species At Risk if No Action is Taken

The current condition of threatened and endangered plant species and state plant species at risk is described below. A detailed discussion of past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future projects within the park contributing to the existing conditions and current trends for threatened and endangered plant species, designated critical habitat, and state plant species at risk are described in more detail in Appendix E. The description below provides an overview of how these ongoing and future actions would affect threatened and endangered plant species and state plant species at risk.

Under the no-action alternative, conditions for threatened and endangered plant species and state plant species at risk would continue to be the same or similar to existing conditions with the same trends and impacts from past, present, and foreseeable planned actions. Therefore, the affected environment and impacts of no-action are the same and discussed only once here.

Currently, 425 plant species in Hawai‘i are federally and state listed as threatened or endangered (USFWS 2022c). Many of these plant species persist at very low numbers and are in rapid decline (USFWS 2021a). Existing threats to listed plant species across the Hawaiian Islands include habitat loss, degradation, and modification of habitat from non-native invasive plants and animals, and disease (USFWS 2021a). While plant species at risk are not currently protected under the ESA and Hawai‘i Revised Statutes Chapter 195D, they face the same threats as listed species.

Climate change is exacerbating and accelerating threats to listed species and plant species at risk across the Hawaiian Islands. Rapid climate change, including the global trend of atmospheric warming, is an important factor expected to contribute to numerous extinctions across the globe (Thomas et al. 2004). Changes in environmental conditions, such as increasing storm intensities and temperatures and decreasing precipitation, can result in changes to the microclimate of a species habitat, and may lead to the loss of the species or loss of native species associated with that species habitat (USFWS 2021a).

In addition, natural ecosystems in Hawai‘i rely on the pollination services of native birds and insects, in particular native honeycreepers, and yellow-faced bees (UH Honeybee Project 2022). Native Hawaiian lobeliads evolved in concert with Hawaiian honeyeaters and honeycreepers. Five genera of Hawaiian lobeliads (*Clermontia*, *Delissea*, *Cyanea*, *Lobelia*, and *Trematolobelia*) are believed to have evolved flowers adapted for pollination by Hawaiian honeycreepers and honeyeaters (Pender et al. 2014). Although information on specific plant-pollinator relationships is limited (Barton et al. 2021), the relationship between native Hawaiian birds and plants is threatened by the loss or functional extinction of much of Hawai‘i’s avifauna (Pratt et al. 2009). Due to the extinction of all native Hawaiian honeyeaters, most honeycreepers, and the decline of remaining nectar-feeding honeycreepers, reproduction in some lobeliads may now be limited (Barton et al. 2021). Native birds are increasingly infrequent visitors to lobeliads in many Hawaiian forests, especially at low and mid elevations where introduced avian malaria has decimated native bird populations (Cory et al., 2015 as cited in Barton et al. 2021).

Federal Threatened and Endangered Plant Species and Designated Critical Habitat Within Analysis Area

Twenty-seven plant species listed as endangered under the federal ESA and HRS Chapter 195D occur within the plant analysis area. Table F-1 in Appendix F lists these species and their habitat, as well as the locations of known occurrences of these species within the analysis area. Fourteen of these species are found on park land within the analysis area, 11 on state land, and 11 are found on TNC-managed lands. One of these 27 listed plant species, hāhā (*Cyanea kunthia*), is known to occur on lands managed by all three entities (i.e. park, state, and TNC) within the analysis area. The majority of the listed plant species occurring in the analysis area are found in lowland or montane, wet to mesic forests.

The analysis area includes designated critical habitat for 37 federally listed plant species on park, state, and TNC-managed lands (USFWS 2022b; Appendix F). However, only 19 of the listed plant species with designated critical habitat that overlap the analysis area also have known occurrences within the analysis area (Table F-2 in Appendix F).

Within the analysis area, listed plant species and designated critical habitat have been and would likely continue to be affected by ongoing management activities. Under the no-action alternative, ongoing and future management activities expected within the analysis area include implementing ground and aerial herbicide spray techniques to help control or eradicate invasive plant species, as well as manual removal of invasive plant species; ungulate, predator, and pest control; trail maintenance; fence construction and maintenance; landing zone and shelter maintenance; fire management; and collection, reintroduction, and monitoring of endangered plants. These activities have the potential to inadvertently introduce and spread invasive species through movement of personnel and equipment, which can negatively affect listed plants and designated critical habitat. Invasive plants can outcompete or reduce habitat availability for listed plants. Similarly, feral ungulates can degrade native habitat required for listed plants, including designated critical habitat (USFWS 2021a). Other potential adverse effects from these activities include the accidental trampling of plants or inadvertent harm to listed plant species and designated critical habitat during application of herbicides for invasive plant control.

In addition to ongoing and future management activities, ongoing and future visitor use of the park, state, and TNC lands has the potential to affect listed plants and designated critical habitat. Pedestrian visitors within the plant analysis area have the potential to trample these species or their habitat. However, public access to much of the plant analysis area is generally limited or restricted (**Figure 9**) and visitors are likely to stay on designated hiking trails. Pedestrian visitors also have the potential to introduce or spread invasive species or pathogens, which may adversely affect listed plants and designated critical habitat. Future actions within the analysis area include the Pīpīwai Trail Viewing Platform and inventory and monitoring vegetation plots projects in the park, watershed resource monitoring on state-lands, and installation of cell tower infrastructure within TNC-managed lands have the potential to affect listed plants and designated critical habitat through accidental trampling or introduction of invasive species or pathogens.

Ongoing management actions and pedestrian visitation to the analysis area are discussed in the existing conditions for listed plant species and designated critical habitat. Because the effects of these activities are included in the affected environment, the no-action alternative would not result in any new direct or indirect impacts to listed plant species or designated critical habitat. Because there would be no new direct and indirect impacts as a result of the no-action alternative, there would be no cumulative effects associated with the no-action alternative. However, if no action is taken avian malaria would continue to devastate native forest bird populations which could potentially affect listed plant species due to the loss of pollination services of these native birds. However, information on specific plant-pollinator relationships is limited (Barton et al. 2021); therefore, the likelihood and extent of potential impacts to listed plant species from the continued loss of native forest birds is unknown.

State Plant Species at Risk and Habitat Within Analysis Area

Twenty-three state plant species at risk occur in the plant analysis area. These species are listed in Table F-3 in Appendix F, along with their habitat, and locations within the analysis area. Four of these 23 species are found on park land within the analysis area, none on state land, and 19 are found on TNC-managed lands. None of these plant species at risk occur on lands managed by all three entities (i.e. park, state, and TNC) within the analysis area, and only two species, Hawai'i jewel-orchid (*Anoectochilus sandvicensis*) and awapuhiakanaloa (*Liparis hawaiiensis*), are known to occur on lands managed by both the park and TNC within the analysis area. Most plant species at risk within the analysis are found within mesic to wet forest habitats.

The impacts to plant species at risk and their habitat within the analysis area from ongoing and future actions would be the same as described above for federal threatened and endangered plant species. The no-action alternative would not result in any new direct or indirect impacts to plant species at risk or their habitat within the analysis area. Because there would be no new direct and indirect impacts to plant species at risk or their habitat as a result of the no-action alternative, there would be no cumulative effects associated with the no-action alternative. However, if no action is taken avian malaria would continue to devastate native forest bird populations which could potentially affect plant species at risk due to the loss of pollination services of these native birds. However, as noted above, information on specific plant-pollinator relationships is limited (Barton et al. 2021); therefore, the likelihood and extent of potential impacts to plant species at risk from the continued loss of native forest birds is unknown.

Effects of the Proposed Action on Threatened and Endangered Plant Species and State Plant Species At Risk

Methods and Assumptions

Potential impacts on listed plant species and plant species at risk and their habitat, including designated critical habitat, were evaluated based on resource expert knowledge and professional judgment, review of available research, and anticipated locations where ground-based activities under the proposed action would occur. Listed plant species, designated critical habitat, and plant species at risk assessed include those species with known occurrences or designated critical habitat that overlap the analysis area, as defined below. The locations of existing populations of these species within the analysis area were provided by park, state, and TNC staff. Additional sources of data included the locations of designated critical habitat for federally listed species within the analysis area (USFWS 2022b).

Analysis Area

The area of analysis to assess impacts of the alternatives on listed plant species, designated critical habitat, and plant species at risk includes the following:

- Up to 11 miles of fence lines and 100 miles of trails within the project area that may be used during pedestrian mosquito release and monitoring activities, plus a 20-foot buffer; and
- Up to 10 existing LZs and camps that would be used to support pedestrian mosquito release and monitoring activities.

The plant analysis area, including the buffers around the fence lines, trails, existing LZs and camps, was identified in consultation with the USFWS (USFWS 2022d) and internal discussions with park and state staff and encompasses the area where both direct and indirect effects to listed plant species and plant species at risk from the proposed action are likely to occur. As described earlier in this section, 27 listed plant species and 23 plant species at risk are known to occur within the analysis area (Appendix F). The analysis area also includes designated critical habitat for 37 federally listed plant species.

Threatened and Endangered Species Section 7 Determination Definitions

The Endangered Species Act (ESA), NPS Management Policies 2006, NEPA, and applicable regulations require the analysis of potential impacts on special-status species (federal or state endangered, threatened, candidate, or species at risk). Additionally, according to section 4.4.2.3 of NPS Management Policies 2006, NPS must “manage critical habitat [...] to maintain and enhance their value for the recovery of threatened and endangered species” (NPS 2006).

This analysis serves as both a NEPA assessment of impacts on federally listed species (federal endangered, threatened, or candidate) that could be impacted by the project and a biological assessment as required by Section 7 of the ESA. The USFWS guidance for implementing Section 7 consultation under the ESA (USFWS 2017) uses the following terminology to assess impacts on federally listed species:

No Effect

This conclusion is reached if the proposed action and its interrelated and interdependent actions would not directly or indirectly affect federally listed species or destroy/adversely modify designated critical habitat. Formal section 7 consultation is not required when the no effect conclusion is reached.

May Affect, but Not Likely to Adversely Affect

This conclusion is appropriate when effects to federally listed species or designated critical habitat are expected to be beneficial, discountable, or insignificant. Beneficial effects are contemporaneous positive effects without any adverse effects to the species or habitat. Insignificant effects relate to the size of the impact, while discountable effects are those that are extremely unlikely to occur. Based on best judgment, a person would not: (1) be able to meaningfully measure,

detect, or evaluate insignificant effects; or (2) expect discountable effects to occur. If the project scientist making the determination and the project manager agree that the project “is not likely to adversely affect” federally listed species or designated critical habitat, the intra-service Section 7 consultation process is completed.

May Affect, Likely to Adversely Affect

This conclusion is reached if any adverse effect to federally listed species or designated critical habitat may occur as a direct or indirect result of the proposed action or its interrelated or interdependent actions, and the effect is not discountable or insignificant. In the event the overall effect of the proposed action is beneficial to the federally listed species or designated critical habitat but may also cause some adverse effect on individuals of the listed species or segments of the critical habitat, then the determination should be “is likely to adversely affect.” Such a determination requires formal Section 7 consultation.

Analysis

This section discusses the potential effects to federally listed plant species, designated critical habitat, and plant species at risk from each of the three mosquito release methods and mosquito monitoring.

As noted above in the Current and Expected Future Condition of Threatened and Endangered Plant Species and State Plant Species at Risk section, natural ecosystems in Hawai‘i rely on the pollination services of native birds and insects, in particular native honeycreepers, and yellow-faced bees (UH Honeybee Project 2022). Under the proposed action, actions taken to control mosquito populations that carry avian malaria would support recovery of native Hawaiian forest birds, reducing the likelihood for extirpation or extinction of these species. This could potentially have a beneficial impact on native Hawaiian plants, including listed plant species and plant species at risk, which rely on native forest birds for pollination. However, information on specific plant-pollinator relationships is limited (Barton et al. 2021); therefore, the potential benefit and level of benefit to listed plant species and plant species at risk from implementation of the proposed action is unknown.

Drone Releases

As noted earlier in this section, the analysis area for listed plant species, designated critical habitat, and plant species at risk is limited to the portions of the project area that would be used for ground-based mosquito release and monitoring activities. The only ground-based activities associated with drone releases would be the use of temporary helibases for drone launch locations. However, as noted in Chapter 2, these drone launch locations would be existing “front country” locations accessible by major roads. No vegetation clearing would occur at these drone launch locations; therefore, there would be no impact to listed plants, designated critical habitat, or plant species at risk from vegetation clearing.

The use of temporary helibases for drone launch locations could result in the introduction or spread of invasive plant species or pathogens (e.g., fungal pathogens responsible for rapid ‘ōhi‘a death) through the spread of invasive plant pathogens, seeds, spores, or propagules on equipment or clothes of personnel. As outlined in Chapter 2, to minimize the risk of introducing and spreading invasive plant species or pathogens all vehicles, equipment, clothes, and footwear would be regularly inspected and cleaned and personnel would implement existing protocols, such as the PIFWO Office Invasive Species Biosecurity Protocols (USFWS 2022a). With implementation of mitigation measures, potential adverse impacts to listed plant species, designated critical habitat, and plant species at risk from the introduction or spread of invasive plant species or pathogens under the drone release method would be negligible.

Helicopter Longline Releases

Similar to the drone release method, the only ground-based activities associated with short-term (up to two months), temporary helicopter longline releases would be the use of temporary helibases for attachment of the longline and release mechanisms by ground teams. No vegetation clearing would occur at these temporary helibases; therefore, there would be no impact to listed plants, designated critical habitat, or plant species at risk from vegetation clearing at these locations. Although the helicopter longline release method could result in the introduction or spread of invasive plant species or pathogens at temporary helibase locations, implementation of mitigation measures outlined in Chapter 2, such as regularly inspecting and cleaning vehicles, equipment, and clothes and implementing the PIFWO Invasive

Species Biosecurity Protocols (USFWS 2022a), would minimize the transport and establishment of invasive plant species or pathogens at these locations. With implementation of mitigation measures, potential adverse impacts to listed plant species, designated critical habitat, and plant species at risk from the introduction or spread of invasive plant species or pathogens under the helicopter longline release method would be negligible.

Pedestrian Releases

Potential adverse impacts to listed plant species, designated critical habitat, and plant species at risk from pedestrian releases could occur through:

- Removal or trampling of individual plants, physical damage to plant parts (e.g., roots, stems, flowers, fruits, seeds), or damage to habitat, including designated critical habitat, from clearing, maintenance, and increased use of existing management trails and fence lines, helicopter LZs, and camps for mosquito release activities; and
- Introduction or spread of invasive plant species or pathogens from pedestrian or helicopter teams during mosquito release and monitoring activities.

As outlined in Chapter 2, the only consistent pedestrian release would be in Makawao Forest Reserve and Waikamoi Preserve and pedestrian releases within upper Kīpahulu Valley Biological Reserve and Hanawī Natural Area Reserve would likely only occur on a quarterly basis simultaneous with ground-based mosquito monitoring (discussed below). Vegetation clearing around existing management trails and fence lines or LZs, and increased use of existing trails, fence lines, camps, and LZs have the potential to result in physical damage to listed plant species or plant species at risk. Cutting and removal of vegetation surrounding listed plants or plant species at risk has the potential to alter microsite conditions (e.g., light, moisture, temperature), which could alter habitat, including designated critical habitat for these species. Although there is the potential for listed plant species or plant species at risk to be removed or harmed during trail clearing and vegetation removal, implementation of mitigation measures (outlined in Chapter 2) such as flagging the boundaries of areas occupied by listed plant species prior to any clearing, would make any direct harm to these species unlikely.

Vegetation clearing and increased use of existing trails, fence lines, camps, and LZs can increase the risk of invasion or spread of invasive plants or pathogens. This could occur through the direct spread of invasive plants or pathogen seeds, spores or propagules on clothes or equipment of personnel or indirectly through removal of existing vegetation which allows openings for invasive plants to colonize. However, existing protocols, such as the PIFWO Invasive Species Biosecurity Protocols (USFWS 2022a) and other measures outlined in Chapter 2, would be implemented to minimize the risk of introducing and spreading invasive species and pathogens. With implementation of these protocols and mitigation measures, adverse effects from the potential spread of invasive plants and pathogens are anticipated to be negligible.

Temporary disturbances such as vegetation removal around existing trails and LZs may affect the primary constituent elements (PCEs) of designated critical habitat units. These impacts would be minimized by following the mitigation measures such as providing personnel with maps showing the locations of designated critical habitat areas and training them on how to avoid unnecessary adverse impacts within critical habitat. With implementation of mitigation measures, the impacts to designated critical habitat are expected to be negligible.

Mosquito Monitoring

Potential impacts to listed plant species, designated critical habitat, and plant species at risk during mosquito monitoring could occur through vegetation clearing, the removal or trampling of individual plants, physical damage to plant parts (e.g., roots, stems, flowers, fruits, seeds), introduction or spread of invasive plants or pathogens, or damage to habitat, including designated critical habitat, from clearing, maintenance, and increased use of existing management trails and fence lines, helicopter LZs, and camps. The adverse impacts of these activities would be as described for pedestrian releases.

Monitoring would likely occur quarterly (four times/year) and in some cases, such as within upper Kīpahulu Valley Biological Reserve and Hanawī Natural Area Reserve, potentially concurrent with pedestrian releases. Only established

trails, fence lines, camps, and helicopter LZs proposed for use under pedestrian releases would be used for monitoring activities; therefore, no additional adverse impacts from vegetation removal or trampling in these areas would be anticipated. With implementation of mitigation measures outlined in Chapter 2, such as flagging and avoiding individuals or populations of federally listed plant species and plant species at risk and implementing invasive species biosecurity protocols, potential impacts to federally listed plant species, designated critical habitat, and plant species at risk during mosquito monitoring would be negligible.

Cumulative Impacts

Overall, the impacts on listed plant species, designated critical habitat, and plant species at risk from past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future actions would be as described earlier in the Current and Expected Future Condition of Threatened and Endangered Plant Species and State Plant Species at Risk section. There would be no new impacts to plants under the no-action alternative. Under the proposed action, actions taken to suppress mosquito populations that carry avian malaria would support recovery of native Hawaiian honeycreepers, reducing the likelihood for extirpation or extinction of these species. This could potentially have a beneficial impact on native Hawaiian plants, including listed and at-risk plant species, which rely on native forest birds for pollination. The proposed action would potentially have an adverse impact on listed plant species, designated critical habitat, and plant species at risk from vegetation clearing and trampling and increased risk of invasion or spread of invasive plants or pathogens. However, with implementation of mitigation measures described in Chapter 2, adverse impacts under the proposed action would be negligible. The incremental impacts of the proposed action would have only a small contribution to overall cumulative impacts.

Conclusion

Under the no-action alternative, conditions would remain the same or similar to existing conditions, including trends and impacts from past, present, and foreseeable future actions. This includes the potential extirpation or extinction of native forest bird species due to uncontrolled avian malaria, which could potentially have a detrimental impact on native Hawaiian plants, including listed plants and plant species at risk due to the loss of pollinators. Compared to the no-action alternative, the proposed action would potentially result in adverse impacts to federally listed plant species, designated critical habitat, and plant species at risk through removal or physical damage to plants, damage or modification of habitat, and the introduction of invasive plant species or pathogens. However, with implementation of mitigation measures, these adverse impacts are anticipated to be negligible. In addition, the proposed action would likely support recovery of native Hawaiian forest birds which may benefit native Hawaiian plants, including listed plants and plant species at risk. Though considerable analysis is presented here, overall adverse impacts to listed plants and plant species at risk would be minimal.

Section 7 Determination Summary

Based on the analysis, project activities under the proposed action, incorporating mitigation measures described in Chapter 2, *may affect, but is not likely to adversely affect*, all analyzed federally listed plant species and their designated critical habitat, as applicable (Appendix F).

THREATENED AND ENDANGERED WILDLIFE SPECIES AND WILDLIFE SPECIES OF CONCERN

Federally and state listed wildlife species receive protection under the ESA and Chapter 195D, Hawai‘i Revised Statutes, respectively, and are characterized as those that are in danger of extinction throughout all or a significant portion of their range. State protected wildlife species include all indigenous wildlife, which are protected under state law (Section 13-124-3, HAR). Other species of concern may be bird species protected under the Migratory Bird Treaty Act, and other species at risk such as species proposed for listing, or species considered globally threatened by organizations other than USFWS (e.g., IUCN, State of Hawai‘i, NPS 2017). Although all threatened and endangered wildlife species and wildlife species of concern in the project area were considered, only those species that have the potential to be impacted by the no-action alternative or the proposed action are described in this EA.

Current and Expected Future Condition of Threatened and Endangered Wildlife Species and Wildlife Species of Concern if No Action is Taken

The current condition of threatened and endangered wildlife species and wildlife species of concern is described below. A detailed discussion of past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future projects within the park contributing to the existing conditions and current trends for threatened and endangered wildlife species and wildlife species of concern are described in more detail in Appendix E. The description below provides an overview of how these ongoing and future actions would affect threatened and endangered wildlife species and wildlife species of concern.

Under the no-action alternative, conditions for threatened and endangered wildlife species and wildlife species of concern would continue to be the same as or similar to existing conditions with the same trends and impacts from past, present, and foreseeable planned actions, including the potential for continued declines in several threatened and endangered forest bird species. Therefore, the affected environment and impacts of no-action are the same and discussed only once here.

Federally and State Listed Wildlife Species and Habitat within Project Area

Island species co-evolved in isolation over millions of years with unique adaptations to their environments. Hawai‘i’s endemic plants, birds, and insect pollinators are remarkably co-specialized (Carlquist 1974). Habitat destruction, invasive plants, non-native predators and competitors, introduced ungulates, and introduced diseases have decimated the diverse, endemic native animal community of the Hawaiian archipelago (Pratt 2009).

The ecosystems of East Maui (and the project area) include numerous intermittent and perennial streams, bogs, small montane lakes, and rainforest that provide habitat for native birds, bats, invertebrates, and aquatic organisms. The upper elevation habitats from approximately 3,900 feet to 6,400 feet are characterized as very wet, high-quality native-dominated rainforest (Price et al. 2007). Nine species of federally listed threatened and endangered wildlife (one insect, eight bird species, and one mammal) are known to occur within the project area. Three of these listed bird species are Hawaiian honeycreepers—kiwikiu, ‘ākohekohe and ‘i‘iwi—and are declining rapidly due to mosquito-borne avian malaria and other threats. Threatened and endangered wildlife species and their trends are described in the following pages.

Birds

Hawaiian Honeycreepers

The introduction of the first mosquitoes to Maui, reported in 1826 (Van Dine 1904), has been devastating to the endemic Hawaiian forest bird species, particularly the Hawaiian honeycreepers (family Fringillidae, subfamily Carduelinae, tribe Drepanidini) in the last half century. The invasive southern house mosquito is highly adaptive and transmits at least two bird diseases in Hawai‘i including avian pox (*Avipoxvirus*) and avian malaria (Atkinson and LaPointe 2009a, Harvey-Samuel et al. 2021). Avian malaria was introduced more than 100 years ago to the avifauna of Hawai‘i and has caused massive endemic forest bird population declines, limited the elevational distribution of Hawaiian forest birds, and caused extinctions across the archipelago including from the analysis area as recently as the last two decades (Warner 1968, van Riper et al. 1986, Atkinson and Samuel 2010, USFWS 2021). Avian malaria’s acute phase of infection causes anemia (loss of red blood cells and oxygen to the vital organs), with symptoms of weakness, loss of appetite, weight loss, organ failure, and death to susceptible birds after a single infected mosquito bite (Atkinson et al. 1995 and 2000). Highlighting the urgency of action needed to prevent avian malaria transmission, three Hawaiian honeycreeper species that disappeared from the project area within the last two decades were recently declared extinct at least in part due to avian malaria: Maui ‘ākepa (*Loxops ochraceus*), po‘ouli (*Melamprosops phaeosoma*), and Maui nukupu‘u (*Hemignathus affinis*) (USFWS 2021). As discussed in earlier sections of this document, three species of honeycreeper within the project area are federally listed as threatened or endangered and are at risk of continued population decline and/or extinction the next 20 years: kiwikiu, ‘ākohekohe, and ‘i‘iwi.

The endangered kiwikiu is a stout yellow and olive-green honeycreeper with a large hooked bill. Endemic to the islands of Maui and Moloka‘i, the species is currently only found on East Maui and is ranked as one of the most imperiled

Hawaiian birds and is very susceptible to avian malaria (Warren et al. 2019, American Bird Conservancy 2022, USFWS 2019). Kiwikiu may nest all year but primarily breeds between January and June and are primarily insectivorous, using their disproportionately large bill to probe and excavate woody plant material (and, to a lesser extent, fruits) to eat the larvae primarily of beetles (Coleoptera) and caterpillars (Lepidoptera) found on or within native plants and lichens (Mountainspring 1987, Peck et al. 2015, Simon et al. 2020). Critical habitat has been designated for kiwikiu (**Figure 10**; USFWS 2016a), and the majority of the project area lies within the critical habitat of this species. Their habitat is characterized by wet-mesic and ‘ōhi‘a-dominated rainforest above 5,280 feet (Judge et al. 2021).

The endangered Maui-endemic ‘ākohekohe is a striking forest pollinator with a distinctive crest on the head. Critical habitat has been designated for ‘ākohekohe (**Figure 10**; USFWS 2016a); its critical habitat overlaps entirely with the critical habitat of the kiwikiu and the majority of the project area lies within the critical habitat for these species. This species persists on less than 7,400 acres of native rainforest above 5,280 feet (Judge et al. 2021), with breeding typically occurring between November and June (Wang et al 2020). Elevational range contraction and risks associated with avian malaria have been well documented (Scott et al. 1986, Berlin and VanGelder 2020, Wang et al. 2020).

The ‘i‘iwi (federally listed as threatened) is a honeycreeper historically widespread and occurring at all elevations, but now persists only in the high-elevation forests primarily of Hawai‘i, Maui, and Kaua‘i (Scott et al. 1986, Fancy and Ralph 2020, USFWS 2016b). Breeding may occur all year, but the peak of breeding occurs from February through June (Fancy and Ralph 2020). The ‘i‘iwi is a strong flier with high, long flights to locate nectar sources (Guillaumet et al 2017, Fancy and Ralph 2020). ‘I‘iwi make seasonal movements in response to patchy availability of flowering ‘ōhi‘a (*Metrosideros polymorpha*), māmane (*Sophora chrysophylla*), and other native plants. Because of ‘i‘iwi’s high susceptibility to avian malaria (Atkinson et al. 1995), seasonal movement patterns across the landscape negatively affect long-term population dynamics (Guillaumet et al. 2017). On the island of Hawai‘i the movements into low elevations occur primarily during the post-breeding season (Guillaumet et al. 2017), an important time of year for the proposed action to target reducing southern house mosquito densities, thereby decreasing the risk of malaria infections. The USFWS is in the process of designating critical habitat for ‘i‘iwi.

Today, most honeycreeper species persist only in high-elevation forests where the risk of malaria transmission is lower due in large part to colder temperatures limiting both the reproduction of the malaria parasite and its mosquito vector (van Riper et al. 1986, Scott et al. 1986, Atkinson and LaPointe 2009b, Atkinson et al. 2014). Even though much of the high-elevation threatened and endangered bird habitat in the project area is largely protected from feral ungulates and direct human-caused habitat loss, there is evidence of continuing range contraction and population declines, especially from lower-elevation portions of their ranges since 1980 (Baker and Baker 2000, Camp et al. 2009, Vetter et al. 2012, Judge et al. 2021). Precipitous negative population trends have been observed for kiwikiu and ‘ākohekohe across their small ranges (Judge et al. 2013, 2017, 2021). Kiwikiu and ‘ākohekohe population estimates from surveys in 2017 are 157 individuals (44–312 individuals [95 percent confidence interval]) and 1,768 individuals (1193–2411), respectively (Judge et al. 2021). Kiwikiu and ‘ākohekohe abundance has declined by more than 70 percent since 2001 (Judge et al. 2021), and a predicted range loss of more than 90 percent may occur by the end of this century under moderate climate change scenarios (Fortini et al. 2015).

‘I‘iwi has disappeared from most of its historic range and is extremely susceptible to mortality from avian malaria (Atkinson et al. 1995, USFWS 2016b). However, the ‘i‘iwi is still common at elevations above 5,250 feet in the project area. Recent surveys in 2017 resulted in a population estimate of 50,252 (43,908–57,146 individuals [95 percent confidence interval]) birds on East Maui (Judge et al. 2019), and a long-term trend analysis of the park population showed population stability in the park’s upper Kīpahulu Valley, but with a declining population trend elsewhere in the park (Brink 2020). Surveys revealed an increasing trend of ‘i‘iwi between 2011 and 2017 within the project area outside the park (Judge et al. 2019). Most of Maui’s ‘i‘iwi population lives within the project area (Judge et al. 2019).

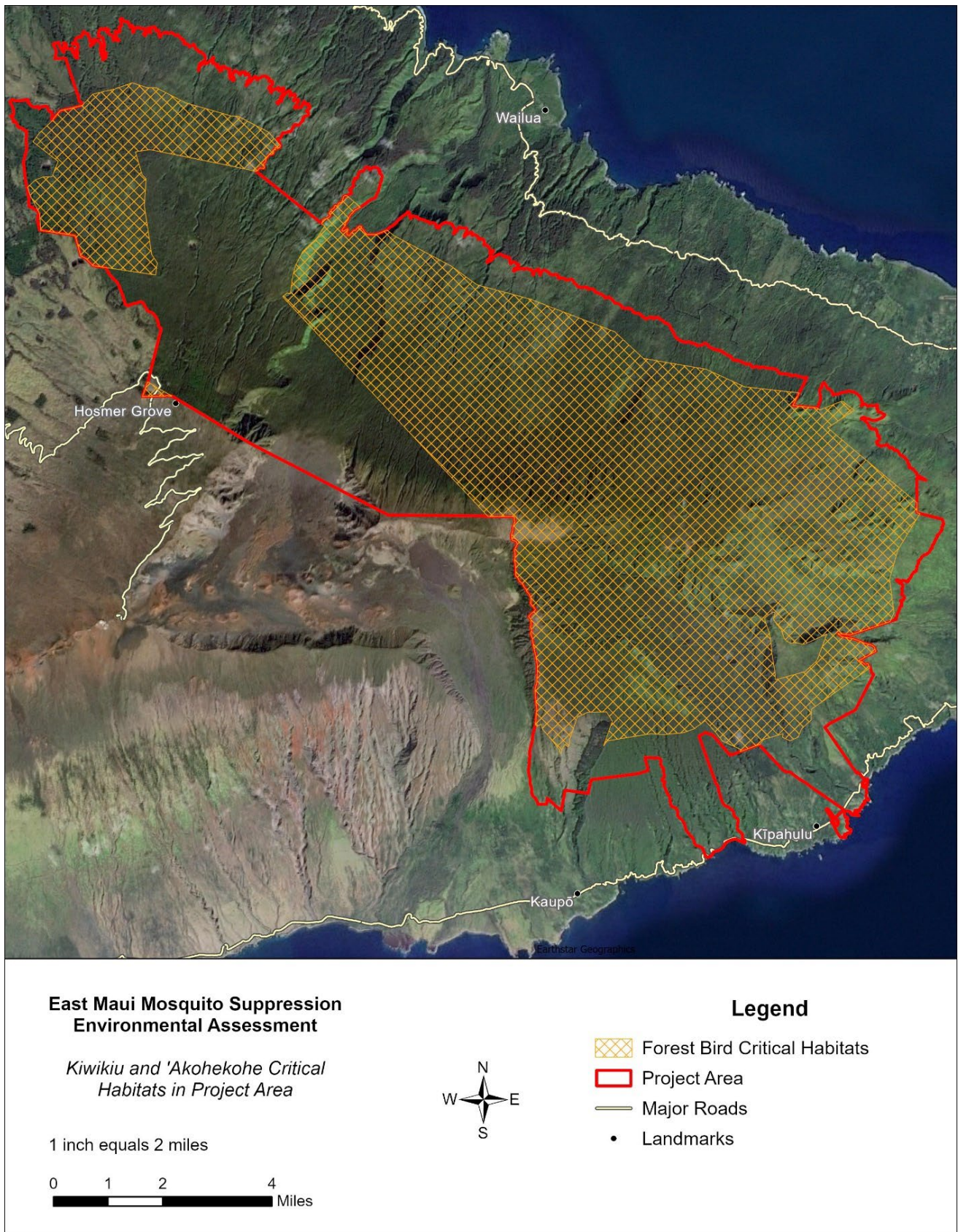


FIGURE 10: DESIGNATED FOREST BIRD CRITICAL HABITAT WITHIN THE PROJECT AREA

Southern house mosquito and avian malaria parasite lifecycles are influenced by rainfall and temperature. Warming temperatures, increasing storm and drought intensity (Thomas et al. 2004), and fluctuating rainfall patterns (Krushelnicky et al. 2016) associated with climate change are intensifying avian malarial infections at mid-elevations and expanding the transmission of avian malaria to higher-elevation forests (Atkinson et al. 2014, Liao et al. 2015, Fortini et al. 2015). Increases in both mosquito abundance and prevalence of avian malaria indicate that disease transmission has indeed expanded to higher elevations (Atkinson et al. 2014, Glad and Crampton 2015, Warren et al. 2019, Fortini et al. 2020). As a result, the high-elevation forest habitats are no longer a safe refuge from avian malaria transmission, and it is becoming increasingly important to act quickly to suppress mosquito populations before Hawaiian honeycreeper populations decline even further (Atkinson et al. 2014, Liao et al. 2015, 2017). The continued and increasing threat of avian malaria means that under the no-action alternative, it is likely that additional Hawaiian honeycreeper species will go extinct in the next few years. Additional conservation actions to recover endangered bird species such as captive rearing and future reintroductions as well as translocations to Hawai‘i Island are under consideration, but long-term conservation of these species is contingent on suppression of mosquitoes and malaria (Paxton et al. 2022).

Within the project area, land managers of the NPS, DLNR, and TNC are currently implementing ground and/or aerial treatment operations to manage invasive species and promote native plant species survival. Weed, predator and ungulate control benefit honeycreeper populations and their habitats (Banko et al. 2019) by protecting native habitat and forage plant availability for honeycreeper species. Monitoring of mosquitoes, avian malaria, and forest birds have been conducted and will continue into the future. Other management activities within the project area that have the potential to affect wildlife habitat (including designated critical habitat for honeycreeper species) include trail maintenance, maintenance of LZs and campsites, fencing and fence maintenance and fire management. These activities are primarily beneficial because they also enable weed, predator, and ungulate control, yet have the potential to accidentally introduce invasive species or forest pathogens through movement of personnel, gear, and equipment, which can negatively, indirectly affect listed honeycreeper species. The NPS Inventory & Monitoring Vegetation Monitoring project in the park, watershed resource monitoring on state lands, and installation of cell tower infrastructure within TNC-managed lands have the potential to affect honeycreeper habitat (and designated critical habitat) with accidental trampling or introduction of invasive species or forest pathogens that tend to degrade listed honeycreeper habitat. The park, state, and TNC would continue current management actions and respond to future needs and conditions without major changes in the present course.

As discussed in the “Acoustic Environment” section of this document, helicopter use for park administrative activities averaged approximately 200 hours/year (approximately 100 operations), state administrative flights also averaged approximately 200 hours/year within or immediately near the project area, and approximately 60 helicopter operations are conducted per year (estimated 75 flight hours/year) into and out of the TNC’s Waikamoi Preserve. The Hughes 500D helicopter (used for most of these administrative operations) has a small rotor diameter, yet rotor wash has some potential risk to disturb nesting birds during takeoff, landing, and while hovering, depending on the proximity, terrain, tilt, wind, and altitude of helicopter relative to the habitat feature. Honeycreeper disturbance and displacement risk in this case is dependent on proximity of trees and the duration of disturbance. Also as discussed in the “Acoustic Environment” section of this document, commercial air tours generally occur seven days a week year-round and averaged approximately 10-13 air tours per day in recent years (approximately 2 hours per day or 750 hours per year). These flights intersect the project area primarily in the southernmost reaches, including around Kīpahulu Valley, Ka‘āpahu, and Kaupō Gap. Tour operator helicopters and administrative flights for the park, state, and TNC in the project areas averaging more than 1000 hours per year have not reported listed or native migratory bird collisions.

The noise levels and honeycreeper disturbance risks within the project area associated with ongoing administrative activities, helicopter flights, and air tours would likely continue at current levels. Helicopters, mechanized equipment, and work crews would generate noise during overflights/landings/takeoffs, fencing activities, and maintenance of trails and LZs. There are no anticipated changes to public access within the project area, so ongoing impacts to honeycreepers from visitors would remain unchanged in the foreseeable future. Overall, current and reasonably foreseeable actions would continue to result in minimal adverse direct and indirect impacts to honeycreeper species and their habitats. Because the effects of these activities are included in the affected environment, the no-action alternative would not result in any new direct or indirect impacts to listed honeycreeper species or designated critical habitat.

Because there would be no new direct and indirect impacts as a result of the no-action alternative, there would be no cumulative effects associated with the no-action alternative. However, if no action is taken, avian malaria would continue to devastate native Hawaiian honeycreeper populations resulting in significant adverse impacts.

Nēnē

The federally threatened nēnē, or Hawaiian Goose (*Branta sandvicensis*), was extirpated from all islands except Hawai‘i by the early 1900s and was reestablished on the island of Maui through a captive-breeding and release program (Banko et al. 2020). Nēnē is the official state bird and is state listed as endangered. This species typically nests between October and April in the park (*personal communication, J. Tamayose, April 6, 2021*). Nēnē use diverse habitats including sub-alpine grasslands, open native shrubland and grasslands, as well as mid- and low-elevation pasture and managed grasslands, to forage on leaves of grass, berries, seeds, and flowers. Some individuals or pairs make elevational movements for breeding, foraging, and molting (USFWS 2019, Banko et al. 2020, Leopold and Hess). Nēnē require intensive species management to protect breeding (ground-nesting) birds from introduced predators on Maui, especially the mongoose (*Herpestes javanicus*). Nēnē on Maui are also susceptible to vehicle collisions, wind turbine collisions and human or vehicle-related injuries and trauma, toxoplasmosis (a pathogen carried by feral cats), and mosquito-borne avian pox virus (Work et al. 2015).

The Maui nēnē population is relatively small, fluctuating around approximately 250 breeding pairs (USFWS 2019), and is supplemented with captive-bred and translocated birds and is reliant on breeding pens that exclude predators and predator control at breeding sites in NPS, state, and privately managed habitats. In 2020 and 2021, respectively, there were 223 and 164 nēnē individuals outside the park, and 254 and 190 in the park. Breeding failures occur often during drought conditions (Black et al. 1997), and increasing drought or other extremes in climate variability, expanding invasives species, and associated climate change scenarios are likely to negatively affect nēnē. Climate change may disrupt seasonal movements and some habitats used by nēnē for molting, breeding, and foraging.

Ongoing and planned actions that could affect the nēnē population are nearly the same as those actions described in the “Hawaiian Honeycreepers” section of this chapter. However, forest-type activities do not necessarily impact nēnē since they do not have suitable habitat in forested areas. The park, state, and TNC would continue current management actions and respond to future needs and conditions without major changes in the present course. These activities are primarily beneficial because they also enable weed, predator, and ungulate control, yet have the potential to accidentally introduce invasive species or pathogens through movement of personnel, gear, and equipment, which can negatively, indirectly affect listed wildlife. The noise levels and nēnē disturbance risks within the project area associated with ongoing administrative activities, administrative helicopter flights, and air tours (see description of these impacts in the “Hawaiian Honeycreepers” section above) would likely continue at current levels. Helicopters, mechanized equipment, and work crews would generate noise during overflights/landings/takeoffs, fencing activities, and maintenance of trails and LZs. There are no anticipated changes to public access within the project area, so ongoing impacts to nēnē from visitors would remain unchanged in the foreseeable future. Overall, current and reasonably foreseeable actions would continue to result in minimal adverse direct and indirect impacts to nēnē and their habitats. Because the effects of these activities are included in the affected environment, the no-action alternative would not result in any new direct or indirect impacts to nēnē, and there would be no new direct and indirect impacts as a result of the no-action alternative and no cumulative effects associated with the no-action alternative. However, with current variability and projected climate change trends, exposure and transmission to avian pox would also be expected to increase under the no-action. Therefore, under the no-action alternative the nēnē population is expected to remain stable or continue to decline as a result of climate change impacts to habitat.

Seabirds

Many tubenosed seabirds (albatrosses, petrels, shearwaters, and storm-petrels; order Procellariiformes) live at sea and return to the Hawaiian Islands to pair-bond and breed between February and November, laying a single egg cared for by both parents. These species fly into and out of their nests at night. During their breeding season, listed seabirds commute between the ocean for foraging and their cryptic underground burrows to feed their young (Ainley et al. 2019, Slotterback 2020). Feral cats, other invasive predators, and light pollution are primary threats to Hawai‘i’s nocturnal ground-nesting seabirds (Raine et al. 2020).

The largest breeding colony of the endangered seabird, ‘ua‘u or Hawaiian Petrel (*Pterodroma sandwichensis*), is within the park near the summit of Haleakalā, mostly outside the project area. Two other listed seabird species are known to occur in or transit through the project area, but their nesting distributions and abundance are not known, including two listed seabirds; ‘ake‘ake (Band-rumped Storm-Petrel, *Oceanodroma castro*), and ‘a‘o (Newell’s Shearwater, *Puffinus newelli*) (Aruch 2006, Krushelnycky et al. 2019).

The breeding colony of ‘ua‘u in and around the Summit District of the park has been monitored since the 1960s and mammalian predator populations have been managed/reduced since 1982 (Krushelnycky et al. 2019). Most nests are known to occur in the higher and drier habitats outside the project area; however, ‘ua‘u fly through the project area, and breeding pairs are known to occur in within the crater at the edge of the project area and other nearby areas with suitable habitat for breeding ‘ua‘u (Krushelnycky et al. 2019). The ‘ua‘u population in the park is estimated to consist of 3,000–4,000 breeding pairs and a total of 8,000–9,000 individual birds. The most recent count of known burrows within the park is 2,784 (*personal communication, J. Tamayose, April 6, 2021*). The ‘ua‘u population in the park has grown since the 1980s due to invasive predator control (Hodges and Nagata 2001).

Climate change affects seabirds’ breeding success with increasing variability in the distribution and availability of at-sea prey, which is being affected by rising ocean temperatures; however, little is known about the potential effects of climate driven changes in the prey available for ‘ua‘u. Expanding invasive species are also associated with climate change scenarios, which can degrade the breeding habitat of the ‘ua‘u. (Ainley et al. 2019). Invasive Hymenoptera have caused seabird nest failures and burrow abandonment (Plentovich et al. 2008, Raine and McFarland 2015).

Ongoing and planned actions that could affect seabirds are nearly the same as those actions described in the “Hawaiian Honeycreepers” section of this chapter. However, forest-type activities do not necessarily apply to seabirds since the vast majority of known nesting sites are in subalpine habitats on Maui. The park, state, and TNC would continue current management actions and respond to future needs and conditions without major changes in the present course. The noise levels and seabird disturbance risks within the project area associated with ongoing administrative activities, administrative helicopter flights, and air tours (see description of these impacts in the “Hawaiian Honeycreepers” section above) would likely continue at current levels. Helicopters, mechanized equipment, and work crews would generate noise during overflights/landings/takeoffs, fencing activities, and maintenance of trails and LZs. There are no anticipated changes to public access within the project area, so ongoing impacts to seabirds from visitors would remain unchanged in the foreseeable future. Overall, current and reasonably foreseeable actions would continue to result in minimal adverse direct impacts to seabirds and their habitats. Because the effects of these activities are included in the affected environment, the no-action alternative would not result in any new direct or indirect impacts to seabirds. Because there would be no new direct and indirect impacts as a result of the no-action alternative, there would be no cumulative effects associated with the no-action alternative.

‘Ōpe‘ape‘a, Hawaiian Hoary Bat

The ‘ōpe‘ape‘a, or Hawaiian Hoary Bat, is the only fully terrestrial native mammal in the Hawaiian Islands and is state and federally listed as endangered. ‘Ōpe‘ape‘a are found from sea level to 11,800 feet, with most observations occurring in native rain forests up to at least 6,000 feet (Bonaccorso et al. 2015). Data indicates that ‘ōpe‘ape‘a commonly traverse and forage in large parts of the project area and are likely to be roosting in the project area. A summary of detections reported from within the park, or the vicinity of the project area are reported in Krushelnycky et al. (2019), including Pipīwai Trail, Hosmer Grove, and numerous locations bordering the park (Krushelnycky et al. 2019, and Todd 2016).

Females typically give birth to twin pups from June to August and juveniles reach independence by November. ‘Ōpe‘ape‘a are known to roost solitarily in tree foliage in a variety of tree species and in an assortment of habitats and elevations (native and non-native habitats). Roost trees are usually larger than randomly selected trees (Montoya-Aiona 2020). ‘Ōpe‘ape‘a are vulnerable to roost disturbance while resting during the day and during pupping and pup care (June-November).

‘Ōpe‘ape‘a are insectivores, and prey items include a variety of night-flying insects, primarily moths and beetles (Whitaker and Tomich 1983, Pinzari et al. 2019). Acoustic detection studies show seasonal patterns of habitat

occupancy with increased activity in the higher elevations (higher than 3,300 feet) during the non-breeding season (November to April), and increased activity in the low elevations during the breeding season (Bonaccorso et al. 2015).

Due to its solitary and cryptic roosting behavior (Bonaccorso et al. 2015), robust estimates of the population size and trend of the ‘ōpe‘ape‘a are currently unavailable. ‘Ōpe‘ape‘a can be injured and killed from collisions with man-made structures including barbed wire fences, wind turbines, and communication towers; however, limiting factors are poorly understood.

Ongoing and planned actions that could affect ‘ōpe‘ape‘a are nearly the same as those actions described in the “Hawaiian Honeycreepers” section of this chapter. The park, state, and TNC would continue current management actions and respond to future needs and conditions without major changes in the present course. The noise levels and ‘ōpe‘ape‘a disturbance risks within the project area associated with ongoing administrative activities, administrative helicopter flights, and air tours (see description of these impacts in the “Hawaiian Honeycreepers” section above) would likely continue at current levels. Helicopters, mechanized equipment, and work crews would generate noise during overflights/landings/takeoffs, fencing activities, and maintenance of trails and LZs potentially impacting roosting ‘ōpe‘ape‘a. Management actions are unlikely to affect foraging bats because bats are nocturnal and management activities would occur during the day. There are no anticipated changes to public access within the project area, so ongoing impacts to ‘ōpe‘ape‘a from visitors would remain unchanged in the foreseeable future. Overall, current and reasonably foreseeable actions would continue to result in minimal adverse direct impacts to ‘ōpe‘ape‘a and their habitat. Because the effects of these activities are included in the affected environment, the no-action alternative would not result in any new direct or indirect impacts to ‘ōpe‘ape‘a. Because there would be no new direct and indirect impacts as a result of the no-action alternative, there would be no cumulative effects associated with the no-action alternative.

Wildlife Species Of Concern

Wildlife species of concern (NPS 2017), also designated as State Protected Wildlife Species (Section 13-124-3, HAR), within the project area include at least 30 protected wildlife species of concern; 13 insect species, 3 snail species, 1 shrimp species, 5 fish species, and 8 native bird species protected under the Migratory Bird Treaty Act (MBTA). Some species may be considered vulnerable to population declines, or extinction, by state or global metrics (e.g., Nature Serve Global Conservation Rank), or many are lacking information to make a status determination. Only a few of these species could potentially be impacted by the proposed action and are generally described below. Wildlife species of concern are found on or transiting park land, state land, and TNC-managed lands within the analysis area.

Birds

Within the project area, three Hawaiian honeycreeper species (in addition to the three federally protected species described earlier) are protected under the MBTA and HAR section 13-124-3: ‘apapane (*Himatione sanguinea*), Hawai‘i ‘amakihi (*Chlorodrepanis virens wilsoni*), and Maui ‘alauahio (*Paroreomyza montana*). Although ‘apapane and Hawai‘i ‘amakihi are most common in native forests above 3,000 feet in elevation, they are also found in lower elevation forests. The Maui ‘alauahio occurs only on Maui in forests between 3,900 to 7,500 feet (Baker and Baker 2020, Judge et al. 2021). ‘Apapane, Hawai‘i ‘amakihi, and Maui ‘alauahio are susceptible to avian malaria, avian pox, and extreme weather associated with climate change, as well as the ecosystem threats to native forest (Pratt 2009, Atkinson and Samuel 2010, Harvey-Samuel et al. 2021). ‘Apapane annual mortality during seasonal avian malaria outbreaks was estimated at 50 percent of juveniles and 25 percent of adults (Atkinson and Samuel 2010). Likewise, Hawai‘i ‘amakihi mortality exposed to a single infective mosquito bite experienced 65 percent mortality (Atkinson et al. 2000). There is strong evidence that the Maui ‘alauahio population is dramatically declining (Brink 2020, Judge et al. 2021), and the species is known to be extremely susceptible to avian malaria (Atkinson et al. 2001). Recent estimates indicate a 48 percent decline in population abundance within the analysis area (Judge et al. 2021).

The pueo or Hawaiian Short-eared Owl (*Asio flammeus sandwichensis*) is listed as endangered by the State of Hawai‘i only on the island of O‘ahu. This species is not federally listed, but is protected under the MBTA and HAR section 13-124-3. Pueo are found on all the main Hawaiian Islands, at elevations ranging from sea level to 8,000 feet. Pueo occupy a variety of habitats, including agricultural lands, grasslands, wetlands, shrublands, and native forests. Ground nests are

well concealed and lined with grasses and feather down (Price and Cotín 2018). Threats to this species include loss and degradation of habitat, predation by invasive mammals, vehicle and wind turbine collisions, and other human interaction (Pueo Project 2019). Pueo potentially forage and nest within and around the project area, yet their abundance and distribution has not been well studied on Maui.

Migrant or transiting birds that may occur in the project area include the kōlea or Pacific Golden-Plover (*Pluvialis fulva*), an overwintering migrant shorebird which occasionally may rest and forage within the project area; the noio or Hawaiian Black Noddy (*Anous minutus melanogenys*) which nests on the coasts; and ‘iwa or the Great Frigatebird (*Fregata minor palmerstoni*) and koa‘e kea or White-tailed Tropicbirds (*Phaethon lepturus*), which fly over the project area. All are protected under the MBTA and HAR section 13-124-3.

Changes in environmental conditions in the project area expected from global climate change include increasing temperatures, decreasing precipitation, increasing storm intensities, and increasing variability in weather patterns (Thomas et al. 2004, Frazier and Giambelluca 2017). Existing trends of declining populations of species of concern are expected to continue.

Ongoing and planned actions that could affect wildlife species of concern are nearly the same as those actions described in the “Hawaiian Honeycreepers” section of this chapter. These ongoing and planned actions could result in minimal adverse indirect or direct impacts to most species of concern. Without action to suppress mosquitoes and reduce avian malaria transmission, native forest birds of concern would be subject to continuing exposure to southern house mosquitoes and resultant mortality from avian malaria. With current variability and projected climate change trends, exposure and transmission to avian malaria and avian pox would also be expected to increase under the no-action for susceptible to other wildlife species of concern. Thus, the no-action alternative is expected to adversely affect native Hawaiian forest birds of concern and other native birds of concern vulnerable to mosquito borne diseases.

The park, state, and TNC would continue current management actions and respond to future needs and conditions without major changes in the present course. The noise levels and wildlife species of concern disturbance risks within the project area associated with ongoing administrative activities, administrative helicopter flights, and air tours (see description of these impacts in the “Hawaiian Honeycreepers” section above) would likely continue at current levels. Helicopters, mechanized equipment, and work crews would generate noise during overflights/landings/takeoffs, fencing activities, and maintenance of trails and LZs. There are no anticipated changes to public access within the project area, so ongoing impacts to wildlife species of concern from visitors would remain unchanged in the foreseeable future. Overall, current and reasonably foreseeable actions would continue to result in minimal adverse direct impacts to wildlife and their habitats. Because the effects of these activities are included in the affected environment, the no-action alternative would not result in any new direct or indirect impacts to wildlife species of concern. Because there would be no new direct and indirect impacts as a result of the no-action alternative, there would be no cumulative effects associated with the no-action alternative. However, as stated earlier, if no action is taken, avian malaria would continue to devastate native forest bird populations resulting in permanent, long-term adverse impacts.

Effects of the Proposed Action on Threatened and Endangered Wildlife Species and Species of Concern

Methods and Assumptions

Impacts to federally listed wildlife species, designated critical habitat, and state-protected wildlife species of concern and their habitats found or possibly occurring in the analysis area were analyzed using expert opinions from park, state, USFWS, and contractor staff as well as information from published scientific literature, technical reports, monitoring, observations, and databases managed by the NPS and NatureServe. General assumptions for impacts on federally listed wildlife species, designated critical habitat, and wildlife species of concern are described below.

The area of analysis for impacts of alternatives on federally listed wildlife species, designated critical habitat, and wildlife species of concern is the proposed project area including 64,666 acres of park, state, TNC-managed lands, and private conservation lands where mosquito control releases would occur.

The following analysis includes a description of direct impacts primarily associated with drone and helicopter flights, motorized equipment, vehicles, and pedestrian teams during the proposed project's implementation, and risks of indirect negative impacts associated with biosecurity lapses (accidental harmful invasive species introductions into the project area) on 44 possible species, 12 of which are federally listed as threatened or endangered. Six listed species known to occur in the analysis area are emphasized: five bird species, and one mammal. Approximately 32 wildlife species of concern potentially occur in the analysis area but only 7 native and migratory bird species protected under the MBTA that occur or transit NPS, state, and TNC/private lands could possibly be impacted by the proposed action.

For a description of the USFWS terminology to assess impacts on federally listed species, refer to the "Threatened and Endangered Species Section 7 Determinations" subsection of the "Threatened and Endangered Plant Species and State Plant Species at Risk" section of this EA.

Potential Impacts and Relevant Studies

Aircraft Impacts on Wildlife

Aircraft disturbance (e.g., from noise or visual detection) can be defined as any aircraft activity that changes the behavior or physiology of wildlife. Impacts of various aircraft on birds included increased heart rate, changes in energy conversion, feeding times, alert behaviors, agitated behaviors, and protective or escape behaviors (Drewitt 1999). The response of wildlife to aircraft may depend on both the properties (aircraft size and engine) and flight pattern of the aircraft, and the attributes and context of the wildlife (species, life-history stage and aggregation or flock size). Helicopters have been widely viewed as the most disturbing type of aircraft for birds, attributed to the low-altitude capabilities of helicopters (Drewitt 1999). Birds may not be consistently affected by helicopters more than other types of disturbance, although chronic noise disturbance may change vocalization behaviors. Distance, speed, trajectory, frequency and previous exposure/habituation to aircraft, species, breeding status and colony or flock size have also been described as key factors influencing birds' response or disturbance to normal behaviors from various aircraft (Burger 1981; Hoang 2013, van der Kolk et al. 2020).

Noise Impacts on Wildlife

Sound levels can vary greatly, depending on location, topography, vegetation, biological activity, weather conditions, and other factors. The magnitude of sound levels is usually described by its sound pressure; the dBA scale is commonly used to describe sound levels. For a detailed discussion on noise impacts see "Acoustic Environment" section of this document. The potential exists for human-caused sounds to adversely impact wildlife under any of the release methods described in Chapter 2 because many animals rely on auditory clues for predator avoidance, mate attraction, obtaining nesting territories, and finding prey (Dufour 1980). The dBA levels greater than 60 dBA may approach disturbance levels in some sensitive birds with the duration and frequency of the noise and vibrational movement interacting. Wildlife reactions to human-caused sounds can range from no reaction to mild reactions, such as a temporary increase in heart rate, to more severe reactions, such as damaging effects on metabolism and hormone balance (Kleist et al. 2018, Gallardo Cruz et al. 2021, Francis et al. 2011). Behavioral and physiological responses have the potential to cause injury, energy loss (from movement away from a noise source or reduced foraging), impede communication, decreased food intake, habitat avoidance and abandonment, and reproductive losses (NPS 1994, Halfwerk et al. 2011, Shannon et al. 2015, Gallardo Cruz et al. 2021). However, some wildlife becomes accustomed to air traffic and other human caused noises if it occurs regularly (Kempf and Hüppop 1998). The extent to which birds may be disturbed by aircraft may depend in part on their ability to habituate. Birds may learn that a stimulus does not pose a danger after repeated exposure and, as a result, may not display any substantial signs of behavior change. The ability to habituate may be a function of the species of bird as well as the frequency of aircraft overflights and the amplitude of the noise (Hoang 2013, Gallardo Cruz et al. 2021).

Hawaiian forest birds at Hawai'i Volcanoes National Park exposed to frequent helicopter overflights (4 passes per hour) at noise levels above 75 dBA showed a decrease in vocalizing behavior which may limit communication between birds and therefore possibly affect breeding success (Gallardo Cruz et al. 2021). Aircraft operating at higher altitudes (e.g., over 328 feet AGL) where noise is attenuated and aircraft emit less than 75 dBA may be less disturbing (Mulero-Pázmány 2017, Gallardo Cruz et al. 2021).

Aircraft Wildlife Collisions

Helicopters have the potential for bird collision (Lyons et al. 2018), but under the proposed action, helicopter use would be short-term with drones being the primary mosquito release vehicle. The FAA database on aircraft bird collision (<https://wildlife.faa.gov/search>) reports that the most common native species aircraft bird strikes on Maui primarily occur with larger commercial aircraft at the OGG airport, involving the seasonal migrant kōlea and resident pueo. Other species potentially using the project area involved in aircraft collisions across Hawai‘i included koa‘e kea and nēnē (FAA 1990 wildlife strike database 1990 accessed July 5, 2022). It is possible that a drone could inadvertently fly into a flock of birds; however, there have not yet been any reported instances of accidental drone-bird strikes or midair collisions. Seasonally flocking birds include the migratory kōlea in late April-early May, and nēnē may form small flocks in June-August in open grassy fields outside of the core area but within or near portions of the project area. Tour operator helicopters and administrative flights for the park, state, and TNC in the project areas averaging more than 1000 hours per year have not reported listed or native migratory bird collisions.

Rotor Wash Impacts

Helicopters flying at low altitudes can create a vertical down wash of air (rotor wash) that can cause a surface wind. Helicopter rotor wash is influenced by the mass of the helicopter and the diameter of the helicopter rotor, height above the ground, and various terrain or environmental conditions. As mentioned earlier, the Hughes 500D helicopter (likely aircraft proposed for release operations) has a small rotor diameter, yet rotor wash has some potential risk to disturb wildlife using the tree canopy (birds and possibly roosting bats) during takeoff, landing, and while hovering, depending on the proximity, terrain, tilt, wind, and altitude of helicopter relative to the habitat. Wildlife disturbance and displacement risk in this case is dependent on proximity of trees and the duration of disturbance.

Drone–Wildlife Interactions

Data are accumulating on the behavior of some wildlife species around drones used for natural resource applications in natural areas. The behavioral responses of birds are variable by species, season, and habitat. Typically, the effect of drones on Hawai‘i’s federally listed wildlife species, designated critical habitat, and wildlife species of concern is anecdotal, observational, or non-existent. Potential adverse impacts from drones are influenced by the engine type and size of the drone, as well as the flight pattern (Mulero-Pázmány et al. 2017). Target-oriented flight patterns (such as those used for wildlife photography), larger drone sizes, and fuel-powered (noisier) engines evoked stronger reactions in wildlife whereas electric-powered drones and “lawn-mower” pattern flights performed at higher altitudes and following regular trajectories are less likely to affect wildlife (Mulero-Pázmány et al. 2017). This agrees with observations of wildlife responses to traditional aircraft indicating that directness of aircraft approach influences wildlife responses and could be related to anti-predator behavior, since animals perceive higher risks when the threat is on a trajectory towards them (Mulero-Pázmány et al. 2017). Flushing of waterfowl flocks and aggression by territorial birds of prey (usually hawks and eagles) have been described in other ecosystems (Lyons et al. 2018).

Analysis

Under the proposed action, impacts to federally listed wildlife and wildlife species of concern could be generated by drone–wildlife interaction, aircraft disturbance, rotor wash and collisions, accidental invasive species dispersal, pedestrian teams, motorized vehicles, and noise from helicopters, drones, and generators. The frequency and duration of these impacts would be dependent on the release method employed.

Drone Release

Under the proposed action, drones would systematically release incompatible mosquitoes at each location to achieve complete coverage of the core area. Drones would fly approximately 50–100 feet above the tree canopy during mosquito releases but no higher than 500 feet AGL when ferrying between release locations and the operator, as described in Chapter 2. The proposed action would require an estimated 49–72 hours of drone flight-time per week to achieve the desired incompatible mosquito release rate for mosquito suppression. Depending upon the drone model in use, noise levels experienced by wildlife where the drone is flying at 100 feet AGL could range from 47 to 65 dBA and

from 41 to 59 dBA at 200 feet AGL (**Table 10**). Drones are considerably less noisy than helicopters and would likely present fewer indirect impacts to federally listed species and wildlife species of concern.

Hawaiian forest birds have not shown a change in vocalization rates with aircraft noise levels lower than 75 dBA suggesting the adverse effects of noise increase with intensity (Gallardo Cruz et al. 2021). Likewise, the frequency of disturbance is also a key factor influencing adverse effects to forest birds. Hawaiian forest birds changed their vocalization behavior with four helicopter overflights per hour (Gallardo Cruz et al. 2021). Less frequent passes as proposed for this project are expected to have less adverse effects to Hawaiian honeycreepers in the project area especially with a drone which would produce far less intense noise than a helicopter. Drone flight paths would vary substantially depending upon the release locations being treated, and drones would likely pass over a specific location only twice per week. Drone flight speeds during transiting may reach 62 mph; however, the estimated speeds during incompatible mosquito releases are slower (less than 25 mph), thus reducing potential wildlife collision risks. Wildlife responses to drones in the project area are expected to be minimal and short term (15 seconds to a few minutes) because drones would move swiftly through the project area above the tree canopy during incompatible mosquito releases. Given this information and the expected minimal and short-term exposure to noise, disturbance under this release method would be infrequent and of short duration to individual federally listed forest bird species and forest bird species of concern.

Studies of bird behavior in other regions during drone monitoring suggest that breeding raptors initiated aggressive interactions with drones (Lyons et al. 2018). The only native bird of prey in the project area is the pueo which is most active around sunrise and sunset, nests primarily in grasslands, and is not expected to interact with drones flying above the forest canopy (Pueo Project 2019). Drone–pueo interactions have not been documented; however, mosquito suppression operations would only occur after sunrise and before sunset reducing opportunity for drone–pueo interactions. The risk of birds accidentally colliding with drones is considered low when compared to other aircraft. From studies conducted in other ecosystems, large flocks of migrating birds or waterbirds are expected to have a higher risk of aircraft collision (Mulero-Pázmány 2017). Generally, endangered waterbirds do not flock to or use the project area; however, they occur nearby. The one exception is nēnē, which tend to form small flocks seasonally in open grassy areas in portions of the project area or proximity in summer. Migratory kōlea (species of concern) also form flocks in seasonally in fields and open areas. For these species, there maybe a low risk of collision with drones primarily because of the tendency of flocking birds to take flight together. Listed ‘ōpe‘ape‘a and burrow-nesting seabirds are active at night, and drone releases would only occur during the day. Therefore, there would be no direct interactions or impacts to flying bats or birds. Day roosting and breeding ‘ōpe‘ape‘a are unlikely to be disturbed by drones flying more than 50 feet above the canopy for 15 seconds to a few minutes.

Overall, with implementation of mitigation measures (daytime releases, higher flight altitudes, etc.) and with the exceptions of potential minimal impacts listed above (low risk of collision with nēnē and unlikely risk of disturbance to native forest birds), listed wildlife and wildlife species of concern are unlikely to be adversely affected by drone activity (see **Table 14**). Over the long term, drone releases would benefit all six remaining Hawaiian honeycreeper species on Maui in the project area by contributing to the successful suppression of mosquito populations and thereby avian malaria transmission.

Helicopter Longline Release

Under the proposed action, helicopters would be used as a short-term (up to two months), temporary release method, if needed, and flown approximately 150–200 feet AGL to release incompatible mosquitoes via a 50–100-foot longline. Short-term, temporary helicopter longline releases (up to 6 hours of flight time per day, 5–7 days per month for up to two months per year) could produce a maximum of 82 dBA at 150 feet AGL for less than 15 seconds at any given release location in the core area. This altitude would reduce rotor wash experienced in the tree canopy and on the ground (see Chapter 2).

Under this release method, the potential exists for limited indirect noise-related impacts to Hawaiian honeycreeper species during helicopter longline releases (maximum of 82 dBA at 150 feet AGL for less than 15 seconds at any given release location). Helicopter noise-related impacts could include interference with avian communication and breeding success (Halfwerk et al. 2011). Other species of nesting birds in other ecosystems have been observed flushing from

nests in response to noise (Meillere et al. 2015). However, most incompatible mosquito releases in higher elevation habitat would be less frequent (outside of the core nesting areas of endangered kiwīkiu and ‘ākohekohe), only occurring as a short-term temporary release method on an as needed basis.

There is a low risk of bird collisions during helicopter longline operations. The most common native species affected by aircraft collisions are kōlea, koa’e kea, and nēnē (FAA 1990); collisions with pueo, ‘iwa, and ‘ua‘u are possible but would be very rare. There is also a low risk of potential disturbance to roosting ‘ōpe‘ape‘a or pueo, particularly if there are roosts near flight paths. Except for breeding females roosting with their pups, these bats roost solitarily in trees and roost locations and roost abundances are not known within the project area.

Overall, the disturbance exposure to federally listed wildlife species and wildlife species of concern (birds and bats) from helicopters in the project area would be short term and of limited duration, as release locations would shift with each helicopter flight, and the helicopter is estimated to spend less than 15 seconds over each release location during each flight. Any potential minimal impacts described in this section (low risk of kōlea, koa’e kea, pueo, ‘iwa, ‘ua‘u, and nēnē collision, low risk of pueo disturbance and/or collision, low risk of Hawaiian honey creeper disturbance, and low risk of roosting ‘ōpe‘ape‘a disturbance) would be substantially limited by the infrequency and temporary nature of helicopter longline release. Over the long term, helicopter longline releases would benefit all six remaining Hawaiian honeycreeper species on Maui in the project area by contributing to the successful suppression of mosquito populations and thereby avian malaria transmission.

Pedestrian Release

Consistent pedestrian release is possible over a very limited portion of the project area (less than 10% of the project area). Potential impacts from pedestrian releases conducted concurrently with monitoring at helicopter-only accessible backcountry sites is discussed in the “Mosquito Monitoring” section on the following page. Vehicles would be used for pedestrian access (to reach trailheads) in portions of the project area with roads and readily accessible trails in Makawao Forest Reserve and Waikamoi Preserve (less than 2 percent of the project area) and noise from these vehicles may briefly induce a “flight” response in wildlife nearby. There is biosecurity risk associated with trail maintenance, trail use, and four-wheel drive vehicles delivering pedestrians and gear (e.g., invasive seeds, insects, fungal pathogens, and animals contaminating gear). There is also a very low risk of vehicle collision with nēnē and pueo (bird species susceptible to vehicle collisions) as driving would be limited to short distances and slow speeds in one small section of the project area (see **Figure 5**).

The potential direct and indirect adverse effects of pedestrian release on federally listed wildlife species, designated critical habitat, and wildlife species of concern that may result from the use of trails/fence lines and vehicles are detailed in **Table 14**. Under this method, field operations may result in a minimal risk of adverse impacts to some federally listed wildlife species and species of concern (primarily Hawaiian honeycreeper species and ‘ōpe‘ape‘a) and their habitats from the human activity and noise in fragile habitats. However established roads and trails would be used and species in the areas where pedestrian release could occur are likely accustomed to at least low levels of human presence and noise because the trails proposed for use are well-established and/or traveled by the public. Indirect impacts are possible if a biosecurity lapse introduces harmful invasive species or pathogens. For example, introduction of forest pathogens such as *Ceratocystis huliohia* and *C. lukuohia* (causes of Rapid ‘Ōhi‘a Death) could result in adverse effects. Strict oversight and mitigation measures would be applied for effective biosecurity protocol implementation including appropriate cleaning, storage, and inspections of field equipment to reduce these risks and prevent adverse impacts.

Overall, the pedestrian release method is likely to have minimal impacts on wildlife and their habitats due to the limited area for pedestrian release activities and the mitigation measures that will be implemented. Pedestrian releases would benefit all six remaining Hawaiian honeycreeper species on Maui in the project area by contributing to the successful suppression of mosquito populations and thereby avian malaria transmission.

Mosquito Monitoring

Motorized vehicles (SUVs or trucks) would assist in the transportation of field teams and gear to reach three ground-accessible monitoring sites in Makawao Forest Reserve and TNC’s Waikamoi Preserve. Noise from vehicles used during monitoring would primarily occur along the Flume Road shown (in brown) on **Figure 5** and is not expected to exceed 4 hours per day for up to 7 days on a quarterly basis. It should be noted that vehicles would not be running constantly during that 4-hour time period because crews would be stopping periodically to check mosquito traps. As previously mentioned, ground vehicles can reach 75 dBA at 50 feet from the source but would be muffled by the surrounding canopy and would not be expected to exceed 60 dBA at 50 feet from the source of noise. Noise from vehicles may briefly induce a “flight” response in wildlife nearby as vehicles pass through.

To conduct monitoring at the five helicopter-only accessible monitoring camps and LZs, helicopters would transport teams to the backcountry sites and crews would need to use quiet generators to power equipment necessary for mosquito monitoring activities. The duration and frequency of helicopter flights required for monitoring (2–6 hours per day for a total of approximately 17.5 hours per week for one week each quarter) and, therefore, the amount of time wildlife could experience helicopter noise impacts, would be brief, inconsistent, and vary by distance from the source. Noise levels along helicopter flight paths would reach less than 72 dBA at 500 feet AGL during overflights at the beginning and end of each monitoring session and helicopters would be flying faster than 62 mph thereby decreasing the time exposure to noise. The most pronounced noise impacts from helicopter use would be focused at the five helicopter-accessible only monitoring sites and could reach 82–93 dBA during pick ups and drop offs (less than 10 minutes each). During the 7-day quarterly monitoring sessions, adverse noise impacts from generators would be limited to less than 58 dBA at 23 feet for up to 3 hours per day at five monitoring camps. Many of these camps are within or near sensitive habitat for Hawaiian forest birds, and noise from helicopter activity and generators could cause mild annoyance to birds nesting, roosting, or foraging in the area. However, with the thick canopy that surrounds the camps, noise impacts would be limited to a very small radius around each camp and noise impacts would not be constant during that 7-day period.

The potential exists for limited indirect noise-related impacts to Hawaiian honeycreeper species during helicopter operations especially when hovering or taking off and landing with noise levels likely exceeding 82 dBA. Those noise related impacts include interference with avian communication and breeding success associated with chronic human-caused noise disturbance (Halfwerk et al. 2011). Other species of nesting birds in other ecosystems have been observed flushing from nests in response to noise (Meillere et al. 2015). There is a low risk of bird collisions during helicopter flights to and from monitoring locations. The most common native species affected by aircraft collisions are kōlea, koa’e kea, and nēnē (FAA 1990); collisions with pueo, ‘iwa, and ‘ua‘u are possible but very rare. There is also a low risk of potential disturbance to roosting ‘ōpe‘ape‘a or pueo, particularly if there are roosts near take-off and landing sites. Except for breeding females roosting with their pups, these bats roost solitarily in trees and roost locations and roost abundances are not known within the project area. As mentioned in the previous “Pedestrian Release” section, increased trail use during monitoring and associated mosquito pedestrian releases could lead to higher risk of introducing and spreading invasive species during monitoring.

Overall, adverse impacts on wildlife during monitoring activities from helicopters, generators, and vehicles would be highly variable and not sustained (effects would only occur for up to 7 days every three months). Any potential minimal impacts described in this section (low risk of kōlea, koa’e kea, pueo, ‘iwa, ‘ua‘u, and nēnē collision, low risk of pueo disturbance and/or collision, low risk of Hawaiian honey creeper disturbance, and low risk of roosting ‘ōpe‘ape‘a disturbance) would be substantially limited by the infrequency and temporary nature of helicopter flights for monitoring. Therefore, mosquito monitoring is unlikely to have long-term adverse impacts on wildlife and their habitats because of its limited frequency and implementation of best practices to mitigate adverse effects from biosecurity lapses. Mosquito monitoring would indirectly benefit all six remaining Hawaiian honeycreeper species on East Maui in the project area by contributing to the successful suppression of mosquito populations and thereby avian malaria transmission.

TABLE 14: THREATENED AND ENDANGERED WILDLIFE SPECIES AND WILDLIFE SPECIES OF CONCERN (SOC) WITH POTENTIAL RISK FOR ADVERSE IMPACTS AND SUGGESTED MITIGATION.

Scientific Name	Common Name	Status	Potential Impact (Direct or Indirect)	Mitigation Measures
<i>Lasiurus cinereus semotus</i>	‘Ōpe‘ape‘a, Hawaiian Hoary Bat	ESA Federally Endangered	Direct: Very low risk of aircraft collision as this is a nocturnal species and drones and helicopters would only be used during daylight hours. Indirect: Small risk of pup and day roost disturbance with helicopter rotor wash and LZ use. Most LZs are in open areas away from potential roost trees. Low risk of drone disturbance at day roosts. Helicopter noise may result in infrequent mild reactions such as a temporary increase in heart rate or brief flight.	Standard helicopter and mechanized equipment BMPs would be implemented. Drones flying 50-500 feet above canopy.
<i>Asio flammeus sandwichensis</i>	Pueo, Hawaiian Short-eared Owl	SOC; Migratory Bird Treaty Act	Direct: Low risk of aircraft or vehicle collision. Low risk of drone interaction. Helicopter noise may result in infrequent mild reactions such as a temporary increase in heart rate or brief flight.	Standard flight and vehicular operation BMPs would be implemented.
Family Fringillidae , Subfamily Carduelinae ,	Hawaiian honeycreepers	ESA Federally Threatened and Endangered Species, SOC/Migratory Bird Treaty Act	Reduction in avian malaria and avian pox transmission would be a substantial beneficial impact. Low risk of disturbance by drones; Helicopter noise may result in infrequent mild reactions such as a temporary increase in heart rate or brief flight.	Standard flight operation BMPs would be implemented
<i>Branta sandvicensis</i>	Nēnē, Hawaiian Goose	ESA Federally Threatened	Reduction in avian pox infections would be a beneficial impact. Direct: Low risk of helicopter, drone and vehicle disturbance or interaction-collisions Indirect: Low risk of flock or brood disturbance Helicopter noise may result in infrequent mild reactions such as a temporary increase in heart rate or brief flight.	Standard flight and vehicular operation BMPs would be implemented.
<i>Frigata minor palmerstoni</i>	‘Iwa, Great Frigatebird	SOC; Migratory Bird Treaty Act	Direct: Low risk of aircraft collision; infrequent transit through project area	Standard flight and vehicular operation BMPs would be implemented.
<i>Phaethon lepturus</i>	Koa‘e kea, White-tailed Tropicbird	MBTA, SOC	Direct: Low risk of aircraft collision infrequently transits across project area.	Standard flight operation BMPs would be implemented
<i>Pluvialis fulva</i>	Kōlea, Pacific Golden-Plover	SOC	Direct: Low risk of aircraft collision, low risk of drone disturbance	Standard flight operation BMPs would be implemented.
<i>Pterodroma sandwichensis</i>	‘Ua‘u, Hawaiian Petrel	ESA Federally Endangered	Direct: Very Low risk of aircraft collision. Nocturnal in project area. Aerial operations under the proposed action would only occur during daylight hours.	Standard flight and vehicular operation BMPs would be implemented.

(*) indicates species is not known to occur in the project area

Cumulative Impacts

Overall, reasonably foreseeable actions would continue to result in minimal adverse direct impacts to wildlife and their habitats. With mitigation actions and best management practices described in Chapter 2, ongoing and planned actions,

as described in the “Hawaiian Honeycreeper” section of “Current and Expected Future Condition of Threatened and Endangered Wildlife Species and Wildlife Species of Concern if No Action is Taken” and in Appendix E, would result in minimal impacts to federally listed and most wildlife species of concern. Under the proposed action, adverse impacts would be intermittent and of short duration and would infrequently affect individual birds and other wildlife. Although there would be temporary and localized impacts to wildlife from mosquito release activities, the population and health of federally listed species and wildlife species of concern and their habitats would improve or remain stable. As previously described, the proposed action would directly reduce mortality of listed Hawaiian honeycreeper species due to the suppression of mosquitoes that spread avian malaria. The proposed action along with other park, state and TNC management actions, including invasive plant control, feral ungulate control, and fence maintenance, would enhance survival of native forest bird species by reducing stressors. Over time, the populations of these listed bird species may increase due to the combined actions of the park, state, and TNC to manage for avian malaria and other threats. Therefore, the overall cumulative increment of the proposed action would be substantially beneficial.

Conclusion

Under the no-action alternative, there would be no direct impacts to ‘ōpe‘ape‘a nor to most wildlife species of concern. Without action to suppress mosquitoes and reduce avian malaria transmission, six Hawaiian honeycreeper species (kiwīkiu, ‘ākohekohe, ‘i‘iwi, ‘apapane, Hawai‘i ‘amakihi, and Maui ‘alauahio) would be subject to continuing exposure to southern house mosquitoes and resultant mortality from avian malaria. With current variability and projected climate change trends, exposure and transmission to avian malaria and avian pox would also be expected to increase under the no-action alternative, likely causing the extinction of kiwīkiu, ‘ākohekohe, and Maui ‘alauahio, extirpation of ‘i‘iwi, and increased exposure to nēnē and seabirds to avian pox virus. Thus, the no-action alternative is expected to substantially and permanently adversely affect Hawaiian honeycreepers and to a lesser extent other native birds.

The proposed action would result in limited adverse impacts on federally listed wildlife species, designated critical habitat, and wildlife species of concern and their habitats and would include primarily a risk of wildlife noise disturbance from drones, helicopters, and generators; minimal risk of wildlife collision; and an indirect impact of increased risk of invasive species introduction from failed biosecurity during field operations. The most pronounced risk of impacts from noise disturbance, risk of collision, or biosecurity lapses would occur in the vicinity of LZs, helibases, fence lines, roads, and trails. Under the proposed action, noise from drones could occur throughout the 48,164-acre core area for 49–72 hours per week. Noise levels from drones could reach a maximum of 47–59 dBA at 100–200 feet AGL (the altitude where most releases would occur) for less than 15 seconds as the drone passes over any given location in the core area one to two times per week. Helicopter noise would only occur for 2–6 hours per day potentially spread over the course of 7 days for a total of approximately 17.5 hours per week for quarterly monitoring trips. Most helicopter flight noise would be highly variable depending upon the flight height and lateral distance to a person or wildlife but could reach a maximum of 82–93 dBA during pick ups and drop offs at LZs. Short-term, temporary helicopter longline releases (up to 6 hours of flight time per day, 5–7 days per month for up to two months per year) could produce a maximum of 82 dBA at 150 feet AGL for less than 15 seconds at any given release location in the core area. Generator noise (maximum of 52–58 dBA at 23 lateral feet) could occur for up to 3 hours per day for up to 7 consecutive days on a quarterly basis at the five backcountry monitoring locations. Noise from vehicles (maximum of 75 dBA at 50 feet from the source) would occur intermittently in Makawao Forest Reserve and TNC’s Waikamoi Preserve for up to 4 hours per day for up to 7 days during quarterly monitoring and up to 2 hours per day, up to 2 times per week for pedestrian releases that are scheduled to occur in those areas.

Over time, impacts may decline as releases are needed less frequently and/or become more efficient. Potential minimal adverse effects to federally listed wildlife or wildlife species of concern from mosquito releases and monitoring include a low risk of disturbance from the presence of drones and drone/helicopter/generator noise to Hawaiian honeycreeper species; low risk of aircraft, drone, or vehicle collision with or noise disturbance to pueo; low risk of pup and day roost disturbance with helicopter rotor wash, drone use, and LZ/camp use to ‘ōpe‘ape‘a; low risk of flock or brood disturbance and low risk of helicopter drone or vehicle interaction- collisions to nēnē; and a low risk of drone or helicopter collision with or disturbance to transiting seabirds (‘iwa, koa‘e kea, kōlea, and ‘ua‘u). Potential impacts to Hawaiian honeycreeper species would be minimized by the planned flight elevations, speed of release

operations, use of drones, and limited ground or helicopter activity in critical habitats. The risk of roosting bat or pup disturbance or displacement with presence of drones or helicopters is reduced given the planned flight elevations and general best management practices, and the proposed action is unlikely to affect foraging bats because bats are nocturnal and release activities would only occur during the day. Daytime helicopter and drone activities are very unlikely to influence listed seabirds that generally fly near the project area at night. Pedestrian release teams are unlikely to encounter endangered seabird nests on established trails but should be aware of their possible existence in the project area and should report any nocturnal seabird vocalizations heard.

All six remaining Hawaiian honeycreeper species (both federally listed and species of concern) on Maui in the project area would substantially benefit from the proposed action to suppress mosquito populations and thereby avian malaria transmission. Indirect beneficial impacts include conservation biodiversity and reduced exposure by Hawaiian honeycreepers, nēnē, and other disease-susceptible birds to avian pox virus. More broadly, the proposed action may help restore ecosystem integrity of the rainforest (including designated critical habitat) by substantially reducing the extinction risk of culturally significant and vital avian pollinators and seed dispersers (the Hawaiian honeycreepers).

Though considerable analysis is presented here, adverse impacts to listed wildlife and wildlife species of concern would minimal because very few direct impacts are anticipated, and indirect impacts would be limited in duration, frequency, and intensity. Over the long term, there would be a beneficial impact to listed birds and bird species of concern due to anticipated suppression of the mosquito population that transmits avian malaria to forest birds in the project area.

ESA Section 7 Determination Summary

Threatened and endangered species Section 7 determination definitions were previously defined. Based on the analysis, project activities under the proposed action, incorporating mitigation measures described in Chapter 2, *may affect, but are not likely to adversely affect*, all analyzed federally listed wildlife species and their designated critical habitat, as applicable. **Table 15** provides Section 7 determinations for listed wildlife species under the proposed action.

TABLE 15: THREATENED AND ENDANGERED WILDLIFE SECTION 7 DETERMINATIONS

Scientific Name	Common Name	Proposed Action Sec. 7 Determination
<i>Branta sandvicensis</i>	Nēnē, Hawaiian Goose	<i>May affect, but not likely to adversely affect</i>
<i>Drepanis coccina</i>	‘I‘iwi	<i>May affect, but not likely to adversely affect</i>
<i>Palmeria dolei</i>	‘Ākohekohe	<i>May affect, but not likely to adversely affect</i>
<i>Pseudonestor xanthrophys</i>	Kiwikiu or Maui Parrotbill	<i>May affect, but not likely to adversely affect</i>
<i>Lasiurus cinereus semotus</i>	‘Ōpe‘ape‘a, Hawaiian Hoary Bat	<i>May affect, but not likely to adversely affect</i>
<i>Oceanodroma castro</i>	‘Akē‘akē, Band-rumped Storm-Petrel	<i>May affect, but not likely to adversely affect</i>
<i>Pterodroma sandwichensis</i>	‘Ua‘u, Hawaiian Petrel	<i>May affect, but not likely to adversely affect</i>
<i>Puffinus auricularis newelli</i>	‘A‘o, Newell’s Shearwater	<i>May affect, but not likely to adversely affect</i>

CHAPTER 4: CONSULTATION AND COORDINATION

This chapter describes the civic engagement and agency consultation during the preparation of this EA. A combination of activities, including internal and public scoping, helped guide NPS and DLNR in developing this EA.

PLANNING

NEPA regulations require an “early and open process to determine the scope of issues for analysis” (40 CFR 1501.9). The internal scoping process for the project began in early 2021. Internal and external scoping associated with this EA has been extensive and has included numerous interdisciplinary team meetings and reviews and bi-weekly project meetings. Planning and public input for this project has also been in compliance with HEPA regulations at HRS Chapter 343.

A Pre-NEPA Workshop, “Addressing Avian Malaria and other Threats to Endangered Forest Birds at Haleakalā National Park,” was conducted virtually from February 9-11, 2021. Representatives from NPS, DLNR, State of Hawai‘i Department of Health, USFWS, and contractors Tetra Tech and JE Fuller participated and contributed. Day 1 of the workshop covered project background and a law and policy overview; Day 2 covered project issues, purpose and need, and potential management actions; and Day 3 addressed outreach, preliminary proposed action, available data, and next steps.

CIVIC ENGAGEMENT

Staff from the NPS, DLNR, and other partner agencies led civic engagement efforts with the local community and interested stakeholders prior to initiating the NEPA/HEPA process. The intent of civic engagement was to connect with and inform the public and stakeholders about proposed efforts on East Maui to reduce populations of mosquitoes and thus the effects of avian malaria among threatened and endangered bird populations. Civic engagement efforts were conducted through the use of informative websites, videos/multimedia, social media, virtual and in-person meetings, media kits, newsletters, meetings and webinars, and direct email/mail/phone campaigns. Park staff also participated in a series of civic engagement calls to notify the public and stakeholders via the outreach strategy of this project before the NEPA process began.

PUBLIC SCOPING

The NPS and DLNR held a 45-day public scoping period from December 6, 2021, to January 20, 2022, which initiated the NEPA/HEPA process. Virtual public scoping meetings were held on December 14, 2021, and January 6, 2022. Public notices of the comment period and meetings were distributed through the following sources:

- A news release posted on the park website
- A project newsletter posted to the NPS’s Planning, Environment and Public Comment (PEPC) website: <https://parkplanning.nps.gov/HALE-mosquito>
- A news release sent electronically (via email) to various stakeholders, agencies, and media groups
- A news release posted on the park’s social media accounts (Facebook and Instagram) and postings to the Hawai‘i DLNR newsfeed, as well as the Oahu and Kauai DOFAW Facebook pages.

In total, 51 people attended the virtual public scoping meetings, including 34 on December 14, 2021, and 17 on January 6, 2022. The content was the same for both meetings and included a presentation followed by a “question and answer” session. Video recordings of the public scoping meetings were posted on the project’s PEPC website. The project team received 72 correspondences during the 45-day scoping period. All 72 were submitted through the NPS PEPC system. The comments received were reviewed by the NPS and DLNR and considered in developing this EA. A public scoping

report documenting the process is available on the NPS PEPC project site at <https://parkplanning.nps.gov/HALE-mosquito>.

AGENCY CONSULTATION

NPS and DLNR initiated consultation with relevant agencies and organizations during the preparation of this EA. Copies of correspondence between NPS and other agencies, and responses from the agencies, if applicable, will be provided in the decision document.

Section 7 of the Endangered Species Act

Section 7 of the ESA requires federal agencies to ensure that the actions they authorize, fund, or carry out do not jeopardize the continued existence of listed species or destroy or adversely modify critical habitat. NPS is coordinating with the USFWS Pacific Islands Field Office to ensure compliance with Section 7 of the ESA. An official Species List and associated avoidance and minimization measures from the USFWS Pacific Islands Fish and Wildlife Office was received on January 20, 2022 and aided in developing mitigation measures and assessing potential impacts of the project. The USFWS reviewed and commented on an internal draft EA and a call with the NPS was held on October 24, 2022, to discuss potential impacts to threatened and endangered species. The NPS and DLNR will continue to work closely with the USFWS throughout the NEPA, HEPA, and Section 7 ESA processes. This EA is serving as a Biological Assessment with Section 7 determinations provided for federally listed plant and wildlife species.

Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act

Compliance with section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act is being conducted in consultation with the Hawai'i State Historic Preservation Division (SHPD), Native Hawaiian Organizations, and individuals with familial/traditional ties to Haleakalā concurrently during the NEPA/HEPA planning process. The expected determination of effect is *No adverse effect* under Section 106 and *No historic properties affected* under HRS Chapter 6e. In December 2021, NPS sent initial letters establishing the Area of Potential Effect (APE) and identifying historic properties to the Hawai'i SHPD and consulting parties. SHPD replied on January 5, 2022. The SHPD had no objections to the APE. The SHPD noted that the APE is a very large area and requested "additional information pertaining to what type of work, if any, will be conducted on the ground which may impact historic properties, if present, and the location of that work" (Project No. 2021PR01527; Doc No. 2201SH01). No substantial comments were received by consulting parties. In August 2022, NPS sent preliminary determination of effect letters to the Hawai'i SHPD and consulting parties, including additional information pertaining to what type of work, if any, will be conducted on the ground which may impact historic properties, if present, and the location of that work. No comments have been received to date. The project is under review by the Hawai'i SHPD History and Culture Branch. A third letter, describing refinements to the proposed action based upon new information gathered during the EA process, as well as final determination of effect, will be sent to consulting parties with this EA and Cultural Impact Assessment when released to the public.

**APPENDIX A:
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APPENDIX A: REFERENCES

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**APPENDIX B:
Issues, Impact Topics, and Alternatives Dismissed
from Detailed Analysis**

APPENDIX B: ISSUES, IMPACT TOPICS, AND ALTERNATIVES DISMISSED FROM DETAILED ANALYSIS

ISSUES AND IMPACT TOPICS DISMISSED FROM DETAILED ANALYSIS

Section 4.2 E of the National Park Service (NPS) NEPA Handbook (NPS 2015) states that, generally, issues should be discussed in detail in an Environmental Assessment (EA) if any of the following apply:

- the environmental impacts associated with the issue are central to the proposal or of critical importance
- a detailed analysis of environmental impacts related to the issue is necessary to make a reasoned choice between alternatives
- the environmental impacts associated with the issue are a big point of contention among the public or other agencies
- there are potentially significant impacts to resources associated with the issue

The NPS NEPA Handbook further states that if the considerations above do not apply, issues should be dismissed from detailed analysis. The following issues and impact topics were not fully addressed in the EA because the listed resources are not in the project area; the environmental impacts associated with the issue are not central to the proposal, pivotal, or of critical importance; a detailed analysis of environmental impacts related to the issue is not necessary to make a reasoned choice between alternatives; or the resource would not be or only negligibly impacted and there is no potential for significant impacts. More details about the dismissal for these issues and impact topics are provided in the sections below.

Air Quality, Greenhouse Gas Emissions, and Climate Change

The park regularly monitors air quality in the frontcountry (headquarters area) and baseline data is available. Air quality in the project area is typically very good, and Maui is in attainment for National Ambient Air Quality Standards (EPA 2021).

Under the proposed action, there are several release methods, ranging from pedestrian release with relatively limited helicopter flight times to helicopter long line and drone dispersal, but none of these would perceptibly adversely affect air quality. The primary mosquito release method would use drones, which do not burn fossil fuels.

Although some management actions would result in emissions of criteria pollutants pursuant to the Clean Air Act and greenhouse gases due to the use of helicopters and other motorized vehicles, contributions would be extremely low and would result in impacts on air quality and greenhouse gas emissions that would be below *de minimis* levels. Overall, any effects resulting from the proposed alternatives would be negligible. The regional effects of climate change are evident in the Hawaiian archipelago, and after a minor lull in the rate of climactic change in the early 2000s, a rapid warming trend appears to have resumed in 2014 (McKenzie et al. 2019). As suggested by some climate change models, the mean temperatures in Hawai'i may increase by 2°– 3°C by 2100 (IPCC 2007). The effects of climate change can result in increased stress to natural systems through altered temperatures and rainfall patterns (Alexander et al. 2016). Frazier and Giambelluca (2017) examined trends by elevation and showed that the highest rates of drying during dry season months were found in high-elevation areas where populations of threatened or endangered populations of forest birds are still able to persist.

Though climate change and associated adverse impacts have and will continue to affect specific resources on Maui and within the project area (Alexander et al. 2016, Pauchard et al. 2016), greenhouse gases from helicopter and motor vehicle emissions are not expected to have a measurable effect on local climatic conditions. For example, the management activities proposed to release mosquitoes would result in fossil fuel consumption from helicopters, but the greenhouse gas emissions associated with these activities would be negligible because of the comparatively limited number of flights anticipated, compared to ongoing commercial and administrative flights on Maui.

Based on the considerations discussed above, air quality, greenhouse gas emissions, and climate change were dismissed from detailed analysis as an impact topic. However, climate change was addressed in terms of impacts on the existing conditions of resources, and their long-term trends, as applicable.

Vegetation (Non-threatened/Endangered)

The Kīpahulu Valley and other portions of the project area above approximately 1,650 feet (502 meters) in elevation include important rainforest. The native koa (*Acacia koa*), and in some areas, invasive guava (*Psidium* spp.), dominate the forest from 2,000 to approximately 4,000 feet (610–1,219 meters), while ‘ōhi‘a (*Metrosideros polymorpha*) dominates the forest above 4,000 feet. Tree ferns (*Cibotium* spp.) are important in the understory. Lobelioids (*Cyanea* spp., *Clermontia* spp., *Lobelia* spp., and *Trematolobelia macrostachys*) and mints (*Stenogyne* spp. and *Phyllostegia* spp.) are among the rare and spectacular endemic plant species of the Kīpahulu Valley.

If rare forest birds recover through the release of incompatible mosquitoes, project activities could indirectly benefit East Maui’s native vegetation. Hawaiian honeycreepers play a critical role in ecosystem function by dispersing seeds and pollinating native plants. Maintaining populations of these species benefits the native plant community and preserves ecosystem function.

There is potential under the proposed action for minimal adverse impacts to vegetation from localized plant removal or disturbance along trails, fencelines, and at landing zones and camps by ground crews. These impacts would be temporary in nature and largely occur in previously disturbed locations. In addition, these activities have been cleared through previous environmental compliance conducted by the state or park. To help mitigate any vegetation/ground disturbance, monitoring efforts and the dispersal of incompatible mosquitoes via ground-based pedestrian releases would be conducted on existing resource management trails and fence lines to avoid disturbance of soils and plant communities. Additionally, best management practices (BMPs) would be implemented to reduce or remove the threat of introducing invasive plants within the project area; however, a risk of introduction still exists. Crews would be trained to follow BMPs to minimize this risk. Given previous environmental compliance of proposed activities and anticipated negligible impacts, this issue was considered and dismissed from further analysis.

Wildlife and/or Wildlife Habitat

There may be *de minimis* adverse impacts to general wildlife (those not federally listed or deemed as species of concern) or wildlife habitats that would result from the presence of people, drones, or helicopters used for implementation of the proposed action. In general, if the project were to be successful at reducing the prevalence of non-native *Culex* mosquitoes in the environment of East Maui, there would be periodic, short-term adverse impacts due to increased air and foot traffic, but long-term beneficial indirect impacts to general wildlife or wildlife habitat from the suppression of non-native mosquito populations and in turn avian malaria. Given the anticipated negligible impacts on general wildlife and/or wildlife habitat, this topic was dismissed from further analysis.

Museum Collections

No impacts to museum collections would result from the proposed action as none are present within the project area. This issue was considered and dismissed from further analysis.

Prehistoric/Historic Structures

No impacts to prehistoric or historic structures are anticipated to result from the proposed action. Much of the project area has not been surveyed, but no new ground disturbance would occur. To help mitigate potential effects of ground-based activities on previously undiscovered prehistoric or historic structures, pedestrian releases and monitoring would only be conducted via existing, previously disturbed resource management trails and fence lines, as well as camping at established remote camps or helicopter landing zones for overnight stays, to avoid new ground disturbance. Helicopter operations would utilize existing, previously disturbed landing zones. These existing areas (trails, fence lines, and landing zones or camps) have been cleared through previous environmental compliance conducted by the state or park. Therefore, this issue was considered and dismissed from further analysis.

Archeological Resources

As defined by NPS *Management Policies 2006*, the term “archeological resources” refers to any material remains or physical evidence of past human life or activities and includes precontact and historic sites and features. The project area within Haleakalā encompasses the entirety of the Kīpahulu Historic District. The Kīpahulu Historic District was determined eligible and nominated for listing on the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) in 1976. Kīpahulu Historic District was listed on the Hawai‘i State Inventory of Historic Places (SIHP) in 1977 (Site# 50-50-17-299). The historic district encompasses 327 hectares (810 acres) of lands around ‘Ohe‘o Gulch, from sea level to about 1,640 feet (500 meters) above sea level. The Kīpahulu Historic District encompasses the lower sections of five traditional ahupua‘a within the larger ancient moku (district) of Kīpahulu. These are Kaumakani, Papauluana, ‘Alae Iki, ‘Alae Nui, and Kakalehale. The individual archeological sites in the Kīpahulu District, all of which have been determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places through consultation with the Hawai‘i State Historic Preservation Division, represent occupational periods from pre-historic (pre-1778) through to the modern period (1850–present) and are associated with agriculture and animal husbandry, permanent residences, temporary encampments, and ceremonial purposes. Site types include mounds, terraces, walls, burials, platforms, enclosures, walled shelters, trails, and rock shelters, with rock mounds, walls, and terraces making up the majority of recorded archeological features.

The proposed action would occur just within the boundaries of the Crater Historic District, which was listed on both the State Inventory of Historic Places SIHP (SIHP 50-50-11-12-1739) and on the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) on November 1, 1974. The Crater Historic District encompasses 17,000 acres within Haleakalā National Park, encompassing the original park boundaries and lands throughout the crater wilderness and “frontcountry” shrubland on the northwest-facing slopes of Haleakalā. The district consists of 56 recorded archeological sites and is significant under Criterion D because it has yielded, and is likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history. No known individual archeological sites in the Crater Historic District are within the project area.

Individual archeological sites are also present and have been documented in the coastal area of Ka‘āpahu Ahupua‘a within Kalepa, ‘Alelele, Lelekēa, and Kukui‘ula Valleys. Portions of the Nu‘u parcel, including the proposed road corridor and helicopter landing zone, were surveyed between 2012 and 2014, with over 1,600 features identified and grouped into 76 archeological sites (Tomonari-Tuggle et al. 2015).

In addition, limited surveys have been completed in the upper elevations of Haleakalā National Park. Previous archeological surveys between the 1,800-foot and 4,600-foot elevation contour levels of the

Kīpahulu District of the park conducted by NPS Pacific Archeologist Gary Somers between 1985 and 1989 encountered no surface archeological sites. Similarly, a previous archaeological survey between the 2,400-foot and 5,000-foot elevation contour levels of the Kīpahulu District of the park conducted by Haleakalā National Park Archeologist Elizabeth Gordon in 2004 encountered no surface archeological sites. In 2015, Haleakalā National Park Archeologist Rachel Hodara Nelson surveyed portions of the Nu‘u parcel between the 2,500-foot and 1,400-foot contours. No new sites were identified during that survey.

Overall, no impacts to archeological resources are anticipated to result from the proposed action. Much of the project area has not been surveyed, but no new ground disturbance would result from the proposed action. To help mitigate potential effects of ground-based activities on previously undiscovered archaeological resources, pedestrian releases and monitoring would only be conducted via existing, previously disturbed resource management trails and fence lines, as well as camping at established remote camps or helicopter landing zones for overnight stays, to avoid new ground disturbance. Helicopter operations would utilize existing, previously disturbed landing zones. These existing areas (trails, fence lines, and landing zones or camps) have been cleared through previous environmental compliance conducted by the state or park. Therefore, this issue was considered and dismissed from further analysis.

Cultural Landscapes

The NPS defines cultural landscapes as geographic areas associated with historic events, activities, or people that reflect the history of the park unit, development patterns, and the relationship between people and the park. Portions of the Haleakalā Highway Historic District, Pu‘unianiau Area, and Hosmer Grove Campground and Picnic Area cultural landscapes are within the project area near the entrance to Haleakalā National Park. No impacts to cultural landscapes are anticipated to result from the proposed action. Much of the project area has not been surveyed, but no new ground disturbance would result from the proposed action. To help mitigate potential effects of ground-based activities on cultural landscapes, pedestrian releases and monitoring would only be conducted via existing, previously disturbed resource management trails and fence lines, as well as camping at established remote camps or helicopter landing zones for overnight stays, to avoid new ground disturbance. Helicopter operations would utilize existing, previously disturbed landing zones. These existing areas (trails, fence lines, and landing zones or camps) have been cleared through previous environmental compliance conducted by the state or park. The proposed action will result in limited visual and noise impacts to the feeling and setting of historic period cultural landscapes. However, these noise and visual impacts have been minimized in order to limit negative impacts to cultural landscapes. The proposed action has minimized the use of helicopters with the increased focus on the use of drones, which are smaller and quieter than helicopters. Therefore, this issue was considered but dismissed from further analysis.

Ethnographic Resources and Traditional Cultural Practices

As defined in NPS Director’s Order 28: Cultural Resource Management Guidelines (NPS 1998), ethnographic resources can be both natural and cultural resources that have been identified as having cultural significance by culturally associated users. They can include subsistence and ceremonial sites, structures, objects, and rural and urban landscapes assigned cultural significance by traditional users. The Summit of Haleakalā, including the Kīpahulu Valley and Kaupō Gap, has been determined eligible for the National Register of Historic Places as a traditional cultural property (TCP) “for its association with the cultural landscape of Maui and because it has known uses, oral history, mele, and legends, was a source for both traditional materials and sacred uses, and is a place exhibiting spiritual power. The sacred essence of the mountain includes the sky above (Prasad and Tomonari-Tuggle 2008).

Approximately 300–500 Hawaiians enter the Lower Kīpahulu Valley area of the park for traditional cultural practices annually; the Upper Kīpahulu Valley is a designated Biological Reserve closed to all

public access. Archeological resources, recorded and oral histories, and Native Hawaiian traditions provide valuable information related to cultural land use, settlement patterns, and ethnographic practices within the Kīpahulu District. Cultural practices known to occur in this section of the park include performance of ceremonies and spiritual training, and farming. Native Hawaiians have strong cultural and spiritual connections to the resources and land located within the park as well as on DLNR and private lands within the project area.

Section 5.3.5.3 of NPS *Management Policies 2006* commits the NPS to adopt “a comprehensive approach towards appreciating the diverse human heritage and associated resources that characterize the national park system.” The proposed action will result in limited visual and noise impacts to the feeling and setting of ethnographic resources, including the Haleakalā Summit, Kīpahulu Valley, and Kaupō Gap Traditional Cultural Property. Noise associated with helicopter or drone flights and their visual intrusion could potentially be a disturbance to the traditional users of park or state areas and could potentially detract from their enjoyment and use. However, these noise and visual impacts have been minimized in order to limit negative impacts to ethnographic resources. Park operations, e.g., flight times and flight paths, would be planned to balance efficiency and any potential impacts. The proposed action will minimize the use of helicopters and focus on the use of drones, which are smaller and quieter than helicopters. Any necessary helicopter flights would be planned to avoid the park’s annual commercial-free days. As specified in the park’s Commercial Services Plan, commercial-free days are opportunities for Kānaka Maoli (Native Hawaiians) to conduct traditional cultural practices in the park without commercial tours present. In 2023, the commercial-free days will occur on January 6 (end of Makahiki); May 24 (Zenith Noon); June 21 (Summer Solstice); July 18 (Zenith Noon); October 27 (start of Makahiki); and December 21 (Winter Solstice). The commercial-free days are designated prior to the start of the calendar year and change slightly each year. They are determined in consultation with the Native Hawaiian Community. The NPS consulted with the Native Hawaiian Community to identify any impacts from the proposed action and no substantial comments have been received to date. DLNR prepared a Cultural Impact Assessment (CIA) as part of compliance with the Hawai‘i, Environmental Policy Act (HEPA). The CIA states: “Due to the size of the project area, this cultural impact assessment did not identify or inventory individual historic sites within the project area. Due to the nature of the activities, it is not anticipated that these activities could impact, modify, or effect historic properties in the project area” (Watson 2022: 43).

In the CIA (Honua Consulting 2022: 25-26) Kepā Maly describes the significance of natural resources to Native Hawaiians:

We find in native traditions and beliefs, that Hawaiians shared spiritual and familial relationships with the natural resources around them. Each aspect of nature from the stars in the heavens, to the winds, clouds, rains, growth of the forests and life therein, and everything on the land and in the ocean was believed to be alive. Indeed, every form of nature in ancient Hawai‘i was believed to be a body-form of some god or lesser deity. In the Hawaiian mind, care for each aspect of nature, the kino lau (myriad body-forms) of the elder life forms, was a way of life. This concept is still expressed by Hawaiian kūpuna (elders) through the present day, and passed on in many native families. Also, in this cultural context, anything which damages the native nature of the land, forests, ocean, and kino lau therein, damages the integrity of the whole. Thus caring for, and protecting the land and ocean resources, is a way of life. Furthermore, in the traditional context above referenced, we find that the mountain landscape, its’ native species, and the intangible components therein, are a part of a sacred Hawaiian landscape. Thus, the natural landscape itself is a highly valued cultural property. It’s protection, and the continued exercise of traditional and customary practices, in a traditional and customary manner, are mandated by native custom, and State and Federal Laws.

Based on the research and ethnographic data within the CIA report, it was found that it would be unlikely that the proposed action would adversely impact traditional or customary practices. Yet, it is clear that additional education and outreach is needed, particularly to the practitioner community. Hunters use the project area extensively, and they hunt for subsistence. This subsistence lifestyle provides critical protein and food resources to families in East Maui” (Watson 2022: 84). Thus far the NPS has conducted two virtual public meetings to collect initial comments in the development of the draft EA. Information may be found here: Park planning - Suppression of Non-native Mosquito Populations to Address the Impacts of Avian Malaria on Threatened and Endangered Forest Birds ([nps.gov](https://www.nps.gov)) and here: [Birds Not Mosquitoes](#). The state DLNR and Birds not Mosquitoes, a public-private partnership, plans to do additional outreach to East Maui communities to educate about this project. To mitigate potential public concerns regarding Wolbachia-incompatible mosquito releases, the IIT project team consulted with the DLNR Maui Branch Manager to identify areas on state lands commonly used by hunters or cultural practitioners. Most public hunting areas within the East Maui project area are only open on weekends, when it’s unlikely that mosquito release operations will take place. Further, most treatment area points on public hunting lands are in remote upland areas rarely visited by hunters. The one exception is the Makawao Forest Reserve, where there are 60 release points, which would take approximately 1-2 hours to treat by aerial methods. The reserve is open for hunting and other recreational activities daily. Those activities may include plant and flower gathering for lei making and other traditional Hawaiian practices. The project team met with the DLNR Na Ala Hele trail advisory committee on July 27, 2022, to discuss potential concerns and how best to communicate IIT implementation plans in that popular recreational area. The project team will work with DLNR to post signage on trails communicating release plans, and to participate in public outreach events. On DLNR lands, Native Hawaiian organizations would be notified prior to any planned release efforts. The CIA also found that native birds could be considered a cultural resource as they are entwined in both Hawaiian culture and tradition across the islands. The history of the birds in Hawai‘i is one of tremendous adaptive radiation due to geographic isolation resulting in numerous species of birds found nowhere else on earth. The use of helicopters and drones under the proposed action could temporarily disturb native forest birds, but over the long term there would be substantial benefits by minimizing the spread of avian malaria and reducing bird mortality.

In conclusion, any minimal impacts to ethnographic resources and traditional cultural practices would likely be temporary at any given location, though releases would likely occur over the long term. In addition, reduction of avian malaria as proposed would conserve numerous rare birds important to Native Hawaiian culture providing a beneficial impact. This issue was considered and dismissed from further analysis in the EA but was assessed in the aforementioned CIA which is included as an appendix to the EA.

Geological Features and Soils

No impacts to geological features are anticipated to result from the proposed action. Any disturbances to bedrock geology or soils from pedestrian release activities and monitoring would be minimal, and therefore have negligible effects on soils. To help mitigate any effects of ground disturbance, ground-based monitoring efforts and pedestrian mosquito releases would be conducted on existing resource management trails and fence lines to avoid disturbance. Helicopter operations would utilize existing, previously disturbed landing zones. For these reasons, impacts to geology and soils were considered and dismissed from further analysis.

Lightscapes

No impacts to lightscapes are anticipated to result from the proposed action. All work would be conducted during daylight hours. This issue was considered and dismissed from further analysis.

Land Use

No impacts to land use are anticipated to result from the proposed action. All current land uses would continue as is under the proposed action. This issue was considered and dismissed from further analysis.

Environmental Justice

Environmental justice is the fair treatment and meaningful involvement of all people regardless of race, color, national origin, or income, with respect to the development, implementation, and enforcement of environmental laws, regulations, and policies. Executive Order 12898, Federal Actions to Address Environmental Justice in Minority Populations and Low-Income Populations, provides that “each Federal agency shall make achieving environmental justice part of its mission by identifying and addressing, as appropriate, disproportionately high and adverse human health or environmental effects of its programs, policies, and activities on minority and low-income populations.” A minority population exists within an affected area when either the minority population exceeds 50%, or the minority population is meaningfully greater than the minority population of the general population (CEQ 1997).

According to EJScreen, EPA’s Environmental Justice Screening and Mapping Tool, census block groups within and around the project area on East Maui are comprised of populations where at least 50 percent of the population is considered a minority. Therefore, environmental justice communities exist in the study area. The proposed action involves the use of drones and helicopters to release incompatible mosquitoes for the purpose of suppressing the spread of avian malaria. The mosquitoes that would be released provide no threat to the public as they would be male mosquitoes (which don’t bite) and do not transmit disease to humans. While the suppression of avian malaria should result in a positive overall effect on the East Maui ecosystem, mosquito release methods would involve the use of aircraft which could adversely impact the public who are recreating on public and conservation lands during project implementation. These potential impacts would mostly be due to the noise or visual disturbance from aircraft. Similar aerial operations are already ongoing on state and federal lands on East Maui. There would be minimal or no adverse effects on the public outside of the project area. Because noise and visual impacts could primarily affect only those members of the public that are actively recreating in the project area during implementation, there would be no low income or minority populations that would be disproportionately affected by project activities. Therefore, this issue was considered and dismissed from further analysis.

Socioeconomics

The economy of Maui County has a high reliance on the visitor industry, with 34,400 jobs or approximately 41 percent of all jobs in the county being visitor-related in the categories of food services, accommodation, retail trade, and arts, entertainment, and recreation (Department of Business, Economic Development & Tourism 2018). The majority of visitors travel to Kīpahulu by way of the state- and county-maintained Hāna Highway through the community of Hāna. The Kīpahulu District can receive over 500 cars per day and as many as 1,500 to 1,800 people per day during peak times (NPS 2022).

Tourism is the largest single source of private capital for Hawai‘i’s economy. Tourism in Maui contributed \$14.0 million per day to the local economy in 2019. The Hawai‘i Tourism Authority anticipates continued growth in tourism from “upgrades” to natural resources and increased distribution of visitors to the “neighbor” islands. In 2007 \$35 million in tourism spending in the State of Hawai‘i supported 172,000 jobs; in 2017 these figures had grown to \$46 million in spending and 203,000 jobs supported (Hawai‘i Tourism Authority 2019). Birding significantly drives visitation within The Nature Conservancy’s (TNC’s) Waikamoi Preserve because much of the pristine forest habitat where rare forest birds can be viewed within state forest reserves and the park is inaccessible to birders seeking a glimpse of rare forest birds. Exceptions would be Hosmer Grove and Palikū, which is adjacent to Kīpahulu Valley, in the park where ‘i‘iwi can be seen. The Waikamoi Preserve can only be accessed with

permission from TNC. Public trips for birding typically occur once per month and have a maximum of 15 participants.

The proposed action could potentially adversely impact birding trips within the Waikamoi Preserve, but only minimally due to occasional noise from field crews, helicopters, or drones; however, tourism related to birding only comprises a small portion of local tourism, and there would be a beneficial impact to birding from suppression of avian malaria and increased viability of native forest bird populations. No measurable impact to the local economy would occur as a result of the proposed action. Therefore, this issue was considered and dismissed from further analysis.

Viewsheds

Under the proposed action, helicopters and drones would be visible above the tree canopy for very limited periods of time during flights to release mosquitoes, but the visual intrusion would be temporary, perhaps a few minutes at a time in each location and impacts would be considered *de minimis*. There would be no permanent impacts to viewsheds. Therefore, this issue was considered and dismissed from further analysis.

Floodplains

No impacts to floodplains are anticipated to result from the proposed action because the project would not result in disturbance to designated floodplains which are primarily located downstream of the project area. According to the State of Hawai'i, DLNR, Flood Hazard Assessment Tool, the project area overlaps with many streams originating on the slopes of the park that have designated floodways. However, only pedestrian release routes via existing trails and fence lines and helicopter or drone landing zones or camps would be used. Therefore, this issue was considered and dismissed from further analysis.

Marine or Estuarine Resources

No impacts to marine or estuarine resources are anticipated to result from the proposed action as the project area is in terrestrial areas only. Therefore, this issue was considered and dismissed from further analysis.

Water Quality or Quantity

The proposed action would not affect water quality in any measurable manner because care would be taken to avoid water sources during pedestrian, helicopter, or drone releases of mosquitoes. This project would involve no change to water quantity in East Maui as water is not required for implementation of this project. Therefore, this issue was considered and dismissed from further analysis.

Wetlands

No impacts to wetlands are anticipated to result from the proposed action because pedestrian release routes and helicopter and drone landing sites would avoid wetland areas. Ground-based monitoring efforts and mosquito releases would be conducted on existing resource management trails and fence lines. Helicopter operations would utilize existing, previously disturbed landing zones. These existing areas (trails, fence lines, and landing zones or camps) have been cleared through previous environmental compliance conducted by the state or park. No protected wetland areas would be disturbed during implementation of the proposed action. Therefore, this issue was considered and dismissed from further analysis.

Human Health and Safety

Under the proposed action, pedestrian release, helicopter long line, and drone operations would present some risk of accidents or injuries to employees and contractors during ground crew transportation or mosquito release. In addition, ground crews would be subject to some risk of injury from hiking in remote areas and through difficult terrain. The NPS and State of Hawai‘i have strict guidelines and safety/training standards that are followed on all management projects and would be followed under the proposed action. Safety is paramount to all missions.

Aerial mosquito release operations would be carried out by only trained personnel and contractors approved by the U.S. Department of Interior Office of Aviation Services and would be required to observe proper safety protocols and use proper personal protective equipment. Equipment would be well-maintained and helicopter flights would only occur during favorable weather conditions. In addition, an aviation safety plan specific to this project would be developed and implemented. A safety briefing would be performed for each flight. Agencies would seek to minimize the risk of accident or injury during helicopter-based release activities and temporarily cease operations if unsafe conditions exist. Given the proposed action includes activities that are routinely carried out already and there would be no or only minimal risk to visitors, this issue was considered and dismissed from further analysis.

Alternatives Potentially Considered but Dismissed from Further Consideration

During the development of the proposed action and refinement of the project’s purpose and need statement, the NPS and DLNR considered numerous alternatives that were ultimately dismissed from detailed analysis. A summary of these alternatives and reasons for their dismissal from further consideration are provided below. The NPS and DLNR dismissed alternatives determined to be infeasible and as such would not accomplish the purpose and need of the project, which is to substantially suppress or eliminate wild mosquito populations and thus avian malaria in threatened and endangered forest bird populations on East Maui. Therefore, the following alternatives were considered but dismissed from further consideration in the EA.

Sterile Insect Technique

The Sterile Insect Technique (SIT) aims to sterilize male insects and release them into the wild population to reduce reproductive output and suppress insect populations. The technique has been successfully applied globally to several species of pests, including some species of mosquito (Dyck et al. 2021). The primary method for sterilizing male mosquitoes is through gamma ray exposure, which induces random breaks in the DNA to cause infertility (Klassen and Curtis 2021). Captive reared gamma-irradiated males are released into a population to mate with wild females, which in turn would lay non-viable eggs. Initial *Culex* SIT field trials demonstrated success in inducing modest to high levels of sterility in wild females by releasing irradiated males in small areas of India and Florida (Patterson et al. 1975, 1977). Larger SIT field trials were complicated by mated female immigration (Yasuno et al. 1975) and several *Aedes* SIT trials indicated that irradiated males had reduced mating competitiveness (Bellini et al. 2013, Yamada et al. 2014). Concerns regarding the quality of SIT males and their mating competitiveness were alleviated by several successful *Aedes* SIT trials (Ageep et al. 2014, Madakacherry et al. 2014), but uncertainties remained for *Culex*. During the “To Restore a Mosquito-Free Hawai‘i” workshop in 2016, experts weighed the advantages and disadvantages of both the Incompatible Insect Technique (IIT) and SIT methods and cited evidence of reduced fitness of SIT male *Aedes* mosquitoes when compared to IIT *Wolbachia* males (Atyame et al. 2016). The group expressed the need for additional laboratory research for identifying the irradiation dose that would fully sterilize males and maintain competitiveness with wild *Culex* males in Hawaiian rainforests. Elsewhere, SIT has been applied in conjunction with several *Aedes* IIT programs, primarily as a means for ensuring that no sterile *Wolbachia* females are released accidentally with *Wolbachia* males (Zhang et al. 2015, Bourtzis et al. 2016). Advancements in sex-sorting

techniques reduced the need for integrated SIT and IIT programs and help propel IIT as the primary means for suppressing *Culex* populations in Hawai‘i. Researchers are working to overcome the complication of reduced competitiveness in irradiated *Culex* males and their findings should determine if SIT will be a viable tool worth considering in the future. Because this is not a viable tool at this time, this alternative would not meet the purpose and need for taking action, and therefore has been dismissed from detailed consideration.

Introducing Self-Limiting Male Mosquitoes with Edited Genes

Male mosquitoes may be engineered to contain a self-limiting gene that, when passed to offspring, prevents the offspring from developing into adulthood. This method has been proposed for implementation in Florida, and an Experimental Use Permit was issued by the Food and Drug Administration. After extensive evaluation of the best available science and public input, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) granted an experimental use permit to Oxitec Ltd. to field test the use of genetically engineered *Aedes aegypti* mosquitoes as a way to reduce mosquito populations to protect public health from mosquito-borne illnesses (EPA 2020). However, this technology is not currently available for near-term implementation of *Culex* mosquitoes. There may also be considerable public resistance to this method as has been seen in Florida. Because this technology is not currently available, this alternative would not meet the purpose and need for taking action, and therefore has been dismissed from detailed consideration.

Gene Drive

The gene drive method involves introducing a novel DNA sequence that permanently transfers a useful trait into a wild population to eliminate the population or render it inert for the threat it poses. In this system, this would be done by engineering *Culex* mosquitoes to carry a certain gene and releasing those mosquitoes into the wild to spread that particular trait. The gene in the released mosquitoes may theoretically code for any number of traits including mutations resulting in mortality or even alter vector-parasite compatibility. This method has the ability to eliminate mosquito populations island-wide or alter the population in a lasting manner. Although there would be up-front development costs, there may be no need to repeatedly deploy treatment mosquitoes once introduced as this is not a self-limiting method. However, this technology is still approximately 10–20 years away from viability and has not been proven or tested in the field. Safeguards would also need to be developed and there may be some public resistance to a tool using genetic modification. Because this technology is not currently available, this alternative would not meet the purpose and need for taking action, and therefore has been dismissed from detailed consideration.

Mosquito Habitat Source Reduction

Alteration or removal of water bodies has long been used to control mosquito numbers through reduction in larval habitat. Draining or channelizing waterways has been an effective method of reducing standing water and thus suppressing mosquito reproduction for centuries. However, alteration of the natural hydrology of an area can have significant effects, impacting numerous species and entire ecosystems. The hydrology of the mountainous regions of Hawai‘i, including the project area considered here, is driven by rainfall patterns and little ground water is maintained for long periods in lakes, ponds, or wetlands that could act as breeding grounds for mosquitoes. Thus, there are few wetland/marsh habitats to drain or alter in the project area, even if such an action was considered. Additionally, enumerable species depend on the natural flow of water on the landscape and there is a high likelihood of significant adverse impacts to other listed species or species of concern. Because this alternative would not meet the purpose and need for taking action and due to the potential for severe environmental impacts, it has been dismissed from detailed consideration.

Biological Larvicide Controls

Bacterial and other biological larvicides have been developed and are commercially available for the control of mosquito populations. One such bacterial control agent, *Bacillus thuringiensis* var. *israelensis* (Bti), can be effective for reducing mosquito larvae abundance. When applied to larval habitat, the microbe produces a toxin that is lethal when ingested by developing mosquito larvae. Bti larvicides (e.g., Vectomax[®] FG, Vectobac[®], MosquitoDunks[®]) have demonstrated success for reducing *Culex* larvae abundance in areas of Kaua‘i Island, where pedestrian crews could access and apply the granular pesticide to standing pools of water (LaPointe et al. 2021). Because *Culex* are capable of breeding in a variety of habitats, including habitats rich in organic matter, the species can take advantage of pooled water in tree wells, pig wallows, and stagnant ground pools far from streams; thus, it is difficult to locate and treat these sources that are diffusely spread throughout native forest bird habitat. *Culex* mosquitoes can travel up to 3 kilometers in less than 12 days (LaPointe 2008), thus individuals can infiltrate relatively small locally treated areas. In 2019, standing pools of water were treated with Vectomax[®] FG in a 170-ha area where 14 kiwīkiū birds were translocated and nearly every individual bird suffered mortality because of exposure to avian malaria (Warren et al. 2021). Scaling up Bti treatments to a landscape level in wet and steep environments could be logistically infeasible. Bti has been aerially broadcasted in several parts of the world, but its application in densely forested areas of Hawai‘i has not been tested. Additionally, Bti degrades under ultraviolet exposure (Zogo et al. 2019) and active ingredients can be flushed or diffused during rain events, thus the frequency of treatments could depend on local conditions and readily available resources, which may be impractical in most cases. Further, while Lapointe et al. (2021) observed no evidence of population level impacts to two non-target invertebrates, effects to several endemic flies, midges, and gnats have not been tested. Bti has potential for reducing larval abundance in combination with an IIT program, but the method alone is inadequate for suppressing mosquito populations within the entire East Maui project area. Because this alternative would not meet the purpose and need for taking action, it has been dismissed from detailed analysis.

Chemical Controls

Successful control and eradication of disease-carrying mosquitoes has been accomplished globally using several pesticides, such as organophosphate or organochloride insecticides. Widescale application of insecticides, in addition to removal of larval habitat, is responsible for the eradication of human malaria throughout the United States. However, there are no mosquito-specific insecticides available and most of the available insecticides are indiscriminate and could cause mortality of non-target native and listed insects and arthropods in the treatment area. Insecticides have also proven to have higher adverse effects through bioaccumulation (e.g., DDT in raptor eggs). Organophosphate and pyrethroid adulticides are among the most used insecticides used to control mosquitoes. However, resistance to these chemical agents has been documented in *Culex* spp. mosquitoes over the past several decades, potentially reducing the efficacy of these chemicals (Pasteur et al. 1984, Raymond et al. 2001, Liu et al. 2009). Targeted application of larvicides would be expected to impact federally listed damselflies. . Because implementation of this alternative could result in greater environmental effects to species in the project area, it has been dismissed from detailed consideration.

Translocation of Birds to Mosquito-free Areas

Translocation is the intentional effort to transport organisms from their current range to distinct locations to establish a second sustaining population. The practice has been applied with variable success for a number of rare birds in Hawai‘i. Successful translocations are primarily restricted to the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands where *Culex* mosquitoes and avian malaria are absent. The U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service successfully established new populations of the Laysan Finch (*Telespiza cantans*) and ulūlu (Nihoa Millerbird; *Acrocephalus familiaris*) on Pearl and Hermes Atoll and Laysan Island, respectively (Morin and Conant 2020 a, b). However, most translocations in the main Hawaiian Islands have failed,

including the recent translocation of wild and captive kiwīkiū to a restored area of Nakula Natural Area Reserve on Leeward Maui. Nearly every bird died of avian malaria shortly after being released (Warren et al. 2021). Several efforts to reintroduce the endangered Palila (*Loxioides bailleui*) to former areas of its range in high montane and sub-alpine forests on Hawai‘i Island failed, primarily because birds quickly returned to their native range where they had established pair bonds and territories (Banko et al. 2014). Because of the current conservation crisis, the translocation of four critically endangered honeycreepers (including kiwīkiū and ‘ākohekohe) to high elevation forests (>1,500 meters in elevation) on Hawai‘i Island, where birds may be less vulnerable to disease because of cooler annual mean temperatures, was assessed by a group of translocation experts, cultural practitioners, and resource managers (Paxton et al. 2022). A panel of experts scored the probability of success for each species, and native Hawaiians, with strong connections to native birds, shared perspectives regarding moving birds from their endemic range to a separate island. The probability of success for each species ranged from 38 percent to 51 percent, meaning most experts predicted that the translocations would fail, except for the endangered ‘ākohekohe, which had a near equal probability of failure and success. Cultural practitioners shared concerns about losing the cultural and familial connection to native avifauna and the potential suffering to individual birds during capture and transport efforts. The lack of remaining individuals in the wild to move and start a new population was one of the biggest factors in the decision process and there was little indication that translocated birds would be free from the threat of avian malaria, because of evidence that species vulnerable to the disease, such as the threatened ‘i‘iwi, were in decline throughout most of their range on Hawai‘i island (Paxton et al. 2013, Kendall et al. 2022). Further, climate projections reduce current ranges of endangered birds on Hawai‘i Island by more than 75 percent by years 2080–2100 and those species and translocated species would face similar challenges (Fortini et al. 2015). Translocation may be considered a complementary approach to the proposed action, potentially buying time for species in the wild while the threat of disease-carrying mosquitoes is being addressed, but the action would not meet the urgent need of preventing extinction of several endangered birds. Because this alternative would not meet the purpose and need for taking action, it has been dismissed from detailed analysis.

Treatment of Birds with Acute Infections using Anti-malarial Drugs

Vulnerable bird populations could be treated with injections of anti-malarial drugs (e.g., chloroquine, artesunate, primaquine, doxycycline). This approach could be effective in reducing the adverse effects of malaria in treated birds for a short period of time. The efficacy of anti-malarial drugs has been tested with variable success on poultry and captive penguins (Chitty 2011, Sohsuebngarm et al. 2014). Infected Hawaiian honeycreepers have also been successfully treated with these medications as well (Warren et al. 2021). This option is generally not feasible on a landscape or population scale because each individual bird would require repeated treatment. Individuals would need to be captured and identified for acute malaria with rapid testing techniques. Infected birds would be transported to a captive facility where a veterinarian could administer multiple doses of anti-malarial drugs. The birds’ health and measures of malaria parasitemia would need to be monitored for several weeks until experts are confident to release individuals back into the wild, whereupon individuals would again be vulnerable to re-infection. The capture and transportation of infected birds, as well as the stress of captivity, could cause fatalities of sick individuals. It would be extremely labor intensive and impractical for reducing the impact of malaria among an entire community of threatened and endangered forest birds on East Maui. The approach could result in considerable environmental impact and possibly adverse impacts to threatened and endangered forest bird species. This approach was dismissed from further consideration because it does not meet the purpose and need and is technologically and economically infeasible.

Genetic Modification of Forest Birds

Under this scenario, forest bird genetic information would be modified to promote resistance to malarial infections. The practice of gene editing with CRISPR-Cas9 technology has been applied to domestic

animals (Novak et al. 2018); for example, the genome of pigs was edited to enhance resistance to porcine reproductive and respiratory syndrome virus (Whitworth et al. 2016). Recently, the CRISPR-Cas9 tool was assessed in the conservation and recovery of the endangered black-footed ferret, a species vulnerable to sylvatic plague. The U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service approved an Endangered Species Recovery Permit for the foundational laboratory research for the genetic rescue of the species (Revive and Restore 2021), but the tool has not been applied to wild populations yet. Similarly, CRISPR-Cas9 could be applied to enhance resistance to avian malaria in Hawai‘i. This facilitated adaptation through gene editing has been a modeled approach, but the tool has not been developed for honeycreepers in Hawai‘i (Samuel et al. 2020). Technology for this approach is not available for near-term implementation. Genetic modification of culturally significant species could be highly controversial. This approach would not meet the purpose and need and is technologically infeasible at this time and has been dismissed from detailed analysis.

Ground Release of Mosquitoes using Cars, Trucks, or ATVs

Under this approach, *Wolbachia*-incompatible male mosquitoes are released into the wild via motor vehicles on the ground; wild female mosquitoes who mate with incompatible males lay eggs that do not hatch. Similar to the proposed action for this project, the regulatory path to obtain approval is defined and approvals are in place to use the approach to control mosquitoes of public health concern. The proposed project area covering the targeted birds’ current and historic range is nearly entirely roadless. To release *Wolbachia*-incompatible male mosquitoes at the intervals necessary to achieve effective control, this approach would require construction of a vast network of roads that would be cost-prohibitive and would result in adverse environmental impacts to various natural and cultural resources. Roads and vehicles can create more larval habitat for mosquitoes as well as fragment critical habitat for endangered plants and animals present in the proposed project area. This approach, given current infrastructure, would not meet the project purpose and need and would likely result in significant adverse environmental impacts, and has therefore been dismissed from detailed analysis.

Pedestrian Release of Mosquitoes Without the Use of Helicopters

The project area in East Maui is 64,666 acres and is characterized by very remote, heavily forested, and exceptionally rugged terrain. Only a few roads penetrate this area and the only established trails accessible without the use of helicopters occur in Makawao Forest Reserve, Waikamoi Preserve, and the Lower Kīpahulu Valley comprising less than 2% of the overall project area. In order to release mosquitoes using only the pedestrian release method, a massive trail system would need to be developed over the entire East Maui project area at great cost and with resultant environmental impacts. In addition to the current lack of infrastructure that would potentially allow for mosquito releases without the use of helicopters, the short life span of the incompatible mosquitoes would require rapid dispersal following shipment to Maui from the mainland, on the order of 24 hours. Pedestrian releases could not feasibly release mosquitoes throughout the project area within the required timeframe. Therefore, this alternative has been dismissed from detailed analysis.

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**APPENDIX C:
Cultural Impact Assessment**



**Cultural Impact Assessment Report for the Proposed Activities Associated with the
Suppression of Non-Native Mosquito Populations to Reduce Transmission of Avian Malaria
to Threatened and Endangered Forest Birds on Maui**

Prepared for

State of Hawai'i Department of Land and Natural Resources

Prepared by



May 2022

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Note on Hawaiian Language Use

In keeping with other Hawaiian scholars, we do not italicize Hawaiian words. Hawaiian is both the native language of the pae‘āina of Hawai‘i and an official language of the State of Hawai‘i. Some authors will leave Hawaiian words italicized if part of a quote; we do not. In the narrative, we use diacritical markings to assist our readers, except in direct quotes, in which we keep the markings used in the original text. We provide translations contextually when appropriate. Unless otherwise noted, all translations are by Honua Consulting authors.

Front Cover Credit

Hawaii State Archives

n.d. Image of ‘I‘iwi bird, Jack Jefferies

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Executive Summary

At the request of Tetra Tech, Inc., Honua Consulting, LLC prepared a Cultural Impact Assessment (CIA) for the State of Hawai'i Department of Land and Natural Resources for the Proposed Activities Associated with the Suppression of Non-Native Mosquito Populations to Reduce Transmission of Avian Malaria to Threatened and Endangered Forest Birds on Maui. The "Project Area" includes 262-square kilometers in East Maui on various Tax Map Keys (TMKs).

Research in preparation of this report consisted of a thorough search of Hawaiian language documents, including but not limited to the Bishop Museum Mele Index and Bishop Museum archival documents, including the Hawaiian language archival cache. All Hawaiian language documents were reviewed by Hawaiian language experts to search for relevant information to include in the report. Documents considered relevant to this analysis are included herein, and translations are provided when appropriate to the discussion. Summaries of interviews and information on other oral testimonies are also provided herein.

Based on the information gathered and the assessment of the resources conducted, the project is not anticipated to have any adverse impacts on cultural resources, traditions, customs, or practices.

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Abbreviations and Acronyms

AIS: Archaeological Inventory Survey

BMP: Best Management Practice

CIA: Cultural Impact Assessment

DC: Direct Current

EA: Environmental Assessment

ESP: Environmental Review Project, Office of Planning and Sustainable Development

HAR: Hawaii Administrative Rules

HRS: Hawaii Revised Statutes

ILK: Indigenous Local Knowledge

Ka Pa‘akai: Ka Pa‘akai O Ka ‘Āina v. Land Use Commission, 94 Haw. 31 (2000)

LRFI: Literature Review and Field Investigation

NPS: U.S. National Park Service

NRHP: National Register of Historic Places

OEQC: Office of Environmental Quality and Control

ROI: Range of Influence

SHPD: State Historic Preservation Division

SIHP: State Inventory of Historic Places

SLH: Session Laws of Hawaii

TEK: Traditional Ecological Knowledge

TMK: Tax Map Key

UH: University of Hawai‘i

USGS: U.S. Geological Survey

1.0 Project Description and Compliance

At the request of Tetra Tech, Inc., Honua Consulting, LLC prepared a Cultural Impact Assessment (CIA) for the State of Hawai'i Department of Land and Natural Resources for the Proposed Activities Associated with the Suppression of Non-Native Mosquito Populations to Reduce Transmission of Avian Malaria to Threatened and Endangered Forest Birds on Maui. The "Project Area" includes 262-square kilometers in East Maui on various Tax Map Keys (TMKs).

The proposed action consists of releasing *Wolbachia*-infected male *Culex quinquefasciatus* mosquitos within an approximately 262-square-kilometer (64,660-acre) project area on East Maui, Hawai'i. *Wolbachia* is a naturally occurring bacterium. This approach renders the *Wolbachia*-infected male mosquitos incapable of producing viable offspring after mating with wild-type females, thus providing landscape-scale control of the *Culex* population.

1.1 Project Description and Proposed Action

The Project Area Overview map (Figure 1) illustrates the overall project area. As noted, this project will involve releasing *Wolbachia*-infected male *Culex quinquefasciatus* mosquitos. There is no ground disturbance or construction activities associated with these activities. It is unique among cultural assessments in that these activities are largely programmatic in nature and involve a large area rather than project-based involving only a defined project area.

Additionally, species are not limited to physical boundaries. Therefore, while there is a specified project area in east Maui, depending on where these individuals are released, they may travel, to the extent they are physically capable, within the region as a whole.

Therefore, this cultural assessment focuses primarily on the following:

1. Any potential cultural value of mosquitoes themselves, as the proposed activities would result in a decline of the population on Maui.
2. The cultural value of Hawaiian forest birds, which would positively benefit from a reduction in mosquitoes that carry diseases harmful to these birds.
3. Traditional or customary practices in the project area.

Due to the programmatic nature of this action, a more cursory background on the project area is provided. East Maui is a tremendously significant cultural environment, with an important political history. This history is provided to the extent appropriate to assess the proposed activities.

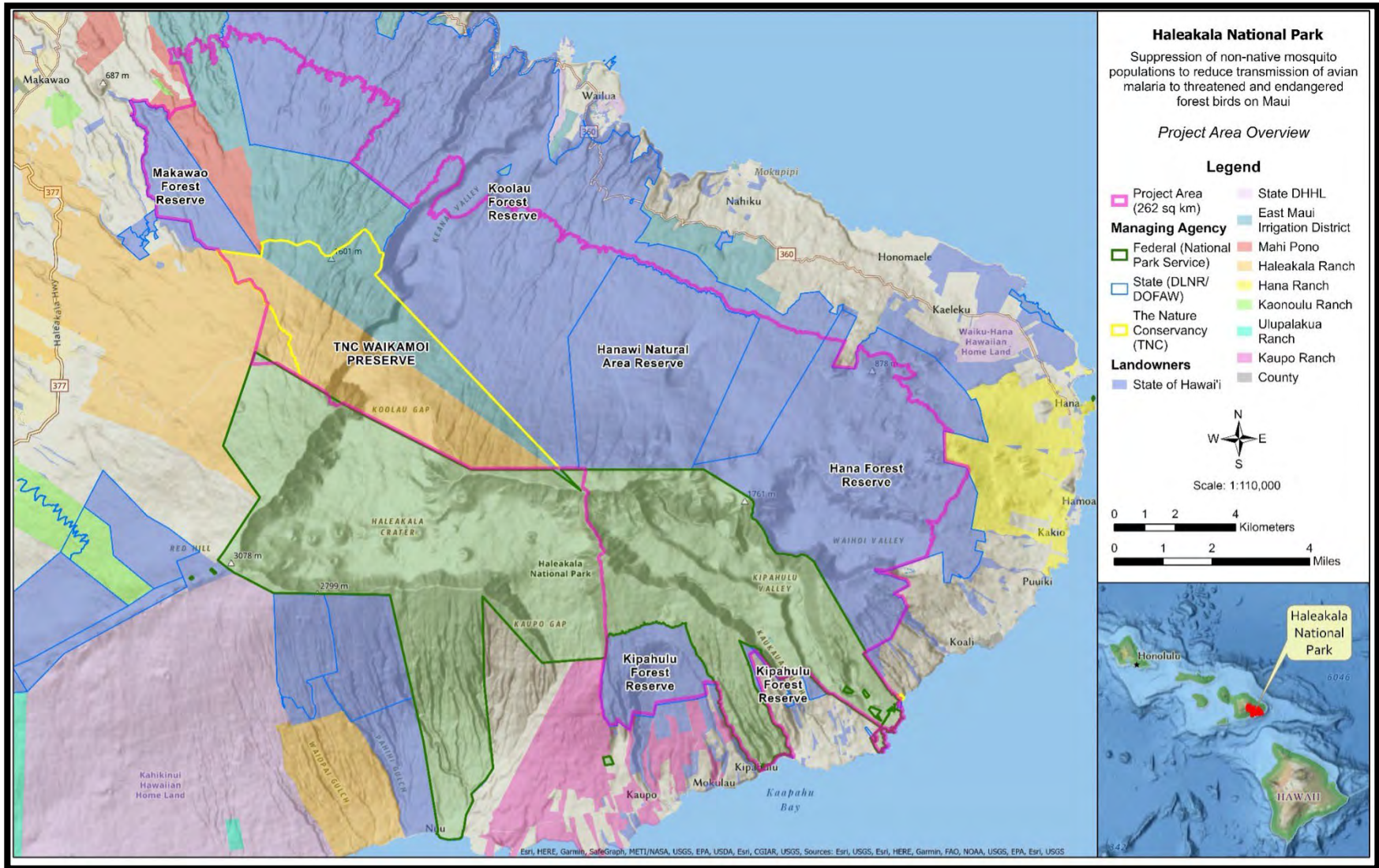


Figure 1. Project Area Overview (Tetra Tech)

1.2 Background

Articles IX and XII of the State Constitution, other state laws, and the courts of the state require government agencies to protect and preserve cultural beliefs, practices, and resources of Native Hawaiians and other ethnic groups. To assist decision makers in the protection of cultural resources, Chapter 343, HRS and Hawai'i Administrative Rules (HAR) § 11-200 rules for the environmental impact assessment process require project proponents to assess proposed actions for their potential impacts to cultural properties, practices, and beliefs.

This process was clarified by the Act 50, Session Laws of Hawai'i (SLH) 2000. Act 50 recognized the importance of protecting Native Hawaiian cultural resources and required some environmental review documents include the disclosure of the effects of a proposed action on the cultural practices of the community and state, and the Native Hawaiian community in particular. Specifically, the Environmental Council suggested the CIAs should include information relating to practices and beliefs of a particular cultural or ethnic group or groups. Such information may be obtained through public scoping, community meetings, ethnographic interviews, and oral histories.

It is important to note that while similar in their areas of studies, archaeological surveys and CIAs are concerned with distinct and different foci. Archaeological studies are primarily concerned with historic properties and tangible heritage, whereas CIAs look at cultural practices and beliefs, which can be associated with a specific location, but also often intangible in nature.

The State and its agencies have an affirmative obligation to preserve and protect Native Hawaiians' customarily and traditionally exercised rights to the extent feasible.¹ State law further recognizes that the cultural landscapes provide living and valuable cultural resources where Native Hawaiians have and continue to exercise traditional and customary practices, including hunting, fishing, gathering, and religious practices. In *Ka Pa'akai*, the Hawai'i Supreme Court provided government agencies an analytical framework to ensure the protection and preservation of traditional and customary Native Hawaiian rights while reasonably accommodating competing private development interests. This is accomplished through:

- 1) The identification of valued cultural, historical, or natural resources in the project area, including the extent to which traditional and customary Native Hawaiian rights are exercised in the project area;
- 2) The extent to which those resources—including traditional and customary Native Hawaiian rights—will be affected or impaired by the proposed action; and

¹ Article XII, Section 7 of the Hawai'i State Constitution, *Ka Pa'akai O Ka 'Āina v. Land Use Commission*, 94 Haw. 31 [2000] (*Ka Pa'akai*), Act 50 SLH 2000.

- 3) The feasible action, if any, to be taken to reasonably protect Native Hawaiian rights if they are found to exist.

The appropriate information concerning east Maui has been collected, focusing on areas near or adjacent to the project area. A thorough analysis of this project and potential impacts to cultural resources, historical resources, and archaeological sites is included in this assessment.

The CIA provides an overview of cultural and historic resources in the project area using thorough literature review, community and cultural practitioner consultation, and high-level, project-specific surveys. The CIA will focus on identifying areas in which disturbance should be avoided or minimized to reduce impacts to historic properties or culturally important features. The paramount goal is to prevent impacts through avoidance of sensitive areas and mitigating for impacts only if avoidance is not possible.

1.3 Geographic Extent

The geographic extent for impacts to cultural resources and historic properties includes the project area and localized surroundings. This CIA also reviews some of the resources primarily covered by the regulatory review. It primarily researches and reviews the range of biocultural resources identified through historical documents, traditional knowledge, information found in the Hawaiian language historical cache, and oral histories and knowledge collected from cultural practitioners and experts.

There is clear guidance from the Office of Environmental Quality and Control (OEQC), now known as the Environmental Review Project, Office of Planning and Sustainable Development (ESP), that recommends a geographic extent beyond the identified or typical boundaries of the geographic project area. The recommended area is typically the size of the traditional land area (ahupua'a) or region (moku), but this can be larger or smaller depending on what best helps to identify the resources appropriately.

The geographic extent of the CIA is based on the position that the "project area" is part of a cultural landscape or cultural landscapes that therefore it is most appropriate to set and study the proposed alternatives within that cultural context.

In this case, the project area includes most of east Maui.

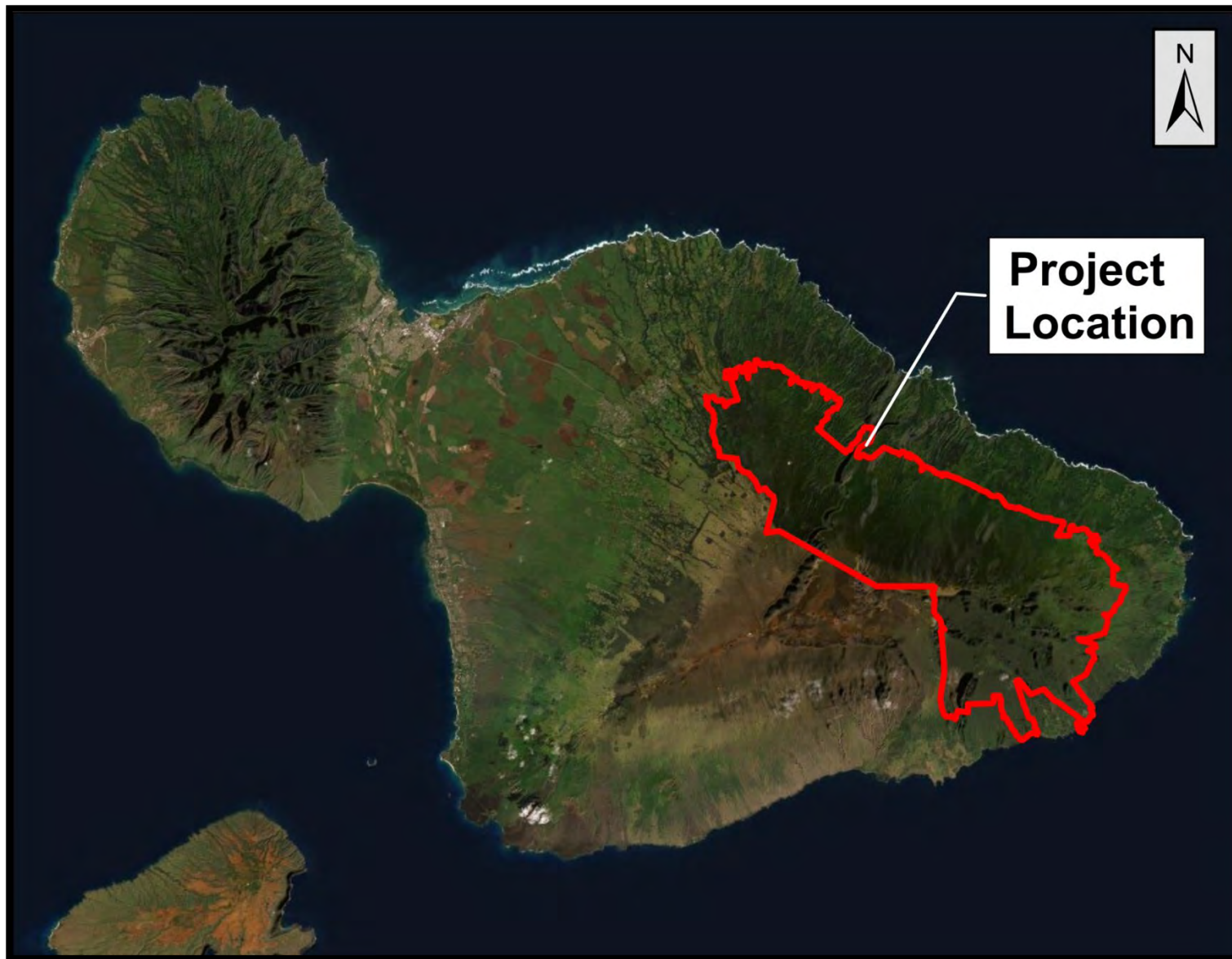


Figure 2. Project Area in relationship to the Island of Maui



Figure 3. Enlarged image of project area

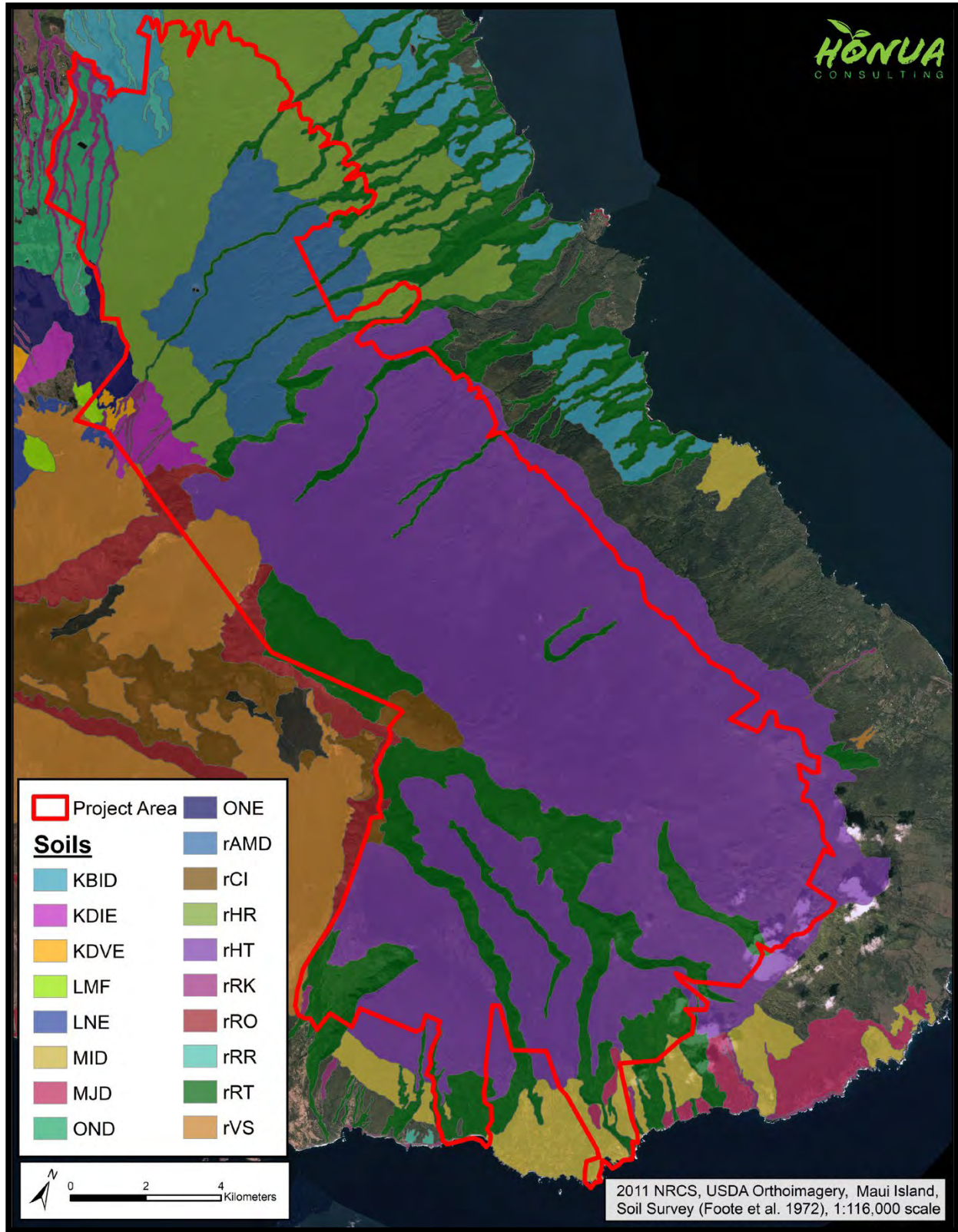


Figure 4. Soil types throughout project area

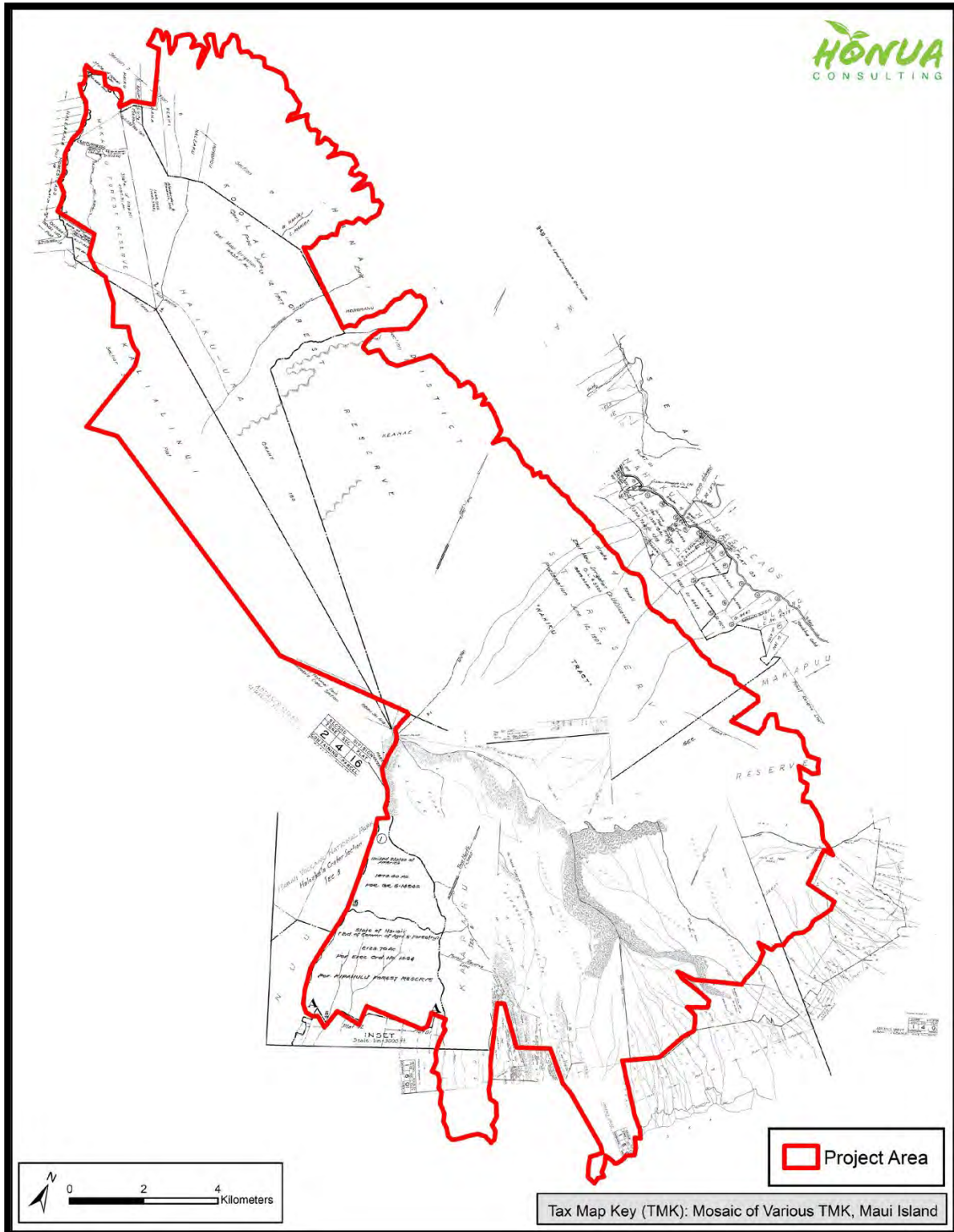


Figure 5. Project area with corresponding TMKs

1.4 Goal of Cultural Impact Assessment

This cultural impact assessment looks to partially fulfill the requirement of taking into account the Project's potential impacts on historic and cultural resources and, at a minimum, describe: a) any valued cultural, historic, or natural resources in the area in questions, including the extent to which traditional and customary native Hawaiian rights are exercised in the area, b) the extent to which those resources – including traditional and customary native Hawaiians rights – will be affected or impaired by the Project; and c) the feasible action, if any, to be taken to reasonably protect native Hawaiian rights if they are found to exist.

1.5 Regulatory Background

Articles IX and XII of the State Constitution, other state laws, and the courts of the state require government agencies to protect and preserve cultural beliefs, practices, and resources of Kānaka 'Ōiwi (Native Hawaiians) and other ethnic groups. To assist decision makers in the protection of cultural resources, Chapter 343, HRS and Hawai'i Administrative Rules (HAR) § 11-200 rules for the environmental impact assessment process require project proponents to assess proposed actions for their potential impacts to cultural properties, practices, and beliefs.

This process was clarified by the Act 50, Session Laws of Hawai'i (SLH) 2000. Act 50 recognized the importance of protecting Native Hawaiian cultural resources and required that EAs include the disclosure of the effects of a proposed action on the cultural practices of the community and state, and the Native Hawaiian community in particular. Specifically, the Environmental Council suggested the CIAs should include information relating to practices and beliefs of a particular cultural or ethnic group or groups. Such information may be obtained through public scoping, community meetings, ethnographic interviews, and oral histories.

It is important to note that while similar in their areas of studies, archaeological surveys and CIAs are concerned with distinct and different foci. Archaeological studies are primarily concerned with historic properties and tangible heritage, whereas CIAs look at cultural practices and beliefs, which can be associated with a specific location, but also often intangible in nature.

1.6 Compliance

The State and its agencies have an affirmative obligation to preserve and protect Native Hawaiians' customarily and traditionally exercised rights to the extent feasible.² State law

² Article XII, Section 7 of the Hawai'i State Constitution, *Ka Pa'akai O Ka 'Āina v. Land Use Commission*, 94 Haw. 31 [2000] (*Ka Pa'akai*), Act 50 SLH 2000.

further recognizes that the cultural landscapes provide living and valuable cultural resources where Native Hawaiians have and continue to exercise traditional and customary practices, including hunting, fishing, gathering, and religious practices. In *Ka Pa‘akai*, the Hawai‘i Supreme Court provided government agencies an analytical framework to ensure the protection and preservation of traditional and customary Native Hawaiian rights while reasonably accommodating competing private development interests. This is accomplished through:

- 4) The identification of valued cultural, historical, or natural resources in the project area, including the extent to which traditional and customary Native Hawaiian rights are exercised in the project area;
- 5) The extent to which those resources—including traditional and customary Native Hawaiian rights—will be affected or impaired by the proposed action; and
- 6) The feasible action, if any, to be taken to reasonably protect Native Hawaiian rights if they are found to exist.

While not attached to a HRS Chapter 343 action, this CIA was prepared under HRS Chapter 343 and Act 50 SLH 2000 as those are the prevailing standards and best practices for CIAs. The appropriate information concerning the ahupua‘a has been collected, focusing on areas near or adjacent to the project area. A thorough analysis of this project and potential impacts to cultural resources, historical resources, and archaeological sites is included in this assessment.

The present analyses of archival documents, oral traditions (oli or chants, mele or songs, and/or hula or dance texts), and Hawaiian language sources including books, manuscripts, and newspaper articles, are focused on identifying recorded cultural and archaeological resources present on the landscape, including: Hawaiian and non-Hawaiian place names; landscape features (ridges, gulches, cinder cones); archaeological features (kuleana parcel walls, house platforms, shrines, heiau or places of worship, etc.); culturally significant areas (viewsheds, unmodified areas where gathering practices and/or rituals were performed); and significant biocultural resources. The information gathered through research helped to focus interview questions on specific features and elements within the project area.

Interviews with lineal and cultural descendants are instrumental in procuring information about the project area’s transformation through time and changing uses. Interviews were conducted with recognized cultural experts and summaries of those interviews are included herein.

2.0 Methodology

The approach to developing the CIA is as follows:

- 1) Gather Best Information Available
 - a) Gather historic cultural information from stories and other oral histories about the affected area to provide cultural foundation for the report;
 - b) Inventory as much information as can be identified about as many known cultural, historic, and natural resources, including previous archaeological inventory surveys, CIAs, etc. that may have been completed for the possible range of areas; and
 - c) Update the information with interviews with cultural or lineal descendants or other knowledgeable cultural practitioners.
- 2) Identify Potential Impacts to Cultural Resources
- 3) Develop Reasonable Mitigation Measures to Reduce Potential Impacts
 - a) Involve the community and cultural experts in developing culturally appropriate mitigation measures; and
 - b) Develop specific Best Management Practices (BMPs), if any are required, for conducting the project in a culturally appropriate and/or sensitive manner as to mitigation and/or reduce any impacts to cultural practices and/or resources.

While numerous studies have been conducted on this area, very few have effectively utilized Hawaiian language resources and Hawaiian knowledge. This appears to have impacted modern understanding of this location, as many of the relevant documents are native testimonies given by Kanaka Hawai'i (Hawaiians) who lived on this land.

While hundreds of place names and primary source historical accounts (from both Hawaiian and English language narratives) are cited on the following pages, it is impossible to tell the whole story of these lands in any given manuscript. A range of history, spanning the generations, has been covered. Importantly, the resources herein are a means of connecting people with the history of their communities—that they are part of that history. Knowledge of place will, in turn, promote appreciation for place and encourage acts of stewardship for the valued resources that we pass on to the future.

Background research for the literature review was conducted using materials obtained from the State Historic Preservation Division (SHPD) library in Kapolei and the Honua Consulting LLC. report library. On-line materials consulted included the Ulukau Electronic Hawaiian Database (www.ulukau.com), Papakilo Database (www.papakilodatabase.com), the State Library on-line (<http://www.librarieshawaii.org/Serials/databases.html>), and Waihona 'Āina Māhele database (<http://www.waihona.com>). Hawaiian terms and place names were translated using the on-line Hawaiian dictionaries (Nā Puke Wehewehe 'Ōlelo Hawai'i)

(www.wehewehe.com), *Place Names of Hawai'i* (Pukui et al. 1974), and *Hawai'i Place Names* (Clark 2002). Historic maps were obtained from the State Archives, State of Hawai'i Land Survey Division website (<http://ags.hawaii.gov/survey/map-search/>), UH-Mānoa Maps, Aerial Photographs, and GIS (MAGIS) website (<http://guides.library.manoa.hawaii.edu/magis>). Maps were geo-referenced for this report using ArcGIS 10.3. GIS is not 100% precise and historic maps were created with inherent flaws; therefore, geo-referenced maps should be understood to have some built-in inaccuracy.

While conducting the research, primary references included, but were not limited to: land use records, including the Hawaiian L.C.A. records from the Māhele 'Āina (Land Division) of 1848; the Boundary Commission Testimonies and Survey records of the Kingdom and Territory of Hawai'i; and historical texts authored or compiled by: David Malo (1987); Samuel M. Kamakau (1964, 1991, 1992); records of the American Board of Commissioners of Foreign Missions (A.B.C.F.M.) (1820–1860); Charles Wilkes (1845); Alexander & Preston (1892–1894); Abraham Fornander (1916–1919); and many other native and foreign writers. The study also includes several native accounts from Hawaiian language newspapers (primarily compiled and translated from Hawaiian to English by K. Maly), and historical records authored by nineteenth century visitors, and residents of the region.

Historical and archival resources were located in the collections of the Hawai'i State Archives, Survey Division, Land Management Division, Survey Division, and Bureau of Conveyances; the Bishop Museum Library and Archives; the Hawaiian Historical Society and the Hawaiian Mission Children's Society Library; University of Hawai'i-Hilo Mo'okini Library; the National Archives and Records Administration (NARA), Maryland; the Library of Congress, Washington D.C.; the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration National Library, Maryland; the Smithsonian Institution Natural History and National Anthropological Archives libraries, Washington, D.C.; the Houghton Library at Harvard; the United States Geological Survey (USGS) Library, Denver; the Paniolo Preservation Society and Parker Ranch collections; private family collections; and in the collection of Kumu Pono Associates LLC. This information is generally cited in categories by chronological order of the period depicted in the narratives.

M. P. Nogelmeier (2010) discusses the adverse impacts of methodology that fails to properly research and consider Hawaiian language resources. He strongly cautions against a mono-rhetorical approach that marginalizes important native voices and evidence from consideration, specifically in the field of archaeology. For this reason, Honua Consulting consciously employs a poly-rhetorical approach, whereby all data, regardless of language, is researched and considered. To fail to access these millions of pages of information within the Hawaiian language cache could arguably be a violation of Act 50, as such an approach would fundamentally fail to gather the best information available, especially considering the

voluminous amounts of historical accounts available for native tenants in the Hawaiian language.

Hawaiian culture views natural and cultural resources as largely being one and the same: without the resources provided by nature, cultural resources could and would not be procured. From a Hawaiian perspective, all natural and cultural resources are interrelated, and all natural and cultural resources are culturally significant. Kepā Maly (2001), ethnographer and Hawaiian language scholar, points out, “In any culturally sensitive discussion on land use in Hawai‘i, one must understand that Hawaiian culture evolved in close partnership with its natural environment. Thus, Hawaiian culture does not have a clear dividing line of where culture ends and nature begins” (Maly 2001:1). As a leading researcher and scholars on Hawaiian culture, Maly, along with his wife, Onaona, have conducted numerous groundbreaking studies on cultural histories throughout Hawai‘i. A substantial part of the archival research utilized in this study was previously compiled and published by Kepā and Onaona Maly, who have granted their permission to use this important work and are identified properly as associated authors and researchers to this study.

This study also specifically looks to identify intangible resources. Tangible and intangible heritage are inextricably linked (Bouchenaki 2003). Intangible cultural resources, also identified as intangible cultural heritage (ICH), are critical to the perpetuation of cultures globally. International and human rights law professor Federico Lenzerini notes that, “At present, we are aware on a daily basis of the definitive loss—throughout the world—of language, knowledge, knowhow, customs, and ideas, leading to the progressive impoverishment of human society” (Lenzerini 2011:12). He goes on to warn that:

the rich cultural variety of humanity is progressively and dangerously tending towards uniformity. In cultural terms, uniformity means not only loss of cultural heritage—conceived as the totality of perceptible manifestations of the different human groups and communities that are exteriorized and put at the others’ disposal—but also standardization of the different peoples of the world and of their social and cultural identity into a few stereotyped ways of life, of thinking, and of perceiving the world. Diversity of cultures reflects diversity of peoples; this is particularly linked to ICH, because such a heritage represents the living expression of the idiosyncratic traits of the different communities. Preservation of cultural diversity, as emphasized by Article 1 of the UNESCO Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity, ‘is embodied in the uniqueness and plurality of the identities of the groups and societies making up humankind’. Being a ‘source of exchange, innovation and creativity’, cultural diversity is vital to humanity and is inextricably linked to the safeguarding of ICH. Mutual recognition and respect for cultural diversity—and, *a fortiori*, appropriate safeguarding of the ICH of the diverse peoples making up the world—is essential for promoting

harmony in intercultural relations, through fostering better appreciation and understanding of the differences between human communities. (Lenzarini 2011:103)

Therefore, tradition and practice, as elements of Hawaiian ICH, are essential to the protection of Hawaiian rights and the perpetuation of the Hawaiian culture.

2.1 Identifying Traditional or Customary Practices

It is within this context that traditional or customary practices are studied. The concept of traditional or customary practices can often be a challenging one for people to grasp. Traditional or customary practices can be defined as follows:



Figure 6. Diagram of elements that contribute to traditional or customary practices (Honua Consulting)

The first element is knowledge. This has been referred to as traditional ecological knowledge (TEK), Indigenous local knowledge (ILK), or ethnoscience. In the context of this study, it is the information, data, knowledge, or expertise Native Hawaiians or local communities possessed or possess about an area's environment. In a traditional context, this would have included information Hawaiians possessed in order to have the skills to utilize the area's resources for a range of purposes, including, but not limited to, travel, food, worship or habitation. This element is largely intangible.

The second element are the resources themselves. These are primarily tangible resources, either archaeological resources (i.e., habitation structures, walls, etc.) or natural resources (i.e., plants, animals, etc.). These can also be places, such as a sacred or culturally important sites or wahi pana. Sometimes these wahi pana are general locations, this does not diminish their importance or value. Nonetheless, it is important to recognize that potential eligibility as a "historic site" on the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) would require identifiable boundaries of a site.

The third element is access. The first two elements alone are not enough to allow for traditional or customary practices to take place. The practitioners must have access to the resource in order to be able to practice their traditional customs. Access does not just mean the ability to physically access a location, but it also means access to resources. For example,

if a particular plant is used for medicinal purposes, there needs to be a sufficient amount of that plant available to practitioners for us. Therefore, an action that would adversely impact the population of a particular plant with cultural properties would impact practitioners' ability to access that plant. By extension, it would adversely impact the traditional or customary practice.

Traditional or customary practices are, therefore, the combination of knowledge(s), resource(s) and access. Each of these individual elements should be researched and identified in assessing any potential practices or impacts to said practices.

2.2 Traditional Knowledge, or Ethnoscience, and the Identification of Cultural Resources

The concept of ethnoscience was first established in the 1960s and has been defined “the field of inquiry concerned with the identification of the conceptual schemata that indigenous peoples use to organize their experience of the environment” (Roth 2019). Ethnoscience includes a wide range of subfields, includes, but is not limited to, ethnoecology, ethnobotany, ethnozoology, ethnoclimatology, ethnomedicine and ethnopedology. All of these fields are important to properly identify traditional knowledge within a certain area.

Traditional Native Hawaiian practitioners were scientists and expert natural resource managers by necessity. Without modern technological conveniences to rely on, Hawaiians developed and maintained prosperous and symbiotic relationships with their natural environment for thousands of years. Their environments were their families, their homes, and their laboratories. They knew the names of every wind and every rain. The elements taught and inspired. The ability of Indigenous people to combine spirituality and science led to the formation of unique land-based methodologies that spurred unsurpassed innovation. Therefore, identifying significant places requires a baseline understanding of what made places significant for Hawaiians.

Hawaiians were both settlers and explorers. In *Plants in Hawaiian Culture*, B. Krauss explains: “Exploration of the forests revealed trees, the timber of which was valuable for building houses and making canoes. The forests also yielded plants that could be used for making and dying tapa, for medicine, and for a variety of other artifacts” (Krauss 1993). Analysis of native plants and resource management practices reveals the depth to which Hawaiians excelled in their environmental science practices:

[Hawaiians] demonstrated great ability in systematic differentiation, identification, and naming of the plants they cultivated and gathered for use. Their knowledge of the gross morphology of plants, their habits of growth, and the requirements for greatest yields is not excelled by expert agriculturists of more complicated cultures. They worked out the procedures of cultivation for every locality, for all altitudes, for different

weather conditions and exposures, and for soils of all types. In their close observations of the plants they grew, they noted and selected mutants (spores) and natural hybrids, and so created varieties of the plants they already had. Thus over the years after their arrival in the Islands, the Hawaiians added hundreds of named varieties of taro, sweet potatoes, sugarcane, and other cultivated plants to those they had brought with them from the central Pacific (Krauss 1993).

Thus, Native Hawaiians reinforced the biodiversity that continues to exist in Hawai'i today through their customary traditional natural resource management practices.

The present analyses of archival documents, oral traditions (oli or chants, mele or songs, and/or hula dances and ha'i mo'olelo or storytelling performances), and Hawaiian language sources including books, manuscripts, and newspaper articles, are focused on identifying recorded cultural resources present on the landscape, including: Hawaiian and non-Hawaiian place names; landscape features (ridges, gulches, cinder cones); archaeological features (kuleana parcel walls, house platforms, shrines, heiau [places of worship], etc.); culturally significant areas (viewsheds, unmodified areas where gathering practices and/or rituals were performed); and significant biological, physiological, or natural resources. This research also looks to document the wide range of Hawaiian science that existed within the geographic extent.

2.3 Mo'olelo 'Āina: Native Traditions of the Land

Among the most significant sources of native mo'olelo are the Hawaiian language newspapers which were printed between 1838 and 1948, and the early writings of foreign visitors and residents. Most of the accounts that were submitted to the papers were penned by native residents of areas being described and noted native historians. Over the last 30 years, Kepā Maly has reviewed and compiled an extensive index of articles published in the Hawaiian language newspapers, with particular emphasis on those narratives pertaining to lands, customs, and traditions. Many traditions naming places around Hawai'i are found in these early writings. Many of these accounts describe native practices, the nature of land use at specific locations, and native mo'olelo (history, narrative, story). Thus, we are given a means of understanding how people related to their environment and sustained themselves on the land.

2.4 Historic Maps

There are also numerous, informative historic maps for the region. Surveyors of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries were skilled in traversing land areas and capturing important features and resources throughout Hawai'i's rich islands. Historic maps were carefully studied, and the features detailed therein were aggregated and categorized to help identify

specific places, names, features, and resources throughout the study area. From these, among other documents, new maps were created that more thoroughly capture the range of resources in the area.

2.5 Ethnographic Methodology

Information from lineal and cultural descendants is instrumental in procuring information about the project area's transformation over time and its changing uses. The present analyses of archival documents, oral traditions (including oli or chants, mele or songs), and/or hula dance), and Hawaiian language sources including books, manuscripts, and newspaper articles, are focused on identifying recorded cultural and archaeological resources present on the landscape, including: Hawaiian and non-Hawaiian place names; landscape features (ridges, gulches, cinder cones); archaeological features (kuleana parcel walls, house platforms, shrines, heiau or places of worship, etc.); culturally significant areas (viewsheds, unmodified areas where gathering practices and/or rituals were performed); and significant biocultural resources. The information gathered through research helped to focus interview questions on specific features and elements within the project area.

Information from lineal and cultural descendants are instrumental in procuring information about the project area's transformation through time and changing uses. A notice was placed in the *Ka Wai Ola*, published by the Office of Hawaiian Affairs (Figure 3). Additionally, letters were sent to area organizations inviting their participation. All the correspondence provided through these processes are included in the appendices.

Cultural Impact Assessment Notice: East Maui

Honua Consulting, LLC, on behalf of Tetra Tech, is conducting a Cultural Impact Assessment (CIA) for the National Park Service on 262-square-kilometers in East Maui, Maui Island, Various TMKs. The project is for the suppression of non-native mosquito populations to reduce transmission of Avian Malaria to threatened and endangered forest birds on Maui. Potential areas where the project would occur include Western Waikamoi, Hanawī, and Kīpahulu (priority areas); and Western Waikamoi, and Manawainui (second tier priority areas). The CIA team is seeking consultation with practitioners, Native Hawaiian Organizations, stakeholders, and other individuals. Specifically, consultation is sought on a) identification of an appropriate geographic extent of study, b) historic or existing cultural resources that may be impacted by the proposed project, c) historic or existing traditional practices and/or beliefs that may be impacted by the proposed project, and d) identification of individuals or organizations that should be sought out for consultation on the CIA. Individuals or organizations interested in participating can contact the CIA team at community@honuaconsulting.com or (808) 392-1617.

Figure 7. Copy of the public notice placed in the *Ka Wai Ola* in November 2021

3. Historic Background

The purpose of this section is to characterize the Hawaiian cultural landscape within which the project area is located; this includes a description of east Maui's relevant and representative inoa 'āina (place names), mo'olelo (oral-historical accounts), wahi pana (legendary places), and other natural and cultural resources. A general (ahupua'a-wide) summary is followed by a project-area specific discussion.

3.1 Traditional Period

Maui has a unique geography; it is considered to be two islands, joined together by an isthmus. Land divisions on Maui are unlike those on other islands (Sterling 1998). Ancient names for Maui include Ihipapalaumaewa and Kulua (Sterling 1998: 2).

The forested regions of Maui Hikina (East Maui) are made up of several forest reserves and conservation areas including the Makawao Forest Reserve (located in the district of Hāmākualoa), the Ko'olau Forest Reserve, the Waikamoi Preserve (located in the district of Hāmākuapoko), the Hanawī Natural Area Reserve, the Hāna Forest Reserve, the Kīpahulu Valley Biological Preserve, and the Kīpahulu Forest Reserve. These upland regions are situated in the wao akua, distant mountain regions surrounded by wilderness and believed to be inhabited by the gods. They are also situated on the eastern slopes of Haleakalā. These lands form the rich watershed forests of Maui Hikina, collecting rains (ua) and mists ('ohu) from the ko'olau or windward weather systems.

Abundant rains from rich forests like those in the upper regions of Maui Hikina form hundreds of streams (kahawai) that form large valleys and gulches. These well-watered valleys in Maui Hikina have been home to many endemic life forms, including native birds, and have sustained Native Hawaiian communities for centuries. The wao akua supplies vital natural resources for plant and wildlife. Kepā Maly describes the significance of natural resources to Native Hawaiians:

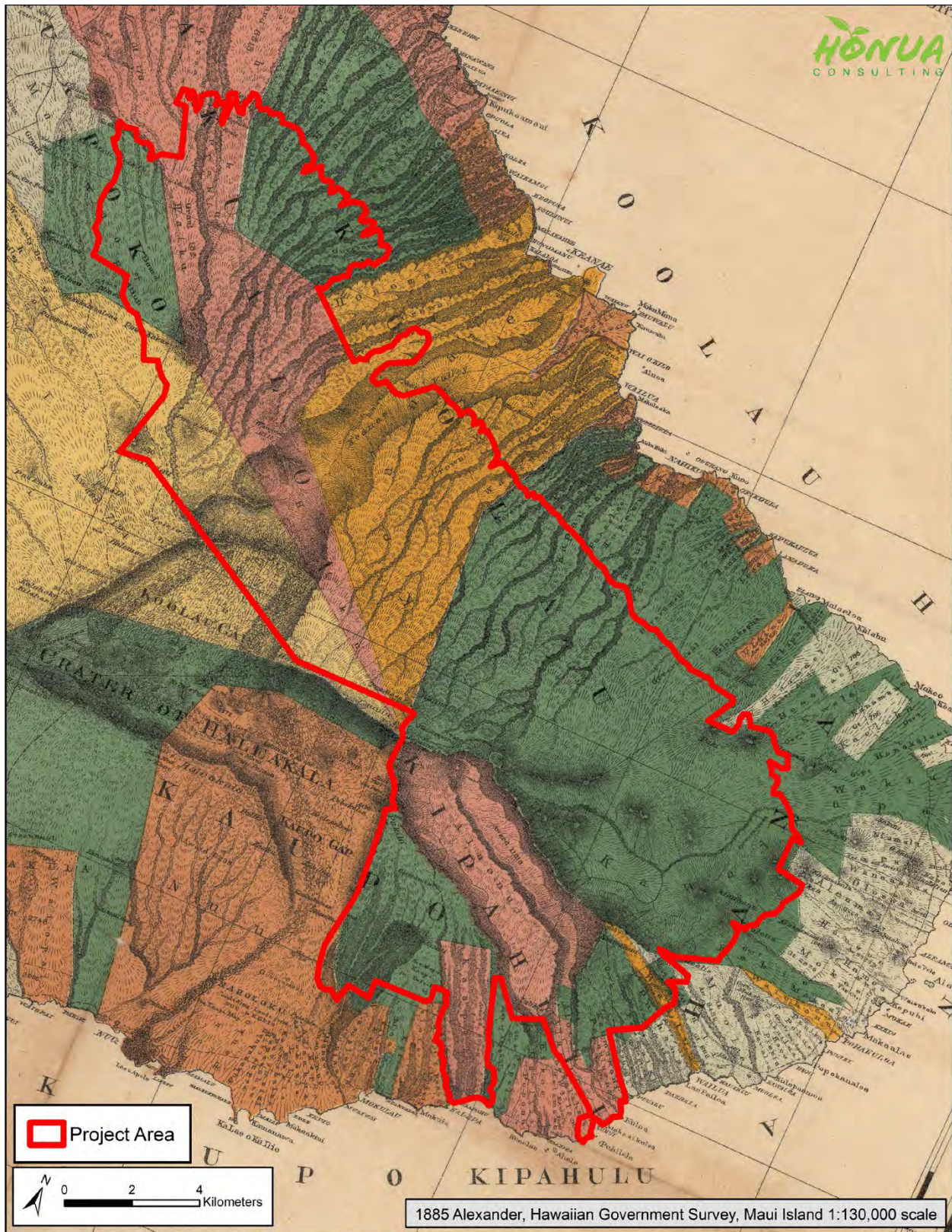
We find in native traditions and beliefs, that Hawaiians shared spiritual and familial relationships with the natural resources around them. Each aspect of nature from the stars in the heavens, to the winds, clouds, rains, growth of the forests and life therein, and everything on the land and in the ocean was believed to be alive. Indeed, every form of nature in ancient Hawai'i was believed to be a body-form of some god or lesser deity. In the Hawaiian mind, care for each aspect of nature, the kino lau (myriad body-forms) of the elder life forms, was a way of life. This concept is still expressed by Hawaiian kūpuna (elders) through the present day, and passed on in many native families. Also, in this cultural context, anything which damages the native nature of the land, forests, ocean, and kino lau therein, damages the integrity of the whole. Thus caring for, and protecting the land and ocean resources, is a way of life. Furthermore,

in the traditional context above referenced, we find that the mountain landscape, its' native species, and the intangible components therein, are a part of a sacred Hawaiian landscape. Thus, the natural landscape itself is a highly valued cultural property. Its' protection, and the continued exercise of traditional and customary practices, in a traditional and customary manner, are mandated by native custom, and State and Federal Laws (as those establishing the Maui Hikina Forest and Natural Area Reserves, and the Waikamoi Preserve). Maly, 2006: 3.

In the early 1900s, the Maui Hikina forest and watershed lands were determined to be some of the most significant in Hawai'i and in need of protection. Between 1907 and 1986 several different Forest Reserves, including the Haleakalā National Park, were established to protect the fragile ecosystem and the natural and cultural resources in the vicinity. These forested regions are home to several species of endangered or threatened native birds. Many of Hawai'i's native honeycreepers are restricted to East Maui as their only existing habitat.

Hawaiian mo'okū'auhau (genealogical accounts) reveal that the Hawaiian islands were born from akua (gods) who also birthed the first Hawaiian people. One mo'okū'auhau records that Wākea (the expanse of the sky– father) and Papahānaumoku (Papa—Earth-mother who gave birth to the islands), also called Haumeanuihānauwāwā (Great Haumea—Woman-earth born time and time again), and various akua gave birth to the islands. Maui, the second largest of the islands, was the second-born of these island-children. These same akua were also the parents of Hāloanakalaukapalili (long stalk quaking and trembling leaf). This Hāloa was born as a “shapeless mass” and buried outside the door of his parents' house (cf. Pukui and Elbert, 1981:382), and from his grave grew the very first kalo (taro) plant. When the next child was born to these akua, he was also named Hāloa (the long stalk or breath of life), and he is considered to be the progenitor of the Hawaiian race (cf. David Malo 1951:3, 242-243; Beckwith 1970; Pukui and Korn 1973). It was in this context of kinship that Native Hawaiians interacted with their environment and it is the basis of the Hawaiian system of land use.

There are several mo'olelo (traditional accounts, stories, histories) that discuss the uplands and forested regions of Maui Hikina. Ethnographer and researcher, Kepā Maly, has gathered and translated many traditions from Hawaiian language resources concerning Maui Hikina.



3.1.1 He Mo'olelo no Kamapua'a (1861)

“He Moolelo no Kamapuaa” (A Tradition of Kamapua'a) predates the twelfth century. This mo'olelo was submitted to the Hawaiian language newspress, *Ka Hae Hawaii*, in 1861 by G.W. Kahiolo who wrote from Kalihi, O'ahu. Kamapua'a is a Hawaiian kupua (demigod) who could transform into a wide range of forms including a pig and a human form. Kamapua'a is associated with agriculture, rain, and the god Lono. The issue published on August 7, 1861 (Helu 7) includes the first written account of Kamapua'a's visit to Maui:

...Kamapua'a's advances towards Pele, having been thwarted, he departed from Kilauea, following Kapo-ma'ilele (Pele's sister who had taken her genitals off and thrown them across the land to distract Kamapua'a – thus the name, Kapo-of-the-flyinggenitals). It was in this way that Kapo-ma'ilele saved Pele from Kamapua'a's advances. Traveling across the island of Hawai'i, and eating mai'a (bananas), Kamapua'a met with Kapo-ma'ilele at Kahuā in Kohala. Kapo-ma'ilele then flew across the sea, and returned to her home on Maui, at Wailua-iki. From the heights of Kapaliiuka, Kamapua'a looked across the ocean, and decided to follow her. He crossed the channel and landed at Hāmoa, Hāna... He then traveled to Kawaikau which is near the boundary between Ko'olau and Hāna. From there, he traveled to Kaliae, and then arrived at Wailua-iki, where he found the house of Kapo-ma'ilele. Looking shoreward, he saw Pueonui, the husband of Kapo, fishing. He then chanted:

Kanikani hia Hikapoloa—e,
Hikapōloa cries out loudly.
 Ka la o Wailua-iki.
The day is at Wailua-iki.
 Ka lai malino a Kapo i noho ai,
Kapo dwells in the calm,
 A ka wahine a Pueonui,
The woman of Pueonui,
 I noho nanea i ka lai a ke Koolau, aloha.
Dwelling with pleasure, in the peace of Ko'olau—aloha.

Kamapua'a then went to the kapa making house (hale akuku), and asked Kapo-ma'ilele if they two might sleep together. She agreed, and they did. Now a man saw this and went to tell Pueonui that his wife was sleeping with another man. Pueonui returned to the house in anger, and he struck Kamapua'a on the back with a paddle. Kapo got angry, and he struck Kamapua'a again. Kapo told him “stop, don't do that, for he is not a man, but is Kamapua'a.” Hearing this, he was afraid, for he had heard that he was a god and man of power. Kamapua'a then went to Hāmākua-loa,

Hāmākua-poko, and on to Wailuku... [Kahiolo in Ka Hae Hawaii, August 7, 1861. Maly, translator]

3.1.1 Inoa ‘Āina

Inoa ‘Āina or place names are critical in understanding how Hawaiians valued and understood their surrounding environment. A selection of place names from the project area are provided below.

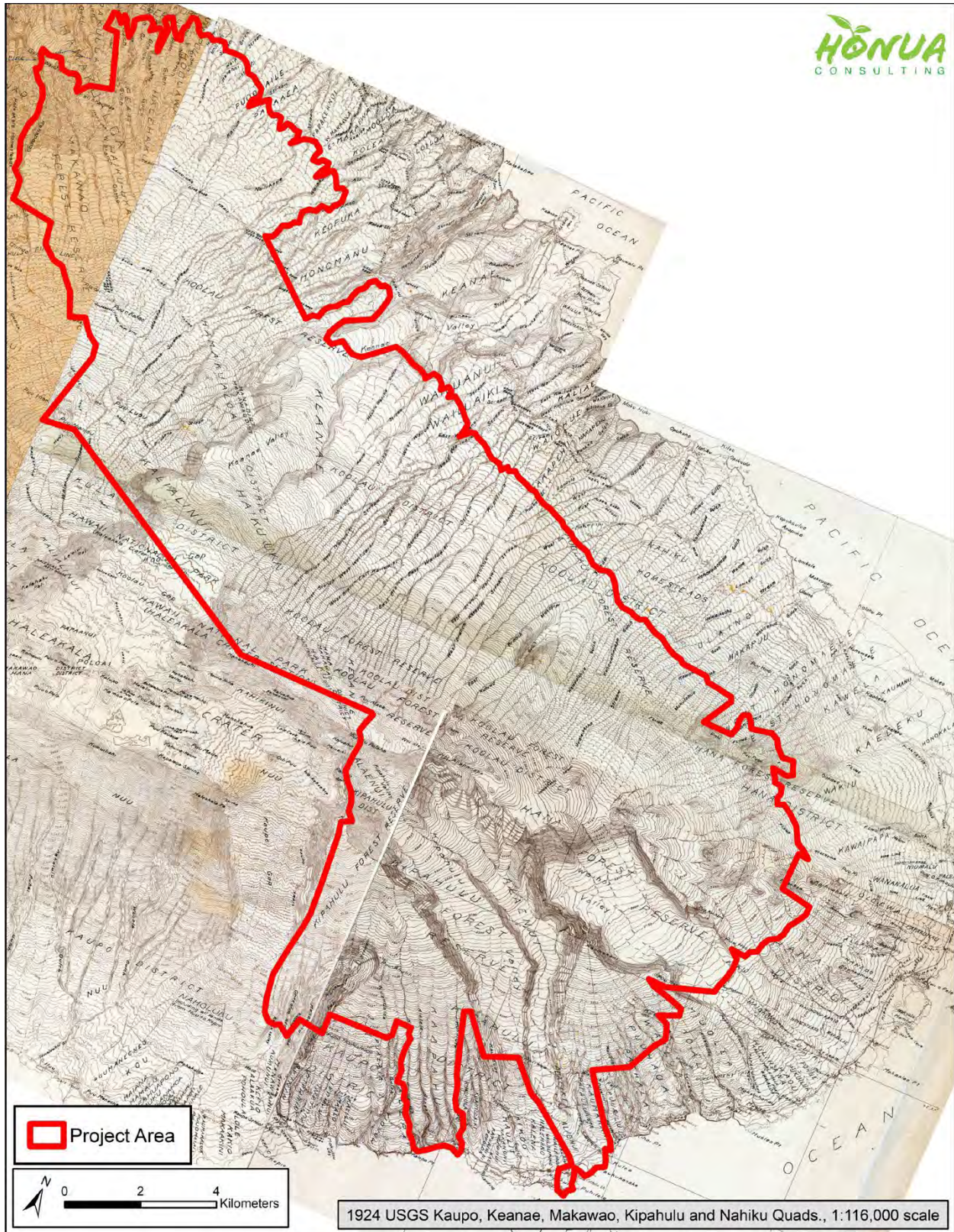
Table 1. Selected inoa ‘āina from the project area.

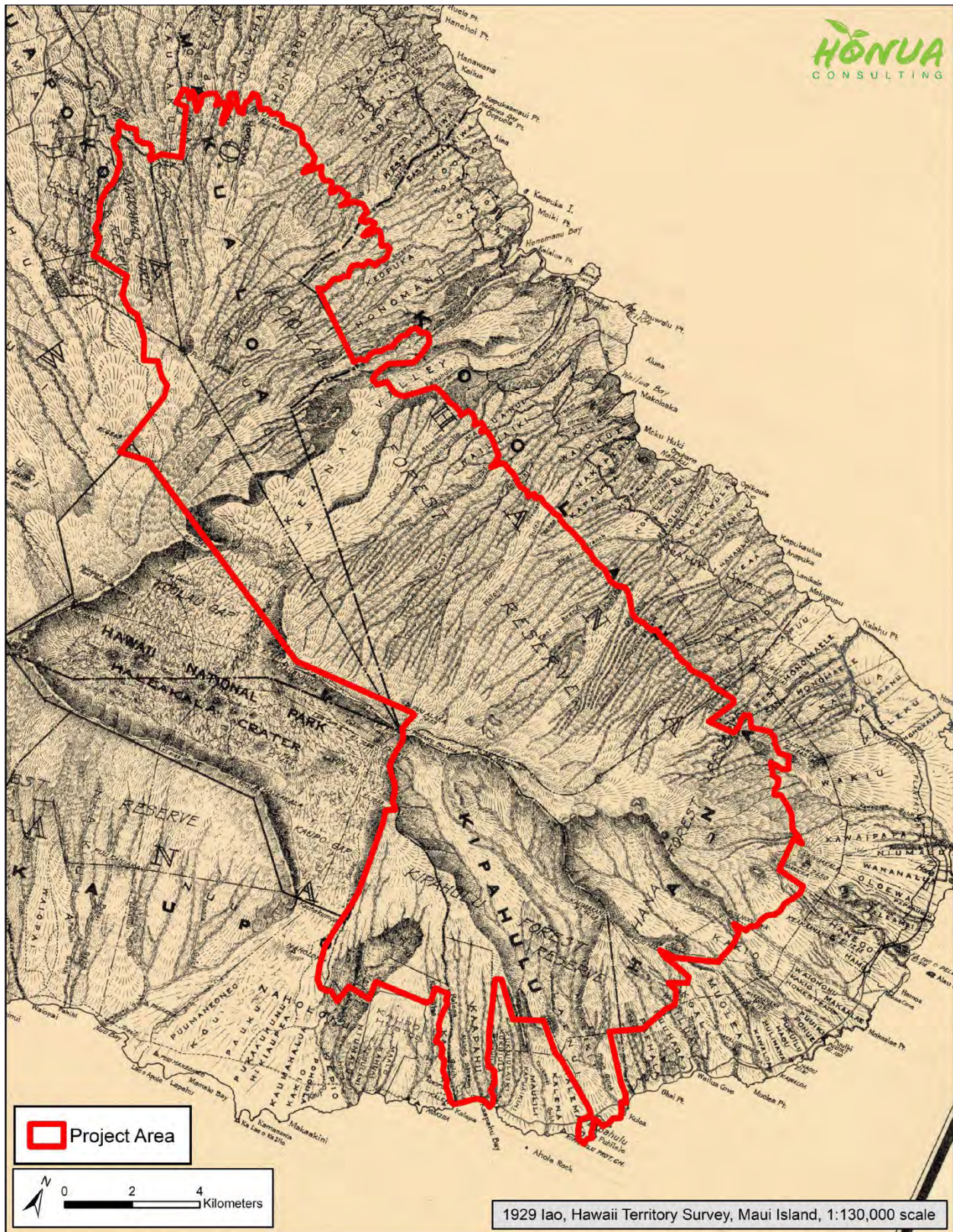
Inoa	Description
Makawao	Derivision of its name. The trade wind which blows from the ocean across the northwestern slope of Haleakala is highly charged with vapor, which is cooled by the cool mountain air, and falls in abundant rains over the region of Makawao. Along the western side of the mountain, about half way to the summit, lay a long line of cumulo stratus clouds, and between this and the nimbus there is but little space. The former lay along the side of the mountain, apparantly immovable, while the latter would advance and recede, now coming very near and coquettishly scattering its shining rain drops beneath the very head of the immovable cumulus, and now retreating as though afraid of its more dignified companion. This the feature of the clouds which gave the place its name, Makawao, “makao” to be afraid, “wao” a cloud.
East Makaiwa	Eleio was universally noted for his great speed who was also known as a messenger for the great king of Maui, called Kaka‘aleneo. When Kaka‘aleneo was ready for his morning meal, he would order Eleio to go to Hana and bring him some awa. On one of his trips to Hana, he met a ghost named, Ka‘ahuali‘i in the forest of O‘opuloa. The ghost asked Eleio to give him some of the awa, and Eleio insulted the ghost by telling him to take the hairs of his body and use it for his awa.

Inoa	Description
Ke‘anae	In times of great famine, ti roots were gathered from the forest in large quantities and steamed in great ovens, then grated, mashed, and mixed with water, and drunk. It is said that there was a famous oven of this sort east of Honolulu at Kaimuki “the tea oven”. At Ke‘anae, there was likewise a great <i>imu ki</i> , a pit in the lava to make this famous drink.
Kawaipapa	After the war of Kapalipio, Kamehameha-nui remained ruling chief of Maui. Later in life, He was taken ill at Kawaipapa on a journey about the island, and at Nenewepua in Hana, he ceded his lands and the ruling power to Kahekili who became the ruler of of Maui. Reaching Hamakualoa, Kamehameha-nui died and was laid to rest at Pihana.
Kukui‘ula	The stream where the rugged ridge and valley trail to Kaupo begins, waters several small groups of terraces which are still in use.
Ka‘āpahu	About 1786 with Kahekili on O‘ahu, Kamehameha decided to try and take the districts of Hana and Kīpahulu and sent his younger brother Kalanimalokuloku-i-Kapo‘ikalani who accomplished this mission. As soon as Kalanikupule received tidings of this invasion, he immediately send Kamohomoho with what forces he could muster to drive the invaders out of Maui. The armies met on the Kīpahulu side of the Lelekea gulch, and the battle waged with great fierceness. The Hawai‘i troops were driven back as ar as Maulili, in Kīpahulu, where they were joined by a reinforcement under Kahanaumaikai and the battle continued. But victory rested with the Maui troops, and what were not killed of the Hawaii expedition fled back to Kohala.

3.2 Historic Period

This section describes general land-use patterns and change in East Maui in the historic period, that is, following the disintegration of the traditional kapu system (circa 1820); some comments on how the project area, in particular, was affected by these changes; and historic maps and aerials that illustrate some of these temporal changes.





3.2.1 Kahekili and Kalani'ōpu'u

In 1776 Kalani'ōpu'u (king of Hawai'i) invaded Maui, and met the warriors of Kahekili in battle on the plain of Kama'oma'o. In 1778, Kalani'ōpu'u invaded the kingdom of Kahekili again, attacking Kaupō, Kaho'olawe, and Lāhainā. During these battles the young Kamehameha exhibited his skill on the battlefield as well. Maui's forces eventually drove Kalani'ōpu'u's army from Maui, and they took Lāna'i by force. The people and resources of Lāna'i were abused and overtaxed, and a famine took place on the island. Kalani'ōpu'u then set sail to Ko'olau, Maui, and Kamakau described the events in the following narratives:

Ka-lani-'opu'u decided to go on to Ko'olau, Maui, where food was abundant. He went to Ka'anapali and fed his soldiers upon the taro of Honokahua... At Hamakualoa Ka-lani-'opu'u landed and engaged in battle, but Ka-hekili hastened to the aid of his men, and they put up such a fierce fight that Ka-lani-'opu'u fled to his canoes. Landing at Ko'olau he slew the common people and maltreated the captives by urinating into their eyes. Descendants of people so treated are alive today. From Hana, Mahi-hele-lima, commander of the fortress Ka'uiki, joined forces with Ka-lani-'opu'u, and for six months the fighting continued. During this campaign, carried on for half a year, from 1778 to 1779, with fighting at Kaupo, Lahaina, Lanai, Hamakualoa, and Ko'olau, Kamehameha, as well as his master in warfare, Ke-ku-hau-pi'o, distinguished himself for skill and bravery in war... [Kamakau 1961:91]

Kamakau also recorded that while the battles were occurring on Maui Captain James Cook and his ships sailed along the coast of Maui Hikina. In Kamakau's version of the arrival, readers learn that Cook anchored near Ha'aluea Rock.

While Ka-lani-'opu'u was in Wailua in Ko'olau, Maui, on the evening of November 19, 1778, Captain Cook's ship was sighted northeast of Mokuho'oniki with the prow turned a little to the southeast. It was seen at Kahakuloa, and the news spread over the island, then at Hamakua, and at evening it was seen in Ko'olau. The night passed, and the next day the ship was anchored at Ha'aluea just below Wailua. When they saw that its appearance exactly fitted the description given by Moho, there was no end of excitement among the people over the strange object. "The tower of Lono! Lono the god of our fathers!" they exclaimed, redoubling their cries at the thought that this was their god Lono who had gone to Kahiki. The men went out in such numbers to visit the ship that it was impossible for all to get on board.

When the canoes returned to shore, Kala'i-mamahu' persuaded Kamehameha and one other to remain on board, and that night the ship sailed away taking Kamehameha and his companions and by morning it had disappeared. Ka-lani-'opu'u thought that

Kamehameha must have gone away to Kahiki. He was displeased and ordered Ke-pa'alani to bring them all back. Ke-pa'a-lani took six paddlers and a large single canoe supplied with food and water. Puhie declared that within two days and two nights they would sight the ship. Maui disappeared, and Mauna Kea rose before them out of the waves. Kamehameha, looking out, saw a white object on the wave and said to Kala'imamahu', "Is that a canoe or only a wave?" "Where?" "Yonder." As they watched it became clearly a canoe, and Kamehameha guessed that it was Ke-pa'a-lani come to seek them. But Captain Cook had no intention of carrying them away; he only wanted them to guide him to a good harbor on Hawaii. Captain Cook may have sailed by a map made by the Spaniards, for how else could he have found the proper harbors at Waimea, Mahukona, and Kealakekua? As for Ke-pa'a-lani he was relieved, for he had already sailed two [page 97] days and nights without sighting the ship. Kamehameha pointed out the canoe to Captain Cook and then pointed toward Maui. Cook would not consent; he pointed to the ship and then to Hawaii. Again Kamehameha pointed to Maui, and the ship turned about and reached Wailua in a single night... [Kamakau 1961:98]

3.2.2 He Mo'olelo Ka'ao Hawai'i no Lauka'ie'ie

"He Moololo Kaa Hawaii no Laukaieie..." (A Hawaiian Tradition of Lauka'ie'ie) was published in *Nupepa Ka Oiaio* between January 5th 1894 to September 13th 1895. The mo'olelo was submitted to the paper by Moses Manu. The following narratives (translated by Maly), have been excerpted from the mo'olelo, and include an overview of the tradition and the travels of Mekanikeoe, one of the main figures in the mo'olelo. During his travels, Mekanikeoe sought out caves, and tunnels that served as underground trails, covering some of the important places and resources in the Ko'olau-Hāmākua region. Maly summarizes:

Later in the account, Mekanikeoe returned to Maui, and traveled round the island. On his journey, he visited various places at Kahikinui, Kaupō, Kīpahulu, Hāna, Ko'olau and Hāmākua. Having traveled through Hāna, Mekanikeoe:

[November 16, 1894]

...looked to the uplands and saw many places where kalo was growing. The interesting thing about the kalo at this place was that it appeared to be flying along the edges of the cliffs at Hanawī. Desiring to understand how the kalo could grow along the cliffs in this manner, Mekanikeoe climbed up to one of the places where these kalo 'e'epa (mysterious formed taro) was growing. It was a large place where the water flowed, and in the distance, he saw a man carrying a single large kalo.

Makanikeoe then heard a voice calling out, and saw one of the small kalo plants growing along the side of the cliff talking, just as if it were a man. It called out to the large kalo:

Make no 'oe e kalo nui – Ola no au o kalo iki.”
(Say there large taro, you are to die –and I, the little taro, will live.)

Makanikeoe chuckled to himself, hearing the words of the little kalo, and he understood the surprising nature of the kalo at this place. These places where the kalo grows on the cliffs may still be seen to this day.

After seeing this kalo that speaks like a man, Makanikeoe then went to the top of the mountain ridge, where he could see the cliff of Lelekea (Kīpahulu) below. He then went down to Kahaleikalalea, where he turned his gaze to the calm sea, and the pond of Waihī, Kīpahulu... [Maly, translator]

3.3 Mosquitoes in Hawai'i

There is no evidence that mosquitos have any cultural significance. They are not native to the Hawaiian Islands, and since their introduction by foreigners, they have proved to be a devastating menace to the population and ecosystem in Hawai'i.

According to the U.S. National Library of Medicine, mosquitoes first arrived in Hawaii in 1826, when “European and American ships carry the first mosquitoes to Hawaii, where there are no blood-sucking insects. Although these mosquitoes cannot transmit malaria to humans, they carry avian malaria, which decimates birds native to the Hawaiian Islands. Over the next 150 years, four more mosquito species are introduced” (2021). It also believed that the first introduction of mosquitoes took place on Maui, in Lahaina, when a foreign vessel brought the species into Lahaina Harbor and they spread from there.

Eventually, four more species of mosquitoes would be introduced to the islands, likely again from foreign contact in the islands. They were quickly identified as a serious health concern. There would be various efforts to eradicate, or at least control, mosquitoes in Hawai'i. Even the effort to use biocontrol to eradicate mosquitoes was not a new concept in Hawai'i. The first biocontrol efforts were started in the early 1900s, nearly 120 years ago.

Mosquitoes have proven most devastating to native birds, likely contributing to the extinction of many species. The following historic newspaper accounts document previous eradication efforts throughout the Hawaiian Islands.



Figure 8. Article from the Honolulu Advertiser (1904) covering efforts to eradicate the mosquito in Hawai'i. The article appeared on the front page of the newspaper and one a subsequent page.

THE HAWAIIAN STAR, WEDNESDAY, NOVEMBER 11, 1903. FIVE.

THE NEWLY DISCOVERED MOSQUITO DESTROYER

IT IS A HAIR-LIKE WORM WHICH IN ONE STAGE OF ITS EXISTENCE SEEKS THE LARVAE OF MOSQUITOES AND ENTERS THE ABDOMINAL CAVITY CAUSING THE DEATH OF ITS HOST.

René Bach contributes the following to the Examiner:

The official announcement that Nature's own mosquito destroyer has at last been found, may, perhaps, be ranked as the greatest single achievement of the United States Government scientists. It is a little worm—the special enemy of the dreaded winged bloodsucker—and evidently provided by nature for the express purpose of keeping down its numbers. So fatal in its attack that in the opinion of science it has only to be properly encouraged by simple and easy means in order to wipe out the winged scourge.

Thus far everything along the line of experiment has turned out satisfactorily where all conditions have been favorable for the breeding of Agamomeris—the mosquito destroyer. But there is much more for the Government scientists to do and they are busily pursuing their study of the little parasite.

The well-known rule of nature that every creature has its natural enemy is assumed to apply to the little Agamomeris. The fact that in some seasons and in some ponds there are varying quantities of the little worm indicates that their abundance is dependent upon some circumstances of season, or weather, or temperature, or food, or the abundance or lack of whatever may be found to be nature's enemy of the worm. The labors of the scientists are now directed toward researches and inquiries on all these points.

Just as it has been discovered that this parasite is the mortal enemy of the mosquito the government experts expect at any moment to find some minute creature which is the natural and fatal enemy of the mosquito destroyer. The moment this creature is identified the experts must start in and study him with minutest care to find out how he can be suppressed. Here again, as in the case of the mosquito, his enemy must be found and encouraged to breed as abundantly as possible. This, then, logically entails the searching for the enemy of the enemy of the enemy of the mosquito, with a view to suppressing him—and so on ad infinitum," in the words of the poet.

It is easy to see that the work of the Government Bureau by no means ends with the discovery of Agamomeris. It is but the starting point of a most interesting and minute series of studies and examinations of low life in the mud bottoms and waters of our ponds. Not must it be expected that instantly with the announcement that the enemy of the mosquito has been identified will come the sudden end of the mosquito pest. It was years after the scientists made the acquaintance of the curious little fungus which turned out to be the deadly enemy of the grasshopper before the Government Bureau of Entomology found itself able to actually ship thousands of bottles of these little germs to the farmers throughout the West to be sprinkled about in the grasshopper infested territories. But when the crusade once began the end of the grasshopper had come forever.

The mosquito problem has assumed a vastly increased importance within the last half dozen years, owing to the discovery that mosquitoes are the sole agents by which malaria and yellow fever are conveyed. On this account investigators in various parts of the world have been making most minute and elaborate microscopic studies of the inside works of these insects, and, incidentally to their researches, they have come across several parasitic animals that live within the body of the stinging gnat—most of them tiny worms, quite harmless to human beings.

One of these worms, discovered by Dr. Charles Wardell Stiles, is the mosquito destroyer referred to. It spends part of its life, while it is as yet not fully developed, in the abdominal cavity of the insect, and while thus sheltered, works such havoc with the physical economy of its unwitting host that the latter soon becomes sick and eventually dies. Here, then, as it would appear, is found the most important natural enemy of the mosquito. As such it is necessarily to be regarded as a friend to mankind, and too much cannot be done in the way of cultivating it.

This, in fact, is precisely what is going to be done. The little worm is to be taken in hand and propagated, with a view to utilizing its energies for the wholesale destruction of mosquitoes. It will be a case of using a plague to fight a plague, somewhat in the same manner as has been done already by the Government in Colorado and other parts of the West, where chinchbugs and grasshoppers have been inoculated with fungous diseases on a wide scale. However, in this instance the agency employed is to be not a plant (all fungi are plants), but an animal—humble, it is true, but, if scientific testimony has any value, a willing and most efficient worker in a great cause.

Dr. Stiles, it should be explained, is a helminthologist—which means that the study of worms is an important part of his business. He is employed by the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service to look up all sorts of animal parasites and find out about their habits. So it came right in his way to make the remarkable discovery here described, and to bestow the long name of Agamomeris upon the mosquito destroyer—a thread-like worm (so he describes it), half an inch long, which looks more like a bit of a horsehair than anything else, and which appears to depend upon the mosquito for a home during the larval period of its existence, though its breeding is accomplished outside, in the mud of the bottom of pond or swamp.

The worm, when it has attained its full development, leaves the body of the insect and buries itself in the soft mud at the bottom of the pond or swamp, where it coils itself up into a knot together with a lot of other worms of its own kind. Several different sorts of worms belonging to the same "group" have this curious habit, from which one genus takes the name of Gordius—referring to the fabled Gordian knot. By-and-by the mosquito destroyer—the female, that is to say—lays its eggs, which have the form of a soft white cord. The cord breaks up into segments, and presently the tiny young ones, resembling delicate threads, are hatched.

Coming out in the water, the baby worm proceeds to hunt for a mosquito larva. If it is a stagnant pond or swamp, large numbers of immature mosquitoes, commonly called "wrigglers," are sure to be swimming about, and before long the destroyer tackles one of them entering its body and making itself comfortable in its abdominal cavity. Feeding upon the vital fluids of the insect, it swaxes big and strong at the expense of the latter, and pretty soon the unfortunate "sucker" begins to sicken. The maldigestion, of course, is incurable, and after a while Mr. Cluec dies miserably.

Pursuing his microscopic study, Professor Stiles made the further interesting discovery that the newly-hatched worm, which is only about a twentieth of an inch long, attaches itself to the body of the larval mosquito by boring through the soft tissue of the latter until it reaches the abdominal cavity. It is blind, he found, with hardly any internal structure beyond a mouth and an alimentary canal. The duration of its life seems to depend somewhat upon circumstances, but probably does not exceed three weeks—during which period it is hatched from the egg and spends from six days to two weeks in the body of the mosquito, and completes the cycle of its being in the mud at the bottom of the pond or swamp.

Of course, the parasite has no opportunity to enter the body of the mosquito after the latter assumes the winged form. It attacks the larva only, and usually kills or disables it, while the unfortunate insect remains a "wriggler." The first symptoms of its presence, according to

Dr. Stiles, is sluggishness on the part of the larva, which may survive the attack long enough to leave the water and assume the winged form—a fact proved by the circumstance that the worms have been found in a number of instances at the bottom of adult mosquitoes. It is, furthermore, known that frequently a mosquito is attacked by more than one worm. Indeed, it may be a victim of several at once—in which case it quickly dies. The parasites, when they have become fully developed, pass out of the abdominal cavity of the mosquito, and leave the body of the latter by way of the vent.

But it is the female mosquito that suffers worst, because the presence of the worm in some way prevents her egg sacs from developing. Thus, even if she survives long enough to become a winged insect, she cannot lay eggs; the race, so far as she is concerned, comes to an abrupt end. How important this fact is, in considering the usefulness of Agamomeris as an enemy of the mosquito, must be obvious. Indeed, it is presumably on this account chiefly that some seasons produce so many less mosquitoes than others. When the worms happen to be exceptionally numerous they cut off the mosquito supply by destroying the breeding power of the females.

Dr. Stiles' investigation has proved that not only the larval mosquitoes, but also in many instances the winged adults are infested by the worm. Sometimes, it is believed, the worms are comparatively few in number, and then there is a bad mosquito year, the breeding of the pests being comparatively unrestricted by the beneficent destroyer. It is surmised that, but for this natural foe, the abominable insects would propagate to such an extent as to make certain sections of the country quite uninhabitable.

Note the really important consideration in reference to this new and surprising discovery has to do with the prospect of utilizing the destroyer on a large scale, by artificial means, for the killing of mosquitoes. To accomplish this, it will be necessary to breed the worm and introduce them into ponds and swamps, permitting them to do the rest. It is thought that such an enterprise would not be attended with any very serious difficulties, inasmuch as the parasites, now that they have been identified, are readily obtained from the bodies of infested mosquitoes, and it has been found easy enough to breed them.

For this purpose a few infested mosquitoes are put into a large glass jar, covered with a piece of gauze to prevent them from escaping. In the same receptacle are placed a number of healthy mosquito larvae. An inch or two of mud in the bottom of the jar provides the incubating facilities for the worms when they come out of the diseased insects, and the newly hatched larvae quickly attack the healthy larvae, which in their turn become sources of infection, transferable as such to other jars. In this way the worms could be propagated indefinitely, whole batteries of jars being employed.

With a battery of jars in full operation, the young worms, as soon as hatched, could be transferred to ponds or swamps, and left to carry out their mission. They could be put up in bottles of water, tightly corked—a six-ounce bottle would serve to contain a large number of them—and shipped all over the country to places where their services were needed to reduce the mosquito pest.

The destroyer belongs to the family of so-called "horse-hair worms." Frequently, after a heavy rain, thousands of these worms are seen wriggling about on trees and shrubbery, and on the ground—a phenomenon which the rural districts have given rise to a popular notion that now and then it "rains worms." The belief is not surprising, inasmuch as the worms certainly do not come out of the ground, or from anywhere else that is describable, and so it is a reasonable inference that they have come down with the rain. As a matter of fact, however, they dwell in the abdominal cavities of various insects, and a long drought followed by a heavy rain usually results in their leaving the bodies of their hosts for the purpose of breeding.

Worms of this kind are so commonly parasites of insects that it was no surprise to find one of them attacking the mosquito. But to Dr. Stiles must be credited the discovery of the destructiveness of Agamomeris to the life and breeding power of the pestiferous bloodsucker, as well as the suggestion of its employment as a means for extermination, or, at all events, reducing in numbers, the mosquitoes which in many parts of the United States do so much to endanger the health and interfere with the comfort of human beings.

Figure 9. 1903 article discussion eradication efforts.



Figure 10. 1950 article discussing biocontrol method used in the islands.

4.0 Cultural Resources

This section identified cultural resources, including biological resources with cultural importance, within the project area.

4.1 Cultural and Historic Sites

Due to the size of the project area, this cultural impact assessment did not identify or inventory individual historic sites within the project area. Due to the nature of the activities, it is not anticipated that these activities could impact, modify, or effect historic properties in the project area.

4.2 Natural Resources with Cultural Significance

Hawaiians, like most indigenous and local communities, ascribe great cultural value to the natural resources in the environment around them. Due to the size of the project area, this cultural impact assessment did not identify or inventory the full range of biological resources within the project area, rather it noted and assessed natural resources with cultural significance through the ethnographic data. Based on this data, there are numerous plant resources used for cultural practices throughout the project area. There are also the native birds, which are highly valued and prized by practitioners. While there is no intent to collect these birds, their importance to mo'olelo and mele makes their preservation important to continuing cultural practices.

Multiple informants also identified game in the area that is regularly gathered by hunters for subsistence purposes. Hunting is a cultural practice. There has also been appellate court decisions in Hawai'i that have identified the hunting of non-native ungulates as cultural practices. This game is hunted by local practitioners and used to feed their families and communities.

4.2.1 Manu MŪKĪKĪ

Hawaiian Honeycreepers

Manu mŭkĭkĭ is the general term for Hawaiian honeycreepers. At least 56 different species of manu mŭkĭkĭ are known to have existed throughout our islands however, all but 18 of them are now extinct. Manu mŭkĭkĭ are extremely endangered due to threatened habitats and invasive predators.

Manu mŭkĭkĭ are a very diverse species and are some of the rarest species of Hawaiian birds. The manu mŭkĭkĭ considered in this study are the 'i'iwi, 'ākohekohe, and the kiwīkiu (Maui Parrotbill). These birds currently reside primarily in the uplands of East Maui, namely in the Makawao, Waikamoi, Ko'olau, Hanawī, Kīpahulu, and Hāna forest reserves. The kiwīkiu and the 'ākohekohe are restricted to East Maui forest reserves. The 'i'iwi occupies high elevation forests on most islands, however, in recent years populations have decreased in these ranges.

The 'ākohekohe is the crested honeycreeper (*Palmeria dolei*) and was formerly endemic to Maui and Moloka'i. It is critically endangered and rare. The 'ākohekohe is one of the largest manu mūkīkī measuring over seven inches long. 'Ākohekohe, like many honeycreepers, survive on nectar sources from native trees like the 'ōhi'a lehua. 'Ākohekohe currently only reside on Maui in elevations above 5,000 feet. They are currently restricted to about 25 square kilometers of forest near Haleakalā volcano. Like many bird names in Hawai'i, 'ākohekohe is an onomatopoeia. The name 'ākohekohe is said to be associated with the bird's song.

The kiwīkiu is the Maui Parrotbill (*Pseudonestor xanthophrys*) and was formerly found on Maui and Moloka'i. Today it is also restricted to the forested ranges of East Maui, primarily within the Hanawī, Waikamoi, and Haleakalā preservation areas. It is estimated that fewer than 300 kiwīkiu exist. Kiwīkiu feed on the nectar of native plants like the 'ōhi'a, 'ākala, koa, 'ōlapa, pilo, and kanawao. They will also use their beaks to split open berries for insect larvae. Kiwīkiu is not a traditional name for this particular bird. In 2010 the Hawaiian Lexicon Committee renamed this bird after deeming that the original Hawaiian name was lost. Traditional plant and animal names can be forgotten due to the decline of the species as well as the decline of Native speakers and use of Hawaiian language. Specific species of plants and animals are also often referred to in a general sense rather than by specific names over time. In the case of the kiwīkiu, it is possible that this bird was discussed generally as a manu mūkīkī or honeycreeper rather than its specific name. Kiwīkiu is an onomatopoeia and is associated with the bird's unique song.

The 'i'iwi is the scarlet honeycreeper (*Drepanis coccinea* or *Vestiaria coccinea*). The 'i'iwi was once found on all of the main islands. The name 'i'iwi is generally associated with the scarlet honeycreeper, however there were once different varieties of 'i'iwi feather colors. The 'i'iwi pōlena was a yellowish honeycreeper unlike the familiar scarlet one. In Hawaiian language newspaper accounts, 'i'iwi, both scarlet and yellow, are commonly referred to as the 'i'iwimakapōlena, the 'i'iwi with yellow eyes. There was also the 'i'iwipōpolo, a darker variety of honeycreeper. The 'akialoa was another group of manu mūkīkī that were said to be a type of 'i'iwi as well. 'Akialoa have long curved bills and yellow-green plumage. They were called by this name on O'ahu and were also found on Kaua'i and Hawai'i. On Kaua'i, certain 'i'iwi were referred to as olokele. The scarlet honeycreeper is one of the most recognizable manu mūkīkī. They feed on the nectar of native plants and are commonly associated with lehua blossoms. The feathers of the 'i'iwi were used extensively in traditional featherwork. Scarlet and yellow 'i'iwi feathers were sought out for 'ahu 'ula (feather capes), lei hulu (feather garlands), mahiole (feather helmets), and other garments and crafts.

From May 2, 1863 to June 13, 1863, the Hawaiian language newspaper, *Ka Nupepa Kuokoa*, published a series called "Ka Moolelo on Na Manu o Hawaii nei" (A Chronicle of the Birds of

Hawai'i). The series was authored by G.W. Kahiolo from Kalihi. The series was published in six installments and covered many different species of native birds found in Hawai'i. A total of 42 different species of birds were discussed in the series. Manu mūkīkī were not covered in this series as a general class of birds, but 9 different honeycreepers made the list including the 'ō'ū, 'amakihi, 'ā'ā, 'ō'ō, 'akakane, olokele, hulimai'a, mamo, and the 'i'iwimakapōlena. Many of the honeycreepers listed were compared to the 'i'wi in size and resemblance. The beaks of the different honeycreepers discussed were often compared to that of the 'i'wi. The fourth installment discusses the 'i'iwimakapōlena and provides the following narrative on this manu mūkīkī.

“The 'i'iwimakapōlena Bird”

The 'i'iwimakapōlena is similar to the Mamo, the 'Ō'ō, and the 'Ō'ū. Its beak is lightcolored and attractive and also long with a nice curve. Its head is beautifully small and narrow and its feathers are bright scarlet with dark black wings and tail feathers. Its legs, feet, and tallons are a glowing yellow, and its eyes are very yellow. The nectar of lehua blossoms is its food, as well as other blossoms, like the Mamo.

The 'i'wi has a delightful voice when it sings. When it sings it raises its head and billows out its neck and also raises its tail feathers and stands upright above and then sings out. Its song goes like this: “ko-koki,” with a “ko” that follows.

This is a very alert bird. Its activity and its movements are unusual as it searches for different areas to obtain its food with much pleasure, rushing without hesitation and doing lots of activity without fatigue. It perches in high places here and there, as if it would be treated with scorn if it were to be idle and rest in one place and was inactive or slept.

It is also unusual how this bird takes pleasure in activity through weariness in the cold and damp without caring about the chill of the dewy sticks in the early morning, braving to work in the force of the cold in the drizzling rain of the uninhabited mountain as if it is fulfilling the decree, “work until the termination of his body.”

Something that this bird greatly desires as it sings up above on the peak of its throne is the topmost branches to exhibit its great joy at having passed above the lofty summits, singing perched high above and below, gazing about while going “ka-kaki” with a “ko” that follows with great delight.

It already takes pleasure before but after it drinks a few small drops of nectar from the lehua blossom it does not complain for what little it got with all its weariness as if it were following the words of Solomon, “a simple meal with love is better...”

There are three types of ‘iwi. 1. The ‘iwimakapōlena; 2. The ‘iwialokele; 3. The ‘iwipōpolo. The ‘iwimakapōlena is what was described above and the ‘iwialokele is the ‘iwi with a desired red in its eyes. The ‘iwipōpolo is the ‘iwi with bright dark scarlet feathers. The ‘iwi that was first described is an ‘iwi with bright scarlet feathers as well, however, the extremities are yellow and that is how this one is slightly different when you look at it.

The ‘iwi has an attractive bent and gentle beak. It was therefore given its name in accordance to its beak and the nature of its eyes and feathers, its superb majesty as well as the nobility of this bird. For these reasons it is called “the Diplomat of the birds of the uplands.”

Kahiolo, G.W. “Ka Moolo on Na Manu o Hawaii nei.” *Ka Nupepa Kuokoa*, Volume II, Number 21. May 23, 1863. Page 1. Translated by J. U’ilani Au. January 2022.

Based on the description provided in *Ka Nupepa Kuokoa*, the ‘iwimakapōlena is a general term for the scarlet honeycreeper, better known as the ‘iwi. The name ‘iwimakapōlena (the ‘iwi with yellow eyes) indicates that the bird’s yellow eyes were particularly admired and recognizable. The author lists three different varieties of ‘iwi: the ‘iwimakapōlena, the ‘iwialokele, and the ‘iwipōpolo. The ‘iwialokele is seemingly similar to the ‘iwimakapōlena but with reddish eyes rather than yellow. In puke wehewehe “alokele” is defined as a red bird reported by Hawaiian historian and author, Kepelino. There does not appear to be a lot of historical information regarding the ‘iwialokele specifically, however, the alokele is discussed later in the series. The author likens the alokele to a dove with a short beak and rosy red feathers. The alokele eats the nectar of lehua blossoms like the ‘iwi and other honeycreepers. The ‘iwipōpolo is described as looking similar to the scarlet ‘iwi, but with a yellowish head. (See images below). According to the description provided, the ‘iwimakapōlena has yellow extremities while the ‘iwipōpolo has red legs and feet.

The author provides the poetic term, “ke Kuhina o na manu o ka uka” (the Diplomat of the birds of the uplands) for the ‘iwi. Of all of the manu mūkikī described in the series, the ‘iwi is the most detailed and most praised for its beauty and behavior, which the author notes is unusually active.



Figure 11. The 'i'iwimakapōlena or 'i'iwi. Photo from Maui Forest Bird Recovery Project.



Figure 12. The 'i'iwipōpolo is scarlet and black but has yellowish feathers on its head according to the 1863 description in Ka Nupepa Kuokoa. Photo from Maui Forest Bird Recovery Project.

4.2.3 Water

Fresh water (wai) is of tremendous significance to Native Hawaiians. It is closely associated with many Hawaiian gods. According to traditional accounts, Kāne and Kanaloa were the

“water finders:” “Ka-ne and Kanaloa were the water-finders, opening springs and pools over all the islands, each pool known now as Ka-Wai-a-ke-Akua (The water provided by a god)” (Westervelt 1915:38). Kāne is widely known to be closely associated with all forms of water, as outlined in the mele “He Mele No Kane.”

There was no element more important or precious than water. There was no god more powerful than Kāne. Pua Kanahale recounts the oli “‘O Kāne, ‘o wai ia ali‘i o Hawai‘i?” and notes of the oli: “The chant begins with Kāne and focuses on this deity as the connective force of all the po‘e akua, or god family. All the entities mentioned in each paukū, or verse, are a manifestation of Kāne” (Kanahale 2011:24). The association between water and Kāne is logical considering certain interpretations of Hawaiian mythology identify Kāne as the most powerful of all the Hawaiian gods.

Further investigation into the relationship between Kāne and Pele would be appropriate and helpful. Some interpretations identify Kāne as Pele’s father (Westervelt 1915). A brief analysis is provided below.

He Mele No Kāne

E ui aku ana au iā ‘oe,	One question I ask of you:
Aia i hea ka Wai a Kāne?	Where flows the water of Kane?
Aia i lalo, i ka honua, i ka Wai hū,	Deep in the ground, in the gushing spring,
I ka wai kau a Kāne me Kanaloa-	In the ducts of Kane and Kanaloa,
He waipuna, he wai e inu,	A well spring of water, to quaff,
He wai e mana, he wai e ola,	A water of magic power- The water of life!
E ola no, ‘ea!	Life! O give us this life!

This mele and other mo‘olelo are clear: Kāne is water. It is deeply valued among the Hawaiian people. The only exceptions may be mist, known to be associated with Lilinoe, and snow, associated with Poli‘ahu. There is an extensive body of traditional knowledge about the expeditions of Kāne and Kanaloa during which Kāne drove his ‘ō‘ō (digging stick) into the earth in search of water.

4.3 Intangible Cultural Resources

It is important to note that Honua Consulting’s unique methodology divides cultural resources into two categories: biocultural resources and built environment resources. We define biocultural resources as elements that exist naturally in Hawai‘i without human contact. These resources and their significance can be shown, proven, and observed through oral histories and literature. We define built environment resources as elements that exist through human interaction with biocultural resources whose existence and history can be defined, examined, and proven through anthropological and archaeological observation. Utilizing this methodology is critical in the preparation of a CIA as many resources, such as those related

to akua, do not necessarily result in material evidence, but nonetheless are significant to members of the Native Hawaiian community.

Hawaiian culture views natural and cultural resources as being one and the same: without the resources provided by nature, cultural resources could and would not be procured. From a Hawaiian perspective, all natural and cultural resources are interrelated, and all natural and cultural resources are culturally significant. Kepā Maly, ethnographer and Hawaiian language scholar, points out, “In any culturally sensitive discussion on land use in Hawaii, one must understand that Hawaiian culture evolved in close partnership with its natural environment. Thus, Hawaiian culture does not have a clear dividing line of where culture ends and nature begins” (Maly 2001:1).

4.3.1 ‘Ōlelo No‘eau

‘Ōlelo no‘eau are another source of cultural information about the area. ‘Ōlelo no‘eau literally means “wise saying,” and they encompass a wide variety of literary techniques and multiple layers of meaning common in the Hawaiian language. Considered to be the highest form of cultural expression in old Hawai‘i, ‘ōlelo no‘eau bring us closer to understanding the everyday thoughts, customs, and lives of those that created them. There are no identified ‘ōlelo nō‘eau for the immediate project area.

4.3.2 Mele (Songs)

The *Buke Mele Lahui* (Hawaiian National Songbook), published in 1895, is “the largest number of political and patriotic Hawaiian songs ever printed in one place,” featuring mele that “echo the steadfast resilience of Hawaiians of that time as they weathered the political turbulence of the 1880s and 1890s that completely altered their world” through the overthrow and establishment of a foreign-led provisional government and subsequent annexation to the U.S. (Nogelmeier and Stillman 2003:xii). There are numerous mele and ‘oli composed for and inspired by the project area.

5.0 Traditional or Customary Practices Historically in the Study Area and Surrounding Area

In traditional (pre-western contact) culture, named localities served a variety of functions, informing people about: (1) places where the gods walked the earth and changed the lives of people for good or worse; (2) heiau or other features of ceremonial importance; (3) triangulation points such as ko‘a (fishing markers) for fishing grounds and fishing sites (4) residences and burial sites; (5) areas of planting; (6) water sources; (7) trails and trail side resting places (o‘io‘ina), such as a rock shelter or tree shaded spot; (8) the sources of particular natural resources/resource collections areas, or any number of other features; or (9) notable events which occurred at a given area. Through place names knowledge of the past and places of significance was handed down across countless generations. There is an extensive collection of native place names recorded in the mo‘olelo (traditions and historical accounts) published in Hawaiian newspapers.

This is not intended to be a comprehensive list of all the practices that historically or contemporaneously occur in East Maui. This is meant to show the range of traditional or customary practices that took place in the larger geographic extent. Many of these practices may not have taken place within the Study Area, and many of those that may have do not currently take place within the Study Area, although that may actively occur within the larger region.

5.1 Mo‘olelo

Mo‘olelo is the practice of storytelling and developing oral histories for the purpose of transmitting knowledge information and values intergenerationally. Mo‘olelo are particularly critical in protecting and preserving traditional culture in that they are the primary form through which information was transmitted over many generations in the Hawaiian Islands and particularly in the Native Hawaiian community.

Storytelling, oral histories, and oration are widely practiced throughout Polynesia and important in compiling the ethnohistory of the area. The Native Hawaiian newspapers were particularly valued for their regular publication of different mo‘olelo about native Hawaiian history. Were it not for the newspapers having the foresight to allow for the printing and publication of mo‘olelo, far less information about the cultural history of the Hawaiian people would be available today.

There are numerous mo‘olelo about the Study Area. These mo‘olelo are provided in **Sections 3.1 (Traditional Period)** and in **Section 4.0 (Cultural Resources)**.

5.2 Habitation

Hawaiians lived extensively throughout the islands. Handy, Handy, and Pukui (1991) identify how different kānaka and their ‘ohana lived in accordance with what the authors termed “occupational contrasts” (286), meaning that based on occupation (i.e., planter or fisherman, for example), habitation systems differed. They describe, “The typical homestead or *kauhale*...

consisted of the sleeping or common house, the men’s house, women’s eating house, and storehouse, and generally stood in relative isolation in dispersed communities. It was only when topography or the physical character of an area required close proximity of homes that villages exist. There was no term for village. *Kauhale* meant homestead, and when there were a number of *kauhale* close together the same term was used. The old Hawaiians, in other words, had no conception of village or town as a corporate social entity. The terrain and the subsistence economy natural created the dispersed community of scattered homesteads” (284).

5.3 Travel and Trail Usage

The ability to travel was essential to Hawaiians and enabled their sustainability. Travel, and the freedom to move throughout different areas, had different names, including *huaka‘i*, *ka‘apuni*, or *ka‘ahele*. Traveling by sea had distinct names as well, like *‘aumoana*. Traveling through the mountains was sometimes referred to as *hele mauna*. Travel, and moving throughout various places and regions was an essential practice and way of life in traditional Hawai‘i.

The freedom to travel safely was so important that Kamehameha I would come to pass a well-known law protecting travelers, *Ke Kānāwai Māmalahoe* (The Law of the Splintered Paddle). It is explained by the William S. Richardson School of Law as follows:

As a young warrior chief, Kamehameha the Great came upon commoners fishing along the shoreline. He attacked the fishermen, but during the struggle caught his foot in a lava crevice. One of the fleeing fishermen turned and broke a canoe paddle over the young chief’s head. The fisherman’s act reminded Kamehameha that human life was precious and deserved respect, and that it is wrong for the powerful to mistreat those who may be weaker.

Years later when Kamehameha became ruler of Hawai‘i, he declared one of his first laws, *Ke Kānāwai Māmalahoe* (the Law of the Splintered Paddle), which guaranteed the safety of the highways to all. This royal edict was law over the entire Hawaiian kingdom during the reign of Kamehameha the Great. Considered one of the most important *kānāwai* (royal edict), the law gave the Hawaiian people an era of freedom from violent assault (William S. Richardson School of Law 2021).

The *kānāwai* (law) reads:

E nā kānaka	O my people
E mālama ‘oukou i ke akua	Honor thy god
A e mālama ho‘i	Respect alike, the rights of
Ke kānaka nui a me kānaka iki	All men great and humble
E hele ka ‘elemakule	Se to it that our aged,
Ka luahine, a me ke kama	Our women, and children

A moe i ke ala	Lie down to sleep by the roadside
A‘ohe mea nana e ho‘opilikia	Without fear of harm
Hewa no, make	Disobey, and die

The law would have such long-lasting resonance that it would be expressly incorporated into the Hawai‘i State Constitution.³

As traveling through traditional trails was the primary means by which people traveled on land throughout most of Hawaiian history, the traditional trail system is particularly important throughout the Hawaiian Islands. Throughout the islands, there were numerous trails that allowed for people to access different locations. This trail system was critical not only for maintaining a healthy population and managing this population, but it was also important for the traditional economic system of bartering. The trail system allowed for different localized communities to engage and interact. This also allowed for the trade of goods throughout island communities.

In 1862, L.W.K Kaaie shared information pertaining to ancient practices associated with interment of loved ones within the mountain landscape in the Hawaiian language newspress *Ka Hoku o ka Pakipika*. This is one of the earliest accounts documenting traditional access to the summit region of Haleakalā. Through this account we learn that families of Maui traveled along trails from the lowlands, through the forests, and to the summit Haleakalā where the remains of departed family members were hidden.

The narratives below are excerpted from the original Hawaiian (1862), with a translation from Fornander’s “Hawaiian Antiquities” (1919, Volume V):

No ke Kupapau. I ka wa e kaa mai ana a kokoke make, he oeo mamua aku o ka make ana o kekahi mea, o na makamaka a me na mea e ae o ua mea nei ina he poe ua make, a ina he poe ua ola, a penei ka ka mea mai e olelo ai: “Eia ae o mea ke kii mai nei ia‘u e hele,” a pela ia e olelo pinepine ai a hiki i kona wa e make ai. Aia hoi o kona poe makamaka a pau, uwe no lakou, a ina he mea ia i aloha nui ia, unuhi lakou i kekahi mea no ua mea make nei, ina he maiao, a ina he niho, a ina he lauoho...

When confined with long illness, and death draws near, a person before his demise mutters in an indistinct and mumbling way, speaking of his relatives and his gods, whether they be dead or whether they be living in this manner: “So and so is coming to get me to go.” And thus he would rave until he died. Whereupon all his relatives mourned, and if he was greatly beloved, they extracted something from his corpse, such as a nail, a tooth, or perhaps some hair...

³ Article IX. Section 10 of the Hawaii State Constitution reads: “The law of the splintered paddle, mamala-hoe kanawai, decreed by Kamehameha I—Let every elderly person, woman and child lie by the roadside in safety—shall be a unique and living symbol of the State’s concern for public safety.”

I ka lawe ana e huna i ke kupapau, elua, a ekolu wale iho no mau kanaka, aole lehulehu. I ka po no hoi keia hana, aole i ke ao. I ka eli ana i ka lua, he lua poepoe no, ano like me ka lua maia. O ka hohonu kupono o ka lua i ka humemalo, he pahee ka inoa o ka lua; i ka eli ana, lawe ka lepo o ka lua i kahi e iloko o ka ahu, ipu, o ike ia ka me hou. Ina he hale hou, eli mai no ka poe nana ke kupapau mawaho mai, a komo iloko o ka hale, me ka ike ole o ka mea nona kela hale. Manao na kanaka ina e ike ia kahi i waiho ia, kii ia mai na iwi i mea makau; o ka io he mea kupalu mano. He mau lua huna no kekahi, ma ka pali paha, ma kahi papu paha. Aia no kekahi lua ma Haleakala, o ka Luaokaawa ka inoa, mauka pono o Nuū, ma Maui...

In taking the corpse to be hidden, it is done by two or three of his friends; not by many people. The burial is done at night, however, not in the day time. In digging the grave, it is dug round like a banana hole. The usual depth of the grave is up to one's waist, that is, up to the groin of a man. In olden time, this grave was called a pahee (smooth place). Upon digging, take dirt from the grave to another place in a fine mat, or a gourd, else the tracks would be shown. Should it be a new house, the friends of the dead would dig from the outside till they reached within, without the house owner knowing anything about it. The people thought that if the burial place was known, the bones would be taken for fish hooks, and the flesh for shark bait. There are some hidden graves among the precipices; and others are on plains. There is a hidden grave at Haleakala; it is called the grave of Kaawa; it is right mauka of Nuū, on Maui...

Eia no hoi na lua huna e kanu ia ai na alii, o Nuū, o Makaopalena, Kealaohia, o Puukilea, aia ma ke alo o Haleakala ma Maui Hikina lakou a pau. O Hamohamo, a me Alalakeiki kekahi; a ma Alalakeiki kahi i make ai o na kanaka mai Hawaii mai i lawe mai i ke kupapau ilaila e huna ia ai a pau kela poe kanaka no Hawaii i ke komo iloko o ka lua, hiki mai kekahi kanaka kamaaina, o Niuaiaawa ka inoa, a pani i ka waha o ka lua i ka pohaku, malaila lakou i noho ai a make. Aole kanaka e ola ana i ike i kekahi o keia mau lua huna. Ua nalowale loa ia lakou. Aole i pau a hoopuka hou aku no au, ke aloha ia mai nae.

Here are the secret graves wherein the chief of Nuū were buried: Makaopalena, Kealaohia and Puukilea, all on the side of Haleakala, on the eastern side of Maui. Hanohano and Alalakeiki are others. At Alalakeiki a number of men from Hawaii who brought a corpse to be hidden were killed. When those men from Hawaii had gone into the cave a man of the place, Niuaiaawa by name, came along and closed up the mouth of the cave with stones, and those people stayed in there until they died. There is no living man who knows any of these secret burial places, so well hidden are they.

L. W. K. KAAIE. Kamanuwai, Honolulu, Mar. 15, 1862. [In *Ka Hoku o ka Pakipika*, Malaki 20, 1862:4]

5.4 Hunting

Hunting is an important practice in the project area. Numerous individuals interviewed for this CIA are hunters and actively hunt in the project area. Informants identified deer, goat, wild cattle, and pigs/boar as some of the game they actively hunt within the project area.

5.5 Farming

Since poi was the staple food for Native Hawaiians, it was of the utmost priority for the first settlers to establish lo‘i. Kalo’s prominence in the Hawaiian diet derived from its nutritional value, but even more so from its mythological significance. According to Hawaiian traditions, the first human (male) was born from the taro plant:

The first born son of Wakea and Papa was of premature birth and was given the name Haloa-naka. The little thing died, however, and its body was buried in the ground at one end of the house. After a while, a taro plant shot up from the child’s body, the leaf of which was named lau-kapa-lili, quivering leaf; but the stem was given the name Haloa.

After that another child was born to them, whom they called Haloa, from the stalk of the taro. He is the progenitor of all the peoples of the earth. (Malo 1951:244)

As discussed in **Section 3.2 (Traditional Period)** and **3.3 (Historic Period)**, the area has an extensive history of farming that extends well back into the pre-European contact era.

5.6 Traditional Clothing (Clothes Making, Dyeing, and Lei Making)

Kapa (commonly known as barkcloth) was the traditional material made through a traditional method of gathering, treating, and beating plant fibers, often, but not limited to, wauke (*Broussonetia papyrifera*) to make fabric that was used to make iole (clothing). Pacific and Hawaiian kapa was known for its wide range of colors and the application of watermarks.

One article describes the process for making kapa:

The finest kapa came from the paper of the mulberry tree. These trees were cultivated on plantations and grew to heights of more than twelve feet. As the tree grew, the branches were nipped off along the main trunk, insuring a long piece of bark which was easily peeled from the tree.

The manufacture of kapa was an important occupation for women. After the bark had been peeled from the tree, the inner bark was separated and soaked in sea water to make it soft and pulpy. The softened bark was placed on an anvil and beaten with a cylindrical wooden beater. The first beating separated the fibers and produced strips about eight or nine feet long and ten to fourteen inches wide. These strips could be dried and stored until needed. When needed, the strips were soaked in water, placed in layers between banana leaves, and left for about ten days to mature by "retting" which is the decomposition and removal of softened tissues, leaving the finer fibers. These partially decomposed layered strips were beaten a second time with specially carved four-sided beaters. The patterns carved on the beaters were functional as they produced the necessary characteristics in the kapa for its end use. These carved designs left the equivalent of a watermark on the kapa.

Kapa which was to be extremely soft and pliable, such as that used for the malo or loincloth, was subjected to an additional softening process. This process, which produced a finely ribbed fabric, was done by dampening the cloth, stretching it over a grooved board, and running a wooden grooving tool along the indentations in the board. When the cloth dried, permanent ribs remained. The hand was very similar to our crinkle gauze of today (Furer 1981:109-110).

Hawaiians were skilled at utilizing plants and materials to dye their clothing and other materials. Different methods would be employed to hō‘awa, extract dye colors from their source material(s). These dyes would be placed in a cup, known as a kā kāpala. Even foreign or exotic plants were utilized for this practice. Hawaiians used different words for the various types of dyeing activities and methods.

- We‘a – a red dye or to print or dye red
- Hili – bark dye, as hili kukui, hili kōlea, hili noni; also kapa dyed with bark or the name for dyeing with the use of bark
- Kūhili – to dye (or stain) by soaking in water containing mashed bark, such as used for nets; also mulberry bark before it is beat into kapa
- Kūpenu – to dye by dipping material
- Ki‘olena – to dye kapa
- Hōlei – native tree (*Ochorosia compta*) related to the hao (*Rauvolfia*), which yields a yellow dye for kapa
- Kīhe‘ahe‘a pala‘ā – dye made from the pala‘ā (*Sphenomeria chinensis* syn. *chusana*) fern; pala‘ā also references a kapa made from the māmaki (*Pipturus spp.*) bark which is then dyed a brownish-red with pala‘ā fern

Hawaiians also had a lexicon for the various colors that could be achieved through this traditional practice.

- ‘Ōlenalena – yellow
- Hili – Dark-brown dye made from bark
- Puakai – red
- Nao – dark red
- Pōkohukohu – color made from the noni (*Morinda citrifolia*) root
- ‘Ākala – color made from raspberry or thimbleberry juice
- ‘Ōma‘oma‘o – light green color made from ma‘o leaves

Similarly, lei making was a regular occurrence in traditional Hawaii. Anderson-Fung and Maly (2009) write about the traditional practice:

In old Hawai‘i, lei could have important ceremonial functions, such as in religious offerings and for chiefly regalia, but lei were also enjoyed as personal adornment by Hawaiians of all levels of society. The ali‘i (chiefs) and the maka‘aināna (the common people who tended the land) all wore lei. Even the akua (gods, deities, spirits), it was believed, sometimes wore lei when they walked the land in human form. The following observation by the French botanist Gaudichaud, who visited the islands in 1819, paints a picture of Hawai‘i as a place where the lei was an integral part of everyday life:

“It is indeed rare to encounter one of the natives of this archipelago who does not have an ornamental plant on his head or neck or some other part of his body...[The] women ... change [the plants they wear] according to the seasons, [and for them] all the fragrant plants, all flowers, and even the colored fruits, serve as attire, one after another. ...The young girls of the people, those of the island of Hawai‘i especially, seem to be fond of the [kou, *Cordia subcordata*], a tree very abundant in all the cultivated areas... The young girls of the mountains, who live near the forests, give their preference to the flowers of the [*Erythrina* (wiliwili) and a species of *Canavalia*, called ‘awikiwiki], the lively color of which makes magnificent garlands. Such natural attire is much more rich, much more striking, than all the dazzling creations of the elegant European ladies.”

This account and others like it suggest that lei worn for personal adornment were fashioned from the favorite plant materials that were readily available and abundant in the lei maker’s environment (4).

Lei making continues as an important practice today, as the making and giving of lei as an expression of aloha to loved ones still regularly occurs throughout the Hawaiian Islands. Practitioners of these crafts actively practice in the project area, especially hula practitioners who use the forest to gather plants for their ceremonial purposes.

5.7 Lā‘au Lapa‘au

Lā‘au lapa‘au is the practice of traditional Hawaiian medicine. For centuries, native Hawaiians relied upon the environment around them to provide them medicine. It is still actively taught and practiced today. Medicinal experts or healers have intimate knowledge about plants and other resources to cure ailments illnesses and sicknesses. Traditional medicine is practiced by native peoples and local communities around the world. Similarly, Native Hawaiians, over many generations, have learned how to properly care for, utilize, and prepare plants to maintain the community’s health.

It was important to not only have plants and have access to plants but to ensure that these plants were healthy and in good condition. These resources are cultural resources. They are critical to the ongoing practice of traditional medicine and healing within the Native Hawaiian community. There are still many traditional medicine practitioners in the Hawaiian community and throughout the Hawaiian Islands today. It is a practice that is still taught to the younger generation, and it is a practice that is still honored and utilized in many Hawaiian households throughout the state.

It was important that medicinal plants existed throughout the Hawaiian Islands so that when people traveled throughout different places on in the islands, they would always have access to the medicine they needed. In some cases, some plants were extremely rare, and, in those cases, it was particularly important to make sure that these populations were well protected and well cared for. There were also numerous gods associated with health, healing, and medicine. They are listed in **Table 2**.

Table 2. Hawaiian Gods Associated with Health, Healing and Medicine

Hawaiian gods associated with health, healing, and medicine (Pukui, 1971)
<i>Hi‘iakaikapolioPele</i>
<i>Lonopūhā</i>
<i>Ma‘iola</i>
<i>Hi‘iakaikapua‘ena‘ena</i>
<i>Hauwahine</i>
<i>Hina</i>
<i>Hina‘ea</i>
<i>Hinalaulimukala</i>
<i>Kamakanui‘ahu‘ilono</i>
<i>Kanaloa</i>
<i>Kū</i>
<i>Kūkeolo‘ewa</i>
<i>Mauliola</i>
<i>‘Ōpeluhuikauha‘ailo</i>

Maui has an active community of healing practitioners. These practitioners actively practice in the area, and due to its rural nature, there is likely to be a higher number of people who still utilize traditional medicine practices in this general area than in other, more urbanized areas. Additionally, this practice is enjoying a resurgence of activity throughout the islands, as more individuals are returning to cultural practices. Numerous practitioners interviewed for this assessment identified this practice as occurring in the area but did not specify specific plants used for these practices.

5.8 Kilo

Kilo are observational traditions and people who examine, observe, or forecast are identified as kilo and serve as traditional climate and weather experts. Kilo “references a Hawaiian observation approach which includes watching or observing [the] environment and resources by listening to the subtleties of place to help guide decisions for management and pono practices” (‘Āuamo Portal 2021). The practice of kilo is seeing a resurgence on Hawai‘i Island and in the Hawaiian Islands.

Kilo hōkū are traditional astronomers, or those who study the stars. A hale kilo or hale kilo hōkū were observatories or star observatories respectfully. Kilo makani were those who traditionally observed the winds. Kilo moana were traditionally oceanographers. Kilo ‘uhane were those who observed and communicated with spirits.

Traditionally the practice of kilo or observation was critical to the management of traditional Hawaiian landscapes. This practice is very closely tied to traditional or customary access as observers would require access to specific vistas viewsheds or areas in order to observe environmental phenomenon.

As illustrated in the proceeding section, Native Hawaiians created a wide range of terms for the environment and understanding the ecosystems around them. These terms were often quite specific, and many were tied closely to a specific geographic area. This level of specificity illustrated the close kinship Hawaiians shared to their surrounding environment. The ability to observe and understand all elements of their ecosystem was essential to both the successful care of natural resources and the survival of the Hawaiian people.

The ability to effectively and accurately read weather phenomena was essential to the ability of Hawaiian people who farm, fish, navigate, and conduct any number of practices in a sustainable and successful manner. The knowledge Hawaiians acquired about their environment around them, including weather phenomena were the result of multi-generational observations that comprised an extensive body of information passed down through oral traditions. The following Hawaiians names and their descriptions of weather phenomena include words for clouds, rains, and winds that are utilized by kilo to help guide activities and practices:

ao akua – godly cloud, figurative representative of a rainbow.

ao loa – long cloud or high, distant cloud. Status cloud along the horizon.

ao ‘ōnohi – cloud with rainbow, ‘ōnohi, colors contained within it.

ao pua‘a – cumulus clouds of various sizes piled together, like a mother pig with piglets clustered around her. The Kona coast is famous for ao pua‘a, a sign of good weather and no impending storms.

ao pehupehu – continually growing cumulus typical of summer. Drifting with the tradewinds, these clouds pick up moisture and darken at their base, finally releasing their rain on the windward mountain cliffs.

ho‘omalumalu – sheltering cloud.

ho‘oweliweli – threatening cloud.

ānuenuē – rainbow, a favorable omen.

ua loa – extended rainstorm.

ua poko – short rain spell.

5.9 Ceremonial Practices

The ceremonial practices of traditional Hawaiians are extensive. Throughout the course of Hawaii’s history, traditional Hawaiians have integrated religious, spiritual, and ceremonial practices in their daily lifestyle. Traditional or customary practices are then not distinct ceremonial practices but rather a part of their way of life. Therefore, it is challenging to define in discrete terms ceremonial practices associated with traditional Hawaiian customs. For the purpose of this section, the ceremonial practices discussed here focus primarily on customs carried out by general populations of Hawaiians, as opposed to activities or rituals carried out by trained and recognized specialists, kahuna. Those practices are discussed in a separate section.

Ceremonial practices are incorporated throughout numerous, if not all, of the activities identified in this section. For example, there is a great level of ceremonial practice and ritual associated with the care of the dead, burial remains, and funerary objects. Native Hawaiians as with most indigenous people integrated ceremony into most of their practices especially those that occurred out in the natural landscape or related to their way of life. There was no specific site or materials required for ceremony *per se*.

Nonetheless, shrines were sometimes associated with ceremonial practices. Shrines for the purpose of this assessment are distinct from heiau, which were places of worship. Again, the distinction is the nature in which these features or sites were created. Heiau required the advice and guidance of a kahuna, who would help ali‘i determine the best location in which to erect a heiau. Conversely, shrines were erected by maka‘āinana (working class) as part of their daily or occupational functions.

Makahiki is one example of a practice that has taken place prior to contact and continues post-contact and involves ceremonial elements. One of these elements is the akua loa,

described by Malo as “the image of the Makahiki god, Lono-makua ... This work was called ku-i-ke-pa-a” (Malo 1951: 143). Further described by Malo:

22. This Makahiki idol was a stick of wood having a circumference of about ten inches and a length of about two fathoms. In form, it was straight and staff-like, with joints carved at intervals and resembling a horse’s leg; and it had a figure carved at its upper end.

23. A cross piece was tied to the neck of this figure, and to this cross piece, kea, were bound pieces of the edible pala⁴ fern. From each end of this cross piece were hung feather lei that fluttered about, also feather imitations of the kaupu bird⁵, from which all the flesh and solid parts had been removed.

24. The image was also decorated with a white tapa cloth made from wauke⁶ kakahi⁷, such as was grown at Kuloli⁸. ... One end of this tapa was basted to the cross piece, from which it hung down in one piece to a length greater than that of the pole. The width of this tapa was the same as the length of the cross piece, about sixteen feet.

25. The work of fabricating this image, I say, was called kuikepaa. The following night the chiefs and people bore the image in grand procession, and anointed it with coconut (sic) oil. Such was the making of the Makahiki god. It was called Lono-makua (father Lono), also the akua loa. This name was given it because it made the circuit of the land (Malo, 1951: 144-145).

The akua loa was taken to each ahupua‘a. This custom was important to the care, stewardship, and worship of the gods. These practices were intimately tied to the proper care and sustainable stewardship of all cultural and natural resources. Ethnographic data indicates that such practices take place within the Project Area or Study Area.

As with many concepts of traditional Hawaiian living and practices, the contemporaneous concept of the kahuna has been largely influenced by Western thought. The roles and responsibilities of the kahuna are well explained by Professor Terry Kanalu Young in his text, *Rethinking the Native Hawaiian Past*, in which he writes:

⁴ Native fern (*Marattia douglasii*) used for medicinal purposes as well as in ceremony.

⁵ Laysan albatross (*Diomedea immutabilis*), written with diacritical markings as ka‘upu.

⁶ Paper mulberry (*Broussonetia papyrifera*)

⁷ Meaning outstanding or of high quality, as in reference to the white kapa (tapa) made from these fibers.

⁸ Likely a reference to the place in Pelekunu Valley at Kamalō, Moloka‘i, located between the peaks of Kaunuohua and Pēpē‘ōpae.

As recipients of hana lawelawe⁹, the Ali‘i Nui were themselves serves of a sort. They were responsible for maintaining a positive spiritual relationship with the Akua through pono conduct. Pono was defined for individuals of that era within the context of a particular task specialty. Kahuna who functioned as experts in specific skill areas like medicinal healing, canoe building, or spiritual advising were consulted by leaders. The experts were looked to as responses for what was considered pono in their respective realms of knowledge (Young 1998).

Kahuna were critical to traditional Hawaiian lifeways as their extensive expertise helped to provide sound and strategic advice to ali‘i and other leaders on proper spiritual, cultural, and ecological management. There are numerous types of kahuna in Hawaiian traditions, including, but not limited to:

kahuna ‘anā‘anā - sorcerer who practices black magic and counter sorcery

kahuna a‘o - teaching preacher, minister, sorcerer.

kahuna hāhā - an expert who diagnoses, as sickness or pain, by feeling the body.

kahuna ha‘i‘ōlelo - preacher, especially an itinerant preacher.

kahuna ho‘ohāpai keiki - medical expert who induced pregnancy.

kahuna ho‘opi‘opi‘o - malevolent sorcerer, as one who inflicts illness by gesture.

kahuna ho‘oulu ‘ai - agricultural expert.

kahuna ho‘oulu lāhui - priest who increased population by praying for pregnancy.

kahuna hui - a priest who functioned in ceremonies for the deification of a king.

kahuna kālai - carving expert, sculptor.

kahuna kālai wa‘a - canoe builder.

kahuna ki‘i - caretaker of images, who wrapped, oiled, and stored them, and carried them into battle ahead of the chief.

kahuna kilokilo - priest or expert who observed the skies for omens.

⁹ Hana lawelawe are defined by Young as “service tasks” by which kaukau ali‘i (lower ranked chiefs) served the Ali‘i Nui (high chiefs). These hana lawelawe were critical to the ability of the Ali‘i Nui to effectively govern (Young 1989).

kahuna lapa‘au - medical doctor, medical practitioner, healer. Lit., curing expert.

kahuna makani - a priest who induced spirits to possess a patient so that he might then drive the spirits out.

kahuna nui - high priest and councilor to a high chief; office of councilor.

kahuna po‘o - high priest.

kahuna pule - preacher, pastor, minister, parson, priest. clergyman. Lit., prayer expert.

kahuna pule ka‘ahele - preacher

kahuna pule wahine - priestess

In 1888, King David Kalākaua published a collection of Hawaiian traditions including the mo‘olelo of the chief Hua. This mo‘olelo references bird hunting on the upper mountain slopes of Haleakalā (Kalākaua, 1990). This mo‘olelo is set in the district of Hāna and references the upper regions of Haleakalā crater. The practice of traveling into the mountain regions to catch birds extended into what is now the Waikamoi Preserve and throughout the forested regions of Maui Hikina. Kepā Maly summarizes:

Some 1,000 years ago, in the district of Hāna, there lived a chief by the name of Hua, who grew abusive of his people. His elder kahuna nui (high priest), Luaho‘omoe, warned him to amend his ways, lest he incur the wrath of the gods. Hua wearied of this priest’s warnings and devised a plan by which to rid himself of the elderly kahuna. The plot was laid out, in which the chief called upon his bird catchers to go to the uplands to fetch ‘ua‘u to be eaten by himself. When asked if he thought such birds would be found on the mountain lands, Luaho‘omoe told the chief that at that time of year, no ‘ua‘u would be found. Hua feigned indignity, and told Luaho‘omoe that if his bird catchers returned from the uplands with the desired ‘ua‘u, that he would be killed as a false prophet and seer.

The bird catchers departed, as if traveling to the distant upland nesting grounds of the ‘ua‘u, while secretly going to the shore, where they found ‘ua‘u and other birds. When they returned to the Hua’s court, they presented the birds to the king, with testimony that the birds had come from the mountains.

King Kalākaua’s narratives tell us:

Luahoomoe had two sons, Kaakakai and Kaanahua... Knowing that they would not be spared, Luahoomoe advised them to leave Hana at once and secrete themselves in

the mountains, and suggested Hanaula, an elevated spur of the mighty crater of Haleakala, as the place they would be most likely to escape observation... [page 161]

Kalākaua then reported that the bird catchers:

...Returned, bringing with them a large number of birds, including uau and ulili, all of which they averred, had been caught in the mountains, when in reality they had been snared on the sea-shore.

Hua summoned the high-priest, and, pointing to the birds, said: “All these birds were snared in the mountains. You are therefore condemned to die as a false prophet who has been abandoned by his gods, and a deceiver of the people...” Taking one of the birds in his hand, the priest calmly replied: “These birds did not come from the mountains; they are rank with odor from the sea...” [Kalakaua, 1990:162]

Kepā Maly summarizes:

King Kalākaua’s account continues, relating that Hua and his bird catchers denied the birds were from the shore. When Luaho‘omoe opened the stomachs of several of the birds, “all were found to be filled with small fish and bits of sea-weed” (ibid.) Outraged, Hua then took a spear and killed Luaho‘omoe. Immediately thereafter, rains stopped falling, rivers stopped flowing, and the land lay bare, parched by the sun. After a period of time, the king, Hua, himself wandered the mountains, and from district to district, until he died unattended, with his bones laying exposed to dry and rattle about in the sun, with no one to bury him—this being a great disgrace in ancient times (Kalākaua, 1990:165). Thus, the saying, “Nakeke nā iwi o Hua i ka lā” (The bones of Hua rattle in the sun).

After Hua’s death, a priest from Waimalu, on O‘ahu, by the name of Naula-a-Maihea (Naula). Naula discerned the cause of the drought and famine that had spread across the islands, as a result of Hua’s evil treatment of Luaho‘omoe, and he also understood that the sons of the old priest could help relieve the people of their difficulty since Hua had died. Naula was led to the summit region of Haleakalā, and found Ka‘akakai and Kaanahua living in hiding. A black pig was offered with prayers and rituals, and the black, rain bearing clouds of Lono returned, bringing life giving rains to the islands (Kalākaua, 1990:169-173).

Kamakau’s discussion on burial places on the Haleakalā mountain lands reveals how ancestral Hawaiians utilized and revered the wao akua. Kamakau’s specific reference to “the rock that divides the lands” is in reference to the famed Pōhaku‘oki‘āina (also called “Pōhaku Pālaha”). This rock is a wahi pana (traditional storied place) and is situated just outside of the

Waikamoi Preserve/Hanawā NAR, and was accessed by various traditional trails, including those which passed through the Waikamoi Preserve. Pōhaku‘oki‘āina is situated at an elevation of 8,015 feet. Kamakau reported:

The disposal pit of Ka‘a‘awa is a deep disposal pit inside the crater of Haleakala. It is on top of a lava mound in a pit (lua) on the north side, close to Wai‘ale‘ale [a swamp just outside the crater wall] and the rock that divides the lands [Pohaku Palaha, or Pohaku‘oki‘aina] on the eastern edge of the Ke‘anae gap that opens at Ko‘olau. It is a chasm, a nupa, or perhaps a deep pit, a lua meki, opened up from the foundations of the island by the forces of heaping lava, and may be several miles deep, with fresh or sea water at the bottom. Because of the insipid taste (‘ono ‘ole) of the waters, some people have supposed that the waters of Waiu and Waipu at Kaupo have their source at this pit of Ka‘a‘awa, or from some [page 39] disposal pits mauka of Pu‘umane‘one‘o. This pit of Ka‘a‘awa was like Waiuli; it was the disposal pit for the people of Makawao, Kula, and Kaupo. These pits could be visited in broad daylight because no evilly disposed people could get at the bones and take them away to work mischief. This is the character of nupa and lua meki—they are pits that mischievous people cannot get at. Burial caves, disposal pits, and caverns (ana huna, lua huna, nupa) were important from Hawaii to Kauai... [1968:40]

5.10 Haku Mele, Haku Oli, and Hula

This practice is related to the composition of song and chants. this is a practice that has existed for many centuries in the Hawaiian culture. When the Hawaiian culture primarily relied on an oral tradition to pass on knowledge and information, the ability to create songs and chants was essential to pass information from one generation to the next. As Donaghy (2013) notes, Hawaiians had hundreds of terms associated with this practice.

Songs and chants are largely influenced by the environment around them. As a pedagogical device it was important if not imperative that these songs or chants effectively captured data from the environment around the composer and passed on this information for others to utilize when managing natural resources. In a very real sense, the land and natural resources act as a muse for composers. The category of songs that provide information on or speak to natural resources are called mele ‘āina (songs of the land). As shown in the previous section, there are numerous traditional chants and songs about the project area and its surrounding landscape.

Much like mele and oli, hula serves as a way of both honoring place and telling the story of place. Many hula, especially those based on mele ‘āina, require intimate understanding of the place where the mele was composed, including the natural elements of that ‘āina. Hula hālau will regularly take huaka‘i, or journeys, to visit and honor the place a particular mele speaks of. The ability to visit the place and learn about it is important to the practice of hula.

Hula, as well as mele or oli, are also offered as gifts to kupuna or gods. This practice also requires access to traditional sites. Associated with hula would have been the practices of lei making and the use of plants to dye clothing.

5.11 Kia Manu

Kia manu (birdcatchers) were skilled individuals who would capture different birds to harvest their colorful hulu (feathers) for featherwork. Kia manu often sought after different manu mūkīkī, like the ‘i‘iwi, for their delicate and colorful feathers. Kia manu did not harm or kill birds for their feathers, but relied on a clever method of harvesting a few feathers from a single bird before releasing it. Kia manu set traps and decoys for birds like manu mūkīkī in the forest. Kia manu entails birdcatching by gumming. Birdcatchers would set decoys with fresh flowers like lehua tied on as bait. The decoys would be covered in kēpau, a sticky resin that birds would get stuck on while feeding. While the birds were feeding, trapped by the sticky kēpau, the kia manu would lower their traps and harvest the hulu.

Colorful birds like the ‘i‘wi, the kiwīkiu, and the ‘ākohekohe had desirable hulu for featherwork. Many feathered garments, like ‘ahu ‘ula (feather cloaks and capes), were reserved by ali‘i. ‘Ahu ‘ula were made using the feathers of the ‘i‘iwi and other birds. They were most commonly red and yellow with a black or green trim. Kāhili (feather standards) were another form of featherwork to honor ali‘i, as well as lei hulu (feather lei).

In the mo‘olelo of Laukaieie featured in *Ka Leo o ka Lahui* in June of 1894, a brief description of Hawaiian featherwork is provided. In this account the beauty of those adorned in ornate featherwork is described. These beautiful youth are kupua (supernatural beings) and the descendants of the akua Hina and Kū. It is clarified that the wild forest in the mountains has become the home of these kupua of Hina and Kū.

Not long after she went, she heard the voices of people talking. They were the voices of girls and she followed these voices until she could see two beautiful girls sitting outside of their house making bird feather lei with Mamo and ‘i‘iwi feathers and the yellow feathers of the ‘Ō‘ō. That is what they wore on their bodies night and day. Sitting in between these beauties residing in the forest was a handsome boy. His skin was a rosy pink and his eyes were like the bud of the ‘ōhi‘a tree, and when joined with his feather garlands and his feather cape, it was like the yellow of a marigold. Just like the fine fragrant scent of this flower, the breath flowing from his nose was different. The familiar work of this very handsome one of these uplands was birdcatching. That is what he did regularly every day from the days of his youth to when he was grown. Those who resided in the forest of these uplands were constantly adorned with feathers.

Manu, Moses. “He Moololo Kaaoo Hawaii No Laukaieie.” *Ka Leo o ka Lahui*, Volume II, Number 971. June 27, 1894. Page 1.

This practice no longer occurs, in part due to the decline of native birds and in part due to regulations that protect these species. There is no indicator from the ethnographic data that area practitioners continue this practice in secret or have a desire to revive the practice, but it is important to note that this was an important cultural practice that took place historically that was likely lost in large part due to the decline of Hawaiian forest birds. *Kia manu* supported a range of other cultural activities, like the weaving of lei hulu (feather lei) and other garments made for ali‘i. As such, the loss of birds and its associated practices had a significant adverse effect on Hawaiian traditional and customary practices.

6.0 Ethnographic Data

As discussed previously in **Section 2.5 (Ethnographic Methodology)**, information was collected from a wide range of individuals and sources. The findings of those efforts are discussed in this section. Ethnographic data is utilized to supplement the other research methods utilized. It is one in a range of research tools employed to gather information about the project area.

Honua Consulting was tasked with gathering information from individuals with lineal and cultural ties to the area and its vicinity regarding regional biocultural resources, potential impacts to these biocultural resources, and mitigation measures to minimize and/or avoid these impacts.

The bulk of the information available from practitioners and kūpuna were drawn from native testimonies and Hawaiian language sources and integrated into the cultural and historic overview section of this assessment. Those sources, along with responses to this project, were considered when researching the traditional or customary practices discussed in a previous section. Interviews were conducted with seven (7) individuals and additional mo‘olelo from a sixth individual was included in this section. This data helped to identify additional resources and practices in the area; this information also helped to confirm research conducted for this report.

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6.1 Interview with Pueo Pata



Interview with Pueo Pata

Interviewer: Mathew Sproat

Interviewee: Pueo Pata

Date: 2/9/2022

Location: via telephone

Biography

Mr. Pata is a kumu hula and cultural & language consultant. He was born in California but raised in Kihei, Maui. He has lived in upcountry Maui since 2003.

General Discussion

Mr. Pata is associated with the project area as a cultural practitioner and resident of the area. When asked if there was anything he would like to share at the end of the interview, Mr. Pata explained that mosquitos have been a problem in Hawai'i since they have been introduced.

As climate change warms environment and mosquitos are able to travel further upward in elevation, our remaining native bird populations will be placed at further risk.

Cultural Resources

Mr. Pata noted that the resources of the area are used for cultural practice, including native plants for la‘au lapa‘au. He also mentioned the myriad native birds that exist in the area.

Traditions and Customs

Mr. Pata noted that he and other cultural practitioners access the area for native plants, stones, and wood for various cultural practices including hula, altars, and ceremonies.

Impacts

Mr. Pata noted that if the bacteria used for the mosquito mitigation method cannot be spread elsewhere into the environment, he does not see a reason why he would object to the project. He specifically mentioned that mosquitos are not native to Hawai‘i and have only caused damage.

Mitigation Measures & Recommendations

Mr. Pata recommended that the project minimize any restrictions of access to Native Hawaiians, specifically for native/natural resources. These resources are important for traditional and cultural practices.

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6.2 Interview with Pi‘ilani Lua



Interview with Pi‘ilani Lua

Interviewer: Mathew Sproat

Interviewee: Pi‘ilani Lua

Date: 2/9/2022

Location: via telephone

Biography

Ms. Lua is a kumu hula and Hawaiian studies teacher at Hana school. She was born and raised in Kailua on the island of O‘ahu. She currently lives in Hana, Maui.

General Discussion

Ms. Lua is associated with the project area as a community member and cultural practitioner. Further, she is a lineal descendant of the area. She was also a cultural specialist at Kahanu Gardens, which has the largest heiau in all of Polynesia.

Cultural Resources

Ms. Lua mentioned that the area has many heiau and lo‘i. She mentioned that the project area has many farmers and cultural practitioners. Specific to the water resources in the area, Ms. Lua mentioned there were hihiwai and opae, which are used for subsistence by some. Further, she also noted that cultural practitioners utilize native plants in the area for la‘au lapa‘au.

Traditions and Customs

Of the many traditions and customs associated with the large project area, Ms. Lua mentioned farming, fishing, hunting (pig and deer), lo‘i, and la‘au lapa‘au.

Impacts

Ms. Lua raised concerns regarding the method of using bacteria to make mosquitos infertile. She asked if this method had been done elsewhere, or if Maui was the first experiment. Ms. Lua recounted the story of bringing the mongoose to kill the rat – thereby creating a new problem later on. Ms. Lua also asked if there will be an impact on birds.

Mitigation Measures & Recommendations

Ms. Lua recommended that, if the project is an experiment or pilot project, the project should be experimented/trialed somewhere else. She noted that the area is sensitive and people depend on native flora and fauna for their livelihoods. Further, Ms. Lua recommended that the project take place further away from people.

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6.3 Interview with Ikaika Blackburn



Interview with Ikaika Blackburn

Interviewer: Mathew Sproat

Interviewee: Ikaika Blackburn

Date: 2/9/2022

Location: via telephone

Biography

Mr. Blackburn is a firefighter and musician. He was born and raised in Wailuku, Maui, where he currently lives.

General Discussion

Mr. Blackburn is familiar with the project area, although he noted that he does not venture there often today. He explained that the area is very lush given the high amount of rainfall. He also explained that many tourists visit the area.

Cultural Resources

Mr. Blackburn noted that the large project area has a plethora of native species. There are native freshwater fish, native birds, native ferns, and native trees. There are also many freshwater streams which flow mauka/makai. Mr. Blackburn also mentioned that several heiau also exist in the project area.

Traditions and Customs

Mr. Blackburn explained that there are still many native farmers associated with the land on this side of Maui. He noted that these people utilize the area for many traditions and customs, such as la'au lapa'au. Further, he explained that the maintenance of the streams – to ensure they are going through the proper channels – is also a cultural practice.

Mr. Blackburn also shared that the area is popular for hunting, specifically boar in this area.

Impacts

Mr. Blackburn raised some concern about the potential for unintended impacts from the project. He noted that the project area is a fragile system. Using bacteria for mosquito control may work theoretically, but what will the actual impact be on the whole system?

Mitigation Measures & Recommendations

Ms. Blackburn recommended that, should the project proceed, it be monitored closely.

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6.4 Interview with Ho’o Cabanilla

Interview with Ho’o Cabanilla

Interviewer: Mathew Sproat

Interviewee: Ho’o Cabanilla

Date: 2/8/2022

Location: via telephone

Biography

Ms. Cabanilla is an operator trainee at the Lahaiana Wastewater Treatment Facility. She was born and raised in Lāhainā, Maui. She still lives on the west side of Maui in the Kahana area.

General Discussion

Ms. Cabanilla is associated with the project area through hunting. Coming from the west side of Maui originally, Ms. Cabanilla noted that the project area was an “experience”. The area is vast and open, with very little human use or impact.

Cultural Resources

Ms. Cabanilla recounted that she hunted goats, deer, and wild cattle with her ‘ohana in the project area. There are also wild pigs in the area which are hunted. As such, Ms. Cabanilla mainly discussed these huntable species as cultural resources.

Traditions and Customs

As discussed above, Ms. Cabanilla primarily mentioned hunting in the area. She noted that family members have hunted in the area throughout their entire lives.

Impacts

Ms. Cabanilla would assume that there could be a potential of impact to cultural resources and traditions and impacts from the project. She raised the question: will the affected male mosquitos in any way harm or impact other species? Will it affect humans?

Mitigation Measures & Recommendations

Ms. Cabanilla would like to know if there will be any negative impact or effect on people or other species by the project. She suggested that the project be done in phases to ensure that there is an understanding of the impacts before fully scaling the project.

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6.5 Interview with Kamaka Kukona



Interviewer: Mathew Sproat
Interviewee: Kamaka Kukona
Date: 2/17/2022
Location: via telephone

Biography

Mr. Kukona is a kumu hula, cultural advisor, entrepreneur, and musician. He was born and raised in Wailuku Maui where he still resides.

General Discussion

Mr. Kukona has 'ohana who reside in mauka areas of the region. He noted that in some places in the area, there is a lot of standing water in puddles and mud. He explained that it would be great to reduce mosquito populations if it were shown that there would be no negative side effects from the bacteria.

Cultural Resources

Other than native birds, Mr. Kukona noted that other cultural resources include maile, palapalai, 'ie'ie, and lehua which they have gathered in the area. However, there are a myriad native species in the area, including most of the plants that are used for hula.

Traditions and Customs

Mr. Kukona noted that one tradition and custom associated with the area is gathering. He explained that he and other practitioners gather native plants in the area for their various practices.

Impacts

Mr. Kukona could not think of any impacts to cultural resources or traditions and customs caused by the project. He did raise the question: what happens if an infected mosquito bites a person?

Mitigation Measures & Recommendations

Mr. Kukona recommended that perhaps the project could be contained to a smaller area first, before scaling.

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6.6 Interview with Mike Opgenorth



Interviewer: Dane Maxwell

Interviewee: Mike Opgenorth

Date: 2/8/2022

Location: via Zoom

Biography

Mike Opgenorth is the director at Kahanu Garden and Preserve of the National Tropical Botanical Garden. Mike has been at Kahanu Garden and Preserve for seven years. Mike is originally from Fallbrook, California, an agricultural community located in northern San Diego county. Mike's father works in horticulture which inspired the work he does now. Mike currently resides in Maka'ala'e in Hana on Maui.

Overview

Mike Opgenorth provided information on various traditions, customs, and natural and cultural resources that exist nearby and within the project area.

General Discussion

Mike Opgenorth is associated with the project area through the conservation work he does at the Kahanu Garden and Preserve, which is located just ma kai of the project area.

Cultural Resources

Kahanu Garden and Preserve is home to a coastal hala preserve as well as cultural sites like Pi'ilani Hale heiau, which is ma kai of the project area in the Honoma'ele ahupua'a. The project area includes the upper region of this ahupua'a, including the watershed areas of Honoma'ele. Mike emphasizes that anything that happens mauka, will impact the lower makai regions as well. Kahanu Garden and Preserve is adjacent to the project area and includes natural plant preserves, like hala, and other significant cultural sites like Wai'anapanapa and Wai'ele'ele. Both Wai'anapanapa and Wai'ele'ele are significant pools of fresh water that were historically visited by ali'i like Pi'ilani. Mike considers these waters to be sacred in that they are ancestral water sources.

Mike discusses that because the upper regions of Hana have such rich watersheds there is a lot of biodiversity in the areas including a diverse populace of native birds.

Traditions and Customs

Mike named the water sources, Wai'anapanapa and Wai'ele'ele as significant sites within the project area that are rooted deeply in Hawaiian tradition. Pi'ilani Hale heiau is considered to be one of the most significant sites within Polynesia and is the one hānau (place of birth) of many ali'i and people throughout Maui. Mike shared that ma kai of the project area there are many fishing practices associated with the Honoma'ele ahupua'a.

The upper regions of Honoma'ele is home to a hala preserve which reflects weaving traditions in the area. He also mentions that there are many lā'au lapa'au and mahi 'ai practitioners in the area. Many people hold 'aha 'awa ('awa ceremonies) in the area as well. Mike was taught that the name Homoma'ele, meaning "numb bay" alludes to the practice of drinking and making 'awa in the area. Honoma'ele is also home to a famous 'ōhi'a 'ie'ie vine, referenced in Kamakau's work. Mike references the famous battle of Lono-a-Pi'ilani and Kiha-a-Pi'ilani which took place within the upper and lower regions of Hana.

Impacts

Mike had mentioned the significance of the Wai'anapanapa and Wa'ele'ele pools and how those are potentially areas where mosquitoes breed and lay eggs. He notes that a lot of the water sources in the project area are streams and rivers, and not stagnant water sources where mosquitoes breed, however, the streams often run dry and pools of stagnant water collect, possibly attracting mosquitoes. Mike raised questions about how the Wolbachia bacteria might impact other forms of fauna when released in this way. He had questions about possible residual effects from releasing more Wolbachia into the environment through mosquitoes and how that will impact other animals like 'ōpae and 'o'opu that live in streams and their habitats. He asked if adequate studies and research has been done to determine possible residual effects from Wolbachia mosquitoes on the environment and other animals

and insects. He also raised a question on whether or not the increase in Wolbachia bacteria could impact native plants that are used for lei making, weaving, and other cultural practices.

Mitigation Measures & Recommendations

Mike thinks that this project is set with good intentions and is hopeful it is successful in protecting native birds. His biggest recommendation is to keep the public informed and practice strong communication with the community so they know what is happening and if the project is successful. Because this project concerns Maui's water sources Mike pointed out that it also concerns the people, so keeping the public up to date on whether or not the project is successful and possible impacts discovered is critical. Mike recommended sharing other studies done with Wolbachia mosquitoes with the public so that they can be better informed.

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6.7 Interview with Edward Makahiapo Cashman



Interviewer: Dane Maxwell

Interviewee: Makahiapo Cashman

Date: 2/8/2022

Location: via Zoom

Biography

Makahiapo Cashman is the director of Ka Papa Lo'i o Kānewai at UH Mānoa. Makahiapo was born and raised on O'ahu and shared that he spent a lot of time on Maui where his mom and grandparents are from. Makahiapo currently resides in Kāne'ohe.

Overview

Makahiapo Cashman provided information on various traditions, customs, and natural and cultural resources that exist nearby and within the project area.

General Discussion

Makahiapo considers Maui to be his second home as it is where his mother grew up and where he has spent a lot of his time since his youth. His association to the project area comes from these familial connections to the 'āina of Maui.

Cultural Resources

Makahiapo discussed water sources as a valuable cultural resource that is formed in the ma uka regions and trickles down to the lower regions. He shared that his 'ohana on Maui are fishermen and discussed how water from the upper regions connects to fishing practices. The beaches in Hana have upwelling of freshwater from ma uka and that informs the fishing practices of the area.

Makahiapo discussed the fishponds in the area, like Kūmaka, that have water sources connected to the ma uka forest regions. He shared that Kamehameha was known to work on the fishponds in the Hana area because they were so significant to the entire ahupua'a.

Traditions and Customs

Makahiapo was taught that the water that feeds Kūmaka fishpond is connected to Kiha, the mo'o, who was associated with the water sources in the area. Kūmaka and other fishponds in the area were also connected to the traditions of Kū'ula, the fishing god, and his son 'Ai'ai.

Inland of the fishpond is a freshwater pool fed from the ma uka regions that has become overgrown. Makahiapo shared that because the pool is mostly stagnant, mosquitoes frequent the near shore pool and when dengue fever was first reaching Maui they had infected mosquitoes in that area. The areas were cleared to mitigate the spread of dengue fever. Makahiapo emphasized how near shore pools and ponds are fed by the streams in the upper regions and the need for people to protect and maintain water sources ma uka to ma kai.

Makahiapo shared that the ma uka regions of Maui Hikina including Kīpahulu are areas where hunting and gathering is prevalent. People utilize the rich upper regions to gather materials for lei, pōhaku for walls and imu, and for hunting.

Makahiapo shares a mo'olelo about how Māui gives the birds their colors. Māui and a friend are in the forest listening to the birds sing, but only Māui, who is friends with the birds, can see them. His friend shares that where he comes from the birds are bright and colorful so you can see them. Māui decides to color each bird so now the 'i'iwi and other honeycreepers are vivid and colorful.

Impacts

Makahiapo had shared that the project area has a history of issues with mosquitoes infected with disease. He is skeptical of the fact that the Wolbachia mosquitoes are sterile and raised concerns about what that might do to the people they bite, the native plant life, and the water.

Makahiapo discussed how water sources in the Maui Hikina area connect to other islands through tides and currents, so he wonders if any impacts from the mosquitoes could spread to other islands like Hawai'i, Kaho'olawe, and Moloka'i. He expressed the need to share more research and information on these mosquitoes so people can better understand the project and possible impacts.

Mitigation Measures & Recommendations

Makahiapo is concerned about native bird populations and agrees that something needs to be done to prevent their death and extinction.

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7.0 Findings and *Ka Pa‘akai* Analysis

Based on the research and ethnographic data within this report this project is unlikely to adversely impact traditional or customary practices. Yet, it is clear that additional education and outreach is needed, particularly to the practitioner community. Hunters use the project area extensively, and they hunt for subsistence. This subsistence lifestyle provides critical protein and food resources to families in East Maui.

It has long been the law of the land that the State of Hawai‘i has an “obligation to protect the reasonable exercise of customary and traditionally exercised rights of Hawaiians to the extent feasible” *Public Access Shoreline Hawai‘i v. Hawai‘i County Planning Commission (“PASH”)* 79 Hawai‘i 425, 450 n. 43, 903 P.2d 1246, 1271 n. 43 (1995). In 2000, in the *Ka Pa‘akai* decision, the Court established a framework “to help ensure the enforcement of traditional and customary Native Hawaiian rights while reasonably accommodating competing private development interests.” 94 Hawai‘i 31, 35, 7 P.3d 1068, 1972 (2000). This analysis is used here to fulfill the goal of this CIA (**Section 1.4**).

Based on the guidelines set forth in *Ka Pa‘akai*, the Hawai‘i Supreme Court provided government agencies an analytical framework to ensure the protection and preservation of traditional and customary Native Hawaiian rights while reasonably accommodating competing private development, or other, interests. The Court has stated: “that in order to fulfill its duty to preserve and protect customary and traditional Native Hawaiian rights to the extent feasible, as required by Article XII, Section 7 of the Hawai‘i Constitution, an administrative agency must, at minimum, make specific findings of fact and conclusions of law as to the following:

- 1) The identification of valued cultural, historical, or natural resources in the project area, including the extent to which traditional and customary Native Hawaiian rights are exercised in the project area.
- 2) The extent to which those resources—including traditional and customary Native Hawaiian rights—will be affected or impaired by the proposed action; and
- 3) The feasible action, if any, to be taken to reasonably protect Native Hawaiian rights if they are found to exist. *Ka Pa‘akai*, 94, Hawaii at 47, 7 P.3d at 1084. Cited in *Matter of Contested Case Hearing Re Conservation District Use Application (CDUA) HA-3568 for the Thirty Meter Telescope at the Mauna Kea Science Reserve, Ka‘ohe Mauka, Hāmākua, Hawai‘i*, 143 Hawai‘i 379, 431 P.3d 752 (2018) (“*Mauna Kea II*”).

In order to complete a thorough CIA that complies with statutory and case law, it is necessary to fully consider information available from, and provided by, Native Hawaiian cultural practitioners and cultural descendants from the project area.

The *Ka Pa‘akai* analysis is largely a legal analysis, as the applicable tests are legal standards. Therefore, a strong analysis will be conducted by someone with sufficient legal training. Additionally, at the core of a thoughtful *Ka Pa‘akai* analysis is a comprehensive understanding of traditional and customary practices. In breaking down the Court’s tests, it is important to the different elements that contribute to each test.

The first test - “The identification of valued cultural, historical, or natural resources in the project area, including the extent to which traditional and customary Native Hawaiian rights are exercised in the project area” - actually consists of two separate elements. First, the simple identification and existence of valued cultural, historical, or natural resources. These resources are tangible in nature. They can include sacred places, culturally valuable plants, or a religious or historic site. This assessment sought to identify the extent of resources that may exist in the project area or adjacent areas.

As to this test, this assessment shows there are potentially resources within the project area, the primary of which is access to other cultural sites. Interviews indicate there are otherwise no current traditional cultural resources in the area that are used for traditional or customary practices, but based on the ethnographic data, practitioners may access mauka lands and the resources located there through the project area.

The second element of this first test is access. Access requires two things to occur. One is the existence of a resource. Whether a plant, an animal, a place, or site, the resource must exist in order a practitioner to access it. The second thing is physical access. This includes, but it is not limited to, the ability to physically access a plant, animal, site, or location associated with a particular practice. This can also include the traditional and customary route or path taken to access the resource. This can also include cultural protocols that existed in accessing a resource. These are often temporal, in that access protocols can be at a certain time of day or year. Makahiki would be a good example of a traditional custom that has specific cultural protocols associated with access. In the case of Makahiki, the custom takes place at a certain time of year.

Therefore, the first test under *Ka Pa‘akai* should include not only a listing of resources, but the identification of ways in which those resources are accessed and utilized in association with a traditional and customary practice.

Therefore, the second test - “The extent to which those resources—including traditional and customary Native Hawaiian rights—will be affected or impaired by the proposed action” - also looks at two separate elements. The first, does the proposed action and its alternatives have an adverse impact on the existence of resources? This would include the alteration, destruction, modification, or harm of sites, including biological resources, sacred places,

burial sites, etc. It also includes a loss of species. Any adverse impact or harm to resources is alone an affect or impairment caused by the proposed action.

Under this element, adverse impacts to historic sites or culturally utilized plants would all be identified adverse impacts. Under this same element, any indirect or cumulative effects would create an adverse impact under *Ka Pa‘akai* if those actions harmed resources.

In addition to this, any action that impacts traditional and customary access to resources, even if there is not direct adverse impact to the resource itself, would result in an affect or impairment resulting from the proposed action. Therefore, the limitations on access that could result from development or use of the project area could create an adverse impact under *Ka Pa‘akai*.

There was concern expressed by informants that the project could potentially and adversely impact native flora and fauna. This is why the recommended education and outreach to the East Maui community, particularly hunters and other practitioners is critical. If the project and concerns about the use of this biocontrol discourage practitioners from conducting their traditional or customary practices, it would be an adverse effect to these cultural activities.

The third part of the *Ka Pa‘akai* framework aims to identify “[t]he feasible action, if any, to be taken to reasonably protect Native Hawaiian rights if they are found to exist.” Determining whether or not action has been suitably “feasible” is a matter for the State. These feasible actions could include continued access to the project as needed to conduct cultural practices.

Extensive education and outreach would make this third step unnecessary, as it would resolve the concerns of practitioners and help to avoid any potential impacts to traditional or customary practices.

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Appendix I: Glossary of Hawaiian Terms

The following list of terms were used frequently throughout this report. All definitions were compiled using Pukui and Elbert's *Hawaiian Dictionary* (1986).

Ahupua'a	Land division usually extending from the uplands to the sea, so called because the boundary was marked by a heap (ahu) of stones surmounted by an image of a pig (pua'a), or because a pig or other tribute was laid on the altar as tax to the chief.
'Āina	Land, earth. <i>Lit.</i> That which feeds.
Akua	1. God, goddess, spirit, ghost. 2. Divine, supernatural, godly.
Ala	Path, road, trail.
Ali'i	1. Chief, chiefess, ruler, monarch. 2. Royal, regal. 3. To act as chief, reign.
'Aumakua	Family or personal gods, deified ancestors who might assume the shape of sharks, owls, hawks, dogs, plants, etc. A symbiotic relationship existed; mortals did not harm or eat them, and the 'aumakua warned or reprimanded mortals in dreams, visions, and calls.
'Aumākua	Plural of 'aumakua.
'Auwai	Irrigation ditch, canal, waterway.
Hālau	1. Long house, as for canoes or hula instruction; meeting house. 2. Large, numerous; much.
Hale pili	House thatched with pili grass.
Heiau	Pre-Christian place of worship, shrine. Some heiau were elaborately constructed stone platforms, other simple earth terraces.
Ho'i	1. To leave, go or come back; to cause to come back. 2. To enter, as an institution or last resting place. 3. A parting chant to which hula dancers dance as they leave the audience. 4. Marriage of a chief with the daughter of a brother or sister; to do so (a means of increasing offspring).
Hula	A Hawaiian dance form accompanied by chant or song.
'Ili	Land section, next in importance to ahupua'a and usually a subdivision of an ahupua'a.
'Ili kū	Shorted form of 'ili kūpono.
'Ili kūpono	A nearly independent 'ili land division within an ahupua'a, paying tribute to the ruling chief and not to the chief of the ahupua'a. Transfer of the ahupua'a from one chief to another did not include the 'ili kūpono located within its boundaries. Sometimes shorted to 'ili kū.

Kanaka	Human being, person, individual, party, humankind, population; often used for man.
Kānaka	Plural of kanaka.
Kāne	Male, husband, male sweetheart, man; brother-in-law of a woman.
Kanikau	1. Dirge, lamentation, chant of mourning, lament. 2. To chant, wail, mourn.
Kapu	1. Taboo, prohibition. 2. Special privilege or exemption from ordinary taboo. 3. Sacredness, prohibited, forbidden, sacred, holy, consecrated. 4. No trespassing, keep out.
Kuleana	Right, privilege, concern, responsibility, title, business, property, estate, portion, jurisdiction, authority, liability, interest, claim, ownership, tenure, affair, province.
Kupuna	Grandparent, ancestor, relative or close friend of the grandparent's generation, grandaunt, granduncle.
Kūpuna	Plural of kupuna.
Limu	A general name for all kinds of plants living under water, both fresh and salt, also algae growing in any damp place in the air, as on the ground, on rocks, and on other plants; also mosses, liverworts, lichens.
Lo'i	Irrigated terrace, especially for taro, but also for rice and paddy.
Loko i'a	Traditional Hawaiian fishpond.
Makai	On the seaside, toward the sea, in the direction of the sea.
Mālama	To take care of, tend, attend, care for, preserve, protect, beware, save, maintain.
Mauka	Inland, upland, towards the mountain.
Mele	1. Song, anthem, or chant of any kind. 2. Poem, poetry. 3. To sing, chant.
Mele māka'ika'i	Travel chant.
Mō'i	King, sovereign, monarch, majesty, ruler, queen.
Moku	1. District, island, islet, section, forest, grove, clump, fragment. 2. To be cut, severed, amputated, broken in two.
Mo'o	Lizard, reptile of any kind, dragon, serpent.
Mo'olelo	Story, tale, myth, history, tradition, literature, legend, journal, log, yard, fable, essay, chronicle, record, article.
Mo'owahine	Female lizard deity.
Nī'aupi'o	Offspring of the marriage of a high-born brother and sister, or half-brother and half-sister.
'Ōlelo no'eau	Proverb, wise saying, traditional saying.
Oli	Chant that was not danced to, especially with prolonged phrases chanted in one breath, often with a trill at the end of each phrase; to chant thus.

References

Pi'o	Marriage of full brother and sister of nī'aupi'o rank, presumably the highest possible rank. Their offspring had the rank of naha, which is less than pi'o but probably more than nī'aupi'o. Later pi'o included marriage with half-sibling.
Pueo	Hawaiian short-eared owl (<i>Asio flammeus sandwichensis</i>), regarded often as a benevolent 'aumakua.
'Ūniki	Graduation exercises, as for hula, lua fighting, and other ancient arts (probably related to niki, to tie, as the knowledge was bound to the student).
Wahi pana	A legendary place; a place made special celebrated in stories associated with it. Often sacred.
Wahine	Woman, lady, wife; sister-in-law, female cousin-in-law of a man, female.
Wao	1. Realm. 2. A general term for inland region usually forested but not precipitous and often uninhabited.

**APPENDIX D:
USFWS Mitigation Measures and Biosecurity Protocols**

Avoidance, Minimization, and Conservation Measures for listed plants in the Pacific Islands

Revised September 2020

Project activities may affect listed plant species by causing physical damage to plant parts (roots, stems, flowers, fruits, seeds, etc.) as well as impacts to other life requisite features of their habitat which may result in reduction of germination, growth and/or reproduction. Cutting and removal of vegetation surrounding listed plants has the potential to alter microsite conditions (e.g., light, moisture, temperature), damaging or destroying the listed plants and also increasing the risk of invasion by nonnative plants which can result in higher incidence or intensity of fire. Activities such as grazing, use of construction equipment and vehicles, and increased human traffic (i.e. trails, visitation, monitoring), can cause ground disturbance, erosion, and/or soil compaction which decrease absorption of water and nutrients and damage plant root systems and may result in reduced growth and/or mortality of listed plants. Soil disturbance or removal has the potential to negatively impact the soil seed bank of listed plant species if such species are present or historically occurred in the project area.

In order to avoid or minimize potential adverse effects to listed plants that may occur on the proposed project site, we recommend minimizing disturbance outside of existing developed or otherwise modified areas. When disturbance outside existing developed or modified sites is proposed, conduct a botanical survey for listed plant species within the project action area, defined as the area where direct and indirect effects are likely to occur. Surveys should be conducted by a knowledgeable botanist with documented experience in identifying native Hawaiian and Pacific Islands plants, including listed plant species. Botanical surveys should optimally be conducted during the wettest part of the year (typically October to April) when plants and identifying features are more likely to be visible, especially in drier areas. If surveys are conducted outside of the wet season, the Service may assume plant presence.

The boundary of the area occupied by listed plants should be marked with flagging by the surveyor. To avoid or minimize potential adverse effects to listed plants, we recommend adherence to buffer distances for the activities in the **Table below**. Where disturbed areas do not need to be maintained as an open area, restore disturbed areas using native plants as appropriate for the location. Whenever possible we recommend using native plants for landscaping purposes. The following websites are good resources to use when choosing landscaping plants: Landscape Industry Council of Hawai'i Native Plant Poster (<http://hawaiiscape.wpengine.com/publications/>), Native Hawaiian Plants for Landscaping, Conservation, and Reforestation

(<https://www.ctahr.hawaii.edu/oc/freepubs/pdf/of-30.pdf>), and Best Native Plants for Landscapes (<https://www.ctahr.hawaii.edu/oc/freepubs/pdf/OF-40.pdf>).

If listed plants occur in a project area, the avoidance buffers are recommended to reduce direct and indirect impacts to listed plants from project activities. However, where project activities will occur within the recommended buffer distances, additional consultation is required. The impacts to the plants of concern within the buffer area may be reduced by placing temporary fencing or other barriers at the boundary of the disturbance, as far from the affected plants as practicable.

The above guidelines apply to areas outside of designated critical habitat. If project activities occur within designated critical habitat unit boundaries, additional consultation is required.

All activities, including site surveys, risk introducing nonnative species into project areas. Specific attention needs to be made to ensure that all equipment, personnel and supplies are properly checked and are free of contamination (weed seeds, organic matter, or other contaminants) before entering project areas. Quarantines and or management activities occurring on specific priority invasive species proximal to project areas need to be considered or adequately addressed. This information can be acquired by contacting local experts such as those on local invasive species committees (Kauai: <https://www.kauaiisc.org/>; Oahu: <https://www.oahuisc.org/>; Maui Nui: <https://mauiinvasive.org/>; and Hawaii: <https://www.biisc.org/>

Table 1. Recommended buffer distances to minimize and avoid potential adverse impacts to listed plants from activities listed below.

Action	Buffer Distance (feet (meters)) - Keep Project Activity This Far Away from Listed Plant	
	Grasses/Herbs/Shrubs and Terrestrial Orchids	Trees and Arboreal Orchids
Walking, hiking, surveys	3 ft (1 m)	3 ft (1 m)
Cutting and Removing Vegetation By Hand or Hand Tools (e.g., weeding)	3 ft (1 m)	3 ft (1 m)
Mechanical Removal of Individual Plants or Woody Vegetation (e.g., chainsaw, weed eater)	3 ft up to height of removed vegetation (whichever greater)	3 ft up to height of removed vegetation (whichever greater)

Removal of Vegetation with Heavy Equipment (e.g., bulldozer, tractor, "bush hog")		2x width equipment + height of vegetation	820 ft (250 m)
Use of Approved Herbicides (following label)	Ground-based Spray Application; hand application (no wand applicator; spot treatment)	10 ft (3 m)	Crown diameter
	Ground-based Spray Application; manual pump with wand, backpack	50 ft (15 m)	Crown diameter
	Ground-based Spray Application; vehicle-mounted tank sprayer	50 ft (15 m)	Crown diameter
	Aerial Spray (ball applicator)	250 ft (76 m)	250 ft (76 m)
	Aerial Application – herbicide ballistic technology (individual plant treatment)	100 ft (30 m)	Crown diameter
	Aerial Spray (boom)	Further consultation required	Further consultation required
Use of Insecticides (pollinators, seed dispersers)		Further consultation required	Further consultation required
Ground/Soil Disturbance/Outplanting/Fencing (Hand tools, e.g. shovel, `õ`õ; Small mechanized tools, e.g., auger)		20 ft (6 m)	2x crown diameter
Ground/Soil Disturbance (Heavy Equipment)		328 ft (100 m)	820 ft (250 m)
Surface Hardening/Soil compaction	Trails (e.g., human, ungulates)	20 ft (6 m)	2x crown diameter
	Roads/Utility Corridors, Buildings/Structures	328 ft (100 m)	820 ft (250 m)
Prescribed Burns		Further consultation required	Further consultation required
Farming/Ranching/Silviculture		820 ft (250 m)	820 ft (250 m)

Definitions (Wagner *et al.* 1999)

Crown: The leafy top of a tree.

Herb: A plant, either annual, biennial, or perennial, with the non-woody stems dying back to the ground at the end of the growing season.

Shrub: A perennial woody plant with usually several to numerous primary stems arising from or relatively near the ground.

Tree: A woody perennial that usually has a single trunk

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PIFWO Invasive Species Biosecurity Protocols

Do not include red text in letters! This is only background information for biologists.

(Updated February 2022)

NOTES FOR BIOLOGISTS: This biosecurity protocol should be incorporated when project activities occur within any area containing predominantly native habitat including but not limited to National Parks, National Wildlife Refuges, and State of Hawai‘i “Natural Areas” (e.g., Natural Area Reserves, State Forest Reserves, etc.). Activities involving transportation of a substantial amount (as determined by your discretion) of materials (i.e., construction materials or aggregate, etc.), vehicles, machinery, equipment, or personnel between sites should also incorporate the protocols. Additional consultation is recommended if the project involves transportation of materials, equipment, vehicles, etc. between islands or transpacific movement. Additionally, check to see if any species-specific protocols (see below) are applicable to your project. Please feel free to reach out to Ryan or Mike with the invasive species team if you have any questions or concerns.

Project activities may introduce or spread invasive species, causing negative ecological consequences to new areas or islands, resulting in potential impacts to fish, wildlife, and their habitat. For example, seeds of invasive plant species (e.g., *Chromolaena odorata*, *Senecio madagascariensis*, *Cyathea cooperi*, or *Miconia calvescens*) can be inadvertently transported on equipment from a previous work site to a new site where the species are not present. Likewise, equipment used in an area infected with a pathogen or insect pest that can have ecological consequences (e.g., rapid ‘ōhi‘a death (*Ceratocystis spp.*), black twig borer (*Xylosandrus compactus*), or naio thrips (*Klambothrips myopori*), if not properly decontaminated, can act as a vector to introduce the pathogen into a new area. Additionally, vehicles must be properly inspected and cleaned to ensure vertebrate or invertebrate pests do not stowaway and spread to other areas. These are just a few examples of how even well-intended project activities may inadvertently introduce or spread invasive species.

To avoid and minimize invasive species potential impacts to fish, wildlife, and their habitat we recommend incorporating general biosecurity protocols into your project planning (**reference general invasive species biosecurity protocol below or provide link to website here**). Additionally, your project occurs in a geographic area and/or involves activities that risk spreading the following specific invasive species: **[add species common and scientific names here]**. Therefore, we recommend including additional protocols specific to those invasive species (**reference relevant species-specific biosecurity protocol(s) below or provide link to website here**) **[NOTE: if no additional species are applicable, remove the previous two sentences]**. Additional consultation is recommended if project activities involve transportation of materials, equipment, vehicles, etc. between islands or transpacific movement of materials or equipment.

Invasive Species Biosecurity Protocol

NOTE: Please review the protocol to ensure you are only including measures applicable to your project. Pay close attention to the “Additional Considerations” section, as some (or all) may not be applicable.

The following biosecurity protocol is recommended to be incorporated into planning for your project to avoid or minimize transportation of invasive species with potential to impact to fish, wildlife, and their habitat. Cleaning, treatment, and/or inspection activities are the responsibility of the equipment or vehicle owner and operator. However, it is ultimately the responsibility of the action agency to ensure that all project materials, vehicles, machinery, equipment, and personnel are free of invasive species before entry into a project site. Please refer to the resources listed below for current removal/treatment recommendations that may be relevant to your project.

1. Cleaning and treatment:

Project applicants should assume that all project materials (i.e., construction materials, or aggregate such as dirt, sand, gravel, etc.), vehicles, machinery, and equipment contain dirt and mud, debris, plant seeds, and other invasive species, and therefore require thorough cleaning. Treatment for specific pests, for example, trapping and poison baiting for rodents, or baiting and fumigation for insects, should be considered when applicable. For effective cleaning we offer the following recommendations prior to entry into a project site:

- a. Project materials, vehicles, machinery, and equipment must be pressure washed thoroughly (preferably with hot water) in a designated cleaning area. Project materials, vehicles, machinery, and equipment should be visibly free of mud/dirt (excluding aggregate), seeds, plant debris, insects, spiders, frogs (including frog eggs), other vertebrate species (e.g., rodents, mongoose, feral cats, reptiles, etc.), and rubbish. Areas of particular concern include bumpers, grills, hood compartments, wheel wells, undercarriage, cabs, and truck beds. Truck beds with accumulated material are prime sites for hitchhiking invasive species.
- b. The interior and exterior of vehicles, machinery, and equipment must be free of rubbish and food, which can attract pests (i.e., rodents and insects). The interiors of vehicles and the cabs of machinery should be vacuumed clean particularly for any plant material or seeds.

2. Inspection:

- a. Following cleaning and/or treatment, project materials, vehicles, machinery, and equipment, must be visually inspected by its user, and be free of mud/dirt (excluding aggregate), debris, and invasive species prior to entry into a project site. For example, careful visual inspection of a vehicle’s tires and undercarriage is recommended for any remaining mud that could contain invasive plant seeds.
- b. Any project materials, vehicles, machinery, or equipment found to contain invasive species (e.g., plant seeds, invertebrates, rodents, mongoose, cats, reptiles, etc.) must not enter the project site until those invasive species are properly removed/treated.

3. For all project site personnel:
 - a. Prior to entry into the project site, visually inspect and clean your clothes, boots or other footwear, backpack, radio harness, tools and other personal gear and equipment for insects, seeds, soil, plant parts, or other debris. We recommend the use of a cleaning brush with sturdy bristles. Seeds found on clothing, footwear, backpacks, etc., should be placed in a secure bag or similar container and discarded in the trash rather than being dropped to ground at the project site or elsewhere.

4. Additional considerations (if applicable):
 - a. Consider implementing a Hazard Analysis and Critical Control Point (HACCP) plan (<https://www.fws.gov/policy/A1750fw1.html>) to improve project planning around reducing the risk of introducing or spreading invasive species.
 - b. When applicable, use pest-free or low-risk sources of plants, mulch, wood, animal feed or other materials to be transported to a project site.
 - c. For projects involving plants from nurseries (e.g., outplanting activities, etc.), all plants should be inspected, and if necessary, appropriately cleaned or treated for invasive species prior to being transported to the project site.
 - d. Avoid unnecessary exposure to invasive species at a particular site (to the extent practical) to reduce contamination and spread. For example, if your project involves people or equipment moving between multiple locations, plan and organize timelines so that work is completed in native habitat prior to working in a disturbed location to reduce the likelihood of introducing a pest into the native habitat.
 - e. Maintain good communication about invasive species risks between project managers and personnel working on the project site (e.g., conduct briefings and training about invasive species). Ensure prevention measures are communicated to the entire project team. Also consider adding language on biosecurity into contracts or permitting mechanisms to provide clarity to all involved in the project. Report any species of concern or possible introduction of invasive species to appropriate land managers.

For current removal/treatment recommendations please refer to the following:

Hawaiian Islands:

- Hawai‘i Island – <https://www.biisc.org/>
- Maui – <https://mauiinvasive.org/>
- Moloka‘i - <https://www.molokaiisc.org/>
- Lāna‘i - <https://pulamalanai.com/>
- O‘ahu – <https://www.oahuisc.org/>
- Kaua‘i – <https://www.kauaiisc.org/>

Mariana Islands:

- Guam – <https://biosecurity.guam.gov/>
- CNMI – <http://www.dfwcnmi.com/>

Species-Specific Biosecurity Protocols

NOTE: The following section contains specific protocols for a few select invasive species of concern in the Pacific Islands highlighted because of their potential to easily spread and cause great harm to native species and habitats. Other invasive species may not have existing specific protocols or may already be minimized by implementing the general invasive species protocols above (e.g., invasive plants, invertebrates, larger vertebrates). Information on other invasive species can be found here (link to PIFWO website). As new threats emerge that require development of species-specific protocols, those may be added to this list.

Table 1. Current island distribution of invasive species with specific biosecurity protocols in the Pacific Islands (PIFWO jurisdiction).

Island	Invasive Species with Specific Protocols			
	Rapid ‘Ōhi‘a Death	Little Fire Ant	Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle	Brown Treesnake
Island of Hawai‘i	widespread	widespread	not present	not present
Mauī	not present	incipient	not present	not present
O‘ahu	incipient	incipient	widespread	not present
Kaua‘i	widespread	not present	not present	not present
Guam	NA	widespread	widespread	widespread
CNMI	NA	not present	Rota only	not present
American Samoa	NA	incipient	widespread	not present

Rapid ‘Ōhi‘a Death (ROD)

NOTE: Include for projects occurring in any native habitat where ‘ōhi‘a is present, on islands where ROD is currently found. If working directly with ‘ōhi‘a trees (e.g., sampling suspected trees, clearing an area of ‘ōhi‘a, etc.) or in an area(s) known to be highly infested with ROD, additional consultation is recommended.

- Current Distribution of ROD: island of Hawai‘i, O‘ahu, Kaua‘i

Rapid ‘Ōhi‘a Death (ROD) is caused by a fungal pathogen (*Ceratocystis* spp.) that attacks and kills ‘ōhi‘a trees (*Metrosideros polymorpha*). ‘Ōhi‘a is endemic to the Hawaiian Islands and is the most abundant native tree species, comprising approximately 80 percent of Hawai‘i’s remaining native forests.

For more information about ROD including its current distribution, ROD science updates, and the latest on ROD protocol, please visit www.rapidohiadeath.org.

To reduce the risk of spreading ROD, the following best management practices and decontamination protocol are recommended:

Best Management Practices for ROD

1. Never transport any part of an ‘ōhi‘a tree between different areas of an island or to a different island.

2. Do not use equipment from ROD infected islands on another island unless it is very specialized equipment and follows the decontamination protocol described below.
3. Avoid wounding 'ōhi'a trees and roots with mowers, chainsaws, weed eaters, and other tools. If an 'ōhi'a receives a minor injury like a small broken branch, then give the injury a clean, pruning-type cut (close to the main part of the trunk or branch) to promote healing, and then spray the entire wounded area with a pruning seal.
4. Always report suspect ROD 'ōhi'a trees observed within your project area. ROD is a wilt disease that cuts off the supply of water and nutrients to the tree. The primary symptom to look for is an entire canopy or a large branch with dying leaves or red discolored leaves. Please record the GPS coordinates and location and take a picture of the tree if possible. Please report suspected ROD 'ōhi'a trees to the following agencies:
 - a. Island of Hawai'i – BIISC: 808-969-8268 (ohialove@hawaii.edu)
 - b. Maui – MISC: 808-573-6472 (miscpr@hawaii.edu)
 - c. Moloka'i – TNC: 808-553-5236 ext. 6585 (lbuchanan@tnc.org)
 - d. O'ahu – OISC: 808-266-7994 (oisc@hawaii.edu)
 - e. Kaua'i – KISC: 808-821-1490 (kisc@hawaii.edu)

ROD Decontamination Protocol

1. Clothes, footwear, backpacks, and other personal equipment
 - a. Before leaving the project site, remove as much mud and other contaminants as possible. Use of a brush with soap and water to clean gear is preferred. Footwear, backpacks, and other gear must be sanitized by spraying with a solution of >70 percent isopropyl alcohol or a freshly mixed 10 percent bleach solution.
2. Vehicles, machinery, and other equipment
 - a. Vehicles, machinery, and other equipment must be thoroughly hosed down with water (pressure washing preferred) and visibly free of mud and debris, then sprayed with a solution of >70 percent isopropyl alcohol or a freshly mixed 10 percent bleach solution. Use of a "pump-pot" sprayer is recommended for the solution and a hot water wash is preferred. Be sure to thoroughly clean the undercarriage, truck bed, bumpers, and wheel wells.
 - b. If non-decontaminated personnel or items enter a vehicle, then the inside of the vehicle (i.e., floor mats, etc.) must be subsequently decontaminated by removing mud and other contaminants and sprayed with the one of the same aforementioned sanitizing solutions.
3. Cutting tools
 - a. All cutting tools, including machetes, chainsaws, and loppers must be sanitized to remove visible mud and other contaminants. Tools must be sanitized using a solution of >70 percent isopropyl alcohol or a freshly mixed 10 percent bleach solution. One minute after sanitizing, one may apply an oil-based lubricant to chainsaw chains or other metallic parts to prevent corrosion as bleach is corrosive to metal.

NOTE: When using a 10 percent bleach solution, surfaces should be cleaned with a minimum contact time of 30 seconds. Bleach must be mixed daily and used within 24 hours, as once mixed it degrades. Bleach will not work to disinfect surfaces that have high levels of organic matter such as sawdust or soil. Because bleach is also corrosive to metal, a water rinse after proper sanitization is recommended to avoid corrosion.

Little Fire Ant (LFA)

NOTE: Include the following information for projects that occur in native habitat on islands where LFA is currently recorded and in areas known to be infested with LFA (check <http://stoptheant.org/lfa-in-hawaii/> for status on each island). If other ant species (i.e., yellow crazy ants) may be a concern for your project, please contact the invasive species team.

- **Current Distribution of LFA: Island-wide on Guam and island of Hawai‘i; incipient infestation sites on Maui, O‘ahu, and American Samoa; CNMI is also vulnerable and projects there should require that project-related materials, equipment, and vehicles be checked before shipping to the CNMI from Guam and prior to use.**

The little fire ant (*Wasmannia auropunctata*), or LFA, is an invasive species with a painful sting that can inhabit many different environments. In Hawai‘i, it often infests agricultural fields and farms, damaging crops and stinging unsuspecting workers. Little fire ants are also highly disruptive to native tropical ecosystems and harmful to wildlife. Slow moving, but tiny and capable of foraging 24 hours a day with multiple queens per colony, LFA is a formidable threat to biodiversity, agriculture, and quality of life on tropical islands in the Pacific.

For more information about LFA including helpful guides and workshops for treating or detecting LFA, please visit www.littlefireants.com.

To reduce the risk of spreading LFA, the following biosecurity protocol is recommended:

Biosecurity Protocol for LFA

1. For projects involving plants from nurseries (e.g., outplanting activities, etc.), all plants should be inspected for little fire ants and other pests prior to being transported to the project site. If plants are found to be infested by ants of any species, plants should be sourced from an alternative nursery and the infested nursery should follow treatment protocols recommended by the Hawai‘i Ant Lab (<https://littlefireants.com/wp-content/uploads/2020-Management-of-Pest-Ants-in-Nurseries-min.pdf>).
2. All work vehicles, machinery, and equipment should follow steps 1 and 2 in the “Invasive Species Biosecurity Protocol” for (1) cleaning and treatment and (2) inspection for invasive ants prior to entering a project site.
3. Any machinery, vehicles, equipment, or other supplies found to be infested with ants (or other invasive species) must not enter the project site until it is properly treated

(<https://littlefireants.com/how-to-treat-for-little-fire-ants-for-homeowners/#recommended-bait-products>) and re-tested. Infested vehicles must be treated following recommendations by the Hawai'i Ant Lab (<https://littlefireants.com/resource-center/>) or another ant control expert and in accordance with all State and Federal laws. Treatment is the responsibility of the equipment or vehicle owner. Ultimately however, it is the responsibility of the action agency to ensure that all project materials, vehicles, machinery, and equipment follow the appropriate protocol(s).

4. General Vehicle Ant Hygiene: Even the cleanest vehicle can pick up and spread little fire ant. Place MaxForce Complete Brand Granular Insect Bait (1.0 percent Hydramethylnon; https://labelsds.com/images/user_uploads/Maxforce%20Complete%20Label%201-5-18.pdf) into refillable tamper resistant bait stations. An example of a commercially available refillable tamper resistant bait station is the Ant Café Pro (<https://www.antcafe.com/>). Place a bait station (or stations) in the vehicle and note that larger vehicles, such as trucks, may require multiple stations. Monitor bait stations frequently (every week at a minimum) and replace bait as needed. If the bait station does not have a sticker to identify the contents, apply a sticker listing contents to the station.
5. Gravel, building materials, or other equipment such as portable buildings should be baited using MaxForce Complete Brand Granular Insect Bait (1.0 percent Hydramethylnon; https://labelsds.com/images/user_uploads/Maxforce%20Complete%20Label%201-5-18.pdf) or AmdroPro (0.73 percent Hydramethylnon; <https://connpest.com/labels/AMDROPRO.pdf>) following label guidance.
6. Storage areas that hold field tools, especially tents, tarps, and clothing should be baited using MaxForce Complete Brand Granular Insect Bait (1.0 percent Hydramethylnon; https://labelsds.com/images/user_uploads/Maxforce%20Complete%20Label%201-5-18.pdf) or AmdroPro (0.73 percent Hydramethylnon; <https://connpest.com/labels/AMDROPRO.pdf>) following label guidance.
7. Vehicles that have entered a project site known or thought to overlap with areas infested with LFA should subsequently be tested for LFA with baiting in accordance with protocol recommended by the Hawai'i Ant Lab (<https://littlefireants.com/survey-your-home-for-lfa/>).
8. If LFA are detected, please report it to 808-643-PEST (Hawai'i), 671-475-PEST (Guam), or 684-699-1575 (American Samoa). Please visit <https://littlefireants.com/identification-of-little-fire-ants/> for assistance in identifying LFA.

Coconut Rhinoceros Beetle (CRB)

NOTE: Include for projects that involve movement or creation of green waste and occur on islands where CRB is currently found. Only include the biosecurity protocol pertaining to the

geographic area of the project (O‘ahu or Marianas). For projects in American Samoa contact the invasive species team.

- **Current Distribution of CRB: O‘ahu, Guam, Rota, and American Samoa**

The coconut rhinoceros beetle (*Oryctes rhinoceros*), or CRB, is a large, horned scarab beetle native to Southeast Asia. An invasive pest where it occurs outside of its native range, the adult beetles primarily attack coconut palms by boring into the crowns to feed on developing leaves. It is also known to feed on bananas, sugarcane, pineapples, oil palms, and pandanus trees. The larval grub stage burrow into and feed upon decomposing mulch and vegetation. On most Pacific Islands it lacks natural predators, leading to severe declines and extirpations of palm species where it has become established. On Guam, researchers have recently documented a shift of CRB to the island’s native and threatened cycad tree (*Cycas micronesica*) (Marler et al. 2020). In the Hawaiian Islands, CRB is a documented threat to archipelago’s native *Pritchardia* palm species.

For more information about CRB including the current situation in Guam and high/low-risk areas on O‘ahu, please visit <http://cnas-re.uog.edu/crb/> or <https://www.crbhawaii.org/>.

To reduce the risk of spreading CRB, the following biosecurity protocol is recommended:

Biosecurity Protocol for CRB (O‘ahu)

1. Never transport green waste between islands and minimize the creation, storage, and transport of green waste within O‘ahu, this also includes:
 - a. Mulch, bark, compost
 - b. Soil of any kind
 - c. Potted plants of any kindAdditional consultation is recommended if the project involves transportation of materials, soil, equipment, vehicles, etc. between islands.
2. If felling or trimming palms, contact CRB Response for a free inspection ((808) 679-5244 or email at info@crbhawaii.org)
3. Keep green waste whole until it is ready to be treated and removed.
 - a. Chip green waste on site and transport it on the same day to a secure and managed green waste disposal site/facility.
 - b. For chipped green waste in high-risk areas, re-chip prior to movement outside the infested area, treat with pesticide (when applicable), heat treatment (>130 degrees F), spread and dry, or store in sealed durable containers.
4. Minimize accumulations of green waste by regularly treating mulch piles or depositing it in sealed green waste bins. In low-risk areas, we also recommend thinly spreading mulch (less than 2 inches deep) and allowing it to dry (no irrigation).

5. If injured or dying coconut palm trees are observed or if CRB are detected, contact CRB Response at (808) 679-5244 or email at info@crbhawaii.org or online at <https://www.crbhawaii.org/report>

Biosecurity Protocol for CRB (Marianas)

1. Never transport green waste between islands in the Marianas, this also includes:
 - a. Mulch, bark, compost
 - b. Soil of any kind
 - c. Potted plants of any kindAdditional consultation is recommended if the project involves transportation of materials, equipment, vehicles, etc. between islands.
2. Designate secure and managed green waste disposal sites to reduce the number of potential oviposition (laying of eggs) sites and larval food.
3. Green waste disposal sites should be monitored with CRB traps. The following control measures should be utilized at green waste sites.
 - a. Netting - A gill net with a 1 inch mesh measured knot to knot, made from 0.25 mm nylon monofilament, should be laid over piles of green waste such as palm tree cuttings or decaying organic matter. The netting is helpful for trapping adult beetles emerging from the mulch.
 - b. If the green waste site is found within or adjacent to chain link fencing, we recommend use of the DeFence trap. These are simply constructed with a 12 ft piece of tekken netting, folded in half, and secured onto a fence line using zip ties. In the middle of the net, attach a solar powered uvLED light, and a CRB pheromone lure protected in a red Solo cup. This trap design is currently among the most effective methods because it does not require many materials and uses the least amount of space on the property.
 - i. For more information on trapping methods, please visit <https://cnas-re.uog.edu/wp-content/uploads/2015/09/CRB-Trapping.pdf>
4. If CRB are detected contact CNMI Forestry at (670) 256-3321 or Department of Lands and Natural Resources at (670) 322-9834 or Guam's Department of Agriculture Biosecurity Division (671) 477-7822 or email at guament@teleguam.net.

Brown Treesnake (BTS)

NOTE: Required for project activities that involve cargo, baggage, materials, etc. shipped from or through Guam prior to departure and upon arrival to the CNMI.

The Brown Treesnake (*Boiga irregularis*), or BTS, was accidentally introduced to Guam likely as a stowaway in military cargo shortly after WWII. On Guam, BTS has caused the extinction or extirpation of many native and endemic species of birds and lizards. The loss of native species has furthermore triggered cascading ecological impacts affecting Guam forest regeneration and ecology (Rogers et al. 2017). Preventing the spread of BTS from Guam to other Pacific Islands is the primary goal of the BTS Technical Working Group (TWG) formed by the 2004 BTS Control

and Eradication Act. The BTS TWG developed a BTS interdiction program with the goal of 100-percent inspections of outbound cargo using canine inspection teams.

For more information about BTS including links to partnerships and ongoing research, please visit: <https://www.fws.gov/pacificislands/articles.cfm?id=%20149489576>

The USDA Wildlife Services are responsible for interdiction on Guam and collaborates with the Department of Defense, the Government of Guam, and private industry to remove snakes from outbound aircraft, sea vessels, and cargo. In the CNMI, the Department of Fish and Wildlife conducts redundant canine or visual inspections of inbound air/seacraft and cargo.

The following protocol is required for project activities that involve cargo, baggage, materials, etc. shipped from or through Guam prior to departure and upon arrival to the CNMI:

BTS Inspection Instructions for Guam and the CNMI:

1. Schedule cargo, aircraft, vehicle, and vessel inspections on Guam with the US Department of Agriculture (USDA) Wildlife Services (WS) for any and all vessels, vehicles, aircraft, and cargo that has been stationed or staged on Guam (for contact info, see Contact list on page 2). Inspections are available 24/7.
 - a. All cargo staged on Guam must be inspected before transport to other Pacific Islands.
 - b. Examples of cargo include vehicles, pallets of goods, loose boxes, containers filled with goods, bundles of construction materials (rolls of metal sheeting, stacks of plywood/boards, PVC pipes, or any material that provides an abundance of small, dark crevices).
2. Before your Guam-outbound cargo arrives on Saipan, Tinian, or Rota, schedule cargo inspections by Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands (CNMI) Department of Fish and Wildlife (DFW).
 - a. Rota – contact Jon Mesgnon (670-287-7683) and Manny Pangelinan (670-483-6261)
 - b. Tinian – contact Ton Castro (670-287-9453) and Manny Pangelinan (670-483-6261)
 - c. Saipan – contact Joe Cruz (670-285-7877) and Manny Pangelinan (670-483-6261)
3. If you see a snake while in cargo staging areas on Guam or anywhere on other islands:
 - a. Report it immediately. Take note of where you are, what the snake looked like, and any notable behaviors. Attempt to kill, apprehend, or injure the snake, and take photos if possible. Keep visual contact with the snake until BTS program personnel arrive.
 - b. To report a snake in the CNMI (e.g., Saipan, Tinian, Rota) call 670-28-SNAKE (670-287-6253)
 - c. To report a snake on any island to the BTS Rapid Response Team on Guam, call 671-777-HISS (671-777-4477)

- d. If the snake is killed, save the carcass, and give to a CNMI, USDA, FWS, or USGS representative.

References Cited

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United States Department of the Interior



FISH AND WILDLIFE SERVICE
Pacific Islands Fish and Wildlife Office
300 Ala Moana Boulevard, Room 3-122
Honolulu, Hawai'i 96850

In Reply Refer To:
01EPIF00-2022-SL-0122

January 20, 2022

Memorandum

To: Joy Tamayose, Wildlife Biologist, Haleakalā National Park

From: Lindsay Asman, Island Team Manager of Maui Nui and Hawai'i Islands, Pacific Islands Fish and Wildlife Office

Subject: Species List for the Suppression of Non-native Mosquito Populations to Reduce Transmission of Avian Malaria, Haleakalā National Park, Island and County of Maui

Dear Joy Tamayose:

The U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (Service) received your email request on December 7, 2021, for a species list and conservation measures to inform the development of an Environmental Assessment (EA) for the suppression of non-native mosquito populations at Haleakalā National Park (Park) and nearby conservation areas. The purpose of the project is to ameliorate the impacts of avian malaria on federally listed Hawaiian forest birds by suppressing or eliminating non-native mosquitoes by releasing incompatible *Wolbachia* bacteria-carrying male southern house mosquitoes within an approximately 262-square-kilometer (64,660-acre) project area on East Maui, Hawai'i. When male mosquitoes carrying an incompatible strain of naturally occurring *Wolbachia* bacteria and a wild female mate, the fertilized eggs will not hatch. This proposed technique can result in landscape-scale population suppression of mosquitoes, thereby suppressing avian malaria infection rates, and preventing the ongoing decline of native Hawaiian forest bird communities.

There are three potential methods of release depending on the available technology and other factors: helicopter-assisted pedestrian release, helicopter-assisted long line aerial release, and helicopter-assisted drone aerial release. These actions depend on Haleakalā National Park and State of Hawai'i statutory missions and responsibilities, environmental factors, existing travel infrastructure, and input from agency personnel, technical experts, and the public. Haleakalā

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AMERICAN SAMOA, GUAM, HAWAI'I, NORTHERN
MARIANA ISLANDS

National Park notes that potential impacts from increased noise and activities due to use of mechanical equipment and access to wilderness areas.

The Service acknowledges that this project is an extremely important recovery implementation project for Hawaiian forest birds. Addressing the spread of avian malaria is essential to the continued survival of these species (USFWS 2006, p. 57004). The Service is committed to assisting the National Park Service and the State of Hawai'i Department of Land and Natural Resources in their planning and implementation process. This letter, which contains a species list and recommended conservation measures, is intended to support the development of the EA, project planning, and future Section 7 consultation. Our comments are provided under the authorities of the Endangered Species Act of 1973 (ESA), as amended (16 U.S.C 1531 *et seq.*).

We have reviewed the information you provided and pertinent information in our files, including data compiled by the Hawai'i Biodiversity and Mapping Program as it pertains to listed species and designated critical habitat. Our data indicate the following federally listed species may occur or transit through the vicinity of the proposed project area: the threatened nēnē or Hawaiian goose (*Branta [Nesochen] sandvicensis*), the endangered 'i'iwi (*Drepanis coccinea*), the endangered 'ōpe'ape'a or Hawaiian hoary bat (*Lasiurus cinereus semotus*), the endangered 'ua'u or Hawaiian petrel (*Pterodroma sandwichensis*), the endangered 'akē'akē or the Hawai'i distinct population segment (DPS) of the band-rumped storm-petrel (*Oceanodroma castro*), the endangered 'ākohekohe (*Palmeria dolei*), the endangered kiwikiu or Maui parrotbill (*Pseudonestor xanthophrys*), the threatened 'a'o or Newell's shearwater (*Puffinus auricularis newelli*), the endangered Blackburn's sphinx moth (*Manduca blackburni*), and two endangered damselflies (*Megalagrion nesiotes* and *Megalagrion pacificum*). The Hawaiian petrel, band-rumped storm-petrel, and Newell's shearwater will hereafter collectively be referred to as "Hawaiian seabirds". The 'i'iwi, the Maui Parrotbill and the 'ākohekohe will hereafter collectively be referred to as "Hawaiian forest birds". There are approximately 60 federally listed plants within the action area; their recommended avoidance and minimization measures are in Table 1 and Table 2, respectively. There are 16 designated critical habitats for listed species within the project impact area (see enclosure).

Hawaiian goose

Hawaiian geese are found on the islands of Hawai'i, Maui, Moloka'i, and Kaua'i. They are observed in a variety of habitats, but prefer open areas, such as pastures, golf courses, wetlands, natural grasslands and shrublands, and lava flows. Threats to the species include introduced mammalian and avian predators, wind facilities, and vehicle strikes.

To avoid and minimize adverse effects to the nēnē we recommend you incorporate the following measures into your project description:

- Do not approach, feed, or disturb nēnē.
- If nēnē are observed loafing or foraging within the project area during the breeding season (September through April), have a biologist familiar with nēnē nesting behavior survey for nests in and around the project area prior to the resumption of any work. Repeat surveys after any subsequent delay of work of 3 or more days (during which the birds may attempt to nest).

- Cease all work immediately and contact the Service for further guidance if a nest is discovered within a radius of 150 feet (ft) of proposed project, or a previously undiscovered nest is found within the 150-foot radius after work begins.
- In areas where nēnē are known to be present, post and implement reduced speed limits, and inform project personnel and contractors about the presence of endangered species on-site.
- Avoid launching drones when a listed animal is observed in the project area. Recover drones by the safest means possible when a listed animal is observed in proximity to the drone during the mission.
- We recommend any reaction to a drone by a listed animal be reported immediately to the Pacific Islands Fish and Wildlife Office.

Hawaiian forest birds

The current ranges of Hawaiian forest birds are predominately restricted to montane forests above 3,500 ft in elevation due to habitat loss and threats at lower elevations. Hawaiian forest bird habitat has been lost due to development, agriculture, grazing, wildfire, and spread of invasive habitat-altering species. Forest birds are also affected by mosquito-borne diseases. Mosquitoes are not native to Hawai‘i; their occurrence increases in areas where ungulate presence results in small pools of standing water. Actions such as road construction and development increase human access and result in increased wildfire and invasive species threats. Grazing reduces woody vegetation and increases grass cover, which reduces forest habitat quality and increases risk of wildfire on the landscape.

Avoid conducting activities within forest bird habitat that:

- Promotes the spread or survival of invasive species.
- Increases mosquito populations or stagnant water habitat.
- Increases wildfire threat to montane forest habitats.
- Removes tree cover during the peak breeding season between January 1 and June 30.

Noise Levels

Drones and helicopters may produce far-projecting sound, which could disturb listed forest birds during their breeding season. Helicopter rotor wash can significantly disturb nesting forest birds when helicopters fly very low over the canopy. Therefore, we recommend that *Wolbachia* release be timed to occur outside the breeding season of Hawaiian forest birds. However, we understand that this may not be feasible due to overlapping breeding seasons of some of the species present. Therefore, where breeding seasons cannot be avoided, we recommend that drone operations occur only above tree height level and minimize hovering in one place to limit the likelihood that breeding birds will flush from active nests. We also recommend helicopters avoid flying low near forest bird habitats to avoid rotor wash and significantly disturbing nesting forest birds.

Hawaiian hoary bat

The Hawaiian hoary bat roosts in woody vegetation across all islands and will leave their young unattended in trees and shrubs when they forage. If trees or shrubs 15 ft or taller are cleared during the pupping season, June 1 through September 15, there is a risk that young bats could inadvertently be harmed or killed, since they are too young to fly or move away from

disturbance. Hawaiian hoary bats forage for insects from as low as 3 ft to higher than 500 ft above the ground.

To avoid and minimize impacts to the endangered Hawaiian hoary bat we recommend you incorporate the following applicable measures into your project description:

- Do not disturb, remove, or trim woody plants greater than 15 ft tall during the bat birthing and pup rearing season (June 1 through September 15).
- Do not use barbed wire for fencing.
- We recommend drone and helicopter flights be avoided between dusk and dawn to protect flying bats.

Blackburn's sphinx moth

The adult Blackburn's sphinx moth feeds on nectar from native plants, including *Ipomoea pes-caprae* (beach morning glory), *Plumbago zeylanica* ('ilie'e), and *Capparis sandwichiana* (maiapilo). Blackburn's sphinx moth larvae feed on non-native *Nicotiana glauca* (tree tobacco) and native *Nothoecstrum* sp. ('aiea). To pupate, the larvae burrow into the soil and can remain in a state of torpor for a year or more before emerging from the soil. Soil disturbance can result in death of the pupae.

We offer the following survey recommendations to assess whether the Blackburn's sphinx moth occurs within the project area:

- A biologist familiar with the species should survey areas of proposed activities for Blackburn's sphinx moth and its larval host plants prior to work initiation.
 - Surveys should be conducted during the wettest portion of the year (usually November-April or several weeks after a significant rain) and within 4 to 6 weeks prior to project activities.
 - Surveys should include searches for adults, eggs, larvae, and signs of larval feeding (i.e., chewed stems, frass, or leaf damage).
 - If moths, eggs, or larvae, or native 'aiea or tree tobacco over 3 ft tall, are found during the survey, please contact the Service for additional guidance to avoid impacts to this species.

Hawaiian seabirds

Hawaiian seabirds may traverse the project area at night during the breeding, nesting, and fledging seasons (March 1 to December 15). Operators should not purposely approach bird species or specific locations where listed birds are known to occur (i.e., known nests).

To avoid and minimize potential interactions with seabirds we recommend the following:

- Should a bird approach the drone within 15 ft, drone operations be halted, and the incident reported to the Pacific Islands Fish and Wildlife Office.
- During the seabird breeding season (March 1 to December 15), avoiding flights between dusk and dawn to protect night flying seabirds.

Hawaiian damselflies

Hawaiian damselflies are found in aquatic habitats across the islands, with high species endemism within islands. Breeding habitat includes anchialine pools, perennial streams, marshes,

ponds, and even artificial pools and seeps. Major threats include introduced fish, amphibians, and invertebrates in streams, reduced stream flow from drought and water diversion, small isolated populations, reduced habitat quality from ungulates and nonnative plants, and possibly over-collection. Aquatic habitats may be accessed when creating trails to release sites or landing areas.

To avoid and minimize potential interactions with Hawaiian damselflies we recommend the following:

- Applicable best management practices regarding work in aquatic environments (see enclosure) should be incorporated into the project description to minimize the degradation of water quality and impacts to fish and wildlife resources.
- Permits are required for accurate surveys of this species, so consult with the Service if work will be done in proximity to stream areas or within water bodies.

Federally Listed Plants

Project activities may affect listed plant species by causing physical damage to plant parts (i.e., roots, stems, flowers, fruits, seeds, etc.) as well as impacts to other life requisite features of their habitat which may result in reduction of germination, growth and/or reproduction (Table 1). Cutting and removal of vegetation surrounding listed plants has the potential to alter microsite conditions (e.g., light, moisture, temperature), damaging or destroying the listed plants and also increasing the risk of invasion by nonnative plants which can result in higher incidence or intensity of fire. Activities such as grazing, use of construction equipment and vehicles, and increased human traffic (i.e., trails, visitation, monitoring) can cause ground disturbance, erosion, and/or soil compaction which decrease absorption of water and nutrients and damage plant root systems and may result in reduced growth and/or mortality of listed plants. Soil disturbance or removal has the potential to negatively impact the soil seed bank of listed plant species if such species are present or historically occurred in the project area.

In order to avoid or minimize potential adverse effects to listed plants that may occur on the proposed project site, we recommend minimizing disturbance outside of existing developed or otherwise modified areas. When disturbance outside existing developed or modified sites is proposed, conduct a botanical survey for listed plant species within the project action area, defined as the area where direct and indirect effects are likely to occur. Surveys should be conducted by a knowledgeable botanist with documented experience in identifying native Hawaiian and Pacific Islands plants, including federally listed plant species. Botanical surveys should optimally be conducted during the wettest part of the year (typically October to April) when plants and identifying features are more likely to be visible, especially in drier areas.

If surveys are conducted outside of the wet season, the Service may assume plant presence. The boundary of the area occupied by listed plants should be marked with flagging by the surveyor. To avoid or minimize potential adverse effects to listed plants, we recommend adherence to buffer distances for the activities in the Table 2. Where disturbed areas do not need to be maintained as an open area, restore disturbed areas using native plants as appropriate for the location; refer to the Landscape Industry Council of Hawai'i Native Plant Poster (<http://hawaiiscape.wpengine.com/publications/>), Native Hawaiian Plants for Landscaping,

Conservation, and Reforestation (<https://www.ctahr.hawaii.edu/oc/freepubs/pdf/of-30.pdf>), and Best Native Plants for Landscapes (<https://www.ctahr.hawaii.edu/oc/freepubs/pdf/OF-40.pdf>).

If listed plants occur in a project area, the avoidance buffers are recommended to reduce direct and indirect impacts to listed plants from project activities. However, where project activities will occur within the recommended buffer distances, additional consultation is required. The impacts to the plants of concern within the buffer area may be reduced by placing temporary fencing or other barriers at the boundary of the disturbance, as far from the affected plants as practicable.

The above guidelines apply to areas outside of designated critical habitat. If project activities occur within designated critical habitat unit boundaries, additional consultation is required.

All activities, including site surveys, risk introducing nonnative species into project areas. Specific attention needs to be made to ensure that all equipment, personnel, and supplies are properly checked and are free of contamination (i.e., weed seeds, organic matter, or other contaminants) before entering project areas. Quarantines and or management activities occurring on specific priority invasive species proximal to project areas need to be considered or adequately addressed. This information can be acquired by contacting local experts such as those on local invasive species committees (Maui Nui: <https://mauiinvasive.org/>).

Table 1. Federally listed plants occurring within the action area

Species Name	Common Name
<i>Alectryon macrococcus</i> var. <i>macrococcus</i>	Māhoe
<i>Argyroxiphium sandwicense</i> subsp. <i>macrocephalum</i>	‘Āhinahina
<i>Asplenium dielerectum</i>	No Common Name
<i>Asplenium peruvianum</i> var. <i>insulare</i>	No Common Name
<i>Bidens campylotheca</i> subsp. <i>pentamera</i>	Ko‘oko‘olau
<i>Bidens campylotheca</i> subsp. <i>waihoiense</i>	Ko‘oko‘olau
<i>Calamagrostis expansa</i>	No Common Name
<i>Clermontia oblongifolia</i> subsp. <i>mauiensis</i>	‘Ōhā wai
<i>Clermontia samuelii</i> subsp. <i>hanaensis</i>	‘Ōhā wai
<i>Clermontia samuelii</i> subsp. <i>samuelii</i>	‘Ōhā wai
<i>Ctenitis squamigera</i>	Pauoa
<i>Cyanea asplenifolia</i>	Hāhā
<i>Cyanea copelandii</i> subsp. <i>haleakalaensis</i>	Hāhā
<i>Cyanea duvalliorum</i>	Hāhā
<i>Cyanea glabra</i>	Hāhā
<i>Cyanea hamatiflora</i> subsp. <i>hamatiflora</i>	Hāhā
<i>Cyanea horrida</i>	Hāhā nui
<i>Cyanea kunthiana</i>	Hāhā
<i>Cyanea maritae</i>	Hāhā
<i>Cyanea mceldowneyi</i>	Hāhā
<i>Cyanea obtusa</i>	Hāhā

<i>Cyclosorus boydiae</i>	Kupukupu makali'i
<i>Cyperus pennatiformis</i> var. <i>pennatiformis</i>	No Common Name
<i>Cyrtandra ferripilosa</i>	Ha'iwale
<i>Deparia kaalaana</i>	No Common Name
<i>Diplazium molokaiense</i>	No Common Name
<i>Gardenia remyi</i>	nānū
<i>Geranium hanaense</i>	Nohoanu
<i>Geranium multiflorum</i>	Nohoanu
<i>Huperzia mannii</i>	Wāwae'iole
<i>Huperzia stemmermanniae</i>	No Common Name
<i>Hypolepis hawaiiensis</i> var. <i>mauiensis</i>	Olua
<i>Ischaemum byrone</i>	Hilo ischaemum
<i>Joinvillea ascendens</i> subsp. <i>ascendens</i>	'Ohe
<i>Kadua laxiflora</i>	Pilo
<i>Melicope balloui</i>	Alani
<i>Melicope ovalis</i>	Alani
<i>Microlepia strigosa</i> var. <i>mauiensis</i>	No Common Name
<i>Nothoestrum latifolium</i>	'Aiea
<i>Ochrosia haleakalae</i>	Hōlei
<i>Peperomia subpetiolata</i>	'Ala 'ala wai nui
<i>Phyllostegia bracteata</i>	No Common Name
<i>Phyllostegia brevidens</i>	No Common Name
<i>Phyllostegia haliakalae</i>	No Common Name
<i>Phyllostegia pilosa</i>	No Common Name
<i>Plantago princeps</i> var. <i>laxiflora</i>	Laukahi kuahiwi
<i>Platanthera holochila</i>	No Common Name
<i>Portulaca villosa</i>	'Ihi
<i>Ranunculus mauiensis</i>	Makou
<i>Sanicula sandwicensis</i>	No Common Name
<i>Schiedea diffusa</i> subsp. <i>diffusa</i>	No Common Name
<i>Schiedea jacobii</i>	No Common Name
<i>Sicyos macrophyllus</i>	'Anunu
<i>Wikstroemia villosa</i>	No Common Name
<i>Zanthoxylum hawaiiense</i>	A'e

Table 2. Recommended buffer distances to minimize and avoid potential adverse impacts to listed plants from activities listed below.

Action	Buffer Distance (feet (meters)) - Keep Project Activity This Far Away from Listed Plant
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		Grasses/Herbs/Shrubs and Terrestrial Orchids	Trees and Arboreal Orchids
Walking, hiking, surveys		3 ft (1 m)	3 ft (1 m)
Cutting and Removing Vegetation By Hand or Hand Tools (e.g., weeding)		3 ft (1 m)	3 ft (1 m)
Mechanical Removal of Individual Plants or Woody Vegetation (e.g., chainsaw, weed eater)		3 ft up to height of removed vegetation (whichever greater)	3 ft up to height of removed vegetation (whichever greater)
Removal of Vegetation with Heavy Equipment (e.g., bulldozer, tractor, "bush hog")		2x width equipment + height of vegetation	820 ft (250 m)
Use of Approved Herbicides (following label)	Ground-based Spray Application; hand application (no wand applicator; spot treatment)	10 ft (3 m)	Crown diameter
	Ground-based Spray Application; manual pump with wand, backpack	50 ft (15 m)	Crown diameter
	Ground-based Spray Application; vehicle-mounted tank sprayer	50 ft (15 m)	Crown diameter
	Aerial Spray (ball applicator)	250 ft (76 m)	250 ft (76 m)
	Aerial Application – herbicide ballistic technology (individual plant treatment)	100 ft (30 m)	Crown diameter
	Aerial Spray (boom)	Further consultation required	Further consultation required
Use of Insecticides (pollinators, seed dispersers)		Further consultation required	Further consultation required
Ground/Soil Disturbance/Outplanting/Fencing (Hand tools, e.g., shovel, ‘ō‘ō; Small mechanized tools, e.g., auger)		20 ft (6 m)	2x crown diameter
Ground/Soil Disturbance (Heavy Equipment)		328 ft (100 m)	820 ft (250 m)
	Trails (e.g., human, ungulates)	20 ft (6 m)	2x crown diameter

Surface Hardening/Soil compaction	Roads/Utility Corridors, Buildings/Structures	328 ft (100 m)	820 ft (250 m)
Prescribed Burns		Further consultation required	Further consultation required
Farming/Ranching/Silviculture		820 ft (250 m)	820 ft (250 m)

Critical Habitat

There are 16 critical habitat units designated for the above listed plant and animal species (Designated Critical Habitat Units – see enclosure). The Service understands that this project will ultimately benefit Maui forest birds. However, temporary disturbances such as trail-building and ground disturbance may affect the primary constituent elements of these designated critical habitat units. All field, or on-the-ground, activities should have strong biosecurity plans to prevent introducing or spreading harmful invasive species and should employ best management practices to minimize impacts to the primary constituent elements of designated critical habitat units. When analyzing the potential effects from the proposed project, please consider how the primary constituent elements of the designated critical habitat units will be affected.

We appreciate your efforts to conserve protected species. If there are any questions, or if we can be of any assistance, please contact Christina Richards at christina_richards@fws.gov or by telephone at 808-792-9450. When referring to this project, please include this reference number: 01EPIF00-2022-SL-0122.

Sincerely,

Lindsay Asman
Maui Nui & Hawai'i Island Team Manager
Pacific Islands Fish and Wildlife Office

Unit	UnitID	Bird_Unit	Acres	Hectares	Category	Status	LeadOffic	CoopOffic	FedReg	PubDate
Dry Cliff 04	DC 04	DC 28	314.8311	127.4076094	Ecosystem	Final	12200	None	81FR17791	20160330
Lowland Dry 01	LD 01		205.8748	83.31458252	Ecosystem	Final	12200	None	81FR17791	20160330
Lowland Mesic 01	LM 01		1881.96	761.6021017	Ecosystem	Final	12200	None	81FR17791	20160330
Lowland Wet 01	LW 01	LW 02	16078.84	6506.873956	Ecosystem	Final	12200	None	81FR17791	20160330
Montane Dry 01	MD 01		429.3643	173.7575785	Ecosystem	Final	12200	None	81FR17791	20160330
Montane Mesic 01	MM 01	MM 18	4056.029	1641.416526	Ecosystem	Final	12200	None	81FR17791	20160330
Montane Wet 01	MW 01	MW 10	82.01556	33.1905199	Ecosystem	Final	12200	None	81FR17791	20160330
Montane Wet 01	MW 01	MW 10	2028.178	820.7747026	Ecosystem	Final	12200	None	81FR17791	20160330
Montane Wet 02	MW 02	MW 11	14582.8	5901.449335	Ecosystem	Final	12200	None	81FR17791	20160330
Montane Wet 03	MW 03	MW 12	2227.641	901.4945026	Ecosystem	Final	12200	None	81FR17791	20160330
Montane Wet 04	MW 04	MW 13	1833.323	741.9195236	Ecosystem	Final	12200	None	81FR17791	20160330
Montane Wet 05	MW 05	MW 14	386.5628	156.436429	Ecosystem	Final	12200	None	81FR17791	20160330
Subalpine 02	SA 02	SA 25	9886.285	4000.837653	Ecosystem	Final	12200	None	81FR17791	20160330
Wet Cliff 01	WC 01	WC 30	289.4984	117.1558335	Ecosystem	Final	12200	None	81FR17791	20160330
Wet Cliff 02	WC 02	WC 31	1407.116	569.4395213	Ecosystem	Final	12200	None	81FR17791	20160330
Wet Cliff 03	WC 03	WC 32	437.7712	177.1597388	Ecosystem	Final	12200	None	81FR17791	20160330
Wet Cliff 04	WC 04	WC 33	184.2478	74.56241945	Ecosystem	Final	12200	None	81FR17791	20160330

U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service
Recommended Standard Best Management Practices

The U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) recommends the following measures to be incorporated into project planning to avoid or minimize impacts to fish and wildlife resources. Best Management Practices (BMPs) include the incorporation of procedures or materials that may be used to reduce either direct or indirect negative impacts to aquatic habitats that result from project construction-related activities. These BMPs are recommended in addition to, and do not over-ride any terms, conditions, or other recommendations prepared by the USFWS, other federal, state or local agencies. If you have questions concerning these BMPs, please contact the USFWS Aquatic Ecosystems Conservation Program at 808-792-9400.

1. Authorized dredging and filling-related activities that may result in the temporary or permanent loss of aquatic habitats should be designed to avoid indirect, negative impacts to aquatic habitats beyond the planned project area.
2. Dredging/filling in the marine environment should be scheduled to avoid coral spawning and recruitment periods, and sea turtle nesting and hatching periods. Because these periods are variable throughout the Pacific islands, we recommend contacting the relevant local, state, or federal fish and wildlife resource agency for site specific guidance.
3. Turbidity and siltation from project-related work should be minimized and contained within the project area by silt containment devices and curtailing work during flooding or adverse tidal and weather conditions. BMPs should be maintained for the life of the construction period until turbidity and siltation within the project area is stabilized. All project construction-related debris and sediment containment devices should be removed and disposed of at an approved site.
4. All project construction-related materials and equipment (dredges, vessels, backhoes, silt curtains, etc.) to be placed in an aquatic environment should be inspected for pollutants including, but not limited to; marine fouling organisms, grease, oil, etc., and cleaned to remove pollutants prior to use. Project related activities should not result in any debris disposal, non-native species introductions, or attraction of non-native pests to the affected or adjacent aquatic or terrestrial habitats. Implementing both a litter-control plan and a Hazard Analysis and Critical Control Point plan (HACCP – see <https://www.fws.gov/policy/A1750fw1.html>) can help to prevent attraction and introduction of non-native species.
5. Project construction-related materials (fill, revetment rock, pipe, etc.) should not be stockpiled in, or in close proximity to aquatic habitats and should be protected from erosion (*e.g.*, with filter fabric, etc.), to prevent materials from being carried into waters by wind, rain, or high surf.
6. Fueling of project-related vehicles and equipment should take place away from the aquatic environment and a contingency plan to control petroleum products accidentally spilled during the project should be developed. The plan should be retained on site with the person responsible for compliance with the plan. Absorbent pads and containment booms should be stored on-site to facilitate the clean-up of accidental petroleum releases.
7. All deliberately exposed soil or under-layer materials used in the project near water should be protected from erosion and stabilized as soon as possible with geotextile, filter fabric or native or non-invasive vegetation matting, hydro-seeding, etc.

**APPENDIX E:
Past, Present, and Reasonably Foreseeable
Future Actions on National Park Service,
Department of Land and Natural Resources, and
The Nature Conservancy Lands**

**APPENDIX E:
PAST, PRESENT, AND REASONABLY FORESEEABLE
FUTURE ACTIONS ON NATIONAL PARK SERVICE, DEPARTMENT OF
LAND AND NATURAL RESOURCES, AND
THE NATURE CONSERVANCY LANDS**

For the purposes of establishing the affected environment and assessing cumulative impacts of the alternatives, the National Park Service, Department of Lands and Natural Resources, and The Nature Conservancy identified the following projects, plans, or actions that have, are currently, or may in the future potentially affect the resources analyzed in the EA.

Haleakalā National Park

- ***Natural Resource Preservation Program Mosquito Monitoring in Kīpahulu Valley.*** This is a planned action where two sites would be visited every 3 months (primarily at 2 locations, Palikea and Delta). Sites would be occupied for 6–7 days in a row. A helicopter would be required to drop off crews. Kīpahulu sites would be visited June through February. This project is expected to scale up in the next few years. Project activities do occur within designated wilderness.
- ***Air Tour Management Plan.*** This is a planned and ongoing action where the park is currently developing an Air Tour Management Plan working with the Federal Aviation Administration. Three potential alternatives describing conditions for the conduct of commercial air tour operations over the park, including routes, altitudes, time-of-day restrictions, restrictions for particular events, and maximum numbers of flights, have been developed. The average annual number of commercial air tours conducted over the park from 2017–2019 for all operators is 4,824. The 2017–2019 three-year average is considered the existing baseline for the purposes of understanding the existing number of commercial air tour flights over the park. Flights do currently occur above designated wilderness.
- ***Hydrological Monitoring Systems in Kīpahulu Valley.*** This is an ongoing action. Hydrological monitoring has been implemented particularly as visitors swim in pools downstream in Kīpahulu Valley. The project requires helicopter use and 5–6 monitoring sites are within designated wilderness.
- ***Songbird Occupancy Project.*** This is an ongoing action. Audio Recording Units have been positioned within designated wilderness in the Manawainui, Northeast Rift, and Kīpahulu Valley regions of the park that are visited 1–2 times per year. Project activities do occur within designated wilderness.
- ***Pīpīwai Trail Viewing Platform.*** This future planned action is approximately 2 years from implementation and outside of wilderness at Waimoku Falls.
- ***Invasive Plant Herbicide Spraying.*** This ongoing project entails remote helicopter longline herbicide spraying to treat invasive plants. There are follow-up kills for pine resprouts outside of Kīpahulu Valley. Pine spraying conducted in Haleakalā Crater applies the same methodology. The Waimoku Falls area targets a different plant using this same methodology. Project activities do occur within designated wilderness.
- ***Inventory & Monitoring Vegetation Monitoring Plots.*** This planned action would involve establishing and monitoring plots in Haleakalā Crater and Kīpahulu Valley starting 2023–2024. A ground crew of 4–5 people would be used, with possibly more at camps visiting areas in subalpine shrublands. The crew would be visiting fixed plots and establishing new plots all within a designated area. Three to four people and three hours is needed to complete a plot in the Crater

and crews would camp out for the week visiting plots. Crews would also be completing weed transects along fixed trails. Project activities including helicopter use do occur within designated wilderness.

- ***Fire Management Plan Update.*** Ongoing fuel reduction activities occur in portions of the park including wilderness. Activities include forest thinning, hand removal and herbicide spraying of non-native pine species (Monterey pine, Mexican weeping pine, and maritime pine) that increase the potential for wildfire in habitats as they are not adapted to fire, and prescribed burns.
- ***Ungulate Control.*** This is an ongoing project for ungulate animal control. The primary and most effective feral animal management method in Haleakalā is an extensive fence system designed to prevent entry of non-native ungulates into the park. These non-natives are removed through either seasonally placed snares or other aerial and ground removal methods. Project activities do occur within designated wilderness.
- ***Trail Maintenance.*** Extensive networks of primitive administrative trails run throughout the Biological Reserve area of the Haleakalā Wilderness. The only purpose of this trailand route system is to support administrative and research activities. Most trails and routes connect from landing zones and/or research shelters to areas of fence line, transects, monitoring stations, or invasive species treatment areas. This ongoing project would involve periodic trail maintenance including gas-powered trimmers and chainsaws for clearing.
- ***Invasive Plant Control.*** Ongoing use of herbicides and cutting of non-native plants is conducted to reduce their competition with native plant communities and prevent spread, providing native species the opportunity to compete and repopulate areas where invasives have been removed. A suite of herbicides has been used over the years to accomplish invasive species management goals. Different variations of ‘glyphosate’ (Round Up, Honcho, Ranger Pro, and Rodeo) as well as variations of ‘triclopyr’ (Garlon 3A and Garlon 4) are primarily used. Manual techniques of cutting, digging, and pulling are used where appropriate. Project activities do occur within wilderness.
- ***Fence Construction and Maintenance.*** Ongoing use of fencing in conjunction with other feral animal management measures has proven to be an effective method for controlling the spread of harmful species such as axis deer, feral pigs, feral goats, and feral cattle with little impact to movement of native wildlife species. Helicopter flights into wilderness do occur and power tools for large tree removal can be used. Future activities will likely be more extensive than the normal maintenance that has occurred over the last 10 to 20 years.
- ***Landing Zone and Shelter Maintenance.*** Improved LZs are areas that have been cleared of trees or debris and/or filled in with natural materials. Landing zones are only improved if repeated use is planned. All LZs are cleared/developed as an ongoing action in accordance with the Interagency Helicopter Operations Guide (110-foot radius minimum). In planning LZs, attempts are made to eliminate the need for establishment of new zones and areas that have the most accommodating natural surfaces are preferred. Gas-powered tools and generators are used to maintain and improve shelters within designated wilderness within the Kīpahulu Valley.
- ***Forest Bird Predator Control.*** An ongoing pilot project to control non-native small mammal species is occurring in the upper section of Kīpahulu Valley. The project includes a grid of traplines, bait stations, and camera traps. Future plans include implementation of a predator management plan for the area and expansion to Manawainui. Project activities occur within wilderness.
- ***Endangered Plant Surveys and Planting.*** This is an ongoing management action to monitor, maintain, and supplement endangered plants within Haleakalā National Park, including within

wilderness. This work is also in coordination with the Plant Extinction Prevention Project under DLNR. Project activities occur within wilderness.

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- ***Ungulate Control.*** Ongoing animal management activities under the East Maui Watershed Partnership Management Plan and Hanawī Natural Area Reserve Management Plan, as applicable, include regular fence inspections, intensive animal control, transect monitoring, and aerial and on-the-ground scouting. DLNR would continue aerial shooting and support ungulate control at Pu‘u Pahu Reserve, Hanawī Natural Area Reserve, Hāna Forest Reserve, and Ko‘olau Forest Reserve (Loulu, Kūhiwa, and Waiho‘i fenced units). DLNR would also continue the East Maui Irrigation Halehaku feral cattle project to reduce cattle populations. DLNR would continue ungulate and vegetation transect monitoring to assess the effectiveness of public hunting to reduce ungulate populations and impacts and identify and expand public hunting access into Hāna Forest Reserve and Kīpahulu Forest Reserve.
- ***Invasive Plant Control.*** As a future planned action, DLNR, under the East Maui Watershed Partnership Management Plan and Hanawī Natural Area Reserve Management Plan, as applicable, would develop, implement, and regularly update comprehensive Weed Control Plans that identify priority weeds within management units and outline management strategies and timelines for their control; eliminate populations of top priority weeds in management units; prevent expansion of top priority weeds; and increase weed management capacity by hiring additional staff and utilizing volunteers, the Maui Invasive Species Committee, and other agencies.
- ***Forest Bird Recovery Actions.*** As an ongoing action, Maui Forest Bird Recovery Project conducts forest bird population monitoring, predator control, and mosquito and avian malaria surveys on DLNR lands within the project area. There is also a proposal to introduce ‘alala (Hawaiian Crow, *Corvus hawaiiensis*) on Maui (location TBD); this would include temporary release aviaries, feeding stations, predator control, and on-ground monitoring.
- ***Watershed Resource Monitoring.*** As a future planned action, DLNR, under the East Maui Watershed Partnership Management Plan and Hānawī Natural Area Reserve Management Plan, as applicable, would measure rainfall at U.S. Geological Survey rain gauges; measure stream flow from State Division of Aquatic Resources and Commission on Water Resource Management; assess the need to install rain gauges/Remote Automated Weather Stations in East Maui Watershed Partnership areas; measure sedimentation and erosion with information from the State Department of Health and U.S. Geological Survey; and measure biotic stream components obtaining information from the Maui Division Aquatic Resources and other agencies.
- ***Landing Zone Maintenance.*** Improved LZs are areas that have been cleared of trees or debris and/or filled in with natural materials. As an ongoing action, landing zones are only improved if repeated use is planned. All LZs are cleared/developed in accordance with the Interagency Helicopter Operations Guide (110-foot radius minimum). In planning LZs, attempts are made to eliminate the need for establishment of new zones and areas that have the most accommodating natural surfaces are preferred.
- ***Water Diversion Infrastructure and Maintenance.*** Activities occur both on DLNR lands that are leased to East Maui Irrigation and private lands. Activities include stabilizing banks downstream of diversion boxes, replacing pipes, and repairing walls using grouted rip rap or similar means.
- ***Endangered plant surveys and outplantings.*** This is an ongoing management action to implement recovery actions for species-at-risk, including surveys, threat abatement, collection, reintroduction, and monitoring within the state reserves. Work focusses primarily in areas above

the ungulate-control fences. This work is coordinated throughout the project area with state and private conservation partners.

- ***Endangered invertebrate surveys and outplantings.*** This is an ongoing management action to implement recovery actions for species-at-risk, including surveys, threat abatement, collection, reintroduction, and monitoring within the state reserves. Work focusses primarily in areas above the ungulate-control fences. This work is coordinated throughout the project area with state and private conservation partners.

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- ***Western Waikamoi Boundary Fence Retrofit.*** As a future planned action, TNC will retrofit the western Waikamoi boundary fence for ungulate control.
- ***Cell Tower Infrastructure from Pu‘u Nianiau to Ko‘olau.*** As a future planned action, a series of 30-foot poles with infrastructure would be installed to provide cell service all the way to Hāna approximately in late 2023 or early 2024.
- ***Aerial Pine Spraying.*** As an ongoing action, helicopters are periodically used to treat non-native pines.
- ***Maui Forest Bird Recovery Project.*** As an ongoing action, Maui Forest Bird Recovery Project conducts forest bird surveys, predator control, and mosquito and avian malaria research within the TNC-managed lands within the project area.
- ***Forest Health and Weed Treatment Efficacy Monitoring.*** As an ongoing action, drone flights occur 1 day per month for assessment.
- ***Ungulate Monitoring.*** As an ongoing action, drone flights occur one day per month for assessment working collaboratively with hunters.
- ***Herbicide Ballistic Technology.*** As an ongoing action, drones are periodically used to apply herbicide to invasive plants within Waikamoi Preserve.
- ***Guided Hikes and Volunteer Trips.*** As an ongoing action, TNC conducts one monthly guided hike and one bi-monthly volunteer trip.
- ***Weather Station Installation.*** As a future planned action, a station would be installed in subalpine shrubland and another in eastern Waikamoi. The stations are 10–15 feet tall and have 2 x 2 footprint.
- ***Mozzie Monitoring in Waikamoi.*** Mozzie Monitors is a citizen science mosquito surveillance program. As an ongoing action, the project is occurring now through December 2023 and involves trapping mosquitoes and both helicopter-assisted and non-helicopter-assisted ground work.

**APPENDIX F:
Threatened and Endangered Plant Species
and Plant Species at Risk**

Table F-1: Threatened and Endangered Plants Known to Occur in the Analysis Area

Scientific Name	Common Name	Federal Status ¹	Habitat	Known Locations within Analysis Area
<i>Alectryon micrococcus</i> var. <i>macrococcus</i>	mahoe	LE	On east Maui, known from the montane mesic ecosystem (USFWS 2012)	State
<i>Asplenium peruvianum</i> var. <i>insulare</i> (syn. <i>A. fragile</i> var. <i>insulare</i>)	diamond spleenwort	LE	Moist, dark microhabitats in various forest and shrubland ecosystems including montane wet, montane mesic, and subalpine ecosystems (USFWS 1998, 2016a).	TNC
<i>Bidens campylotheca</i> ssp. <i>pentamera</i>	ko'oko'olau viper beggarticks	LE	Lowland dry, lowland mesic, montane mesic, montane wet, dry cliff and wet cliff ecosystems (USFWS 2019).	Park
<i>Bidens campylotheca</i> ssp. <i>waihoiensis</i>	ko'oko'olau, waihoi beggarticks	LE	Lowland wet, montane wet and wet cliff ecosystems (USFWS 2019).	Park
<i>Calamagrostis expansa</i>	Maui reedgrass	LE	Along ridges or on raised hummocks in wet forest and bogs in the montane wet ecosystem. Most of the east Maui occurrences are in exclosures (USFWS 2016b).	TNC
<i>Cyanea copelandii</i> ssp. <i>haleakalaensis</i>	hāhā treetrunk cyanea	LE	Lowland mesic, lowland wet, montane wet, and wet cliff ecosystems (USFWS 2016a).	Park, State
<i>Cyanea duvalliorum</i>	hāhā	LE	Lowland wet and montane wet ecosystems (USFWS 2013).	State
<i>Cyanea hamatiflora</i> ssp. <i>hamatiflora</i>	hāhā wet forest cyanea	LE	Lowland wet and montane wet ecosystems (USFWS 2016a).	Park
<i>Cyanea horrida</i>	hāhā nui prickly cyanea	LE	Montane mesic and montane wet ecosystems (USFWS 2019).	TNC
<i>Cyanea kunthiana</i>	hāhā Kunth's cyanea	LE	Lowland wet, montane mesic, and montane wet ecosystems (USFWS 2019).	Park, State, TNC
<i>Cyanea maritae</i>	hāhā	LE	Lowland wet and mesic wet ecosystems (USFWS 2019).	Park, State
<i>Cyanea mceldowneyi</i>	hāhā	LE	Montane wet forest at elevations between 3,034 and 4,200 feet (USFWS 1997).	State
<i>Diplazium moloka'iense</i>	no common name	LE	Lowland to montane forests in mesic to wet ecosystems (USFWS 1998)	State
<i>Huperzia mannii</i> (syn. <i>Phlegmariurus mannii</i>)	wawae'iole Mann's clubmoss	LE	Typically grows on native tree species including 'ōhi'a, koa, and 'a'ali'i in mesic to wet montane forests (USFWS 1997).	Park

Scientific Name	Common Name	Federal Status ¹	Habitat	Known Locations within Analysis Area
<i>Joinvillea ascendens</i> subsp. <i>ascendens</i>	`ohe	LE	Wet to mesic 'ōhi'a -koa lowland and montane forest and along intermittent streams (USFWS 2016b).	Park
<i>Melicope balloui</i>	alani Ballou's melicope	LE	Wet forest in Kīpahulu Valley and the slopes of Haleakalā (USFWS 1997).	TNC
<i>Melicope ovalis</i>	alani Hāna melicope	LE	Closed 'ōhi'a forest in Ko'olau Gap and 'ōhi'a -koa forest, especially on stable banks of water courses in Kīpahulu Valley (USFWS 1997, USFWS 2011).	Park
<i>Microlepia strigosa</i> var. <i>mauiensis</i>	palapalai	LE	On Maui, typical habitat is the montane wet forest ecosystem (USFWS 2016b).	Park
<i>Ochrosia haleakalae</i>	holei	LE	Dry to mesic forest, sometimes wet forest, and often lava, from 2,300 to 4,000 ft (700 to 1,200 m), in the dry cliff, lowland mesic, and montane mesic ecosystems (USFWS 2016b).	State, TNC
<i>Peperomia subpetiolata</i>	`ala `ala wai nui	LE	Montane wet ecosystems (USFWS 2019).	State
<i>Phyllostegia bracteata</i>	bracted phyllostegia	LE	Lowland wet, montane mesic, montane wet and subalpine ecosystems (USFWS 2019).	Park, TNC
<i>Phyllostegia brevidens</i>	no common name	LE	Wet forest in the lowland wet and wet cliff ecosystems from 2,900 to 3,200 feet (USFWS 2016b).	Park
<i>Phyllostegia haliakalae</i>	no common name	LE	Lowland mesic, montane mesic and dry cliff ecosystems (USFWS 2019).	Park, State
<i>Phyllostegia pilosa</i>	no common name	LE	On east Maui, known from the montane wet ecosystem (USFWS 2016a).	State, TNC
<i>Plantago princeps</i> var. <i>laxifolia</i> (syn. <i>P. princeps</i> var. <i>laxiflora</i>)	ale kuahiwi lauahi	LE	Dry cliff and wet cliff ecosystems (USFWS 2016a).	Park, TNC
<i>Schiedea diffusa</i> ssp. <i>diffusa</i>	no common name	LE	Lowland wet and montane wet ecosystems (USFWS 2019).	TNC
<i>Wikstroemia villosa</i>	no common name	LE	Lowland wet, montane mesic, and montane wet ecosystems (USFWS 2019).	TNC

Sources for species listed in table: C. Warren, personal communication, October 27, 2022; M. Keir, personal communication, November 15, 2022; K. Fay, personal communication, October 28, 2022.

¹ LE = federally listed endangered

Table F-2: Federally and State Listed Species with Designated Critical Habitat that Occurs in the Analysis Area

Scientific Name	Common Name	Federal and State Status ¹	Known Occurrences of Species within Analysis Area	Locations of Designated Critical Habitat within Analysis Area
<i>Adenophorus periens</i>	pendant kihi fern	LE	No	Park, State
<i>Argyroxiphium sandwicense</i> subsp. <i>macrocephalum</i>	`ahinahina	LT	No	Park
<i>Asplenium peruvianum</i> var. <i>insulare</i> (syn. <i>A. fragile</i> var. <i>insulare</i>)	diamond spleenwort	LE	Yes	Park, State
<i>Bidens campylotheca</i> ssp. <i>pentamera</i>	ko'oko'olau viper beggarticks	LE	Yes	Park, State
<i>Bidens campylotheca</i> ssp. <i>waihoiensis</i>	ko'oko'olau waihoi beggarticks	LE	Yes	Park, State
<i>Bidens micrantha</i> subsp. <i>kalealaha</i>	ko'oko'olau	LE	No	Park
<i>Clermontia oblongifolia</i> subsp. <i>mauiensis</i>	'ōhā wai	LE	No	Park, State
<i>Clermontia peleana</i>	'ōhā wai	LE	No	Park, State
<i>Clermontia samuelii</i>	'ōhā wai	LE	No	Park, State
<i>Cyanea aspleniifolia</i>	hāhā	LE	No	Park, State
<i>Cyanea copelandii</i> ssp. <i>haleakalaensis</i>	hāhā treetrunk cyanea	LE	Yes	Park, State
<i>Cyanea duvalliorum</i>	hāhā	LE	Yes	Park, State
<i>Cyanea glabra</i>	hāhā	LE	No	Park, State
<i>Cyanea hamatiflora</i> ssp. <i>hamatiflora</i>	hāhā wet forest cyanea	LE	Yes	Park, State
<i>Cyanea horrida</i>	hāhā nui prickly cyanea	LE	Yes	Park, State
<i>Cyanea kunthiana</i>	hāhā Kunth's cyanea	LE	Yes	Park, State
<i>Cyanea maritae</i>	hāhā	LE	Yes	Park, State
<i>Cyanea mceldowneyi</i>	hāhā	LE	Yes	Park, State

Scientific Name	Common Name	Federal and State Status ¹	Known Occurrences of Species within Analysis Area	Locations of Designated Critical Habitat within Analysis Area
<i>Cyrtandra ferripilosa</i>	ha`iwale	LE	No	Park, State
<i>Diplazium moloka`iense</i>	no common name	LE	Yes	Park, State
<i>Geranium arboreum</i>	noho-anu Hawai'i red cranesbill	LE	No	Park
<i>Geranium hanaense</i>	nohoanu	LE	No	Park, State
<i>Geranium multiflorum</i>	noho-anu manyflower geranium	LE	No	Park, State
<i>Huperzia mannii</i> (syn. <i>Phlegmariurus mannii</i>)	wawae'iole Mann's clubmoss	LE	Yes	Park, State
<i>Melicope balloui</i>	alani Ballou's melicope	LE	Yes	Park, State
<i>Melicope ovalis</i>	alani Hāna melicope	LE	Yes	Park, State
<i>Mucuna sloanei</i> var. <i>persericea</i>	sea bean	LE	No	Park, State
<i>Peperomia subpetiolata</i>	`ala `ala wai nui	LE	Yes	Park, State
<i>Phyllostegia bracteata</i>	bracted phyllostegia	LE	Yes	Park, State
<i>Phyllostegia haliakalae</i>	no common name	LE	Yes	Park, State
<i>Phyllostegia mannii</i>	no common name	LE	No	Park, State
<i>Phyllostegia pilosa</i>	no common name	LE	Yes	Park, State
<i>Platanthera holochila</i>	no common name	LE	No	Park, State
<i>Schiedea haleakalensis</i>	no common name	LE	No	Park
<i>Schiedea jacobii</i>	no common name	LE	No	Park, State
<i>Wikstroemia villosa</i>	no common name	LE	Yes	Park, State
<i>Zanthoxylum hawaiiense</i>	a`e	LE	No	Park

Sources: USFWS 2022b; C. Warren, personal communication, October 27, 2022; M. Keir, personal communication, November 15, 2022; K. Fay, personal communication, October 28, 2022.

¹ LE = federally listed endangered; LT = federally listed threatened

Table F-3: State Plant Species at Risk that Occur in the Analysis Area

Scientific Name	Common Name	NatureServe Status ¹	Habitat	Known Locations within Analysis Area
<i>Anoectochilus sandvicensis</i>	Hawai'i jewel-orchid	S3	Dense, dark, continuously saturated forests, sometimes growing in mosses at base of trees usually in wet muck below (NatureServe 2022).	Park, TNC
<i>Asplenium haleakalense</i>	Haleakalā spleenwort	S1	Epiphyte on mossy tree branches in wet forests, usually 3-5 feet above the ground, less often on fallen logs (NatureServe 2022).	TNC
<i>Asplenium monanthes</i>	single-sorus spleenwort	SNR ²	Terrestrial or occasionally epiphytic fern found in the understory of wet forest and along stream banks at 3,280 to 7,550 feet meters elevation on the islands of Maui and Hawai'i (Palmer 2003).	TNC
<i>Clermontia grandiflora</i>	'ōhā 'ōhā wai	S3	Grows in upper elevation wet forest under canopy dominated with 'ōhi'a. In Park usually found between 4,000-6,000 feet (J. Mallison, pers. comm. December 14, 2021).	TNC
<i>Clermontia grandiflora</i> subsp. <i>maxima</i>	'ōhā 'ōhā wai Large-flower clermontia	S1	Wet forests and bog margins (LBJWC 2022)	TNC
<i>Clermontia tuberculata</i>	'ōhā hāhā 'ōhā wai	S1	Grows on the ground in wet forests, primarily along streambeds (NatureServe 2022).	TNC
<i>Cyanea aculeatiflora</i>	Haleakalā cyanea prickly-flower cyanea	S3	Typically restricted to drainages and gulches in upper elevation wet forest dominated by 'ōhi'a (J. Mallison, pers. comm. December 14, 2021).	TNC
<i>Cyanea macrostegia</i>	hāhā purple cyanea	S3	Typically found in wet hardwood, shrubland/chaparral, forest/woodlands in gulch bottoms or on gulch sides (NatureServe 2022).	TNC
<i>Dryopteris fuscoatra</i> var. <i>lamoureuxii</i>	i'i crowned woodfern	SNR ³	Endemic to the island of Maui. Has only been observed in small area of the understory of diverse mesic to wet forest at 3,020 to 3,940 feet in elevation on the northern slopes of east Maui in and around the Makawao and Ko'olau Forest Reserves (Palmer 2003).	TNC
<i>Dryopteris tetrapinnata</i>	i'o nui Waikamoi woodfern	S1	Endemic to East Maui. Known from wet forests in the Waikamoi Preserve (NatureServe 2022).	TNC

Scientific Name	Common Name	NatureServe Status ¹	Habitat	Known Locations within Analysis Area
<i>Fragaria chiloensis</i> subsp. <i>sandwicensis</i>	ohelo papa Chilean strawberry	SNR ²	Dry, disturbed areas, wet forest, and subalpine shrubland from 3,800 to 10,075 feet (NatureServe 2022).	TNC
<i>Huperzia filiformis</i>	stringleaf clubmoss	SNR ²	Wet forests (LBJWC 2022).	TNC
<i>Liparis hawaiiensis</i>	awapuhiakanaloa Hawaiian twayblade	S3	Found from about 1,600 to over 5,000 feet on bryophyte-covered trees, under bushes, and on wet or sometimes seasonally wet, bare ground, in bogs, and mesic to wet forest as epiphytic or terrestrial plants (Native Plants Hawai'i 2009).	Park, TNC
<i>Melicope haleakalae</i>	alani Stone's pelea	S2	Wet forests (NatureServe 2022).	TNC
<i>Melicope hawaiiensis</i>	manena	S2	Moist or, less often, dry forests. On ridges and in gulches and, on Hawaii and parts of East Maui, on old lava flows and on old ash deposits (NatureServe 2022)	TNC
<i>Melicope pseudoanisata</i> (syn. <i>M. cauliflora</i>)	Kohala Summit Melicope alani	S3	Mesic to wet forests (LBJWC 2022).	TNC
<i>Phyllostegia ambigua</i>	mountain phyllostegia	S3	Wet forest and perhaps lower parts of subalpine forest at elevations between 3,000 to 6,500 feet (NatureServe 2022).	TNC
<i>Phytolacca sandwicensis</i>	Hawai'i pokeweed	S2	Mesic to wet forest, in open areas or streambeds, straggling or climbing (NatureServe 2022).	Park
<i>Rubus macraei</i>	'ākala 'ākalakala	S2	Steep rocky slopes and open rocky areas in wet forest and margins of bogs. Sometimes in sheltered thickets of other plants in pastures or subalpine shrubland. Communities where present include 'ohi'a montane wet forest, and 'ama'u-'ohelo subalpine mesic shrubland (NatureServe 2022).	TNC
<i>Sicyos cucumerinus</i>	'ānunu kūpala Gray's bur-cucumber	S1	Moist and wet forests on gulch slopes and in gulch bottoms. Mostly at middle elevations, but on East Maui, at least one occurrence is subalpine (NatureServe 2022).	TNC

Scientific Name	Common Name	NatureServe Status ¹	Habitat	Known Locations within Analysis Area
<i>Strongylodon ruber</i>	Hawai`i jadevine	S2	Mesic to wet forest; a liana species found climbing and hanging from trees. Forest communities where present include Diverse Lowland Mesic Forest, which has a 4-15 m tall canopy and an open understory of shrubs, ferns, and herbs (NatureServe 2022).	Park
<i>Trematolobelia macrostachys</i>	koli`i	S3	Typically found on ridges or other open areas in upper elevation 'ōhi'a -dominated wet forest (J. Mallison, pers. comm. December 14, 2021).	TNC

Sources for species listed in table: K. Fay, personal communication, October 28, 2022; C. Warren, personal communication, October 27, 2022; M. Keir, personal communication, November 15, 2022.

¹ Status based on NatureServe 2022: S1 = critically imperiled in the state, S2= imperiled in the state; S3 = vulnerable in the state; SNR – no state rank

² Although these species are not listed or not given a state rank (i.e., SNR) in NatureServe 2022, they are considered species of concern in the State.

**APPENDIX G:
DLNR HEPA Significance Criteria Analysis**

Appendix G: DLNR HEPA Significance Criteria Analysis

This appendix sets out the State of Hawaii, Department of Land and Natural Resources (DLNR) anticipated determination that the proposed action will *not* have a significant effect on the environment, in accordance with HEPA HAR Chapter 11-200.1 and the applicable “significance criteria” (listed below). This determination will be made pursuant to the requirement of HEPA and is separate from a finding of no significant impact (FONSI), if appropriate, that will be made by the NPS pursuant to NEPA, following review of public comments on the EA.

Based on the analysis in the EA, the DLNR anticipates that the proposed action will not result in significant effects on the environment for the following reasons:

1. Irrevocably commit a natural, cultural, or historic resource

The proposed action involves the release of incompatible mosquitoes and will not irrevocably commit a natural, cultural, or historic resource. There will be no new ground disturbance associated with the proposed action.

2. Curtail the range of beneficial uses of the environment

The proposed action will actually result in long-term beneficial impacts to the east Maui ecosystem and would not curtail the range of beneficial uses of the environment.

3. Conflicts with the State’s environmental policies or long-term environmental goals established by law

The proposed action will not conflict with the State's environmental policies or long-term environmental goals established by law.

4. Have a substantial adverse effect on the economic welfare, social welfare, or cultural practices of the community or State

The proposed action should result in the protection of native forest birds and will therefore not have a substantial adverse effect on the economic welfare or social welfare of the community and State. DLNR and NPS have worked closely with the SHPD and have developed a Cultural Impact Assessment, consistent with HEPA regulations. According to the analysis in the Cultural Impact Assessment and Appendix B in the EA, the proposed action would not result in adverse effects to cultural practices on Maui.

5. Have a substantial adverse effect on public health

The proposed action would involve the release of male mosquitoes that would not bite humans and would reduce the existing mosquito population on east Maui, which could benefit human health by suppressing disease-spreading mosquitoes. Therefore, the proposed action would not have a substantial adverse effect on public health.

6. Involve adverse secondary impacts, such as population changes or effects on public facilities

Release of incompatible mosquitoes under the proposed action would have no adverse secondary impacts such as population changes or effects on public facilities.

7. Involves a substantial degradation of environmental quality

The proposed action would have only minimal impacts to the acoustic environment, wildlife, and visitor experience during mosquito release operations and would result in long-term beneficial impacts to the environment through the suppression of mosquito populations which should result

in the conservation of threatened and endangered forest birds. Therefore, the proposed action would not result in a substantial degradation of environmental quality.

8. Be individually limited but cumulatively has substantial adverse effect upon the environment or involves a commitment for larger actions

According to the impact analysis in the EA, the proposed action would not result in substantial cumulative adverse effects on the environment and would not involve a commitment for larger actions. The proposed action would involve the use of drones and helicopters, which are already being used within the project area. The increase in drone and helicopter use would result in adverse cumulative effects, but these effects would be fairly minor and would only occur during mosquito operations during daylight hours on weekdays.

9. Have a substantial effect on rare, threatened, or endangered species, or its habitat

Aerial release of mosquitoes under the proposed action could have temporary impacts to threatened and endangered species due to noise and presence of drones, and to a lesser extent, helicopters. However, these effects would be temporary and should not result in any meaningful impacts to species. Over the long term, there would be beneficial impacts on threatened or endangered forest birds from the suppression of mosquitoes that spread avian malaria.

10. Have a substantial adverse effect on air or water quality or ambient noise levels

The proposed action would have no perceptible impacts on air or water quality. The primary mosquito release method under the proposed action would be through the use of drones, which don't impact air or water quality. Helicopter support would be needed occasionally for mosquito release and monitoring, but the level of use would not result in more than negligible impacts to air quality. Ambient noise levels would be affected during mosquito release operations, but because drones would be the primary mosquito release method, impacts to ambient noise levels would not be substantial due to the low noise levels associated with drones. Also, there would be no noise associated with release operations at night or on weekends.

11. Have a substantial adverse effect or is likely to suffer damage by being located in an environmentally sensitive area such as a flood plain, tsunami zone, beach, erosion-prone area, geologically hazardous land, estuary, fresh water, or coastal waters

The project area is located over inland areas only, and therefore the proposed action would not have a substantial adverse effect on or be likely to suffer damage by being located in an environmentally sensitive area such as a flood plain, tsunami zone, sea level rise exposure area, beach, erosion-prone area, geologically hazardous land, estuary, fresh water, or coastal waters.

12. Have a substantial adverse effect on scenic vistas and view planes identified in county or state plans or studies; or

The proposed action involves the use of drones and helicopters, which would be visible during release operations. However, aerial operations would primarily use drones which would fly close to the canopy up to two times a week, which would only be visible for a short period of time in any one location. Therefore, the proposed action would not have a substantial adverse effect on scenic vistas and view planes, during day or night, identified in county or state plans or studies.

13. Require substantial energy consumption or emit substantial greenhouse gas

Under the proposed action, drones would be the primary method for mosquito releases. Drones used under the proposed action would be battery-powered and would not emit greenhouse gases.

The minimal amount of helicopter use under the proposed action would involve some greenhouse gas emissions, but it would not rise to the level of being substantial.