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Draft Environmental Assessment Rangeland Grasshopper and Mormon Cricket Suppression Program

Juab, Millard, Piute, Sanpete and Sevier Counties, Utah

PPQ and CEQ Identification Number: UT-25-04-EA25-005-32-24P-1744883697

*Aus*trian pine and range total defoliation G. Abbott 6/12/24

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[DATE, of Final EA is published]

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

ac	acre
a.i.	active ingredient
AChE	acetylcholinesterase
APHIS	Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service
BLM	Bureau of Land Management
CEQ	Council of Environmental Quality
CFR	Code of Federal Regulations
EA	environmental assessment
e.g.	example given (Latin, exempli gratia, "for the sake of example")
EIS	environmental impact statement
E.O.	Executive Order
FONSI	finding of no significant impact
EIL	economic injury level
g	gram
ha	hectare
HHERA	human health and ecological risk assessments
i.e.	in explanation (Latin, id est "in other words.")
IPM	integrated pest management
lb	pound
MBTA	Migratory Bird Treaty Act
MOU	memorandum of understanding
NEPA	National Environmental Policy Act
NHPA	National Historic Preservation Act
NIH	National Institute of Health
ppm	parts per million
PPE	personal protective equipment
PPQ	Plant Protection and Quarantine
RAATs	reduced agent area treatments
ULV	ultra-low volume
U.S.C.	United States Code
USDA	United States Department of Agriculture
USEPA	United States Environmental Protection Agency
USFWS	United States Fish and Wildlife Services

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Draft Site-Specific Environmental Assessment

Rangeland Grasshopper and Mormon Cricket Suppression Program
Juab, Milard, Piute, Sanpete & Sevier Counties, Utah

I. Need for Proposed Action

A. Purpose and Need Statement

An infestation of grasshoppers or Mormon crickets may occur in Juab, Millard, Piute, Sanpete & Sevier Counties, Utah. The Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service (APHIS) may, upon request by land managers or State departments of agriculture, conduct treatments to suppress grasshopper infestations as part of the Rangeland Grasshopper and Mormon Cricket Suppression Program (program). The term "grasshopper" used in this environmental assessment (EA) refers to both grasshoppers and Mormon crickets, unless differentiation is necessary.

Under the guidance of Section 417 of the Plant Protection Act of 2000, USDA plays a coordinating role between Federal agencies, State agricultural departments, and private ranchers to control both grasshoppers and Mormon crickets.

Populations of grasshoppers that trigger the need for a suppression program are normally considered on a case-by-case basis and are difficult to predict. Through late summer and autumn adult grasshopper surveys, APHIS can sometimes forecast areas where damaging grasshopper populations may occur during the following year (the next summer). Land managers and property owners request APHIS assistance to control grasshopper outbreaks because of a history of damage, the potential damage to rangeland resources forecast in the current year, and as determined by spring nymphal assessment and delimitation surveys conducted prior to the summer treatment season. Some benefits of preventing high populations of grasshoppers include saving rangeland forage for wildlife and livestock feeding, along with preventing the loss of sensitive plant species by herbivorous insects.

Rural economies depend on rangelands for productive forage to provide for wildlife and livestock grazing. A reduction in forage has a significant impact on cattle health and weight gain which adversely impacts producers and their livelihoods. Economic values of rangelands also include energy production sites, both fossil and renewable, and recreation sites. Besides these direct market values, rangelands also provide important ecosystem services, such as purification of air and water, water conservation, generation and preservation of soils and renewal of their fertility, detoxification and decomposition of wastes and pollutants, pollination of crops and natural vegetation, dispersal of seeds, cycling and movement of nutrients, control of potential agricultural pests, maintenance of biodiversity, and aesthetic beauty.

Figure 1. 2025 Rangeland Grasshopper Hazard With Mormon Cricket Presence Map

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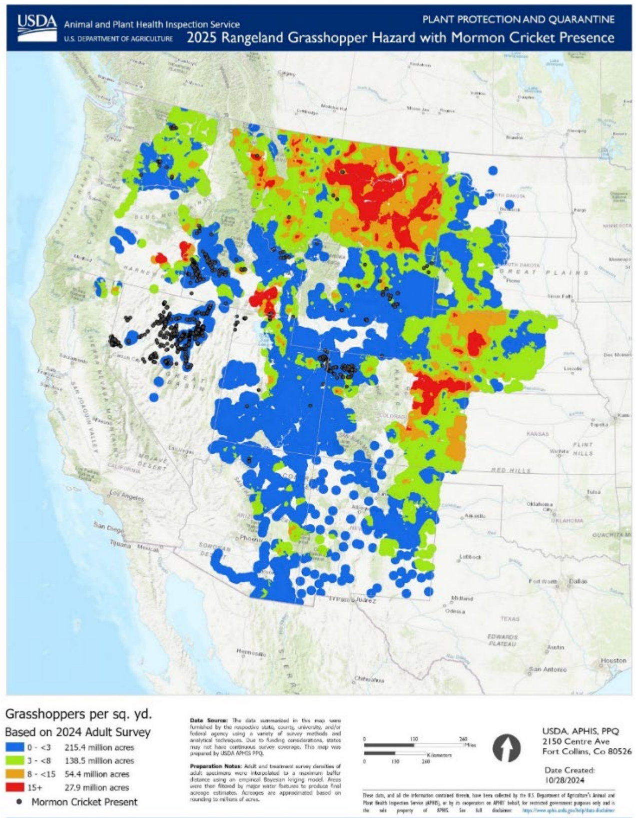

The goal of the proposed suppression program analyzed in this EA is to reduce grasshopper populations below economic injury levels in order to protect the natural resources of rangeland ecosystems, the value of livestock and wildlife forage, and cropland adjacent to rangeland. This EA analyzes potential effects of the proposed action and its alternatives. This EA applies to a proposed suppression program that would take place from May 1st to September 30th in Juab, Millard, Piute, Sanpete & Sevier Counties, Utah.

This EA is prepared in accordance with the requirements under the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) (42 U.S.C. 4321 *et seq*.); Council on Environmental Quality's (CEQ) regulations implementing NEPA (40 CFR 1500 *et seq*.); USDA (7 CFR Part 1b) and APHIS NEPA Implementing Procedures (7 CFR Part 372). APHIS make and issue a decision based on the analysis presented in this EA, the results of public involvement, and consultation with other agencies and individuals. A selection of one of the program alternatives will be made by APHIS for the 2025 - 2029 Control Program for Juab, Millard, Piute, Sanpete & Sevier Counties Utah.

APHIS is aware of the November 12, 2024 decision in Marin Audubon Society v. Federal Aviation Administration, No. 23-1067 (D.C. Cir. Nov. 12, 2024). To the extent that a court may conclude that the CEQ regulations implementing NEPA are not judicially enforceable or binding on this agency action, APHIS has nonetheless elected to follow those regulations at 40 C.F.R. Parts 1500– 1508, in addition to the APHIS's procedures and regulations implementing NEPA at 7 CFR Part 372, to meet the agency's obligations under NEPA, 42 U.S.C. §§ 4321 et seq.

B. Background Discussion

1. Grasshopper Ecology

Rangelands provide many goods and services, including food, fiber, recreational opportunities, and grazing land for cattle (Havstad et al., 2007; Follett and Reed, 2010). Grasshoppers and Mormon crickets are part of rangeland ecosystems, serving as food for wildlife and playing an important role in nutrient cycling. However, grasshoppers and Mormon crickets have the potential to occur at high population levels, referred to as outbreaks (Belovsky et al., 1996), that result in competition with livestock and other herbivores for rangeland forage and can result in damage to rangeland plant species (Wakeland and Shull, 1936; Swain, 1944; Wakeland and Parker, 1952; Hewitt, 1977; Hewitt and Onsager, 1983; Belovsky et al., 1996; Belovsky, 2000; Pfadt, 2002; Branson et al., 2006; Bradshaw et al., 2018). Out of approximately 650 western grasshopper species, only 10 to 15 are recurrent economic pests. However, even during "normal" population years, they remove over 20% of above-ground rangeland forage annually at an estimated cost of $1.2 billion per year (Hewitt & Onsager, 1983; dollar amount adjusted). During severe outbreaks, grasshoppers consume substantial forage, which may disrupt the ecological functioning of rangelands (Rashford et al., 2012).

APHIS supports the use of Integrated Pest Management (IPM) principles in the management of grasshoppers and Mormon Crickets. Integrated pest management is the selection, integration, and implementation of pest control tactics in a systems approach on the basis of anticipated economic, environmental, and sociological consequences. The economic injury level (EIL) concept is the most widely accepted decision-making framework for pest management (Pedigo et al. 1986). The basic principle is to determine the pest level (e.g., population per unit area) that results in monetary damages greater than the cost of treatment – benefit cost ratio greater than one in standard economic terminology. The mathematical formulations can vary depending on the application and data available, but the basic formulation for EIL is given by (see Higley and Pedigo 1996):

$$\text{EIL} = \frac{C}{VDK},$$

where C is treatment cost (e.g., \$/acre), V is market value per unit of production (e.g., \$/lb), D is production loss per pest (e.g., lb/pest) and K is the proportional reduction in loss from applying control. The EIL identifies the pest population (e.g., pest/acre) that justifies spending C dollars on control.

The EIL can be used as an actionable criterion; however, given pest population dynamics and delays in treatment effect, applying treatment once EIL pest levels are observed may result in substantial economic losses. APHIS and our cooperators assess whether grasshopper populations are exceeding an action threshold (historically termed the "economic infestation level"), which identifies the pest level when treatment should be initiated to avoid an increasing pest population from reaching the EIL. The action threshold therefore identifies a temporal criterion to initiate management given observations of pest levels (Figure 1). Action thresholds can be developed in a variety of ways including subjective determinations based on local experience, to objective functions of the EIL.

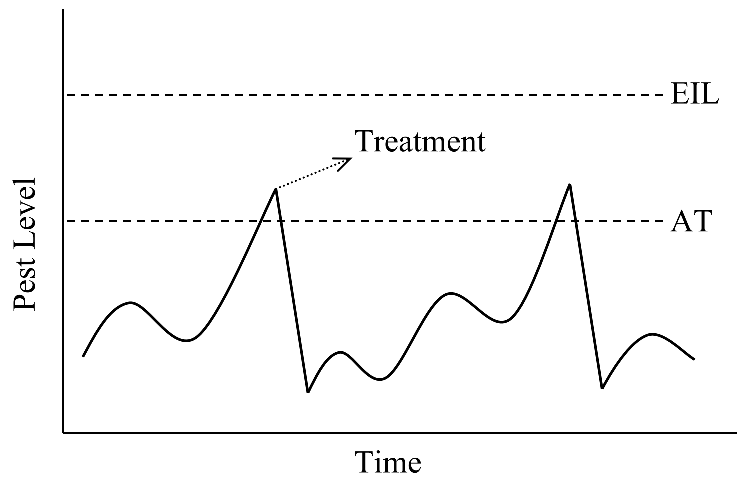

Figure 2. Diagram of the typical relationship between the economic injury level (EIL) and action threshold (AT) for applying pest treatments (Rashford et al., 2012).

The "economic injury level" is a measurement of the economic losses caused by a particular population level of grasshoppers to the infested rangeland. This value is determined on a case-by-case basis with knowledge of many factors including, but not limited to, the following: economic use of available forage or crops; grasshopper species, age, and density present; rangeland productivity and composition; accessibility and cost of alternative forage; and weather patterns. In decision making, the level of economic injury is balanced against the cost of treating to determine an "economic threshold" below which there would not be an overall benefit for the treatment. Short-term economic benefits accrue during the years of treatments, but additional long-term benefit may accrue and be considered in deciding the total value gained by treatment. Grasshopper caused losses to rangeland habitat and cultural and personal values (e.g., aesthetics and cultural resources), although a part of decision making, are not part of the economic values in determining the necessity of treatment.

While market prices are good proxies for the direct market value of commodities damaged by pests (e.g., crops or forage), market prices do not capture all of the potential economic values affected by pests. Market prices, for example, can be highly variable over time and space, depending on local supply and demand conditions (Rashford et al., 2012).

2. Grasshopper Population Control

Grasshopper populations sometimes build to economic injury levels despite even the best land management and other efforts to prevent outbreaks. Prevention of overgrazing, cultural disruption of egg beds (i.e., raking or disking), biological control and irrigation where possible, all help to prevent grasshopper infestations. When forage and land management have failed to prevent grasshopper outbreaks insecticides may be needed to reduce the destruction of rangeland vegetation. APHIS' enabling legislation provides, in relevant part, that 'on request of the administering agency or the agriculture department of an affected State, the Secretary, to protect rangeland, shall immediately treat Federal, State, or private lands that are infested with grasshoppers or Mormon crickets'… (7 U.S.C. § 7717(c)(1)).

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Under the guidance of Section 417 of the Plant Protection Act of 2000, USDA plays a coordinating role between federal agencies, state agricultural departments, and private ranchers to control both grasshoppers and Mormon crickets. APHIS accomplishes this by conducting cooperative surveys during the early spring and late summer to measure both nymphal and adult populations of grasshoppers, respectively. The annual adult surveys can be used to forecast grasshopper population levels in the following year. Where outbreaks are common, the program selectively employs nymphal surveys to delimit potential treatment boundaries.

IPM procedures are thoroughly incorporated into the management of grasshoppers by APHIS. IPM strategies consider economic, environmental, and pesticide resistance consequences of pest control tactics. The primary objective of IPM is to control agricultural pest populations below the economic injury level. APHIS published a programmatic EIS in 1987 for rangeland grasshopper control that included IPM methods as the preferred alternative. At that time APHIS expected the IPM alternative would primarily include biological or chemical methods for grasshopper control. APHIS would continue to participate in research and testing to identify other feasible cultural and mechanical control methods. The current program uses IPM principles by selecting a particular control method on an individual site after taking into consideration of economic (the cost and the cost-effectiveness of various methods in both the short and long term), ecological (the impact on nontarget organisms and the environment), and sociological (the acceptability of various IPM methods to cooperators, or the potential effects on land use) factors.

APHIS uses survey data to inform stakeholders of the potential for economic damage associated with grasshoppers. The program also provides technical assistance on insecticides, application methodology and cost benefit analysis to equip land managers with information needed to make economically and environmentally sound grasshopper treatment decisions.

APHIS responds to solicitations from land managers to assess, and if necessary, suppresses grasshopper infestations. While many stakeholders interact with the program, Federal Land Managers represent about 75% of suppression requests. Engaging in grasshopper suppression is complicated, and funding, rangeland conditions, environmental regulations, politics and public sentiment all impact the process. The need for rapid and effective response when an outbreak occurs limits the options available to APHIS. The application of an insecticide within all or part of the outbreak area is often the only response available to APHIS to rapidly suppress or reduce grasshopper populations and effectively protect rangeland (USDA APHIS, 2011). APHIS uses several factors to determine if grasshopper suppression is warranted, including, but not limited to, the pest species present, maturity of the pest species population, timing of treatment, costs and benefits of conducting the action, and ecological considerations (USDA APHIS, 2008).

The site-specific data used to make treatment decisions in real time is gathered during spring nymph surveys. Surveys help to determine general areas, among the millions of acres where harmful grasshopper infestations may occur in the spring of the following year. Survey data provides the best estimate of future grasshopper populations, while short-term climate or environmental factors change where the outbreak populations occur. The general site-specific data include: grasshopper densities, species complex, dominant species, dominant life stage, grazing allotment terrain, soil types, range conditions, local weather patterns (wind, temp., precipitation), slope and aspect for hatching beds, animal unit months (AUM's) present in grazing allotment, forage damage estimates, number of potential AUM's consumed by grasshopper population, potential AUM's managed for allotment and value of the AUM, estimated cost of replacement feed for livestock, rotational time frame for grazing allotments, number of livestock in grazing allotment. This information is typically collected, accumulated and analyzed each year in some detail by the land managing entity. It includes grasshopper species complex, population densities, dominant life stage and local weather conditions. These are all factors that are considered when determining the economic injury level of the potential treatment area.

Although APHIS does surveys and considers the factors described above to determine whether treatment is warranted, many grasshopper and Mormon cricket species can be found statewide within suitable habitat meaning that damage or threats of damage to rangelands can occur wherever those species occur. Program activities fall within the category of actions in which the exact location of individual requests for treatments can be difficult to predict with sufficient notice to accurately describe the locations within which APHIS can reasonably expect to be acting. There are eight to ten economically impacting species of grasshoppers in Utah which can begin hatching in April all the way through mid-August, depending upon the species. Treatment must take place during early nymphal development in order to be effective, so timing of treatment is imperative albeit difficult to predict due the dynamic nature of infestations and the short life span of Orthopterans. There is always the need to respond quickly when a determination is made that treatment is warranted. In the Description of the Affected Environment section below (Chapter III, section A), APHIS does its utmost to predict locations where treatments may occur based on survey data, past and present requests for treatments, and historical data and trends. However, APHIS cannot predict all the specific locations at which affected resource owners would determine that a rangeland damage problem has become intolerable to the point that they request treatment, because these locations change from year to year. Therefore, APHIS must be ready for treatment requests on short notice anywhere Juab, Millard, Piute, Sanpete & Sevier Counties to protect rangeland where consistent with applicable federal and state laws, land management agency policies, and where funding and resources to conduct treatments are available.

3. APHIS Environmental Compliance and Cooperators

In June 2002, APHIS completed an EIS describing the agency's most effective methods of reducing the damage caused by grasshopper populations in Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Kansas, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Texas, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming. During November 2019, APHIS published human health and ecological risk assessments (HHERA) for the use of carbaryl, chlorantraniliprole, diflubenzuron and malathion by the program. APHIS also published an updated EIS to consolidate and incorporate the available data and analyze the environmental risk of new program tools. The risk analysis in the 2019 EIS is incorporated by reference (USDA APHIS, 2019).

The Utah Agricultural Code, Section 4-35, provides for certain actions authorized by this "Insect Infestation Emergency Control Act." It authorizes the Utah Commissioner of Agriculture to appoint members to a Decision and Action Committee who are directly affected and involved in the current insect infestation emergency. The committee establishes a system of priorities for any insect infestation emergency, and members of USDA, APHIS, PPQ in Utah have served on the committee and have been asked to help address the grasshopper and Mormon cricket problem which this document analyzes. The Commissioner of Agriculture, with the consent of the governor, has declared that this infestation jeopardizes property and recourses and has designated, with the help of APHIS surveys, the areas affected. The Commissioner of Agriculture, with the consent of the governor typically prepares a declaration explaining the current infestation jeopardizes property, lists recourses, and designates based on APHIS surveys the affected areas. has initiated operations to control the problem in those designated areas and has request APHIS to enter into a cooperative agreement with the Utah Department of Agriculture and Food (UDAF) to cooperatively attack the infestations and mitigate consequences related thereto.

In January 2022, APHIS and the Bureau of Land Management (BLM) signed a memorandum of understanding (MOU) detailing cooperative efforts between the two groups on suppression of grasshoppers and Mormon crickets on BLM lands (Document # 22-8100-0870-MU, January 11, 2022). This MOU clarifies that APHIS will prepare and issue to the public site-specific environmental documents that evaluate potential impacts associated with proposed measures to suppress economically damaging grasshopper and Mormon cricket populations. The MOU also states that these documents will be prepared under the APHIS NEPA implementing procedures with cooperation and input from the BLM.

The MOU further states that the responsible BLM official will request in writing the inclusion of appropriate lands in the APHIS suppression project when treatment on BLM land is necessary. The BLM must also prepare a Pesticide Use Proposal (Form FS-2100-2) for APHIS to treat infestations. According to the provisions of the MOU, APHIS can begin treatments after APHIS issues an appropriate decision document and BLM prepares and approves the Pesticide Use Proposal.

In August 2024, APHIS and the Forest Service (FS) signed an MOU detailing cooperative efforts between the two groups on the suppression of grasshoppers on FS system lands (Document # 24-8100-0573-MU, August 16, 2024). This MOU clarifies that APHIS would prepare and issue to the public site-specific environmental documentations that evaluate potential impacts associated with the proposed measures to suppress economically damaging grasshopper populations. The MOU also states that these documents would be prepared under the APHIS NEPA implementation procedures with cooperation and input from the FS.

The MOU further states that the responsible FS official would request in writing the inclusion of appropriate lands in the APHIS suppression project when treatment on FS land is necessary The FS must also prepare a Pesticide Use Proposal (Form: FS-2100-2) for APHIS to treat infestations. According to the provisions of the MOU, APHIS can begin treatments after APHIS issues an appropriate decision document and FS prepares and approves the Pesticide Use Proposal.

In September 2016, APHIS and the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) signed an MOU detailing cooperative efforts to suppress grasshoppers on Tribal lands. This MOU clarifies that APHIS would prepare and issue to the public site-specific environmental documents that evaluate potential impacts associated with the proposed measures to suppress economically damaging grasshopper populations. The MOU also states that these documents would be prepared under the APHIS NEPA implementing procedures with cooperation and input from the BIA.

The MOU further states that the responsible BIA official would request in writing the inclusion of appropriate lands in the APHIS suppression project when treatment on BIA land is necessary. The BIA must also approve a pesticide use proposal for APHIS to treat infestations of grasshoppers or Mormon crickets. According to the provisions of the MOU, APHIS can begin treatments after APHIS issues an appropriate decision document and the BIA approves the pesticide use proposal.

APHIS provides technical assistance to Federal, Tribal, State and private land managers including the use of IPM. However, implementation of on-the-ground IPM activities is limited to land management agencies and Tribes, as well as private landowners. APHIS completed the Grasshopper Integrated Pest Management (GIPM) project. One of the goals of the GIPM is to develop new methods of suppressing grasshopper and Mormon cricket populations that will reduce non-target effects. Reduced agent area treatments (RAATs) is one of the methods that has been developed to reduce the amount of pesticide used in suppression activities and is a component of IPM because grasshopper populations are reduced below the level causing economic harm. APHIS typically employs the RAATs method in which the application rate of insecticide is reduced from conventional levels, and treated swaths are alternated with swaths that are not directly treated. The RAATs strategy relies on the effects of an insecticide to suppress grasshoppers within treated swaths while conserving grasshopper predators and parasites in swaths not directly treated (USDA APHIS, 2002). APHIS continues to evaluate new suppression tools and methods for grasshopper and Mormon cricket populations, including biological control.

C. About This Process

Activities under the Program are subject to the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) (42 U.S.C. 4321 *et seq*.). APHIS follows the Council on Environmental Quality's (CEQ) regulations implementing NEPA (40 CFR 1500 *et seq*.) along with USDA (7 CFR Part 1b) and APHIS NEPA Implementing Procedures (7 CFR Part 372) as part of the decision-making process. NEPA sets forth the requirement that all federal actions be evaluated in terms of the following:

- Their potential to significantly affect the quality of the human environment for the purpose of avoiding or, where possible, mitigating and minimizing adverse impacts;
- Making informed decisions; and
- Including agencies and the public in their NEPA planning in support of informed decision-making.
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As previously discussed in Chapter I. section B.2. of this EA, the NEPA process for grasshopper management is complicated by the fact that there is a limited window of time when treatments are most effective, and it is difficult to forecast which specific sites within the area covered by this EA will both have requests for treatment and be warranted for treatment to suppress grasshopper outbreaks. As such, the geographic scope of the actions

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and analyses in this EA is Juab, Millard, Piute, Sanpete & Sevier Counties, to account for the wide geographic areas in which grasshoppers and Mormon crickets occur on rangelands. Then, when grasshopper populations grow to nuisance levels, program managers examine the proposed treatment area to ensure that this EA applies to the specific areas where control activities will be conducted and can act quickly. At the same time, the Program strives to alert the public in a timely manner to its more concrete treatment plans and avoid or minimize harm to the environment in implementing those plans.

Section 1619 of the Farm Bill (7 USC 8791) also prohibits disclosure of certain information from agricultural producers who provide information to participate in programs of the department. If treatments occur on Tribal lands intergovernmental agreements between APHIS and cooperators with Tribal Nations may preclude disclosure of Tribal information to the public without the consent of the Tribal Administrator. Individuals may request information on the specific treatment areas on Tribal Lands from the individual Tribal Nations.

Public involvement under the CEQ Regulations for Implementing the Procedural Provisions of NEPA distinguishes Federal actions with effects of national concern from those with effects primarily of local concern (40 CFR 1501.9). The 2019 EIS is a programmatic analysis of the environmental impacts of the Program across 17 Western States, including Utah.

To assist with understanding applicable issues and reasonable alternatives to manage grasshopper outbreaks in rangelands and to ensure that the analysis is complete for informed decision making, APHIS has made this Draft EA available for a 30-day public review and comment period. Public outreach notification methods for this EA include local newspapers – Deseret News and Salt Lake Tribune; Regulations.gov; Stakeholder Registry Notice; public meetings. After reviewing and considering all timely received comments, APHIS will issue a decision and will notify the public of the decision using the same methods as for the advertising the availability of the Draft EA.

Scoping as defined by NEPA is an early and open process for determining the scope of issues to be addressed by the environmental risk analysis and for identifying the significant issues related to a proposed action (40 CFR 1501.7). Scoping is different from the public notice, Draft EA 30-day comment period and our responses in the Final EA. Scoping occurred before the EIS was written and was part of our stakeholder engagement before writing the Draft EA, for example, meetings occurred with beekeeper associations, local rancher/farmer groups and County Commissions.

APHIS uses the scoping process to enlist land managers and the public to identify alternatives and issues to be considered during the development of a grasshopper suppression program. The process can occur formally and informally through meetings, conversations, or written comments from individuals and groups.

APHIS has received numerous comments through emails, phone calls, texts and in-person meetings. APHIS reviewed and considered all comments in preparing the draft EA, and the vast majority advocated the suppression of damaging grasshopper infestations in order to protect homes and gardens, recreational vehicle campgrounds, agricultural resources,

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rangeland grazing resources for wildlife and livestock and to minimize the destruction of sensitive plant species.

II. Alternatives

To engage in comprehensive NEPA risk analysis APHIS must frame potential agency decisions into distinct action alternatives. These program alternatives are then evaluated to determine the significance of environmental effects. The 2019 programmatic EIS looked at the environmental impacts of three different alternatives:

1. Alternative 1: No action alternative, which would maintain the status quo of allowing applications of two pesticides (carbaryl and diflubenzuron). Pesticides may be applied as a spray or bait using ground or aerial equipment at full coverage rates or, more typically, by using RAATs.
2. Alternative 2: No suppression alternative where APHIS would not fund or participate in any program to suppress grasshopper infestations. Any suppression program would be implemented by another entity; and
3. Alternative 3: Preferred alternative updates the information and allows use of two pesticides (carbaryl and diflubenzuron). Upon request, APHIS would make a single application per year to a treatment area, and would apply it at conventional or, more likely, RAAT rates. The approach to use either conventional treatment or RAATs is an adaptive management feature that allows the Program to make site-specific applications with a range of rates to ensure adequate suppression. The preferred alternative further incorporates adaptive management by allowing treatments that may be approved in the future, and by including protocols for assessing the safety and efficacy of any future treatment when compared to currently approved treatments.

APHIS selected Alternative 3 in the Record of Decision (ROD). However, under each alternative APHIS would conduct survey activities, provide technical assistance, and may make insecticide treatments according to the agency's authority under the Plant Protection Act. An example of APHIS technical guidance is the agency's work on integrated pest management (IPM) for the grasshopper program. IPM is defined as a sustainable approach to managing pests by combining biological, cultural, physical and chemical tools in a way that minimizes economic, health and environmental risks (7 U.S. Code 136r-1). IPM for grasshoppers includes biological control, chemical control, rangeland and population dynamics, and decision support tools. Under all the alternatives considered in the EIS APHIS would continue to conduct grasshopper surveys and provide information on ways to manage grasshopper populations in the long-term, such as livestock grazing methods and cultural control by farmers.

APHIS has funded the investigation of various IPM strategies for the grasshopper program. Congress established the Grasshopper Integrated Pest Management (GIPM) to study the feasibility of using IPM for managing grasshoppers. The major objectives of the APHIS GIPM program were to: 1) manage grasshopper populations in study areas, 2) compare the effectiveness of an IPM program for rangeland grasshoppers with the effectiveness of a standard chemical control program on a regional scale, 3) determine the effectiveness of early sampling in detecting developing grasshopper infestations, 4) quantify short- and long-term responses of grasshopper populations to treatments, and 5) develop and evaluate new grasshopper suppression techniques that have minimal effects on non-target species (Quinn, 2000). The results for the GIPM program have been provided to managers of public and private rangeland (www.sidney.ars.usda.gov/grasshopper/index.htm).

The 2019 programmatic EIS provides a solid analytical foundation, but no site-specific suppression pesticide treatments are implemented relying entirely on the risk analysis of the EIS and ROD. The EIS provides the basic background information needed for the "tiering" of future project-specific analyses on rangelands in accordance with the CEQ regulations for implementing NEPA. APHIS instead prepares state-or site-specific EAs to address local issues before implementing suppression pesticide treatments. Therefore, APHIS decided to prepare an EA for Juab, Millard, Piute, Sanpete & Sevier Counties, Utah to analyze more site-specific impacts. The EA tiers to the 2019 programmatic EIS and incorporates by reference the carbaryl and diflubenzuron HHERAs also published in 2019. Copies of the 2019 programmatic EIS and ROD are available for review at 1860 West Alexander St., West Valley City, UT 84119. These documents are also available at the Rangeland Grasshopper and Mormon Cricket Program web site, http://www.aphis.usda.gov/plant-health/grasshopper.

A. Alternatives Considered for Comparative Analysis

1. No Suppression Program Alternative

Under Alternative A, the No Action alternative, APHIS would not conduct a program to suppress grasshopper infestations within Juab, Millard, Piute, Sanpete & Sevier Counties, Utah. Under this alternative, APHIS would continue to conduct grasshopper surveys and provide information on ways to manage grasshopper populations in the long-term, such as different livestock grazing methods and cultural control by farmers. Any suppression program would be implemented by a federal land management agency, a state agriculture department, a local government, or a private group or individual.

2. Insecticide Applications at Conventional Rates or Reduced Agent Area Treatments with Adaptive Management Strategy (Preferred Alternative)

Under Alternative B, the Preferred Alternative, APHIS would manage a grasshopper treatment program using techniques and tools discussed hereafter to suppress outbreaks. Modern GPS technology provides for accurate application and documentation of treatments and is a program requirement. Weather conditions, public safety, buffering of sensitive sites and other supervision work is conducted by APHIS for every treatment, as proscribed policy in annual Treatment Guidelines (Appendix A), Environmental Monitoring Plans and Environmental Monitoring Reports, to ensure that treatments occur with minimal drift and adequate buffering of sensitive sites.

The insecticides available for use by APHIS include the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) registered chemicals carbaryl and diflubenzuron. These chemicals have varied modes of action. Carbaryl works by inhibiting acetylcholinesterase (enzymes involved in nerve impulses). Diflubenzuron inhibits the formation of chitin by insects which causes weak exoskeletons. APHIS would make a single application per year to a treatment area and would apply insecticide at a rate conventionally used for grasshopper suppression treatments as reduced agent area treatments (RAATs). RAATs are the most common application method for all program insecticides, and only rarely do rangeland pest conditions warrant full coverage and higher rates. Full coverage and higher rates may be more beneficial in areas with dense vegetation for the pesticide to have the desired effect. Higher grasshopper densities and the need for higher grasshopper mortality can also warrant full coverage and higher rates. This holds true for protecting resources in peril such as cropland that can be decimated by grasshopper outbreaks.

APHIS selects which insecticides and rates are appropriate for suppression of a grasshopper outbreak based on several biological, logistical, environmental, and economical criteria. The primary biological factor is the grasshopper species and the most common life stage of the dominant species of concern. When grasshopper populations are mostly comprised of the first three instars diflubenzuron is typically selected because it is effective, economical and least harmful to non-target species. Diflubenzuron limits the formation of chitin in arthropod exoskeletons and can produce 90 to 97% grasshopper mortality in nascent populations with a greater percentage of early instars. The circumstances where the use of carbaryl bait would be best are reduced because of the higher cost per acre than liquid insecticide formulations. Only certain species consume carbaryl insecticide when it is formulated as a bait and their migratory or banding behavior allows targeted treatments over smaller areas. Some examples of species that meet these criteria are clearwinged grasshopper (*Camnula pellucida*) and Mormon crickets (*Anabrus simplex*).

The RAATs strategy is effective for grasshopper suppression because the insecticide controls grasshoppers within treated swaths while conserving grasshopper predators and parasites in swaths not directly treated. RAATs can decrease the rate of insecticide applied by either using lower insecticide concentrations or decreasing the deposition of insecticide applied by alternating treated and untreated swaths. Typically, program managers choose both options to lower the total amount of insecticide applied and treatment costs. Either carbaryl or diflubenzuron would be considered under this alternative, typically at the following application rates ((Lockwood et al., 2000, Foster et al., 2000, USDA APHIS, 2019):

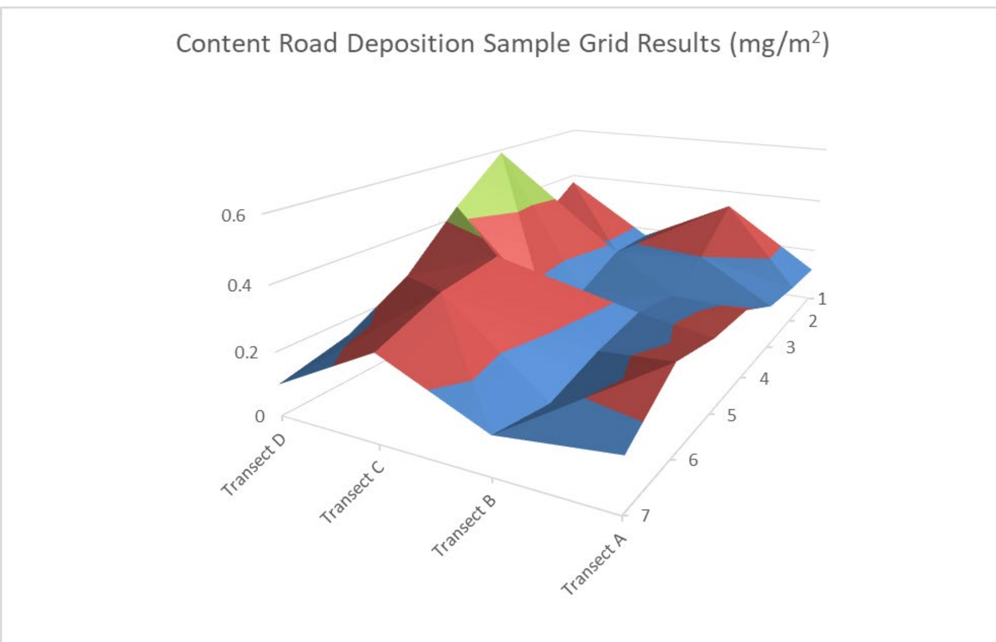
- 10.0 pounds (0.20 lbs a.i./ac treated) of 2 percent carbaryl bait;
- 0.75 or 1.0 fluid ounce (0.012 lbs a.i./ac sprayed) of diflubenzuron.

The width of the area not directly treated (the untreated swath) under the RAATs method is not standardized. The proportion of land treated during RAATs is a complex function of the rate of grasshopper movement, which is a function of developmental stage, population density, and weather (Narisu et al., 1999, 2000), as well as the properties of the insecticide (insecticides with longer residuals allow wider spacing between treated swaths). Foster et al. (2000) left 20 to 50% of their study plots untreated, while Lockwood et al. (2000) left 20 to 67% of their treatment areas untreated. Following the conventions and procedures established by these studies, the grasshopper program typically leaves 50% of a spray block untreated for ground applications where the swath width is between 20 and 45 feet. For aerial applications, the recommended skipped swath width is typically no more than 100 feet for diflubenzuron. However, many Federal government-organized treatments of rangelands tend to prefer to use a 50% skipped swath width, meaning if a fixed-wing aircraft's swath width is, for example, 150 ft., then the skipped habitat area will also be 150 ft. The selection of insecticide and the use of an associated swath widths is site dependent.

Rather than suppress grasshopper populations to the greatest extent possible, the goal of this method is to suppress grasshopper populations to less than the economic injury level.

The variation in pesticide deposition resulting from following the RAATs procedures is not expected to result in chemical residues within the no spray swaths. Instead, swaths with maximum application rates alternate with swaths of low deposition rates. Program managers decided to increase the number of deposition dye card samples during 2021 to gather more data on actual application rates inside treatment blocks. Field personnel stationed 28 dye cards in a 150-foot spaced grid with four transects of seven cards. The long axis of the grid was oriented approximately parallel with the direction the aircraft were flying during the treatment. Unfortunately, strong winds caused pesticide drift from the flight swaths that were sprayed to the unsprayed swaths. Shortly after the portion of the treatment block containing the dye card grid was sprayed, the program managers ceased operations for the morning because wind gusts were measured over ten miles per hour. Figure 1 is a graph showing the pesticide concentrations on the dye cards as they were positioned in the grid. Despite the strong winds, the linear variation in deposition during an application using the RAAT method is evident. The program diflubenzuron application rate is 1.0 fluid ounce per acre which is equivalent to 1.75 mg/m2, approximately three times greater than the highest dye card concentration.

Figure 3 – Diflubenzuron concentration on dye cards placed 150 feet apart in a grid



The concept of reducing the treatment area of insecticides while also applying less insecticide per treated acre was developed in 1995, with the first field tests of RAATs in Wyoming (Lockwood and Schell, 1997). Applications can be made either aerially or with ground-based equipment (Deneke and Keyser, 2011). Studies using the RAATs strategy have shown good control (up to 85% of that achieved with a total area insecticide application) at a significantly lower cost and less insecticide, and with a markedly higher abundance of non-target organisms following application (Deneke and Keyser, 2011; Lockwood et al., 2000). Levels of control may also depend on variables such as body size of targeted grasshoppers, growth rate of forage, and the amount of coverage obtained by the spray applications (Deneke and Keyser, 2011). Control rates may also be augmented by the necrophilic and necrophagic behavior of grasshoppers, in which grasshoppers are attracted to volatile fatty acids emanating from cadavers of dead grasshoppers and move into treated swaths to cannibalize cadavers (Lockwood et al., 2002; Smith and Lockwood, 2003). Under optimal conditions, RAATs decrease control costs, as well as host plant losses and environmental effects (Lockwood et al., 2000; Lockwood et al., 2002).

Typical aerial treatment designs in Utah have historically used 1.0 fl. oz. of diflubenzuron per acre with 50% coverage (single swath skips). Dependent on the size of the treatment and the aircraft capabilities, previous treatments had spacings of 150-foot swath widths alternating between treated and untreated swaths. The aim for these treatments is to take place sometime between the end of May and the end of June. Aerial treatment blocks consist mainly of public land possibly interspersed with private or state parcels. However, the number of blocks treated in a year depends on many factors such as the budget, and the severity of the infestation that year. The length of a treatment varies substantially due to weather conditions, personnel available, and scope of the treatments to name a few.

One example of a prior treatment from 2002 was the first aerial treatment for Mormon crickets by USDA, APHIS. It was an 18,000-acre block from central Utah where there were over 2 Mormon crickets per square yard (Over 2 tends to be the threshold for MC treatments). Single skip swathing or 50% coverage was used, so 9,000 acres were sprayed with diflubenzuron. Overall, the 2002 aerial program took about 3 days to complete

Ground treatments using 2 or 5% carbaryl bait are conducted by USDA, APHIS, PPQ in Utah using ATVs with attached bait spreaders. Due to Utah's rough terrain, ground treatments are performed in areas where an aerial treatment wouldn't be feasible. About 2 pounds of bait are used per acre, with an area typically being treated once per year. The carbaryl bait pesticide labels do however allow for 2 treatments per year if there is a minimum retreatment interval of 14 days. The size of ground treatments varies, usually with several acres treated at a time. These treatments are utilized to target grasshopper hotspots, especially later in the season when diflubenzuron is less effective.

Insecticide applications at conventional rates and complete area coverage, is an approach that APHIS has used in the past but is currently uncommon because RAATs treatments use less insecticide and take less time to treat the same area resulting in substantial cost savings. Under this alternative, carbaryl and diflubenzuron would cover all treatable sites within the designated treatment block per maximum treatment rates following label directions:

- 4.0 pounds (0.20 lbs a.i./ac treated) of 5 percent carbaryl bait;
- 1.0 fluid ounce (0.016 lbs a.i./ac sprayed) of diflubenzuron; or

The generalized potential environmental effects of the application of carbaryl or diflubenzuron under this alternative are discussed in detail in the 2019 EIS. A description of anticipated site-specific impacts from this alternative may be found in Part IV of this EA.

B. Protective Measures and Program Procedures to Avoid or Reduce Adverse Impacts

The Program applies insecticides as liquid ultra-low volume (ULV) sprays or solid-based carbaryl baits through aerial or ground applications. Habitat diversity, topographical features, meteorological conditions, economic concerns, and environmental considerations all have important roles in choosing the best form of treatment (Foster and Onsager, 1996). Aerial applications are typical for treatments over large and less accessible areas. Ground applications are most likely to be made when treating localized grasshopper outbreaks or for treatments where the most precise placement of insecticide is desired.

Compared to sprays, baits are easier to direct toward the target area, are much more specific toward grasshoppers, act primarily through ingestion, and affect fewer non-target organisms than sprays (Peach et al., 1994; Foster, 1996; Latchininsky and VanDyke, 2006). The baits have a carrier, such as bran, that absorbs the carbaryl, making it less bioavailable, particularly in dermal exposures (USDA APHIS, 2015). Biodegradation of carbaryl occurs readily in soil, but there is moderate potential for bioconcentration in aquatic organisms. This is unlikely to occur due to the application buffers from aquatic sites and the lack of significant drift due to the large bait size used during application.

ULV applications use lower than the conventional label rates, specifically 0.5 gallon or less per acre of insecticide in liquid form. Liquid applications typically produce a quicker, greater, and more predictable grasshopper mortality rate than bait applications (Fuller et al., 1996). Generally, contract costs are substantially lower for applying ULV sprays compared to conventional liquid application rates and bait applications because ULV sprays use less product (Foster and Onsager, 1996). The program avoids off target drift to protect environmentally sensitive areas and maintain treatment efficacy. Various spray carriers and adjuvants minimize off-target movement of ULV sprays including synthetic or natural oils (e.g., canola oil or clean crop oil).

The RAATs strategy reduces the treatment area, the application rate of insecticides, or both. RAATs methods suppress grasshopper populations below the economic injury level, rather than to the greatest extent possible, keeping with the IPM principles that have governed the program since the 1980s. Insecticides suppress grasshoppers within treated swaths, yet RAATs reduces cost and conserves non-target biological resources (including predators and parasites of grasshoppers, as well as beneficial grasshoppers) in untreated areas. With less area being treated, more beneficial grasshoppers and pollinators survive treatment. There is no standardized percentage of area that is left untreated. The proportion of land treated in a RAATs approach is a complex function of the rate of grasshopper movement, which is a function of developmental stage, population density, and weather (Narisu et al., 1999, 2000), as well as the properties of the insecticide (insecticides with longer residuals allow wider spacing between treated swaths).

APHIS grasshopper treatments must follow all applicable Federal, State, tribal, and local laws and regulations regarding pesticide use, including all USEPA- and State-approved label instructions. APHIS has also implemented several measures that go beyond label instructions to protect workers and the environment. All aircraft must have a positive on/off system that will prevent leaks from the nozzles and a positive emergency shutoff valve between the tank and the pump. Whenever possible, applicators must avoid aerial ferrying

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and turnaround routes over water bodies and sensitive habitats (USDA APHIS, 2013). This will reduce the risk of accidental release of insecticides into aquatic habitats and other sensitive habitats. Pre-treatment training of the aerial contractors and daily contractor and APHIS staff briefings throughout the duration of each project, help insure against accidental releases into sensitive areas.

The program has procedures to limit potential movement of applied insecticides outside of the intended treatment area. Operationally, the accurate placement of the ULV spray insecticide is essential if grasshopper populations are to be suppressed efficaciously. Winds may displace the insecticide, and high air temperatures combined with low humidity may cause fine droplets to evaporate and drift without reaching the targeted vegetation. During applications, APHIS personnel constantly monitor wind conditions because when steady wind speeds exceed 10 miles per hour (mph), or wind direction changes towards sensitive habitat treatments are suspended until conditions improve. Field personnel measure ground and air temperatures to check for temperature inversions characterized by stable air with little mixing. Temperature inversions can cause ULV spray droplets to remain aloft increasing the potential for off-site transport of drift. Diflubenzuron formulations are mixed with significant amounts of heavy crop oil in tank mixtures which decreases drift potential since individual droplet weights increase.

The program has also established treatment restriction buffers around water bodies to protect those features from insecticide drift and runoff. The labels for all program insecticides prohibit direct application to water (defined as reservoirs, lakes, ponds, pools left by seasonal streams, springs, wetlands, and perennial streams and rivers). APHIS maintains the following additional buffers for water bodies that are not designated critical habitat for listed aquatic species: 500-foot buffer for aerial sprays, 200-foot buffer for ground sprays, and a 50-foot buffer for bait applications (USDA APHIS, 2013).

Contractors' use of Trimble GPS Navigation equipment is used to navigate and capture shapefiles of the treatment areas. All sensitive sites are buffered out of the treatment area using flagging which is highly visible to the applicator. All sensitive sites are reviewed in the daily briefing with APHIS personnel including the applicator working on the treatment site.

III. Environmental Consequences

Chapter III identifies the affected environment where the Program will be implemented, identifies the types of impacts or effects that will be evaluated, and the environmental issues that will be studied. Each environmental issue section addresses a separate environmental resource, and includes background information, an evaluation of the impacts on those resources, and a conclusion. The alternatives are compared with the environmental consequences of the proposed action at the end of each issue section. Determination of significance of the impacts predicted in this chapter does not occur in this EA but is made by the APHIS decisionmaker documented in the appropriate decision document.

A. Description of Affected Environment

Juab, Millard, Piute, Sanpete and Sevier Counties are generally characterized within the Great Basin. The five-county area is semi-arid with an average rainfall of 6 to 15 inches per year in the

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lowlands and 16 to 35 inches per year in the higher mountain elevations. Precipitation occurs primarily in the form of snow and spring rains from November through April, with high intensity, short- duration summer storms in July and August. The length of the growing season is related to elevation, averaging from 120 to 140 days. The climate is characterized by low relative humidity, rapid evaporation, generally clear skies, and daily and annual fluctuations in temperatures (i.e. cold winters, hot summers, warmer days and colder nights).

Juab County lies in an area devoid of external drainages. The soils of the area are mainly mollisols plus aridisols, with smaller pockets of playa and entisols. The mollisols are at higher elevations and are relatively fertile. As a result, they support grasslands and forested areas and are above 5,000 feet. Aridisols, occurring at lower elevations, are thin soils that can be strongly alkaline and may have crop potential if irrigated. Native vegetation ranges from desert shrubs, including greasewood, saltbushes, and shad scale, with a dominance of sagebrush steppe vegetation, mixed with pinyon-juniper as the elevation increases. The wet, north slopes of the mountains contain stands of aspen, mountain shrubs, conifers and Douglas fir. In addition, there are various noxious weeds which may at times be treated by the landowner/manager.

Millard County consists of arid desert lowlands without external drainage and isolated mountain ranges generally running north to south. Soils are desert to semi-desert, well-drained to excessively well-drained, and level too steep on hills, lake terraces and alluvial fans. The soils range from non-saline to very strongly saline, and some are moderately to strongly alkali. The affected soils are found on lower slopes and some alluvial fans, flood plains, lake plains and playas. The dominant native vegetation types are cold desert shrub communities and include saltbush and greasewood. As the elevation increases, sagebrush steppe vegetation missed with pinyon-juniper becomes dominant. The wet, north slopes of the mountains contain stands of aspen, mountain shrubs and conifers. Cottonwood, alder, mountain maple, Gambel oak, and cliffrose are also common in some areas of Millard County.

Piute, Sanpete and Sevier Counties contain soils which are related to the amount of precipitation, historic vegetation cover and parent material. Light-colored soils (aridisols and entisols) occupy the Sevier and San Pitch Valleys.

Dominantly dark-colored soils (mollisols and aridisols) occur on alluvial fans, terraces, and hills in a belt above the valley floors. In some valley plains or valley bottoms, native vegetation is primarily sagebrush and pinyon-juniper communities with some grass types. A small portion of higher elevation slopes contain stands of mountain shrubs, aspen, and conifer, with riparian vegetation along waterways.

Within Juab, Millard, Piute, Sanpete and Sevier Counties, surface water resources consist of Sevier River, Otter Creek and Ferron River; Mona, Chicken Creek, Sevier Bridge, Nine Mile, Ferron, D.M.A.D., Huntington, Gunnison, Fool Creek, Scipio, Johnson, Forsythe, Piute and Otter Creek Reservoirs; Clear, Pruess and Fish Lakes; some intermittent live streams, ponds, stock tanks and troughs, seeps and springs. Stream habitat is generally fair to good condition, while the reservoirs and other water resources provide adequate water for wildlife and domestic livestock use as well as habitat for wildlife and excellent recreation.

Agricultural areas within the five counties include native and improved rangeland, irrigated pastures and cropland, and some orchards. Within Juab County, major croplands include: the western portion of the Juab Valley on Long Ridge and the West Hills; certain areas within and west of the West Hills in Sage Valley, and isolated areas north of the Sevier Desert. Major croplands in Millard County include nineteen sites encompassing 5,200 acres located in the following area: the vicinity of Oak City; the edge of the crop lands northwest of Delta (the Sevier Desert); the edge of the croplands west of Fillmore and croplands northwest of Kanosh (Black Rock Desert). Major croplands within Sanpete, Sevier and Piute Counties include: the Sevier

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Valley of Sanpete and Sevier Counties; the San Pitch Valley between the Wasatch Plateau and the San Pitch Mountains from Fountain Green on the north to just south of Thompsonville near U.S. Highway 89 in Piute County. There are 170 acres of potential cropland that may need protection in Piute County and 1,390 acres in Sevier County. No figure is listed for Sanpete County, but it is estimated at 1,500 acres.

B. Special Management Areas

APHIS is aware there are areas that have greater scenic and environmental value within the rangeland areas considered by this EA. These areas might have remote recreational uses, special ecological characteristics or species that are of special concern to land management agencies, the public, or other groups and individuals.

There are a few of these types of areas, mostly creeks, narrow rivers and reservoirs which provide access for hunting, fishing and boating activities. They also serve as drinking and irrigation water sources for communities within this EA coverage. Some areas of special concern in Sevier County include Jones Bench, Little Rockies, Lower Muddy Creek, Old Woman Plateau, Quitchupah Archeological Site, Thousand Lake Mountain and Fort Pearce. Wayne County hosts Beaver Wash, Gilbert Badlands, North and South Caineville Mesa. Iron and Kane Counties include the wild and scenic Virgin River.

APHIS treatment projects will not adversely impact these ecosystems since each project mandates large spray buffers around all such sensitive sites, and historically there have been few requests for treatments within these areas.

C. Effects Evaluated

Chapter III examines the direct, indirect, and cumulative effects of each of the alternatives on the biological, physical, and sociocultural aspects of the human environment (issues). Direct effects are caused by the action and occur at the same time and place (40 CFR § 1508.1(i)(1)). Indirect effects are caused by the action but are later in time and farther removed in distance (40 CFR § 1508.1(i)(2)). Cumulative effects are the effects on the environment that result from the incremental effects of the action when added to other past, present, and reasonably foreseeable actions regardless of what agency or person undertakes such other actions (40 CFR § 1508.1(i)(3)). Cumulative effects can result from individually minor but collectively significant actions taking place over a period of time (40 CFR § 1508.1(i)(3)).

Cumulative impact, as defined in the Council on Environmental Quality (CEQ) NEPA implementing regulations (40 CFR § 1508.1) "is the impact on the environment which results from the incremental impact of the action when added to the past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future actions regardless of what agency (Federal or non-Federal) or person undertakes such actions. Cumulative impacts can result from individually minor but collectively significant actions taking place over a period of time."

Potential cumulative impacts associated with the No Action alternative where APHIS would not take part in any grasshopper suppression program include the continued increase in grasshopper populations and potential expansion of populations into neighboring range and cropland. In addition, State and private land managers could apply insecticides to manage grasshopper populations however, land managers may opt not to use RAATs,

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which would increase insecticides applied to the rangeland. Increased insecticide applications from the lack of coordination or foregoing RAATs methods could increase the exposure risk to non-target species. In addition, land managers may not employ the extra program measures designed to reduce exposure to the public and the environment to insecticides.

Potential cumulative impacts associated with the Preferred Alternative are not expected to be significant because the program applies an insecticide application once during a treatment season. The program may treat an area with different insecticides but does not overlap the treatments. The program does not mix or combine insecticides. Based on historical outbreaks in the United States, the probability of an outbreak occurring in the same area where treatment occurred in the previous year is unlikely; however, given time, populations eventually will reach economically damaging thresholds and require treatment. The insecticide application reduces the insect population down to levels that cause an acceptable level of economic damage. The duration of treatment activity, which is relatively short since it is a one-time application, and the lack of repeated treatments in the same area in the same year reduce the possibility of significant cumulative impacts.

The insecticides proposed for use in the grasshopper program are not anticipated to persist in the environment or bioaccumulate. Therefore, a grasshopper outbreak that occurs in an area previously treated for grasshoppers is unlikely to cause an accumulation of insecticides from previous program treatments.

Nearly 85% of Utah's land is under federal management, so most grasshopper treatments are conducted on BLM or US Forest Service land. May through July is a busy time for both agencies, its partners (weed districts, conservation districts) and permittees (mines, rights-of-way holders, geothermal plants, etc.) to treat weeds with herbicides. Treatments at this time of year are ground-based using backpacks, trucks, all-terrain vehicles (ATVs) and utility-terrain vehicles (UTV) with mounted sprayers targeting actively growing weeds. BLM mostly use Trichlopyr and Rodeo in riparian areas and Milestone in rangeland situations. The Forest Service implements Milestone, 2,4-D and Tordon to spot spray invested areas of noxious weeds in rangeland. Before any APHIS program is conducted, discussions would be held with land-managing officials to ensure that the two programs would not cause increased injurious effects to any treatment area.

The graphs below show the estimated annual agricultural pesticide use by major crop or crop groups for Utah, 1992-2017, released by the US Geological Survey, https://doi.org/10.5066/P9HHG3CT.

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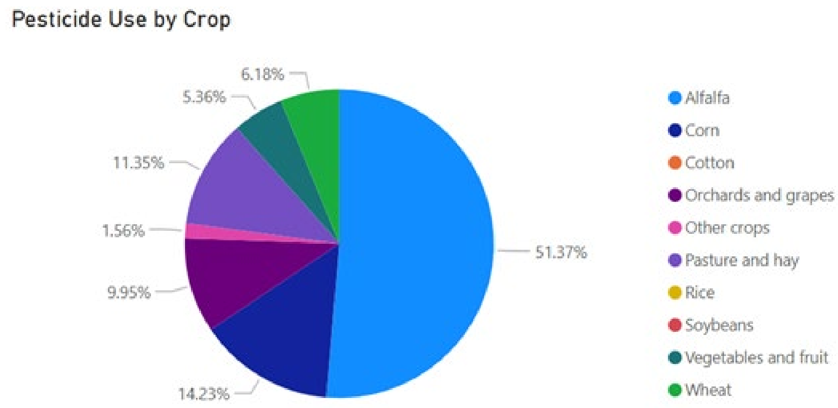
Figure 4, Pesticide use by crop in Utah from 1992-2017



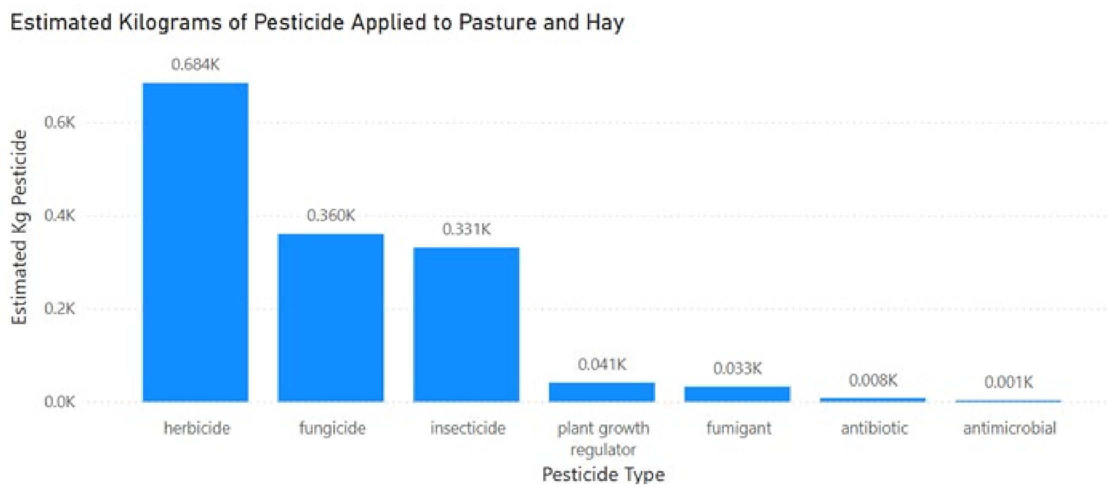


Figure 5, estimated kilograms pf pesticide applied to pasture and hay in Utah from 1992-2017

Applications such as county mosquito control, *Phragmites* eradication or crop treatments would unlikely create any cumulative impacts in rangeland situations because the insecticides and herbicides used during those control applications are not carbaryl or diflubenzuron and the treatment areas are very unlikely to overlap.

Potential cumulative impacts resulting from the use of pesticides include insecticide resistance, synergistic chemical effects, chemical persistence and bioaccumulation in the environment. The program use of reduced insecticide application rates (i.e. ULV and RAATs) are expected to mitigate the development of insect resistance to the insecticides. Grasshopper outbreaks in the United States occur cyclically so applications do not occur to the same population over time further eliminating the selection pressure that increases the chances of insecticide resistance.

The insecticides proposed for use in the program have a variety of agricultural and non-agricultural uses. There may be an increased use of these insecticides in an area under suppression when private, State, or Federal entities make applications to control other pests. However, the vast majority of the land where program treatments occur is uncultivated

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rangeland and additional treatments by landowners or managers are very uncommon making possible cumulative or synergistic chemical effects extremely unlikely.

APHIS has prepared this EA for Juab, Millard, Piute, Sanpete and Sevier Counties, Utah, because treatments could be requested by federal land managers and private landowners if grasshopper populations reach outbreak levels. Past experience and continuing land use, climate, grasshopper population conditions lead APHIS to believe treatments will be needed in the near future. Unfortunately, the agency can't accurately predict exact treatment locations and usually discovers building grasshopper populations only a few weeks in advance. Note that treatments may be requested and may not occur for various reasons (i.e., grasshoppers do not emerge in sufficient numbers to require suppression), or treatment areas change for various reasons (especially in the case of migrating bands of Mormon crickets).

Few treatments have occurred between 2020 and 2024 within the counties covered under this EA. However, an outbreak of *Melanoplus sanguinipes,* the lesser migratory grasshopper, occurred in 2024 throughout some of the counties covered here, and significant range damage resulted. During 2025 APHIS anticipates requests for treatment relief. APHIS attempts with all spray projects to obtain sufficient landowner participation to minimize reinfestation potential. This obviates the need for additional treatments within the next three to five years, and therefore relieves impacts of repeated treatments while maintaining healthy rangeland ecosystems for wildlife cover and forage.

D. Site Specific Considerations and Environmental Issues

Environmental issues are the resources that may be affected by the proposal, or concerns about the risks to humans from implementing the Program. The following issues are analyzed in Section E. Environmental Consequences of the Alternatives in the order outlined.

1. Human Health

The major population centers within Beaver, Garfield, Iron, Kane, Washington and Wayne Counties are sparse. The total population of the six counties is approximately 300,000 (less than five percent of the entire population of Utah).

Beaver County has a population of nearly 6,600, and the county seat is the town of Beaver with a population of roughly 3,670 which have access to Beaver Valley Hospital. Notable recreation areas include the American Discovery Trail which traverses the county through Beaver and Minersville; Elk Mountain which is home to Eagle Point ski area; Fishlake National Forest and Rock Corral Recreation Area which is an area of geologic interest managed by the BLM.

Garfield County has a population of a little more than 5,300. The county seat is Panguitch with a population of about 1,797 and where Garfield Memorial Hospital is located. Other communities include Antimony, Bryce Canyon City, Boulder, Cannonville, Escalante, Hatch, Henrieville and Tropic. Recreational areas in the vicinity include Bryce Canyon National Park, Canyonlands National Park, Capitol Reef National Park, Dixie National Forest, Escalante Petrified Forest, Fishlake National Forest, Glen Canyon National Recreation Area, Grand Staircase-Escalante National Monument and Mammoth Cave.

Iron County has a population of about 64,200, and its county seat is Parowan with a population of around 3,200. Cedar City has the largest population (a little over 41,000), and other communities include Beryl Junction, Brian Head, Cedar Highlands, Enoch, Hamiltons Fort, Hamlin Valley, Kanarraville, Lund, Newcastle, Modena, Old Irontown, Newcastle, Paragonah and Summit. Valley View Medical Center in Cedar City is the only hospital in the county. Recreational areas include Brian Head Ski Resort, Dixie National Forest, Fishlake National Forest, Three Peaks Recreation Area and Woods Ranch Recreation Area.

Kane County has a population of around 7,700, and its county seat and largest town is Kanab with a population of nearly 5,420. Other communities in the county include Alton, Big Water, Glendale and Orderville. Kane County Hospital is located in Kanab. Recreational areas include Bryce Canyon National Park, Coral Pink Sand Dunes State Park, Dixie National Forest, Glen Canyon National Recreation Area, Lake Powell and Navajo Lake.

Washington County has a population of about 207,000, and its county seat and largest city is Saint George with a population of about 113,100. Other communities in the county include Central, Enterprise, Gunlock, Hurricane, Ivins, La Verkin, Pine Valley, Rockville, Santa Clara, Springdale, the Shivwits Band of Paiutes Indian Reservation and Veyo. Dixie Regional Medical Center is the major hospital in Washington County. Recreational areas include Beaver Dam Wash National Conservation Area, Dixie National Forest, Quail Creek State Park, Red Cliffs National Conservation Area, Sand Hollow State Park, Snow Canyon State Park and Zion National Park.

Wayne County has a population of around 2,700, and its county seat and largest town is Loa with a population of about 600. Utah County has a human population of about 624,000, and its county seat is Provo. Combined with Orem City, it is part of the Provo-Orem Metropolitan Statistical Area, and Saratoga Springs is considered the "center" of Utah population. There are many medical facilities, including hospitals, scattered throughout Utah County as well as 101 elementary schools, 21 junior highs, 19 high schools and 3 universities.

The suppression program would be conducted on federally managed rangelands that are not inhabited by humans. Human habitation may occur on the edges of the rangeland. Most habitation is comprised of farm or ranch houses, but some rangeland areas may have suburban developments nearby.

Recreationists may use the rangelands for hiking, camping, bird watching, hunting, falconry or other uses. Ranchers and sheepherders may work on the rangelands daily. Individuals with allergic or hypersensitive reactions to insecticides may live near or may utilize rangelands in the proposed suppression program area. Some rural schools may be in areas near the rangeland which might be included in treatment blocks. Children may visit areas near treatment blocks or may even enter treatment blocks before or after treatments.

The 2019 EIS contains detailed hazard, exposure, and risk analyses for the chemicals available to APHIS. Impacts to workers and the general public were analyzed for all possible routes of exposure (dermal, oral, inhalation) under a range of conditions designed to overestimate risk. The operational procedures and spraying conditions examined in those analyses conform to those expected for operations.

Direct exposure to program chemicals as a result of suppression treatments is unlikely due to the infrequency of treatments and the general lack of humans in treatment areas. In addition, program buffers and procedures further reduce the chances of human exposure. Finally, pesticide label specifications, standard spill prevention and rapid response measures mitigate the risk of accidental human exposure resulting from program activities.

Potential exposures to the general public from conventional application rates are infrequent and of low magnitude. The RAATs approach reduces this potential even further by using reduced rates and less actual directly treated area. The proposed program should benefit human and environmental health by reducing the risk of insect annoyance, blowing dust, higher light reflection and higher temperature on the semi-arid land surface.

Various compounds are released in smoke during wildland fires, including carbon monoxide (CO), carbon dioxide, nitrous oxides, sulfur dioxide, hydrogen chloride, aerosols, polynuclear aromatic hydrocarbons contained within fine particulate matter (a byproduct of the combustion of organic matter such as wood), aldehydes, and most notably formaldehyde produced from the incomplete combustion of burning biomass (Reisen and Brown, 2009; Burling et al., 2010; Broyles, 2013). Particulate matter, CO, benzene, acrolein, and formaldehyde have been identified as compounds of particular concern in wildland fire smoke (Reinhardt and Ottmar, 2004).

Many of the naturally occurring products associated with combustion from wildfires may also be present as a result of combustion of program insecticides that are applied to rangeland. These combustion byproducts will be at lower quantities due to the short half-lives of most of the program insecticides and their low use rates. Other minor combustion products specific to each insecticide may also be present as a result of combustion from a rangeland fire but these are typically less toxic based on available human health data (http://www.aphis.usda.gov/plant-health/grasshopper).

The safety data sheet for each insecticide identifies these combustion products as well as recommendations for personal protective equipment (PPE) which is equal to what typically is used in fighting wildfires. Material applied in the field will be at a much lower concentration than what would occur in a fire involving a concentrated formulation. Therefore, the PPE worn by rangeland firefighters would also be protective of any additional exposure resulting from the burning of residual insecticides.

2. Nontarget Species

While the program conducts grasshopper control treatments any other species affected by the insecticides can be viewed as non-target effects or unintentional take. The program has established and follows procedures to prevent take of species federally listed under the Endangered Species Act as endangered or threatened. The programmatic protection measures that resulted from consultation with the Services also prevent take of state listed species (sensitive species or species of concern) in the same habitats or having similar ecological (i.e., the relationship between species and their environment) niches as federal listed species. These procedures (e.g., no-spray buffers, RAATs, insecticide choices) also limit effects on pollinators (e.g., butterflies, moths, bees) and other beneficial insects.

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Vertebrates occurring in rangelands of Juab, Millard, Piute, Sanpete and Sevier Counties include introduced livestock and pets (e.g. cows, goats, sheep, horses, poultry, cats, dogs) and native species including carnivores (e.g. coyotes, foxes, wolves, cougars), large herbivorous mammals (e.g. deer, elk, pronghorn antelope, bighorn sheep), smaller ones (e.g. rabbits, gophers), omnivores (e.g. badgers, mice, bats).

Common reptiles found throughout the area of EA coverage include the sagebrush lizard, side-blotched lizard, collared lizard, short-horned lizard, gopher snake and Great Basin rattlesnake. Amphibians include, the Great Basin spadefoot toad, boreal chorus frog, Northern leopard frog, Western or boreal toad and tiger salamander. Some common fish found in this 5-county area are brook and cutthroat trout as well rainbows, brown and various hybrids as well as yellow perch, blue gill, walleye, crappie and large and smallmouth bass. If these habitats could be treated for grasshoppers, all water resources that they inhabit would be buffered out of any project.

Birds comprise a large portion of the vertebrate species complex, and they also include exotic and native species. Some exotic game birds, like pheasant and chukars, have been deliberately introduced into the area, and other species such as starlings and pigeons have spread from other loci of introduction. Sage-obligate bird species, typified by greater sage grouse, are present in areas of Beaver, Garfield, Iron, Kane, Washington and Wayne Counties. Herbivorous vertebrate species compete with some species of grasshoppers for forage, while omnivorous and predacious species utilize grasshoppers and other insects as an important food source. Predacious species that feed on grasshoppers have varied diets and can find other food sources in the event that treatments drastically reduce grasshopper numbers. Most of the migratory and yearly birds that inhabit the program area are classified as least concern, meaning their population size and trends are above the vulnerable threshold. Accurate population estimates for bird species that inhabit the program area are unavailable. Program mitigation measures such as the RAATs method and ULV applications reduce the effects program pesticides might have on birds in the program area.

A diverse community of terrestrial plants occurs within the proposed suppression area. Many are considered as non-native, invasive weeds including annual grasses (e.g. cheat grass), annual forbs (e.g. diffuse knapweed, Scotch thistle, Dalmation toadflax), perennial forbs (e.g. Canada thistle, Russian thistle, white top), and woody plants (e.g. Russian olive, tamarisk). A full complement of native plants (e.g. sagebrush, bitterbrush, numerous grasses and forbs) have coevolved with and provide habitat for native and domesticated animal species, while providing broad ecological services, such as stabilizing soil against erosion.

Biological soil crusts, also known as cryptogamic, microbiotic, cryptobiotic, and microphytic crusts, occur within the proposed suppression area. Biological soil crusts are formed by living organisms and their by-products, creating a crust of soil particles bound together by organic materials. Crusts are predominantly composed of cyanobacteria (formerly blue-green algae), green and brown algae, mosses, and lichens. Liverworts, fungi, and bacteria can also be important components. Crusts contribute to various functions in the environment. Because they are concentrated in the top 1 to 4 mm of soil, they primarily affect processes that occur at the land surface or soil-air interface. These include stabilizing soil against erosion, fixing atmospheric nitrogen, providing nutrients to plants, and improving soil-plant-water relations, infiltration, seedling germination, and plant growth.

Finally, sundry other organisms (e.g. fungi and fungus-like organisms, algae and lichens, non-vascular plants, earthworms and other annelids, both terrestrial and aquatic microorganisms) are often less visible in rangelands within the scope of this EA but are nonetheless present and contribute to these ecosystems in various ways.

The grasshopper program is unlikely to adversely affect state listed species by direct or off-target pesticide treatments due to the low rates and toxicity levels of the chemicals used as well as the mitigation measures and buffer zones implemented during treatments.

NEPA requires agencies to use "high-quality information, including reliable data and resources, models, and Indigenous Knowledge. Agencies may rely on existing information as well as information obtained to inform the analysis. Agencies may use any reliable data sources, such as remotely gathered information or statistical models. Agencies shall explain any relevant assumptions or limitations of the information, or the particular model or methodology selected for use." 40 C.F.R. § 1506.6(b).

Estimating nontarget species population sizes over large areas can be extremely difficult, labor intensive, and expensive. State and federal wildlife management agencies have limited resources to conduct flora and fauna population surveys and monitor trends. States may monitor the status of wildlife populations by assessing sex ratios and age distribution. Plant species surveys often identify historical or potential habitat locations. In accordance with CEQ regulations and to preserve the professional and scientific integrity of the analysis, this EA uses reliable existing data and resources provided by jurisdictional agencies and peer-reviewed literature to estimate nontarget species population sizes.

The Utah Natural Heritage Program is a database of rare native Utah species found on the Utah Division of Wildlife's (UDWR) website at https://wildlife.utah.gov. It compiles information on Utah's species from a variety of sources, including scientific literature, museum collections and field surveys. Government agencies, businesses, researchers, land managers, conservation groups and the public may have access to this information.

The UWDR also maintains a "Utah Wildlife Action Plan" which also may be found on the Division website. Wildlife habitats are well-defined and prioritized for species protection, but there is little discussion about pollinators within the Plan.

The Bureau of Land Management also provides a list of sensitive species within the state on the "Utah BLM Sensitive Species List." The list is found at https://www.blm.gov.

To estimate population size for these species, conservative estimates are derived from the best available density estimates reported in the literature, with preference given to publications and studies in Utah or states having similar habitat. Density estimates may be for adults or all age classes. Population estimates based on potential habitat includes further extrapolation and speculation. The lowest estimate is assumed to be the minimum population. Habitat suitability indices, localized density fluctuations, and immigration or emigration may not be factored into these calculations, nor is density based on quantity of habitat. Little up to date information on current population estimates are available from any

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of these sources. All population estimates are considered to be conservative, as we have used the lowest population estimate among the ranges of those available in the literature.

The program suppresses grasshopper populations on a small portion of the area considered by this EA in any given year. In those control treatment areas substantial portions are excluded from direct insecticide applications because of buffers around sensitive sites and the alternating spray and skip swaths inherent in the RAATs method. Thus, the potential impacts from the program activities on nontarget species populations occur in a small portion of the area considered by this EA and for a limited duration.

According to USDA's Natural Resource Conservation Service (NRCS), rangelands comprise about 30% of the entire land cover of the United States, totaling about 770 million acres. These lands are described by the NRCS as lands on which the indigenous vegetation is predominately grasses, grass-like plants, forbs, and possibly shrubs or dispersed trees, containing plant communities of either native or introduced plants. Grasslands, open forest, shrublands and associated wetlands are most likely to host outbreaks of grasshoppers and be targeted for suppression programs. These lands host abundant and diverse terrestrial and aquatic organisms.

Based on the available scientific research, there is a decrease in quantity of pollinators across the country and in rangeland ecosystems. However, the extent of program insecticides' role in this decrease is not clear. Existing research serves to outline the impact of these pesticides on pollinators of the order Hymenoptera and Lepidoptera primarily but also delves into pollinators of other orders to a lesser extent.

The availability of native floral resources is a primary determinant of the composition and abundance of bees and other pollinators in rangeland ecosystems in the United States (Potts et al. 2003, Gilgert and Vaughan 2011, Tuell et al. 2014). Approximately 4,000 different bee species aid in pollination in the United States (Black et al. 2011, Gilgert and Vaughan 2011). Many secondary pollinators such as moths and butterflies, wasps, flies, and beetles also contribute to distributing pollen despite being less efficient than bees (Larson et al. 2018).

According to Goosey et al., rangeland ecosystems are primarily pollinated by bee species. At 27 pastures in central Montana specimens from 27, 24, and 16 different bee genera were captured during 2016, 2017, and 2018, respectively. *Lasioglossum (Dialictus)*, *Agapostemon*, and *Eucera* were the most common genera captured constituting more than half (58%) of bee specimens. *Halictus* was the fourth most common genera, adding another 7% to the total bee capture. In 2016, secondary pollinators were ~8% of total pollinator catch. Lepidopterans were 10-fold more abundant than Syrphidae as sec-ondary pollinators across all years. Secondary pollinators were 19% and 13% of the total catch in 2017 and 2018, respectively.

Furthermore, the researchers found in 2016 and 2017 bee abundance increased where periodic grazing of pastures provided suitable nesting habitat for these rangeland pollinators. They suggested forage consumption and hoof action likely created the unvegetated space required for reproduction by these mostly solitary, ground-nesting bees. However, abundances of secondary pollinators (i.e., butterflies and hover flies) were unrelated to grazing during two of the three study years. According to Gilgert and Vaughan, the diverse plant landscapes that rangelands are composed meet the needs of a variety of pollinators, including Hymenopterans and Lepidopterans. Idling large swaths of rangelands could be detrimental to bee populations because most ground-nesting species exhibit breeding-site fidelity, with multiple generations returning to nest in the same pasture (Michener 2007).

The Xerces society promotes a symbiotic relationship between pollinators and rangelands, with each benefitting from the others existence (Buxton et al.). Noting rangelands provide large contiguous areas of food and shelter habitat for pollinators. Likewise, the pollination of a wide array of wildflowers produces valuable forage for cattle and wildlife, supports soil health, and makes grasslands more resilient. Information about rangeland pollinators species is generally limited, with most of it coming from "uncoordinated, short-term, small-scale sampling focusing on bees and butterflies" (Hanberry et al). Though this information is limited, studies on bees of the Great Plains indicate that about two-thirds of the bee species in rangelands are generalists, which use many families of plants for nectar and nesting. With this information about generalist nature of bees in rangelands, and the increased biodiversity caused by grazing, pollinators of the rangelands are very likely widespread in both species and location, which can increase their resiliency to disturbances.

Therefore, pesticides applications will also potentially impact a much more abundant and rich collection of pollinators due to the unique qualities of rangeland habitats. Additionally, the presence of agrochemicals and other pesticides have been found in samples of bee tissue from the Great Plains, likely due to the conversion of land from pollinator friendly rangeland to crop fields (Hladik et al 2016, Otto et al 2016).

According to a sampling of native bee communities across broad Canadian ecoregions Kohler et al, found climate and geographic variables caused differences in species abundance, richness, and composition, indicating that assessments on impacts may not be generalizable across the entire rangeland ecosystem. The researchers found bee community composition was significantly different across regions (i.e., Canadian grassland, parkland and boreal areas) and between land use types (i.e., rangeland and canola cropland). Within rangeland communities it may be difficult to understand the best conservation measures for bees due to the variance in responses on a larger scale.

Utah is home to approximately 17 historically native species of bumble bee; many of which are common such as the central, two-form and Nevada bumble bees (*B. centralis, B. bifarius, B. nevadensis*); some of which are uncommon or rare such as the golden-belted bumble bee (*B. balteatus*), yellow-banded bumble bee (*B. terricola*), Suckley's Cuckoo bumble bee (*B.suckleyi*) and western bumble bee (*B. occidentalis*).

Biodiversity of invertebrate organisms is crucial for ecosystem health. Biocontrol insects and pollinators in particular help control noxious weeds and provide pollination services crucial to sustaining diverse ecosystems. Pollinators include managed exotic species such as European honeybees and a huge diversity of native species including many kinds of solitary and eusocial bees, wasps and ants, flies, hoverflies and bee-mimicking flies, many families of beetles, true bugs, moths and butterflies among others. In addition to general pollination

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services, some species of insects are obligate pollinators of rare plants, meaning the plants cannot reproduce without them. Other services which both terrestrial and aquatic invertebrates provide are less obvious but equally important, including nutrient cycling, decomposition and stimulating plant regrowth. Many species of herbivorous insects including grasshoppers are in this general category. Predacious invertebrates (e.g. arachnids, mantids, and dragonflies) help regulate herbivores while also providing food to larger animals. Invertebrates in general are incredibly important to ecosystem health and provide the greatest animal biodiversity within these ecosystems.

Two non-target invertebrate species of potential concern, which have been previously brought up in public scoping for the program, are Suckley's cuckoo bumblebee (*Bombus suckleyi*) and the monarch butterfly (*Danaus plexippus*). The monarch butterfly may potentially be found throughout Juab, Millard, Piute, Sanpete and Sevier Counties and is being proposed for ESA protections. Though not rare, milkweed plants (which support monarch butterfly) would be an example of a plant species that would be desirable to buffer, as requested by anyone involved. The Western Monarch Milkweed Project is part of a collaborative effort to map and better understand monarch butterflies and their host plants across the western United States. This site can be cross referenced with proposed treatment areas to alert the program of any monarch activity or host plants in the area. Due to methods and materials, impacts to flowering plants, including pollination services, are not anticipated to be significant by proposed actions, except for the no action alternative, which may result in fewer such plants due to herbivory by damaging grasshopper population outbreaks. The Suckley's cuckoo bumblebee, in contrast, is a rare species possibly found in certain portions of the area covered in this EA. Avoidance measures are described in Appendix C.

Section 7 of the Endangered Species Act (ESA) and its implementing regulations require Federal agencies to ensure their actions are not likely to jeopardize the continued existence of listed threatened or endangered species or result in the destruction or adverse modification of critical habitat. Within the area under consideration by this EA there are twelve federally listed species although not all occur within or near potential grasshopper suppression areas. For information, including avoidance measures on the T&E species within the area of concern, see Appendix C, "Threatened & Endangered Species Determinations for Utah APHIS 2025 Grasshopper/Mormon Cricket Suppression Projects."

APHIS considers whether listed species, species proposed for listing, experimental populations, or critical habitat are present in the proposed suppression area. Before treatments are conducted, APHIS contacts the U.S Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) or the National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) (where applicable) to determine if listed species are present in the suppression area, and whether mitigations or protection measures must be implemented to protect listed species or critical habitat.

APHIS submitted a programmatic biological assessment for grasshopper suppression in the 17-state program area and requested consultation with USFWS on March 9, 2015. In November 2023 APHIS revised the biological assessment to address USFWS comments and include species that had been listed since 2015. USFWS concurred with APHIS' determination the grasshopper program would have no effect or was not likely to adversely affect listed species and the critical habitat on March 21, 2024. USFWS stated:

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> "As a result of the APHIS program conservation measures such as use of the buffer distances discussed above for all taxonomic groups and their designated critical habitats, as applicable, along with the reduced application rates as compared to label rates for each insecticide, and RAAT treatment procedures, any risk of exposure associated with the application of the three insecticides used under the APHIS grasshopper and Mormon cricket suppression program is expected to be minimal. Thus, any direct or indirect effects from the proposed action to listed species and their designated critical habitats are expected to be insignificant due to program conservation measures."

APHIS will also continue to consult with USFWS field offices at the local level to ensure listed species habitats are properly buffered during grasshopper suppression treatments.

APHIS completed a programmatic Section 7 consultation with NMFS for use of carbaryl, malathion, and diflubenzuron to suppress grasshoppers in the 17-state program area because of the listed salmonid (*Oncorhynchus* spp.) and critical habitat. To minimize the possibility of insecticides from reaching salmonid habitat, APHIS implements the following protection measures:

- RAATs are used in all areas adjacent to salmonid habitat
- ULV sprays are used, which are between 50% and 66% of the USEPA recommended rate
- Insecticides are not aerially applied within a 1,000-foot buffer zone for diflubenzuron along stream corridors
- Insecticides will not be applied when wind speeds exceed 10 miles per hour. APHIS will attempt to avoid insecticide application if the wind is blowing towards salmonid habitat
- Insecticide applications are avoided when precipitation is likely or during temperature inversions

APHIS determined that with the implementation of these measures, the grasshopper suppression program may affect, but is not likely to adversely affect listed salmonids or designated critical habitat in the program area. NMFS concurred with this determination in a letter dated April 12, 2010.

APHIS considers the role of pollinators in any consultations conducted with the USFWS to protect federally listed plants. Mitigation measures, such as no treatment buffers are applied with consideration of the protection of pollinators that are important to a listed plant species.

The Migratory Bird Treaty Act of 1918 (16 U.S.C. 703–712) established a Federal prohibition, unless permitted by regulations, to pursue, hunt, take, capture, kill, attempt to take, capture or kill, possess, offer for sale, sell, offer to purchase, purchase, deliver for shipment, ship, cause to be shipped, deliver for transportation, transport, cause to be transported, carry, or cause to be carried by any means whatever, receive for shipment, transportation or carriage, or export, at any time, or in any manner, any migratory bird or any part, nest, or egg of any such bird.

APHIS will support the conservation intent of the migratory bird conventions by integrating bird conservation principles, measures, and practices into agency activities and by avoiding or reducing, to the extent practicable, adverse impacts on migratory bird resources when conducting agency actions. Impacts are minimized as a result of buffers to water, habitat, nesting areas, riparian areas, and the use of RAATs. For any given treatment, only a portion of the environment will be treated, therefore minimizing potential impacts to migratory bird populations.

The Bald and Golden Eagle Protection Act (16 U.S.C. 668–668c) prohibits anyone, without a permit issued by the Secretary of the Interior, from "taking" bald eagles, including their parts, nests, or eggs. During the breeding season, bald eagles are sensitive to a variety of human activities. Grasshopper management activities could cause disturbance of nesting eagles, depending on the duration, noise levels, extent of the area affected by the activity, prior experiences that eagles have with humans, and tolerance of the individual nesting pair. However, rangeland grasshopper suppression treatments occur during the late spring or early summer, after the nesting season when eagle young typically will have already fledged. The program also recognizes disruptive activities in or near eagle foraging areas can interfere with bald eagle feeding, reducing chances of survival. Program operational procedures that prevent applications near water bodies will reduce the possibility of disturbing eagle foraging activities. USFWS has provided recommendations for avoiding disturbance at foraging areas and communal roost sites that are applicable to grasshopper management programs (USFWS, 2007).

No toxic effects are anticipated on eagles as a direct consequence of insecticide treatments. Toxic effects on the principal food source, fish, are not expected because insecticide treatments will not be conducted over rivers or lakes. Buffers protective of aquatic biota are applied to their habitats to ensure that there are no indirect effects from loss of prey.

There may be species that are of special concern to land management agencies, the public, or other groups and individuals in proposed treatment areas. For example, the sage grouse populations have declined throughout most of their entire range, with habitat loss being a major factor in their decline.

There is special concern about the role of grasshoppers as a food source sage grouse, and other bird species. Grasshopper suppression programs reduce grasshoppers and at least some other insects in the treatment area that can be a food item for those species including sage grouse chicks. As indicated in previous sections on impacts to birds, there is low potential that the program insecticides would be toxic to sage grouse, either by direct exposure to the insecticides or indirectly through immature sage grouse eating moribund grasshoppers.

Because grasshopper numbers are so high in an outbreak year, treatments would not likely reduce the number of grasshoppers below levels present in a normal year. That density is normally none to less than one per square yard. Should grasshoppers be unavailable in small, localized areas, sage grouse chicks, for example, may consume other insects, which they likely do in years when grasshopper numbers are naturally low. By suppressing grasshoppers, rangeland vegetation is available for use by other species, and rangeland areas are less susceptible to invasive plants that may be undesirable for sage grouse and other species' habitat.

APHIS always will work with BLM, state and any other appropriate agencies when grasshopper treatments are proposed in areas where sage grouse are present, or any other species that is known to be of special interest or concern to federal or state agencies or to the public.

APHIS implements several best management practices in our treatment strategies that are designed to protect nontarget invertebrates, including pollinators. APHIS minimizes insecticide use by using lower than labeled rates for all program insecticides, alternating swaths during treatment, making only one application per season and minimizing use of liquid broad-spectrum insecticides. APHIS also continues to evaluate new monitoring and control methods designed to respond to economically damaging populations of grasshoppers and Mormon crickets while protecting rangeland resources such as pollinators.

3. Physical Environment Components

a) Geology and Soils

Soil is the basic component of rangeland ecosystems and is associated with nearly all processes that occur within the ecosystem. It provides a medium to support plant growth. It is also the home for many insects and microorganisms. It is a product of parent material, climate, biological factors, topography, and time. The soil formation process is slow, especially in arid and semiarid climates. It is believed to take several hundred years to replace an inch of topsoil lost by erosion. Rangeland soils, as those found in Great Basin, have been extensively converted to agricultural crop production. Remaining rangeland soils may be rocky, steep, salt affected, or otherwise not very productive compared to prime agricultural lands. The chemical and physical characteristics of a soil determine: its ability to furnish plant nutrients, the rate and depth of water penetration, and the amount of water the soil can hold and its availability to plants.

Soils within Juab, Millard, Piute, Sanpete and Sevier Counties are characterized by a mix of Aridisols, Entisols and Millisols which reflect Utah's arid and semi-arid climate diverse geology. Such soil types are frequently low in organic matter due to the desert environment. The Sanpete series soil type is well-drained and forms on alluvial fan and is one of the specific soil series found in this area. The Mivida series is another found here and is considered Utah's unofficial state soil. (Detailed data is available at https://websoilsurvey.nrcs.usda.gov/app/.).

b) Hydrology and Water Resources

Within Juab, Millard, Piute, Sanpete and Sevier Counties, surface water resources consist of Sevier River, Otter Creek and Ferron River; Mona, Chicken Creek, Sevier Bridge, Nine Mile, Ferron, D.M.A.D., Huntington, Gunnison, fool Creek, Scipio, Johnson, Forsythe, Piute and Otter Creek Reservoirs; Clear, Pruess and Fish Lakes; some intermittent live streams, ponds, stock tanks and troughs, seeps and springs. Stream habitat is generally fair to good condition, while the reservoirs and other water resources provide adequate water for wildlife and domestic livestock use as well as habitat for wildlife and excellent recreation. The most current National Rivers and Streams Assessments from the U.S. EPA are found at: https://www.epa.gov/national-aquatic-resource-surveys/nrsa.

The last National Rivers and Streams Assessment (NRSA) was published for 2018-2019. During spring and summer of 2018 and 2019, 61 field crews sampled 1,851 sites, using standardized sampling procedures to collect data on biological, chemical, physical, and human health indicators. The measured values were compared to benchmarks developed specifically for NRSA, to EPA recommended water quality criteria, or to EPA fish tissue screening levels to assess river and stream condition. Nationally, 28% of river and stream miles were in good biological condition, while almost half were in poor condition. The most widespread stressors were excess nitrogen, phosphorus, and riparian vegetation cover, with poor conditions in 44%, 42%, and 27% of river and stream miles, respectively. Moreover, just over one-third (35%) of river and stream miles had healthy fish communities. The NRSA found that the percentage of river and stream miles in poor biological condition could be reduced by 20% if excess nutrient levels could be reduced from poor to good or fair. Finally, bacteria exceeded EPA's recreational benchmark in 20% of river and stream miles (USEPA, 2024).

c) Air Quality and Climate

The six-county area is semi-arid with an average rainfall of six to ten inches in the lowlands and 20 to 25 inches in the higher mountain elevations. Precipitation is equally divided between winter Pacific storms and summer thundershowers. The climate is characterized by low relative humidity, rapid evaporation, generally clear skies and daily and annual fluctuations in temperatures (i.e. cold winters, hot summers). The average number of frost-free days at the lower elevations is 80 to 180 days.

The climate is characterized by low relative humidity, rapid evaporation, generally clear skies, and daily and annual fluctuations in temperatures (i.e. cold winters, hot summers, warmer days and colder nights). Air quality is nearly always good since this is a rural area with scattered small towns; hence, air pollution is rarely a factor.

4. Socioeconomic Issues

Rangelands are essential to western livestock producers providing forage for a variety of domestic animals. Economic values of rangelands also include energy production sites, both fossil and renewable, and recreation sites. Two important distinctions are between market and non-market values, and between use and non-use values. Market values are associated with goods and services sold directly in a marketplace (e.g., livestock); market prices are therefore a good estimate value. Non-market values arise from goods and services that are not directly sold in a marketplace (e.g., ecosystem services). Similarly, use values arise from goods that are physically used (now or in the future), such as forage for livestock (market value) or outdoor recreation (usually a non-market value). Non-use values arise from goods that are never physically used. Non-use values, for example, include the concept of "existence value" (i.e., the value people place on simply knowing something, such as an unspoiled wilderness area, exists). Non-use values are often unrelated to any market good, but are real economic values nonetheless. Non-market and non-use values are difficult to estimate; therefore, most economic injury level estimates only consider market values and, in most cases, only the single market value for the commodity (e.g., forage) being damaged. In the case of rangeland, there are a large suite of values, both market and non-market, and use and non-use, that can be affected by pests, such as grasshoppers (Rashford et al., 2012).

The general public uses rangelands in the proposed suppression area for a variety of recreational purposes including hiking; camping; general wildlife viewing and bird watching, insect collecting and watching; hunting; falconry; shooting; plant collecting; rock and fossil collecting; artifact collecting; sightseeing; and dumping. Members of the general public traverse rangelands in or near the proposed suppression area by various means including on foot, horseback, all-terrain vehicles, bicycles, motorcycles, four-wheel drive vehicles, snowmobiles, and aircraft.

Recreation use is moderate over most of the affected area. There are several dispersed camping sites. Hunting seasons increase recreation use in the form of dispersed camping and general hunting activity. Hunting season occurs later in the year during a time when grasshopper and cricket populations have begun to dwindle such that fewer insects are present. Hunters probably will not be affected. ATV use is fairly prevalent throughout.

The presence of high densities of grasshoppers or Mormon crickets will result in fewer people engaging in recreational activities during the spring and summer within the affected areas. High insect densities in a campsite detract considerably from the quality of the recreational experience as crickets tend to get into unsecured tents and food.

The quality of the recreational experience for ATV users and horseback riders also will be indirectly impaired by high densities of grasshoppers and/or crickets. Such numbers crossing roads and trails are killed by vehicle traffic, leaving wind rows of dead insects in the travel way as well as providing a vehicular safety hazard by leaving slick residues on local roads.

People who normally recreate in areas that are heavily infested will likely relocate to areas that are not infested. Displacement of users will be more of an inconvenience to the public than an actual effect on the recreational values of the area. Displacement will also increase pressure on other public lands as people move to new locations to camp and to engage in other recreational activities. The potential for user conflict will increase, in particular as motorized recreationists displace to other already heavily used areas. Such locations will experience more pressure and may experience site degradation. Areas currently not impacted or used by dispersed campers may become subjected to use and development as people look for areas for recreation which are not infested with grasshoppers.

Small towns near the affected areas receive limited business from recreationists who visit public lands. Many local gas stations and public stores rely fairly heavily on summer business to support their operations.

Livestock grazing is one of the main uses of most of the affected area, which provides summer range for ranching operations. Permittees may run cattle, sheep and horses for a season that runs generally from the first of June to the end of September, weather and vegetation conditions permitting.

A substantial threat to the animal productivity of these rangeland areas is the proliferation of grasshopper populations. These insects have been serious pests in the Western States since early settlement. Weather conditions favoring the hatching and survival of large numbers of insects can cause outbreak populations, resulting in damage to vegetation. The consequences may reduce grazing for livestock and result in loss of food and habitat for wildlife.

Livestock grazing on public lands contributes important cultural and social values to the area. Intertwined with the economic aspects of livestock operations are the lifestyles and culture that have co-evolved with Western ranching. Rural social values and lifestyles, in conjunction with the long heritage of ranching and farming continue to this day, dating back to the earliest pioneers in Utah, who shaped the communities and enterprises that make up much of the state. The rural Western lifestyle also contributes to tourism in the area, presenting to travelers a flavor of the West through tourist-oriented goods and services, photography of sheep bands or cattle in pastoral settings and scheduled events.

Ranchers displaced from public lands due to early loss of forage from insect damage will be forced to search for other rangeland, to sell their livestock prematurely or to purchase feed hay. This will affect other ranchers (non- permittees) by increasing demand, and consequently, cost for hay and/or pasture in the area. This will have a beneficial effect on those providing the hay or range, and a negative impact on other ranchers who use these same resources throughout the area. In addition, grazing on private lands resulting from this impact will compound the effects to vegetation of recent drought conditions over the last six years (e.g., continual heavy utilization by grasshoppers, wildlife and wildfire), resulting in longer-term impacts (e.g., decline or loss of some preferred forage plant species) on grazing forage production on these lands.

The lack of treatment would result in the eventual magnification of grasshopper problems resulting in increased suppression efforts, increased suppression costs and the expansion of suppression needs onto lands where such options are limited. For example, control needs on crop lands where chemical options are restricted because of pesticide label restrictions.

Under the no action alternative, farmers would likely experience economic losses. The suppression of grasshoppers in the affected area would have beneficial economic impacts to local landowner, farmers and beekeepers. Crops near infested lands would be protected from devastating migrating insects, resulting in higher crop production; hence, increased monetary returns.

5. Cultural Resources and Events

Executive Order 13175 "Consultation and Coordination with Indian Tribal Governments," calls for agency communication and collaboration with tribal officials when proposed Federal actions have potential tribal implications. The Archaeological Resources Protection Act of 1979 (16 U.S.C. §§ 470aa-mm), secures the protection of archaeological resources and sites on public and tribal lands.

Prior to the treatment season, program personnel notify Tribal land managers of the potential for grasshopper and Mormon cricket outbreaks on their lands. Consultation with local Tribal representatives takes place prior to treatment programs to inform fully the Tribes of possible actions APHIS may take on Tribal lands. Treatments typically do not occur at cultural sites, and drift from a program treatment at such locations is not expected to adversely affect natural surfaces, such as rock formations and carvings. APHIS would also confer with the appropriate Tribal authority to ensure that the timing and location of a planned program treatment does not coincide or conflict with cultural events or observances on Tribal lands.

Federal actions must seek to avoid, minimize, and mitigate potential negative impacts to cultural and historic resources as part of compliance with the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA), the Archaeological Resources Protection Act of 1979, and NEPA. Section 106 of the NHPA requires Federal agencies to provide the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation with an opportunity to comment on their findings.

A variety of activities have occurred throughout the area of concern that affect cultural resources. These activities and any cumulative impacts associated with them will occur regardless of whether or not grasshoppers or Mormon crickets are treated.

Federal and state public lands that are part of the region's visual and cultural resources include the Canyonlands National Park, Glen Canyon National Recreation Area, Fishlake National Forest, Zion National Park, Cedar Breaks National Monument, Capitol Reef National Park, Bryce Canyon National Park and the Dixie National Forest. State parks within the area include Minersville, Coral Pink Sand Dunes, Grand Staircase Escalante National Monument and the Anasazi Indian Village State Parks.

To ensure that historical or cultural sites, monuments, buildings or artifacts of special concern are not adversely affected by program treatments, APHIS will confer with BLM, Forest Service or other appropriate land management agency on a local level to protect these areas of special concern. APHIS also will confer with the appropriate tribal authority and with the BIA office at a local level to ensure that the timing and location of planned program treatments do not coincide or conflict with cultural events or observances, such as sun dances, on tribal lands.

6. Special Considerations for Certain Populations

a) Executive Order No. 13045, Protection of Children from Environmental Health Risks and Safety Risks

The increased scientific knowledge about the environmental health risks and safety risks associated with hazardous substance exposures to children and recognition of these issues in Congress and Federal agencies brought about legislation and other requirements to protect the health and safety of children. On April 21, 1997, President Clinton signed E.O. 13045, Protection of Children From Environmental Health Risks and Safety Risks (62 FR 19885). This E.O. requires each Federal agency, consistent with its mission, to identify and assess environmental health risks and safety risks that may disproportionately affect children and to ensure that its policies, programs, activities, and standards address those risks. APHIS has developed agency guidance for its programs to follow to ensure the protection of children (USDA, APHIS, 1999).

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APHIS intervention to locally suppress damaging insect infestations will stand to greatly benefit, rather than harm, low-income farmers and ranchers by helping them to control insect threats to their livelihood. Suppressing grasshopper or Mormon cricket infestations on adjacent public or private rangelands will increase inexpensive available forage for their livestock and will significantly decrease economic losses to their crop lands by invading insects. Such would obviate the need to perform additional expensive crop pesticide treatments or to provide supplemental feed to their livestock which would further impact low-income individuals.

In past grasshopper programs, the U.S. Department of the Interior's (USDI) Bureau of Land Management or Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) have notified the appropriate APHIS State Plant Health Director when any new or potentially threatening grasshopper infestation is discovered on BLM lands or tribal lands held in trust and administered by BIA. Thus, APHIS has cooperated with BIA when grasshopper programs occur on Indian tribal lands. For local Indian populations APHIS program managers will work with BIA and local tribal councils to communicate information to tribal organizations and representatives when programs have the potential to impact the environment of their communities, lands or cultural resources.

Treatments used for grasshopper programs are primarily conducted on open rangelands where children would not be expected to be present during treatment or enter during the restricted entry period after treatment. Based on review of the insecticides and their use in programs, the risk assessment concludes that the likelihood of children being exposed to insecticides from a grasshopper or Mormon cricket program is very slight and that no disproportionate adverse effects to children are anticipated over the negligible effects to the general population.

E. Environmental Consequences of the Alternatives

Each alternative described in this EA potentially has adverse environmental effects. The general environmental impacts of each alternative are discussed in detail in the 2019 programmatic EIS published by APHIS. The specific impacts of the alternatives are highly dependent upon the particular action and location of the grasshopper infestation. The principal concerns associated with the alternatives are: (1) the potential effects of insecticides on human health (including subpopulations that might be at increased risk); and (2) impacts of insecticides on nontarget organisms (including threatened and endangered species).

APHIS has written human health and ecological risk assessments (HHERAs) to assess the insecticides and use patterns that are specific to the program. The risk assessments provide an in-depth technical analysis of the potential impacts of each insecticide to human health, non-target wildlife, and its environmental fate in soil, air, and water. The assessments rely on data required by USEPA for pesticide product registrations, as well as peer-reviewed and other published literature. The HHERAs are heavily referenced in the 2019 EIS and this Draft EA is likewise tiered to that analysis (USDA APHIS, 2019a, 2019b, 2019c, 2019d). These Environmental Documents can be found at the following website: http://www.aphis.usda.gov/plant-health/grasshopper.

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The program suppresses grasshopper populations on a small portion of the area considered by this EA in any given year. In those control treatment areas substantial portions are excluded from direct insecticide applications because of buffers around sensitive sites and the alternating spray and skip swaths inherent in the RAATs method. The potential harmful effects from the program activities on environmental components and nontarget species populations occur in a small portion of the area considered by this EA and for a limited duration. Site-specific environmental consequences of the alternatives are discussed below.

1. Alternative 1 - No Suppression Program Alternative

a) Grasshopper Population Control

Under this alternative, APHIS would not conduct a program to suppress grasshoppers other than provide technical assistance and surveys to assist in the implementation of IPM strategies by land managers. When cultural or mechanical methods have failed to prevent harmful grasshopper populations Federal land management agencies, State agriculture departments, local governments, private groups or individuals, may not effectively combat outbreaks in a coordinated effort. Without the coordination that APHIS provides during grasshopper outbreaks, the land managers and owners could use insecticides that APHIS considers too environmentally harsh. Multiple treatments and excessive amount of insecticide could be applied in efforts to suppress or even locally eradicate grasshopper populations. There are approximately 100 pesticide products registered by USEPA for use on rangelands and against grasshoppers (Purdue University, 2018).

Without APHIS' coordination and funding of grasshopper suppression programs in Juab, Millard, Piute, Sanpete and Sevier Counties, the responsibility would rest with BLM, Forest Service, Indian tribes, state agriculture departments, local governments and industry groups likely to perform grasshopper control treatments. APHIS estimates that more treatments would occur per year. The conventions of IPM that APHIS has incorporated into our standard program procedures could be too burdensome for other agencies to observe. While the economic benefits of suppressing grasshoppers by using a RAATs method have been widely publicized, less frequent treatments by other agencies might encourage widespread complete coverage treatments to "eradicate" grasshopper populations. Adverse environmental effect particularly on nontarget species, could be much greater than under the APHIS led suppression program alternative due to lack of operational knowledge or coordination among the groups.

(1) Human Health

Human exposure and health risks could increase because of the inexperience of other agencies in planning, contracting and monitoring treatments. APHIS hygiene and safety protocols establish procedures for use of personal protection equipment and handling of hazardous chemicals. Other less experienced agencies might underestimate potential worker or bystander exposures, increasing health risks.

(2) Nontarget Species

Grasshopper treatment programs could occur with more random frequency as various agencies allocate funding when it is available. These programs would almost certainly not have the same procedures and safeguards incorporated into the APHIS program. The possibility of multiple agencies with overlapping jurisdictions could result in multiple treatments per year with the same or incompatible insecticides. This overlapping of treatments could cause synergistic chemical interactions and more severe effects to nontarget species. It is also unlikely the other agencies will be equally equipped as APHIS to incorporate guidance and species location information from USFWS. Therefore, adverse effects on protected species and their critical habitat could increase.

(3) Physical Environment Components

The potential grasshopper control conducted by third parties could result in increases and a greater variety of pesticide residues in the environment. As noted previously, APHIS can only speculate which agencies and land owners will decide to control grasshoppers and what chemicals will be used. The program has also established treatment restriction buffers around water bodies to protect those features from insecticide drift and runoff. The labels for all program insecticides prohibit direct application to water (defined as reservoirs, lakes, ponds, pools left by seasonal streams, springs, wetlands, and perennial streams and rivers). APHIS maintains the following additional buffers for water bodies that are not designated critical habitat for listed aquatic species: 500-foot buffer for aerial sprays, 200-foot buffer for ground sprays, and a 50-foot buffer for bait applications (USDA APHIS, 2013). Almost certainly land management agencies and property owners would not observe the same buffers to prevent accidental spray drift to sensitive environments.

(4) Socioeconomic Issues

In the absence of an APHIS administered grasshopper suppression program the cost of treatments would be paid entirely by land management agencies and land owners. Ranchers that lease land for grazing livestock might also have to pay third parties to protect rangeland forage from grasshopper outbreaks. These additional expenses would increase the cost of rangeland leases and production of livestock in general. Rural economies that depend on ranching and farming would experience increased economic hardship. The economic effects of infrequent and haphazard grasshopper treatments on rangeland forage could be similar to those described below for a scenario where no treatments occur.

(5) Cultural Resources and Events

The potential grasshopper control conducted by third parties might or might not be coordinated with Tribes and other cultural or historical observance events. It is reasonable to assume Tribal interests would ensure grasshopper treatments would not interfere with events or occur in areas of cultural significance.

(6) Special Considerations for Certain Populations

Grasshopper suppression programs are likely to occur in the same rural rangeland areas that are largely uninhabited. No matter who conducts the treatments, disproportionately high and adverse human health or environmental impacts on Tribes, and historical and culturally sensitive sites in a program area are unlikely.

Likewise, potential grasshopper control programs would be conducted in rural rangeland areas, where agriculture is a primary industry. These areas consist of widely scattered, single, rural dwellings in ranching communities with low population density. The other agencies and land owners might notify residents within treatment areas to reduce the potential for incidental exposure to residents including children. None the less, treatments would occur on open rangelands where children would not be expected to be present during treatment or to enter should there be any restricted entry period after treatment. The APHIS grasshopper program also implements mitigation measures beyond label requirements to ensure that no treatments occur within the required buffer zones from structures, such as a 500-foot treatment buffer zone from schools and recreational areas. Also, program insecticides are not applied while school buses are operating in the treatment area (USDA APHIS, 2016). There is a reasonable expectation that treatments conducted by third parties would also avoid spraying chemicals where children are present or congregate.

b) No Grasshopper Population Control

Conversely, in the absence of an APHIS funded grasshopper suppression program the most likely environmental effects would result from other agencies and land managers not controlling outbreaks. As noted, grasshoppers consuming vast amounts of vegetation in rangelands and surrounding areas. Grasshoppers are generalist feeders, eating grasses and forbs first and often moving to cultivated crops. High grasshopper density of one or several species and the resulting defoliation may reach an economic threshold where the damage caused by grasshoppers exceeds the cost of controlling the grasshoppers. Researchers determined that during typical grasshopper infestation years, approximately 20% of forage on western rangeland is removed, valued at a estimated cost of $1.2 billion per year (Hewitt & Onsager, 1983; dollar amount adjusted). This value represents 32 to 63% of the total value of rangeland across the western states (Rashford et al., 2012). Other market and non-market values such as carbon sequestration, general ecosystem services, and recreational use may also be impacted by grasshopper outbreaks in rangeland.

(1) Human Health

The risk of accidental exposure to insecticides would be reduced if no grasshopper control programs are implemented by APHIS or third parties. Grasshopper outbreaks could cause other health hazards including increased dust storms and road hazards.

(2) Nontarget Species

Vegetation damage during serious grasshopper outbreaks may be so severe that all grasses and forbs are destroyed causing impaired plant growth for several years. Rare plants may be consumed during critical times of their development such as during seed production, and loss of important plant species, or seed production may lead to reduced biological diversity of the rangeland habitats, potentially creating opportunities for the expansion of invasive and exotic weeds (Lockwood and Latchininsky, 2000). Rangeland herbivorous wildlife would have to migrate or suffer food shortages caused by the loss of forage.

(3) Physical Environment Components

When grasshoppers consume plant cover, soil is more susceptible to the drying effects of the sun, making plant roots less capable of holding soil in place. Soil damage results in erosion and disruption of nutrient cycling, water infiltration, seed germination, and other ecological processes which are important components of rangeland ecosystems (Latchininsky et al., 2011). A reduction vegetation will make steep rangeland topography more susceptible to erosion which would cause additional sediment loading in streams, rivers, and other water bodies. This would result in a decrease in water quality. Likewise the denuded rangeland caused by poor grasshopper control would have less evapotranspiration, lower humidity, and higher daily temperature ranges. During

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windstorms the dry soil would be more likely to allow soil particles to become airborne and result in poor air quality and possibly health and other physical hazards to humans.

(4) Socioeconomic Issues

When the density of grasshoppers reaches economic injury levels, grasshoppers begin to compete with livestock for food by reducing available forage (Wakeland and Shull, 1936; Belovsky, 2000; Pfadt, 2002; Branson et al., 2006; Bradshaw et al., 2018). Ranchers could offset some of the costs by leasing rangeland in another area and relocating their livestock, finding other means to feed their animals by purchasing hay or grain, or selling their livestock. Local communities and families with ranching based incomes could see adverse economic impacts. Grasshoppers that infest rangeland could move to surrounding croplands. Crop agriculture farmers could incur economic losses from attempts to chemically control grasshopper populations or due to the loss of their crops. The general public could see an increase in the cost of meat, crops, and other agricultural products.

(5) Cultural Resources and Events

The lack of grasshopper treatments would reduce the possibility of accidental spraying by third parties of cultural resources and during activities observing cultural or historically significant events. Grasshopper outbreak populations could reduce recreational and cultural uses of rangeland. Uncontrolled grasshopper populations would make these effects more severe.

(6) Special Considerations for Certain Populations

The risk of accidental human exposure to insecticides would be reduced if no grasshopper control programs are implemented by APHIS or third parties.

As previously noted, the general public could see an increase in the cost of meat, crops, and other agricultural products. Low-income populations would suffer greater relative economic hardship from this increase in food prices, especially where grocery shopping choices are limited by longer travel between small rural villages. Likewise, the cost of food staples for families with children could increase.

2. Alternative 2 -Insecticide Applications at Conventional Rates or Reduced Agent Area Treatments with Adaptive Management Strategy

Under Alternative 2, APHIS would participate in grasshopper programs with the option of using one of the insecticides, carbaryl bait or diflubenzuron, depending upon the various factors related to the grasshopper outbreak and the site-specific characteristics. The use of an insecticide would typically occur at half the conventional application rates following the RAATs strategy. APHIS would apply a single treatment to affected rangeland areas to suppress grasshopper outbreak populations by a range of 35 to 98 percent, depending upon the insecticide used.

a) Carbaryl

Carbaryl is a member of the N-methyl carbamate class of insecticides, which affect the nervous system via cholinesterase inhibition. Inhibiting the enzyme acetylcholinesterase (AChE) causes nervous system signals to persist longer than normal. While these effects are desired in controlling insects, they can have undesirable impacts to non-target organisms that are exposed.

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(1) Human Health

Carbaryl can cause cholinesterase inhibition (i.e., overstimulate the nervous system) in humans resulting in nausea, headaches, dizziness, anxiety, and mental confusion, as well as convulsions, coma, and respiratory depression at high levels of exposure (NIH, 2009a; Beauvais, 2014). USEPA classifies carbaryl as "likely to be carcinogenic to humans" based on vascular tumors in mice (USEPA, 2007, 2015a, 2017).

USEPA regulates the amount of pesticide residues that can remain in or on food or feed commodities as the result of a pesticide application. The agency does this by setting a tolerance, which is the maximum residue level of a pesticide, usually measured in parts per million (ppm), that can legally be present in food or feed. USEPA-registered carbaryl products used by the grasshopper program are labeled with rates and treatment intervals that are meant to protect livestock and keep chemical residues in cattle at acceptable levels (thereby protecting human health). While livestock and horses may graze on rangeland the same day that the land is sprayed, in order to keep tolerances to acceptable levels, carbaryl spray applications on rangeland are limited to half a pound active ingredient per acre per year (USEPA, 2012a). The grasshopper program would treat at or below use rates that appear on the label, as well as follow all appropriate label mitigations, which would ensure residues are below the tolerance levels.

Adverse human health effects from the proposed program bait applications of the carbaryl 5% and 2% baits formulations to control grasshoppers are not expected based on low potential for human exposure to carbaryl and the favorable environmental fate and effects data. Technical grade (approximately 100% of the insecticide product is composed of the active ingredient) carbaryl exhibits moderate acute oral toxicity in rats, low acute dermal toxicity in rabbits, and very low acute inhalation toxicity in rats. Technical carbaryl is not a primary eye or skin irritant in rabbits and is not a dermal sensitization in guinea pig (USEPA, 2007). This data can be extrapolated and applied to humans revealing low health risks associated with carbaryl. APHIS quantified the potential health risks associated with accidental worker exposure to carbaryl during mixing, loading, and applications. The quantitative risk evaluation results indicate no concerns for adverse health risk for program workers (http://www.aphis.usda.gov/plant-health/grasshopper).

Adherence to label requirements and additional program measures designed to reduce exposure to workers and the public (e.g., mitigations to protect water sources, mitigations to limit spray drift, and restricted-entry intervals) result in low health risk to all human population segments.

(2) Nontarget Species

The APHIS HHERA assessed available laboratory studies regarding the toxicity of carbaryl on fish and wildlife. In summary, the document indicates the chemical is highly toxic to insects, including native bees, honeybees, and aquatic insects; slightly to highly toxic to fish; highly to very highly toxic to most aquatic crustaceans, moderately toxic to mammals, minimally toxic to birds; moderately to highly toxic to several terrestrial arthropod predators; and slightly to highly toxic to larval amphibians (USDA APHIS, 2019a). However, adherence to label requirements and additional program measures designed to prevent carbaryl from reaching sensitive habitats or mitigate exposure of non-target organisms will reduce environmental effects of treatments.

Acute and chronic risks to mammals are expected to be low to moderate based on the available toxicity data and conservative assumptions that were used to evaluate risk. There is the potential for impacts to small mammal populations that rely on terrestrial invertebrates for food. However, based on the toxicity data for terrestrial plants, minimal risks of indirect effects are expected to mammals that rely on plant material for food. Carbaryl has a reported half-life on vegetation of three to ten days, suggesting mammal exposure would be short-term. Direct risks to mammals from carbaryl bait applications is expected to be minimal based on oral, dermal, and inhalation studies (USDA APHIS, 2019a).

A number of studies have reported no effects on bird populations in areas treated with carbaryl (Buckner et al., 1973; Richmond et al., 1979; McEwen et al., 1996). Some applications of formulated carbaryl were found to cause depressed AChE levels (Zinkl et al., 1977); however, the doses were twice those proposed for the full coverage application in the grasshopper program.

Several field studies that assist in determining impacts of carbaryl on aquatic invertebrates and fish have been published (Relyea and Diecks, 2008; USDA FS, 2008a; NMFS, 2009) and are summarized in the 2019 EIS. The value of these studies is limited because they all had dosing levels or frequencies that are much higher than would occur in the grasshopper program.

While sublethal effects have been noted in fish with depressed AChE, as well as some impacts to amphibians (i.e. days to metamorphosis) and aquatic invertebrates in the field due to carbaryl, the application rates and measured aquatic residues observed in these studies are well above values that would be expected from current program operations. Indirect risks to amphibian and fish species can occur through the loss of habitat or reduction in prey, yet data suggests that carbaryl risk to aquatic plants that may serve as habitat, or food, for fish and aquatic invertebrates is very low.

The majority of rangeland plants require insect-mediated pollination. Native, solitary bee species are important pollinators on western rangeland (Tepedino, 1979). Potential negative effects of insecticides on pollinators are of concern because a decrease in their numbers has been associated with a decline in fruit and seed production of plants.

Research from Gao et al. found that chronic exposure to Carbaryl led to several negative effects on adult bees including impacts on nesting performance, foraging ability and gut microbial community. The researchers posited the no observed adverse effect concentration (NOAEC) of the chronic toxicity test of carbaryl (5 mg/L) to *A. mellifera* larvae were much higher than the field-realistic levels as well as the residual levels detected in bee products. They designed this study to expand the risk assessment to the chronic effects of carbaryl on the transcriptional and metabolic level of *A. mellifera* larvae at the concentration where no adverse reactions were observed.

Stock solution of carbaryl was prepared by dissolving the powder in acetone and then diluted with normal components of bee diet (50% royal jelly, 2% yeast extract, 9% d-glucose, 9% d-fructose). The final concentration of 2 mg/L carbaryl was applied to the third instar larvae for four days and correspond to the no observed adverse effect concentration

(NOAEC) determined in a previous study from the researchers (Yang et.al. 2019). However, they noted the carbaryl concentration on developing larvae was 48 times the maximum residual value in nectar or honey.

Carbaryl exposure at the NOAEC disrupted the transcriptional and metabolic regulatory networks of bees, even though no adverse physiological effects were observed in exposed larvae. Metabolome analysis showed that carbaryl treatment led to reduction of amino acids, accumulation of nucleic acid components, and disturbed flavonoids and fatty acids in exposed larvae which would suggest that chronic exposure to carbaryl might change internal metabolism in bee larvae (Gao et al., 2022).

Research from Novotny et al. found that pesticides that are traditionally considered contact-based and applied when flowers are unopened can reach pollen and nectar and produce measurable risk to bees. The persistence of some agrochemicals in leaves, pollen, and nectar up to a week following application merits consideration when managing pollinator-dependent crops. Novotny et al. analyzed residues of three insecticides (carbaryl, lambda-cyhalothrin, permethrin) and three fungicides (chlorothalonil, quinoxyfen, triflumizole) in pumpkin leaves, pollen, and nectar collected from five farms in the north-central United States, one day before a spray event, and one, three, and seven days after. Bees foraging on pumpkin flowers were collected one day before and one day after spraying and screened for the same pesticides. Chemical concentrations and application rates were decided by the farmer based on what a typical schedule would look like. The pumpkin seeds had a systemic treatment containing three fungicides and the neonicotinoid insecticide thiamethoxam.

The octanol-water partition coefficient ($\log K_{ow}$) is the relative concentration of a chemical in n-octanol versus water at pH 7, 20°C. Higher values of $\log K_{ow}$ indicate greater lipophilicity (and a lower affinity for water). Since carbaryl has a $\log K_{ow}$ value of 2.36 the chemical is less likely to adsorb and accumulate in lipid-rich plant tissues such as cuticular waxes or pollen. A chemical's ionizability is given as pK_a, the pH at which a chemical is 50% ionized, or in equilibrium between its undissociated and ionized state (calculated as the negative base-10 logarithm of the acid dissociation constant at 25°C). Chemicals with pKa < 7 are most likely to reach vascular tissue and mobilize systemically throughout the plant. A 'neutral' pKa indicates the chemical does not ionize under relevant plant conditions. Carbaryl does not offer systemic insecticidal protection because the chemical has a pK_a of 10.4. However, carbaryl has a molecular weight of 201.2 g/mol well below 800 g/mol, the molecular weight typical of chemicals that are able to penetrate plant cuticles (University of Hertfordshire Agriculture and Environment Research Unit. Pesticide properties database (PPDB). 2024. [Cited 1 March 2024]. Available from: http://sitem.herts.ac.uk).

Carbaryl has only moderate lipophilicity ($logK_{OW} = 2.4$), giving it more potential to mobilize vascularly and be incorporated into developing floral tissue. Consistent with this reasoning, the researchers recorded a five-fold increase in carbaryl concentrations in pollen from the first to the third day after treatment. Carbaryl has a low molecular weight and is a very weak acid. Therefore, the chemical can cross membranes and bind with compounds in plant cells with similar pH before it reaches phloem. These properties contribute to its

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persistence in leaves, instead of translocation to pollen and nectar that bees eat. However, this persistence prolongs pollinator risk of exposure. The high concentrations of carbaryl in leaves during the week after foliar spray led to the highest bee risk quotient values. As previously noted, the assessments may overestimate bee toxicity from leaf contact because they assume a bee receives the entire dose of chemical present in the leaf sample (Novotny et al., 2024).

Researchers analyzed persistence of pesticides in agroecosystems in the Emilia-Romagna region of northern Italy (Bogo et al. 2024). They investigated pesticide residue in beebread by analyzing 100 samples collected in 25 BeeNet national monitoring project stations in March and June of 2021 and 2022. They looked at the diversity and concentration of the chemicals, their correlation with land use, and the risk they posed to the bees. They calculated a toxicity-weighted concentration (TWC) of chemicals by computing the ratio between the measured concentration in beebread and the oral acute toxicity (LD_{50}) of that chemical for bees. For risk evaluation a risk threshold was assigned by dividing the TWC by an order of magnitude to account for chemical degradation, harmful synergistic interaction with other chemicals and chronic exposure causing sublethal effects. The risk threshold was exceeded in four beebread samples out of 100; one for carbaryl, fipronil, imidacloprid and thiamethoxam (Bogo et al. 2024).

Research from Nogrado et al. investigated the effect of carbaryl pesticides on gut microbiota of honeybees, which had come in contact with rapeseed plants (*Brassica napus*) sprayed with carbaryl wettable powder. Honeybee colonies were placed in tunnels covering an area of 70 meters squared and containing *Brassica napus*. Negative controls were sprayed with tap water (400 L/ha), while the experiments were sprayed with carbaryl (250 g a.i./ha in 400 L tap water/ha) during active flight of bees. Bees were collected from the negative control and the carbaryl-treated groups, after 2 h of exposure. The unexposed bees harbored *Alphaproteobacteria*, which were absent in the exposed bees. Microorganisms found in honeybee guts such as *Snodgrassella alvi* and *L. kullabergensis*, however, were observed only in the exposed bees, but not in the unexposed bees. The difference between the two groups was distinctly recognized when copy numbers of 16S rRNA genes were compared by quantitative PCR. The researchers noted they could not conclude decisively that the differences in the composition of the gut microbial communities from the two groups can be attributed directly to the pesticide exposure. However other researchers (Raymann et al.) have suggested that one difference between a healthy colony and a colony suffering from colony collapse disorder can be a decrease in *Alphaproteobacteria* in gut bacterial communities. Lastly, there were other bacteria that are not commonly found in the gut microbiota of honeybees could have been acquired from the environment and could be considered as opportunistic pathogens. These uncategorized bacteria were observed in more abundance in the exposed group as compared to the unexposed group. *Klebsiella* was only observed in the unexposed group, while *Cronobacter*, *Edwardsiella*, *Providencia*, *Serratia*, *Erwinia*, and *Pantoea* were observed in the exposed group. The researchers suggested the uncategorized bacteria could probably be indicative of disruption of balance of gut microbiome or disease as mentioned in previous studies in relation to dysbiosis in the presence of a potential cause like chemicals.

The researchers noted the analysis could measure endpoints of sublethal effects, but there is considerable uncertainty in how to relate to adverse effects. Furthermore, there is insufficient data to establish plausible adverse outcome pathways with consistent and reproducible linkages between molecular initiating events and key events across multiple levels of biological organization to an adverse effect at the whole organism or colony or population level (Nogrado.et.al.2019).

Laboratory studies have indicated that bees can be harmed by acute exposures to carbaryl, but the studies were at rates above those proposed in the program. The chronic exposures and effects modelled in the studies described above are unlikely to result from one-time applications conducted by the program. Potential negative effects of grasshopper program insecticides on bee populations may also be mitigated by the more common use of carbaryl baits than the ULV spray formulation. Studies with carbaryl bran bait have found no sublethal effects on adults or larvae bees (Peach et al., 1994, 1995). The reduced rates of carbaryl used in the program and the implementation of application buffers should significantly reduce exposure of pollinators to carbaryl treatments for grasshopper suppression. In areas of direct application where impacts may occur, alternating swaths and reduced rates (i.e., RAATs) would reduce risk. The effects on pollinators resulting from control of rangeland grasshopper populations with carbaryl based insecticides are not expected to cause significant impacts to the human environment.

(3) Physical Environment Components

Temperature, pH, light, oxygen, and the presence of microorganisms and organic material are factors that contribute to how quickly carbaryl will degrade in water. Hydrolysis, the breaking of a chemical bond with water, is the primary degradation pathway for carbaryl at pH 7 and above. In natural water, carbaryl is expected to degrade faster than in laboratory settings due to the presence of microorganisms. The half-lives of carbaryl in natural waters varied between 0.3 to 4.7 days (Stanley and Trial, 1980; Bonderenko et al., 2004). Degradation in the latter study was temperature dependent with shorter half-lives at higher temperatures. Aerobic aquatic metabolism of carbaryl reported half-life ranged of 4.9 to 8.3 days compared to anaerobic (without oxygen) aquatic metabolism range of 15.3 to 72 days (Thomson and Strachan, 1981; USEPA, 2003). Carbaryl's degradation in aerobic soil varies from rapid to slow with half-lives ranging from 4 to 253 days (USEPA, 2017). Half-lives decrease with increasing pH from acidic to alkaline conditions. Under anaerobic soil conditions, carbaryl has a half-life of 72 days. Little transport of carbaryl through runoff or leaching to groundwater is expected due to the low water solubility, moderate sorption, and rapid degradation in soils. There are no reports of carbaryl detection in groundwater, and less than 1% of granule carbaryl applied to a sloping plot was detected in runoff (Caro et al., 1974).

Product use restrictions appear on the USEPA-approved label and attempt to keep carbaryl out of waterways. Carbaryl must not be applied directly to water, or to areas where surface water is present (USEPA, 2012a). The USEPA-approved use rates and patterns and the additional mitigations imposed by the grasshopper program, such as using RAATs and application buffers, where applicable, further minimize aquatic exposure and risk.

It is unlikely that carbaryl will significantly vaporize from the soil, water, or treated surfaces (Dobroski et al., 1985). Carbaryl may be found in the atmosphere within air-borne particulates or as spray drift and can react with hydroxyl radicals in the ambient atmosphere (Kao, 1994). Once in the air, carbaryl has a half-life of 1 to 4 months, however these minute amounts of carbaryl are not expected to reduce air quality. Carbaryl hydrolysis occurs quickly in natural waters with pH values of 7 or above, and the presence of microorganisms and organic material also contribute to the rapid degradation of the chemical. Adverse effects resulting from carbaryl contamination of water resources would harm aquatic organisms (described above) and would be temporary or de minimis.

(4) Socioeconomic Issues

In addition to the environmental baseline conditions, APHIS also considers other factors such as pest population, pest life stage, pest and plant species affected, cost share with State and private landowners, and the cost benefit analysis of making a treatment. Because of the cost sharing private landowners and land managers typically would only use carbaryl to suppress rangeland grasshoppers and preserve forage for livestock. Insecticides applied using the RAATs strategy is expected to provide further economic advantages due to effective treatment at reduced costs. The economics of the RAATs strategy has been studied by both Foster et al. (2000), and Lockwood and Schell (1997). In summarizing both studies (which used various rates of insecticide below the conventional rates for suppression of rangeland grasshoppers and treated less area), the results concluded that treatment costs, under this alternative, when compared to the costs for conventional treatments for rangeland grasshopper infestations, were reduced 57 to 66% with carbaryl.

Another potential economic benefit of chemical treatment of grasshoppers is to crop growers near rangelands. Carbaryl bait treatments are sometimes used to reduce the potential for rangeland grasshoppers to move to surrounding croplands. This would result in socioeconomic benefits because losses, and therefore costs, of meat, crops, and their byproducts should be reduced. Additionally, the suppressed grasshopper populations in rangeland surrounding croplands could mean less of a need for costly chemical treatments by crop farmers at these sites.

There is the potential for organic farms adjacent to carbaryl spray applications in rangeland to control grasshopper outbreak populations. However, mitigations such as buffers are meant to protect adjacent environments from runoff and insecticide drift. These protective measures are expected to protect nearby organic farms, as well as other areas of concern, from the risk of inadvertent exposure to rangeland insecticide treatments. It is also likely the organic farms would also benefit economically from reductions in crop damage caused by grasshopper populations migrating from nearby rangeland.

The suppression of grasshopper populations with carbaryl should benefit public uses rangelands for recreational activities such as camping, fishing, hiking, and biking. The public may temporarily lose the use of rangeland during and directly after carbaryl insecticide applications. However, the preservation of vegetation is expected to benefit recreational activities in the long-term by preserving their aesthetic value. This in turn will also increase the economic value of the rangeland by preserving and improving recreational opportunities.

(5) Cultural Resources and Events

There is the potential for impacts to cultural and historical resources if the proposed carbaryl treatments occur on or near historic trails or properties. If any proposed actions are at, or adjacent to, the site of a historic trail or property, APHIS will consult with the appropriate landowner or land management agency, the State Historic Preservation Office, any affected National Trail's administrative office, or other appropriate agencies. Likewise, APHIS would coordinate the timing of treatments with Tribes or other cooperators to ensure carbaryl treatments would not occur during scheduled cultural events or ceremonies.

(6) Special Considerations for Certain Populations

APHIS uses carbaryl insecticide treatments to suppress grasshopper populations in rural rangeland areas that are largely uninhabited. Disproportionately high and adverse human health or environmental impacts on Tribes, and historical and culturally sensitive sites in a program area are unlikely.

APHIS grasshopper insecticide treatments are conducted in rural rangeland areas, where agriculture is a primary industry. The areas consist of widely scattered, single, rural dwellings in ranching communities with low population density. The program notifies residents within treatment areas, or their designated representatives, prior to proposed operations to reduce the potential for incidental exposure to residents including children. Treatments are conducted primarily on open rangelands where children would not be expected to be present during treatment or to enter should there be any restricted entry period after treatment. The program also implements mitigation measures beyond label requirements to ensure that no treatments occur within the required buffer zones from structures, such as a 500-foot treatment buffer zone from schools and recreational areas. Also, program insecticides are not applied while school buses are operating in the treatment area (USDA APHIS, 2016).

APHIS' HHERA for carbaryl evaluated the potential exposure to each insecticide used in the program and risks associated with these insecticides to residents, including children. The HHERA suggest that no disproportionate risks to children, as part of the general public, are anticipated (USDA APHIS, 2019a).

b) Diflubenzuron

Diflubenzuron is a restricted use pesticide (only certified applicators or persons under their direct supervision may make applications) registered with USEPA as an insect growth regulator. It specifically interferes with chitin synthesis, the formation of the insect's exoskeleton. Larvae of affected insects are unable to molt properly. While this effect is desirable in controlling certain insects, it can have undesirable impacts to non-target organisms that are exposed.

(1) Human Health

Adverse human health effects from ground or aerial ULV applications of diflubenzuron to control grasshoppers are not expected based on the chemical's low acute toxicity and low potential for human exposure. Diflubenzuron has low acute dermal toxicity in rabbits and very low acute oral and inhalation toxicities in rats (USEPA, 2015b). The adverse health effects of diflubenzuron to mammals and humans involves damage to hemoglobin in blood and the transport of oxygen. Diflubenzuron causes the formation of methemoglobin.

Methemoglobin is a form of hemoglobin that is not able to transport oxygen (USDA FS, 2004). USEPA classifies diflubenzuron as non-carcinogenic to humans (USEPA, 2015b).

The proposed use of diflubenzuron and adherence to label requirements substantially reduces the potential for exposure to humans and the environment. Program workers are the most likely to be exposed by program applications of diflubenzuron. APHIS does not expect adverse health risks to workers based on low potential for exposure to diflubenzuron when applied according to label directions and use of personal protective equipment (PPE) during applications (e.g., long sleeve shirt and pants, chemical-resistant gloves). APHIS quantified the potential risks associated with accidental exposure of diflubenzuron for workers during mixing, loading, and application based on proposed program uses. The quantitative risk evaluation results indicate no concerns for adverse health risk for program workers (USDA APHIS, 2019b).

Dimilin® 2L is labeled with rates and treatment intervals that are meant to protect livestock and keep residues in cattle at acceptable levels (thereby, protecting human health). Tolerances are set for the amount of diflubenzuron that is allowed in cattle fat (0.05 ppm) and meat (0.05 ppm) (40 CFR Parts 180.377). The grasshopper program would treat at application rates indicated on product labels or lower, which should ensure approved residues levels.

Adverse health risk to the general public in treatment areas is not expected due to the low potential for exposure resulting from low population density in the treatment areas, adherence to label requirements, program measures designed to reduce exposure to the public, and low toxicity to mammals. APHIS treatments are conducted in rural rangeland areas consisting of widely scattered, single, rural dwellings in ranching communities, where agriculture is a primary industry. Applications are not made to farm buildings or homes. Program measures beyond those on the label require application buffers from structures as well as aquatic areas reducing the potential for exposure to the public from direct exposure due to drift and from drinking water sources. The quantitative risk evaluation results indicate no concerns for adverse health risk for humans (USDA APHIS, 2019b).

(2) Nontarget Species

APHIS' literature review found that on an acute basis, diflubenzuron is considered toxic to some aquatic invertebrates and practically non-toxic to adult honeybees. However, diflubenzuron is toxic to larval honeybees (USEPA, 2018). It is slightly nontoxic to practically nontoxic to fish and birds and has very slight acute oral toxicity to mammals, with the most sensitive endpoint from exposure being methemoglobinemia. Minimal direct risk to amphibians and reptiles is expected, although there is some uncertainty due to lack of information (USDA APHIS, 2019c; USEPA, 2018).

In a review of mammalian field studies, Dimilin® applications at a rate of 60 to 280 g a.i./ha had no effects on the abundance and reproduction in voles, field mice, and shrews (USDA FS, 2004). These rates are approximately three to 16 times greater than the highest application rate proposed in the program. Potential indirect impacts from application of diflubenzuron on small mammals includes loss of habitat or food items. Mice on treated plots consumed fewer lepidopteran (order of insects that includes butterflies and moths) larvae compared to controls; however, the total amount of food consumed did not differ between treated and untreated plots. Body measurements, weight, and fat content in mice collected from treated and non-treated areas did not differ.

Poisoning of insectivorous birds by diflubenzuron after spraying in orchards at labeled rates is unlikely due to low toxicity (Muzzarelli, 1986). The primary concern for bird species is related to an indirect effect on insectivorous species from a decrease in insect prey. At the proposed application rates, grasshoppers have the highest risk of being impacted while other taxa have a greatly reduced risk because the lack of effects seen in multiple field studies on other taxa of invertebrates at use rates much higher than those proposed for the program. Shifting diets in insectivorous birds in response to prey densities is not uncommon in undisturbed areas (Rosenberg et al., 1982; Cooper et al., 1990; Sample et al., 1993).

Indirect risk to fish species can be defined as a loss of habitat or prey base that provides food and shelter for fish populations; however, these impacts are not expected based on the available fish and invertebrate toxicity data (USDA APHIS, 2019c). A review of several aquatic field studies demonstrated that when effects were observed it was at diflubenzuron levels not expected from program activities (Fischer and Hall, 1992; USEPA, 1997; Eisler, 2000; USDA FS, 2004).

Diflubenzuron applications have the potential to affect chitin production in various other beneficial terrestrial invertebrates. Multiple field studies in a variety of application settings, including grasshopper control, have been conducted regarding the impacts of diflubenzuron to terrestrial invertebrates. Based on the available data, sensitivity of terrestrial invertebrates to diflubenzuron is highly variable depending on which group of insects and which life stages are being exposed. Immature grasshoppers, beetle larvae, lepidopteran larvae, and chewing herbivorous insects appear to be more susceptible to diflubenzuron than other invertebrates. Within this group, however, grasshoppers appear to be more sensitive to the proposed use rates for the program. Honeybees, parasitic wasps, predatory insects, and sucking insects show greater tolerance to diflubenzuron exposure (Murphy et al., 1994; Eisler, 2000; USDA FS, 2004).

Diflubenzuron is moderately toxic to spiders and mites (USDA APHIS, 2019c). Deakle and Bradley (1982) measured the effects of four diflubenzuron applications on predators of *Heliothis* spp. at a rate of 0.06 lb a.i./ac and found no effects on several predator groups. This supported earlier studies by Keever et al. (1977) that demonstrated no effects on the arthropod predator community after multiple applications of diflubenzuron in cotton fields. Grasshopper integrated pest management (IPM) field studies have shown diflubenzuron to have a minimal impact on ants, spiders, predatory beetles, and scavenger beetles. There was no significant reduction in populations of these species from seven to 76 days after treatment. Although ant populations exhibited declines of up to 50 percent, these reductions were temporary, and population recovery was described as immediate (Catangui et al., 1996).

Due to its mode of action, diflubenzuron has greater activity on immature stages of terrestrial invertebrates. Based on standardized laboratory testing, diflubenzuron is considered practically non-toxic to adult honeybees. The contact LD50 value for the honeybee, *Apis mellifera*, is reported at greater than 114.8 µg a.i./bee while the oral LD50 value was reported at greater than 30 µg a.i./bee. USEPA (2018) reports diflubenzuron toxicity values to adult honeybees are typically greater than the highest test concentration using the end-use product or technical active ingredient. The lack of toxicity to honeybees, as well as other bees, in laboratory studies has been confirmed in additional studies (Nation et al., 1986; Chandel and Gupta, 1992; Mommaerts et al., 2006). Mommaerts et al. (2006) and Thompson et al. (2005) documented sublethal effects on reproduction-related endpoints for the bumble bee, *Bombus terrestris* and *A. mellifera*, respectively, testing a formulation of diflubenzuron. However, these effects were observed at much higher use rates relative to those used in the program.

For example, in the Mommaerts et al. study researchers exposed bees via a contact application of 288 mg/L aqueous concentration which was topically applied to the dorsal thorax of each worker with a micropipette. Bumblebees also ingested orally sugar/water treated with the same concentration of diflubenzuron solution over a period of 11 weeks. Pollen was sprayed with the same concentration of diflubenzuron until saturation and then supplied to the nests. The bumble bees were not restricted in how much of these contaminated solutions they could consume. The researchers estimated mean LC50 concentrations based on the chronic exposure routes described above. These were 25 mg a.i/L dermal contact, 0.32 mg a.i/L ingested sugar-water, and 0.95 mg a.i/L pollen. The researchers noted, "In practice, bumblebees will rarely be exposed to such high concentrations," and elaborated, "it is necessary that the laboratory-based results are validated with risk assessments for these insecticides in field related conditions."

APHIS believes conversion and comparison of program applied foliar spray rates to the concentrations of the solutions applied in this study would rely on unrealistic exposure scenarios. An exposure scenario where pollinators are exposed continuously for 11-weeks is not expected to occur in the APHIS grasshopper and Mormon cricket suppression program. In field applications diflubenzuron levels would decline over the 11-week exposure period due to degradation, flowering plants that have diflubenzuron residues would no longer be available for foraging by pollinators as flowers naturally die and do not provide pollen and nectar, and other plants would bloom after application without residues of diflubenzuron.

Diflubenzuron has been associated with several potentially harmful effects on bees, even when mortality was not recorded. Research from Camp et al. used Eastern bumble bee (*Bombus impatiens*) as surrogates to measure the effect that diflubenzuron has on bee behavior. Diflubenzuron (0.1, 1, 10, 100, 1,000 µg/liter) was formulated as an emulsion of the sugar syrup with 0.5% (v/v) Honey-B-Healthy and 1% (v/v) acetone and was delivered in syrup feeders. Drone production was reduced in a concentration-dependent manner and the 42-d IC_{50} (half-maximal inhibitory concentration) was calculated by Camp et al. to be 28.61 µg/liter diflubenzuron. They found that diflubenzuron delivered via dietary exposure of sucrose was associated with decreased pollen consumption and decreased drone production in bumble bee without there being a significant increase in adult mortalities (Camp et al., 2020).

However, the tested solutions of diflubenzuron in the supplied syrup and pollen are greater than the range of the pesticide applied during grasshopper suppression treatments. Diflubenzuron is applied once per year to foliar vegetation and only a miniscule proportion would be to flowers with nectar and pollen. In this experiment the bumble bees were fed

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syrup and pollen with fresh doses of diflubenzuron three times per week. The same difficulty of applying this study's findings to real field exposures, as is also the case with Mommaerts et.al., 2006, is described above.

Research from Krueger et al. showed that while diflubenzuron exposure didn't impact bumble bee worker survival, the exposure did result in a significant decrease in drone emergence that is indicative of a greater sensitivity to diflubenzuron in the immature life stage. Microcolonies exposed to 10 mg diflubenzuron/kg pollen (i.e. the pollen was contaminated with 10 parts per million of diflubenzuron) produced fewer adult drones despite no effects on worker survival (Krueger et al., 2021).

A researcher found that exposure to diflubenzuron in a 10-ppm sucrose solution resulted had significant effect on the number of larvae successfully eclosing from eggs three days after collection. The researcher posited that bee embryos with poorly formed cuticle could initiate egg eclosion and perhaps complete it, though the survivorship of the resultant larvae would likely be compromised. The results she reported for diflubenzuron suggest that the larval cuticle was not developed, resulting in mortality before or during the hatching process, and that many of the larvae observed to have hatched may not have survived to the later instar stages. Although the doses examined in this work may be high relative to what has been found inside of honeybee colonies, the exposure did not have an observable effect on egg production. However, successful hatching rates were significantly decreased in response to diflubenzuron, a chitin synthesis inhibitor (Fine 2020).

Further investigations examined two-generational effects to diflubenzuron administered at 1 ppm through the workers' diet, thus exposing queens indirectly in a manner similar to what might occur in the field (Fine et al., 2023). The researchers tracked queen performance and worker responses to queens, then the performance of the exposed queens' offspring was assessed to identify patterns that may contribute to the long-term health and stability of a social insect colony.

None of the treatments had a significant effect on the total number of eggs laid. Treated worker diets had no effect on retinue response. No differences were detected between treatment groups in the consumption of pollen supplement. Treatment had no effect on worker survival and over the two-week monitoring period, mortality rates remained below 3.2% on average across all groups. No difference was detected between treatment groups in queen weight change. Major royal jelly protein-1, MRJP-3, vitellogenin, and vitellogenin precursor proteins were among those quantified, but their abundances were not different with respect to the control queens. The researchers investigated global patterns of differential protein abundance between exposure groups and found no proteins in the diflubenzuron group were significantly altered.

Receiving care from maternally-exposed workers did not have an effect on the laying rates of new queens or their total eggs produced. Receiving care from maternally-exposed workers did not affect the egg hatching rate of eggs laid by new queens or rate of adult eclosions relative to controls. Treatment also had no effect on worker pollen consumption, queen weight change, or weight at adult eclosion. However, treatment had a significant effect on the timing of adult eclosion. Maternal exposure to diflubenzuron and methoxyfenozide resulted in significantly longer average time to adult eclosion relative to maternal exposure to pyriproxyfen or the control group. Maternal pesticide treatment had no effect on worker survival and over the two-week monitoring period, mortality rates remained below 1.7% on average across all groups, and no queen death was observed.

Researchers examined synergistic toxicity of common insecticides and fungicides in California almond orchards. Synergistic toxicity is the toxicity of a chemical combination that is greater than that predicted from studies of isolated chemical constituents. Young worker larvae were fed diets contaminated with 2.28 µg diflubenzuron per larva and a fungicidal dose to achieve comparable concentration ratios simulating a tank-mix at the maximum label rate. Diflubenzuron cause significantly reduced adult emergence as measured by larval mortality, but no synergistic effect was observed when combined with fungicides (Wade et al., 2019).

During June 2024 the USDA Agricultural Research Service (ARS) collected 58 plant tissue samples from flowers within a grasshopper treatment area in Prairie County, Montana. The samples were sent to the USDA Agricultural Marketing Service – National Science Laboratory for analysis to determine the concentration of diflubenzuron residue both 24 hours and 14 days after the application. Nine pretreatment flower tissue samples were accidentally collected before the insecticide application because of miscommunication between the PPQ program manager, the ARS field technician and the pilot. The program uses the RAATs method where spray and no-spray swaths are alternated. However, deposition of insecticide within the spray and no-spray swaths is variable because of changes in wind direction and speed, as well as the application height which is dictated by topography and other hazards. Of the 25 flower samples collected 24 hours after the treatment, 14 did not have detectable amounts of diflubenzuron, as was also the case with the nine pretreatment samples. The sample location coordinates, and applicator flight path software indicated only ten of these samples were collected in between spray swaths (i.e. within skip swaths). Laboratory analysis showed six samples collected within skip swaths, 24 hours after the aerial spray treatment had diflubenzuron residues. Of the 24 samples collected 14 days after the treatment, 16 did not have detectable amounts of diflubenzuron. Five of the eight samples that had diflubenzuron residues 14 days after treatment were collected in skip swaths.

Ten of the flower samples collected 24 hours after the treatment had measurable amounts of diflubenzuron that diminished in samples collected at the same location 14 days later. Laboratory analysis showed flower samples collected at five sample locations did not have detectable concentrations one day after the treatment, but did have diflubenzuron residues when samples were collected at the same or nearby locations 14 days later. Diflubenzuron residues on five flower samples collected immediately after treatment either did not attenuate significantly or had greater amounts of the chemical when more samples were collected at the same or adjacent locations 14 days later.

To assess risk to bees from contact with the rangeland flowers and leaves while collecting pollen and nectar after foliar diflubenzuron treatments we calculated the hazard quotient (HQ). The HQ was calculated as the average concentration of diflubenzuron residues detected on plant tissue for both the samples collected 24 hours and 14 days after the treatment divided by acute contact LD_{50} (Stoner and Eitzer 2013). Non-detection results were assigned a value of 0.099 parts per million (ppm), just below the limit of detection value of 0.100 ppm. Honeybee LD_{50} was used as LD_{50} was not consistently available for bumble and solitary bees.

HQ (24 hours) = 245 ppb (0.245 ppm) ÷ 114.8 μg diflubenzuron per bee = 2.134

HQ (14 days) = 159 ppb (0.159 ppm) ÷ 114.8 μg diflubenzuron per bee = 1.385

This analysis can be interpreted there is not a significant risk to bees using a common level of concern (LOC) of HQ > 50 (Thompson and Thorbahn 2009; Thompson 2021). Extrapolation to other pollinators by multiplying the HQ by an order of magnitude also did not indicate significant acute health risk from contact with the flowers with diflubenzuron residues.

In addition to HQ, we calculated contact Risk Quotient (RQcontact) using the BeeREX tool provided by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), which is intended for foliar sprays applied to crops in bloom. Risk quotient has the advantage over HQ of taking into account the amount of the contaminated substance consumed or encountered by a typical honeybee forager. The BeeREX RQcontact is calculated by comparing the chemical application rate, multiplied by a constant that represents the typical amount of chemical encountered by a honeybee forager if it flies through a cloud of spray, to the contact acute LD_{50}. The BeeREX RQcontact index value for 1.0 fl.oz. Dimilin/acre (0.0078125 gal. X 2.0 lb. = 0.015625 lbs./acre) = 0.000367.

To interpret risk to bees from contact with the diflubenzuron residues on flowers and plant tissues collected by USDA, the acute RQcontact value is compared to a pre-determined level of concern set to 0.4, which and is based on the historic average dose response relationship for acute toxicity studies with bees and a 10% mortality level in foragers and worker larvae. Based on calculations in the BeeREX risk model the index value of 0.000367 does not represent a significant risk to honeybees or a likely risk to other bee pollinators (USEPA 2014). Extrapolation to other pollinators by multiplying the RQ by an order of magnitude also did not indicate significant acute health risk from contact with the diflubenzuron flowers.

Insecticide applications to rangelands have the potential to impact pollinators, and in turn, vegetation and various rangeland species that depend on pollinated vegetation. Based on the review of laboratory and field toxicity data for terrestrial invertebrates, applications of diflubenzuron are expected to have minimal risk to pollinators of terrestrial plants. The use of RAATs provide additional benefits by using reduced rates and creating untreated swaths within the spray block that will further reduce the potential risk to pollinators.

APHIS reduces the risk to native bees and pollinators through monitoring grasshopper and Mormon cricket populations and making pesticide applications in a manner that reduces the risk to this group of nontarget invertebrates. Monitoring grasshopper and Mormon cricket populations allows APHIS to determine if populations require treatment and to make treatments in a timely manner reducing pesticide use and emphasizing the use of program insecticides that are not broad spectrum. The treatment history of program since the introduction of diflubenzuron demonstrates it is the preferred insecticide. Over 90% of the acreage treated by the program has been with diflubenzuron. The effects on pollinators resulting from control of rangeland grasshopper populations with diflubenzuron are not expected to cause significant impacts to the human environment.

(3) Physical Environment Components

USEPA considers diflubenzuron relatively non-persistent and immobile under normal use conditions and stable to hydrolysis and photolysis. The chemical is considered unlikely to contaminate ground water or surface water (USEPA, 1997). The vapor pressure of diflubenzuron is relatively low, as is the Henry's Law Constant value, suggesting the chemical will not volatilize readily into the atmosphere from soil, plants or water. Therefore, exposure from volatilization is expected to be minimal. Due to its low solubility (0.2 mg/L) and preferential binding to organic matter, diflubenzuron seldom persists more than a few days in water (Schaefer and Dupras, 1977). Mobility and leachability of diflubenzuron in soils is low, and residues are usually not detectable after seven days (Eisler, 2000). Aerobic aquatic half-life data in water and sediment was reported as 26.0 days (USEPA, 1997). Diflubenzuron applied to foliage remains adsorbed to leaf surfaces for several weeks with little or no absorption or translocation from plant surfaces (Eisler, 1992, 2000). Field dissipation studies in California citrus and Oregon apple orchards reported half-live values of 68.2 to 78 days (USEPA, 2018). Diflubenzuron persistence varies depending on site conditions and rangeland persistence is unfortunately not available. Diflubenzuron degradation is microbially mediated with soil aerobic half-lives much less than dissipation half-lives. Diflubenzuron treatments are expected to have minimal effects on terrestrial plants. Both laboratory and field studies demonstrate no effects using diflubenzuron over a range of application rates, and the direct risk to terrestrial plants is expected to be minimal (USDA APHIS, 2019c).

(4) Socioeconomic Issues

In addition to the environmental baseline conditions, APHIS also considers other factors such as pest population, pest life stage, pest and plant species affected, cost share with State and private landowners, and the cost benefit estimate of making a treatment. Because of the cost sharing private landowners and land managers typically would only use diflubenzuron to suppress rangeland grasshoppers and preserve forage for livestock. Insecticides applied using the RAATs strategy is expected to provide further economic advantages due to effective treatment at reduced costs. The RAATs strategy reduces treatment costs to half of the costs for conventional treatments for rangeland grasshopper infestations (Foster et al., 2000, Lockwood and Schell, 1997).

Another potential economic benefit of chemical treatment of grasshoppers is to crop growers near rangelands. This would result in socioeconomic benefits because losses, and therefore costs, of meat, crops, and their byproducts should be reduced. Additionally, the suppressed grasshopper populations in rangeland surrounding croplands could mean less of a need for costly chemical treatments by crop farmers at these sites.

There is the potential for organic farms adjacent to diflubenzuron treatments in rangeland to control grasshopper outbreak populations. However, mitigations such as buffers are meant to protect adjacent environments from runoff and insecticide drift. These protective measures are expected to protect nearby organic farms, as well as other areas of concern, from the risk of inadvertent exposure to rangeland insecticide treatments. It is also likely the organic farms would also benefit economically from reductions in crop damage caused by grasshopper populations migrating from nearby rangeland.

The suppression of grasshopper populations with diflubenzuron should benefit public uses rangelands for recreational activities such as camping, fishing, hiking, and biking. The public may temporarily lose the use of rangeland during and directly after diflubenzuron insecticide applications. However, the preservation of vegetation is expected to benefit recreational activities in the long-term by preserving their aesthetic value. This in turn will also increase the economic value of the rangeland by preserving and improving recreational opportunities.

(5) Cultural Resources and Events

There is the potential for impacts to cultural and historical resources if the proposed diflubenzuron treatments occur on or near historic trails or properties. If any proposed actions are at, or adjacent to, the site of a historic trail or property, APHIS will consult with the appropriate landowner or land management agency, the State Historic Preservation Office, any affected National Trail's administrative office, or other appropriate agencies. Likewise, APHIS would coordinate the timing of treatments with Tribes or other cooperators to ensure insecticide applications would not occur during scheduled cultural events or ceremonies.

(6) Special Considerations for Certain Populations

APHIS uses diflubenzuron insecticide treatments to suppress grasshopper populations in rural rangeland areas that are largely uninhabited. Disproportionately high and adverse human health or environmental impacts on Tribes, and historical and culturally sensitive sites in a program area are unlikely.

APHIS grasshopper insecticide treatments are conducted in rural rangeland areas, where agriculture is a primary industry. The areas consist of widely scattered, single, rural dwellings in ranching communities with low population density. The program notifies residents within treatment areas, or their designated representatives, prior to proposed operations to reduce the potential for incidental exposure to residents including children. Treatments are conducted primarily on open rangelands where children would not be expected to be present during treatment or to enter should there be any restricted entry period after treatment. The program also implements mitigation measures beyond label requirements to ensure that no treatments occur within the required buffer zones from structures, such as a 500-foot treatment buffer zone from schools and recreational areas. Also, program insecticides are not applied while school buses are operating in the treatment area (USDA APHIS, 2016).

APHIS' HHERA for diflubenzuron evaluated the potential exposure to each insecticide used in the program and risks associated with these insecticides to residents, including children. The HHERA suggest that no disproportionate risks to children, as part of the general public, are anticipated (USDA APHIS, 2019c).

c) Reduced Area Agent Treatments (RAATs)

The use of RAATS is the most common application method for all program insecticides and would continue to be so, except in rare pest conditions that warrant full coverage and higher rates. The RAATs method is an effective IPM strategy because the goal is to suppress grasshopper populations to a desired level, rather than to reduce those populations to the greatest possible extent. All APHIS grasshopper treatments are conducted in adherence with U.S. EPA approved label directions. Labeled application rates for grasshopper control tend to be lower than rates used against other pests. The RAATs rates used for grasshopper control by APHIS are lower than rates typically used by private landowners. APHIS would apply a single application of insecticide per year, typically using a RAATs strategy that decreases the rate of insecticide applied by either using lower insecticide spray concentrations, or by alternating one or more treatment swaths. Usually, RAATs applications use both lower concentrations and skip treatment swaths. The RAATs strategy suppresses grasshoppers within treated swaths, while conserving grasshopper predators and parasites in swaths that are not treated.

The efficacy of a RAATs strategy in reducing grasshoppers is, therefore, less than conventional treatments and more variable. Foster et al. (2000) reported that grasshopper mortality using RAATs was reduced 2 to 15% from conventional treatments, depending on the insecticide, while Lockwood et al. (2000) reported 0 to 26% difference in mortality between conventional and RAATs methods. APHIS will consider the effects of not suppressing grasshoppers to the greatest extent possible as part of the treatment planning process.

(1) Human Health

The potential effects on human health during the application of pesticides using the RAATs method depends on the choice of insecticide. The possible exposure scenarios are described in detail in the above pesticide specific effects analysis. The minimal risk to program workers would not decrease because the mixing and formulation of the pesticide procedures would remain the same and are expected to prevent exposure. Any potential exposure of bystanders within treatment blocks would be reduced because of the lower application rates and skip swaths where insecticides are not applied.

(2) Nontarget Species

The potential effects on nontarget species during the application of pesticides using the RAATs method depends on the choice of insecticide. The possible environmental impacts are described in detail in the above pesticide specific effects analysis. Any exposure of nontarget species within treatment blocks would be reduced because of the lower application rates and skip swaths where insecticides are not applied. Therefore, the risk of significant impacts to populations of nontarget species would be less than if the program used conventional application rates and complete coverage of the treatment area.

(3) Physical Environment Components

The potential environmental effects of the application of pesticides using the RAATs method depends on the choice of insecticide. The expected fate of program applied chemicals, and possible environmental impacts are described in detail in the above pesticide specific effects analysis. The concentration of pesticide residues within treatment blocks

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would be reduced because of the lower application rates and skip swaths where insecticides are not applied. Therefore, the risk of significant impacts to air, soil and water resources would be less than if the program used conventional application rates and complete coverage of the treatment area.

(4) Socioeconomic Issues

RAATs reduces treatment costs and conserves non-target biological resources in untreated areas. The potential economic advantages of RAATs were proposed by Larsen and Foster (1996) and empirically demonstrated by Lockwood and Schell (1997). Widespread efforts to communicate the advantages of RAATs across the Western States were undertaken in 1998 and have continued on an annual basis. The viability of RAATs at an operational scale was initially demonstrated by Lockwood et al. (2000) and subsequently confirmed by Foster et al. (2000). The first government agencies to adopt RAATs in their grasshopper suppression programs were the Platte and Goshen County Weed and Pest Districts in Wyoming; they also funded research at the University of Wyoming to support the initial studies in 1995. This method is now commonly used by government agencies and private landowners in States where grasshopper control is required.

(5) Cultural Resources and Events

APHIS expects there is a negligible possibility of harm to cultural resources or disruption of events during grasshopper suppression operations because of our close cooperation with Tribes and other stakeholders. This would be the case regardless of whether the program used the RAATs method or conventional rates at complete coverage.

(6) Special Considerations for Certain Populations

APHIS uses the RAATs method to suppress grasshopper populations in rural rangeland areas that are largely uninhabited. Disproportionately high and adverse human health or environmental impacts on minority and low-income communities in a program area are unlikely. The potential effects on human health during the application of pesticides using the RAATs method depends on the choice of insecticide. The possible exposure scenarios are described in detail in the above pesticide specific effects analysis. Any potential exposure of children near or within treatment blocks would be reduced because of the lower application rates and skip swaths where insecticides are not applied.

IV. Conclusions

This EA examines alternatives available to APHIS when requested to suppress economically damaging outbreaks of grasshoppers. The preferred alternative includes insecticide treatments which are considered based on the site conditions. APHIS decides whether a suppression of the outbreak is warranted based on the IPM principles including an assessment of the economic injury level represented by the grasshopper populations. This EA discusses and examines the tools and strategies employed by APHIS and their potential effects on the human environment. This EA does not decide which alternative will be selected, however, all reasonable options available to the agency for dealing with grasshopper infestations have been adequately considered, including consideration of direct, indirect and cumulative environmental effects. Decisions about whether, how, and when to employ the tools and strategies discussed in the EA will be made as the need to suppress grasshopper populations at specific sites arises.

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In June 2002, APHIS completed an EIS describing the agency's most effective methods of reducing the damage caused by grasshopper populations to rangeland in the western United States. During November 2019, APHIS published HHERA for the use of carbaryl, chlorantraniliprole, diflubenzuron and malathion by the program. APHIS also published an updated EIS to consolidate and incorporate the available data and analyze the environmental risk of new program tools. The risk analysis in the 2019 EIS is incorporated by reference (USDA APHIS, 2019).

This EA examined a No Action alternative, where APHIS would not conduct a program to suppress grasshoppers other than provide technical assistance and surveys to assist in the implementation of IPM strategies by land managers. Without an APHIS administered program Federal land management agencies, State agriculture departments, local governments, private groups or individuals, may not effectively combat outbreaks in a coordinated effort. Without the coordination that APHIS provides during grasshopper outbreaks, the land managers and owners could use insecticides that APHIS considers too environmentally harsh. Multiple treatments and excessive amount of insecticide could be applied in efforts to suppress or even locally eradicate grasshopper populations. Conversely, in the absence of an APHIS funded grasshopper suppression program the most likely environmental effects would result from other agencies and land managers not controlling outbreaks. As noted, grasshoppers consuming vast amounts of vegetation in rangelands and surrounding areas. Grasshoppers are generalist feeders, eating grasses and forbs first and often moving to cultivated crops.

Under the Preferred Alternative APHIS would participate in grasshopper programs with the option of using one of the insecticides [abridge this list and the following risk analysis sections as appropriate for this EA] carbaryl, chlorantraniliprole, diflubenzuron, or malathion, depending upon the various factors related to the grasshopper outbreak and the site-specific characteristics. The use of an insecticide would typically occur at half the conventional application rates following the RAATs strategy. APHIS would apply a single treatment per year to affected rangeland areas to suppress grasshopper outbreak populations.

Each alternative described in this EA potentially has adverse environmental effects. The general environmental impacts of each alternative are discussed in detail in the 2019 programmatic EIS published by APHIS. The specific impacts of the alternatives are highly dependent upon the particular action and location of the grasshopper infestation. The principal concerns associated with the alternatives are: (1) the potential effects of insecticides on human health (including subpopulations that might be at increased risk); and (2) impacts of insecticides on nontarget organisms (including threatened and endangered species).

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VI. Listing of Agencies and Persons Consulted

A. Bureau of Land Management

Nebeker, Glenn, Field Manager, Fillmore, UT Field Office

Probert, R.B, Range Conservation, Fillmore, UT Field Office

Riding, Trevor, Range Specialist, Fillmore, UT Field Office

Robbins, Josh, State Weed Coordinator, State Office

B. Utah Department of Agriculture and Food

Hougaard, Robert, Director of Plant Industry

Watson, Kristopher, State Entomologist, Plant Industry

C. USDA, APHIS, PPQ

Caraher, Kai, Biological Scientist – Staff Officer

Rockermann, Peter, NV/UT State Plant Health Director, Reno, NV

Warren, Jim, Environmental Protection Specialist/Environmental Toxicologist

Vasquez, Ryan, GH/MC National Operations Manager

Wesela, William, GH/MC National Policy Manager

Wild, Alana, Former NV/UT State Plant Health Director

D. USDA, Forest Service

Hooper, Ethan, Cedar City, UT

Mark Bigelow, Cedar City, UT

E. USDA, Fish and Wildlife Service

Novak, Kate, T&E Specialist, Utah

Romin, Laura, Acting Field Supervisor, Utah

F. Utah Division of Wildlife Resources

Mumford, Vance, Southern Region Biologist

G. Utah State University Extension Service

Nelson, Mark, Beaver

Cooper, Troy, Duchesne

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Gale, Jody, Sevier County Agriculture Agent

Greenhalgh, Linden, Tooele

Hadfield, Jacob, Cache

Kitchen, Boyd, Uintah

Palmer, Matt, Sanpete

H. Utah County Commissioners

Brown, Ralph, Sevier County

Draper, Dean, Millard

Jensen, Greg, Sevier

Talbott, Will, Piute

I. Utah State Legislators

J. Federal Legislators

Romney, Mitt, Utah Senator

VII. Appendix A

APHIS Rangeland Grasshopper and Mormon Cricket Suppression Program

FY – 2025 Treatment Guidelines

[A national program document, not specific to this site-specific EA provided for the program in Nevada.]

The objectives of the APHIS Rangeland Grasshopper and Mormon Cricket Suppression Program are to 1) conduct surveys in the Western States; 2) provide technical assistance to land managers and private landowners; and 3) when funds permit, suppress economically damaging grasshopper and Mormon cricket outbreaks on Federal, Tribal, State, and/or private rangeland. The Plant Protection Act of 2000 provides APHIS the authority to take these actions.

General Guidelines for Grasshopper / Mormon Cricket Treatments

1. All treatments must be in accordance with:
   a) the Plant Protection Act of 2000;
   b) applicable environmental laws and policies such as: the National Environmental Policy Act, the Endangered Species Act, the Federal Insecticide, Fungicide, and Rodenticide Act, and the Clean Water Act (including National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System requirements – if applicable);
   c) applicable state laws;
   d) APHIS Directives pertaining to the proposed action;
   e) Memoranda of Understanding with other Federal agencies.

2. Subject to the availability of funds, upon request of the administering agency, the agriculture department of an affected State, or private landowners, APHIS, to protect rangeland, shall immediately treat Federal, Tribal, State, or private lands that are infested with grasshoppers or Mormon crickets at levels of economic infestation, unless APHIS determines that delaying treatment will not cause greater economic damage to adjacent owners of rangeland. In carrying out this section, APHIS shall work in conjunction with other Federal, State, Tribal, and private prevention, control, or suppression efforts to protect rangeland.

3. Prior to the treatment season, conduct meetings or provide guidance that allows for public participation in the decision-making process. In addition, notify Federal, State and Tribal land managers and private landowners of the potential for grasshopper and Mormon cricket outbreaks on their lands. Request that the land manager / landowner advise APHIS of any sensitive sites that may exist in the proposed treatment areas.

4. Consultation with local Tribal representatives will take place prior to treatment programs to fully inform the Tribes of possible actions APHIS may take on Tribal lands.

5. On APHIS run suppression programs and subject to funding availability, the Federal government will bear the cost of treatment up to 100 percent on Federal and Tribal Trust land, 50 percent of the cost on State land, and 33 percent of cost on private land. There is an additional 16.15% charge, however, on any funds received by APHIS for federal involvement with suppression treatments.

6. Land managers are responsible for the overall management of rangeland under their control to prevent or reduce the severity of grasshopper and Mormon cricket outbreaks. Land managers are encouraged to have implemented Integrated Pest Management Systems prior to requesting a treatment. In the absence of available funding or in the place of APHIS funding, the Federal land management agency, Tribal authority or other party/ies may opt to reimburse APHIS for suppression treatments. Interagency agreements or reimbursement agreements must be completed prior to the start of treatments which will be charged thereto.

7. There are situations where APHIS may be requested to treat rangeland that also includes small areas where crops are being grown (typically less than 10 percent of the treatment area). In those situations, the crop owner pays the entire treatment costs on the croplands.

   NOTE: The insecticide being considered must be labeled for the included crop as well as rangeland and current Worker Protection Standards must be followed by the applicator and private landowner.

8. In some cases, rangeland treatments may be conducted by other federal agencies (e.g., Forest Service, Bureau of Land Management, or Bureau of Indian Affairs) or by non-federal entities (e.g., Grazing Association or County Pest District). APHIS may choose to assist these groups in a variety of ways, such as:
   a) loaning equipment (an agreement may be required):
   b) contributing in-kind services such as surveys to determine insect species, instars, and infestation levels;
   c) monitoring for effectiveness of the treatment;
   d) providing technical guidance.

9. In areas considered for treatment, State-registered beekeepers and organic producers shall be notified in advance of proposed treatments. If necessary, non-treated buffer zones can be established.

Operational Procedures

GENERAL PROCEDURES FOR ALL AERIAL AND GROUND APPLICATIONS

1. Follow all applicable Federal, Tribal, State, and local laws and regulations in conducting grasshopper and Mormon cricket suppression treatments.

2. Notify residents within treatment areas, or their designated representatives, prior to proposed operations. Advise them of the control method to be used, proposed method of application, and precautions to be taken.

3. One of the following insecticides that are labeled for rangeland use can be used for a suppression treatment of grasshoppers and Mormon crickets:
   A. Carbaryl
      a. solid bait
      b. ultra-low volume (ULV) spray
   B. Diflubenzuron ULV spray
   C. Malathion ULV spray
   D. Chlorantraniliprole spray

VII. Appendix A

4. Do not apply insecticides directly to water bodies (defined herein as reservoirs, lakes, ponds, pools left by seasonal streams, springs, wetlands, and perennial streams and rivers).

   Furthermore, provide the following buffers for water bodies:
   - 500-foot buffer with aerial liquid insecticide.
   - 200-foot buffer with ground liquid insecticide.
   - 200-foot buffer with aerial bait.
   - 50-foot buffer with ground bait.

5. Instruct program personnel in the safe use of equipment, materials, and procedures; supervise to ensure safety procedures are properly followed.

6. Conduct mixing, loading, and unloading in an approved area where an accidental spill would not contaminate a water body.

7. Each aerial suppression program will have a Contracting Officer's Representative (COR) OR a Treatment Manager on site. Each State will have at least one COR available to assist the Contracting Officer (CO) in GH/MC aerial suppression programs.

   NOTE: A Treatment Manager is an individual that the COR has delegated authority to oversee the actual suppression treatment; someone who is on the treatment site and overseeing / coordinating the treatment and communicating with the COR. No specific training is required, but knowledge of the Aerial Application Manual and treatment experience is critical; attendance to the Aerial Applicators Workshop is very beneficial.

8. Each suppression program will conduct environmental monitoring as outlined in the current year's Environmental Monitoring Plan.

   APHIS will assess and monitor rangeland treatments for the efficacy of the treatment, to verify that a suppression treatment program has properly been implemented, and to assure that any environmentally sensitive sites are protected.

9. APHIS reporting requirements associated with grasshopper / Mormon cricket suppression treatments include:
   A. Completion of a post-treatment report (Part C of the Project Planning and Reporting Worksheet (PPQ Form 62)
   B. Providing an entry for each treatment in the PPQ Grasshopper/Mormon Cricket treatment database
   C. For aerial treatments, providing copies of forms and treatment/plane data for input into the Federal Aviation Interactive Reporting System (FAIRS) by PPQ's designee

SPECIFIC PROCEDURES FOR AERIAL APPLICATIONS

1. APHIS Aerial treatment contracts will adhere to the current year's Statement of Work (SOW).

2. Minimize the potential for drift and volatilization by not using ULV sprays when the following conditions exist in the spray area:

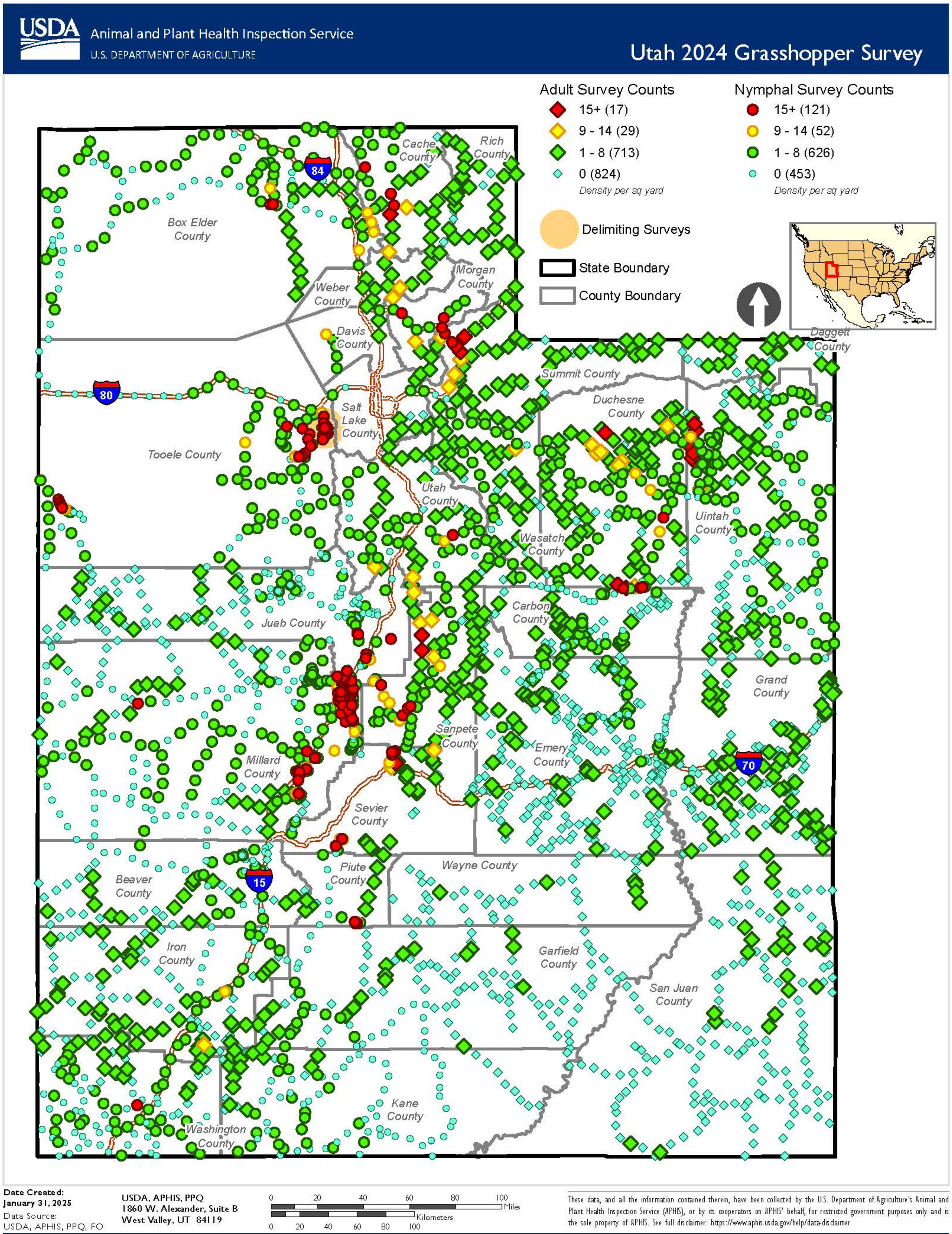
    a. Wind velocity exceeds 10 miles per hour (unless state law requires lower wind speed);
    b. Rain is falling or is imminent;
    c. Dew is present over large areas within the treatment block;
    d. There is air turbulence that could affect the spray deposition;
    e. Temperature inversions (ground temperature higher than air temperature) develop and deposition onto the ground is affected.

3. Weather conditions will be monitored and documented during application and treatment will be suspended when conditions could jeopardize the correct spray placement or pilot safety.

4. Application aircraft will fly at a median altitude of 1 to 1.5 times the wingspan of the aircraft whenever possible or as specified by the COR or the Treatment Manager.

5. Whenever possible, plan aerial ferrying and turnaround routes to avoid flights over congested areas, water bodies, and other sensitive areas that are not to be treated.

VIII. Appendix B: Map of the Affected Environment



IX. Appendix C

USFWS Letter of Concurrence

United States Department of the Interior

FISH AND WILDLIFE SERVICE

5275 Leesburg
Pike MS-ES
Falls Church, Virginia 22041

In Reply Refer To:

FWS/AES/DER/BNC/080572
2024-0053674-S7

Tracy Willard

U.S. Department of Agriculture

Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service Policy
and Program Development

4700 River Road, Unit 149

Riverdale, Maryland 20737

Dear Ms. Willard:

This letter is in response to the United States Department of Agriculture-Animal and Plant Health Inspection Services (APHIS) December 13, 2023, request for concurrence on determinations of “may affect, not likely to adversely affect,” (NLAA) federally listed, proposed and candidate species and designated and proposed critical habitats related to APHIS’ proposal to conduct chemical treatments to suppress grasshopper infestations as part of the Rangeland Grasshopper and Mormon Cricket Suppression Program (Program) in 17 Western States. In their accompanying Biological Assessment for the APHIS Rangeland Grasshopper and Mormon Cricket Suppression Program, December 2023, revised on January 23, 2024, APHIS uses a risk assessment approach to evaluate response data to characterize the potential hazard/risk of the use of three of four chemicals in the program to aquatic and terrestrial listed species and their habitat. APHIS is adopting the risk assessment and conservation measures from the 2022 U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service Biological Opinion for the reregistration of malathion, and thus, malathion is not considered further in their BA. The Service provides this response pursuant to section 7(a)(2) of the Endangered Species Act of 1973 (ESA), as amended.

APHIS has made a NLAA determination for their Proposed Action for 201 threatened and endangered species, 11 proposed species, 93 designated and 8 proposed critical habitats These species include 10 amphibians, 15 birds, 57 fishes, 31 invertebrates, 15 mammals, 78 plants, and 8 reptiles. A complete list of these species and critical habitats can be found in Enclosure A.

Description of the Proposed Action

The intent of APHIS' Program is to reduce populations of various species of grasshoppers and Mormon crickets on rangeland in Arizona, California (partial), Colorado, Idaho, Kansas, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada (partial), New Mexico, North Dakota, Oklahoma (partial), Oregon (partial), South Dakota, Texas (partial), Utah, Washington (partial), and Wyoming. Chemical treatments include a seasonal one-time treatment of diflubenzuron, carbaryl, malathion, or chlorantraniliprole which can be applied from the ground or air. All four chemicals are applied at substantially reduced rates, compared to their recommended label uses, and are applied over an entire treatment area/spray block, or in alternating swaths within a treatment area/spray block. Decisions to conduct grasshopper treatments are based on many factors including the number of grasshoppers present in the area, grasshopper and plant species composition, life-cycle stage of the grasshoppers, range condition, the economic significance of the infestation, and whether it is economically and logistically feasible to conduct an effective program.

Toxicity data related to potential direct and indirect effects to listed species were compared to exposure estimates for diflubenzuron, carbaryl, and chlorantraniliprole to characterize risk to listed species and any designated critical habitat. APHIS reviewed the ecology of the listed species, including their distribution throughout the program action area, to determine whether a listed entity is found within the program treatment areas and, thus, would likely be exposed to any of the program chemicals.

Based on this review, APHIS identified listed species that could potentially occur in the program area, and then used results from the risk characterization for the three chemicals to develop program application buffers and other mitigation measures to avoid and/or minimize the potential for adverse impacts to listed species and their critical habitat (See Appendix A-9 of the BA or Enclosure B).

Best Management Practices (BMPs)

Surveys

Prior to any insecticide applications, APHIS conducts immature grasshopper surveys (i.e., nymphal surveys) in the spring and early summer (USDA, 2024). The number of grasshopper nymphs present within a given area are counted (USDA, 2024). Data gathered includes the stage of grasshopper development; location of sensitive areas such as bee yards and aquatic resources; the condition of the rangeland in relation to grasshopper numbers; and the extent of the infestation (USDA, 2024). This data is used for planning large-scale treatment programs and fiscal tracking, and for local decisions on treatments within a State (USDA, 2024).

Adult surveys occur in late summer and early fall (USDA, 2024). This survey is timed to coincide with the peak populations (USDA, 2024). Adult survey data are useful in predicting if and where potential grasshopper problems are likely to occur in the spring and early summer of the next growing season (USDA, 2024).

The survey data collected by the program is used by the agency and land managers/owners to assess whether treatments are warranted. Treatments must be requested from a Federal land management agency or a State agriculture department (on behalf of a State or local government, or private group or individual) that has jurisdiction over the land before APHIS can begin a treatment (USDA, 2024). Upon request, APHIS personnel conduct a site visit to determine whether APHIS action is warranted (USDA, 2024). Relevant factors influencing this decision may include, but are not limited to, the pest species, timing of treatment relative to the biological stage of the pest species, costs and benefits of conducting the action, and ecological impacts

(USDA, 2024). Based on survey results conducted during the growing season, APHIS is better able to predict the potential for large grasshopper populations and to respond quickly before extensive loss occurs to rangeland (USDA, 2024). Thus, State and Federal officials may initiate early coordination of local programs and request APHIS' assistance in a timely and effective cooperative effort (USDA, 2024).

Insecticide Application

When land managers request direct intervention, APHIS' role in the suppression of grasshoppers is through a single application of an insecticide—carbaryl, diflubenzuron, malathion, or chlorantraniliprole (USDA, 2024). All four insecticides are labeled by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Pesticide Programs (EPA–OPP) for rangeland use in the control of grasshoppers, including Mormon crickets (USDA, 2024). APHIS may conduct insecticide treatments in the above mentioned 17 states. With the exception of chlorantraniliprole, the remaining three insecticides are registered for use in all states considered in this program (USDA 2015).

Program insecticide applications can be applied in two different forms: liquid ultra-low-volume (ULV) sprays, or solid-based baits (USDA, 2024). Both ULV sprays and baits can be distributed by aerial or ground applications (USDA, 2024). Aerial applications are typical for treatments over large areas (USDA, 2024). Some grasshopper outbreak locations are economically or logistically accessible only by aircraft, while other locations may be best treated by ground applications (USDA, 2024). Ground applications are most likely to be made when treating localized grasshopper outbreaks or for treatments where the most precise placement of insecticide is desired (USDA, 2024).

Buffers and Conservation Measures

A reduced agent area treatment (RAATs) rate can be used for all four insecticides (USDA, 2024). This strategy uses insecticides at low rates combined with a reduction in the area treated for grasshopper suppression (USDA, 2024). The RAATs strategy relies on the effects of an insecticide to suppress grasshoppers within treated swaths, and the conservation of grasshopper predators and parasites in swaths not directly treated (untreated).

The Program has also established treatment restriction buffers around waterbodies to protect those features from insecticide drift and runoff (USDA, 2024). APHIS maintains the following buffers for water bodies that are not designated critical habitat for listed aquatic species: 500-foot buffer for aerial sprays, 200-foot buffer for ground sprays, and a 50-foot buffer for bait applications (USDA, 2024).

Application buffers as well as additional mitigation measures to protect listed species and their critical habitat have also been established for all four pesticides. Parameters specific to the given pesticide are used for inputs into the modeling program, AgDrift, to establish additional mitigation measure buffer distances for those areas where Program activities and listed species and their designated critical habitat are present (USDA, 2024). Specific buffer distances were established based on the integration of available effects and exposure data to characterize direct and indirect risk to listed species and their critical habitat (USDA, 2024). In addition to the standard spray buffers, conservation measures include additional measures for critical habitat PCEs, larger buffers for lekking sites (e.g., Greater sage-grouse), larger buffers for species (e.g., birds) that rely primarily on insects as food, and additional upstream buffers for fish. These additional conservation measures are described in Enclosure B

In addition to the chemical-specific application buffers, additional label and other requirements have been incorporated into the Program to reduce the potential exposure of threatened and endangered species and designated critical habitat to Program insecticide treatments:

- Avoid applications when sustained winds speeds exceed 10 miles per hour (mph).
- Use RAATs adjacent to locations of listed species and designated critical habitats.
- Avoid applications under conditions where a temperature inversion is possible or when a storm event is imminent.

The use of RAATs will be required for 500 feet from a ground application or 1,000 feet from an aerial application (USDA, 2024). This distance will be used from the location of a listed species, or its critical habitat when no application buffer is required, or from the distance beyond the no application buffer (USDA, 2024). Beyond these distances the program can choose to continue RAATs applications or use full applications depending on site-specific conditions and the need for greater efficacy (USDA, 2024).

The avoidance of applications during storm events is required to reduce the probability of off-site transport of program insecticides via runoff (USDA, 2024). Variability in weather patterns, even within small geographic areas, requires a site-specific evaluation of conditions by program personnel prior to application to determine if a rainfall or storm event would result in conditions where runoff to sensitive habitats could occur given site conditions and the proposed application buffers (USDA, 2024).

Exposure

Observed Residue Values from Program Applications

Monitoring data from drift cards collected from 2003 to 2022 was reviewed and compared to modeled data to determine if the drift assumptions were representative of the drift expected from the Program applications. Drift card data provides a standardized unit of measurement (mg/m^2) to compare with the outputs of terrestrial deposition estimates in AgDrift. The drift card comparisons are made primarily with diflubenzuron as this is the preferred active ingredient to be used for the Program activities, and thus, there are data to address the drift assumptions.

Aquatic residues from the monitoring data are also summarized but are not able to be compared to AgDrift outputs due to difficulties with quantifying the waterbody types, sizes, and flow regimes.

Modeling Estimates for all three pesticides using AgDrift

The aquatic residue values calculated using AgDrift were generated based on conservative assumptions and then compared to toxicity values. The parameters used in AgDrift are discussed in detail in the Drift Simulations section of the BA (p. 30). While drift card data residue values varied, generally the closer to the treatment site, the more residue was detected, but values ranged from < LOD (limit of detection) to 1.07 mg/m^2 overall. The average drift value estimated at 500 feet was 0.246 mg/m^2 which is greater than what is observed from most drift card data at 500 feet (drift card data from 2003 to 2022 at 500 feet ranged from < 0.015 – 0.29 mg/m^2 from both carbaryl and diflubenzuron applications; BA pp 26-30).

Run-off residues in waterbodies are considered minimal due to the reduced application rates and the large buffers in place as standard for all aquatic environments and are discussed in more detail in the Runoff Simulations section of the BA (p.32).

Residue Estimates for Terrestrial Non-Target Organisms

Estimated exposure levels on vegetation and other forage items for terrestrial species were calculated using the Terrestrial Residue Exposure Model (T-REX) developed by EPA (US EPA, 2012). More details on how this model was used and the parameters for the inputs are provided in the BA (p.34). Exposure concentrations for birds and mammals are based on mg/kg diet or mg/kg body weight. The resulting concentrations from the model estimates (for each insecticide) represent what would be expected from a direct application to the listed dietary item and are then used to determine residues for different mammals and birds based on their body size and food consumption. These values are then compared to the effects data toxicity endpoints.

AgDrift was then used to estimate the amount of drift reduction needed to arrive below the toxicity endpoint. The input parameters used for estimating the aquatic residues provided in Tables 2-1 and 2-2 of the BA were the same as those used for estimating drift reduction in terrestrial environments. APHIS developed the proposed buffers using these input parameters to determine removal of 99% of the off-site drift from the program applications that will be protective of listed species and their critical habitat as applicable.

Effects of the Action

Throughout this section we summarize or describe toxicity effects of the three chemicals used in the APHIS grasshopper/cricket suppression program. Toxicity is described for both aquatic and terrestrial species using U.S. EPA criteria based on concentrations of a particular chemical (practically non-toxic, slightly toxic, moderately toxic, highly toxic, very highly toxic; **Aquatic and Terrestrial Organism Criteria for Toxicity**). Where data were unavailable for certain taxonomic groups, surrogate species data are described with assumptions for use of those data where indicated.

For aquatic species, a range of toxicity values is provided for each taxa group to describe the potential effects observed from exposure to the three chemicals, carbaryl, chlorantraniliprole, and diflubenzuron. These values are then compared, in the risk section discussion, to the estimated concentrations from field monitoring data collected, as well as AgDrift modeled estimates.

For terrestrial species, toxicity is also described based on route of exposure (i.e., oral, contact, dermal) and either acute or chronic (i.e., reproductive or developmental). These values are then scaled based on the body weight of the test organism of focus and compared in the risk section discussion. APHIS uses a methodology used by the U.S. EPA (U.S. EPA Ecological Risk Assessment Methodology) to describe risk of exposure to different taxonomic groups of organisms from each of the three program chemicals. A Risk Quotient (RQ) is calculated by dividing a point estimate of exposure (residues on dietary items or thresholds for a given effect) by a point estimate of effect and compared to a level of concern (LOC). RQs <1 are not expected to result in adverse effects, while RQs >1 are expected to result in adverse effects.

For critical habitat, APHIS reviewed the primary constituent elements (PCEs) or physical and biological features (PBFs) to determine if the Program activities would cause destruction or adverse modification of these features.

In addition, the BA goes into detail to discuss the relevant toxicity of the metabolites that may be found in environmental matrices such as soil and water, for all three chemicals as well (see pages 20, 38, 49, 59 in the BA).

Carbaryl

The mode of action of carbamates occurs primarily through acetylcholinesterase (AChE) inhibition (Klaassen, Andur, & Doull, 1986), (Smith J. G., 1987). The AChE enzyme breaks down acetylcholine, a neurotransmitter that allows for the transfer of nerve impulses across nerve synapses. Carbamates have a reversible enzyme binding reaction in that the binding will decrease as the concentration decreases over time due to metabolism and excretion.

Aquatic Species

The 96-hour acute median lethal concentration for carbaryl for fish ranges from 0.14 mg/L for channel catfish (*Ictalurus punctatus*; (Brown, Anderson, Jones, Deuel, & Price, 1979) to 1,188 mg/L for the walking catfish (*Clarias batrachus*; (Chakrawarti & Chaurasia, 1981).

For chronic effects to fish, chronic NOEC concentrations for studies ranging from 32-35 day exposures, are 210, 650, and 445 µg/L for the fathead minnow, bonytail (a listed species considered for this consultation) and the Colorado pikeminnow (also a listed species considered in the consultation; (Beyers, Keefe, & Carlson, 1994), (Carlson, 1972), respectively.

For aquatic invertebrates, carbaryl is very highly toxic to all aquatic insects, and highly to very highly toxic to most aquatic crustaceans. The toxicity from 96-hour acute static tests ranged from 1.5 µg/L in the shrimp, *Paneaus aztecus*, to 22.7 mg/L in the mussel, *Mytilus edulis* (Mayer F. L., 1987), (US EPA, 2003). EC_{50}/LC_{50} values for crustaceans range from 5 to 9 µg/L (cladoceran, mysid), 8 to 25 µg/L (scud), and 500 to 2,500 µg/L (crayfish) (Peterson, et al., 1994). Aquatic insects have a similar range of sensitivity.

Chronic toxicity of carbaryl to aquatic invertebrates varies by taxa group. Reproductive and growth endpoints have been reported for cladocerans that range from 1.0 to 15 µg/L. A NOEC of 500 µg/L was reported for the chironomid midge (Hanazato, 1991), (USDA Forest Service, 2008), (US EPA, 2003).

For aquatic plants, a study testing the effects to the freshwater green algae, *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata*, reported a EC_{50} and NOEC of 1.27 and 0.29 mg/L, respectively (USDA Forest Service, 2008). (Peterson, et al., 1994) found statistically significant effects at 3.7 mg/L on four algal species and the aquatic macrophyte, *Lemna minor* (duckweed). (Boonyawanich, et al., 2001) reported 96-hour EC_{50} values of 0.996, 0.785, and 0.334 g/L for three aquatic plants:

Ipomoea aquatica, *Pistia stratiotes*, and *Hydrocharis dubia* (water spinach, water lettuce, and frogbit), respectively.

Terrestrial Species

Carbaryl is moderate in toxicity when ingested by male and female rats. The oral LD_{50} in male and female rats is 302.6 mg/kg and 311.5 mg/kg, respectively (US EPA, 2003). Low doses can cause skin and eye irritation. The acute inhalation LD_{50} is 721 mg/kg. The acute dermal toxicity is low with an LD_{50} more than 4,000 mg/kg for rats and more than 5,000 mg/kg for rabbits (US EPA, 2003). For chronic data, USDA-APHIS provides a discussion on the 4-week dermal study, the two-generation reproduction study, and a prenatal developmental study in rats (and one in rabbits) on p. 49 in the BA, and also includes discussion on sub-lethal endpoints such as neurotoxicity, immunotoxicity, and carcinogenicity thereafter, which are standard toxicity testing endpoints for mammalian studies.

The acute oral LD_{50} of carbaryl to avian species ranges from 16 mg/kg to > 2,000 mg/kg for starlings (*Sturnis vulgaris*) and red-winged blackbirds (*Agelaius phoeniceus*) (Hudson, Tucker, & Haegele, 1984) and (Shafer, Bowles, & Hurlbut, 1983). Several toxicity studies evaluating sublethal effects have also been conducted. For a more in-depth discussion on these in the BA, see pages 52-53. Here we discuss the results from a standardized reproduction study in the Japanese quail (*Coturnis japonica*) and mallard duck (*Anas platyrhynchos*). A NOEC of > 3,000 ppm was determined for *C. japonica* and a NOEC of 300 ppm was determined for mallard (*A Platyrhynchos*) based on a decrease in the number of eggs produced.

There are no available studies for reptiles for carbaryl; thus, where reptile data is not available, the avian data is used as a surrogate to estimate sensitivity to reptiles.

For amphibians, the acute oral LD_{50} for carbaryl exposure in the bullfrog (*Rana catesbeiana*) was > 4,000 mg/kg (Hudson, Tucker, & Haegele, 1984). Acute toxicity studies in other species have demonstrated lower LC_{50} values for the tadpole developmental stage and the BA provides more detail on these on pages 53-55. (Kirby & Sih, 2015) found carbaryl to be more lethal to the threatened Foothill yellow-legged frog (*Rana boylii*) than to the Pacific tree frog (*Pseudacris regilla*). The estimated 72-hour LC_{50} value for *R. boylii* was 585 µg/L ± 229 and for *P. regilla* was 3,006 µg/L ± 955. In addition to mortality endpoints for this study, the authors also examined the effect of carbaryl on their competitive interactions with a non-native crayfish predator (*Pacifastacus leniusculus*). *R. boylii* was found to be more susceptible to pesticide exposure than *P. regilla* and exposure reduced their ability to compete with a 50% increase in mortality observed for *R. boylii* and no change to mortality observed (at 50 µg/L) for *P. regilla*. Several sublethal effect studies have also assessed a variety of endpoints related to direct and indirect effects on carbaryl to amphibians. The BA provides a discussion on these reductions in swimming behavior in more detail on page 55.

Carbaryl is very highly toxic to many terrestrial insects. It is very highly toxic to honey bees (*A. mellifera*) with an acute contact LD_{50} of 0.0011 mg/bee (US EPA, 2003), *A. erythronii* females (0.543 µg/bee), and *M. rotundata* females (0.592 µg/bee) as well as bumble bees (*B. terrestris*) where 24- and 72-hour oral LD_{50} values ranged from 3.92 to 3.84 µg/bee, respectively and *B. terricola* workers 41.16 µg/bee (Helson, Barber, & Kingsbury, 1994). It has also been measured in colonies at 111 µg/kg (Mullin, et al., 2010), so there is a potential for population level effects.

Toxicity to terrestrial plants has been evaluated for agronomic crops based on registrant submitted studies for US EPA FIFRA regulation requirements. These studies showed no effects to cabbage, cucumber, onion, ryegrass, soybean, and tomato (US EPA, 2003) at 0.803 lb a.i./ acre based on an application rate of 0.5 lb a.i. / acre, which is higher than that projected for carbaryl used for the grasshopper and Mormon cricket program (0.37 lb a.i. / acre). Plant incident reports have also been reported but at doses well above those proposed for the APHIS program activities (USDA-APHIS BA p. 56).

Chlorantraniliprole

Chlorantraniliprole (Ryanaxypyr^{TM}) is an insecticide in the anthranilic diamide insecticide class. The mode of action of chlorantraniliprole is the activation of insect ryanodine receptors, which causes an uncontrolled release of calcium from smooth and striated muscle, causing paralysis in insects (Health Canada, 2008) (US EPA, 2008). This insecticide is very selective to insect ryanodine receptors (Lahm, et al., 2007) and thus does not impact mammals or other vertebrate groups the same way, despite these groups also having these same receptors.

Aquatic Species:

Chlorantraniliprole toxicity in fish is considered low based on available toxicity data reporting mortality above the solubility limit (1 mg/L). Two early life-stage tests in the rainbow trout (*Onchorhynchus mykiss*) and sheepshead minnow (*Cyprinodon variegatus*) showed chlorantraniliprole may have effects at 0.11 and 1.28 mg/L, respectively.

Aquatic invertebrates are more sensitive to chlorantraniliprole in acute studies as compared to fish, with values ranging from 0.0098 mg/L for *D. magna* to 1.15 mg/L for the marine mysid shrimp (Barbee, McClain, Lanka, & Stout, 2010), (US EPA, 2012) and (Rodrigues, et al., 2016). For chronic life cycle studies, toxicity threshold values ranged from 0.0031 mg/L for the midge,

C. riparius to 0.695 mg/L for the mysid shrimp, 0.695 mg/L.

The available aquatic plant toxicity data for chlorantraniliprole to freshwater and marine algae indicates low toxicity based on EC_{50} and NOEC values greater than the highest test concentrations tested, ranging from 1.78 to 15.1 mg/L (US EPA, 2008).

Terrestrial Species

Chlorantraniliprole is considered practically non-toxic to mammalian species via oral, dermal, and inhalation exposures and is not known to cause reproductive (NOAEL = 1,594 mg/kg/day) or developmental toxicity (1,000 mg/kg/day), respectively (US EPA, 2008). Chlorantraniliprole is also not known to be neurotoxic, carcinogenic, or immunotoxic (see BA Table 3-9).

Toxicity of chlorantraniliprole to avian species is considered low for acute and chronic exposures, where there were no acute or sublethal effects observed at all doses in the oral gavage or dietary studies or in a 22-week reproduction study. The lowest acute NOEL value of 2,250 mg/kg was used to estimate the range of sensitivities to birds based on different body weights and food consumption amounts if they were to forage on treated food items (see BA Tables 3-11 and 3-12).

There are no available studies for reptiles for chlorantraniliprole; thus where reptile data is not available, the avian data is used as a surrogate to estimate sensitivity to reptiles.

Chlorantraniliprole would be expected to be practically nontoxic to reptiles based on the available avian toxicity data.

Several studies reviewed by USDA-APHIS indicate that chlorantraniliprole is practically non- toxic to honeybees, bumblebees, hover fly, ladybug beetle, lacewing, other Hymenoptera species, and a predatory mite (see BA p.62-63).

The lack of toxicity observed in these other insect groups is related to the activity of chlorantraniliprole which is primarily through ingestion such that the larval stages of Coleoptera and Lepidoptera would receive larger doses due to the heightened feeding on treated plant material during this stage of development: Two acute studies in the monarch butterfly (one dietary, the other cuticular) indicated toxicity based on the 96-hour LD_{50}s. The cuticular LD_{50} was 0.012, 0.95, and 0.19 µg/g for the first, third, and fifth instars (European Food Safety Authority, 2013), while the dietary study 96-hour LC_{50} values were 0.0083, 0.046, and 0.96 µg / g leaf for second, third, and fifth instars, respectively (Krishnan, et al., 2020).

Chlorantraniliprole has low toxicity to most soil borne invertebrates such as springtail, isopods, and earthworms as is discussed in the BA (p. 63).

Terrestrial plant seedling emergence and vegetative vigor studies (using various monocot and dicot agricultural crops plants) indicate low toxicity at concentrations > 300 g/ha, which is several times greater than grasshopper/cricket suppression program rates.

Diflubenzuron

Diflubenzuron is classified as an insect growth regulator. The mode of action for this insecticide is inhibition of chitin synthesis (or interference with the formation of the insect's exoskeleton that is comprised of a protein known as chitin). The likely mechanism is through blockage of chitin synthetase, the ultimate enzyme in the biosynthesis pathway to form chitin (Cohen, 1993), (US EPA, 1997). Diflubenzuron exposure can result in both larvicidal and ovicidal effects either from dermal or dietary exposure. Ovicidal effects can occur via direct contact of eggs or through exposure to a gravid (i.e., pregnant) female by ingestion or dermal routes. Inhibition of chitin synthesis can primarily affect immature insects but can also impact other arthropods and some fungi.

Aquatic species

Diflubenzuron toxicity in fish is considered low based on available data. The LC_{50} values range from 10 mg/L for smallmouth bass to 660 mg/L in bluegill sunfish (Julin & Sanders, 1978), (USDA Forest Service, 2004), (US EPA, 1997), (Willcox & Coffey, 1978). Chronic studies from 30-days to 10 months indicate NOEC values range from 29 – 300 µg/L when tested on various species such as fathead minnow, steelhead trout, guppy (*Poecilia reticulata*), and mummichog (*Fundulus heteroclitus;* (Hansen & Garton, 1982), (Julin & Sanders, 1978).

Aquatic invertebrate sensitivity to diflubenzuron varies among different taxonomic groups. For crustaceans the median lethal concentration varies from 0.75 µg/L in *D. magna* (USDA Forest Service, 2004) to 2.95 µg/L in grass shrimp (*Palaemonetes pugio,* (Wilson & Costlow, 1986). For aquatic insects, values range from 0.5 µg/L in the mosquito (*A. nigromaculatum*; (Miura & Takahashi, 1974) to 57 mg/L in the perloid stonefly *Skwala sp*.; (Mayer & Ellersieck, 1986). For aquatic snails, the median lethal concentration in *Physa sp*. is > 125 mg/L (Willcox & Coffey, 1978).

The NOEC and EC_{50} values for aquatic plants exposed to diflubenzuron are 190 µg/L for duckweed (*L. minor*; Thompson and Swigert 1993), and 200 µg/L (US EPA, 1997) for the green algae, *S. capricornutum*, respectively.

Terrestrial species

Diflubenzuron is not very toxic to mammals via the oral route. The BA discusses the threshold values in more detail (see BA p. 41), but the lowest value was the oral LD_{50} in rats of >4,640 mg/kg (Eisler, 2000). The BA also goes into more detail to discuss diflubenzuron effects on the hematopoietic system as well as neurotoxicity, carcinogenicity, and mutagenicity effects, all indicating diflubenzuron has no impact on these physiological systems in mammals (see BA p 41-42).

Several reproductive and developmental toxicity studies in rats and rabbits provided in the BA also indicate diflubenzuron has effects on maternal blood pathologies at a LOAEL of 25 mg/kg/day (US EPA, 2015) but does not affect other endpoints in these studies (e.g., decreased body weight in offspring, fetal abnormalities).

For birds, acute toxicity data show that diflubenzuron is practically non-toxic to birds, with acute oral LD_{50} values ranging from 2,000 mg/kg to 5,000 mg/kg (Eisler, 2000), (Willcox & Coffey, 1978), (US EPA, 1997) using a variety of species such as the red-winged blackbird, mallard duck, and bobwhite quail.

Several reproductive studies are also available that evaluated chronic effects to a variety of avian species such as mallard duck, bobwhite quail, and chickens (US EPA, 1997), (Kubena, 1982), (USDA Forest Service, 2004), (Smalley, 1976), and (Cecil, Miller, & Corely, 1981). The lowest, most sensitive endpoint value used is the LOEC of 1,000 ppm value for effects on eggshell thickness and egg production in both mallard and bobwhite quail (US EPA, 1997).

Little information is available for toxicity of diflubenzuron to reptiles but likely it is low, thus where reptile data is not available, the avian data is used as a surrogate to estimate sensitivity to reptiles. Diflubenzuron would be expected to be practically nontoxic to reptiles based on the available avian toxicity data.

For amphibians one acute toxicity data indicates low sensitivity to diflubenzuron with a 48-hour LC_{50} of 100 mg/L in *Rana brevipoda porosa* tadpoles (Fryday & Thompson, 2012). Where data are scarce for amphibians, a surrogate approach is to use data for fish for diflubenzuron thus the chronic endpoint for amphibians from a 30-d NOEC value of > 45 µg/L for rainbow trout (Hansen & Garton, 1982) is used to assess chronic effects of diflubenzuron to amphibians.

For terrestrial invertebrates, there are a large amount of data available for diflubenzuron, but toxicity can vary by taxonomic group depending on the Order of insect and the life stage being exposed. Available toxicity data for diflubenzuron exposed to adult honeybees indicates that it is practically non-toxic (Chandel & Gupta, 1992), (Mommaerts, Sterk, & Smagghe, 2006), (Nation, Robinson, Yu, & Bolten, 1986). However, diflubenzuron is moderately to highly toxic to developing bees based on residues reported in pollen but not on nectar or honey (Mullin, et al., 2010). Again, this makes sense considering the mode of action of diflubenzuron. The BA discusses other studies confirming similar results (see BA p.44). Other insect Orders such as grasshoppers, beetles, and Lepidoptera at the immature stages are more susceptible than other terrestrial invertebrates, including the bee species discussed above (Eisler, 2000), (Murphy, Jepson, & Croft, 1994), (USDA Forest Service, 2004). Within this group, grasshoppers appear to be the most sensitive; however, the rates used in the above studies based on label recommendations for Dimilin 2L® are still more than 48-50% more than the rates used in the APHIS program (0.75-1.0 fluid oz/acre; see Table 3-6 in the BA). Diflubenzuron is also moderately toxic to spiders and mites, but there are no listed arachnids in the program action area.

Diflubenzuron treated grasshoppers fed to darkling beetles showed significant mortality but at doses 2,000 times the rate of diflubenzuron applied in the grasshopper/cricket APHIS program (Smith & Lockwood, 2003).

For terrestrial plants, toxicity is low due to low absorption and translocation of diflubenzuron residues on plant surfaces (Eisler, R., 1992). (Hatzios & Penner, 1978) determined exposure to diflubenzuron had no effect on photosynthesis, respiration, and leaf structure of soybeans at doses of up to 0.269 kg a.i./ha.

Toxicity of metabolites of carbaryl, chlorantraniliprole, and diflubenzuron

For carbaryl and chlorantraniliprole, toxicity data indicate the parent compounds are more toxic or have comparable toxicity to the metabolites discussed (see BA page 49 and Table 3-2 and page 59 and Table 3-7). Diflubenzuron has several metabolites that are discussed in detail in the BA (see pages 20 and 39). Environmental degradation of diflubenzuron can result in four primary metabolites, including CO2. The other three are 4-chlorophenyl urea, 2-6, diflurobenzoic acid, and 4-chloroaniline. 4-chloroaniline is slightly more toxic than diflubenzuron to fish and aquatic invertebrates (see p. 39 and Table 3-4). Both 2-6, diflurobenzoic acid and 4-chlorophenyl urea are considered less toxic or comparable in toxicity to diflubenzuron based on available data for fish and aquatic invertebrates (see p. 39 in the BA). 4-chloroaniline has also been shown to be slightly carcinogenic in long-term mammalian studies (a NOEL for 4-chloroaniline was slightly higher than the NOEL for diflubenzuron) (USDA Forest Service, 2004).

Risk Assessment and Effects Determinations

Aquatic Species

The distribution of acute and sub-lethal chronic effects data for fish for carbaryl, chlorantraniliprole, and diflubenzuron are compared to the estimated concentrations in aquatic systems under different applications for the APHIS Program. These values are below the range of response data provided. In addition, where data are not available for any program insecticide for aquatic phase amphibians, fish toxicity data is used as discussed above and below in the "Terrestrial Species" section of this document. The residues estimated using AgDrift also suggests that direct acute and sublethal risk of exposure to fish in small, static waterbodies is not expected. Estimated expected residues would range from 0.09 – 1.14 µg/L for carbaryl, 0.009 –

0.4 µg/L for chlorantraniliprole, and 0.007 – 0.21 µg/L diflubenzuron, (see Figures 4-1, 4-2, and 4-3 and Table 2-3 of the BA) when different buffer sizes are applied for the different application types. Field data collected from monitoring of program applications also support these findings (see discussions in BA p. 66 and 75 for carbaryl and diflubenzuron, respectively). The BA also discusses actual run-off related residues from program applications for carbaryl and diflubenzuron from different years and different states (2003 – 2022; see p. 27-30 in the BA).

These values also indicate the measured environmental concentrations in waterbodies within the standard 500-foot buffer or several miles downstream from the application site are still well below the effect data thresholds for aquatic organisms.

For indirect effects, consumption of contaminated prey or loss or reduction in prey items is also not expected to adversely impact fish based on low residues and a low bioconcentration factor (BCF) value for carbaryl (15; values greater than 1,000 are considered to bioconcentrate whereas values lower than 20 are considered compounds with very little ability to bioconcentrate) (USDA Forest Service, 2008). Based on the distribution of available fish and aquatic invertebrate toxicity data for carbaryl, chlorantraniliprole, and diflubenzuron, and the estimated residues discussed above, the adverse risks of exposure to prey items for listed fish species such as other fish or aquatic invertebrates are not expected based on the different application scenarios modeled in the BA. For aquatic plants, risk is discussed with respect to providing habitat and food for other aquatic species. For carbaryl, chlorantraniliprole, and diflubenzuron, no adverse impacts to aquatic plants are anticipated, and residues in water are anticipated to be 400-1600 times below the NOEC value for carbaryl (see BA p. 65), four orders of magnitude below the lowest effect concentration (see BA p. 82) for chlorantraniliprole, and 2,000 times below the NOEC concentrations for diflubenzuron (see BA p. 74).Therefore, the proposed action is not likely to adversely affect listed aquatic species because the proposed conservation measures are expected to lower the estimated environmental concentrations of these pesticides to levels that would have an insignificant effect on aquatic species, such that the effects cannot be meaningfully measured, detected, or evaluated.

Terrestrial Species

For the terrestrial vertebrate risk characterization, insecticide exposure was considered based on the most significant route: ingestion through the diet. Exposure can also occur through dermal contact, ingestion from preening, and water consumption, but the extent of exposure through these means is expected to be minor in comparison to that of ingestion of pesticides through diet. Exposure levels on different types of vegetation or other terrestrial non-target invertebrates as dietary items were calculated using the Terrestrial Residue Exposure Model (T-REX) (US EPA, 2012). To assess the acute and chronic risk to mammals, the most sensitive acute and chronic endpoints were used and compared to the T-REX estimated residues on dietary items with consideration for the size of the bird or mammal. Indirect risk to mammals was evaluated by reviewing impacts on habitat or prey base. For carbaryl, direct effects to mammals of all class sizes that feed on grasses, RQ values exceeded 1 (i.e., likely to cause adverse effects). For chlorantraniliprole, RQs were below 1 (i.e., not likely to cause adverse effects) for all mammalian class sizes and for diflubenzuron, there is a slight risk to small mammals consuming short grass (see Table 4-8 in the BA). For indirect effects for all three pesticides, there is some concern for those mammals that rely on terrestrial invertebrate as prey items than for those consuming terrestrial or aquatic plants or other small mammals (see p. 69, 83, and 77 in the BA). However, the proposed action is not likely to adversely affect listed mammals because the proposed conservation measures are expected to lower the estimated environmental concentrations of these pesticides to levels that would have an insignificant effect on mammals, such that the effects cannot be meaningfully measured, detected, or evaluated.

To assess the acute and chronic risk to birds the most sensitive acute and chronic endpoints were used and compared to residue values on respective dietary items (based on the size of the bird), estimated using T-REX calculations discussed on pages 69, 78, and 84 to generate RQ values.

RQs greater than 1 were reduced by implementing the proposed buffers to address impacts from program insecticides. For carbaryl, which shows a slight acute risk to birds that consume contaminated prey (see Table 4-5 p. 70 in the BA), additional buffers for carbaryl applications were applied for known locations of adults (see Appendix A–9).

Indirect risk to birds was evaluated by reviewing impacts on habitat or prey base. For carbaryl, direct effects to birds in the 20 and 100 g class sizes that feed on grasses, had RQ values exceeding 1 as mentioned above (see Table 4-5). For chlorantraniliprole and diflubenzuron, RQs were below 1 for all avian class sizes (see p. 69, 84, and 78 in the BA). For indirect effects for all three pesticides, RQ values discussed for small mammals which could be prey items for larger birds, are discussed above. For small birds as prey items for other avian species, RQ values are discussed above as well. For bird species that feed on insects, RQ values were >1 for 20 g and 100 g birds for carbaryl, but were well below 1 for chlorantraniliprole and diflubenzuron (see p. 69,70, 76, and 84). Indirect effects to bird species based on impacts to dietary items (insects) for insectivorous birds from exposure to diflubenzuron is also discussed. However, the rates used in the APHIS Program are such that they would not reach levels or concentrations that would significantly reduce the availability of prey items for these avian species.

Therefore, the proposed action is not likely to adversely affect listed birds because the proposed conservation measures are expected to lower the estimated environmental concentrations of these pesticides to levels that would have an insignificant effect on birds, such that the effects cannot be meaningfully measured, detected, or evaluated. There are no data for all three pesticides used in the APHIS program to assess risks of exposure to reptiles. Although there is uncertainty in making the assumption that the range of sensitivities for birds is representative for reptiles, we make this assumption in the absence of data. Based on the risk characterization and conclusions described above for birds, for both direct and indirect effects, we expect that all three pesticides will have insignificant effects on listed reptile species.

Therefore, the proposed action is not likely to adversely affect listed reptiles because the proposed conservation measures are expected to lower the estimated environmental concentrations of these pesticides to levels that would have an insignificant effect on reptiles, such that the effects cannot be meaningfully measured, detected, or evaluated.

For amphibians, direct risk of exposure was determined by using the highest aquatic concentration in water and comparing that to the acute and chronic values for each pesticide used in the APHIS program. For carbaryl, the highest value in water used was the value discussed above for bait considerations and compared to the toxicity threshold values discussed below for the carbaryl bait application exposures. For chlorantraniliprole, there are no data for amphibians. Instead, we rely on the fish toxicity data. This assumption is similar to using the toxicity data for birds to represent effects for reptiles. While this approach has uncertainty associated with whether the data capture the range of sensitivities to amphibians from chlorantraniliprole, we make this assumption based on the risk characterization described above for fish exposed to chlorantraniliprole. Chlorantraniliprole toxicity in fish is considered low based on available toxicity data reporting mortality above the solubility limit (1 mg/L). Two early life-stage tests in the rainbow trout (*Onchorhynchus mykiss*) and sheepshead minnow (*Cyprinodon variegatus*) showed chlorantraniliprole may have effects at 0.11 and 1.28 mg/L, respectively.

For diflubenzuron, using the fish data, the 30-d NOEC value of > 45 µg/L for rainbow trout (Hansen & Garton, 1982) is compared to the highest residue calculated (0.04 µg/L; described in Section II in the BA). Indirect effects to amphibians can include loss of habitat and dietary items. For habitat, effects to terrestrial and aquatic plants were considered. Carbaryl, chlorantraniliprole, and diflubenzuron at all program rates poses minimal risk to aquatic and terrestrial plants. This is discussed more in the BA on pages 65, 73, 74, 81, 82, and 85 for the program chemicals. For amphibians that feed on aquatic invertebrates or other aquatic vertebrates, risk of exposure from all three program insecticides is discussed above in the "Aquatic Species" section of this Risk Characterization. We anticipate that the effects to these species will be insignificant because pesticide residues for aquatic plants, aquatic invertebrates, or fish do not exceed any toxicity endpoint for these taxonomic groups. For the potential indirect terrestrial route of exposure to amphibians, terrestrial invertebrates could serve as a food source for amphibians (see below discussion). However, the selectivity of diflubenzuron to developing insects would not cause significant decreases in food availability for amphibians, nor does it bioconcentrate if an amphibian were to consume a contaminated insect. Similarly, for carbaryl or chlorantraniliprole, these insecticides do not bioconcentrate. Carbaryl is very highly toxic to insects at label rates (see discussion in BA), and chlorantraniliprole is most toxic to those developing insects such as Lepidoptera and Coleoptera larvae via ingestion and not as toxic via contact exposure (see BA p. 63). Thus, the reduced program application rates would not eliminate the insect prey base entirely and would not reduce the availability of prey items to amphibians in other insect Orders from exposure to carbaryl or chlorantraniliprole. In addition, chlorantraniliprole is not toxic to soil dwelling invertebrates such as isopods, or earthworms (see BA p. 63), which could also be considered for terrestrial based dietary items for amphibians.

Therefore, the proposed action is not likely to adversely affect listed amphibians because the proposed conservation measures are expected to lower the estimated environmental concentrations of these pesticides to levels that would have an insignificant effect on amphibians, such that the effects cannot be meaningfully measured, detected, or evaluated.

For terrestrial invertebrates, risk of exposure from all three program insecticides differs among various insect Orders. This is discussed in more detail on pages 72, 73, 79, and 85 in the BA. A variety of field studies under a variety of application setting, including monitoring from the APHIS program applications have been conducted and demonstrate minimal residues of diflubenzuron. Minimal to no impacts to non-target arthropods such as honey bees, moths, and other insect Orders such as Coleoptera, Diptera, Trichoptera, Heteroptera, Homoptera, Neuroptera, and Plecoptera were demonstrated from diflubenzuron exposure (Emmett & Archer, 1980), (Atkins, Anderson, Kellum, & Heuman, 1976), (Johansen, Mayer, Eves, & Kious, 1983), (Schroeder, Sutton, & Beavers, 1980), (Robinson A. F., 1979) (Deakle & Bradley, 1982), (Sample, Cooper, & Whitmore, 1993), (Catangui, Fuller, & Walz, 1993), (Weiland, Judge, Pels, & Grosscourt, 2002), (Tingle, 1996) (Graham, Brasher, & Close, 2008). In addition, the extensive buffers determined via AgDrift modeling and confirmed with field assessments indicates the proposed buffers from 250 ft for ground applications and up to 1 mile for some aerial applications (buffers of 1,320 ft reduce drift by approximately 89-98%; see BA p. 73) address the impacts to listed terrestrial invertebrates within the program action area. In addition, the program applications rates (0.75 fl. oz/ acre and 1.0 fl. oz/acre for ground and aerial applications, respectively) are well reduced from label rates recommended for Orthoptera, Coleoptera, Homoptera, and Lepidoptera (see Table 3-6 in the BA) and combined with the aforementioned extensive buffers indicates very minimal risk of adverse effects to listed terrestrial invertebrates within the action area.

Therefore, the proposed action is not likely to adversely affect listed terrestrial invertebrate species because the proposed conservation measures are expected to lower the estimated environmental concentrations of these pesticides to levels that would have an insignificant effect on terrestrial invertebrate species, such that the effects cannot be meaningfully measured, detected, or evaluated.

Risk of adverse effects to terrestrial plants from all three APHIS program insecticides is considered minimal. Based on the available toxicity data discussed above for carbaryl, chlorantraniliprole, and diflubenzuron, phytotoxic effects are not anticipated from program insecticide applications. However, potential indirect effects of carbaryl on pollinators is considered. As discussed above in the Effects of the Action section for carbaryl and terrestrial invertebrates, laboratory studies have indicated several species of honeybees and bumblebees are sensitive to carbaryl, but these are at rates above those used in the program, and effects have not been measured extensively in field studies. One study based on a carbaryl application rate of 0.80 lb a.i./acre in a fruit orchard indicated no effects on honeybee mortality or behavior 7 days post application. Any potential impacts to honey bees or bumble bees may also be mitigated by the reduced application rates for the program, the RAATs (alternating swaths where the insecticide is applied), as well as use of carbaryl bait as opposed to ground or aerial spray applications (Peach, Alston, & Tepedino, 1994), (Peach, Alston, & Tepedino, 1995).

Indirect risk to terrestrial plants from impacts to pollinators from chlorantraniliprole is not expected to be significant. Grasshopper nymphs appear to be the most impacted compared to other insect groups. Various laboratory and field data indicate low toxicity to other insect groups such as honeybees and bumblebees (i.e., those groups more likely to be pollinators to terrestrial plants), where no mortality or sublethal effects were observed (see Effects of the Action section for terrestrial invertebrates discussed above), and application rates 4 to 10 times higher than program rates are shown to have better efficacy in controlling Lepidoptera and other insect pests. Indirect risk to terrestrial plants is also not expected from impacts to pollinators from diflubenzuron. As discussed above in the Effects of the Action section for terrestrial invertebrates, a variety of field studies under a variety of application settings, including monitoring from the APHIS program applications, have been conducted and demonstrate minimal residues of diflubenzuron have minimal to no impacts to non-target arthropods such as honeybees, moths, and other insect Orders. Negative effects have been observed in honeybees in some studies, but this was observed at application levels and periods of time that exceed those expected to be used in the program. (Robinson & Johansen, 1978) found that diflubenzuron application rates as high as 0.125 to .25 lbs. a.i./acre (10 and 20 times the program rate for diflubenzuron) resulted in no effect on adult mortality and brood production in honeybees. As discussed above, the use of RAATS provide additional protection by limiting the area of treatment within the spray block to further reduce the potential risk of exposure to pollinators.

Therefore, the proposed action is not likely to adversely affect listed terrestrial plant species because the proposed conservation measures are expected to lower the estimated environmental concentrations of these pesticides to levels that would have an insignificant effect on terrestrial plant species, such that the effects cannot be meaningfully measured, detected, or evaluated.

Bait Applications of Carbaryl

Bait formulations of carbaryl are primarily composed of a grain such as wheat bran or rolled whole grain or a pellet mixed with the carbaryl. They are used mostly to control crickets as some species of grasshopper do not eat the bait, but some other advantages are that they primarily act through ingestion, affect fewer non target organisms, and generate very little drift (Foster, 1996), (Latchininsky & Van Dyke, 2006), (Peach, Alston, & Tepedino, 1994)

For bait applications of carbaryl, direct risk of exposure to mammals was calculated using the LD_{50}'s per square foot method described in the BA (Section IV A. Insecticide Risk Assessment Methodology). When the LD_{50} per square foot is greater than 1, there is an assumed risk as a conservative estimate that the mammal (or bird as the same approach is used for birds) will consume the entire bait. RQs were above 1 for all mammals except the 1,000 g group, when no application buffer is applied. With an adjusted buffer of 500 feet, the RQs are below 1.0 for all mammalian size classes (see Table 4-3 and p. 68 in the BA), and all estimated residues from bait applications are anticipated to be below the acute NOEL value (10mg/kg).

Therefore, the proposed action is not likely to adversely affect listed mammals because the proposed conservation measures are expected to lower the estimated environmental concentrations of carbaryl bait to levels that would have an insignificant effect on mammals, such that the effects cannot be meaningfully measured, detected, or evaluated.

For carbaryl bait applications, direct risk of exposure to birds was also assessed. The lowest acute avian LD_{50} value of 16 mg/kg (European starling; see Carbaryl toxicity section discussed above) was used. RQ values were greater than 1 for all size classes without an application buffer; however, drift reductions are observed when a 500-ft buffer is applied, and RQ values fall below 1 (see Table 4-6 in the BA). As previously discussed, we assume similar impacts from carbaryl bait applications to reptiles as to that of birds. Indirect effects from carbaryl bait to both mammals and birds are also not expected. We do not expect indirect effects to plants used as habitat or dietary items for birds and mammals; we also do not expect indirect effects to small mammals, small birds, or terrestrial invertebrates exposed to carbaryl bait used as dietary items for birds and mammals. This discussion is covered in more detail in the BA p 68-73.

Therefore, the proposed action is not likely to adversely affect listed birds because the proposed conservation measures are expected to lower the estimated environmental concentrations of carbaryl bait to levels that would have an insignificant effect on birds, such that the effects cannot be meaningfully measured, detected, or evaluated.

Direct risk of exposure to amphibians from carbaryl bait applications was assessed by taking the highest estimated concentration of carbaryl in an aquatic system (1.10 µg/L) and comparing that to the acute and chronic values for amphibians. Impacts of carbaryl bait applications on amphibians are minimal based on the LC_{50} values reported for tadpoles (1.73–22.02 mg/L) at approximately 1,572 to 20,018 times below the highest calculated carbaryl residue, suggesting minimal acute risk of bait applications (and ULV applications based on the same toxicity endpoint used for both application methods). Sublethal effects to amphibians are also not anticipated based on chronic studies with a NOEC for swimming behavior of 1.25 mg/L and a tadpole NOEC for mean age at metamorphosis (0.16 mg/L).

Therefore, the proposed action is not likely to adversely affect listed amphibians because the proposed conservation measures are expected to lower the estimated environmental concentrations of carbaryl bait to levels that would have an insignificant effect on amphibians, such that the effects cannot be meaningfully measured, detected, or evaluated.

Direct risk of exposure to terrestrial invertebrates from carbaryl bait applications is considered but is less likely to impact most Orders of terrestrial insects. Studies with carbaryl bran bait have found that no sublethal effects were observed on adult or larval alfalfa leaf cutting bees (Peach, Alston, & Tepedino, 1994), (Peach, Alston, & Tepedino, 1995) and see also p. 73 in the BA). Carbaryl bait also poses a low risk to most insect Orders as it is preferentially consumed by grasshoppers. There also is less exposure to Hymenoptera or Lepidoptera because the active ingredient is contained in the bait and not available for dietary or contact exposure (it is not sprayed) and would not be found on floral resources that would be visited by Lepidoptera or Hymenoptera during normal activities.

Therefore, the proposed action is not likely to adversely affect listed terrestrial invertebrate species because the proposed conservation measures are expected to lower the estimated environmental concentrations of carbaryl bait to levels that would have an insignificant effect on terrestrial invertebrate species, such that the effects cannot be meaningfully measured, detected, or evaluated.

Critical Habitat

For critical habitat, APHIS reviewed the primary constituent elements (PCEs) or physical and biological features (PBFs) to determine if the program activities would cause destruction or adverse modification of these features. For many species, designated critical habitat PCEs or PBFs are aspects of the physical landscape such as geomorphological features, soil types, hydrologic regimes, as well as the necessary vegetative features. None of the program insecticides are expected to impact geomorphological formations or hydrologic regimes. Other PCEs or PBFs for certain species involve an adequate source of invertebrate prey items (many listed bird species and fish), specified water quality parameters for certain aquatic species to support a healthy system (pH, adequate dissolved oxygen, low salinity, lack of pollutants, low turbidity, low ammonia, etc.), and the absence of predators or invasives.

As discussed earlier, there is minimal risk to designated critical habitat PCEs or PBFs involving any vegetative structures for habitat or other plants these species may rely on for feeding, breeding, or sheltering, because the program's proposed use of the insecticides is not expected to result in phytotoxic effects.

There is some risk that the program activities could affect designated critical habitats with PCEs or PBFs described as an adequate prey base of terrestrial invertebrates or aquatic invertebrates. However, the standard program mitigation involving 500 ft buffers for aerial applications, 200 ft buffers for ground applications, and 50 ft for bait applications to all water bodies will minimize the impacts to aquatic invertebrate prey items from drift. Table 5-2 in the BA provides a list of all proposed buffers to protect fish and designated critical habitats. Program designated buffers and reduced application rates along with RAAT applications will also minimize impacts to the terrestrial invertebrate prey base for designated critical habitats. For example, because nesting success and brood survival are directly linked to adequate invertebrate prey available to developing lesser prairie chicken chicks, and ultimately lesser prairie chicken success, adequate buffers protecting lesser prairie chicken are warranted. Adults rely on a variety of food items throughout the year but predominantly vegetation during the fall, winter, and early spring (US FWS, 2012). Additional buffer distances to protect leks and allow for adequate prey items for adults and developing chicks were applied for carbaryl, as it demonstrated some toxicity to terrestrial invertebrates as discussed above (see also p. 52-53 and 93 in the BA). Similar mitigations are also applied for other prairie birds, such as the Gunnison and greater sage grouse.

Therefore, the proposed action is not likely to adversely affect designated critical habitat PCEs or PBFs because the proposed conservation measures are expected to lower the estimated environmental concentrations of these pesticides to levels that would have an insignificant effect on designated critical habitat PCEs or PBFs, such that the effects cannot be meaningfully measured, detected, or evaluated.

Summary and Conclusion

APHIS evaluated their grasshopper and Mormon cricket suppression program application of three insecticides, carbaryl, chlorantraniliprole, and diflubenzuron to listed species and their designated critical habitat as applicable. They provide an overview of the exposure and response analyses for terrestrial and aquatic invertebrate and vertebrate groups, as well as plants, and considered all the relevant pathways of exposure for each. As such they established several avoidance and minimization measures to ensure that the use of these insecticides for their program activities is not likely to adversely impact listed species and their designated critical habitat as applicable. APHIS ensures that buffers established based on modeled estimates and program application data will be applied during all program activities. In addition to substantial buffers used within species' ranges and designated critical habitats, reduced program application rates and RAAT treatment methods will minimize direct and indirect risk of adverse effects from exposure of pesticides to listed mammals, birds, reptiles, amphibians, fish, terrestrial insects, aquatic invertebrates, and plants. Therefore, the proposed action is not likely to adversely affect listed species and designated critical habitat because the proposed conservation measures are expected to lower the estimated environmental concentrations of these pesticides to levels that would have an insignificant effect on these species and their designated critical habitats.

Aquatic Species

For all listed aquatic species within the program action area, the following buffers are applied for each pesticide (Table 1, adapted from Table 5-2 see also Appendix A-9 in the BA or Enclosure B):

Table 1. Proposed Application Buffers for Aquatic Species and designated Critical Habitat Based on Application Method

Insecticide	**Application type**	**Application buffer (feet)**
Carbaryl	Aerial (ULV*)	2640
	Aerial Bait	750
	Ground	300
	Ground Bait	100
Chlorantraniliprole	Aerial (ULV*)	500
	Ground	200
Diflubenzuron	Aerial (ULV*)	1320
	Ground	200

*ULV = ultra-low volume

The estimated residues from the application methods and application concentrations in Table 1 are the expected range of concentrations where adverse effects to fish or amphibians are expected to occur. These buffers are applied as such because they are protective of all aquatic species as well as their designated critical habitats, as applicable, and any indirect effects to listed fish species' prey items such as aquatic invertebrates, or terrestrial invertebrates (which are more sensitive; see Figures 2-2, 2-3, and Table 2-3 in the BA for how these buffer distances were determined) are also minimized.

Terrestrial Species

For all listed terrestrial species within the program action area, the following buffers are applied for each pesticide (Table 2, see also Appendix A-9 in the BA or Enclosure B). We provide a range of buffers to demonstrate the differences that exist among the taxonomic groups described in the BA in terms of direct sensitivities to the insecticides as well as the indirect effects to dietary items upon which a species may rely and that may be integral to their survival and overall population level success (see p. 88-89 and p. 93 in the BA).

Table 2. Proposed Ranges of Application Buffers for Terrestrial Species and Designated Critical Habitat

Insecticide	Application type	Application buffer range (feet)
Carbaryl	Aerial (ULV*)	500 - 5,280
	Aerial Bait	500 - 750
	Ground	100 - 5,280
	Ground Bait	50 - 5,280
Chlorantraniliprole	Aerial (ULV*)	500 - 5,280
	Ground	50 - 5,280
Diflubenzuron	Aerial (ULV*)	500 - 5,280
	Ground	50 - 5,280

*ULV = ultra-low volume

Bait Applications for Carbaryl

Run-off or drift from bait applications to water bodies is expected to be minimal as the active ingredient is contained within the bait/bran or grain mix and not susceptible to off-site transport via rain events or volatilization. Labels for carbaryl also do not allow the product to enter water bodies, and thus, to preclude the possibility of the bait moving into aquatic systems, there are standard buffers for water bodies used for all program activities, regardless of the presence of listed species or critical habitat. An example of such a scenario is described on p. 28 in the BA, where carbaryl was detected downstream from where bait applications were made when an area that was treated was irrigated. Residues were measured upstream and downstream of the discharge. Residue values upstream were 1.2 µg/L while residue values at 5.5 and 8.0 miles below the discharge were 2.0 and 1.6 µg/L, respectively. However, there is uncertainty regarding whether these values represent any contribution from APHIS applications.

APHIS also implements additional buffers for water bodies that are not designated as critical habitat for listed aquatic species: 500-foot buffer for aerial sprays, 200-foot buffer for ground sprays, and a 50-foot buffer for bait applications. Thus, the buffers for bait applications of carbaryl for aquatic species are uniformly applied for all species (see Appendix A-9 in the BA, Enclosure B, and Table 1 above) and are sufficiently protective to avoid the likelihood of any adverse effects.

Buffers for bait application of carbaryl vary by terrestrial species taxonomic group and habitat (see Appendix A-9 in the BA, Enclosure B, and Table 2 above). These buffers are generally less distance than for aerial or other ground application methods, except for what is applied for prairie birds or riparian mammals (see discussion below and on p. 93 in the BA, Appendix A-9 in the BA, or Enclosure B), as this application method results in less drift and therefore subsequently less exposure (see p. 6-7 in the BA). In addition, the nature of the bait is also such that because it is a solid and absorbed by the bran or other carrier (see p. 6 in the BA for bait preparation methods), it is less bioavailable, especially for potential dermal contact exposure for all terrestrial species. Drift reductions expected for all size classes of mammals and birds from the application of a 500-ft buffer are estimated at greater than 99% (see Tables 4-3 and 4-6 in the BA). For terrestrial invertebrates, program buffers for bait applications are similar to that of mammals and birds. Any indirect effects to listed species' prey items are discussed above for the different taxonomic groups, and effects to designated critical habitat for listed species from carbaryl bait applications is also expected to be insignificant.

As a result of the APHIS program conservation measures such as use of the buffer distances discussed above for all taxonomic groups and their designated critical habitats, as applicable, along with the reduced application rates as compared to label rates for each insecticide, and RAAT treatment procedures, any risk of exposure associated with the application of the three insecticides used under the APHIS grasshopper and Mormon cricket suppression program is expected to be minimal. Thus, any direct or indirect effects from the proposed action to listed species and their designated critical habitats are expected to be insignificant due to program conservation measures.

This concludes consultation. As stated in 50 CFR § 402.16, reinitiation of consultation is required and shall be requested by APHIS or the Service, where discretionary Federal involvement or control over the action has been retained or is authorized by law and: (1) If new information reveals effects of the action that may affect listed species or critical habitat in a manner to an extent not previously considered; (2) If the identified action is subsequently modified in a manner that causes an effect to the listed species or critical habitat that was not considered in this concurrence letter; or (3) If a new species is listed or critical habitat designated that may be affected by the identified action.

We appreciate the collaboration your staff has provided. If you have any questions, please contact Sara Pollack at (703) 358-2371 or sara_pollack@fws.gov or Keith Paul at (703) 358-2675 or keith_paul@fws.gov in the Branch of National Consultations.

Sincerely,

JANE LEDWIN Digitally signed by JANE LEDWIN Date: 2024.03.21 19:47:50 -04'00'

Jane Ledwin

Chief, Branch of National Consultations
Ecological Services Program

Enclosures

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THREATENED & ENDANGERED SPECIES DETERMINATIONS FOR UTAH APHIS 2025 GRASSHOPPER/MORMON CRICKET SUPPRESSION PROJECTS

BIRDS

1. California condor (*Gymnogyps californianus*) (Endangered): California condors were released as part of Recovery Program efforts in northern Arizona beginning in the late 1990's. Sightings of the birds that were released have since been made almost statewide. Condors prefer mountainous country at low and moderate elevations, especially rocky and brushy areas near cliffs. California condors eat carrion, usually feeding on large items such as dead sheep, cattle and deer. Due to their foraging habits and preferences, the proposed APHIS grasshopper/Mormon cricket suppression program is unlikely to affect California condors. In addition, condors to date are occasional and temporary visitors to the state and are unlikely to contact suppression activities.

2. Gunnison Sage-Grouse (*Centrocercus minimus*) (Threatened): Found in Grand and San Juan Counties. Male Gunnison sage-grouse conduct an elaborate display when trying to attract females on breeding grounds, or leks in the spring. Nesting begins in mid-April and continues into July. Gunnison sage-grouse require a variety of habitats such as large expanses of sagebrush with a diversity of grasses and forbs and healthy wetland and riparian ecosystems. It requires sagebrush for cover and fall and winter food. Direct toxic effects from carbaryl bait are low (Peach *et al.,* 1994), but there may be minimal indirect effects since the young of this species depend upon arthropod groups for food. The use of carbaryl baits temporarily may lower the insect food base in the immediate area, though certainly not sufficiently to create adverse consequences to immature sage-grouse. Direct toxic effects from diflubenzuron are low since it is slightly to very slightly toxic to birds, but there may be minimal indirect effects such as a slight reduction in available prey items. The proposed APHIS suppression program will not likely adversely affect this species. PROTECTIVE MEASURES: No ground/aerial application will occur within 1 mile of known leks between March and July. Otherwise, no ground/aerial applications within 100/500 ft. of the edge of occupied habitat.

3. Mexican spotted owl (*Strix occidentalis lucida*) (Threatened): Possibly found in Carbon, Emery, Grand, Garfield, Iron, Kane, San Juan, Washington and Wayne Counties. In Utah spotted owls occupy and nest in rocky canyon habitats. Nests are located on cliffs and in caves. Mexican spotted owls feed mainly on small rodents, but also consume rabbits and other small vertebrates, including birds, reptiles and insects. Direct toxic effects from carbaryl bait are low since owls do not directly ingest it and since they do not depend on arthropod groups for food or seed dispersal. (George *et al*., 1992). Indirect toxic effects from carbaryl bait are low due to low application rates (10 pounds per acre or less) and small bait particle sizes, which preclude birds and small mammals from encountering sufficient quantities of toxin to cause adverse consequences to them or to owls which might consume them. APHIS only applies baits to areas of high grasshopper or Mormon cricket densities (8 or more per square yard), so any bait treatment is quickly and nearly totally consumed by the insects. Any remaining bait rapidly degrades from exposure to the elements (dew and higher soil pH's). Birds and rodents may prey upon debilitated insects, but rapid decomposition rates quickly make dead insects unpalatable. That, coupled with low application rates, makes it unlikely that spotted owls would be adversely affected by eating birds or small mammals that may prey upon insects debilitated by carbaryl bait treatments. APHIS ground baiting protocol excludes treatment near the canyon habitats that spotted owls use for nesting. Direct and indirect toxic effects from Dimilin are also low since diflubenzuron is slightly to very slightly toxic to birds (Wilcox and Coffey, 1978). The proposed APHIS suppression program will not likely adversely affect this species. PROTECTIVE MEASURES: No aerial application will occur within 1 mile of suitable nesting habitat, and ground applications will be no closer than 0.25 mile to nesting habitat.

4. Southwestern willow flycatcher (*Empidonax traillii extimus*) (Endangered): Possibly found in Kane, San Juan and Washington Counties. The southwestern willow flycatcher utilizes dense riparian habitats. Forage items include insects, seeds and berries. Direct toxic effects from carbaryl bait are low (Peach *et al.,* 1994), but there may be minimal indirect effects since this species depends on arthropod groups for food. The use of carbaryl baits may temporarily lower the insect food base in the immediate area, though certainly not sufficiently to create adverse consequences to flycatchers. Direct toxic effects from Dimilin are low since diflubenzuron is slightly to very slightly toxic to birds, but there may be minimal indirect effects such as a slight reduction in available prey items. The proposed APHIS suppression program will not likely adversely affect this species. PROTECTIVE MEASURES: No aerial application will occur within 1 mile of suitable nesting habitat, and ground applications will be no closer than 0.25 mile to nesting habitat.

5. Yellow-billed Cuckoo (*Coccyzus americanus*) (Threatened): Found throughout Utah. The yellow-billed cuckoo uses wooded habitat with dense cover and water nearby. Its nests in the West are often placed in willows along streams and rivers, with nearby cottonwoods serving as foraging sites. They sometimes lay their eggs in other birds' nests. Cuckoos feed on insects (especially caterpillars), spiders, frogs, lizards, fruits and seeds. Direct toxic effects from carbaryl bait are low (Peach *et al.,* 1994), but there may be minimal indirect effects since this species depends upon arthropod groups for food. The use of carbaryl baits may temporarily lower the insect food base in the immediate area, though certainly not sufficiently to create adverse consequences to cuckoos. Direct toxic effects from Dimilin are low since diflubenzuron is slightly to very slightly toxic to birds, but there may be minimal indirect effects such as a slight reduction in available prey items. The proposed APHIS suppression program will not likely adversely affect this species. PROTECTIVE MEASURES: No aerial application will occur within 1000 ft. and no ground application will occur within 500 ft. of the edge of known locations of yellow-billed cuckoos or their critical habitat.

FISHES

6. Big Spring spinedace (*Lepidomeda mollispinis pratensis*) (Threatened): Possibly found in western Iron County, Utah, the spinedace is restricted to a single population occurring in an approximate 8 km section of the Condor Canyon reach of Meadow Valley Wash northeast of Panaca in Lincoln County, Nevada. Big Spring spinedace no longer occupy the Panaca Big Spring outflow, the area they were first collected, due to habitat modification and the introduction of nonnative species. The upper limit of Big Spring spinedace habitat within Meadow Valley Wash is not currently known as it occurs on private property that has not been fully surveyed. The lower boundary of the habitat is the end of Condor Canyon where the stream flow is insufficient to support spinedace. Near the center of the canyon is Delmue Falls, which prevents fish from moving upstream from the lower limits of the canyon habitat to the upper limits. Therefore, the majority of the Big Spring spinedace population occurs above Delmue Falls with few individuals occurring below. Big Spring spinedace have been described by the Nevada Department of Wildlife (NDOW) in survey reports as being relatively abundant within Condor Canyon (NDOW 2001-2020). The greatest concentrations typically occur near the northern boundary of the designated critical habitat with decreasing numbers farther downstream. Direct toxic effects from carbaryl bait are low since APHIS ground applicators remain at least 50 feet from water which precludes any bait from entering a water body, even during and after heavy rains. Carbaryl rapidly decomposes in the presence of water and soils with higher pH's. Indirect effects from carbaryl bait are also low. Insects that ingest the bait are incapacitated by it within a matter of a minute or so; therefore, few could hop or fly into water bodies after bait consumption (APHIS personal experience). The use of bait near streams would not likely create an unnatural influx of contaminated grasshoppers or crickets into the water, so that fish might prey on them. Direct toxic effects from diflubenzuron are also low since it is only slightly toxic to fish (Willcox and Coffey, 1978; Julin and Sanders, 1978). Indirect effects from either carbaryl bait or diflubenzuron are minimal due to APHIS's standard practice of maintaining 50-foot buffers with ground applications of bait and 500-foot buffers with aerial sprays around water. The proposed APHIS suppression program will not likely adversely affect this species. PROTECTIVE MEASURES: No aerial applications within 1 mile of habitat or no ground treatments within 500 feet of habitat.

7. Bonytail (*Gila elegans*) (Endangered): Found in Carbon, Emery, Garfield, Grand, Kane, San Juan, Tooele, Uintah, Wayne and possibly Duchesne and formerly Daggett Counties. Bonytail are opportunistic feeders, eating insects, zooplankton, algae and higher plant matter. Although bonytail spawning in the wild is now rare, spawning occurs in the spring and summer over gravel substrate. Most bonytail are now produced in hatcheries and released into the wild as adults. The proposed APHIS

suppression program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect toxic effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 6.

8. Colorado pikeminnow (*Ptychocheilus lucius*) (Endangered): Found in Carbon, Daggett, Emery, Garfield, Grand, San Juan, Uintah, Wayne and possibly Duchesne and formerly Kane Counties. Colorado pikeminnows are primarily piscivorous (they eat fish), but smaller individuals also eat insects and other invertebrates. The species spawns during the spring and summer over riffle areas with gravel or cobble substrate. Eggs are randomly broadcast onto the bottom and usually hatch in less than one week. The proposed APHIS suppression program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect toxic effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 6.

9. Greenback cutthroat trout (*Oncorhynchus clarki stomias*) (Threatened): Found in San Juan County. The greenback cutthroat trout is a member of the Salmonidae family and is a subspecies of *O. clarki*. The subspecies feeds on aquatic insects as well as terrestrial invertebrates. It spawns in the spring in riffle areas when water temperatures reach 5-8 degrees C. It requires clear, swift-flowing mountain streams with cover such as low, overhanging banks and vegetation. The proposed APHIS suppression program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect toxic effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 6.

10. Humpback chub (*Gila cypha*) (Endangered): Found in Carbon, Daggett, Emery, Garfield, Grand, San Juan, Uintah, Wayne and possibly Duchesne and formerly Kane Counties. Humpback chub primarily eat insects and other invertebrates, but algae and fishes are occasionally consumed. The species spawns during the spring and summer in shallow, backwater areas with cobble substrate. Young humpback chub remain in these slow, shallow, turbid habitats until they are large enough to move into white-water areas. The proposed APHIS suppression program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect toxic effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 6.

11. Lahontan cutthroat trout (*Oncorhynchus clarkii henshawi*) (Threatened): The Lahontan cutthroat trout is a race of the cutthroat trout native to the Lahontan Basin of Oregon, California, and western Nevada. It has been introduced and become established in the Pilot Peak Range of western Box Elder County, Utah. Like other cutthroat races, the Lahontan cutthroat is an opportunistic feeder, with the diet of small individuals dominated by invertebrates, and the diet larger individuals composed primarily of fish. The proposed APHIS suppression program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect toxic effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 6.

12. June sucker (*Chasmistes liorus*) (Endangered): Found in Box Elder, Salt Lake, Utah and Weber Counties. June suckers are members of the sucker family, but they are not bottom feeders. The jaw structure of the June sucker allows the species to feed on zooplankton in the middle of the water column. June sucker adults leave Utah Lake and swim up the Provo River to spawn in June of each year. Spawning occurs in shallow riffles over gravel or rock substrate. Fertilized eggs sink to the stream bottom, where they hatch in about four days. The proposed APHIS suppression program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect toxic effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 6.

13. Razorback sucker (*Xyrauchen texanus*) (Endangered): Found in Carbon, Daggett, Emery, Garfield, Grand, San Juan, Uintah, Wayne and possibly Duchesne and formerly Kane Counties. The razorback sucker eats mainly algae, zooplankton and other aquatic invertebrates. The species spawns from February to June, and each female may deposit over 100,000 eggs during spawning. The proposed

APHIS suppression program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect toxic effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 6.

14. Virgin River chub (*Gila seminuda*) (Endangered): Found in Washington County. Virgin chub are opportunistic feeders, consuming zooplankton, aquatic insect larvae, other invertebrates, debris and algae. Interestingly, the diet of many adults is composed primarily of algae, whereas the diets of younger fish contain more animal matter. The species spawns during late spring and early summer over gravel or rock substrate. The proposed APHIS suppression program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect toxic effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 6.

15. Woundfin (*Plagopterus argentissimus*) Endangered): Found in Washington County, the species is now restricted to the Virgin River system. Woundfin diets are quite varied, consisting of insects, insect larvae, other invertebrates, algae, and detritus. The species spawns during the spring in swift shallow water over gravel substrate. The proposed APHIS suppression program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect toxic effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 6.

FLOWERING PLANTS

16. Autumn buttercup (*Ranunculus aestivalis*) (Endangered): Found in Garfield County. Autumn buttercup produces abundant yellow flowers that can be seen from late-July to early October. It is found in low, herbaceous, wet meadow communities on islands of drier peaty hummocks, and sometimes in open areas, at elevations ranging from 1940 to 1965 meters. There are no direct toxic effects from carbaryl bait to this species. Indirect effects to plant pollinators from the use of carbaryl bait are low since insects must consume the bait in order to succumb to it. Target insects are unlikely pollinators of this species. There are no direct toxic effects from diflubenzuron, and the indirect effects to pollinators from the use of diflubenzuron are low since it is not toxic to adult insects. APHIS's low application rate of one ounce per acre, coupled with the practice of treating not more than every other swath, preclude significant adverse impacts to larval insects as well. Only insect nymphs that undergo incomplete metamorphosis (i.e., grasshoppers/crickets) manifest significant adverse effects at the low doses of APHIS projects. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. PROTECTIVE MEASURES: No aerial applications within 3 miles of occupied habitat, and no ground treatments within 300 feet of occupied habitat.

17. Barneby reed-mustard (*Schoenocrambe barnebyi*) (Endangered): Found in Emery and Wayne Counties. Specimens have a branched woody base that gives rise to purple veined, white, or lilac flowers from late April to early June. Barneby reed-mustard grows in xeric, fine textured soils on steep eroding slopes of the Moenkopi and Chinle formations. It grows in sparsely vegetated sites in mixed desert shrub and pinyon-juniper communities, at elevations ranging from 1460 to 1985 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect toxic effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 16.

18. Barneby ridge-cress (*Lepidium barnebyanum*) (Endangered): Found in Duchesne County. This species grows in cushion-shaped tufts, has a thickened, branched woody base and produces abundant white to cream colored flowers that bloom in May and June. It grows along semi-barren ridges in pinyon-juniper woodlands, at elevations ranging from 1860 to 1965 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect toxic effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 16.

19. <u>Clay phacelia</u> (*Phacelia argillacea*) (Endangered): Found in Utah County. It is a narrow endemic to Spanish Fork Canyon, Utah County, Utah. A member of the waterleaf family, it has a scorpion tale-like inflorescence that continues, as it unrolls, to produce blue to violet flowers from June to August. This species is a winter annual and is found in fine textured soil and fragmented shale derived from the Green River Formation. It grows on barren, precipitous hillsides in sparse pinyon-juniper and mountain brush communities, at elevations ranging from 1840 to 1881 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect toxic effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 16.

20. <u>Clay reed-mustard</u> (*Schoenocrambe argillacea*) (Threatened): Found in Uintah County. It is a plant that occurs in the Uinta Basin, Uintah County, Utah. A member of the mustard family, this species is a hairless perennial with a stout, woody base. It produces lilac to white, purple-veined flowers that bloom from mid-April through mid-May. Shrubby reed-mustard grows on the Evacuation Creek Member of the Green River Formation, where it is on substrates consisting of at-the-surface bedrock, scree, and fine-textured soils. It occurs on precipitous slopes in mixed desert shrub communities, at elevations ranging from 1439 to 1765 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 16.

21. <u>Deseret milkvetch</u> (*Astragalus desereticus*) (Threatened): Found in Utah County. This plant occurs at a single site in Utah County, Utah. A member of the bean family, this species is a perennial herb with gray-silvery leaves four to five cm long and white to pinkish petals with evident lilac-colored keel-tips. It blooms from late April to early June. Deseret milkvetch grows exclusively on sandy-gravelly soils weathered from conglomerate outcrops of the Moroni Formation. It likes steep south and west (rarely north) facing slopes and does well on larger, west-facing road-cuts. It is grows in an open pinyon-juniper-sagebrush community, at elevations ranging from 1645 to 1740 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 16.

22. <u>Dwarf bear-poppy</u> (*Arctomecon humilis*) (Endangered): Found in Washington County. This plant is a narrow endemic to (occurs only in) Washington County, Utah. A member of the poppy family, this species is a perennial herb that produces abundant white flowers. The flowers bloom from mid-April through May, and are quite showy next to the red soils in which the plant grows. Dwarf bearclaw-poppy is found on gypsiferous clay soils derived from the Moenkopi Formation. It occurs on rolling low hills and ridge tops, often on barren, open sites in warm desert shrub communities, at elevations ranging from 700 to 1402 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 16.

23. <u>Gierisch mallow</u> (*Sphaeralcea gierischii*) (Endangered): Found in Washington County. A member of the mallow family, this species is a flowering perennial which is only found on gypsum outcrops associated with the Harrisburg Member of the Kaibab Formation in northern Mojave County, AZ and Washington County, UT. It has a woody base and dies back to the ground during the winter and re-sprouts from the base during late winter and spring depending on daytime temperatures and rainfall. How its flowers are pollinated, seed-dispersal mechanisms and the conditions under which seeds germinate are not yet known. Young plants have been observed on reclaimed portions within gypsum mining areas. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 16.

24.

25. Heliotrope milkvetch (*Astragalus montii*) (Threatened): Found in Sanpete and Sevier Counties. This is a plant that occurs on the southern Wasatch Plateau in Sanpete County and Sevier County, Utah. A member of the bean family, this species is a dwarf tufted perennial herb with pink purple petals that have white wing-tips. It blooms from June to August. Heliotrope milkvetch grows in barren areas on shallow and very rocky soils derived from Flagstaff Limestone, at elevations ranging from about 3230 to 3322 meters. It grows in subalpine communities of cushion plants and other low-growing species that are scattered within more extensive conifer, tall-forb, and grass communities. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 16.

26. Holmgren milkvetch (*Astragalus holmgreniorum*) (Endangered): Found in Washington County. It occurs in Washington County, Utah, and in immediately adjacent Mohave County, Arizona. A member of the bean family, this species is a dwarf, tufted, stemless perennial herb. It has pinkish-purple flowers with unique white-tipped wings; it blooms in April and May. Holmgren milkvetch grows in topographic sites where water runoff occurs and where the soil surface is covered by a stony or gravelly erosional pavement. The soils are derived from the Moenkopi Formation. Holmgren milkvetch grows in warm desert shrub communities, at elevations ranging from 805 to 914 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 16.

27. Jones cycladenia (*Cycladenia humilis var. jonesii*) (Threatened): Found in Emery, Garfield, Grand and Kane Counties. This plant is restricted to the canyonlands of the Colorado Plateau in Emery County, Garfield County, Grand County, and Kane County, Utah, as well as in immediately adjacent Coconino County, Arizona. A member of the dogbane family, this species is a rhizomatous herb with round, somewhat succulent leaves, and small rose-pink hairy flowers that bloom from mid-April to early June. Jones' cycladenia grows in gypsiferous soils that are derived from the Summerville, Cutler, and Chinle formations; they are shallow, fine textured, and intermixed with rock fragments. The species can be found in Eriogonum-ephedra, mixed desert shrub, and scattered pinyon-juniper communities, at elevations ranging from 1219 to 2075 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 16.

28. Kodachrome bladderpod (*Lesquerella tumulosa*) (Endangered): Found in Kane County. It is a plant that is a narrow endemic to (it occurs only in) Kane County, Utah. A member of the mustard family, this species is a perennial herb that forms densely matted and depressed mounds. It has a many-branched woody base with persistent leaf bases, has star-shaped hairs, and produces yellow flowers that bloom in May and early June. Kodachrome bladderpod is found on shallow soils that are fine textured, intermixed with shale fragments, and derived from the Winsor Member of the Carmel Formation. Kodachrome bladderpod grows on bare shale knolls and slopes in scattered pinyon-juniper communities, at elevations ranging from 1719 to 1845 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 16.

29. Last Chance townsendia (*Townsendia aprica*) (Threatened): Found in Emery, Sevier and Wayne Counties. This plant is a member of the sunflower family, and is a stemless perennial herb with flower heads submersed in its ground-level leaves. The flowers bloom in late April and May, and have yellow to golden petals. Last Chance townsendia is found in clay, clay-silt, or gravelly clay soils derived from the Mancos Formation; these soils are often densely covered with biological soil crusts. The species grows in salt desert shrub and pinyon-juniper communities, at elevations ranging from 1686 to 2560 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as #16.

30. Maguire primrose (*Primula maguirei*) (Threatened): Found in Cache County. plant that is a narrow endemic to (it occurs only in) Logan Canyon, Cache County, Utah. A member of the primula family, this species is a perennial herb with broad, spatula-shaped leaves. Stems are approximately four to fifteen cm tall, with each bearing one to three showy rose to lavender-colored flowers that bloom in late April and May. Maguire primrose is found on either north-facing or well shaded south-facing moss covered sites on damp ledges, in crevices, and on over-hanging rocks along the walls near the bottom of the canyon. It grows at elevations ranging from 1550 to 2012 meters. The propose APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as #16.

31. Navajo sedge (*Carex specuicola*) (Threatened): Found in San Juan County, Utah, and in immediately adjacent Coconino County, Arizona. A member of the sedge family, this species is a loosely tufted perennial, 25 to 40 cm tall, with grass-like leaves that droop downward. Its flowers, seen in late June and July, are arranged in spikes, two to four spikes per stem. Navajo sedge is restricted to seep, spring, and hanging garden habitats in Navajo Sandstone, at elevations ranging from 1150 to 1823 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects of treatment are the same as # 20. PROTECTIVE MEASURES: No aerial applications within 3 miles of occupied habitat and no ground applications within 300 feet of springs, seeps and hanging gardens.

32. Pariette cactus (*Sclerocactus brevispinus*) (Threatened): Found in Duchesne and Uintah Counties. A member of the cactus family, this taxon is a Uinta Basin endemic in northeast Utah, Duchesne County. It is known from “a series of small scattered populations…near Myton (Heil and Porter (1994).” It inhabits “stoney, gravelly, low hilly terrain, growing with desert grasses or low vegetation (Hochstätter 1993)”; the soils on which it grows are derived from the Uinta Formation (Specht, pers. comm. 2005). The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 16.

33. San Rafael cactus (*Pediocactus despainii*) (Endangered): Found in Emery and Wayne Counties. A member of the cactus family, this species is a small, subglobose to ovoid cactus with usually solitary stems; the crown of the stem is at or very near ground level. Its flowers are born near the tip of the stem, are yellow bronze to peach bronze, rarely pink in color, and bloom during April and May. San Rafael cactus is found in fine textured soils rich in calcium derived from the Carmel Formation and the Sinbad Member of the Moenkopi Formation. It occurs on benches, hill tops, and gentle slopes in pinyon-juniper and mixed desert shrub-grassland communities, at elevations ranging from 1450 to 2080 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 16.

34. Shivwitz milkvetch (*Astragalus ampullarioides*) (Endangered): Found in Washington County. It occurs in only Washington County, Utah. A member of the bean family, Shivwits milkvetch is a perennial herb. Specimens are 20 to 45 cm tall, each with an underground, branching woody base and an erect flower stalk bearing yellow-white flowers that bloom from late April to early June. Shivwits milkvetch grows on the unstable clay soil of Chinle Shale in warm desert shrub and pinyon-juniper communities, at elevations ranging from 872 to 1116 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 16.

35. Shrubby reed-mustard (*Schoenocrambe suffrutescens*) (Endangered): Found in Duchesne and Uintah Counties. A member of the mustard family, this species is a perennial clump-forming herb that produces yellow flowers that bloom from May through June. Shrubby reed-mustard grows along semi-

barren, white-shale layers of the Green River Formation (Evacuation Creek Member), where it is found in xeric, shallow, fine textured soils intermixed with shale fragments. It grows in mixed desert shrub and pinyon-juniper communities, at elevations ranging from 1554 to 2042 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 16.

36. Siler pincushion cactus (*Pediocactus sileri*) (Threatened): Found in Kane and Washington Counties. It is a plant that occurs in adjacent Coconino and Mohave counties, Arizona; the center of its distribution is in Mohave County. A member of the cactus family, this species is a small, globose cactus with solitary, occasionally clustered, stems typically 10 cm tall (as great as 45 cm), and spines that become white with age. Its flowers are yellow with purple veins, and bloom during March and April. Siler pincushion cactus is found on the white, occasionally red, gypsiferous and calcareous sandy or clay soils derived from the various members of the Moenkopi Formation. It is sometimes found, however, on the nearly identical Kaibab Formation. Siler pincushion cactus occurs on rolling hills, often with a badlands appearance, in warm desert shrub, sagebrush-grass, and, at its upper limits, pinyon-juniper communities, at elevations ranging from 805 to 1650 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as # 16.

37. Uintah basin hookless cactus (*Sclerocactus wetlandicus*) (Threatened): Found in Carbon, Duchesne and Uintah Counties, Utah and in Delta, Garfield, Mesa, and Montrose counties, Colorado. A member of the cactus family, this species is a perennial herb with a commonly solitary, egg-shaped, three to twelve cm long stem that produces pink flowers late from April to late May. Uinta Basin hookless cactus is found on river benches, valley slopes, and rolling hills of the Duchesne River, Green River, and Mancos formations. It is found in xeric, fine textured soils overlain with cobbles and pebbles, growing in salt desert shrub and pinyon-juniper communities, at elevations ranging from 1360 to 2000 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as #16.

38. Ute ladies'-tresses (*Spiranthes diluvialis*) (Threatened): Found in Daggett, Duchesne, Garfield, Juab, Salt Lake, Tooele, Uintah, Utah, Wasatch, Wayne and formerly Weber County. It also occurs in the states of Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, Washington, and Wyoming. A member of the orchid family, this species is a perennial herb with a flowering stem, 20-50 cm tall that arises from a basal rosette of grass-like leaves. The flowers are ivory-colored, arranged in a spike at the top of the stem, and bloom mainly from late July through August. Ute ladies'-tresses is found in moist to very wet meadows, along streams, in abandoned stream meanders, and near springs, seeps, and lake shores. It grows in sandy or loamy soils that are typically mixed with gravels. In Utah, it ranges in elevation from 1311 to 2134 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as #16.

39. Welsh's milkweed (*Asclepias welshii*) (Threatened): Found in Kane County, Utah as well as in immediately adjacent Coconino County, Arizona. A member of the milkweed family, this species is a stout, rhizomatous perennial herb with large oval leaves and spherical clusters of flowers that are cream-colored with pink-tinged centers. It blooms from June to August. Welsh's milkweed grows on dunes derived from Navajo Sandstone. It is found in sagebrush, juniper, and ponderosa pine communities, at elevations ranging from 1542 to 1993 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as #16.

40. Winkler cactus (*Pediocactus winkleri*) (Threatened): Found in Emery and Wayne Counties. A member of the cactus family, this species is a small, subglobose cactus with solitary or clumped stems; the crown

of the stem is at or very near ground level. Its flowers are born near the tip of the stem, are peach to pink in color, and bloom late March to May. Winkler pincushion cactus is found in fine textured soils derived from the Dakota Formation and the Brushy Basin Member of the Morrison Formation. It occurs on benches, hill tops, and gentle slopes on barren, open sites in salt desert shrub communities, at elevations ranging from 1490 to 2010 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as #16.

41. Wright fishhook cactus (*Sclerocactus wrightiae*) (Endangered): Found in Emery, Sevier and Wayne Counties. A member of the cactus family, this species is a perennial herb with a solitary, hemispheric, ribbed, 6 to 12 cm tall stem that produces nearly-white to pink flowers from late April through May. Wright fishhook cactus is found in soils that range from clays to sandy silts to fine sands, typically in areas with well-developed biological soil crusts. Wright fishhook cactus grows in salt desert shrub and widely scattered pinyon-juniper communities, at elevations ranging from 1305 to 1963 meters. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species. Direct and indirect effects and PROTECTIVE MEASURES same as #16.

INSECTS

42. Monarch butterfly (*Danaus Plexippus*) (Proposed Threatened): Found in most counties throughout Utah at some point during the year, mostly during the summer months/breeding season. Monarchs are pollinators that are well known for their impressive long-distance migration and their recent declines. Their bright coloration serves as a warning to predators that eating them can be toxic, & monarchs obtain these toxins (called cardenolides) by consuming milkweed plants. The species is native to North America but has spread to other parts of the world such that non-migratory populations exist from Pacific Ocean islands to the western edge of Europe. The majority of monarchs still exist and migrate in North America. Eastern monarch populations may fly more than 2,000 miles to overwintering sites in Mexico, while western populations will migrate around 300 to 1,000 miles where they overwinter in hundreds of groves of trees along the California coast and into northern Baja California and Mexico. This species' decline is attributed mostly to historical loss of habitat, which is areas of milkweed and nectar-producing flowering plants. The insects depend solely on milkweed during their egg and caterpillar stages, while adults require a diversity of flowering plants to fulfill their nutritional needs. Though not rare, milkweed plants (which support monarch butterfly) would be an example of a plant species that would be desirable to buffer, as requested by anyone involved. Due to methods and materials, impacts to flowering plants, including pollination services, are not anticipated to be significant by proposed actions, except for the no action alternative, which may result in fewer such plants due to herbivory by damaging grasshopper population outbreaks. The majority of milkweed species found in Utah occur in riparian habitats or near roadsides, which are buffered for treatments (500 feet for diflubenzuron aerial & 200 feet for carbaryl ground bait). There are no direct toxic effects from carbaryl bait to this species. Indirect effects to plant pollinators from the use of carbaryl bait are low since insects must consume the bait in order to succumb to it. There are no direct toxic effects from diflubenzuron, and the indirect effects to pollinators from the use of diflubenzuron are low since it is not toxic to adult insects. APHIS's low application rate of one ounce per acre, coupled with the practice of treating not more than every other swath, preclude significant adverse impacts to larval insects as well. Only insect nymphs that undergo incomplete metamorphosis (i.e., grasshoppers/crickets) manifest significant adverse effects at the low doses of APHIS projects. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species.

43. Suckley's Cuckoo bumblebee (*Bombus suckleyi*) (Proposed Endangered): May be found in certain portions of the area covered by this EA though they haven't been observed in the contiguous United

States since 2016 despite widespread historical occurrence records and increased sampling effort for bumble bees. The Suckley's cuckoo bumblebee is a rare species that is threatened mostly by habitat degradation and declines in their host species caused by human population expansion. They are parasitic pollinators whose host is primarily the western bumblebee (*Bombus occidentalis*) which has seen significant declines in the last several years. Suckley's cuckoo bumblebee females emerge from overwintering in the spring and begin searching for host nests. They invade host nests and kill or subdue the host queen. The female cuckoo lays her eggs in the host nest where the offspring hatch and develop, aided by host workers. When both male and female cuckoos emerge, they mate, and the females select a spot to overwinter. The males and the original egg-laying female die at the onset of winter. The species has not been observed in the contiguous United States since 2016 despite widespread historical occurrence records and increased sampling effort for bumble bees. The APHIS program is not likely to adversely affect this species since it has not been located in the US since 2016. PROTECTIVE MEASURES: No aerial applications of diflubenzuron within 1 mile of occupied habitat, and no ground treatments of carbaryl bait within 250 feet of occupied habitat.

44. Nokomis Silverspot butterfly (*Speyeria nokomis nokomis*) (Proposed Threatened): Found in its "pure" form in southeastern Utah and western Colorado, while some authors contend that it exists in northern Arizona and New Mexico north of Interstate 40 and the Mogollon Rim, including areas of the Navajo Nation. It is highly restricted to arid, riparian habitats in streamside meadows and open seepage areas within desert landscapes of the Upper Sonoran, pinon-juniper life zone. The only confirmed larval food source is the bog violet (*Viola nephrophylla*) though adults require additional nectar sources which they procure nearby. Other commonly associated plants in nokomis habitat include sedges (*Carex*), willows (*Salix*), both native and introduced thistles (*Cirsium, Carduus & Onopordon*), horsemint (*Agastache*) and joe pye weed (*Eupatorium maculatum*). Suitable nokomis habitat is sporadically found across vast stretches of desert, thus colonies are often isolated. All riparian zones are buffered for APHIS treatments (500 feet for diflubenzuron aerial & 200 feet for carbaryl ground bait). There are no direct toxic effects from carbaryl bait to this species. Indirect effects to plant pollinators from the use of carbaryl bait are low since insects must consume the bait in order to succumb to it. There are no direct toxic effects from diflubenzuron, and the indirect effects to pollinators from the use of diflubenzuron are low since it is not toxic to adult insects. APHIS's low application rate of one ounce per acre, coupled with the practice of treating not more than every other swath, preclude significant adverse impacts to larval insects as well. Only insect nymphs that undergo incomplete metamorphosis (i.e., grasshoppers/crickets) manifest significant adverse effects at the low doses of APHIS projects. The proposed APHIS program will not likely adversely affect this species.

MAMMALS

45. Canada lynx (*Lynx canadensis*) (Threatened): The preferred habitat of the Canada lynx is montane coniferous forest. The proposed APHIS suppression program will have no effect on or cause no jeopardy to any population of Canada lynx since projects will avoid known or historic species habitat areas.

46. Black-footed ferret (*Mustela nigripes*) (Threatened): Possibly found in Carbon, Daggett, Duchesne, Emery, Grand, Rich, San Juan, Summit and Uintah Counties. Black-footed ferrets live in underground prairie dog burrows and eat prairie dogs as their primary food source. The black-footed ferret is, therefore, closely associated with prairie dog towns. For this reason, the major threat to the species is the decimation of prairie dog colonies through plague, poisoning and habitat loss. The only known population occurs in Coyote Basin, Uintah County. Direct toxic effects from carbary bait are low

since plant-based baits are not sought-after food items for ferrets. Indirect effects by consumption of contaminated insects or prairie dogs might occur. Though prairie dogs may ingest carbaryl bait, and therefore, transfer that consumed carbaryl to a predator like the ferret, the potential for adverse effects remains low due to the unlikelihood of encountering significant quantities. Ten pounds of 2 percent active ingredient per acre maximum application rates preclude ingestion of sufficient toxin by insects or prairie dogs, themselves, to cause undesirable effects to ferrets. Direct toxic effects from Dimilin are low since diflubenzuron is slightly to very slightly toxic to mammals (Maas *et al.*, (1981). There would be few if any indirect effects from the use of Dimilin. The proposed APHIS suppression program is not likely to adversely affect this species. PROTECTIVE MEASURES: No aerial application of Dimilin within 1 mile and no ground applications within 0.25 mile of the edge of identified habitat.

47. Utah prairie dog (*Cynomys parvidens*) (Threatened): Found in Beaver, Garfield, Iron, Kane, Millard, Piute, Sanpete, Sevier and Wayne Counties. Direct toxic effects from carbaryl bait are moderate since prairie dogs may ingest it. However, 10 pounds per acre maximum application rates preclude ingestion of sufficient toxin to create behavioral anomalies, let alone mortality, due to the unlikelihood of encountering significant quantities. Since prairie dogs may consume insects, indirect effects from carbaryl bait are possible, but large quantities of contaminated insects would have to be consumed for such to occur. Rapid decomposition rates of dead insects, quickly making them unpalatable as food items, coupled with low application rates, minimize the risk of adverse effects on prairie dogs from carbaryl bait treatments. Direct toxic effects from Dimilin are low since diflubenzuron is slightly to very slightly toxic to mammals (Maas *et al.,* (1981). There would be no indirect effects from the use of Dimilin. The proposed APHIS suppression program would not likely adversely affect this species. PROTECTIVE MEASURES: Avoid using any pesticide within 1 mile of occupied habitat.

48. Wolverine (*Gulo gulo luscus*) (Threatened): Found in cold higher elevation locations in Utah wheresnowy conditions persist later into the warm season. They are opportunistic feeders, consuming a variety of foods depending on availability. They primarily eat carrion but prey on small mammals and birds and eat berries, fruits and insects. The availability of food is likely the primary reason wolverines tend to travel such long distances over rough terrain and deep snow. Home ranges of adults range from 38 to 348 square miles. Breeding generally occurs from late spring to early fall, and females undergo delayed implantation until the following winter/spring when active gestation lasts 30 to 40 days. Litters are born between February and April wherein one to five kits are born. Female wolverines use birthing dens that are excavated in snow that is greater than 5 feet deep seems to be required for natal denning. Habitat and range loss are the primary threats to wolverines since they are restricted to high elevation areas of the West where snow cover is persistent into the spring. The preferred habitat of the wolverine is montane coniferous forest. The proposed APHIS suppression program will have no effect on or cause no jeopardy to any population of wolverines since projects will avoid known or historic species habitat areas.

REPTILES

49. Desert tortoise (*Gopherus agassizii*) (Threatened): Found in Washington County. Within its range, the desert tortoise can be found near water in deserts, semi-arid grasslands, canyon bottoms and rocky hillsides. Desert tortoises often construct burrows in compacted sandy or gravelly soil. Females nest under a large shrub or at the mouth of a burrow and lay one to three clutches of two to fourteen eggs from May to July; eggs hatch in late summer or fall. Burrows, which may contain many tortoises at once, are used for hibernation during cold winter months. The typical diet of the desert tortoise consists of perennial grasses, cacti, shrubs and other plant material. Historically APHIS has never received a request to treat in areas inhabited by desert tortoises, but if asked to do so, there would exist the threat of

direct take by running over small tortoises with ground equipment. Direct toxic effects from the use of carbaryl bait are unknown, but the tortoises would not likely consume the bait at low application rates (10 pounds per acre) and given the small size and consistency of bait particles. Indirect effects are low since they do not depend on insects for food. No information was located about diflubenzuron's toxicity to reptiles, but it is likely that it is low, based on the selective nature of its toxic mode of action (i.e., it interferes with the synthesis of chitin in those organisms that produce exoskeletons). The relative toxicity of diflubenzuron to reptiles is expected to be similar to that of mammals and birds (APHIS EIS, 2002). Indirect effects are also expected to be low since desert tortoises do not depend on insects for food. It is unlikely that grasshoppers or Mormon cricket populations would ever reach outbreak levels and require APHIS treatments in desert tortoise habitat. The proposed APHIS suppression program will not likely adversely affect this species. PROTECTIVE MEASURES: No aerial or ground applications will occur in the Beaver Dam Slope, the Tortoise Preserve or other occupied habitats of Washington County. If APHIS does receive a request to treat using ground equipment, then APHIS would re-consult with the USFWS.

MOLLUSKS

50. Kanab ambersnail (*Oxyloma kanabense*) (Endangered): Found in Kane County. Pilsbry (1948), in the type description of this taxon, noted that it was found "on a wet ledge among rocks and cypripediums." Clarke (1991) reported the habitat of the Three Lakes population as a marsh dominated by *Typha* in its wettest portion. Grasses, *Carex*, violets, plantains and alders were also present. The densest snail aggregations were found under fallen *Typha* stalks, at the edges of thick *Typha* stands. The snails were also frequently observed just within the mouths of vole burrows. The presence of standing water appeared to be important to their local distribution. Clarke (1991) found that the habitat of the small population that existed along Kanab Creek also included *Mimulus guttatus*, *Dodocatheon pauciflorum*, *Aquilegia micrantha*, a tall grass species and *Juncus*. Direct toxic effects of carbaryl bait are high, but mitigation measures would ensure that this species would not come in contact with the toxin. Indirect effects are low since the susceptible insects are not likely food items. Direct toxic effects from Dimilin are none to slight - the median lethal concentration of diflubenzuron in water to the snail is greater than 125 mg/L (Willcox and Coffey, 1978) - especially given the low application rates and the self-imposed water/spring buffers of APHIS programs. Indirect effects are also expected to be low since susceptible insects are not likely food items. The proposed APHIS suppression program will not likely adversely affect this species. PROTECTIVE MEASURES: No aerial applications within 1 mile of occupied habitat, and no ground treatments within 500 feet of occupied habitat.