# **Instream Flow Standard Assessment Report**

# Island of Maui Hydrologic Unit 6010 **Honokowai**

November 2019

**DRAFT PR-2019-01** 

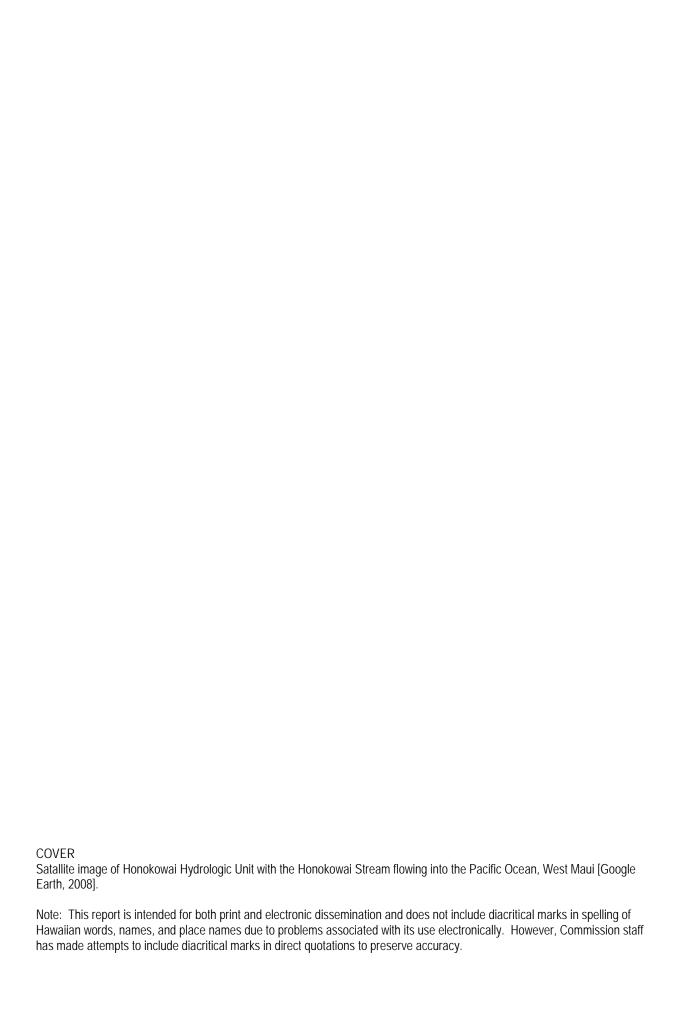


# State of Hawaii Department of Land and Natural Resources Commission on Water Resource Management









## **Table of Contents**

1.0	Introduction	1
Cui Ins Inte Ins Sur	neral Overview	
2.0	Unit Characteristics	11
Soi Rai Sol Eva Lar Lar Flo	ology	1112141516
3.0	Hydrology	30
Gro We Gro Stro	eams in Hawaii	32 33 34
4.0	Maintenance of Fish and Wildlife Habitat	51
Hav	waii Stream Assessment	52
5.0	Outdoor Recreational Activities	54
6.0	Maintenance of Ecosystems	56
7.0	Aesthetic Values	66
8.0	Navigation	67
9.0	Instream Hydropower Generation	67
10.0	Maintenance of Water Quality	68
11.0	Conveyance of Irrigation and Domestic Water Supplies	74
12.0	Protection of Traditional and Customary Hawaiian Rights	75
Arc	o Production chaeological Evidence for Hawaiian Agriculturehponds	84
13.0	Public Trust Uses of Water	89
Hav	waiian Home Lands	89

Doi	mestic Water Supply	90
14.0	Noninstream Uses	93
Wa	ter Leaving the Honokowai Hydrologic Unit in Ditch Systems	93
Cui	rrent Agricultural Demands	94
Мо	difications of Ditch Systems and Groundwater Recharge	108
	lization of Important Agricultural Lands	
	gation Needs of the Honokowai Hydrologic Unit	
	ng-term Development in West Maui	
Ava	ailability of Alternative Resources: Ground water	113
	ailability of Alternative Resources: Recycled Water	
15.0	Bibliography	118
16.0	Appendices	127

# **List of Figures**

Figure 1-1. Information to consider in setting measurable instream flow standards	2
Figure 1-2. Simplified representation of the interim instream flow standard and permanent instream flow standard processes. Keys steps of the adopted interim IFS process are depicted in the left column by the boxes drawn with dotted lines	3
Figure 1-3. Quickbird imagery of the Honokowai hydrologic unit and streams in West Maui, Hawaii. (Source: State of Hawaii, Planning Department, 2004; State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2015c; State of Hawaii, Division of Aquatic Resources, 2005)	7
Figure 1-4. Elevation range of the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2004e; U.S. Geological Survey, 2001)	8
Figure 1-5. USGS topographic map of Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: U.S. Geological Survey, 1996)	9
Figure 1-6. Major and minor roads for the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning 2015)	10
Figure 2-1. Orographic precipitation in the presence of mountains higher than 6,000 feet	13
Figure 2-2. Generalized geology of the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui, Hawaii. (Source: Sherrod et al., 2007)	20
Figure 2-3. Soil classification of the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui, Hawaii. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015m)	21
Figure 2-4. Mean annual rainfall of the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui, Hawaii. (Source: Giambelluca et al., 2013)	22
Figure 2-5. Mean annual solar radiation of the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui, Hawaii. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015c)	23
Figure 2-6. Mean annual potential evapotranspiration (Penman-Monteith method) of the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui, Hawaii. (Source: Giambelluca et al., 2014)	24
Figure 2-7. State land use district boundaries of the Honokowai hydrologic unit (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015d)	25
Figure 2-8. Kuleana parcels for the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: Maui County, 2018)	26
Figure 2-9. C-CAP land cover of the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015k)	26
Figure 2-10. Hawaii GAP land cover classes of the Honokowai hydrologic unit (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015f)	28
Figure 2-11. FEMA flood zone regions in Honokowai hydrologic unit (Source: Federal Emergency Management Agency, 2014)	29
Figure 3-1.Conceptual diagram illustrating surface water-ground water interactions in West Maui.  (Source: Oki et al., 2010)	31
Figure 3-2. Monthly reported pumpage, 12-month moving average (12-MAV) and sustainable yield for the Honokowai Aquifer sector. (Source: Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2018b).	34
Figure 3-3. Well locations and numbers in and nearby the Honokowai hydrologic unit, in the Honokowai aquifer sector, Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2018b).	35
Figure 3-4. Total monthly pumpage (million gallons per day, mgd) from the Lahaina Aquifer Sector for (top) Maui County Department of Water Supply (public) and (bottom) Hawaii Water Service (private), West Maui. (source: State of Hawaii Commission on Water Resource Management, 2018b)	
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	

Figure 3-6. Service area (red line) for Hawaii Water Service Well field in Lahaina-Kaanapali Resort area	38
Figure 3-7. Measured drawndown during the pump test for Well 5637-005 at 1450 ft elevation in the Honokowai Aquifer sector. (Source: Division of Water and Land Development, 1977)	39
Figure 3-5. Location of development tunnels, wells, and dike strucutures near the Honokowai Ditch in the Honokowai hydrologic unit (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2015d).	40
Figure 3-8. Elevation to freshwater lense, brackish water transition and sea water in the Mahinahina Deep Monitoring Well, Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2018a).	41
Figure 3-9. Monthly ground water pumpage and chloride concentration from two municipal (A & B) and one private (C) well in West Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2018b).	42
Figure 3-10. Percent contribution of Amalu Stream to total flow in Honokowai versus mean daily flow for Honokohau Stream at USGS 16620000. (Source: Cheng, 2014)	44
Figure 3-11.Seepage loss rate (cfs per mile) versus ending elevation for various seepage runs conducted in Wailuku Basalt geologic formations from 2012 to 2013 in West Maui. (Source: Cheng, 2014)	44
Figure 3-12. Ditches, diversions and gaging stations of the Honokowai hydrologic unit (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2015a).	45
Figure 3-13. Seepage run results and location of combined flow data from partial record gaging stations of the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2015a; Cheng, 2014)	46
Figure 3-14. Annual, wet season (Nov-Apr) and dry season (May-Oct) rainfall trends for the 1920-2012 (A) and 1983-2012 (B) periods, Maui. Hashed line areas represent significant trend over the period.	48
Figure 3-15. Cumulative departures of monthly mean flow from the mean of the monthly flows, Hawaii. This data is based on complete water years from 1913 through 2002. (Oki, 2004, Figure 4)	49
Figure 3-16. Mean annual flow (cubic feet per second, cfs) at USGS station 16620000 on Honokohau Stream, Maui. Line represents linear regression trend over the period of record	50
Figure 4-1. Elevational profile of a terminal-estuary stream on the Big Island of Hawaii (Hakalau Stream). (Source: McRae, 2007, adapted from Nishimoto and Kuamoo, 1991 [with permission])	51
Figure 5-1. Public hunting areas for game mammals and locations for other recreational activies in the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2002b)	55
Figure 6-1. Simplified ecosystem illustrated in a Hawaiian stream. (Source: Ziegler, 2002, illustration by Keith Kruger)	56
Figure 6-2. Reserves that include the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2007b; 2015n)	61
Figure 6-3. Wetlands that include the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2007b; 2015n)	62
Figure 6-4. Distribution of critical habitat for plant species in the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2004b)	63
Figure 6-5. Distribution of critical habitat for picturewing species in the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: Scott et al., 1986; State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2004b)	64
Figure 6-6. Density of threatened and endangered plants in the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015h)	65
Figure 10-1. Water quality standards for the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015e: 2008). The classifications are general in nature and should be	

used in conjunction with Hawaii Administrative Rules, Chapter 11-54, Water Quality Standards.	72
Figure 10-2. Water quality parameters measured at Kaanapali Shores, near the mouth of Honokowai Stream, Maui. (Source: Faliniski et al., 2018)	73
Figure 12-1.Generalized process for determining appurtenant water rights. This process is generalized and may not fully explain all possible situations. It does not apply to Hawaiian Homes Lands. If you are Native Hawaiian you may have other water rights	78
Figure 12-2. Kuleana parcels in the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015j)	88
Figure 13-1. Hawaiian Home Lands development parcels and other major land owners, West Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Department of Hawaiian Home Lands, 2011)	90
Figure 13-2. Water supply service systems for the Lahaina Aquifer Sector, Maui. (Source: Maui County, 2018)	91
Figure 14-1. Registered monthly average flow (million gallons per day, mgd) diverted from Kapaloa and Amalu streams in the Honokowai Hydrologic Unit, Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2018c)	94
Figure 14-2. Mean daily flow in Honokowai Ditch from Kapaloa Stream in the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2018c)	95
Figure 14-3. All registered diversions (ID) and ditches identified in the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2004d; State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2015g)	106
Figure 14-4. Estimated recharge for six historical periods between 1926 and 2004, central and west Maui, Hawaii. (Source: Engott and Vana, 2007)	109
Figure 14-5. Summary of estimated recharge, in million gallons per day, for various land-use and rainfall conditions in the Lihue Basin, Kauai, Hawaii. (Source: Izuka et al., 2005)	109
Figure 14-6. Development plan for Kaanapali 2020, Maui. (Source: Kaanapali Land Management)	113
Figure 14-7. Existing recycled water infrastructure in Honokowai, Maui (Source: County of Maui, 2018)	114
Figure 14-8. Agricultural Lands of Importance to the State of Hawaii (ALISH) for the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015g)	115
Figure 14-9. 2015 Baseline Agricultural Land Use Map for the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: (Perroy et al. 2016)	
Figure 14-10. Large landowners in the Honokowai hydrologic unit	117

## **List of Tables**

Table 2-1 Area and percentage of surface geologic features for Honokowai hydrologic unit	11
Table 2-2. Area and percentage of soil types for the Honokowai hydrologic unit	12
Table 2-3. Fog drip to rainfall ratios for the windward slopes of Mauna Loa on the island of Hawaii and approximate contributions to the Honokowai Hydrologic Unit based on an elevation range of 2000-5780 ft	14
Table 2-4. C-CAP land cover classes and area distribution in Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: National Oceanographic and Atmospheric Agency, 2015)	16
Table 2-5. HI-GAP land cover classes and area distribution in Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: HI-GAP, 2005)	17
Table 2-6. Drought risk areas for Maui. (Source: University of Hawaii, 2003)	19
Table 3-1. Selected flow duration discharge exceedance values for the period of record in the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui, Hawaii. (Source: USGS 2018) [Flows are in cubic feet per second (million gallons per day]	32
Table 3-2. Current sustainable yields for aquifer systems in the Lahaina Aquifer Sector in West Maui, current (2017) 12-month moving average (MAV) pumping, and 10-year average pumping (million gallons per day, mgd).	34
Table 3-3. Information of wells located in Honokowai hydrologic unit (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2015d).	36
Table 3-4. Selected natural-flow duration discharge exceedance values for the current (1984-2013) climate period based on the combined partial record gaging stations for the two tributaries (Amalu and Kapaloa) in the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui, Hawaii. (Source: Cheng 2014) [Flows are in cubic feet per second (million gallons per day]	43
Table 3-5. Discharge measurements at gage 6-124 and on Honokowai Stream. (Source: CWRM)  [Flows are in cubic feet per second (million gallons per day]	43
Table 4-1. List of commonly mentioned native stream organisms. (Source: State of Hawaii, Division of Aquatic Resources, 1993)	51
Table 6-1. Hawaii Stream Assessment indicators of riparian resources for Honokowai hydrologic unit	57
Table 6-2. Management areas located within Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Division of Forestry and Wildlife, 2008a)	58
Table 6-3. Watershed partnerships associated with the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Division of Forestry and Wildlife, 2008b)	58
Table 6-4. Wetland classifications for Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015n)	59
Table 6-5. Distribution of native and alien plant species for Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015f)	59
Table 6-6. Estimated Net Present Value (NPV) for Koolau [Oahu] Forest Amenities. (Source: Kaiser, B. et al., n.d.)	60
Table 12-1.Tax map key parcels with associated Land Commission Awards for the Honokowai hydrologic unit	79
Table 12-2.Summary of water use calculated from loi and loi complexes by island, and the entire state. (Source: Gingerich et al., 2007, Table 10) [gad = gallons per acre per day; na = not available]	82
Table 12-3.Water-temperature statistics based on measurements collected at 15-minute intervals for loi complexes on the island of Maui. (Source: Gingerich et al., 2007, Table 7)	83

Honokowai Stream	86
Table 13-1. Current total and domestic (single family) water use by subdistrict for the Lahaina- Napili service area provided by the Maui County Department of Water Supply. (Source: Maui County, 2018)	91
Table 13-2. Maui County DWS Lahaina-Napili water system sources, current (2017) 12-month moving average (MAV), and maximum capacity. [million gallons per day, mgd)	92
Table 14-1. Surface water registrations for the Honokowai Hydrologic Unit, Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2015e)	94
Table 14-2. Selected off-stream water use statistics in the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui, Hawaii. (Source: CWRM, 2018b)	95
Table 14-3 Registered diversions in the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui.	96
Table 14-4. Additional components of the surface water irrigation system using water from the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui.	99
Table 14-5. Tax Map Key (TMK) parcel ID,ownership, parcel size (acres), and irrigation demand (million gallons per day, mgd) for coffee assuming 80% usage and 4600 gallons per acre per day. [Kaanapali Development Corp, KDC; State of Hawaii, SOH; Department of Hawaiian Home Lands, DHHL]	107
Table 14-6. Agricultural Lands of Importance to the State of Hawaii and area distributions in the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015g)	110
Table 14-7. Mean drip irrigation demand estimates for various crops grown in Honokowai area based on IWREDSS scenarios modeled for two soil management techniques and two cover crop options given a 10 ft depth to water table. Irrigation Requirement (IRR) value in gallons per acre per day for the 1 in 5 year drought scenario is provided	111
Table 14-8. Future affordable housing projects in West Maui. (source: Maui County 2018b)	113

## **Acronyms and Abbreviations**

A&B Alexander & Baldwin

AG agricultural

ALISH Agricultural Lands of Importance to the State of Hawaii

ALUM agricultural land use maps [prepared by HDOA]

BFQ base flow statistics

BLNR Board of Land and Natural Resources (State of Hawaii)

C-CAP Coastal Change Analysis Program

cfs cubic feet per second

Code State Water Code (State of Hawaii)

COM commercial

Commission On Water Resource Management (DLNR)

CPRC Compilation of Public Review Comments (PR-2008-07, CWRM

CWA Clean Water Act (EPA)

CWRM Commission on Water Resource Management (State of Hawaii)

DAR Division of Aquatic Resources (State of Hawaii)

DHHL Department of Hawaiian Home Lands (State of Hawaii)
DLNR Department of Land and Natural Resources (State of Hawaii)

DOH Department of Health (State of Hawaii)

DWS Department of Water Supply (County of Maui)

EA Environmental Assessment
EIS Environmental Impact Statement

EPA United States Environmental Protection Agency

FEMA Federal Emergency Management Agency (Department of Homeland Security)

FILEREF File Reference [in the Commission's records of registered diversions]

ft fee

gad gallons per acre per day

GIS Geographic Information Systems

G.L. Government Lease

GOV government gpm gallons per minute

Gr. Grant

HAR Hawaii Administrative Rules

HC&S Hawaiian Commercial and Sugar Company
HDOA State Department of Agriculture (State of Hawaii)

HI-GAP Hawaii Gap Analysis Program

HOT hotel

HSA Hawaii Stream Assessment IFS instream flow standard

IFSAR Instream Flow Standard Assessment Report

IND industry

IRR irrigation requirements

IWREDSS Irrigation Water Requirement Estimation Decision Support System

KAA Kekaha Agriculture Association
KIUC Kauai Island Utility Cooperative
LCA Land Commission Award

LUC Land Use Commission (State of Hawaii)

MECO Maui Electric Company
MF multi-family residential
mgd million gallons per day
Mgal/d million gallons per day

mi mile

MOU Memorandum of Understanding

na not available

NAWQA National Water Quality Assessment (USGS)

NHLC Native Hawaiian Legal Corporation

NIR net irrigation requirements

NPDES National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System

NPV Net Present Value

NRCS Natural Resource Conservation Service (USDA)
NVCS National Vegetation Classification System

por. Portion REL religious

RMT R.M. Towill Corporation

SCS Soil Conservation Service (United States Department of Agriculture)

Note: The SCS is now called the Natural Resources Conservation Service (NRCS)

SF single family residential

SPI Standardized Precipitation Index

sq mi square miles
TFQ total flow statistics

TFQ<sub>50</sub> 50 percent exceedence probability TFQ<sub>90</sub> 90 percent exceedence probability

TMDL Total Maximum Daily Load

TMK Tax Map Key

UHERO University of Hawaii's Economic Research Organization

USDA United States Department of Agriculture

USFWS United States Fish and Wildlife Service (Department of the Interior)
USGS United States Geological Survey (Department of the Interior)

WQS Water Quality Standards

WRPP Water Resource Protection Plan (Commission on Water Resource Management)

WTF water treatment facility

## 1.0 Introduction

#### **General Overview**

The hydrologic unit of Honokowai is located in West Maui, on the the western flank of Puu Kukui Mountain which forms the western part of the Hawaiian island of Maui (Figure 1-3). It covers an area of 8.77 square miles from 5,700 feet elevation to the sea with a mean basin elevation of 1,760 feet and a mean basin slope of 43.9 percent (Figures 1-4 and 1-5). Fourty-two percent of the basin has a slope greater than 30 percent. The longest flow path in Honokowai is 9.32 miles in length, traversing in a westnorthwesternly direction from its headwaters to the ocean. The main Honokowai Stream is composed of two high elevation branches, Amalu Stream and Kapaloa Stream, which merge at an elevation of 1,500 feet. Honokowai Gulch also has a number of intermittent tributaries, which contribute runoff during heavy rainfall events. Baseflow is supported by dike-impounded ground water in the upper reaches with two development tunnels augmenting surface flow. Both branches of the Honokowai stream flow perennially but below the diversions the stream loses flow and is estimated to naturally support mauka to makai flow less than 50 percent of the time. The basin has a mean annual precipitation of 86 inches. The highest elevation sections of the hydrologic unit are made up of conservation land owned by Kaanapali Land Management, LLC, (KLM) and the State of Hawaii Department of Land and Natural Resources (DLNR). The City of Lahaina, a census designated place that includes Kaanapali and Kapalua beach resorts, is located along the coast with a total population of 11,704 people (U.S. Census Bureau Office of Planning 2011). The lower altitudes are very dry and occupied by grasses, shrubs and alien trees, while the upper regions support native ohia- and koa-dominated forests. In middle reaches along the stream, taro loi was cultivated before Pioneer Mill Company (PMC) diverted the stream at the 1,650 ft elevation. The state highway provides the primary access through Honokowai, with a number of secondary roads providing access to neighborhoods, as well as commercial and industrial areas of the hydrologic unit. Former agricultural roads provide limited access to large areas of the hydrologic unit (Figure 1-6). The Honokohau irrigation ditch brings water from Honokohau and Honolua watersheds into Honokowai, although use of the ditch is problematic due to ownership and management issues. The ditch was jointly funded by Maui Land and Pineapple (MLP) and PMC, bringing water diverted from MLP owned lands to PMC. The Honokowai Ditch was originally built by PMC to divert water from Amalu and Kapaloa streams to feed the Horner and Hanakaoa reservoirs for sugarcane, although it currently supplies water for KLM's non-potable water needs. Coffee is now grown by KLM using surface water for irrigation. The lack of streamflow continues to impede cultural practuces of the valley. The stream also provides habitat to endangered damselflies (Magalerion pacificum) and may have supported aquatic fauna when continuous flow existed for longer time periods.

## **Current Instream Flow Standard**

The current interim instream flow standard (IFS) for Honokowai Stream was established by way of Hawaii Administrative Rules (HAR) §13-169-44, which, in pertinent part, reads as follows:

<u>Interim instream flow standard for Maui</u>. The Interim Instream Flow Standard for all streams on Maui, as adopted by the commission on water resource management on June 15, 1988, shall be that amount of water flowing in each stream on the effective date of this standard, and as that flow may naturally vary throughout the year and from year to year without further amounts of water being diverted offstream through new or expanded diversions, and under the stream conditions existing on the effective date of the standard.

The current interim IFS became effective on December 31, 1988. Streamflow was not measured on that date; therefore, the current interim IFS is not a quantifiable value.

#### **Instream Flow Standards**

Under the State Water Code (Code), Chapter 174C, Hawaii Revised Statutes (HRS), the Commission on Water Resource Management (Commission) has the responsibility of establishing IFS on a stream-by-stream basis whenever necessary to protect the public interest in the waters of the State. Early in its history, the Commission recognized the complexity of establishing IFS for the State's estimated 376 perennial streams and instead set interim IFS at "status quo" levels. These interim IFS were defined as the amount of water flowing in each stream (with consideration for the natural variability in stream flow and conditions) at the time the administrative rules governing them were adopted in 1988 and 1989.

The Hawaii Supreme Court, upon reviewing the Waiahole Ditch Contested Case Decision and Order, held that such "status quo" interim IFS were not adequate to protect streams and required the Commission to take immediate steps to assess stream flow characteristics and develop quantitative interim IFS for affected Windward Oahu streams, as well as other streams statewide. The Hawaii Supreme Court also emphasized that "instream flow standards serve as the primary mechanism by which the Commission is to discharge its duty to protect and promote the entire range of public trust purposes dependent upon instream flows."

To the casual observer, IFS may appear relatively simple to establish upon a basic review of the Code provisions. However, the complex nature of IFS becomes apparent upon further review of the individual components that comprise surface water hydrology, instream uses, noninstream uses, and their interrelationships. The Commission has the distinct responsibility of weighing competing uses for a limited resource in a legal realm that is continuing to evolve. The following illustration (Figure 1-1) was developed to illustrate the wide range of information, in relation to hydrology, instream uses, and noninstream uses that should be addressed in conducting a comprehensive IFS assessment.

Fish/Wildlife Recreation **Aesthetics Navigation** Habitat Maintenance Stream Swimming Estuaries · Scenic Views Boating Channelizations · Nature Study Wetlands Waterfalls Other · Native Vertebrates Fishing · Riparian areas Tourism · Invertebrates Boating · Nearshore Waters Other Invasive Species Parks Natural Area Hydrology Recruitment Reserves Other Abundance · National Parks · Other Protected · Median Flow Diversity Areas Distribution · Base Flow Other · Pre-Diversion Flow Other Estimate Groundwater Conveyance Hawaiian Noninstream Hydropower **Water Quality** Interaction of Water Rights · Surface-Water Use · Ground-Water Use · Present Use · Water Quality · Multiple Diversions Traditional and Diversions Other Standards on a Single Stream **Customary Rights**  Potential Use Domestic/Municipal · 303(d) Impaired Other Taro Cultivation Use Other Waters · Appurtenant Rights Hawaiian Home Total Maximum Lands · Cultural Values Daily Loads · Agriculture Other · Land Use Industrial Other Present vs. Potential Use

Figure 1-1. Information to consider in setting measurable instream flow standards.

· Economic Impacts

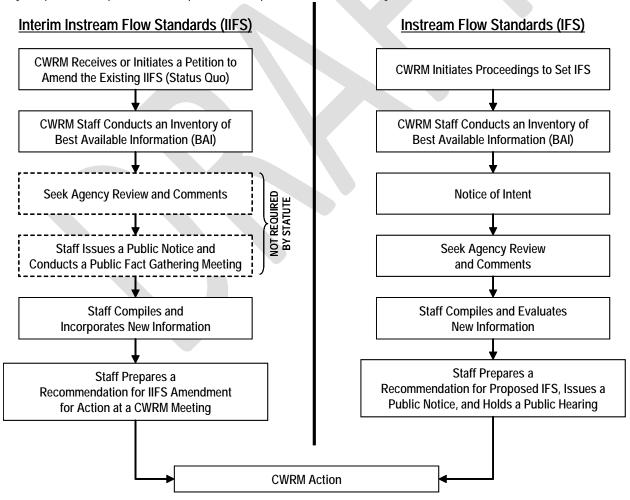
Other

### Interim Instream Flow Standard Process

The Code provides for a process to amend an interim IFS in order to protect the public interest pending the establishment of a permanent IFS. The Code, at §174C-71(2), describes this process including the role of the Commission to "weigh the importance of the present or potential instream values with the importance of the present or potential uses of water for noninstream purposes, including the economic impact of restricting such uses."

Recognizing the complexity of establishing measurable IFS, while cognizant of the Hawaii Supreme Court's mandate to designate interim IFS based on best available information under the Waiahole Combined Contested Case, the Commission at its December 13, 2006 meeting authorized staff to initiate and conduct public fact gathering. Under this adopted process (reflected in the left column of Figure 1-2), the Commission staff will conduct a preliminary inventory of best available information upon receipt of a petition to amend an existing interim IFS. The Commission staff shall then seek agency review and comments on the compiled information (compiled in an Instream Flow Standard Assessment Report) in conjunction with issuing a public notice for a public fact gathering meeting. Shortly thereafter (generally within 30 days), the Commission staff will conduct a public fact gathering meeting in, or near, the hydrologic unit of interest.

**Figure 1-2**. Simplified representation of the interim instream flow standard and permanent instream flow standard processes. Keys steps of the adopted interim IFS process are depicted in the left column by the boxes drawn with dotted lines.



## **Instream Flow Standard Assessment Report**

The Instream Flow Standard Assessment Report (IFSAR) is a compilation of the hydrology, instream uses, and noninstream uses related to a specific stream and its respective surface water hydrologic unit. The report is organized in much the same way as the elements of IFS are depicted in Figure 1-1. The purpose of the IFSAR is to present the best available information for a given hydrologic unit. This information is used to determine the interim IFS recommendations, which is compiled as a separate report. The IFSAR is intended to act as a living document that should be updated and revised as necessary, thus also serving as a stand-alone document in the event that the Commission receives a subsequent petition solely for the respective hydrologic unit.

Each report begins with an introduction of the subject hydrologic unit and the current IFS status. Section 2.0 is comprised of the various hydrologic unit characteristics that, both directly and indirectly, impact surface water resources. Section 3.0 contains a summary of available hydrologic information, while Sections 4.0 through 12.0 summarize the best available information for the nine instream uses as defined by the Code. Section 13.0 describes public trust uses of water not covered in other sections. Noninstream uses are summarized in Section 14.0. Maps are provided at the end of each section to help illustrate information presented within the section's text or tables. Finally, Section 15.0 provides a comprehensive listing of cited references and is intended to offer readers the opportunity to review IFSAR references in further detail.

An important component of the IFSAR and the interim IFS process is the Compilation of Public Review Comments (CPRC). The CPRC serves as a supporting document containing the oral and written comments that are submitted as part of the initial public review process. Comments referred to within the IFSAR will identify both the section and page number where the original comment can be located in the CPRC. For example, a reference to "8.0-3" indicates the third page of comments in Section 8.0 of the CPRC.

Following the preparation of the IFSAR and initial agency and public review, information may be added to the IFSAR at any time. Dates of revision will be reflected as such. Future review of the IFSAR, by agencies and the public, will only be sought when a new petition to amend the interim (or permanent) instream flow standard is pending. Recommendations for IFS amendments are prepared separately as a stand-alone document. Thus, the IFSAR acts solely as a compendium of best available information and may be revised further without the need for subsequent public review following its initial preparation.

## **Surface Water Hydrologic Units**

Early efforts to update the Commission's Water Resource Protection Plan (WRPP) highlighted the need for surface water hydrologic units to delineate and codify Hawaii's surface water resources. Surface water hydrologic units served as an important first-step towards improving the organization and management of surface water information that the Commission collects and maintains, including diversions, stream channel alterations, and water use.

In developing the surface water hydrologic units, the Commission staff reviewed various reports to arrive at a coding system that could meet the requirements for organizing and managing surface water information in a database environment, and could be easily understood by the general public and other agencies. For all intents and purposes, surface water hydrologic units are synonymous with watershed areas. Though Commission staff recognized that while instream uses may generally fall within a true surface drainage area, noninstream uses tend to be land-based and therefore may not always fall within the same drainage area.

In June 2005, the Commission adopted the report on surface water hydrologic units and authorized staff to implement its use in the development of information databases in support of establishing IFS (State of

Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2005a). The result is a surface water hydrologic unit code that is a unique combination of four digits. This code appears on the cover of each IFSAR above the hydrologic unit name.

#### **Surface Water Definitions**

Listed below are the most commonly referenced surface water terms as defined by the Code.

- Agricultural use. The use of water for the growing, processing, and treating of crops, livestock, aquatic plants and animals, and ornamental flowers and similar foliage.
- Channel alteration. (1) To obstruct, diminish, destroy, modify, or relocate a stream channel; (2) To change the direction of flow of water in a stream channel; (3) To place any material or structures in a stream channel; and (4) To remove any material or structures from a stream channel.
- Continuous flowing water. A sufficient flow of water that could provide for migration and movement of fish, and includes those reaches of streams which, in their natural state, normally go dry seasonally at the location of the proposed alteration.
- Domestic use. Any use of water for individual personal needs and for household purposes such as drinking, bathing, heating, cooking, noncommercial gardening, and sanitation.
- Ground water. Any water found beneath the surface of the earth, whether in perched supply, dike-confined, flowing, or percolating in underground channels or streams, under artesian pressure or not, or otherwise.
- Hydrologic unit. A surface drainage area or a ground water basin or a combination of the two.
- Impoundment. Any lake, reservoir, pond, or other containment of surface water occupying a bed or depression in the earth's surface and having a discernible shoreline.
- Instream Flow Standard. A quantity of flow of water or depth of water which is required to be present at a specific location in a stream system at certain specified times of the year to protect fishery, wildlife, recreational, aesthetic, scenic, and other beneficial instream uses.
- Instream use. Beneficial uses of stream water for significant purposes which are located in the stream and which are achieved by leaving the water in the stream. Instream uses include, but are not limited to:
  - (1) Maintenance of fish and wildlife habitats;
  - (2) Outdoor recreational activities;
  - (3) Maintenance of ecosystems such as estuaries, wetlands, and stream vegetation;
  - (4) Aesthetic values such as waterfalls and scenic waterways;
  - (5) Navigation;
  - (6) Instream hydropower generation;
  - (7) Maintenance of water quality;
  - (8) The conveyance of irrigation and domestic water supplies to downstream points of diversion; and
  - (9) The protection of traditional and customary Hawaiian rights.
- Interim instream flow standard. A temporary instream flow standard of immediate applicability, adopted by the Commission without the necessity of a public hearing, and terminating upon the establishment of an instream flow standard.
- Municipal use. The domestic, industrial, and commercial use of water through public services available to persons of a county for the promotion and protection of their health, comfort, and safety, for the protection of property from fire, and for the purposes listed under the term "domestic use."
- Noninstream use. The use of stream water that is diverted or removed from its stream channel and includes the use of stream water outside of the channel for domestic, agricultural, and industrial purposes.
- Reasonable-beneficial use. The use of water in such a quantity as is necessary for economic and efficient utilization, for a purpose, and in a manner which is both reasonable and consistent with the state and county land use plans and the public interest.

Stream. Any river, creek, slough, or natural watercourse in which water usually flows in a defined bed or channel. It is not essential that the flowing be uniform or uninterrupted. The fact that some parts of the bed or channel have been dredged or improved does not prevent the watercourse from being a stream.

Stream channel. A natural or artificial watercourse with a definite bed and banks which periodically or continuously contains flowing water. The channel referred to is that which exists at the present time, regardless of where the channel may have been located at any time in the past.

Stream diversion. The act of removing water from a stream into a channel, pipeline, or other conduit. Stream reach. A segment of a stream channel having a defined upstream and downstream point.

Stream system. The aggregate of water features comprising or associated with a stream, including the stream itself and its tributaries, headwaters, ponds, wetlands, and estuary.

Surface water. Both contained surface water--that is, water upon the surface of the earth in bounds created naturally or artificially including, but not limited to, streams, other watercourses, lakes, reservoirs, and coastal waters subject to state jurisdiction--and diffused surface water--that is, water occurring upon the surface of the ground other than in contained water bodies. Water from natural springs is surface water when it exits from the spring onto the earth's surface.

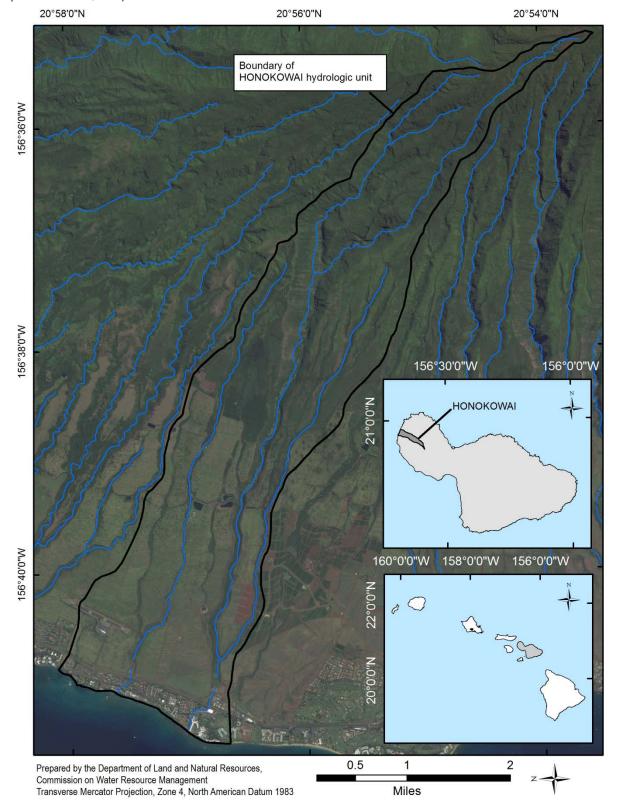
Sustainable yield. The maximum rate at which water may be withdrawn from a water source without impairing the utility or quality of the water source as determined by the Commission.

Time of withdrawal or diversion. In view of the nature, manner, and purposes of a reasonable and beneficial use of water, the most accurate method of describing the time when the water is withdrawn or diverted, including description in terms of hours, days, weeks, months, or physical, operational, or other conditions.

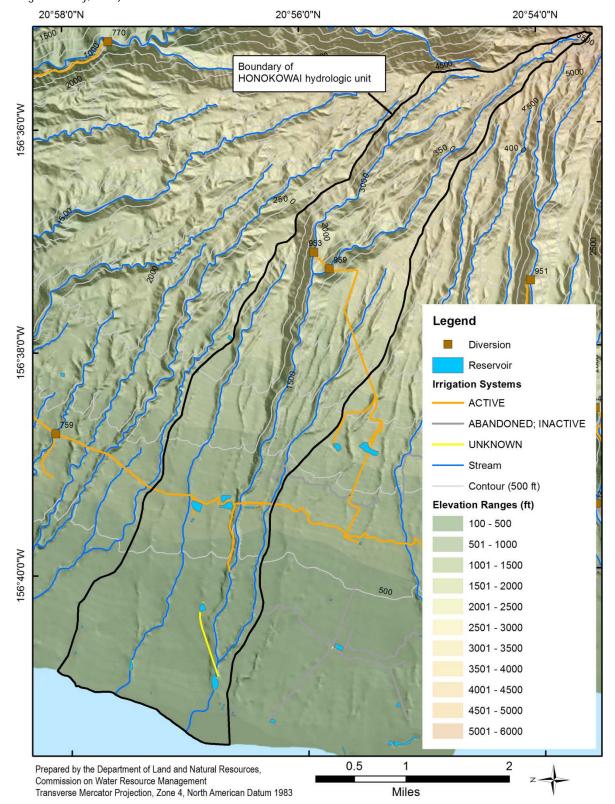
Watercourse. A stream and any canal, ditch, or other artificial watercourse in which water usually flows in a defined bed or channel. It is not essential that the flowing be uniform or uninterrupted.



**Figure 1-3**. Quickbird imagery of the Honokowai hydrologic unit and streams in West Maui, Hawaii. (Source: State of Hawaii, Planning Department, 2004; State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2015c; State of Hawaii, Division of Aquatic Resources, 2005)



**Figure 1-4**. Elevation range of the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2004e; U.S. Geological Survey, 2001)



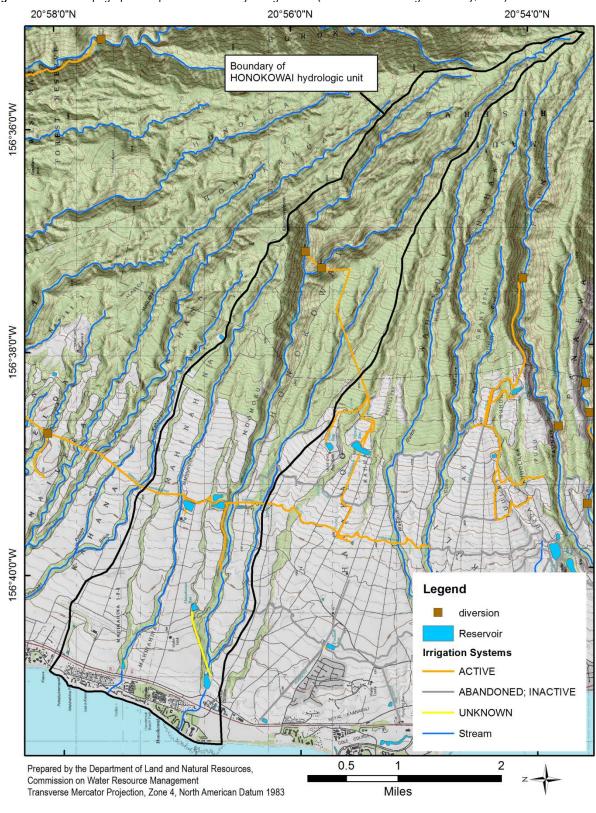


Figure 1-5. USGS topographic map of Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: U.S. Geological Survey, 1996)

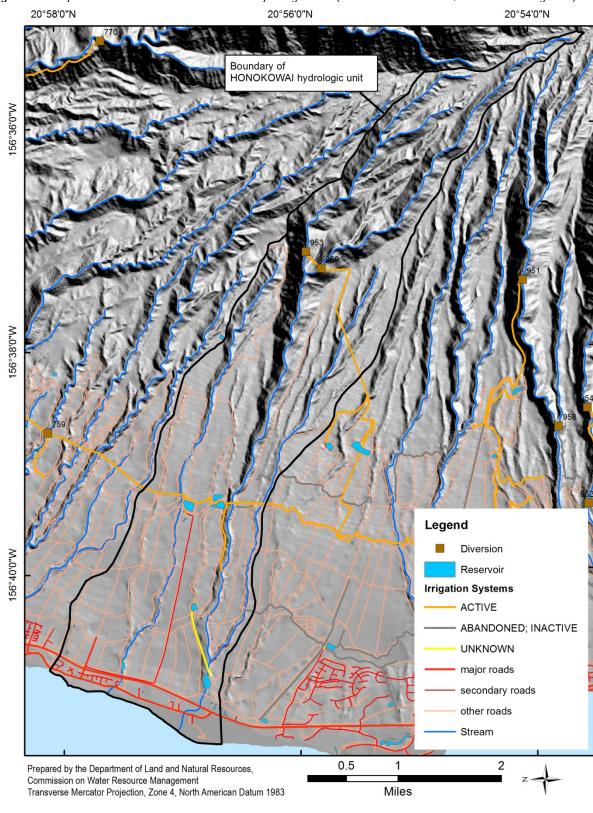


Figure 1-6. Major and minor roads for the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning 2015)

## 2.0 Unit Characteristics

## Geology

Honokowai is on the western flanks of Puu Kukui, the West Maui volcano. There were three separate volcanic phases in West Maui (Stearns and Macdonald 1942). The first phase, called the Wailuku Volcanic Series, makes up about 97% of the volume of the volcano, and consists of thin pahoehoe and aa flows of tholeitic olivine basalt with minor plagioclase basalt as thick as 1700 meters (Table 2-1). The summit of this shield building phase eventually collapsed to form a caldera about 3.2 km across, with horizontal post-caldera lava flows. The Honolua Volcanic Series, the second phase, is dominated by alkali rocks that formed an incomplete cap to the volcano ranging from single flows less than 10 m thick to several flows as thick as 230 m on the northeastern slopes (Macdonald and Abbott 1970). Occasionally viscuous trachytic magma formed domes with steeply sloping flow planes, especially in the Kahoma and Launiupoko areas. Many dike and vent formations were produced in the Honolua Series although due to the lack of well-developed rift zones, their distribution is somewhat irregular. The Honolua Series finished about 500 kya, followed by a brief third phase of activity which included four small eruptions occurring on the southwestern slope forming the Lahaina Volcanic Series. These lava flows were all silica undersaturated basanitoids or basanites. The rapid erosion and valley incision of West Maui has produced broad alluvial fans with unconsolidated dunes of lithified to semi-lithified calcareous sand on the western slopes. The generalized geology of the Honokowai hydrologic unit is depicted in Figure 2-2.

Table 2-1 Area and percentage of surface geologic features for Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: Sherrod et al. 2007)

(Source: Sherrod et al, 2007)				
Name	Rock Type	Area (mi²)	Percent (%)	
Wailuku Volcanics	Intrusive rocks, Caldera complex, Dike complex, Pahoehoe and Aa lava flows	7.739	88.2%	
Honolua Volcanics	Pahoehoe and Aa, Conglomerate	0.618	7.0%	
Alluvium	Sand and Gravel	0.404	4.6%	
Older dune deposits	Calcareous sand, mostly consolidated	0.014	0.2%	

#### Soils

The U.S. Department of Agriculture's Natural Resources Conservation Service (formerly known as the Soil Conservation Service) divides soils into hydrologic soil groups (A, B, C, and D) according to the rate at which infiltration (intake of water) occurs when the soil is wet. The higher the infiltration rate, the faster the water is absorbed into the ground and the less there is to flow as surface runoff. Group A soils have the highest infiltration rates; group D soils have the lowest. In the Honokowai hydrologic unit, upland soils are dominated by rough mountainous land (22.9%; hydrologic soil group B) and lowland soils are largely dominated by Lahaina Series (17.2%; hydrologic soil group B). The Olelo Series and the Kahana Series make up 11.4% and 10.6% of the unit, representing hydrologic soil Group D and Group C, respectively (Table 2-2). Most of the unit consists of soils in Group B (50.1%), silty loam or loam with moderate infiltration rates, or Group C (24.6%). Group D soils consist of clay loam, silty clay loam, or clay, with high runoff potential. The less sloping tops of ridges and interfluves (regions of higher land between valleys in the same hydrologic unit) are poorly drained but still support moderate infiltration. The lowlands are composed of well-drained clay and rough broken land – very steep land broken by numerous intermittent drainage channels (Figure 2-3). The numerous gulches and mountainsides have slopes of 40 to 70 percent, leading to high rates of slopewash. Runoff is rapid in these soils and geologic erosion is active. The soils of rough broken land are not uniform. The clay is moderately permeable with slow to medium runoff and a slight to moderate erosion hazard (U.S. Department of Agriculture, National Resource Conservation Service, 1986).

**Table 2-2.** Area and percentage of soil types for the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: Soil Survey Staff, 2017)

Soil Series Unit	Hydrologic Soil Group	Area (mi²)	Percent (%)
Alaeloa	С	0.566	6.5%
Beaches	A	0.014	0.2%
Ewa	В	0.096	1.1%
Hydrandepts-Tropaquods	A	0.526	6.0%
Kahana	C	0.933	10.6%
Lahaina	В	1.511	17.2%
Molokai	C	0.039	0.4%
Naiwa	A	0.015	0.2%
Olelo	D	0.997	11.4%
Pulehu	В	0.180	2.1%
Rock land	D	0.653	7.5%
Rough broken & stony land		0.591	6.7%
Rough broken land	C	0.616	7.0%
Rough mountainous land	В	2.010	22.9%
Water		0.016	0.2%

The Kahana soils are deep, silty clay, well drained, and weathered soils from igneous (U. S. Department of Agriculture, Natural Resources Conservation Service, Conservation Engineering Division, 1986). The Lahaina and Molokai soils are deep, silty clay or silty clay loam, well drained, and weathered soils from basalt. All of these soils are excellent for agriculture.

## Rainfall

The West Maui Mountains are the driving force affecting the distribution of rainfall in Honokowai with rainfall affected by both the orographic¹ effect and the rain shadow effect (Figure 2-1). Orographic precipitation occurs when the prevailing northeasterly trade winds lift warm air up the windward side of the mountains into higher elevations where cooler temperatures persist. As moist air cools, water condenses and the air mass releases precipitation. As a result, frequent and heavy rainfall is observed on the windward mountain slopes. The temperature inversion zone, the range of elevations where temperature increases with elevation, typically extends from 6,560 feet to 7,874 feet. This region is influenced by a layer of moist air below and dry air above, making climate extremely variable (Giambelluca and Nullet, 1992). The fog drip zone occurs below the elevation where cloud height is restricted by the temperature inversion, (Sholl et al., 2002). Fog drip is a result of cloud-water droplets impacting vegetation (Scholl et al., 2002) and can contribute significantly to groundwater recharge. Above the inversion zone, the air is dry and the sky is frequently clear (absence of clouds) with high solar radiation, creating an arid atmosphere with little rainfall. This region is found in the higher elevations of the largest volcanoes (e.g., Mauna Kea, Haleakala).

A majority of the mountains in Hawaii peak in the fog drip zone, where cloud-water is intercepted by vegetation. In such cases, air passes over the mountains, warming and drying while descending on the leeward mountain slopes. Precipitation on Puu Kukui is influenced by its position relative to the trade winds. The highest position lies in the cloudy layer below the trade wind inversion resulting in peak rainfall for the region. Mean annual rainfall on Puu Kukui measured by the USGS (station 380.0) and Maui Land & Pineapple since 1928 is about 362 inches. The fog drip zone on the windward side of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Orographic refers to influences of mountains and mountain ranges on airflow, but also used to describe effects on other meteorological quantities such as temperature, humidity, or precipitation distribution.

islands extends from the cloud base level at 1,970 feet to the lower limit of the most frequent temperature inversion base height at 6,560 feet (Giambelluca and Nullet, 1992). The steep gradient around the island forces moisture-laden air to rapidly rise in elevation (over 3,000 feet) in a short distance, resulting in a rapid release of rainfall in one location. Finally, the relatively round, conical shape of the West Maui Mountains exposes all sides of the peak to wind and moisture.

The Honokowai hydrologic unit is situated on the leeward flank of the West Maui Mountains and as such receives less orographic rainfall than windward slopes and is impacted by the rain shadow effect. Wind will blow rainfall over the interfluve from east/northeast facing hydrologic units, contributing to higher rainfall in the upper elevations (Figure 2-4). The high spatial variability in rainfall is evident by the large variation in mean annual rainfall across the hydrologic unit. For the whole hydrologic unit, mean annual rainfall averages 86 inches. Above 2000 ft, rainfall is highest during the months of December and April, where the mean monthly rainfall varies from 10.6 to 17.0 inches, although there is a fairly good distribution of rainfall across all months (Table 2-3). Irregular southernly Kona storm systems may produce localized intense rainfall on south or west facing slopes.

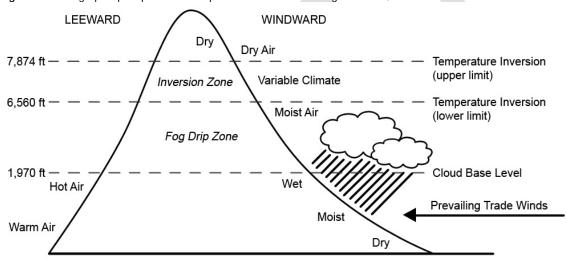


Figure 2-1. Orographic precipitation in the presence of mountains higher than 6,000 feet.

Currently, fog drip data for leeward slopes are non-existant. Shade (1999) used the monthly fog drip to rainfall ratios for the windward slopes of Mauna Loa on the island of Hawaii (Table 2-3) to calculate fog drip contribution to the water-budget in windward East Maui. The fog drip to rainfall ratios were estimated using: 1) the fog drip zone boundaries for East Maui (Giambelluca and Nullet, 1991); and 2) an illustration that shows the relationship between fog drip and rainfall for the windward slopes of Mauna Loa, island of Hawaii (Juvik and Nullet, 1995). This method was used to determine the contribution of fog drip in the Honokowai hydrologic unit, which is calculated by multiplying the ratios with the monthly rainfall values in the fog drip zone based on Giambelluca et al (2013). Calculations show that approximately 41 percent of Honokowai lies in the fog drip zone based on elevations greater than 2000 ft. The total contribution from fog drip to the water budget based on percent of fog drig from monthly rainfall is about 25 percent (50.3 in out of 198.5 in), assuming the same ratios apply to leeward slopes (Table 2-3).

**Table 2-3.** Fog drip to rainfall ratios for the windward slopes of Mauna Loa on the island of Hawaii and approximate contributions to the Honokowai Hydrologic Unit based on an elevation range of 2000-5780 ft.

Month	Ratio (%)	Mean Rainfall (in)	Contribution (in)
January	13	14.0	1.82
February	13	10.6	1.38
March	13	17.4	2.26
April	27	15.1	4.08
May	27	9.8	2.65
June	27	11.2	3.02
July	67	13.4	8.98
August	67	11.0	7.34
September	67	8.6	5.76
October	40	10.0	4.00
November	40	13.1	5.24
December	27	14.0	3.78

## **Solar Radiation**

Solar radiation is the sun's energy that arrives at the Earth's surface after considerable amounts have been absorbed by water vapor and gases in the Earth's atmosphere. The amount of solar radiation to reach the surface in a given area is dependent in part upon latitude and the sun's declination angle (angle from the sun to the equator), which is a function of the time of year. Hawaii's trade winds and the temperature inversion layer greatly affect solar radiation levels, the primary heat source for evaporation. High mountain ranges block moist trade-wind air flow and keep moisture beneath the inversion layer (Lau and Mink, 2006). As a result, windward slopes tend to be shaded by clouds and protected from solar radiation, while dry leeward areas receive a greater amount of solar radiation and thus have higher levels of evaporation. In Honokowai, average annual solar radiation ranged from 172.8 to 241.0 W/m² per day, with a watershed wide average of 215.7 W/m² per day (Figure 2-5). It is greatest at the coast and decreases toward the uplands, where cloud cover is more of an influence (Giambelluca et al., 2014).

## **Evaporation**

Evaporation is the loss of water to the atmosphere from soil surfaces and open water bodies (e.g. streams and lakes). Evaporation from plant surfaces (e.g. leaves, stems, flowers) is termed transpiration. Together, these two processes are commonly referred to as evapotranspiration, and it can significantly affect water yield because it determines the amount of rainfall lost to the atmosphere. On a global scale, the amount of water that evaporates is about the same as the amount of water that falls on Earth as precipitation. However, more water evaporates from the ocean whereas on land, rainfall often exceeds evaporation. The rate of evaporation is dependent on many climatic factors including solar radiation, albedo<sup>2</sup>, rainfall, humidity, wind speed, surface temperature, and sensible heat advection<sup>3</sup>. Higher evaporation rates are generally associated with greater net radiation, high wind speed and surface temperature, and lower humidity.

<sup>2</sup> Albedo is the proportion of solar radiation that is reflected from the Earth, clouds, and atmosphere without heating the receiving surface.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Sensible heat advection refers to the transfer of heat energy that causes the rise and fall in the air temperature.

A common approach to estimating evaporation is to employ a relationship between potential evaporation and the available water in the watershed. Potential evaporation is the maximum rate of evaporation if water is not a limiting factor, and it is often measured with evaporation pans. In Hawaii, pan evaporation measurements were generally made in the lower elevations of the drier leeward slopes where sugarcane was grown. These data have been compiled and mapped by Ekern and Chang (1985). Most of the drainage basins in Hawaii are characterized by a relatively large portion of the rainfall leaving the basin as evaporation and the rest as streamflow (Ekern and Chang, 1985). Based on the available pan evaporation data for Hawaii, evaporation generally decreases with increasing elevation below the temperature inversion<sup>4</sup> and the cloud layer (Figure 2-6). At low elevations near the coast, pan evaporation rates are influenced by sensible heat advection from the ocean (Nullet, 1987). Pan evaporation rates are enhanced in the winter by positive heat advection from the ocean, and the opposite occurs in the summer when pan evaporation rates are diminished by negative heat advection (Giambelluca and Nullet, 1992). With increasing distance from the windward coasts, positive heat advection from dry land surfaces becomes an important factor in determining the evaporative demand on the landscape (Nullet, 1987). Shade (1999, Fig. 9) estimated pan evaporation rates of 30 inches per year below 2,000 feet elevation to 90 inches per year near the coast. Within the cloud layer, evaporation rates are particularly low due to the low radiation and high humidity caused by fog drip. Pan evaporation rates dropped below 30 inches per year in this area as reported in Shade (1999, Fig. 9). Near the average height of the temperature inversion, evaporation rates are highly variable as they are mainly influenced by the movement of dry air from above and moist air from below (Nullet and Giambelluca, 1990). Above the inversion, clear sky and high solar radiation at the summit causes increased evaporation, with pan evaporation rates of about 50 to 70 inches per year (Shade, 1999, Fig. 9). For example, Ekern and Chang (1985) reported evaporation increased to 50 percent more than surface oceanic rates near the Mauna Kea crest on the island of Hawaii. Potential annual evapotranspiration in the Honokowai hydrologic unit (Figure 2-6) averages 118.7 inches per year and ranges from 72.2 to 262.8 inches per year (Giambelluca et al. 2014).

## **Land Use**

The Hawaii Land Use Commission (LUC) was established under the State Land Use Law (Chapter 205, Hawaii Revised Statutes) enacted in 1961. Prior to the LUC, the development of scattered subdivisions resulted in the loss of prime agricultural land that was being converted for residential use, while creating problems for public services trying to meet the demands of dispersed communities. The purpose of the law and the LUC is to preserve and protect Hawaii's lands while ensuring that lands are used for the purposes they are best suited. Land use is classified into four broad categories: 1) agricultural; 2) conservation; 3) rural; and 4) urban.

Land use classification is an important component of examining the benefits of protecting instream uses and the appropriateness of surface water use for noninstream uses. While some may argue that land use, in general, should be based upon the availability of surface and ground water resources, land use classification continues to serve as a valuable tool for long-range planning purposes.

As of 2014, the LUC designated 41 percent of the land in Honokowai as conservation, 50 percent as agriculture, and 9 percent as urban (State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015d). The conservation district is located in the upper part of the hydrologic unit, whereas the agricultural district lies in the middle and the urban district is in the lowest part of the hydrologic unit (Figure 2-7).

The 1996 West Maui Community Plan identified a number of urban centers for expanded development, with the intension of:

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Temperature inversion is when temperature increases with elevation.

- 1. Allocating adequate open spaces for public recreational activities, especially within urbanized areas and along the shoreline.
- 2. Slow the rate of growth and stabilize the economy
- 3. Protect natural resources and environmental stewardship
- 4. Exert control on the rate and distribution of development within the region
- 5. Encourage infill to protect agricultural and mauka open spaces

The goals and objectives within each urban center were numerous, but largely focused on providing affordable housing and job opportunities for residents with policy recommendations to preserve open spaces, limit environmental degradation, and balance rural and urban needs. The Maui County Department of Planning is currently (2019) undergoing a revision of each of the county region's community plan, using in-person and online workshops to draft an updated plan. In this update as well as the draft update to the Maui County Water Use and Development Plan (2019), the Kaanapali Region is expected to undergo expanded urbanization, particularly in the Honokowai watershed. This includes housing and commercial development in the Leali'i neighborhood as well as expanded luxury home development. Around the West Maui airport, additional residential housing is planned. Kuleana parcels indicate historic cultural uses of land. In Honokowai, there are many parcels in the gulch along the stream banks, accounting for 5.15 acres, as depicted in Figure 2-8.

## **Land Cover**

Land cover for the hydrologic unit of Honokowai is represented by two separate 30-meter Landsat satellite datasets. One of the datasets, developed by the Coastal Change Analysis Program (C-CAP), provides a general overview of the land cover types in Honokowai, e.g., forest, grassland, shrub land, with minor developed areas, cultivated areas, and bare land (Table 2-4, Figure 2-9). The second is developed by the Hawaii Gap Analysis Program (HI-GAP), which mapped the National Vegetation Classification System (NVCS) associations for each type of vegetation, creating a more comprehensive land cover dataset (Table 2-5, Figure 2-10).

**Table 2-4.** C-CAP land cover classes and area distribution in Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: National Oceanographic and Atmospheric Agency, 2015)

Land Cover	Description	Area (mi <sup>2</sup> )	Percent of Unit
Evergreen Forest	Areas where more than 67% of the trees remain green throughout the year	3.401	40.4%
Grassland	Natural and managed herbaceous cover	1.803	21.4%
Scrub/Shrub	Areas dominated by woody vegetation less than 6 meters in height	1.590	18.9%
Cultivated Crops	Areas intensely managed for the production of annual crops	0.359	4.3%
Low Intensity Developed	Constructed surface with substantial amounts of vegetated surface	0.334	4.0%
Medium Intensity Developed	Areas with a mixture of constructed materials and substantial amounts of vegetation	0.299	3.6%
Bare Land	Bare soil, gravel, or other earthen material with little or no vegetation	0.291	3.5%
High Intensity Developed	Contains significant land area covered by concrete, asphalt and other constructed materials with less than 20% vegetation	0.200	2.4%
Developed Open Space	Areas mostly managed grasses or low-lying vegetation planted for recreation, erosion control, or aesthetic purposes	0.064	0.8%
Open Water		0.059	0.7%
Palustrine Scrub/Shrub Wetland	Includes tidal and nontidal wetlands dominated by woody vegetation less than 5 meters in height, and all such wetlands that occur in tidal areas in which salinity is below 0.5%	0.007	0.1%
Palustrine Emergent Wetland	Includes tidal and nontidal wetlands dominated by persistent emergent vascular plants, mosses or lichens	0.006	0.1%

Based on the two land cover classification systems, the land cover of Honokowai consists mainly of scrub and forested areas. Over half of the hydrologic unit is made up of alien forest, grassland or shrubland. There is some native dry cliff vegetation, shrubland and sparse ohia spread throughout the upper slopes. A mixture of alien and ohia forests and uluhe shrub lands can be found at intermediate slopes. Alien grasslands and cultivated cropland cover a majority of the lower altitudes near the coast with urban or industrial developments.

The land cover maps (Figures 2-9, 2-10) provide a general representation of the land cover types in Honokowai. Given that the scale of the maps is relatively large, they may not capture the smaller cultivated lands or other vegetation occupying smaller parcels of land. Land cover types may also have changed slightly since the year when the maps were published. Community members have reported lands in Honokowai Gulch were once cultivated with dryland and wetland taro, sweet potato, banana, and papaya, long beans, and eggplant. Much of the landscape was cleared for the cultivation of pineapple or sugarcane for most of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century. Along the coast, a number of typical native and alien species have been reported. Some of those native species include ulei, naupaka kahakai, akia, lauwe, and hala.

Table 2-5. HI-GAP land cover classes and area distribution in Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: HI-GAP, 2005)

Land Cover	Area (mi²)	Percent of Unit
Cultivated Cropland	3.64	41.55%
Alien Forest	1.26	14.39%
Closed Ohia Forest	1.25	14.24%
Open Ohia Forest	0.92	10.51%
Ohia Forest	0.87	9.94%
Developed, Low Intensity	0.28	3.19%
Alien Grassland	0.16	1.86%
Alien Shrubland	0.10	1.16%
Bog Vegetation	0.08	0.92%
Very Sparse Vegetation to Unvegetated	0.05	0.62%
Developed, High Intensity	0.05	0.53%
Open Water	0.04	0.41%
Native Wet Cliff Vegetation	0.03	0.32%
Uncharacterized Forest	0.02	0.20%
Uncharacterized Open-Sparse Vegetation	0.01	0.08%
Native Shrubland / Sparse Ohia (native shrubs)	< 0.01	0.05%
Uluhe Shrubland	< 0.01	0.02%
Undefined	< 0.01	0.01%

## Flood

Floods usually occur following prolonged or heavy rainfall associated with tropical storms or hurricanes. The magnitude of a flood depends on topography, ground cover, and soil conditions. Rain falling on areas with steep slopes and soil saturated from previous rainfall events tends to produce severe floods in low-lying areas. Four types of floods exist in Hawaii. Stream or river flooding occurs when the water level in a stream rises into the flood plain. A 100-year flood refers to the probability of a given magnitude flood occuring once in a hundred years, or 1 percent chance of happening in a given year. Flash floods occur within a few hours after a rainfall event, or they can be caused by breaching of a flood safety structure such as a dam. Flash flooding is common in Hawaii because the small drainage basins often have a short response time, typically less than an hour, from peak rainfall to peak streamflow. They

are powerful and dangerous in that they can develop quickly and carry rocks, mud, and all the debris in their path down to the coast, causing water quality problems in the near-shore waters. Some floods can even trigger massive landslides, blocking off the entire stream channel. Sheet flooding occurs when runoff builds up on previously saturated ground, flowing from the high mountain slopes to the sea in a shallow sheet (Pacific Disaster Center, 2007). Coastal flooding is the inundation of coastal land areas from excessive sea level rise associated with strong winds or a tsunami.

Peak floods in Honokowai are currently monitored by USGS (1960-present) at USGS station 16630200. The 2-, 5-, 10-, 50-, and 100-year flood magnitudes in Honokowai at this station are calculated as 543, 1030, 1490, 2940, and 3790 cfs. The Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) developed maps that identify the flood-risk areas in an effort to mitigate life and property losses associated with flooding events. Based on these maps, FEMA identified most of the Honokowai hydrologic unit as flood-risk zone X, outside of the the 1% annual chance of flood. Almost none of the lands in Honokowai are designated flood zone A, with a 1% chance of flooding annually due to the size of the incised gulch which has developed over geologic time and the limited urban development. A large debris basin captures flood material (e.g., boulders, vegetation) immediately above the highway and urban development. There is a small region along the coastline in Honokowai where the flood risk is considered zone AE or VE, with the potential for shallow flooding of 1-3 feet annually or areas (Figure 2-11).

## **Drought**

Drought is generally defined as a shortage of water supply that usually results from lower than normal rainfall over an extended period of time, though it can also result from human activities that increase water demand (Giambelluca et al., 1991). The National Drought Mitigation Center (State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2005b) uses two types of drought definitions — conceptual and operational. Conceptual definitions help people understand the general concept of drought. Operational definitions describe the onset and severity of a drought, and they are helpful in planning for drought mitigation efforts. The four operational definitions of drought are meteorological, agricultural, hydrological, and socioeconomic. Meteorological drought describes the departure of rainfall from normal based on meteorological measurements and understanding of the regional climatology. Agricultural drought occurs when not enough water is available to meet the water demands of a crop. Hydrological drought refers to declining surface and ground water levels. Lastly, socioeconomic drought occurs when water shortage affects the general public.

Impacts of drought are complex and can be categorized into three sectors: water supply; agriculture and commerce; and environment, public health, and safety sectors (State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2005b). The water supply sector encompasses urban and rural drinking water systems that are affected when a drought depletes ground water supplies due to reduced recharge from rainfall or surface water due to reduced stream flow. The agriculture and commerce sector includes the reduction of crop yield and livestock sizes due to insufficient water supply for crop irrigation and maintenance of ground cover for grazing. The environmental, public health, and safety sector focuses on wildfires that are both detrimental to the forest ecosystem and hazardous to the public. It also includes the impact of desiccating streams, such as the reduction of instream habitats for native species.

Droughts have affected the islands throughout Hawaii's recorded history. The most severe events of the recent past years are associated with the El Niño phenomenon. In January 1998, the National Weather Service's network of 73 rain gauges throughout the State did not record a single above-normal rainfall, with 36 rain gauges recording less than 25 percent of normal rainfall (State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2005b). The most recent drought occurred in 2000-2002, affecting all islands, especially the southeastern end of the State.

**Table 2-6.** Drought risk areas for Maui. (Source: University of Hawaii, 2003) [Drought classifications of moderate, severe, and extreme have SPI values -1.00 to -1.49, -1.50 to -1.99, and -2.00 or less, respectively]

Sector	Drought Classification (based on 12-month SPI)		
	Moderate	Severe	Extreme
Water Supply	Kula, Kahului, Wailuku, Hana, Lahaina	Kula, Hana	Kula
Agriculture and Commerce			
Environment, Public Health and Safety	Kula	Kula	Kula

With Hawaii's limited water resources and growing water demands, droughts will continue to adversely affect the environment, economy, and the residents of the State. Aggressive planning is necessary to make wise decisions regarding the allocation of water at the present time, and conserving water resources for generations to come. The Hawaii Drought Plan was established in 2000 in an effort to mitigate the long-term effects of drought. One of the projects that supplemented the plan was a drought risk and vulnerability assessment of the State, conducted by researchers at the University of Hawaii (2003). In this project, drought risk areas were determined based on rainfall variation in relation to water source, irrigated area, ground water yield, stream density, land form, drainage condition, and land use. Fifteen years of historical rainfall data were used. The Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI) was used as the drought index because of its ability to assess a range of rainfall conditions in Hawaii. It quantifies rainfall deficit for different time periods, i.e. 3 months and 12 months. Results of the study for Maui are summarized in Table 2-6. Based on the 12-month SPI, the Kula and Hana regions have the greatest risk to drought impact on Maui because of its dependence on surface water sources, limited rainfall, or relatively high drought frequency and high population density. The growing population in the already densely populated area further stresses the water supply. The Honokowai region is vulnerable to drought in the agricultural sector and has substantial wildfire risk, but there is less risk of drought to the general population.

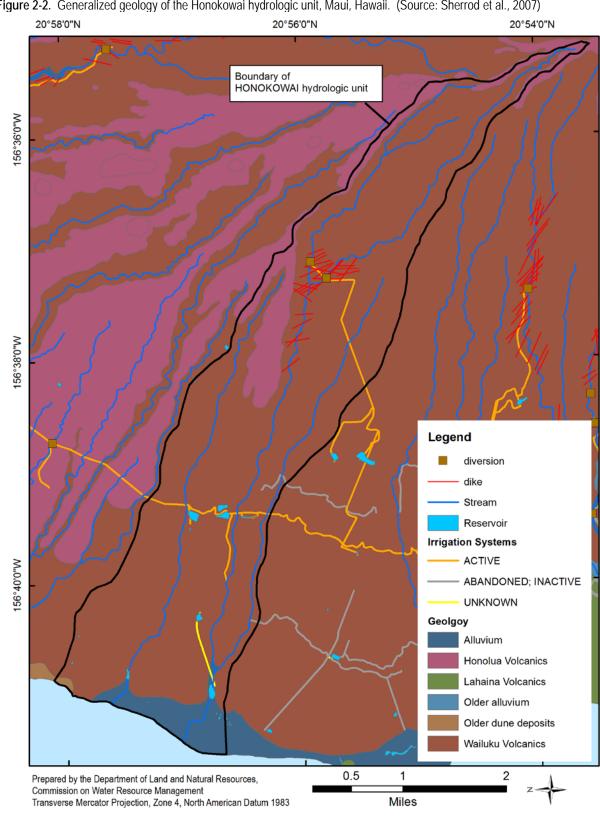
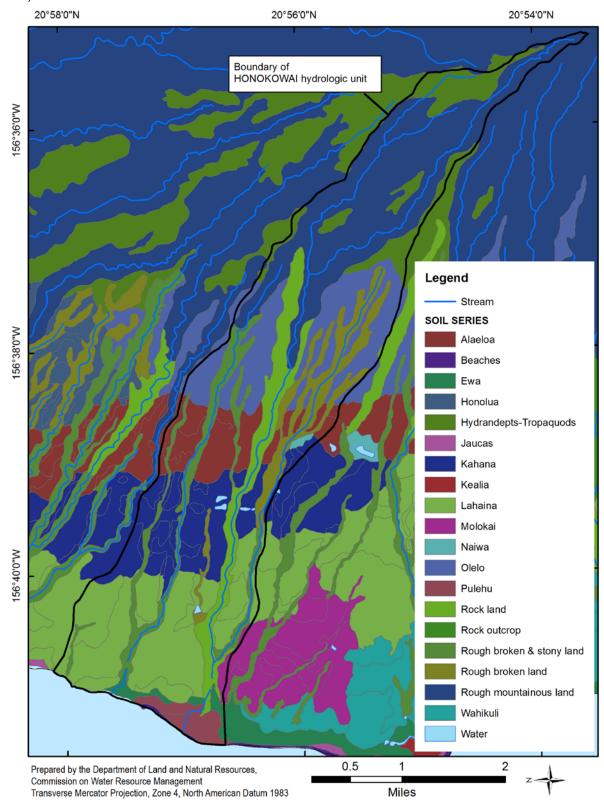


Figure 2-2. Generalized geology of the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui, Hawaii. (Source: Sherrod et al., 2007)

**Figure 2-3**. Soil classification of the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui, Hawaii. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015m)



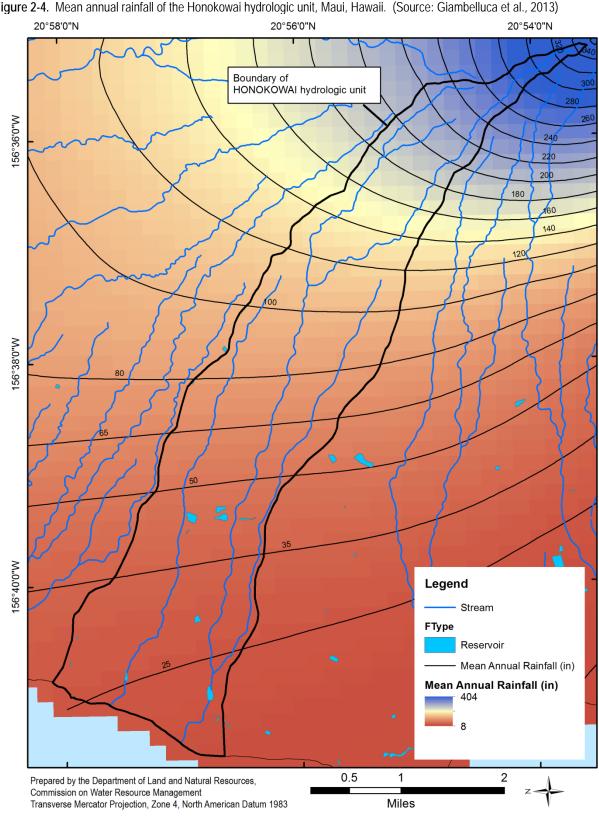
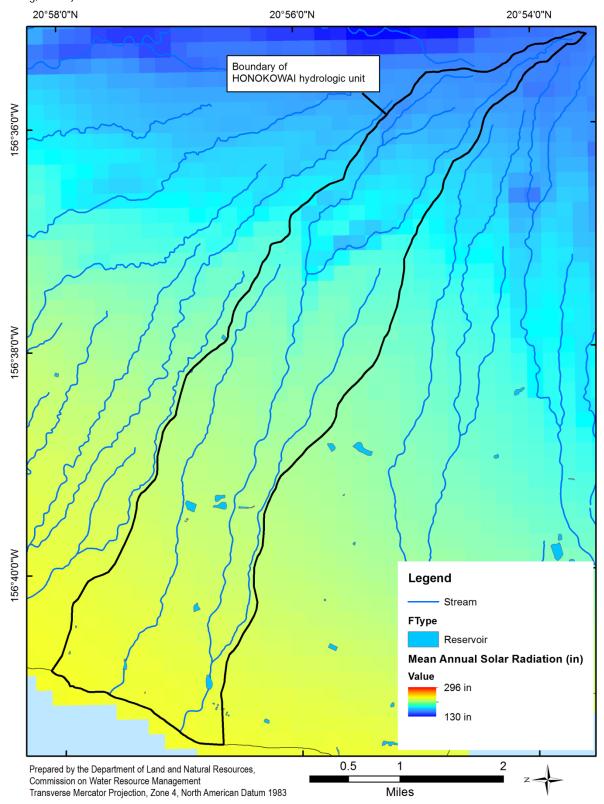
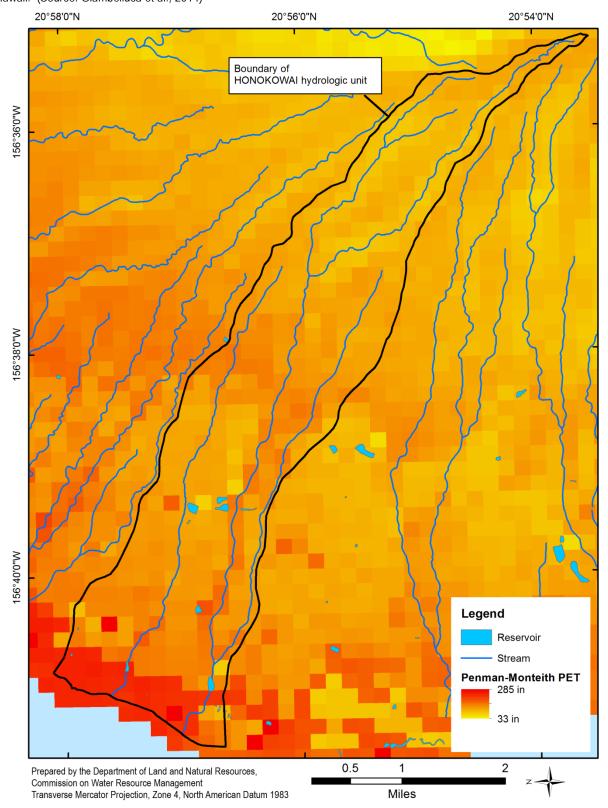


Figure 2-4. Mean annual rainfall of the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui, Hawaii. (Source: Giambelluca et al., 2013)

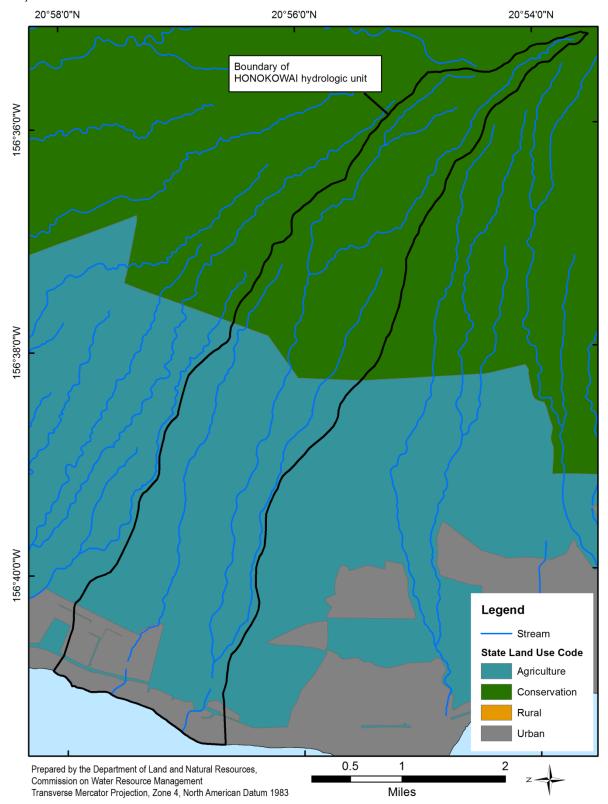
**Figure 2-5.** Mean annual solar radiation of the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui, Hawaii. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015c)



**Figure 2-6.** Mean annual potential evapotranspiration (Penman-Monteith method) of the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui, Hawaii. (Source: Giambelluca et al., 2014)



**Figure 2-7.** State land use district boundaries of the Honokowai hydrologic unit (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015d).



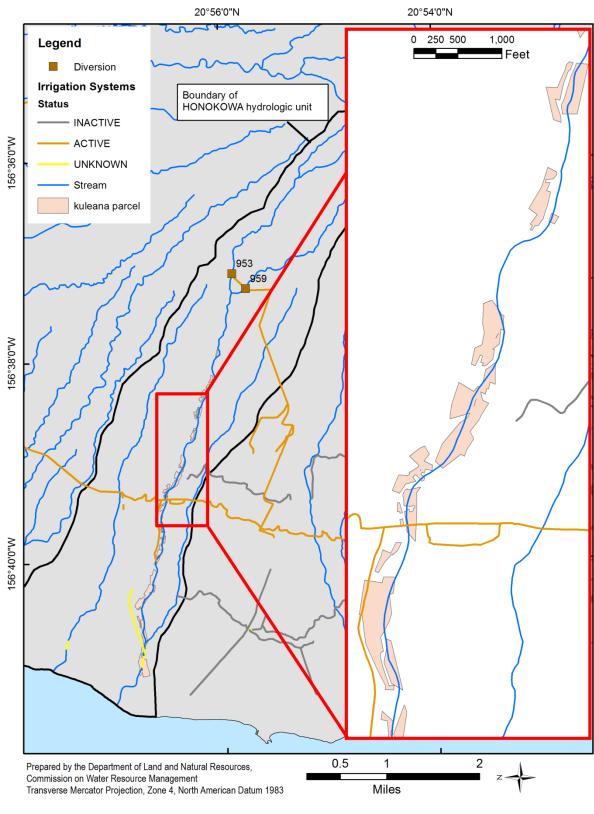


Figure 2-8. Kuleana parcels for the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: Maui County, 2018)

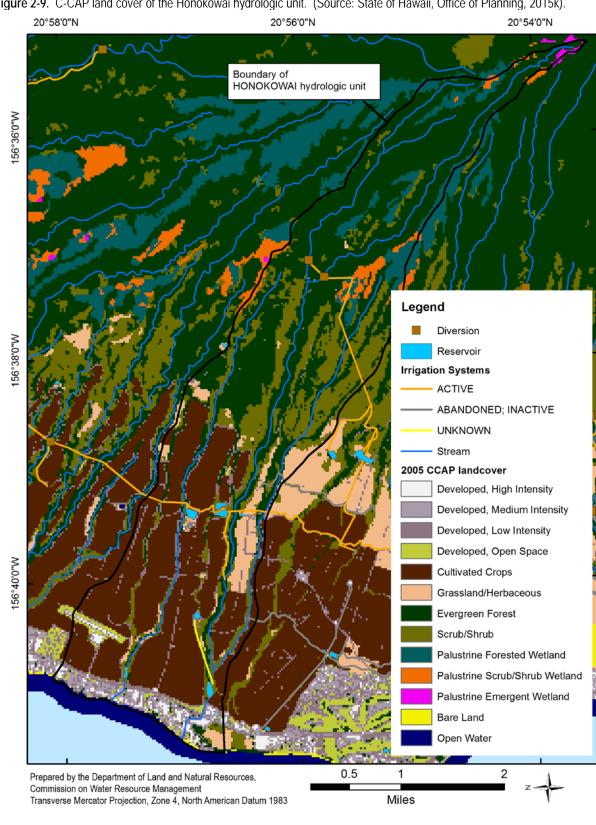
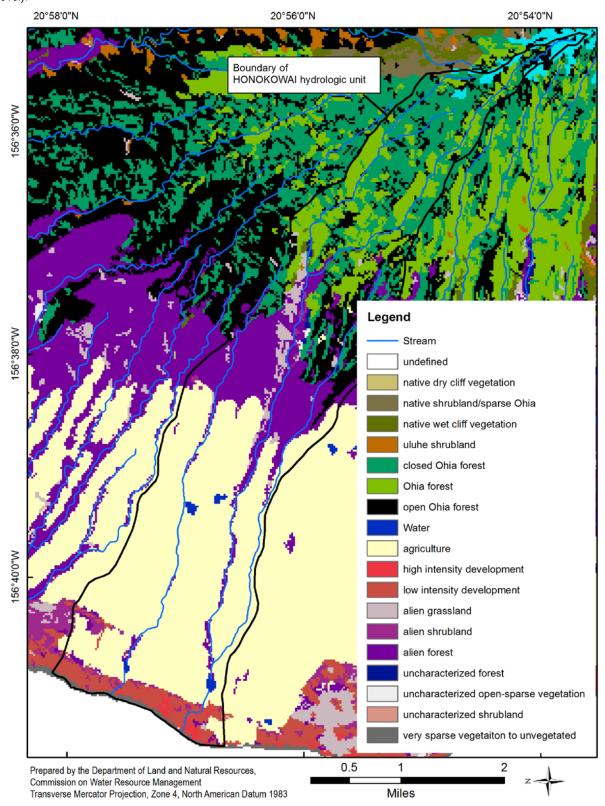


Figure 2-9. C-CAP land cover of the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015k).

**Figure 2-10**. Hawaii GAP land cover classes of the Honokowai hydrologic unit (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015f).



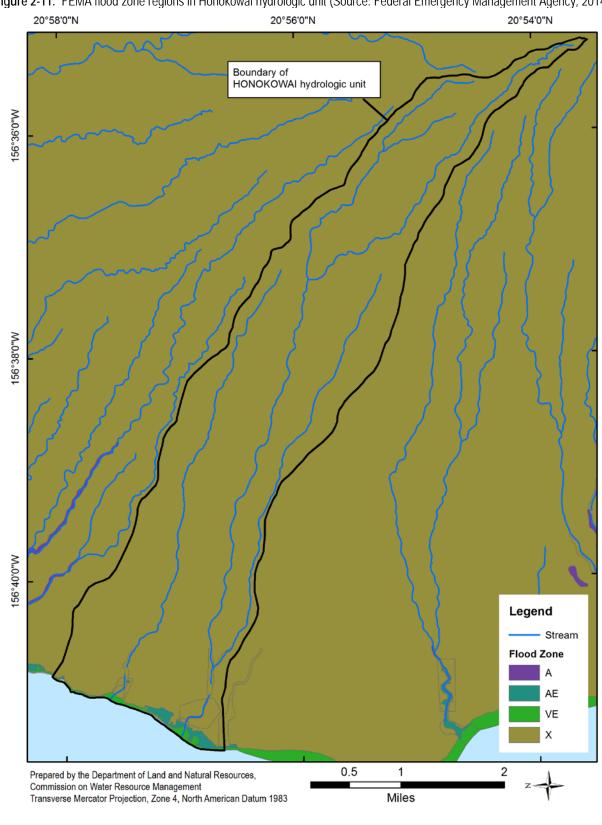


Figure 2-11. FEMA flood zone regions in Honokowai hydrologic unit (Source: Federal Emergency Management Agency, 2014).

# 3.0 Hydrology

The Commission, under the State Water Code, is tasked with establishing instream flow standards by weighing "the importance of the present or potential instream values with the importance of the present or potential uses of water for noninstream purposes, including the economic impact of restricting such uses." While the Code outlines the instream and offstream uses to be weighed, it assumes that hydrological conditions will also be weighed as part of this equation. The complexity lies in the variability of local surface water conditions that are dependent upon a wide range of factors, including rainfall, geology, and human impacts, as well as the availability of such information. The following is a summary of general hydrology and specific hydrologic characteristics for Honokowai Stream.

### Streams in Hawaii

Streamflow consists of: 1) direct surface runoff in the form of overland flow and subsurface flow that rapidly returns infiltrated water to the stream; 2) ground water discharge in the form of base flow; 3) water returned from streambank storage; 4) rain that falls directly on streams; and 5) additional water, including excess irrigation water discharged into streams by humans (Oki, 2003). The amount of runoff and ground water that contribute to total streamflow is dependent on the different components of the hydrologic cycle, as well as man-made structures such as diversions and other stream channel alterations (e.g. channelizations and dams).

Streams in Hawaii can either gain or lose water at different locations depending on the geohydrologic conditions. A stream gains water when the ground water table is above the streambed. When the water table is below the streambed, the stream can lose water. Where the streambed is lined with concrete or other low-permeability or impermeable material, interaction between surface water and ground water is unlikely. Another way that ground water influences streamflow is through springs. A spring is formed when a geologic structure (e.g., fault or fracture) or a topographic feature (e.g., side of a hill or a valley) intersects ground water either at or below the water table. It can discharge ground water onto the land surface, directly into the stream, or into the ocean. Figure 3-1 illustrates a valley that has been incised through erosion, exposing a high-level water table and resulting in ground water discharges that contribute directly to streamflow.

The USGS has maintained a variety of stream and ditch gaging stations over time, although none are currently active (Figure 3-8). These stations have improved our understanding of flood frequency and intensity (station 16630200), the flow of water in the Honokowai Ditch (station 16629000), or the flow of water in the headwaters (stations 16628000). Historic data from these stations are available in Table 3-1.

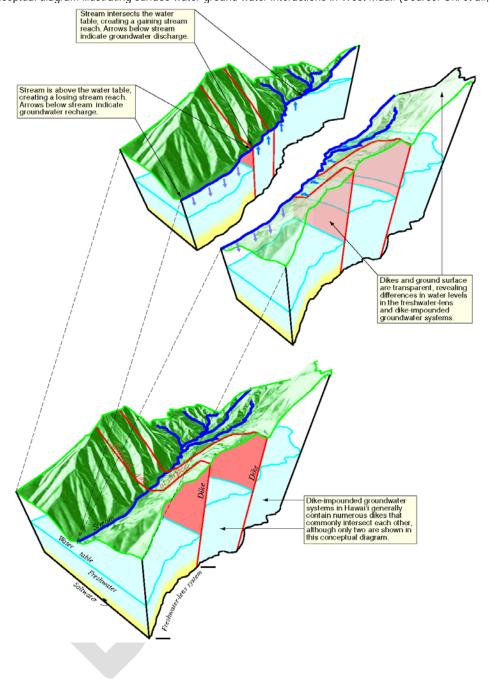


Figure 3-1. Conceptual diagram illustrating surface water-ground water interactions in West Maui. (Source: Oki et al., 2010).

**Table 3-1.** Selected flow duration discharge exceedance values for the period of record in the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui, Hawaii. (Source: USGS 2016) [Flows are in cubic feet per second (million gallons per day]

		Period of	Discharge (Q) for a selected percentage (xx) discharge was equaled or exceeded				
USGS ID	USGS station	Record	Q <sub>50</sub>	Q <sub>60</sub>	Q <sub>70</sub>	Q <sub>80</sub>	Q <sub>90</sub>
16630000	Honokowai blw confluence	1911-1917	1.1 (0.70)	0.62 (0.40)	0.46 (0.30)	0.31 (0.20)	0.08 (0.05)
16629000	Honokowai Ditch	1912-1967	6.8 (4.4)	6.2 (4.0)	5.6 (3.6)	5.0 (3.2)	4.3 (2.8)
16630200	Honokowai Stream	1961-2009	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

#### **Ground Water**

Ground water is an important component of streamflow as it constitutes the base flow of Hawaiian streams. When ground water is withdrawn from a well, the water level in the surrounding area is lowered. Nearby wetlands or ponds may shrink or even dry up if the pumping rate is sufficiently high (Gingerich and Oki, 2000). The long-term effects of ground water withdrawal can include the reduction of streamflow, which may cause a decrease in stream habitats for native species and a reduction in the amount of water available for irrigation. The interaction between surface water and ground water warrants a close look at the ground water recharge and demand within the State as well as the individual hydrologic units.

In Hawaii, ground water is replenished by recharge from rainfall, fog drip, and irrigation water that percolate through the plant root zone to the subsurface rock. Recharge can be captured in three major fresh ground water systems: 1) fresh water-lens system; 2) dike-impounded system; and 3) perched system. The fresh water-lens system provides the most important sources of ground water. It includes a lens-shaped layer of fresh water, an intermediate transition zone of brackish water, and underlying salt water. Vertically extensive fresh water-lens system can extend several hundreds or even thousands of feet below mean sea level. By contrast, a dike-impounded system is found in rift zones and caldera of a volcano where low-permeability dikes compartmentalize areas of permeable volcanic rocks, forming high-level water bodies. On Maui, dikes impound water to as high as 3,300 feet above mean sea level. A perched system is found in areas where low-permeability rocks impede the downward movement of percolated water sufficiently to allow a water body to form in the unsaturated zone above the lowest water table (Gingerich and Oki, 2000). The extent of dike-intruded area based on Stearns and Macdonald (1942) is depicted in Figure 3-2.

The hydrologic unit of Honokowai is in the Honokowai aquifer system as part of the Lahaina Aquifer Sector. A general overview of the ground water occurrence, movement, and interactions with surface water in this area is described in Oki et al. (2010) and illustrated in Figure 3-1. Ground water is found in dike-impounded structures of Honolua and Wailuku Volcanics as well as in the fresh water-lens system making up the basal aquifer. Withdrawal from wells at or below sea level should not affect the high-elevation water table because the thick unsaturated zone will prevent any significant changes in the vertical flow gradient. However, during certain hydrologic conditions, there may be surface water-ground water interactions, especially in gaining reaches.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Base flow is the water that enters a stream from persistent, slowly varying sources (such as the seepage of ground water), and maintains stream flow between water-input events (i.e., it is the flow that remains in a stream in times of little or no rainfall).

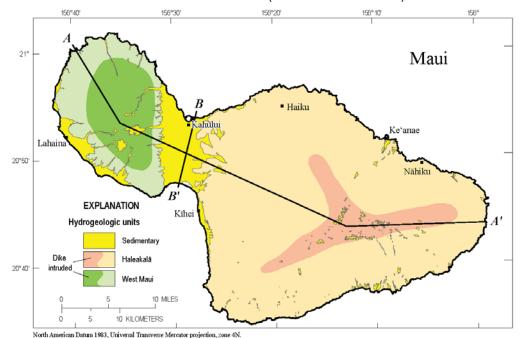


Figure 3-2. Extent of dike-intruded area for the Island of Maui. (SourceL USGS 2015-5164)

## Wells in the Honokowai Hydrologic Unit

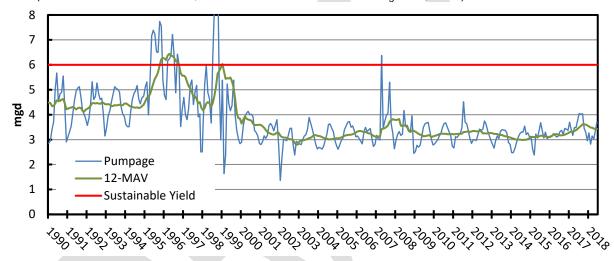
The Lahaina aquifer sector includes many aquifer systems: Honokohau, Honokowai, Launiupoko, Olowalu, and Ukumehame. The sustainable yield, 12-month moving average, and 10-year average pumping rate for each system is provided in Table 3-2. Historic records put some perspective on the current pumping rates from the Lahaina aquifer sector (Figure 3-2). Ground water withdrawals steadily increased with the expansion of plantation agriculture and urbanization. From 1918-1929, an average of 33 mgd was withdrawn from the aquifer, while from 1930-1979, withdrawals averaged 44 mgd, primarily from the Honokowai and Launiupoko aquifer systems (Gingerich and Engott, 2012). With the closure of pineapple and sugar cane plantation operations, ground water withdrawals declined to about 21 mgd from 1980 to 2000, and eventually down to 4 mgd by 2008. However, the 2017 12-month moving average for the Lahaina aquifer sector was 7.148 mgd, demonstrating an increased demand by tourism and a growing resident population (State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management 2018b).

Total reported monthly pumpage from the Honokowai aquifer system is provided in Figure 3-3. The location of wells in the hydrologic unit in relation to the aquifer sectors in Lahaina are depicted in Figure 3-3. In 2017, the 12-month moving average for existing ground water withdrawals from the Honokowai aquifer system was 3.568 mgd. This is below the aquifer sector's current sustainable yield of 6 mgd (State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2015d). This water is primarily used to meet municipal needs in the Lahaina and Kaanapali areas, servicing mainly resorts and domestic needs. Detailed information for each well is specified in Table 3-3. Total monthly pumpage from the Lahaina Aquifer Sector for Maui County Department of Water Supply and Hawaii Water Service are provided in Figure 3-4.

**Table 3-2.** Current sustainable yields for aquifer systems in the Lahaina Aquifer Sector in West Maui, current (2017) 12-month moving average (MAV) pumping, and 10-year average pumping (million gallons per day, mgd).

Sector	Sustainable Yield (mgd)	12-month MAV (mgd)	10-year average (mgd)
Ukumehame	2.0	0.043	0.030
Olowalu	2.0	0.104	0.064
Launiupoko	7.0	0.864	0.679
Honokōwai	6.0	3.568	3.288
Honolua	8.0	2.561	2.448
Honokōhau	9.0	0.000	0.000

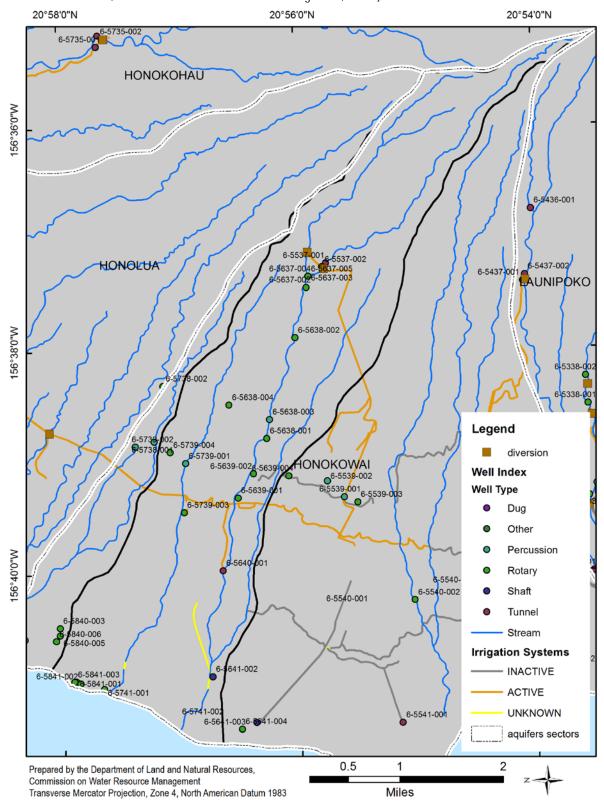
**Figure 3-3.** Monthly reported pumpage, 12-month moving average (12-MAV) and sustainable yield for the Honokowai Aquifer sector. (Source: Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2018b).



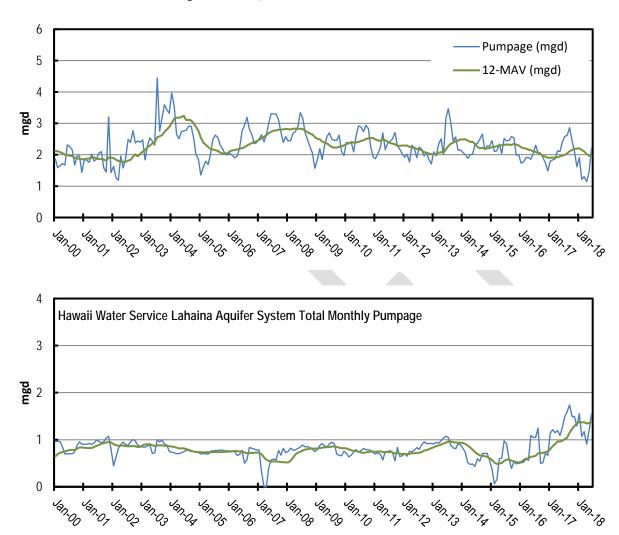
The service area supported by Hawaii Water Service includes Kaanapali resort area as well as private homes and condos in resort development region (Figure 3-6). Hawaii Water Service also meets the potable water demands of the luxury homes developed by Kaanapali Land Company in Honokowai.

A majority of the reported ground water use is for municipal use and irrigation of landscaping. Many of the wells have been discontinued due to the reduced demand for water from agriculture (Table 3-3). Many test holes were drilled by Pioneer Mill Company in the 1960s, exporing the possibility of greater high elevation ground water development. Only Well 5637-005, drilled in 1965 at an elevation of 1450 feet just below the confluence of Amalu and Kapaloa streams, was successful at producing water. The well is 12 inches in diameter and drilled to a depth of 165 feet to supply irrigation water to Pioneer Mill Company to meet the increasing water demands of sugarcane cultivation. During the pump test (950 gpm for 4 days), the drawdown curve indicated discontinuities representing numerous poorly permeable boundaries relatively close to the well, likely the result of dike formations, but no interactions with the stream (Figure 3-7). While test results suggested a sustained rate of at least 700 gpm, a larger pump was installed, but yielding only 300-400 gpm (0.432 - 0.576 mgd).

**Figure 3-4.** Well locations and numbers in and nearby the Honokowai hydrologic unit, in the Honokowai aquifer sector, Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2018b).



**Figure 3-5.** Total monthly pumpage (million gallons per day, mgd) from the Lahaina Aquifer Sector for (top) Maui County Department of Water Supply (public) and (bottom) Hawaii Water Service (private), West Maui. (source: State of Hawaii Commission on Water Resource Management, 2018b)



During fieldwork on July 15, 2019, flow from Honokowai Tunnel 1 (West Maui Tunnel 20-A; well number 5537-001) was 3.92 cfs (2.54 mgd) and from Honokowai Tunnel 2 (West Maui Tunnel 20-C; well number 5537-002) was <0.5 cfs (<0.3 mgd). Based on total ditch flow on this date, flow from Honokowai Tunnel 3 (West Maui Tunnel 20-B) was 1.89 cfs (1.21 mgd). The location of development tunnels in relation to the stream and identified dike structures is provided in Figure 3-8.

**Table 3-3.** Information of wells located in Honokowai hydrologic unit (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2015d).

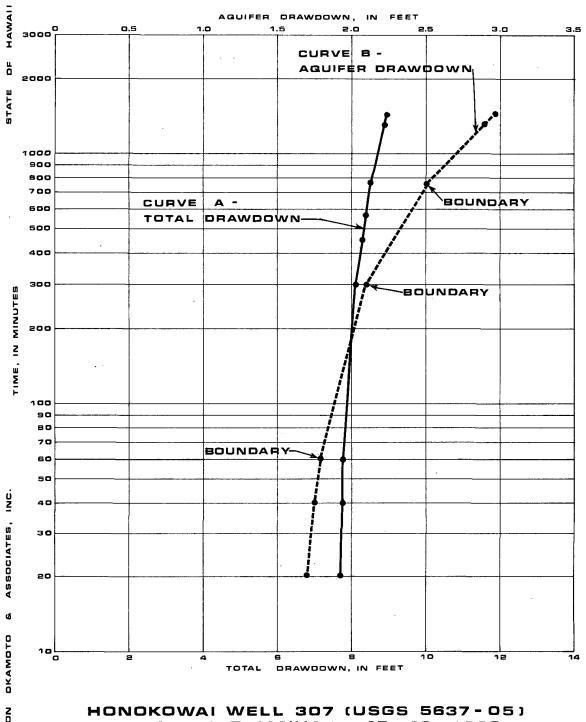
[Negative elevation values indicate feet below mean sea level; positive elevation values indicate feet above mean sea level. Pump rate measured in gallons per minute (gpm); -- indicates value is unknown; KLM = Kaanapali Land Management Corp; HWS = Hawaii Water Service

Co, Inc.; WML = West Maui Land Co, Inc.; VSE = Vistana Signature Experiences, VSE Pacific Inc.]

Well number	Well Name	Well Owner	Year drilled	Ground elevation (feet)	Well depth (feet)	Pump elevation (feet)	Pump depth (feet)	Pump rate (mgd)	Average 2018 (mgd)
5439-001	Wahikuli 1	WML	1992	1055	1115				
5440-001	Wahikuli Irrigation	JN Construction	1993	148	162				0.021
5441-002	Lahaina Civic Center	Water Controls							
5537-001	Honokowai Tunnel 1	Pioneer Mill Co.		1700	1250				2.00
5537-002	Honokowai Tunnel 2	Pioneer Mill Co		1600	1050				0.50
5539-001	Kaanapali P-1	HWS	1990	924	985	-42	966	0.576	0.362
5539-002	Kaanapali P-2	HWS	1991	927	990	-23	950	0.720	0.278
5540-001	Puukolii	KLM	1968	444	472				0.004
5540-002	Hahakea 1	HWS	1971	450					0.000
5540-003	Hahakea 2	KLM	1971	504	524				0.196
5541-001	Hahakea Pump G	KLM	1923	14	12				SHF
5637-001	Honokowai TH 1	AMFAC	1964	1450	170				OBS
5637-002	Honokowai TH 2	AMFAC	1964	1350	301				OBS
5637-003	Honokowai TH 3	AMFAC	1964	1275	175				OBS
5637-004	Honokowai	AMFAC	1964	1450	90				OBS
5637-005	Honokowai A	Pioneer Mill Co.	1965	1450	165			1.728	0.000
5638-001	Honokowai TH 6	AMFAC	1966	776	252				OBS
5638-002	Honokowai TH 7	AMFAC	1966	1169	314				OBS
5638-003	Hoonokowai B	HWS	1976	852	895			1.290	0.000
5639-001	Honokowai TH 5	AMFAC		560	580				OBS
5639-002	Honokowai TH 8	AMFAC		652	671				OBS
5640-001	Honokowai Pump R	KLM	1952	300					SHF
5641-001	Kaanapali Pump D	KLM	1897	27	28				SHF
5641-002	Honokowai Pump F	Pioneer Mill Co.	1921	65	65			5.000	SHF
5641-003	KOR Lot 3 saltwater	VSE	2016	11.9	300	-20	32	3.456	1.649
5641-004	KOR Lot 3 saltwater backup	VSE	2016	11.9	300	-20	32	3.456	0.152
5738-001	Kaanapali P-5	HWS	1982	934	985	-41	975	1.296	1.110
5738-002	Kahana	Maui Co DWS	2017	1317	1378				0.000
5739-001	Kaanapali P-4	HWS	1982	868	922	-27	895	1.008	0.247
5739-002	Kaanapali P-6	HWS	1982	945	992	-12	957	1.498	0.246
5739-003	Mahinahina Deep Monitor	CWRM	2001	664	1268				OBS
5739-004	Kaanapali P-5A	HWS	2009	912	952	-14	926	0.648	0.248



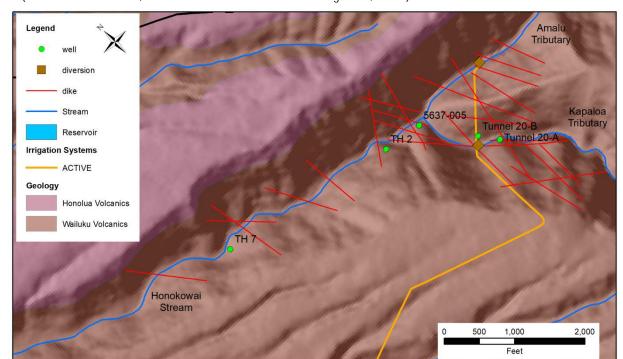
**Figure 3-7.** Measured drawndown during the pump test for Well 5637-005 at 1450 ft elevation in the Honokowai Aquifer sector. (Source: Division of Water and Land Development, 1977).



PUMP TEST JANUARY 15 - 16, 1966

AVERAGE RATE: 950 GPM

FIG. E-1



**Figure 3-8**. Location of development tunnels, wells, and dike strucutures near the Honokowai Ditch in the Honokowai hydrologic unit (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2015d).

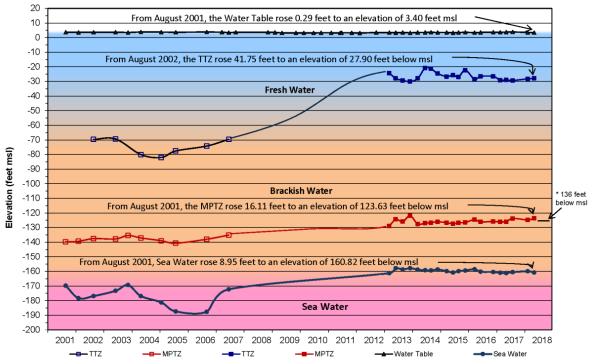
# **Ground water Pumping and Salinity Levels**

Of growing concern is the impact of increased ground water pumpage on ground water salinity. As pumpage draws down the less dense freshwater lense, brachish ground water from the transition zone will mix, increasing the salinity (and thus chloride content) of the freshwater lense. Freshwater is water with a chloride content of less that 250 parts per million (ppm), or 1.3% of the chloride content of seawater. Hydrologists with the USGS and CWRM monitor the elevation of the freshwater lense, the transition zone to brachish water, and the elevation of sea water in deep monitoring wells across the state. In West Maui, the Mahinahina Deep Monitoring Well has been an important tool for monitoring ground water conditions in the Honokowai Aquifer sector for many years (Figure 3-9). In areas of the aquifer that have a thin freshwater lense, the impact of over pumping of ground water on salinity levels can be immediately apparent (Figure 3-10). Thus, even if current pumpage does not reach the aquifer's sustainable yield, pumpage can negatively impact the future use of the aquifer.

Figure 3-9. Elevation to freshwater lense, brackish water transition and sea water in the Mahinahina Deep Monitoring Well, Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2018a).

#### Mahinahina Deep Monitor Well, Maui (6-5739-003)

# Fluctuations in the Water Table, Top of Transition Zone (TTZ), and Midpoint of Transition Zone (MPTZ) from August 2001 through May 2018



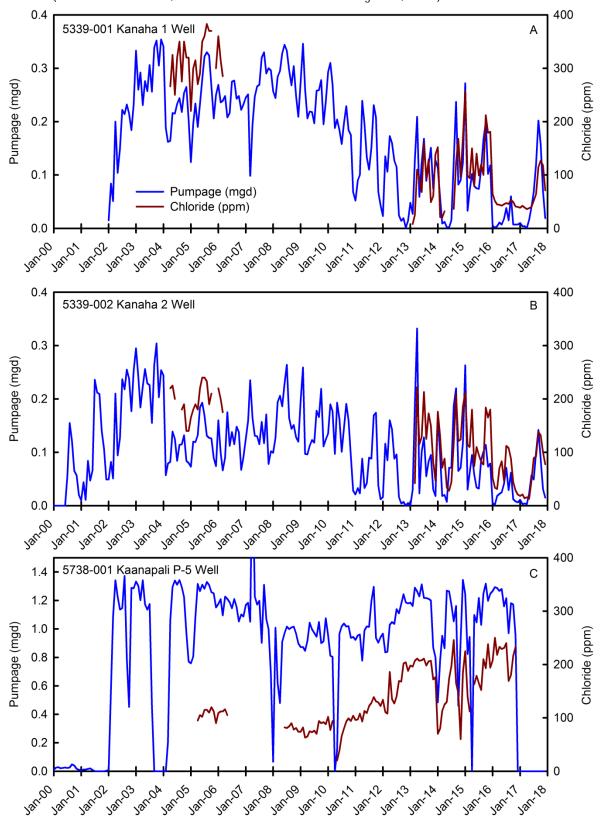
Notes: : (1) TTZ = 1,000 µS/cm (~ 220 mg/L C1); MPTZ = 25,000 µS/cm (~ 8,500 mg/L C1) (2) Fresh Water < 220 mg/L C1. Brackish Water 220 mg/L C1. To 16,999 mg/L C1. Water >= 17,000 mg/L C1. (3) OS 421/425 = Ocean Sensors CTD (absolute conductivity); (4) RBR 12895 = RBR Global CTD (Specific Conductivity); (5) msl = mean sea level. Conditions inside the well prevented successful CTD deployment from 2006 through 2012, CTD profiling of this well was resumed 3-13-2013.

#### **Streamflow Characteristics**

Natural streamflow conditions have never been monitored continuously in Honokowai. Regulated stream flow below the confluence of the two tributaries below the diversions was monitored by the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) from 1911 to 1917 for Honokowai Stream (station #16630000). Historic regulated streamflow characteristics are provided in Table 3-1. Peak streamflows were monitored by the USGS from 1961 to 2009 at the downstream location (station #16630200) as depicted in Figure 3-11. A development tunnel accesses dike-impounded ground water that provides continuous flow in the upper reaches of the Kapaloa stream while below the confluence with Amalu Stream streamflow is lost, contributing to ground water recharge (Figure 3-9). The closest long-term continuous stream flow monitoring stations maintained by the USGS are on Honokohau Stream (station #16620000) and Wailuku River (station #16604500). From 2012 to 2013, a low-flow partial record gaging stations were established at stations upstream of each diversion and the combined natural-flow duration discharges were estimated for the current period (1984-2013) as provided in Table 3-4. Differences in discharges between historic and current periods are due to differences in climate from differing years of record.

<sup>\*</sup> Since the year 2001, the MPTZ rose 16.11 feet, to an elevation of 123.63 feet below mean sea level, where it is near the calculated Ghyben-Herzberg equilibrium elevation of

**Figure 3-10**. Monthly ground water pumpage and chloride concentration from two municipal (A & B) and one private (C) well in West Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2018b).



**Table 3-4.** Selected natural-flow duration exceedance values for the current (1984-2013) climate period based on the combined partial record gaging stations for the two tributaries (Amalu and Kapaloa) in the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui, Hawaii (top). Flow duration exceedance values plus Tunnel 20-B discharge (bottom) (Source: Cheng 2014) [Flows are in cubic feet per second (million gallons per day]

	Discharge (Q) for a selected percentage (xx) discharge was equaled or exceeded				
Stream	Q <sub>50</sub>	Q <sub>60</sub>	Q <sub>70</sub>	Q <sub>80</sub>	Q <sub>90</sub>
Honokowai	5.4 (3.49)	4.9 (3.17)	4.5 (2.91)	4.3 (2.78)	4.1 (2.65)
Honokowai +Tunnel 20-B	7.2 (4.70)	6.8 (4.39)	6.4 (4.12)	6.2 (3.99)	6.0 (3.86)

USGS measured flow at each tributary 14 times during low-flow periods, with the mean flow of 0.48 mgd in Amalu Stream and a mean flow of 4.30 mgd in Kapaloa Stream. The relative contribution of Amalu Stream to the total flow varied when compared to flow at the Honokohau Index Station at USGS 16620000 (Figure 3-13).

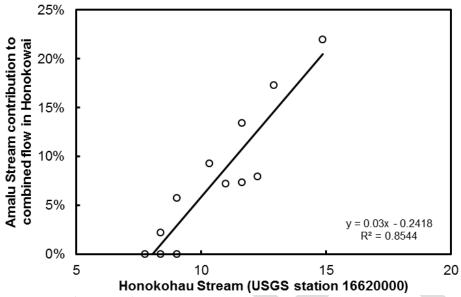
Amalu and Kapaloa streams are gaining in the uppermost reaches in the watershed, but the reach below their confluence, from about 1,500 ft in elevation to the ocean, is a losing reach (Figure 3-14). Using seepage runs, USGS estimated seepage loss below the Kapaloa Stream to the 1,360 feet elevation to be between 0.14 and 0.17 cubic feet per second per mile (0.09 and 0.11 million gallons per day per mile). However, it is not expected that this loss rate would continue for the entirety of the stream channel. There is approximately 2.35 miles between diversion 959 on Kapaloa Stream and the loi complex at 650 feet in elevation. Based on estimated seepage loss rates at various elevations in the Wailuku Basalt geologic of West Maui, seepage loss increases with decreasing elevation (Figure 3-12). There is an estimated loss of 1.1 cubic feet per second (0.71 million gallons per day) in stream flow between the diversion and the loi complex at 650 ft elevation resulting in an estimated natural Q<sub>50</sub> of 6.1 cubic feet per second (4.0 million gallons per day), with an estimated median flow of about 2.82 cubic feet per second (1.82 million gallons per day) making it to the debris basin at the 50 ft elevation. Based on these estimates, during natural flow conditions, about 10 percent of the time  $(O_{90})$  there would be less than 2.27 cubic feet per second (1.47) million gallons per day) at the loi complex. Lost streamflow recharges the ground water system. USGS estimated that Honokowai Stream would flow continuously to the ocean less than 50% of the time based on observations of a dry streambed at 880 feet elevation during a Q<sub>55</sub> flow at Honokohau Stream in 2009 (USGS 2015-5164); however, this estimate was based on highly varied flow conditions and may not be representative.

As part of an effort to improve flood modeling with the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers and to improve hydrological monitoring, CWRM staff installed a continuous monitoring station of Honokowai Stream at an elevation of 1,450 feet, below the confluence of the two tributaries (regulated flow). Staff then began taking point measurements of stream flow (Table 3-5). Based on mean daily flow at station 6-124, current (2017-2019) regulated flow duration discharge estimates are provided in Table 3-6.

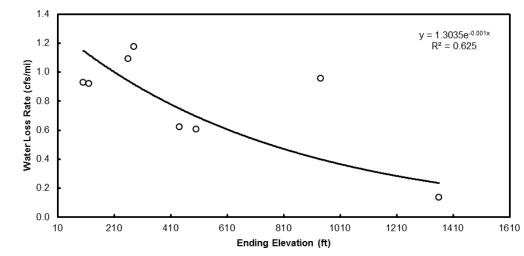
**Table 3-5.** Discharge measurements at gage 6-124 and on Honokowai Stream. (Source: CWRM) [Flows are in cubic feet per second (million gallons per day]

date	time	discharge	date	time	discharge
10/2/2017	10:15	0.004 (0.003)	4/24/2018	16:06	94.0 (60.8)
10/26/2017	14:00	4.87 (3.15)	11/15/2018	11:15	0.22 (0.14)
10/26/2017	15:18	4.65 (3.00)	2/11/2019	14:06	2.90 (1.87)
12/12/2017	15:54	0.39 (0.25)	3/25/2019	11:31	10.6 (6.80)
1/31/2018	14:04	0.26 (0.17)	7/15/2019	14:54	0.10 (0.07)

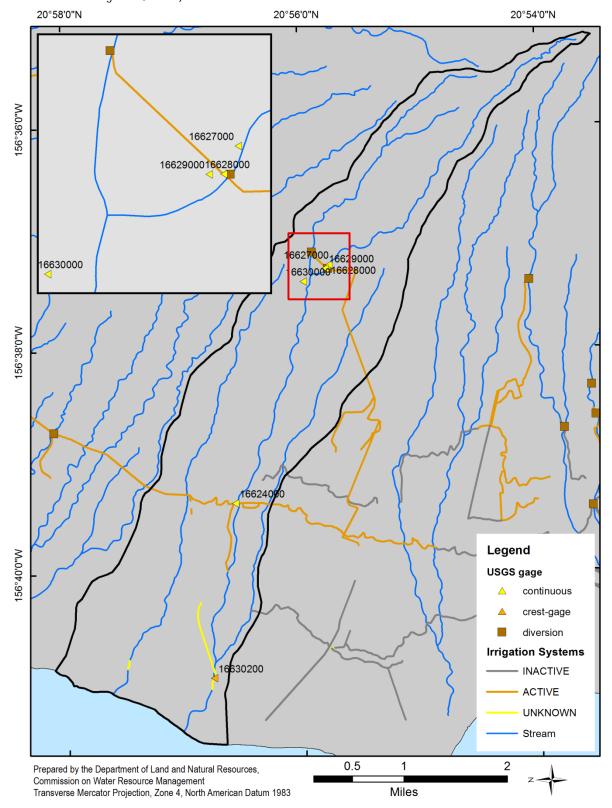
**Figure 3-11**. Percent contribution of Amalu Stream to total flow in Honokowai versus mean daily flow for Honokohau Stream at USGS 16620000. (Source: USGS 2014-5087).



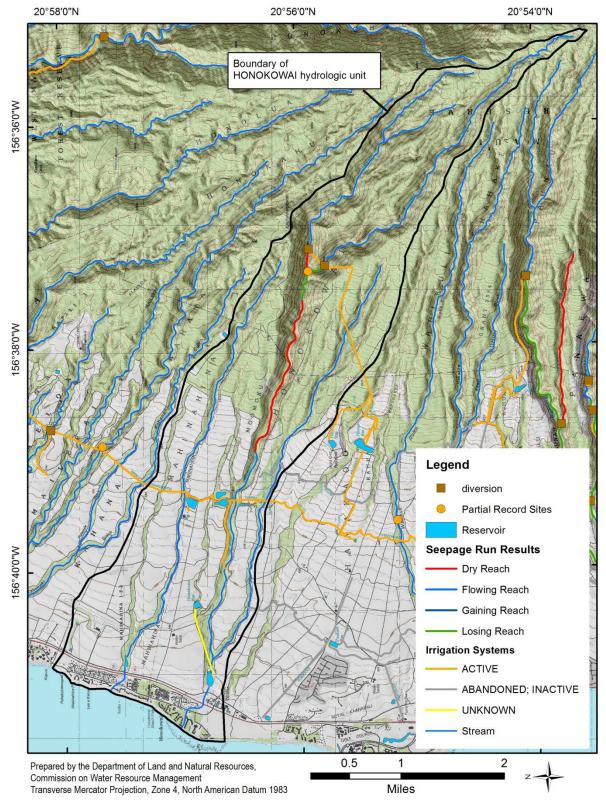
**Figure 3-12**. Seepage loss rate (cfs per mile) versus ending elevation for various seepage runs conducted in Wailuku Basalt geologic formations from 2012 to 2013 in West Maui. (Source: Cheng, 2014).



**Figure 3-13**. Ditches, diversions and gaging stations of the Honokowai hydrologic unit (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2015a).



**Figure 3-14**. Seepage run results and location of combined flow data from partial record gaging stations of the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2015a; Cheng, 2014).



**Table 3-6.** Low-flow duration discharge statistics for regulated flow at CWRM gage 6-124 on Honokowai Stream blw Confluence of Amalu and Kapaloa streams.

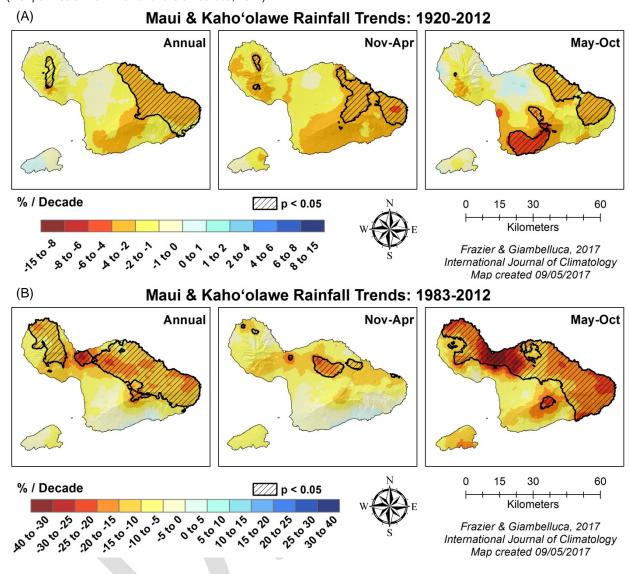
	Discharge (Q) for a selected percentage (xx) discharge was equaled or exceeded				
Stream	Q <sub>50</sub>	Q <sub>60</sub>	Q <sub>70</sub>	$Q_{80}$	Q <sub>90</sub>
Honokowai blw confluence	0.38 (0.24)	0.21 (0.14)	0.15 (0.10)	0.11 (0.07)	0.04 (0.03)

### Long-term trends in flow

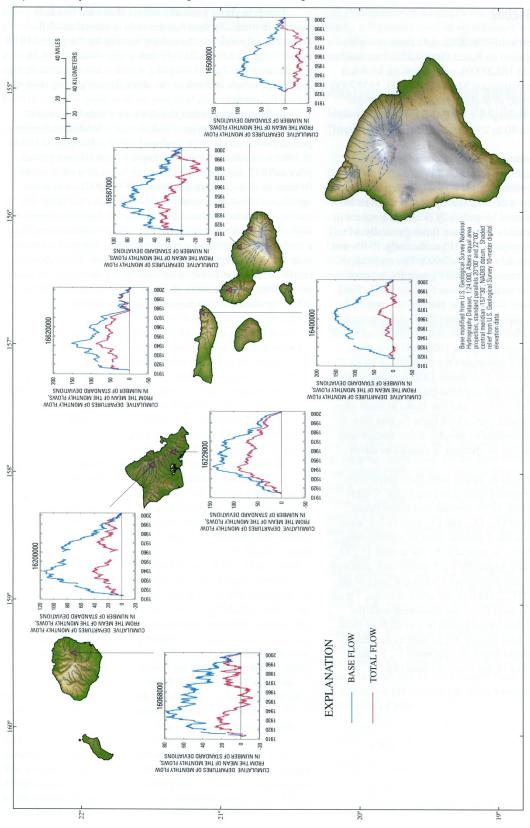
The climate has profound influences on the hydrologic cycle and in the Hawaiian Islands, shifting climate patterns have resulted in an overall decline in rainfall and streamflow. Rainfall trends are driven by large-scale oceanic and atmospheric global circulation patterns including large-scale modes of natural variability such as the El Nino Southern Oscillation and the Pacific Decadal Oscillation, as well as more localized temperature, moisture, and wind patterns (Frazier and Giambelluca, 2017; Frazier et al, 2018). Using monthly rainfall maps, Frazier and Giambelluca (2017) identified regions that have experienced significant (p<0.05) long-term decline in annual, dry season, and wet season rainfall from 1920 to 2012 and from 1983 to 2012. In West Maui, there is a substantial area that has experienced a significant decline in annual and dry season rainfall (Figure 3-15).

The USGS examined the long-term trends and variations in streamflow on the islands of Hawaii, Maui, Molokai, Oahu, and Kauai, where long-term stream gaging stations exist (Oki, 2004). The study analyzed both total flow and estimated base flow at 16 long-term gaging stations. Figure 3-16 illustrates the results of the study for 7 long-term gaging stations around the islands. According to the analyses, low flows generally decreased from 1913 to 2002, which is consistent with the long-term downward trends in rainfall observed throughout the islands during that period. Monthly mean base flows decreased from the early 1940s to 2002, which is consistent with the measured downward trend of low flows from 1913 to 2002. This long-term downward trend in base flow may imply a reduction of ground water contribution to streams. At a nearby gaging station on Honokohau Stream, which has been active almost continuously from 1917 to present day, trends in mean annual flow provide some context for the long-term decline in rainfall (Figure 3-16). Changing streamflow characteristics could pose a negative effect on the availability of drinking water for human consumption and habitat for native stream fauna (Oki, 2004).

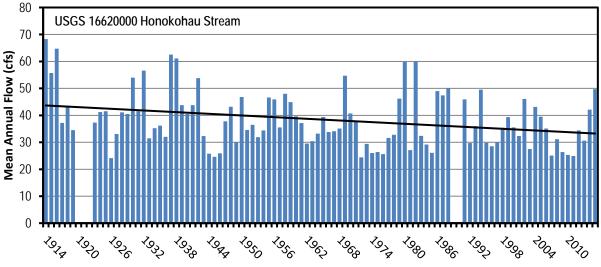
**Figure 3-15.** Annual, wet season (Nov-Apr) and dry season (May-Oct) rainfall trends for the 1920-2012 (A) and 1983-2012 (B) periods, Maui. Hashed line areas represent significant trend over the period. (with permission from Frazier and Giambelluca, 2017)



**Figure 3-16.** Cumulative departures of monthly mean flow from the mean of the monthly flows, Hawaii. This data is based on complete water years from 1913 through 2002. (Oki, 2004, Figure 4)



**Figure 3-17**. Mean annual flow (cubic feet per second, cfs) at USGS station 16620000 on Honokohau Stream, Maui. Line represents linear regression trend over the period of record.



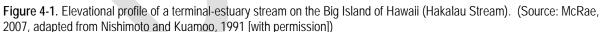
### 4.0 Maintenance of Fish and Wildlife Habitat

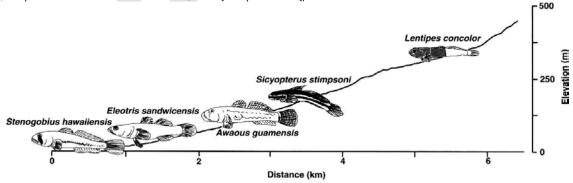
When people in Hawaii consider the protection of instream flows for the maintenance of fish habitat, their thoughts generally focus on just a handful of native species including five native fishes (four gobies and one eleotrid), two snails, one shrimp, and one prawn. Table 4-1 below identifies commonly mentioned native stream animals of Hawaii.

**Table 4-1.** List of commonly mentioned native stream organisms. (Source: State of Hawaii, Division of Aquatic Resources, 1993)

Scientific Name	Hawaiian Name	Туре
Awaous guamensis	'O'opu nakea	Goby
Lentipes concolor	'O'opu hi'ukole (alamo'o)	Goby
Sicyopterus stimpsoni	'O'opu nopili	Goby
Stenogobius hawaiiensis	'O'opu naniha	Goby
Eleotris sandwicensis	'O'opu akupa (okuhe)	Eleotrid
Atyoida bisulcata	'Opae kala'ole	Shrimp
Macrobrachium grandimanus	'Opae 'oeha'a	Prawn
Neritina granosa	Hihiwai	Snail
Neritina vespertina	Hapawai	Snail

Hawaii's native stream animals have amphidromous life cycles (Ego, 1956) meaning that they spend their larval stages in the ocean (salt water), then return to freshwater streams to spend their adult stage and reproduce. Newly hatched fish larvae are carried downstream to the ocean where they become part of the planktonic pool in the open ocean. The larvae remain at sea from a few weeks to a few months, eventually migrating back into a fresh water stream as juvenile *hinana*, or postlarvae (Radtke et al., 1988). Once back in the stream, the distribution of the five native fish species are largely dictated by their climbing ability (Nishimoto and Kuamoo, 1991) along the stream's longitudinal gradient. This ability to climb is made possible by a fused pelvic fin which forms a suction disk. *Eleotris sandwicensis* lacks fused pelvic fins and is mostly found in lower stream reaches. *Stenogobius hawaiiensis* has fused pelvic fins, but lacks the musculature necessary for climbing (Nishimoto and Kuamoo, 1997). *Awaous stamineus* and *Sicyopterus stimpsoni* are able to ascend moderately high waterfalls (less than ~20 meters) (Fitzsimons and Nishimoto, 1990), while *Lentipes concolor* has the greatest climbing ability and has been observed at elevations higher than 3,000 feet (Fitzsimons and Nishimoto, 1990) and above waterfalls more than 900 feet in vertical height (Englund and Filbert, 1997). Figure 4-1 illustrates the elevational profile of these native fresh water fishes.





The maintenance, or restoration, of stream habitat requires an understanding of and the relationships among the various components that impact fish and wildlife habitat, and ultimately, the overall viability of a desired set of species. These components include, but are not limited to, species distribution and diversity, species abundance, predation and competition among native species, similar impacts by alien species, obstacles to migration, water quality, and streamflow. The Commission does not intend to delve into the biological complexities of Hawaiian streams, but rather to present basic evidence that conveys the general health of the subject stream. The biological aspects of Hawaii's streams have an extensive history, and there is a wealth of knowledge, which continues to grow and improve.

### **Hawaii Stream Assessment**

One of the earliest statewide stream assessments was undertaken by the Commission in cooperation with the National Park Service's Hawaii Cooperative Park Service Unit. The 1990 Hawaii Stream Assessment (HSA) brought together a wide range of stakeholders to research and evaluate numerous stream-related attributes (e.g., hydrology, diversions, gaging, channelizations, hydroelectric uses, special areas, etc.). The HSA specifically focused on the inventory and assessment of four resource categories: 1) aquatic; 2) riparian; 3) cultural; and 4) recreational. Though no field work was conducted in its preparation, the HSA involved considerable research and analysis of existing studies and reports. The data were evaluated according to predefined criteria and each stream received one of five ranks (outstanding, substantial, moderate, limited, and unknown). Based on the stream rankings, the HSA offered six different approaches to identifying candidate streams for protection: streams with outstanding resources (aquatic, riparian, cultural or recreational), streams with diverse or "blue ribbon" resources, streams with high quality natural resources, streams within aquatic resource districts, free flowing streams, or streams within the National Wild and Scenic Rivers database.

Due to the broad scope of the HSA inventory and assessment, it continues to provide a valuable information base for the Commission's Stream Protection and Management Program and will continue to be referred to in various sections throughout this report. The HSA recommended that the Honokowai hydrologic unit streams not be listed as candidate streams for protection based on its riparian, aquatic, cultural and recreational resources. At the time of the assessment, only zero of four group one native species had been observed in Honokowai Stream. Additionally, only one group two native species (*Atyoida bisulcata*) had been observed in the stream. While the Honokowai Stream provided habitat to a number of native species pre-contact, due to significant land degradation from non-native species and the continual reduction in downstream flows by surface water diversions at high elevations, native species do not inhabit the stream.

The HSA inventory was general in nature, resulting in major data gaps, especially those related to the distribution and abundance of aquatic organisms – native and introduced – inhabiting the streams. The State of Hawaii Division of Aquatic Resources (DAR) has since continued to expand the knowledge of aquatic biota in Hawaiian streams. Products from their efforts include the compilation and publication of an *Atlas of Hawaiian Watersheds and Their Aquatic Resources* for each of five major islands in the state (Kauai, Hawaii, Oahu, Molokai, and Maui). Each atlas describes watershed and stream features, distribution and abundance of stream animals and insect species, and stream habitat use and availability. Based on these data, a watershed and biological rating is assigned to each stream to allow easy comparison with other streams on the same island and across the state. The data presented in the atlases are collected from various sources, and much of the stream biota data are from stream surveys conducted by DAR. Currently, efforts have been focused on updating the atlases with more recent stream survey data collected statewide, and developing up-to-date reports for Commission use in interim IFS recommendations. A copy of the updated inventory report for Honokowai Stream is in Appendix A. The following is a brief summary of findings.

- Visual Stream Surveys. In Honokowai Stream, only two stream surveys were conducted in 1963, likely due to the lack of stream flow below the diversion and lack of access above the diversion. Although the post larval recruitment of native fish was not surveyed, diversions that fully dewater streams restrict the passage of larval and adult stream animals.
- Insect Survey. Honokowai Stream did not meet the DAR qualification for native insect diversity (>19 spp) and native macrofauna diversity (>5 spp.) giving it a low score for native species, likely due to a lack of streamflow. However, Honokowai Stream supports native damselflies (Megalagrion spp.) in the upper stream reaches and headwaters. Anax strenuous, Megalagrion blackburni, Megalagrion calliphya, Megalagrion hawaiiense, and Megalagrion nigrohamatum are all present in the upper stream reaches and/or headwaters. Some native damselflies are currently proposed for listing as Endangered under the federal Endangered Species Act. Streamflow restoration may increase insect biota diversity.
- Watershed and Biological Rating. The Honokowai watershed has an average rating for Maui and an average rating statewide for land cover. The lack of estuarine and shallow marine areas associated with Honokowai ranks it low for Maui and the state, while its stewardship rating is about average for Maui and above average for the state. Honokowai Stream has a low rating for stream size, a below average rating for wetness, and an above average reach diversity resulting in an average total watershed rating for Maui and statewide. The below average number and diversity of native species found throughout the watershed, with a high rating of introduced species gives it an average all species and total biological rating for the island and the state. These scores combined gave Honokowai Stream an average overall watershed rating.

### 5.0 Outdoor Recreational Activities

Water-related recreation is an integral part of life in Hawaii. Though beaches may attract more users, the value of maintaining streamflow is important to sustaining recreational opportunities for residents and tourists alike. Streams are often utilized for water-based activities, such as boating, fishing, and swimming, while offering added value to land-based activities such as camping, hiking, and hunting. Growing attention to environmental issues worldwide has increased awareness of stream and watershed protection and expanded opportunities for the study of nature; however, this must be weighed in conjunction with the growth of the eco-tourism industry and the burdens that are placed on Hawaii's natural resources.

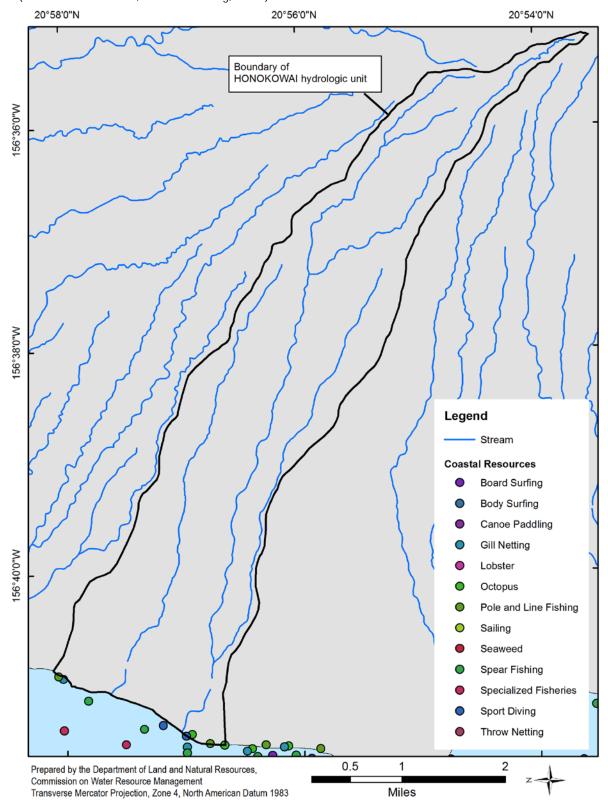
The Department of Health maintains minimum water quality standards for recreational uses of streams. The standard is based on the geometric mean of Enterococci, which is heavily influenced by the presence of cesspools, wildlife, or livestock that contribute fecal waste to runoff and streamflow.

The Hawaii Stream Assessment identified hiking and scenic views as stream recreational opportunities in the Honokowai hydrologic unit and the regional committee classified the stream as "substantial" (National Park Service, Hawaii Cooperative Park Service Unit, 1990). Hiking, fishing, scenic views, and swimming were all identified as recreational opportunities.

Mammal hunting is permitted in Unit A on the island of Maui in the state-owned portions of the West Maui Forest Reserve. None of the Honokowai hydrologic unit is in designated as hunting area (Figure 5-1).

Since changes to streamflow and stream configurations have raised concerns regarding their impact to onshore and near-shore activities, the Commission attempted to identify these various activities in relation to Honokowai Stream. A 1981 Maui Resource Atlas, prepared by the State of Hawaii Department of Transportation's Harbors Division, inventoried coral reefs and coastal recreational activities. Looking at available GIS data, some of the activities the Commission identified that were known to occur or observed at or near Honokowai include: pole and line fishing, bait fishing, gill netting, torch fishing, sport diving and throw netting, surfing, standup paddle boarding, seaweed and shell collecting (Figure 5-1).

**Figure 5-1**. Public hunting areas for game mammals and locations for other recreational activies in the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2002b)



#### 6.0 **Maintenance of Ecosystems**

and Nutrients Basaltic Soil

An ecosystem can be generally defined as the complex interrelationships of living (biotic) organisms and nonliving (abiotic) environmental components functioning as a particular ecological unit. Depending upon consideration of scale, there may be a number of ecosystem types that occur along a given stream such as estuaries, wetlands, and stream vegetation, according to the State Water Code. Figure 6-1 provides a simplified ecosystem represented in a Hawaiian stream. The entire hydrologic unit, as it relates to hydrologic functions of the stream, could also be considered an ecosystem in a very broad context.

The HSA determined that Honokowai Stream did not deserve to be a candidate stream for protection based on its Diversity of Resources scoring (does not have an outstanding rating in three categories) or its Blue Ribbon Resources scoring. Detrimental organisms (non-native species that have a negative effect on the ecosystem) were not considered in the final ranking; however their presence and abundance are considerable ecosystem variables. The destruction to both vegetation and soil resources in the Honokowai hydrologic unit by determintal organisms (pigs) is considered a major factor in alterations to the hydrology and water quality of the stream. However, a large portion of the headwaters of Honokowai are protected by fencing and managed by The Nature Conservancy as part of the West Maui Mountains Watershed Partnership.

00 **ABIOTIC PRODUCERS DECOMPOSERS** CONSUMERS PRIMARY SECONDARY TERTIARY Fungi Wandering Tattle Red-tailed Goby Heron Algae Pondweeds Sleeper Goby Damselfly Naiads Dissolved Gasses Clinging Stream Goby

Figure 6-1. Simplified ecosystem illustrated in a Hawaiian stream. (Source: Ziegler, 2002, illustration by Keith Kruger).

The Hawaiian resource-use concept of ahupuaa is closely related to the Western concepts of ecosystem maintenance. Native Hawaiians generally utilized natural resources within the limits of their ahupuaa; therefore, it was important to manage and conserve these resources. Likewise, watershed resources must be properly managed and conserved to sustain the health of the stream and the instream uses that are dependent upon it.

Mountain Shrimp

Hawaiian Prawr

Chironomid

The riparian resources of Honokowai Stream were classified by the HSA (National Park Service, Hawaii Cooperative Park Service Unit, 1990) and ranked according to a scoring system using six of the seven variables (Table 6-1).

Table 6-1. Hawaii Stream Assessment indicators of riparian resources for Honokowai hydrologic unit.

Category	Value
Listed threatened and endangered species:  These species are generally dependent upon undisturbed habitat. Their presence is, therefore an indication of the integrity of the native vegetation. The presence of these species along a stream course was considered to be a positive attribute; with the more types of threatened and endangered species associated with a stream the higher the value of the resource. Only federally listed threatened or endangered forest or water birds that have been extensively documented within the last 15 years were included.	0
Recovery habitat:  Recovery habitat consists of those areas identified by the USFWS and DLNR as essential habitat for the recovery of threatened and endangered species. Streams that have recovery habitat anywhere along their length were included.	None
Other rare organisms and communities:  Many species that are candidates for endangered or threatened status have not been processed through all of the requirements of the Endangered Species Act. Also a number of plant communities associated with streams have become extremely rare. These rare organisms and communities were considered to be as indicative of natural Hawaiian biological processes as are listed threatened and endangered species.	4
Protected areas:  The riparian resources of streams that pass through natural area reserves, refuges and other protected areas are accorded special protection from degradation. Protected areas were so designated because of features other than their riparian resources. The presence of these areas along a stream, however, indicates that native processes are promoted and alien influences controlled.	Partially Protected
Wetlands:  Wetlands are important riparian resources. They provide habitat for many species and are often important nursery areas. Because they are often extensive areas of flat land generally with deep soil, many have been drained and converted to agricultural or urban uses. Those that remain are, therefore, invaluable as well as being indicators of lack of disturbance.	W (Palustrine wetland present)
Native forest:  The proportion of a stream course flowing through native forest provides an indication of the potential "naturalness" of the quality of a stream's watershed; the greater the percentage of a stream flowing through native forest most of which is protected in forest reserves the more significant the resource. Only the length of the main course of a stream (to the nearest 10 percent) that passes through native forest was recorded.	50%
Detrimental organisms:  Some animals and plants have a negative influence on streams. Wild animals (e.g., pigs, goats, deer) destroy vegetation, open forests, accelerate soil erosion, and contaminate the water with fecal material. Weedy plants can dramatically alter the nature of a stream generally by impeding water flow. Three species, California grass, hau, and red mangrove, are considered to have the greatest influence. The presence of any of these animals or plants along a stream course was considered a potentially negative factor, while the degree of detriment is dependent on the number of species present.	l (Pigs)

For the purpose of this section, management areas are those locales that have been identified by federal, state, county, or private entities as having natural or cultural resources of particular value. The result of various government programs and privately-funded initiatives has been a wide assortment of management areas with often common goals. Such designated areas include forest reserves, private preserves, natural area reserves, wildlife sanctuaries, national parks, historic landmarks, and so on. In Honokowai, about 3.18 square miles (38 percent) of the hydrologic unit falls within the West Maui Natural Area Reserve, the West Maui Forest Reserve, or the Kapunakea Preserve (managed by The Nature Conservancy) (Table 6-2, Figure 6-2).

**Table 6-2.** Management areas located within Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Division of Forestry and Wildlife, 2008a).

Management Area	Managed by	Area in Unit (mi <sup>2</sup> )	Percent of Unit
West Maui Natural Area Reserve	State Division of Forestry and Wildlife	1.10	12.5

The West Maui Natural Area Reserve is one of 21 natural area reserves across the state managed by the State Department of Land and Natural Resources (DLNR)'s Division of Forestry and Wildlife. The management goal of the Natural Area Reserve System is to preserve and protect representative samples of Hawaiian biological ecosystems and geological formations. Management objectives of natural area reserves are to: 1) control non-native animals; 2) control non-native pest plants; 3) restore and enhance native habitat; 4) monitor the ecosystem; 5) provide public information and education; 6) encourage sound scientific research

Kapunakea Preserve	The Nature Conservancy	1.59	18.1
West Maui Forest Reserve	State Division of Forestry and Wildlife	0.50	5.9

The West Maui Forest Reserve is one of nine reserves on the Island of Maui that are managed by the State Department of Land and Natural Resources (DLNR)'s Division of Forestry and Wildlife. These reserves are established as multiuse land areas that incorporate various, and often competing, public uses and benefits. The management goals of the Forest Reserve System include: 1) Protect and manage forested watersheds for production of fresh water supply for public uses now and into the future; 2) Maintain biological integrity of native ecosystems; 3) Provide public recreational opportunities; and 4) Strengthen the economy by assisting in the production of high quality forest products in support of a sustainable forest industry. The primary goals of reserve are to manage the lands for sustainable game hunting, protect existing rare native biological resources and provide native and non-native timber resources.

In addition to the individual management areas outlined above, Watershed Partnerships are another valuable component of ecosystem maintenance. Watershed Partnerships are voluntary alliances between public and private landowners who are committed to responsible management, protection, and enhancement of their forested watershed lands. There are currently nine partnerships established statewide, three of which are on Maui. Table 6-3 provides a summary of the partnership area, partners, and management goals of the West Maui Mountains Watershed Partnership.

Table 6-3. Watershed partnerships associated with the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Division of Forestry and Wildlife, 2008b)

Management Area	Year Established	Total Area (mi²)	Area (mi <sup>2</sup> )	Percent of Unit
West Maui Mountains Watershed Partnership	1998	78.125	3.18	36.2

The West Maui Mountains Watershed Alliance (WMMWA) is comprised of the County of Maui Department of Water Supply, Hawaii State Department of Land and Natural Resources (Division of Forestry and Wildlife, Kaanapali Land Management Corp., Kahoma Land Company L.L.C., Kamehameha Schools, Makila Land Company L.L.C., Maui Land Pineapple Company, Inc., and The Nature Conservancy of Hawaii, and Wailuku Water Company, L.L.C. The management priorities of the WMMWP include: 1) Baseline watershed forest health and threat assessments; 2) Establishment of forest health monitoring transects; 3) Fencing to control movement of feral animals, especially pigs and deer; 4) Staff control to remove pest animals from upper watershed; and 5) Pest plant control, particularly of priority weed species such as *Psidium cattleianum*. As of 2013, 19.44 miles of fencing have been built, of which 4.43 miles are pig and deer fencing (8-foot) and 14.91 miles are pig (4-foot) fencing resulting in 21,084 acres of protected lands.

In 1974, the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) initiated a National Wetlands Inventory that was considerably broader in scope than an earlier 1954 inventory that had focused solely on valuable waterfowl habitat. The inventory for Hawaii was completed in 1978 and utilized a hierarchical structure in the classification of various lands. The USFWS defines wetlands as "lands transitional between terrestrial and aquatic systems where the water table is usually at or near the surface or the land is covered by shallow water" (Cowardin et al., 1979). Nearly 4.6 percent of the Honokowai Hydrologic Unit is classified as wetlands (emergent, freshwater forested or pond), mostly occurring in the headwaters of the hydrologic unit (Table 6-4 and Figure 6-3).

**Table 6-4.** Wetland classifications for Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015n)

System Type	Class	Area (mi²)	Percent of Unit
Marine	Estuarine and Marine Deepwater	< 0.001	< 0.01
Palustrine	Freshwater Forested/Shrub Wetland	0.360	4.11
Palustrine	Freshwater Pond	0.011	0.01
Palustrine	Freshwater Emergent Wetland	0.029	0.33

A series of vegetation maps describing upland plant communities was prepared as part of a USFWS survey in 1976 to 1981 to determine the status of native forest birds and their associated habitats. Figure 6-4 identifies critical habitat for plant species in the hydrologic unit while Figure 6-5 identifies critical habitat for picturewing species. There is likely also native and potentially endangered damselfly species (*Megalagrion sp*) in Honokowai headwaters, although their distribution is not well known. Nearly a half of the unit is dominated by introduced vegetation, while almost 40 percent of the unit is dominated by native species.

The density of threatened and endangered plant species is high at elevations above 1,200 feet, resulting in almost a majority of the Honokowai hydrologic unit, roughly 46 percent, covered in a high or very high density of threatened and endangered plant species (Table 6-5, Figure 6-6).

**Table 6-5.** Distribution of native and alien plant species for Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015f)

Canopy Type	Area (mi²)	Percent of Unit
Very High concentration of threatened and endangered species	1.953	22.3
High concentration of threatened and endangered species	1.892	21.6
Medium concentration of threatened and endangered species		2.10
Little or no threatened and endangered species	4.747	54.1

A working paper is being developed by the University of Hawaii's Economic Research Organization (UHERO), entitled *Environmental Valuation and the Hawaiian Economy*, which discusses the use of existing measures of economic performance and alternative statistical devices to provide an economic valuation of threatened environmental resources. The paper focuses on the Koolau, Oahu watershed and illustrates three categories of positive natural capital (forest resources, shoreline resources, and water resources) against a fourth category (alien species) that degrades natural capital. In the case of the Oahu Koolau forests, a benchmark level of degradation is first defined for comparison against the current value of the Oahu Koolau system. The Oahu Koolau case study considers a hypothetical major disturbance caused by a substantial increased population of pigs with a major forest conversion from native trees to the non-indigenous Miconia (*Miconia calvescens*), along with the continued "creep" of urban areas into the upper watershed (Kaiser, B. et al., n.d.).

Recognizing that in the United States, the incorporation of environmental and natural resource considerations into economic measures is still very limited, the paper provides the estimated Net Present Value (NPV) for "Koolau [Oahu] Forest Amenities." These values are presented in Table 6-7.

Following the results of the Oahu Koolau case study, some of the most valuable aspects of the forested areas are believed to be ecotourism, aesthetic pleasure, species habitat, water quality, and water quantity. Certain areas of Honokowai provide critical habitat for native forest birds, endangered plants and invertebrates in Maui.

Table 6-6. Estimated Net Present Value (NPV) for Koolau [Oahu] Forest Amenities. (Source: Kaiser, B. et al., n.d.)

Amenity	Estimated Net Present Value (NPV)	Important limitations
Ground water quantity	\$4.57 to \$8.52 billion NPV	Optimal extraction assumed.
Water quality	\$83.7 to \$394 million NPV	Using averted dredging cost estimates.
In-stream uses	\$82.4 to \$242.4 million NPV	Contingent valuation estimate for a single small fish species.
Species habitat	\$487 to \$1,434 million NPV	Contingent valuation estimate for a single small bird species.
Biodiversity	\$660,000 to \$5.5 million NPV	Average cost of listing 11 species in Koolaus.
Subsistence	\$34.7 to \$131 million NPV	Based on replacement value of pigs hunted.
Hunting	\$62.8 to \$237 million NPV	Based on fraction of hunting expenditures in state. Does not include damages from pigs to the other amenities.
Aesthetic values	\$1.04 to \$3.07 million NPV	Contingent valuation; Households value open space for aesthetic reasons.
Commercial harvests	\$600,000 to \$2.4 million NPV	Based on small sustainable extraction of koa.
Ecotourism	\$1.0 to \$2.98 billion NPV	Based on fraction of direct revenues to ecotourism activities.
Climate control	\$82.2 million	Based on replacement costs of contribution of all tropical forests to carbon sequestration.
Estimated value of joint services:	\$7.444 to \$14.032 billion	

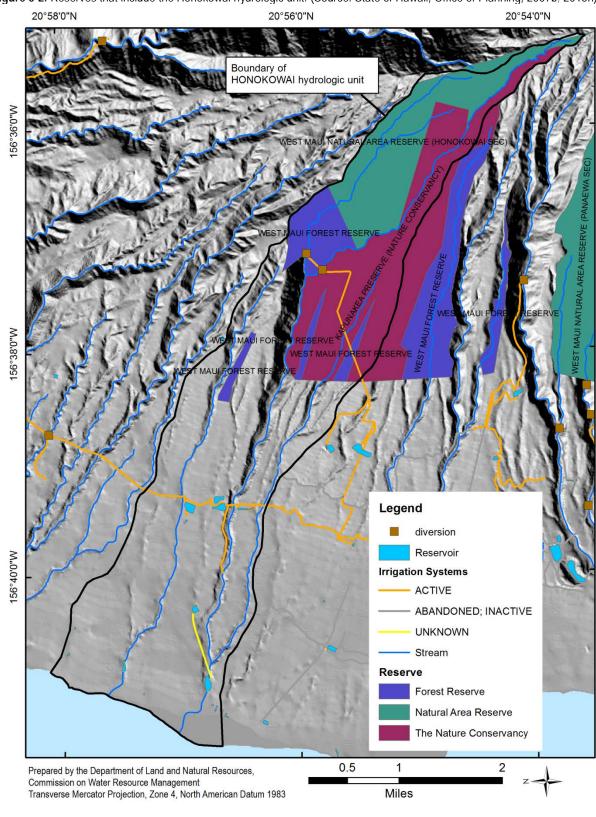


Figure 6-2. Reserves that include the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2007b; 2015n)

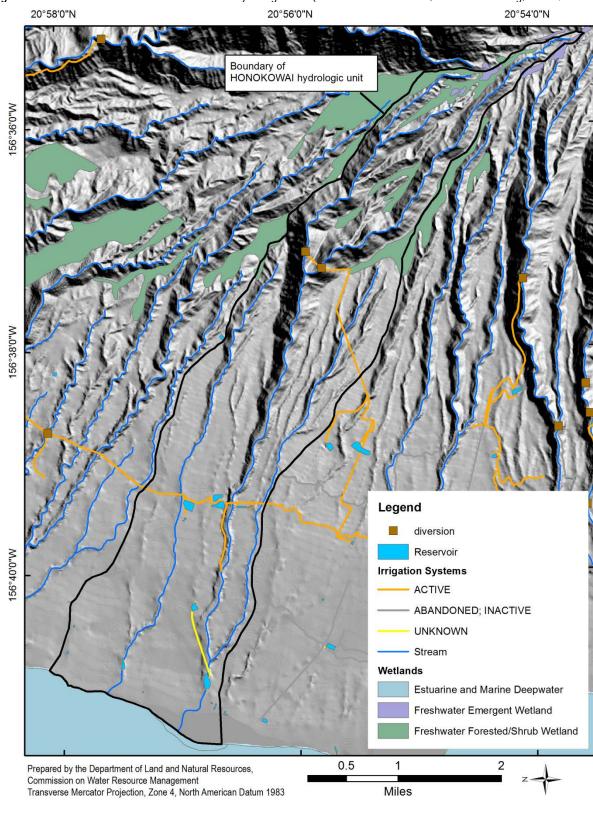
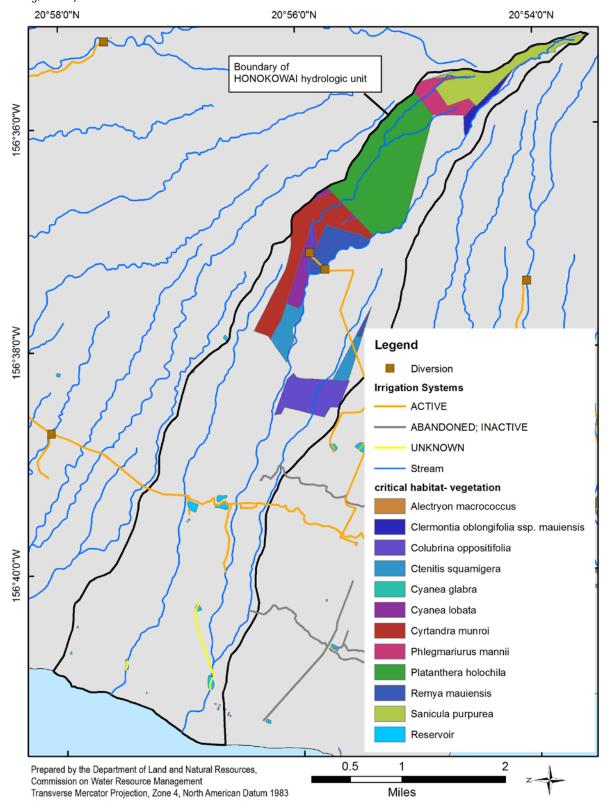
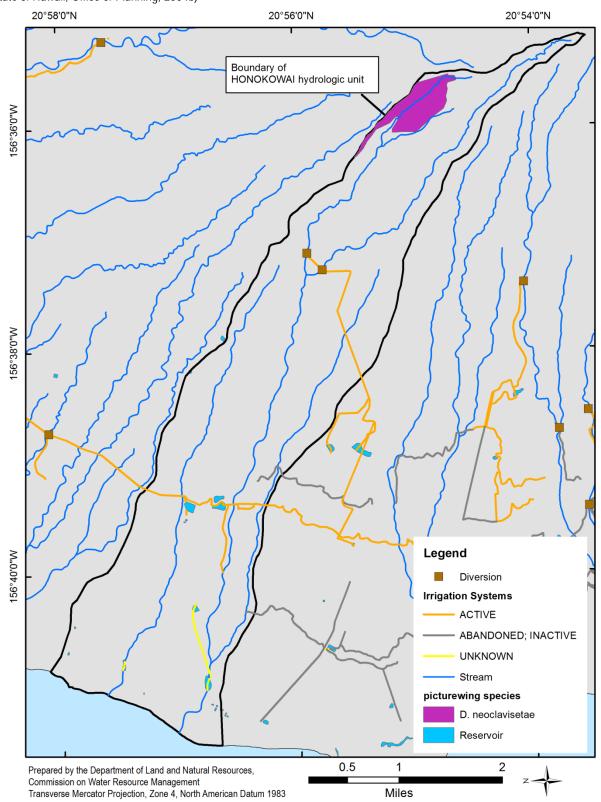


Figure 6-3. Wetlands that include the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2007b; 2015n)

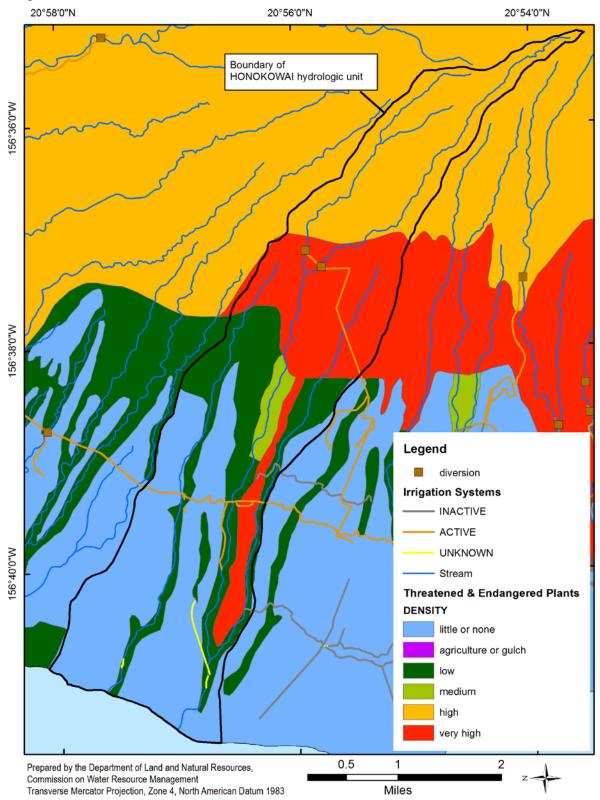
**Figure 6-4**. Distribution of critical habitat for plant species in the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2004b)



**Figure 6-5.** Distribution of critical habitat for picturewing species in the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: Scott et al., 1986; State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2004b)



**Figure 6-6.** Density of threatened and endangered plants in the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015h)



### 7.0 Aesthetic Values

Aesthetics is a multi-sensory experience related to an individual's perception of beauty. Since aesthetics by definition is a subjective observation, a stream's aesthetic value cannot be determined quantitatively (Wilson Okamoto & Associates, Inc., 1983). However, there are certain elements, either within or surrounding a stream, which appeal to an observer's visual and auditory senses, such as waterfalls and cascading plunge pools. Visitors and residents can identify a point that has aesthetic value and continue to return to such a point to gain that value. Such points can potentially be identified, as maped. However, the points identified are not exhaustive and it is beyond the scope of this report to list all potential aesthetic values.

The headwaters of Honokowai Stream originate in the West Maui Mountains, a unique ecological region home to endemic and endangered birds, plants, and insects. However, access to this region is restricted to the general public. Currently, there are few opportunities readily available to the general public to appreciate the aesthetic value of Honokowai Stream. When the stream does flow to the cultural restoration sites in the gulch, the community involved in the restoration can appreciate its aesthetic value.

In a 2007 Hawaii State Parks Survey, released by the Hawaii Tourism Authority (OmniTrak Group Inc., 2007), scenic views accounted for 21 percent of park visits statewide. Other aesthetic-related motivations include viewing famous landmarks (9 percent), hiking trails and walks (7 percent), guided tour stops (6 percent), and viewing of flora and fauna (2 percent). On the island of Maui, out-of-state visitors' most common reasons to visit state parks for scenic views (26 percent) was the number one reason for visiting a park above outings with family and friends (25 percent). By contrast, residents primarily used state parks on Maui for outings with family and friends (33 percent) followed by ocean/water activity (23 percent) and then scenic views (11 percent). Overall, Maui residents were very satisfied with scenic views giving a score of 9.7 (on a scale of 1 to 10, with 10 being outstanding), with out-of-state visitors giving a score of 9.3.

# 8.0 Navigation

The State Water Code, Chapter 174C, HRS, includes navigation as one of nine identified instream uses; however, it fails to further define navigation. Navigational water use is largely defined as water utilized for commercial, and sometimes recreational, transportation. In the continental United States, this includes water used to lift a vessel in a lock or to maintain a navigable channel level. Under the provisions of the Clean Water Act, navigable waters also include wetlands (State of Nevada, Department of Conservation and Natural Resources, Division of Water Resources, n.d.).

Hawaii streams are generally too short and steep to support navigable uses. If recreational boating (primarily kayaks and small boats) is included under the definition of navigation, then there are only a handful of streams statewide that actually support recreational boating and even fewer that support commercial boating operations. Kauai's Wailua River is the only fresh water waterway where large boat commercial operations exist, and no streams are believed to serve as a means for the commercial transportation of goods.

The hydrologic unit of Honokowai does not support any instream uses of navigation.

# 9.0 Instream Hydropower Generation

The generation of hydropower is typically accomplished through instream dams and power generators; however, the relatively short lengths and flashy nature of Hawaii's streams often require water to be diverted to offstream power generators. In these "run-of-river" (i.e., utilizes water flow without dams or reservoirs) designs, water is diverted through a series of ditches, pipes, and penstocks to the powerplant, and then returned to the stream. Some designs call for the powerplant to be situated such that the drop of water level (head) exiting the plant can be sent to fields for crop irrigation.

There is no instream hydropower in the Honokowai hydrologic unit.

## 10.0 Maintenance of Water Quality

The maintenance of water quality is important due to its direct impact upon the maintenance of other instream uses such as fish and wildlife habitat, outdoor recreation, ecosystems, aesthetics, and traditional and customary Hawaiian rights. There are several factors that affect a stream's water quality, including physical, chemical, and biological attributes. The State of Hawaii Department of Health (DOH) is responsible for water quality management duties statewide. The DOH Environmental Health Administration oversees the collection, assessment, and reporting of numerous water quality parameters in three high-priority categories:

- Possible presence of water-borne human pathogens;
- Long-term physical, chemical and biological components of inland, coastal, and oceanic waters;
   and
- Watershed use-attainment assessments, identification of sources of contamination, allocation of those contributing sources, and implementation of pollution control actions.

The Environmental Health Administration is also responsible for regulating discharges into State waters, through permits and enforcement actions. Examples include federal National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (NPDES) permits for storm water, and discharge of treated effluent from wastewater treatment plants into the ocean or injection wells.

Sediment and temperature are among the primary physical constituents of water quality evaluations. They are directly impacted by the amount of water in a stream. The reduction of streamflow often results in increased water temperatures, whereas higher flows can aid in quickly diluting stream contamination events. According to a book published by the Instream Flow Council, "[w]ater temperature is one of the most important environmental factors in flowing water, affecting all forms of aquatic life (Amear et al, 2004)." While this statement is true for continental rivers, fish in Hawaii are similar, but their main requirement is flowing water. Surface water temperatures may fluctuate in response to seasonal and diurnal variations, but only a few degrees Celsius in natural streams, mainly because streams in Hawaii are so short. However, temperatures in streams with concrete-lined channels, and dewatered streams, may fluctuate widely due to the vertical solar contact. Surface water temperatures may also fluctuate widely due to water column depth, channel substrate, presence of riparian vegetation, and ground water influx. Surface water also differs considerably from ground water, generally exhibiting lower concentrations of total dissolved solids, chlorides, and other major ions, along with higher concentrations of suspended solids, turbidity, microorganisms, and organic forms of nutrients (Lau and Mink, 2006). Findings of a 2004 USGS National Water Quality Assessment (NAWQA) Program report identified land use, storm-related runoff, and ground water inflow as major contributors of surface water contaminants (Anthony et al., 2004). Runoff transports large amounts of sediment from bare soil into surface water bodies, with consequences for in-stream and near-shore environments.

Water body types can be freshwater, marine, or brackish. They can be further delineated as inland fresh waters, estuaries, embayments, open coastal waters, and oceanic waters (HAR 11-54-5 to 11-54-6). Each water body type has its own numeric criteria for State of Hawaii Water Quality Standards (WQS).

Fresh waters are classified for regulatory purposes, according to the adjacent land's conservation zoning. There are two classes for the inland fresh waters. Class 1 inland waters are protected to "remain in their natural state as nearly as possible with an absolute minimum of pollution from any human-caused source." These waters are used for a number of purposes including domestic water supply, protection of native breeding stock, and baseline references from which human-caused changes can be measured.

Class 2 inland waters are protected for uses such as recreational purposes, support of aquatic life, and agricultural water supplies.

Class 1 waters are further separated into Classes 1a and 1b. Class 1a waters are protected for the following uses: scientific and educational purposes, protection of native breeding stock, baseline references from which human-caused changes can be measured, compatible recreation, aesthetic enjoyment, and other non-degrading uses which are compatible with the protection of the ecosystems associated with waters of this class. Streams that run through natural reserves, preserves, sanctuaries, refuges, national and state parks, and state or federal fish and wildlife refuges are Class 1a. Streams adjacent to the most environmentally sensitive conservation subzone, "protective," are Class 1b, and are protected for the same uses as Class 1a waters, with the addition of domestic water supplies, food processing, and the support and propagation of aquatic life (HAR 11-54-3). These classifications are used for regulatory purposes, restricting what is permitted on the land around receiving waters. For example, public access to Class 1b waters may be restricted to protect drinking water supplies.

Land use affects water quality because direct runoff (rainfall that flows overland into the stream) can transport sediment and its chemical contaminants into the stream. According to the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA), "[a] TMDL or Total Maximum Daily Load is a calculation of the maximum amount of a pollutant that a waterbody can receive and still meet water quality standards, and an allocation of that amount to the pollutant's sources. Water quality standards are set by States, Territories, and Tribes. They identify the uses for each waterbody, for example, drinking water supply, contact recreation (swimming), and aquatic life support (fishing as well as ecological health), and the scientific criteria required to support those uses. A TMDL is the sum of the allowable loads of a single pollutant from all contributing point and nonpoint sources. The calculation must include a margin of safety to ensure that the waterbody can be used for the purposes the State has designated. The calculation must also account for seasonal variation in water quality. The Clean Water Act, section 303, establishes the water quality standards and TMDL programs (USEPA, 2008)."

The DOH, Environmental Health Administration maintains the State of Hawaii Water Quality Standards (WQS), a requirement under the Federal Clean Water Act (CWA) regulated by the EPA. The CWA aims to keep waters safe for plants and animals to live and people to wade, swim, and fish. Water Quality Standards are the measures that states use to ensure protection of the physical, chemical, and biological health of their waters. "A water quality standard defines the water quality goals of a water body, or portion thereof, by designating the use or uses to be made of the water and by setting criteria necessary to protect the uses (CWA §131.2)." Each state specifies its own water uses to be achieved and protected ("designated uses"), but CWA §131.10 specifically protects "existing uses", which it defines as "...those uses actually attained in the water body on or after November 28, 1975, whether or not they are included in the water quality standards (CWA §131.3)." Although the State WQS do not specify any designated uses in terms of traditional and customary Hawaiian rights, the "protection of native breeding stock," "aesthetic enjoyment," and "compatible recreation" are among the designated uses of Class 1 inland

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Existing uses as defined in the CWA should not be confused with existing uses as defined in the State Water Code, although there is some overlap and linkage between the two. Under the Water Code, if there are serious threats to or disputes over water resources, the Commission may designate a "water management area." Water quality impairments, including threats to CWA existing uses, are factors that the Commission may consider in its designation decisions. Once such a management area is designated, people who are already diverting water at the time of designation may apply for water use permits for their "existing uses." The Commission then must weigh if the existing use is "reasonable and beneficial." The Water Code defines "reasonable-beneficial use" as "the use of water in such a quantity as is necessary for economic and efficient utilization, for a purpose, and in a manner which is both reasonable and consistent with the state and county land use plans and the public interest." The relationships between a Commission existing use and a CWA existing use can help determine the appropriateness of the use and its consistency with the public interest.

waters, and "recreational purposes, the support and propagation of aquatic life, and agricultural and industrial water supplies" are among the designated uses of Class 2 inland waters. This means that uses tied to the exercise of traditional and customary Hawaiian rights that are protected by the State Constitution and the State Water Code (Section 12.0, Protection of Traditional and Customary Hawaiian Rights), including but not limited to gathering, recreation, healing, and religious practices are also protected under the CWA and the WQS as designated and/or existing uses. Therefore, the Commission's interim IFS recommendation may impact the attainment of designated and existing uses, water quality criteria, and the DOH antidegradation policy, which together define the WQS and are part of the joint Commission and DOH obligation to assure sufficient water quality for instream and noninstream uses.

State of Hawaii WQS define: 1) the classification system for State surface waters, which assigns different protected uses to different water classes; 2) the specific numeric or narrative water quality criteria needed to protect that use; and 3) a general antidegradation policy, which maintains and protects water quality for the uses defined for a class. Quantitative and qualitative data are utilized. Numeric water quality criteria have specific concentrations (levels of pollutants) that must be attained based on water body type, e.g. fresh water stream. Qualitative standards are general narrative statements that are applicable to all State waters, such as "all waters shall be free of substances attributable to domestic, industrial, or other controllable sources of pollutants (State of Hawaii, Department of Health, 2004)." Conventional pollutants include nutrients and sediments. Toxic pollutants include pesticides and heavy metals. Indicator bacteria are utilized to assess bacterial levels. Biological assessments of aquatic communities are also included in the data collected.

Once data are gathered and evaluated for quality and deemed to be representative of the waterbody segment, a decision is made as to whether the appropriate designated uses are being attained. This set of decisions are then tabulated into a report to the EPA that integrates two CWA sections; (§) 305(b) and §303(d). This Integrated Report is federally required every even-numbered year. CWA §305(b) requires states to describe the overall water quality statewide. They must also describe the extent to which water quality provides for the protection and propagation of a balanced population of shellfish, fish, and wildlife and allows recreational activities in and on the water. Additionally, they determine whether the designated uses of a water body segment are being attained, and if not, what are the potential causes and sources of pollution. The CWA §303(d) requires states to submit a list of Water-Quality Limited Segments, which are waters that do not meet state water quality standards and those waters' associated uses. States must also provide a priority ranking of waters listed for implementation of pollution controls, which are prioritized based on the severity of pollution and the uses of the waters. In sum, the §303(d) list leads to action.

The sources for the 2012 Integrated Report are Hawaii's 2010 §303(d) list, plus readily-available data collected from any State water bodies over the preceding 6 years (State of Hawaii, Department of Health, 2007). Per §303(d), impaired waters are listed after review of "all existing and readily available water quality-related data and information' from a broad set of data sources" (State of Hawaii, Department of Health, 2004, p.57). However, available data are not comprehensive of all the streams in the State. According to the Hawaii Administrative Rules Title 11 Chapter 54 (HAR 11-54) all State waters are subject to monitoring; however, in the most recent list published (from the 2010 list that was published in 2012), only 88 streams statewide had sufficient data for evaluation of whether exceedance of WQS occurred. Honokowai Stream did not appear on the 2012 List of Impaired Waters in Hawaii, Clean Water Act §303(d).

The 2006 Integrated Report indicates that the current WQS require the use of *Enterococci* as the indicator bacteria for evaluating public health risks in the waters of the State; however, no new data were available for this parameter in inland waters. As mentioned in Section 5.0, Outdoor Recreational Activities, DOH maintains WQS for inland recreational waters based on the geo-mean statistic of *Enterococci*: 33 colony-

forming units per 100 mL of water or a single-sample maximum of 89 colonies per 100 mL. This is for full-body contact (swimming, jumping off cliffs into waterfall pools, etc.). If *Enterococci* count exceeds those values, the water body is considered to be impaired. DOH Clean Water Branch efforts have been focused on coastal areas (State of Hawaii, Department of Health, 2006, Chapter II, p.20). The marine recreational zone, which extends from the shoreline seaward to 1,000 feet from shore, requires an *Enterococci* geo-mean of less than 7 colony-forming units per 100 mL of water to protect human health (HAR 11-54-8.)

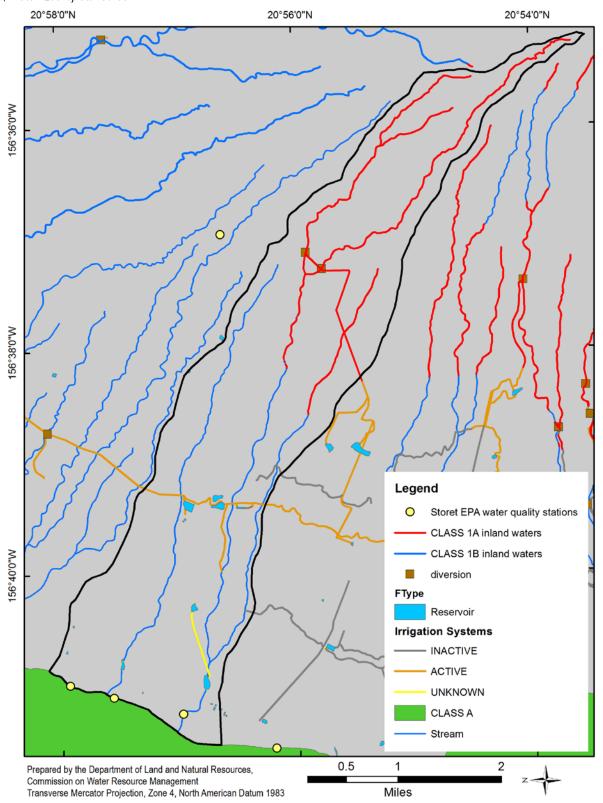
The 2012 Integrated Report also states: "Public health concerns may be underreported. *Leptospirosis* is not included as a specific water quality standard parameter. However, all fresh waters within the state are considered potential sources of *Leptospirosis* infection by the epidemiology section of the Hawaii State Department of Health. No direct tests have been approved or utilized to ascertain the extent of the public health threat through water sampling. Epidemiologic evidence has linked several illness outbreaks to contact with fresh water, leading authorities to issue blanket advisories for all fresh waters of the state (State of Hawaii, Department of Health, 2007, Chapter II, p.3)."

Honokowai Stream is classified as Class 1a inland waters from its headwaters to approximately the 700 ft elevation as the surrounding land is in the conservation subzone "protective." It should be noted that the conservation subzone map utilized for this interpretation is general and elevations are not exact. It should also be noted that there is no direct relationship between elevation and attainment of water quality standards.

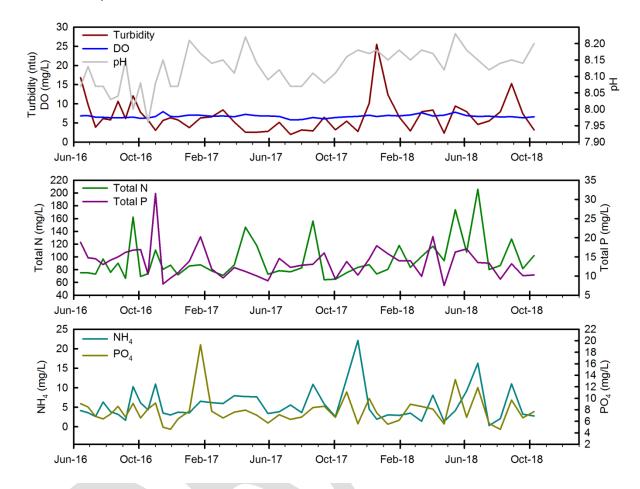
Marine water body types are delineated by depth and coastal topography. Open coastal waters are classified for protection purposes from the shoreline at mean sea level laterally to where the depth reaches 100 fathoms (600 feet). Marine water classifications are based on marine conservation areas. The objective of Class AA waters is that they "remain in their natural pristine state as nearly as possible with an absolute minimum of pollution or alteration of water quality from any human-caused source or actions." Class A waters are protected for recreational purposes and aesthetic enjoyment; and protection of fish, shellfish, and wildlife. Discharge into these waters is permitted under regulation. The marine waters at the mouth of the Honokowai hydrologic unit are Class A waters. Figure 10-1 shows the Honokowai hydrologic unit, including inland and marine (coastal) water classifications.

The Hui O Ka Wai Ola is a non-profit community organization that monitors near-shore water quality in West Maui in coordination with the State of Hawaii Department of Health Clean Water Branch. The data gathered by the Hui are summarized in Figure 10-2 and indicate the general variability in near-shore water quality, largely driven by runoff conditions proceeding sample collection (Falinski et al. 2018). The West Maui Ridge2Reef Initiative is a collaborative effort by many non-profit and government agencies to control runoff pollution in watersheds near important coral reef ecosystems. As a partner, the Coral Reef Alliance and the hui are working towards reducing sediment and other pollution sources in Honokowai.

**Figure 10-1.** Water quality standards for the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015e; 2008). The classifications are general in nature and should be used in conjunction with Hawaii Administrative Rules, Chapter 11-54, Water Quality Standards.



**Figure 10-2**. Water quality parameters measured at Kaanapali Shores, near the mouth of Honokowai Stream, Maui. (Source: Faliniski et al., 2018)



# 11.0 Conveyance of Irrigation and Domestic Water Supplies

Under the State Water Code, the conveyance of irrigation and domestic water supplies to downstream points of diversion is included as one of nine listed instream uses. The thought of a stream as a conveyance mechanism for noninstream purposes almost seems contrary to the concept of instream flow standards. However, the inclusion of this instream use is intended to ensure the availability of water to all those who may have a legally protected right to the water flowing in a stream. Of particular importance in this section is the diversion of surface water for domestic purposes. In its August 2000 decision on the Waiahole Ditch Combined Contested Case Hearing, the Hawaii Supreme Court identified domestic water use of the general public, particularly drinking water, as one of, ultimately, four trust purposes.

Neither the State nor the County keeps a comprehensive database of households whose domestic water supply is not part of a municipal system (i.e. who use stream and / or catchment water). The County of Maui Department of Water Supply does not have data for water users who are not on the county system and may be using catchment or surface water for domestic use. The State of Hawaii Department of Health Safe Drinking Water Branch administers Federal and State safe drinking water regulations to public water systems in the State of Hawaii to assure that the water served by these systems meets State and Federal standards. Any system which services 25 or more people for a minimum of 60 days per year or has at least 15 service connections is subject to these standards and regulations. Once a system is regulated by the Safe Drinking Water Branch, the water must undergo an approved filtration and disinfection process when it has been removed from the stream. It would also be subject to regulatory monitoring. However, the only private water systems in the Honokowai hydrologic unit regulated by the DOH, Safe Drinking Water branch utilizes ground water and not surface water.

# 12.0 Protection of Traditional and Customary Hawaiian Rights

The maintenance of instream flows is important to the protection of traditional and customary Hawaiian rights, as they relate to the maintenance of stream resources (e.g., hihiwai, opae, oopu) for gathering, recreation, and the cultivation of taro. Article XII, Section 7 of the State Constitution addresses traditional and customary rights: "The State reaffirms and shall protect all rights, customarily and traditionally exercised for subsistence, cultural and religious purposes and possessed by ahupua'a tenants who are descendants of native Hawaiians who inhabited the Hawaiian Islands prior to 1778, subject to the right of the State to regulate such rights." Case notes listed in this section indicate, "Native Hawaiian rights protected by this section may extend beyond the ahupua'a in which a native Hawaiian resides where such rights have been customarily and traditionally exercised in this manner. 73 H.578, 837 P.2d 1247."

It is difficult to fully represent in words the depth of the cultural aspects of streamflow, including traditions handed down through the generations regarding gathering, ceremonial and religious rites, and the ties to water that are pronounced in Hawaiian legend and lore. "There is a great traditional significance of water in Hawaiian beliefs and cultural practices...The flow of water from mountain to sea is integral to the health of the land. A healthy land makes for healthy people, and healthy people have the ability to sustain themselves (Kumu Pono Associates, 2001b, p.II:8)."

Taro cultivation is addressed in this section of the report as well as section 14. This is because instream flow standards take into account both social and scientific information. For sociological and cultural purposes, taro cultivation can be considered an instream use as part of the "protection of traditional and customary Hawaiian rights," that is specifically listed as an instream use in the Water Code. Taro cultivation can also be considered a noninstream use since it removes water from a stream (even if water from taro loi is later returned to the stream). It could be argued that for scientific analysis, taro cultivation is an instream use since taro loi provide habitat for stream biota, but because the water is physically taken out of the stream, it is also a noninstream use. Another way to look at the approach of indentifying taro cultivation as both instream and noninstream uses is that when the Commission addresses taro cultivation as an instream use, it is generally in the context of traditional and customary Hawaiian rights; whereas when the Commission addresses taro cultivation as a noninstream use, it is approaching the issue from the aspects of agriculture and water use.

In ancient Hawaii, the islands (*moku*) were subdivided into political subdivisions, or ahupuaa, for the purposes of taxation. The term ahupuaa in fact comes from the altar (*ahu*) that marked the seaward boundary of each subdivision upon which a wooden head of a pig (*puaa*) was placed at the time of the *Makahiki* festival when harvest offerings were collected for the rain god and his earthly representative (Handy et al., 1972). Each ahupuaa had fixed boundaries that were usually delineated by natural features of the land, such as mountain ridges, and typically ran like a wedge from the mountains to the ocean thus providing its inhabitants with access to all the natural resources necessary for sustenance. The beach, with its fishing rights, were referred to as *ipu kai* (meat bowl), while the upland areas for cultivation were called *umeke ai* (poi container hung in a net) (Handy et al., 1972). As noted earlier in Section 6.0, Maintenance of Ecosystems, Western concepts of ecosystem maintenance and watersheds are similar to the Hawaiian concept of ahupuaa, and so the Commission's surface water hydrologic units often coincide with or overlap ahupuaa boundaries. The hydrologic unit of Honokowai includes many ahupuaa of as shown in Figure 12-2. The ahupuaa boundaries are delineated based on the USGS Digital Line Graphs. These boundaries may be different from the information listed on legal documents such as deeds.

An appurtenant water right is a legally recognized right to a specific amount of surface freshwater – usually from a stream – on the specific property that has that right. This right traces back to the use of water on a given parcel of land at the time of its original conversion into fee simple lands: When the land allotted during the 1848 Mahele was confirmed to the awardee by the Land Commission and/or when the Royal Patent was issued based on such award, the conveyance of the parcel of land carried with it the appurtenant right to water if water was being used on that land at or shortly before the time of the Mahele (State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2007).

An appurtenant right is different from a riparian right, but they are not mutually exclusive. Riparian rights are held by owners of land adjacent to a stream. They and other riparian landowners have the right to reasonable use of the stream's waters on those lands. Unlike riparian lands, the lands to which appurtenant rights attach are not necessarily adjacent to the freshwater source (i.e., the water may be carried to the lands via auwai or ditches), but some pieces of land could have both appurtenant and riparian rights.

Appurtenant rights are provided for under the State Water Code, HRS §174C-101, Section (c) and (d) as follows:

- Section (c). Traditional and customary rights of ahupuaa tenants who are descendants of native Hawaiians who inhabited the Hawaiian Islands prior to 1778 shall not be abridged or denied by this chapter. Such traditional and customary rights shall include, but not be limited to, the cultivation or propagation of taro on one's own kuleana and the gathering of hihiwai, opae, oopu, limu, thatch, ti leaf, aho cord, and medicinal plants for subsistence, cultural, and religious purposes.
- Section (d). The appurtenant water rights of kuleana and taro lands, along with those traditional and customary rights assured by this section, shall not be diminished or extinguished by a failure to apply for or to receive a permit under this chapter.

The exercise of an appurtenant water right is still subject to the water use permit requirements of the Water Code, but there is no deadline to exercise that right without losing it, as is the case for correlative and riparian rights, which must have been exercised before designation of a water management area.

In August 2000, the Hawaii Supreme Court issued its decision in the Waiahole Ditch Combined Contested Case Hearing, upholding the exercise of Native Hawaiian and traditional and customary rights as a public trust purpose. These rights are described in the Commission's 2007 *Water Resource Protection Plan – Public Review Draft*, incorporating a later revision<sup>1</sup> as follows:

Appurtenant water rights are rights to the use of water utilized by parcels of land at the time of their original conversion into fee simple lands i.e., when land allotted by the 1848 Mahele was confirmed to the awardee by the Land Commission and/or when the Royal Patent was issued based on such award, the conveyance of the parcel of land carried with it the appurtenant right to water.<sup>2</sup> The amount of water under an appurtenant right is the amount that was being used at the time of the Land Commission award and is established by cultivation methods that approximate the methods utilized at the time of the Mahele, for example, growing wetland taro.<sup>3</sup> Once established, future uses are not limited to the cultivation of traditional products approximating

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Although the final Water Resource Protection Plan had not been printed as of the date of this report, most edits had already been incorporated into the latest version, which the Commission utilized for this report.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> 54 Haw. 174, at 188; 504 .2d 1330, at 1339.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> 65 Haw. 531, at 554; 656 P.2d 57, at 72.

those utilized at the time of the Mahele<sup>4</sup>, as long as those uses are reasonable, and if in a water management area, meets the State Water Code's test of reasonable and beneficial use ("the use of water in such a quantity as is necessary for economic and efficient utilization, for a purpose, and in a manner which is both reasonable and consistent with the State and county land use plans and the public interest"). As mentioned earlier, appurtenant rights are preserved under the State Water Code, so even in designated water management areas, an unexercised appurtenant right is not extinguished and must be issued a water use permit when applied for, as long as the water use permit requirements are met (Figure 12-1).

The Hawaii Legislative Session of 2002 clarified that the Commission is empowered to "determine appurtenant rights, including quantification of the amount of water entitled to by that right," (HRS §174C-5(15)). In those cases where a Commission decision may affect an appurtenant right, it is the claimant's duty to assert the appurtenant right and to gather the information required by the Commission to rule on the claim. The Commission is currently in the process of developing a procedural manual to aid in the understanding and assembling of information to substantiate an appurtenant rights claim.

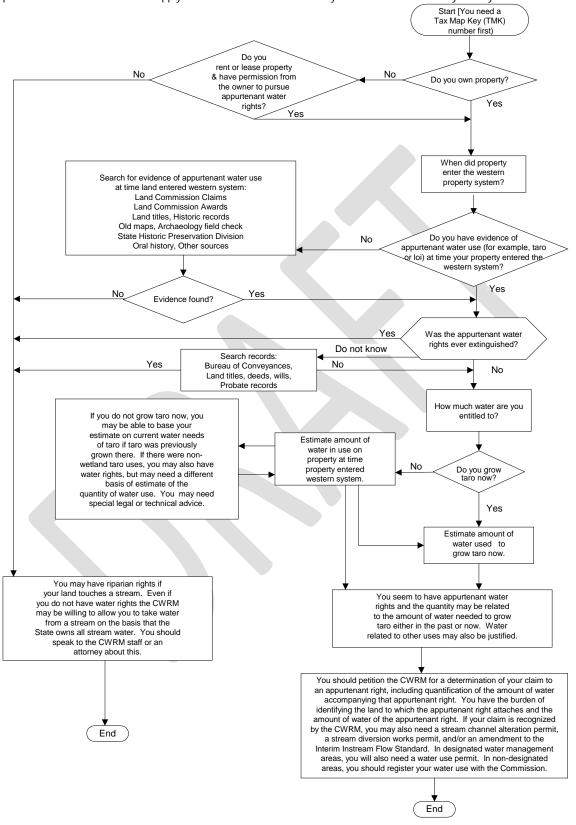
In accordance with the State Water Code and the Supreme Court's decision in the Waiahole Ditch Combined Contested Case Hearing, the Commission is focused on the assertion and exercise of appurtenant rights as they largely relate to the cultivation of taro. Wetland kalo or taro (*Colocasia esculenta* (L.) Schott) is an integral part of Hawaiian culture and agricultural tradition. The preferred method of wetland taro cultivation, where terrain and access to water permitted, was the construction of loi (flooded terraces) and loi complexes. These terraces traditionally received stream water via carefully engineered open channels called auwai. The auwai carried water, sometimes great distances, from the stream to the loi via gravity flow. In a system of multiple loi, water may either be fed to individual loi through separate little ditches if possible, or in the case of steeper slopes, water would overflow and drain from one loi to the next. Outflow from the loi may eventually be returned to the stream.

The loi also served other needs including the farming of subsidiary crops such as banana, sugar cane, and ti plants that were planted on its banks, and the raising of fish such as oopu, awa, and aholehole within the waters of the loi itself. At least 85 varieties of taro were collected in 1931, each of which varied in color, locale, and growing conditions. The water needs of taro under wet conditions depend upon: 1) climate; 2) location and season (weather); 3) evaporation rate; 4) soil type; 5) ground water hydrology; 5) water temperature; and 6) agronomic conditions (crop stage; planting density and arrangement; taro variety; soil amendment and fertilization regime; loi drainage scheme; irrigation system management; and weed, pest, and disease prevalence and management).

The Commission conducted a cursory assessment of tax map key parcels to identify their associated Land Commission Awards, in an attempt to identify the potential for future appurtenant rights claims within the hydrologic unit of Honokowai. Table 12-1 presents the results of the Commission's assessment. Of particular importance is the presence of terracing and oral testimony that indicates loi kalo existed as recently as the 1980s in the middle reaches of Honokowai, approximately 2.35 miles below the current stream diversions (Figure 12-3). The series of TMK parcels and associated land commission awards suggest extensive cultivation of the riparian areas of Honokowai stream.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Peck v Bailey, 8 Haw. 658, at 665 (1867).

**Figure 12-1.**Generalized process for determining appurtenant water rights. This process is generalized and may not fully explain all possible situations. It does not apply to Hawaiian Homes Lands. If you are Native Hawaiian you may have other water rights.



**Table 12-1.**Tax map key parcels with associated Land Commission Awards for the Honokowai hydrologic unit. [LCA is Land Commission Award; Gr. is Grant; por. is portion; and G.L. is Government Lease]

Land Award	TMK	Landowner	Claimant
LCA 327 B:1	4-4-001-098	Kaanapali Beach Vacation Resort	Previer, John
LCA 327 B:2	4-4-003-001	Pioneer Mill Company	Previer, John
LCA 327 B:6	4-4-007-003	Pioneer Mill Company	Previer, John
LCA 327 B:6	4-4-004-003	Kaanapali Land Management Corp	Previer, John
LCA 11216:28.1	4-4-001-082	Filipino Assemblies	Kekauonohi, Mataio
LCA 11216:28.2	4-4-001-034	Maui Park Condo	Kekauonohi, Mataio
LCA 11216:28.3	4-4-002-018	State of Hawaii DHHL	Kekauonohi, Mataio
LCA 11216:28.4	4-4-007-006	State of Hawaii DLNR	Kekauonohi, Mataio
LCA 11216:28.4	4-4-007-001	Kaanapali Development Corp	Kekauonohi, Mataio
LCA 11216:28.4	4-4-004-006	State of Hawaii DLNR	Kekauonohi, Mataio
LCA 3925 E:1	4-4-007-008	Kaanapali Development Corp	Kanealii
LCA 3925 E:1	4-4-007-006	State of Hawaii DLNR	Kanealii
LCA 76:1.1	4-4-007-001	Kaanapali Development Corp	Shaw, William
LCA 76:1.2	4-4-014-006	Honua Kai Condominium	Shaw, William
LCA 76:2	4-4-007-001	Kaanapali Development Corp	Shaw, William
LCA 76:1.4	4-4-004-003	Kaanapali Land Management Corp	Shaw, William
LCA 3765:2	4-4-005-001	Kaanapali Development Corp	Aio
LCA 3765:4	4-4-003-001	Pioneer Mill Company	Aio
LCA 3765:5	4-4-007-008	Kaanapali Development Corp	Aio
LCA 6601:1	4-4-007-001	Kaanapali Development Corp	Piimoku
LCA 6601:1	4-4-007-006	State of Hawaii DLNR	Piimoku
LCA 3925 E:2	4-4-005-026	Kaanapali Development Corp	Kanealii
LCA 3688:4	4-4-005-026	Kaanapali Development Corp	Meeau
LCA 3925 E:3	4-4-004-006	State of Hawaii DLNR Maui Land & Pineapple	Kanealii
LCA 11216:28.4	4-4-004-008	Kaanapali Development Corp	Kekauonohi, Mataio Kekauonohi, Mataio
LCA 11216:28.4 LCA 4241:1	4-4-005-026 4-4-005-026	Kaanapali Development Corp	Kaluakini
LCA 4241.1 LCA 4241:2	4-4-005-026	Kaanapali Development Corp	Kaluakini
LCA 6741:2	4-4-007-006	State of Hawaii DLNR	Inoa
LCA 6741:2	4-4-005-026	Kaanapali Development Corp	Inoa
LCA 6601	4-4-014-006	Honua Kai Condominum	Piimoku
LCA 6601:2	4-4-004-006	State of Hawaii DLNR	Piimoku
LCA 6601:3	4-4-004-006	State of Hawaii DLNR	Piimoku
LCA 6601:2	4-4-004-006	State of Hawaii DLNR	Piimoku
LCA 6601:6	4-4-005-001	Kaanapali Development Corp	Piimoku
LCA 6601:5	4-4-005-001	Kaanapali Development Corp	Piimoku
LCA 6459	4-4-004-006	State of Hawaii DLNR	Keokeo
LCA 6459	4-4-005-026	Kaanapali Development Corp	Keokeo
LCA 3851	4-4-004-008	Maui Land & Pineapple	Napoohiwi
LCA 3925 C:4	4-4-005-020	Kaanapali Development Corp	Kahope
LCA 5005 B	4-4-001-010	Nunes, Charles J Jr. Trustee	White, John
LCA 5005:2	4-4-001-104	State of Hawaii DLNR	White, John
LCA 5005:3	4-4-004-007	Kaanapali Development Corp	White, John
LCA 4248:2	4-4-002-003	State of Hawaii DHHL	Kekalohe
LCA 4248:3	4-4-005-001	Kaanapali Development Corp	Kekalohe
LCA 4923:1 LCA 4923:4	4-4-001-034 4-4-005-001	Maui Park Condo Kaanapali Development Corp	Kalua Kalua
LCA 4923:4 LCA 4923:5	4-4-005-001	Kaanapali Development Corp	Kalua
LCA 4523.3 LCA 4552:4	4-4-005-001	Kaanapali Development Corp	Aumai
LCA 4552:6	4-4-005-001	Kaanapali Development Corp	Aumai
LCA 4793 B:3	4-4-005-001	Kaanapali Development Corp	Hanuna
LCA 3850:1	4-4-002-999	State of Hawaii DOT	Paki
LCA 3850:2	4-4-003-012	Sousa, Vance	Paki
LCA 3850:3	4-4-005-001	Kaanapali Development Corp	Paki
LCA 3850:3	4-4-005-034	Sousa, Vance	Paki
LCA 3825:2	4-4-005-001	Kaanapali Development Corp	Nahuli
LCA 3987:1	4-4-001-002	Honolulu Limited	Holona
LCA 3987:2	4-4-005-001	Kaanapali Development Corp	Holona
LCA 4239:7	4-4-005-001	Kaanapali Development Corp	Kaukau
LCA 4239:9	4-4-003-013	Kaanapali Development Corp	Kaukau

Table 12-1. (cont.)

LCA 6539:2 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 6539:3 4-4-002-003 State of Hawaii DHHL LCA 6539:4 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 5121:2 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 6755:2 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 6722 B:2 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 3927:4 4-4-003-046 Nalepo Estate LCA 3927:5 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 6460:2 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 3929 4-4-004-008 Maui Land & Pineapple LCA 3852:3 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp	Hoonoho Hoonoho Kane Pa, E Mai Nakoholua Nakoholua Kaihe Umi Pokole
LCA 6539:4	Hoonoho Kane Pa, E Mai Nakoholua Nakoholua Kaihe Umi
LCA 5121:2 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 6755:2 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 6722 B:2 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 3927:4 4-4-003-046 Nalepo Estate LCA 3927:5 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 6460:2 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 3929 4-4-004-008 Maui Land & Pineapple	Kane Pa, E Mai Nakoholua Nakoholua Kaihe Umi
LCA 6755:2 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 6722 B:2 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 3927:4 4-4-003-046 Nalepo Estate LCA 3927:5 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 6460:2 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 3929 4-4-004-008 Maui Land & Pineapple	Pa, E Mai Nakoholua Nakoholua Kaihe Umi
LCA 6722 B:2 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 3927:4 4-4-003-046 Nalepo Estate LCA 3927:5 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 6460:2 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 3929 4-4-004-008 Maui Land & Pineapple	Mai Nakoholua Nakoholua Kaihe Umi
LCA 3927:4	Nakoholua Nakoholua Kaihe Umi
LCA 3927:5	Nakoholua Kaihe Umi
LCA 6460:2 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 3929 4-4-004-008 Maui Land & Pineapple	Kaihe Umi
LCA 3929 4-4-004-008 Maui Land & Pineapple	Umi
LCA 3852:4 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp	Pokole
LCA 4257:2 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp	Kauuhua
LCA 4742:1 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp	Makuahine
LCA 4742:2 4-4-003-001 Pioneer Mill Company	Makuahine
LCA 6476 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp	Keliikuli
LCA 3766:1 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp	Akaku
LCA 3853:2 4-4-005-001 Kaanapali Development Corp	Poohina
LCA 3932:1 4-4-002-008 State of Hawaii DHHL	Nalepo
LCA 3932:2 4-4-002-008 Kaanapali Development Corp LCA 3932:3 4-3-006-069 Breakers Condo	Nalepo Nalepo
LCA 3932:4 4-4-002-008 State of Hawaii DHHL	Nalepo
LCA 3932:4 4-4-002-008 State of Hawaii DHHL	Nalepo
LCA 3932:7 4-4-003-001 Pioneer Mill Company	Nalepo
LCA 4254:1 4-4-001-034 Maui Park Condo	Kaumauma
LCA 4254:2 4-4-001-046 State of Hawaii DLNR	Kaumauma
LCA 4254:3 4-4-002-003 State of Hawaii DHHL	Kaumauma
LCA 4254:4 4-4-003-013 Kaanapali Development Corp	Kaumauma
LCA 4239:3 4-4-001-104 State of Hawaii DLNR	Kaukau
LCA 4239:4 4-4-003-001 Pioneer Mill Company	Kaukau
LCA 4239:5 4-4-003-013 Kaanapali Development Corp	Kaukau
LCA 4239:6 4-4-003-013 Kaanapali Development Corp	Kaukau
LCA 3925 S:2 4-4-003-013 Kaanapali Development Corp	Olomana
LCA 3925 C:2 4-4-002-003 State of Hawaii DHHL LCA 3925 C:3 4-4-002-008 State of Hawaii DHHL	Kahope Kahope
LCA 5923 C.3 4-4-002-008 State of Hawaii DHHL	Polea
LCA 3853:1 4-4-002-008 State of Hawaii DHHL	Poohina
LCA 3925 H:2 4-4-003-013 Kaanapali Development Corp	Kaaha
LCA 4242:1 4-4-003-013 Kaanapali Development Corp	Kaaea
LCA 4242:2 4-4-003-049 Nalepo Estate	Kaaea
LCA 3766:2 4-4-002-008 State of Hawaii DHHL	Akaku
LCA 3766:3 4-4-002-008 State of Hawaii DHHL	Akaku
LCA 3766:4 4-4-002-003 State of Hawaii DHHL	Akaku
LCA 3766:5 4-4-003-001 Pioneer Mill Company	Akaku
LCA 3847:1 4-4-003-001 Pioneer Mill Company	Puhi
LCA 3847:2 4-4-001-041 Honokowai Palms Condo	Puhi
LCA 3847:3 4-4-003-013 Kaanapali Development Corp	Puhi Kabanaumaikai
· · ·	Kahanaumaikai Kahanaumaikai
	Kananaumaikai Kahanaumaikai
	Kananaumaikai Kahanaumaikai
	Kahanaumaikai
	Kahanaumaikai
LCA 4260:1 4-4-003-001 Pioneer Mill Company	Kaluaiuka
LCA 4260:3 4-4-003-001 Pioneer Mill Company	Kaluaiuka
LCA 4260:4 4-4-003-013 Kaanapali Development Corp	Kaluaiuka
LCA 4552:2 4-4-001-034 Maui Park Condo	Aumai
LCA 4552:3 4-4-003-013 Kaanapali Development Corp	Aumai
LCA 4552:5 4-4-001-071 Maui Sands Ii	Aumai
LCA 3925 E:4 4-4-002-008 State of Hawaii DHHL	Kanealii
LCA 4253:1 4-4-003-013 Kaanapali Development Corp	Kaiama
LCA 4253:2 4-4-002-008 State of Hawaii DHHL LCA 3688:1 4-4-001-023 Mynah Ventures LLC	Kaiama Meeau
LCA 3688:2 4-4-002-008 State of Hawaii DHHL	Meeau
LCA 3688:3 4-4-003-013 Kaanapali Development Corp	Meeau
LCA 3930:1 4-4-001-042 Hale Kai Condo	Nauwele

Table 12-1 (cont.)

LCA	TMK	Landowner	Claimant
LCA 3930:3	4-4-002-008	State of Hawaii DHHL	Nauwele
LCA 3930:4	4-4-003-013	Kaanapali Development Corp	Nauwele
LCA 6722:3	4-4-002-008	State of Hawaii DHHL	Pa, E
LCA 4244:1	4-4-005-001	Kaanapali Development Corp	Kuemanu
LCA 4244:2	4-4-003-001	Pioneer Mill Company	Kuemanu
LCA 3925:1	4-4-003-001	Pioneer Mill Company	Nahuli
LCA 4793 B:5	4-4-003-001	Pioneer Mill Company	Hanuna
LCA 3852:2	4-4-003-001	Pioneer Mill Company	Pokole
LCA 3988:2	4-4-001-029	Maui Beachfront Two LLC	Hilahila
LCA 3988:4	4-4-003-001	Pioneer Mill Company	Hilahila
LCA 3689:1	4-4-003-001	Pioneer Mill Company	Maui
LCA 3689:2	4-4-001-002	Honolulu Limited	Maui
LCA 4249:2	4-4-001-087	Johnson, Luzviminda Chiong	Kameeui
LCA 4249:3	4-4-003-001	Pioneer Mill Company	Kameeui
LCA 4241:3	4-4-001-002	Honolulu Limited	Kaluakini
LCA 3927:2	4-4-001-038	West Maui Trades Condo	Nakoholua
LCA 3927:3	4-4-001-016	State HHFDC	Nakoholua
BOE Grant 16:2	4-4-001-054	Lahaina Honokowai Villa LLC	Board of Education
LCA 4257:1	4-4-002-999	State of Hawaii DOT	Kauluhua
LCA 4242:5	4-4-001-034	Maui Park Condo	Kaaea
LCA 3926:3	4-4-001-031	Honomauka LLC	Nika
LCA 4260:6	4-4-001-066	HJonokowai East Condo	Kaluaiuka
LCA 75	4-3-001-082	Maui Land & Pineapple	Cockett, Charles

#### **Taro Production**

In 2002, the State Office of Hawaiian Affairs cosponsored a "No Ka Lo'i Conference", in the hopes of bringing together taro farmers from around the state to share knowledge on the cultivation of taro. An outcome of the conference was an acknowledgement that farmers needed to better understand the water requirements of their taro crops to ensure and protect their water resource interests. The result of this effort was a 2007 USGS wetland kalo water use study, prepared in cooperation with the State Office of Hawaiian Affairs, which specifically examined flow and water temperature data in a total of 10 cultivation areas on four islands in Hawaii.

The study reiterated the importance of water temperature in preventing root rot. Typically, the water in the taro loi is warmer than water in the stream because of solar heating. Consequently, a taro loi needs continuous flow of water to maintain the water temperature at an optimum level. Multiple studies cited in Gingerich, et al., 2007, suggest that water temperature should not exceed 77°F (25°C). Low water temperatures slow taro growth, while high temperatures may result in root rot (Penn, 1997). When the flow of water in the stream is low, possibly as a result of diversions or losing reaches, the warmer water in the taro loi is not replaced with the cooler water from the stream at a quick enough rate to maintain a constant water temperature. As a result, the temperature of the water in the taro loi rises, triggering root rot.

The 2007 USGS study noted that "although irrigation flows for kalo cultivation have been measured with varying degrees of scientific accuracy, there is disagreement regarding the amount of water used and needed for successful kalo cultivation, with water temperature recognized as a critical factor. Most studies have focused on the amount of water consumed rather than the amount needed to flow through the irrigation system for successful kalo cultivation (Gingerich, et al., 2007)." As a result, the study was designed to measure the throughflow of water in commercially viable loi complexes, rather than measuring the consumption of water during taro growth.

Because water requirements for taro vary with the stage of maturity of the plants, all the cultivation areas selected for the study were at approximately the same stage (i.e. near harvesting, when continuous

flooding is required). Temperature measurements were made every 15 minutes for approximately 2 months. Flow measurements were collected at the beginning and the end of that period. Data were collected during the dry season (June – October), when water requirements for cooling kalo are higher. Surface water temperatures generally begin to rise in April and remain elevated through September, due to increased solar heating. Water inflow temperature was measured in 17 loi complexes, and only three had inflow temperatures rising above 27°C (the threshold temperature above which wetland kalo is more susceptible to fungi and associated rotting diseases).

The average and median inflows from all 10 cultivation areas studied are listed in Table 12-4 below. The study indicated that the "values are consistent with previously reported inflow and are significantly higher than values generally estimated for consumption during kalo cultivation." It should also be noted that farmers were interviewed during field visits; most "believed that their supply of irrigation water was insufficient for proper kalo cultivation."

The study results are presented in Table 12-5 (discharge measurements) and Table 12-6 (water-temperature statistics).

**Table 12-2**. Summary of water use calculated from loi and loi complexes by island, and the entire state. (Source: Gingerich et al., 2007, Table 10) [gad = gallons per acre per day; na = not available]

		Complex				Loi			
Island	Number	Average water use (gad)	Average windward water use (gad)	Average leeward water use (gad)		Number	Average water use (gad)	Average windward water use (gad)	Average leeward water use (gad)
Kauai	6	120,000	97,000	260,000		2	220,000	220,000	na
Oahu	5	310,000	380,000	44,000		4	400,000	460,000	210,000
Maui	6	230,000	230,000	na		na	na	na	na
Hawaii	2	710,000	710,000	na		na	na	na	na
Average of all measurements		260,000	270,000	150,000			350,000	370,000	210,000
Median of all measurements		150,000	150,000	150,000			270,000	320,000	210,000

Historical uses can also provide some insight into the protection of traditional and customary Hawaiian rights. Handy et al., in *Native Planters of Old Hawaii* (1972), provide a limited regional description as follows:

Lahaina District was a favorable place for the high chiefs of Maui and their entourage for a number of reasons: the abundance of food from both land and sea; its equable climate and its attractiveness as a place of residence; it had probably the largest concentration of population, with its adjoining areas of habitation; easy communication with the other heavily populated areas...; and its propinquity to Lanai and Molokai. [p. 492]

**Table 12-3.** Water-temperature statistics based on measurements collected at 15-minute intervals for loi complexes on the island of Maui. (Source: Gingerich et al., 2007, Table 7)

[°C = degrees Celsius; na = not applicable]

.,	nus, nu not u				Temperature (°C)		
Geographic designation	Area	Station	Period of record	Mean	Range	Mean daily range	Temperature measurements greater that 27°C (percent)
Windward	Waihee	Ma08A-CI	7/29/2006 - 9/22/2006	21.6	19.9 - 24.0	2.0	0.0
		Ma08B-CIL	7/29/2006 - 9/22/2006 7/29/2006 -	24.9	20.3 - 34.0	7.6	25.4
		Ma08B-CO	9/22/2006	25.5	20.0 - 35.5	5.7	27.0
Windward	Wailua (Lakini)	Ma09-CIT	7/30/2006 - 9/21/2006	20.7	18.5 - 23.4	2.3	0.0
		Ma09-CO	7/30/2006 - 9/21/2006	23.2	18.4 - 31.7	7.4	16.9
Windward	Wailua	Ma10-CI	7/30/2006 - 9/21/2006	22.5	20.5 - 25.9	1.9	0.0
Windward	Wailua (Waikani)	Ma11-CI	7/30/2006 - 9/21/2006	22.2	21.0 - 24.0	0.7	0.0
		Mal1-CO	7/30/2006 - 9/21/2006	26.1	22.1 - 31.8	3.3	29.1
Windward	Keanae	Ma12-CI	7/31/2006 - 9/21/2006	20.0	19.0 - 21.9	1.0	0.0
		Ma12-CO	equipment malfunction	na	na	na	na

As quoted in Handy and Handy (1972; p. 493), Menzies wrote in 1973:

We observed rugged banks of a large rivulet that...watered with great neatness and industry. Even the shelving cliffs of rock were planted with esculent roots, banked in and watered by the most ingenious engineer.

...we found scattered along shore on a low tract of land that was neatly divided into little fields and laid out in the highest state of cultivation and improvement by being planted in the most regular manner with the different esculent roots and useful vegetables of the country, and watered at pleasure by aqueducts that ran here and there along the banks intersecting the fields.

With specific reference to the five watersheds north of Lahain in the Kaanapali area (Honokowai, Kahana, Honokahua, Honolua, and Honokohau, Handy and Handy (1972) wrote:

There were extensive loi lands in their valley bottoms, where terraces rose tier on tier in symmetrical stone-faced loi. [page 494]

Without delving into the extensive archive of literature (refer to Kumu Pono Associates, 2007a; 2007b), streamflow in the Lahaina District was used extensively for the cultivation of taro and other agricultural crops by Hawaiian communities. Kumu Pono Associates (2007a) provided some context:

The natural stream alignments were modified and extended in ancient times, with large and small 'auwai (irrigation channels) constructed to feed thousands of *lo'i kalo* (taro pond fields) in which the primary food crop of the Lahaina region residents was grown...

By the 1850s...To develop the sugar plantations...water began to be diverted from *lo'i kalo* to sugar fields...and by the 1860s...diminishing supplies of water were impacting native residency. Indeed, it was reported that in areas where water once flowed, none could then be found.

Individual cultural resources of Honokowai hydrologic unit were not classified by the Hawaii Stream Assessment (HSA), but generally classified based on the Historic Preservation Division database. Data were collected in three general areas of: 1) archaeological; 2) historical; and 3) modern practices. Archaeological data were originally compiled by the State Historic Preservation Division and are only current to 1990, the date of the HSA (Table 12-7). The Honokowai hydrologic unit has extensive archeological evidence addressing broad patterns in prehistory, with culturally significant sites including burials, religious structures, and trails. The terracing and auwai system that supported loi kalo along Honokowai stream are still evident.

## Archaeological Evidence for Hawaiian Agriculture

On the north bank of Honokowai Stream at approximately the 600 ft elevation, there are walls and other features consistent with an irrigated agricultural complex. This site is listed as State of Hawaii Archaeological site # 50-50-03-00229 and Historic site # 00229 (SHPD Library M-0017). This site is part of the Land Commission Award to Meeau (LCA 3688:4).

## **Fishponds**

Fishponds are another integral part of traditional Hawaiian culture, which speaks volumes of native Hawaiian skill and knowledge of aquaculture, which has also seen a resurgence of interest in recent years. Fishponds are found throughout the Hawaiian Islands and were either man-made or natural enclosures of water used for the raising and harvesting of fish and other aquatic organisms. Kikuchi (1973) identified six main types of fishponds, two of which are associated with streams (*loko wai*, *loko ia kalo*) and one type is associated with fresh water springs (*kaheka* or *hapunapuna*).

- Type III *Loko Wai*: An inland fresh water fishpond which is usually either a natural lake or swamp, which can contain ditches connected to a river, stream, or the sea, and which can contain sluice grates. Although most frequently occurring inland, *loko wai* are also located along the coast near the outlet of a stream.
- Type IV *Loko Ia Kalo*: A fishpond utilizing irrigated taro plots. *Loko ia kalo* are located inland along streams and on the coast in deltas and marshes.
- Type VI *Kaheka* and *Hapunapuna*: A natural pool or holding pond. The majority, if not all of these types of ponds, are anchialine ponds with naturally occurring shrimp and mollusks.

According to a 1990 Hawaii Coastal Zone Management Program *Hawaiian Fishpond Study for the Islands of Hawaii, Maui, Lanai, and Kauai,* there are no fishponds present in the Honokowai hydrologic unit (DHM, Inc., 1990).

**Figure 12-2**. Traditional ahupuaa boundaries in the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015j)

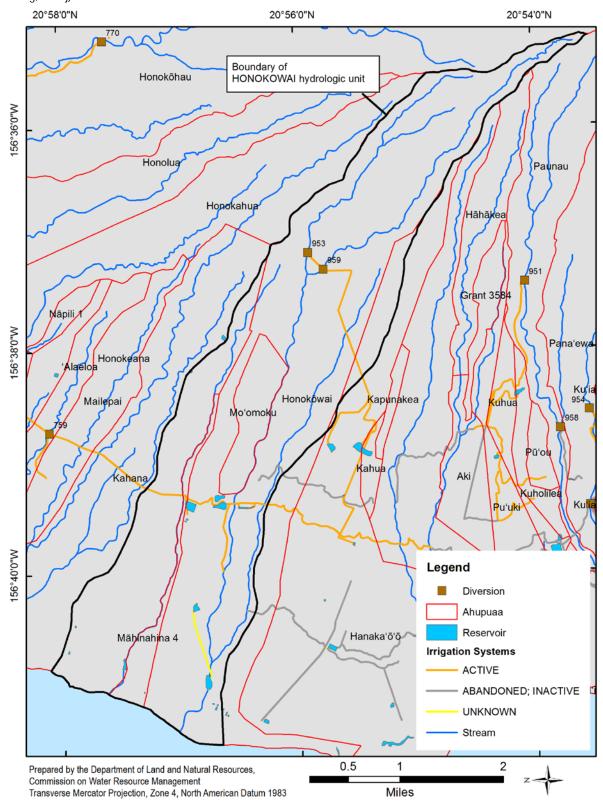


Table 12-4. Cultural resource elements evaluated as part of the Hawaii Stream Assessment for Honokowai Stream.

Category	Value
Survey coverage:  The extent of archaeological survey coverage was analyzed and recorded as complete, partial, very limited, and none. Few valleys are completely surveyed. Many have little or no survey coverage.	Very Limited
Predictability:  The ability to predict what historic sites might be in unsurveyed areas was scored as high, medium, or low predictability or unable to predict. A high score was assigned if archaeologists were able to predict likely site patterns in a valley given historic documents, extensive archaeological surveys in nearby or similar valleys, and/or partial survey coverage. A low score was assigned if archaeologists were unable to predict site patterns in a valley because of a lack of historical or archaeological information. A medium score was assigned to all other cases.	Medium
Number of Sites:  The actual number of historic sites known in each valley is straightforward yet very time consuming to count. Instead, archaeologists used survey information to estimate the number of sites in each valley. These figures, adequate for this broad-based assessment, are only rough estimates.	5
Valley significance as a Whole District:  The overall evaluation of each valley's significance was made considering each valley a district. The significance criteria of the National and Hawaii Registers of Historic Places were used. Criterion A applies if the district is significant in addressing broad patterns of prehistory or early history. Criterion B applies if the district is associated with important people (rulers) or deities. Criterion C applies if the district contains excellent examples of site types. Criterion D applies if the district is significant for information contained in its sites. Finally, Criterion E applies if the district is culturally significant for traditionally known places or events or for sites such as burials, religious structures, trails, and other culturally noteworthy sites.	AD
Site Density:  The density patterns of historic sites make up a variable extremely important to planners.  Three ranks were assigned: low for very few sites due either to normal site patterning or extensive land alteration, moderate for scattered clusters of sites, and high for continuous sites. Valleys with moderate or high density patterns are generally considered moderate or high sensitivity areas.	Scattered clusters of sites
Site Specific Significance:  The site specific significance variable was developed for valleys that had low densities of sites (very few sites) due either to normal site patterning or to extensive land alteration. An example of the first type might be a valley with housing sites on the side but too narrow for taro or housing sites on the valley floor. The second type might be a valley in which there had been sugar cane cultivation but a large heiau was left. The site specific significance of these valleys was categorized as either: 1) sites significant solely for information content which can undergo archaeological data recovery; or 2) sites significant for multiple criteria and merit preservation consideration. Those categorized as meriting preservation consideration would likely include large heiau, burial sites, and excellent examples of site types.	n/a
Overall Sensitivity:  The overall sensitivity of a valley was ranked very high, high, moderate, low, or unknown. Very high sensitivity areas have moderate or high densities of sites with little or no land alteration. They are extremely important archaeological and/or cultural areas. High sensitivity areas have moderate or high densities of sites with little or no land alteration. Moderate sensitivity areas have very few sites with the sites meriting preservation consideration due to multiple criteria or moderate densities of sites with moderate land alteration. Low sensitivity areas have very few sites due to normal site patterning or due to extensive land alteration. The sites present are significant solely for their informational content, which enable mitigation through data recovery. Those valleys where no surveying had been undertaken and the ability to predict what might be found was low were ranked unknown.	Moderate

#### Historic Resources:

Several types of sites were considered by inclusion in this section, particularly bridges, sugar mills and irrigation systems. Those that are listed on the State or National register were inventoried, but none of them assessed.

No

#### Taro Cultivation:

Streams and stream water have been and continue to be an integral part of the Hawaiian lifestyle. The committee identified a number of factors important to current Hawaiian practices. These include current taro cultivation, the potential for taro cultivation, appurtenant rights, subsistence gathering areas, and stream-related mythology. The committee felt that a complete assessment of the cultural resources of Hawaii's streams should include these items but, due to limits of information, only the current cultivation of taro was included.

Yes



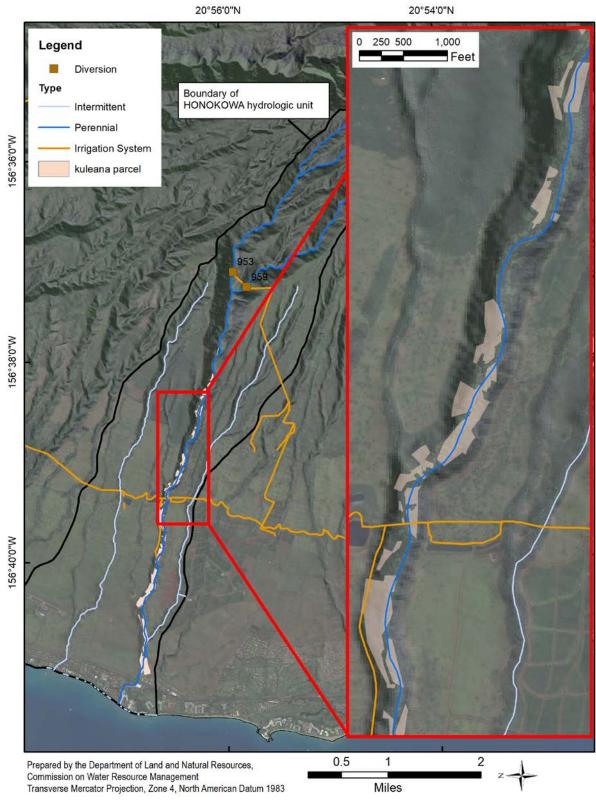


Figure 12-2. Kuleana parcels in the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015j)

## 13.0 Public Trust Uses of Water

The State Water Code (Hawaii Revised Statutes 174C-2) states that:

The state water code shall be liberally interpreted to obtain maximum beneficial use of the waters of the State for purposes such as domestic uses, aquaculture uses, irrigation and other agricultural uses, power development, and commercial and industrial uses. However, adequate provision shall be made for the protection of traditional and customary Hawaiian rights, the protection and procreation of fish and wildlife, the maintenance of proper ecological balance and scenic beauty, and the preservation and enhancement of waters of the State for municipal uses, public recreation, public water supply, agriculture, and navigation.

Article 11, Section 1 of the Hawaii State Constitution maintains that the:

State and its political subdivisions shall conserve and protect Hawaii's natural beauty and all natural resources, including land, water, air, minerals, and energy sources, and shall promote the development and utilization of these resources in a manner consistent with their conservation and in furtherance of the self-sufficiency of the State. All public natural resources are held in trust by the State for the benefit of the people.

This solidified the Public Trust Doctrine as constitutional law. Further, Article 11, Section 7, states that the "State has an obligation to protect, control, and regulate the use of Hawaii's water resources for the benefit of its people." The Public Trust Doctrine now identifies four priority uses of water as: (1) water for traditional and customary practices, including the growing of taro; (2) reservations of water for Hawaiian Home Land allotments; (3) water for domestic use of the general public; (4) maintenance of waters in its natural state.

In the Honokowai hydrologic unit, the use of water for traditional and customary practices was covered in Chapter 12 and water in its natural state is covered in Chapters 3-7. At a Maui County Council Water Resources Committee in 2017, native Hawaiian cultural practitioners requested that the county refrain from issuing additional water permits until water was restored in Kanaha Stream (nearby) to support traditional and customary practices. The following is an analysis of reservations of water for Hawaiian Home Lands and domestic water use in Honokowai.

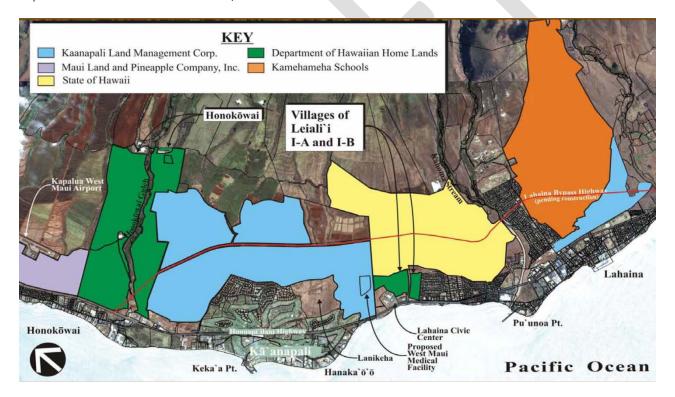
### **Hawaiian Home Lands**

A component in the assessment of water use includes an analysis of the presence of Department of Hawaiian Home Lands (DHHL) parcels within the surface water hydrologic unit. The mission of DHHL is to effectively manage the Hawaiian Home Lands trust and to develop and deliver land to native Hawaiians (PBR Hawaii, 2004). In June 2004, DHHL published the Maui Island Plan which served to examine infrastructure needs, provide development cost estimates, and identify priority areas for homestead development. Of the more than 31,000 acres of DHHL land on the island of Maui, there are 850 acres in West Maui as part of the 2009 DHHL West Maui Regional Plan. DHHL now manages two large tracks of land in West Maui that may be served by nearby water resources. The Leialii tract (1-A and 1-B) encompass approximately 75 acres designated for residential development north of Lahaina. By 2031 the estimated potable water demand by DHHL for the Lahaina Aquifer Sector is 0.770 mgd and the non-potable water demand for Honokowai is 2.081 mgd (State of Hawaii, Department of Hawaiian Home lands, 2017). However, this estimate was based on 3,400 gallons per acre per day (gad) use (SDOA standard), which underestimates the agriculture irrigation demand by about 1,500 gad. DHHL developed a potable water well mauka of the Honokowai tract that will support the Maui Department of Water

Supply Lahaina-Napili Water System. The DHHL ground water reservation for Honokowai is 0.770 mgd. Land in Kahoma originally slated for development by the State of Hawaii Housing and Finance Development Corporation (Leialii Village I-A and I-B) was transferred to DHHL in 2004. The first development (Village I-A) was completed and beneficiaries began occupying homes in April 2007. The second development (Village I-B) was expected to begin construction in 2015.

The Honokowai track consists of 777 acres for housing on former sugar cane and pineapple fields mauka of the Honoapiilani Highway in Kaanapali, south of the West Maui airport (Figure 13-1). This land was designated for mixed development, with residential, community, supplemental agricultural, general agriculture, commercial and industrial uses. This development was planned before the Leialii tract was designated. As such, there is some uncertainty as to the future development plans with the Leialii tract development getting prioritized over the Honokowai tract. Non-potable water demand for irrigation of supplemental agriculture and general agriculture land use may be met with R-1 recycled water available from the Lahaina Wastewater Treatment Facility (WWTF) or water from Honokohau ditch. The Lahaina WWTF is already connected by a 20-inch line to the Maui Land & Pineapple reservoir at the 300 ft elevation and the Lower Field 14 Reservoir at the 750 ft elevation.

**Figure 13-1.** Hawaiian Home Lands development parcels and other major land owners, West Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Department of Hawaiian Home Lands, 2011)



# **Domestic Water Supply**

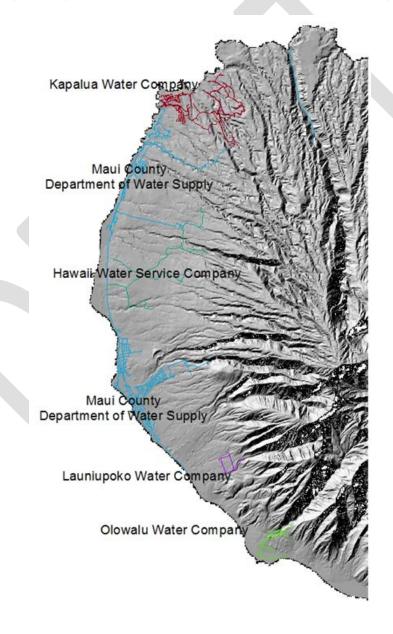
Maui County Department of Water Supply operates a surface water treatment facility in Kaanapali that utilizes water diverted from Honokohau Valley via Honokohau Ditch. This ditch once serviced pineapple and sugarcane lands throughout the Kaanapali and Honokowai regions. Following treatment, water is mixed with ground water pumped from Kanaha Well 1 and Kanaha Well 2, however, excess pumping from these wells results in a rise in chloride levels. Surface water is also processed from the Mahinahina Surface Water Treatment Facility from Honokohau Ditch for this system. Napili Wells A, B, and C, and Honokohau Well A are distributed throughout the Maui County Lahaina-Napili system service area and

also contribute to the system (Figure 13-2). The Lahaina-Napili water system service area supports much of the single-family connections in the region (Table 13-1).

**Table 13-1.** Current total and domestic (single family) water use by subdistrict for the Lahaina-Napili service area provided by the Maui County Department of Water Supply. (Source: Maui County, 2018)

subdistrict	Total Use (gpd)	Total Use (mgd)	Single Family Use (gpd)	Single Family % of Total
Lahaina	2,355,746	2.356	435,098	18.5%
Honokowai	2,022,400	2.022	179,658	8.8%
Alaeloa	1,007,878	1.008	417,639	41.4%
Honokohau	2,378	0.002	2,378	100%
Total	5,388,402	5.388	1,034,773	19.2%

Figure 13-2. Water supply service systems for the Lahaina Aquifer Sector, Maui. (Source: Maui County, 2018)



**Table 13-2.** Maui County DWS Lahaina-Napili water system sources, current (2017) 12-month moving average (MAV), and maximum capacity. [million gallons per day, mgd)

Source	Hydrologic Unit	12-month MAV (mgd)	Maximum Capacity (mgd)	Notes
Lahaina WTF	Kahoma	1.706	2.1	
Māhinahina WTF	Honokōwai	1.744	3.0	
Waipuka 1	Kahoma	0.000	0.324	
Waipuka 2	Kahoma	0.095	0.360	
Kanahā Well 1	Kahoma	0.059	0.360	
Kanahā Well 2	Kahoma	0.044	0.360	
DHHL Honokōwai	Honokōwai	0.000		Developed by DHHL for potable needs on DHHL homesteads
Māhinahina	Honokōwai			Well drilled in 2011 but deemed unsuccessful; not usable
Kahana	Honolua			Still in development; no pump, electricity, pipe lines or tanks
Nāpili A	Honolua	0.225	1.000	
Nāpili B	Honolua	0.575	1.008	
Nāpili C	Honolua	0.874	1.430	
Honokahua A	Honolua	0.000	0.710	
Honokahua B	Honolua	0.396	1.008	

## 14.0 Noninstream Uses

Under the State Water Code, noninstream uses are defined as "water that is diverted or removed from its stream channel...and includes the use of stream water outside of the channel for domestic, agricultural, and industrial purposes." Article XI, Section 3 of the State Constitution states: "The State shall conserve and protect agricultural lands, promote diversified agriculture, increase agricultural self-sufficiency and assure the availability of agriculturally sustainable lands." Water is crucial to agriculture and agricultural sustainability. Article XI, Section 3 also states, "Lands identified by the State as important agricultural lands needed to fulfill the purposes above shall not be reclassified by the State or rezoned by its political subdivisions without meeting the standards and criteria established by the legislature and approved by a two-thirds vote of the body responsible for the reclassification or rezoning action. [Add Const Con 1978 and election Nov 7, 1978]." It is the availability of water that allows for the designation of Important Agricultural Lands. The Hawaii Farm Bureau Federation, Hawaii's largest advocacy organization for general agriculture, states that agriculture is a public trust entity worthy of protection, as demonstrated in its inclusion in the State Constitution. They, on behalf of farmers and ranchers, point to the importance of large-scale agriculture to sustainability and self-sufficiency of our islands, particularly in times of catastrophe when imports are cut off.

In most cases, water is diverted from the stream channel via a physical diversion structure. Diversions take many forms, from small PVC pipes in the stream that remove relatively small amounts of water, to earthen auwai (ditches), hand-built rock walls, and concrete dams that remove relatively larger amounts of water.

## Water Leaving the Honokowai Hydrologic Unit in Ditch Systems

Water is most often used away from the stream channel and is not returned; however, as in the case of taro fields, water may be returned to the stream at some point downstream of its use. While the return of surface water to the stream would generally be considered a positive value, this introduces the need to consider water quality variables such as increased temperature, nutrients, and dissolved oxygen, which may impact other instream uses. The Honokowai ditch was designed to remove water from the Kapaloa stream without returning it to any of the streams in order to supply irrigation water for sugarcane land (Table 14-1). Currently, this water is used for the irrigation of the Kaanapali Coffee Farm and the landscaping demands for the agricultural subdivision.

In addition to the amount of water currently (or potentially) being diverted offstream, the Commission must also consider the diversion structure and the type of use, all of which impact instream uses in different ways. The wide range of diversion structures, as noted above, is what makes regulation of surface water particularly difficult, since one standard method cannot be depended upon for monitoring and measuring flow. The ease of diverting streamflow, whether it be by gravity-flow PVC pipe, pump, or a dug channel, also plays a role in the convenience of diverting surface water and the abundance of illegal, non-permitted diversions.

Upon the enactment of the State Water Code and subsequent adoption of the Hawaii Administrative Rules, the Commission required the registration of all existing stream diversions statewide. The Commission categorized the diversions and filed registrations according to the registrant's last name or company name. While it is recognized that the ownership and/or lease of many of the properties with diversions has changed since then, the file reference (FILEREF) remains the name of the original registrant file (Table 14-1) with locations are depicted in Figure 14-2. Monthly mean daily flow registered by Pioneer Mill is depicted in Figure 14-1. From January 1983 to December 1987, mean monthly ditch flow was 4.33 mgd, with a  $Q_{50}$  (median) flow of 3.90 mgd, a  $Q_{70}$  flow of 3.16 mgd, and a  $Q_{90}$  flow of 2.12 mgd as reported in the registration. From May 1989 to October 1994, Pioneer Mill

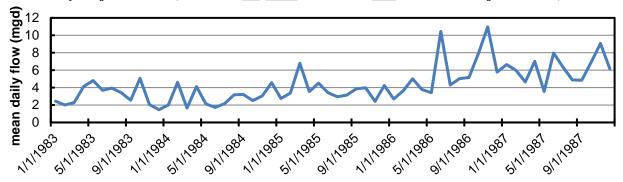
reported a mean ditch flow of 9.03 mgd and a median ditch flow of 4.74 mgd. From July 1912 to October 1967, USGS monitored daily ditch flow, with an average of 5.76 mgd,  $Q_{50}$  (median) flow of 4.39 mgd, a  $Q_{70}$  flow of 3.62 mgd, and a  $Q_{90}$  flow of 2.78 mgd (Table 14-3). Mean daily ditch flow in Honokowai Ditch provided by Pioneer Mill from 1989 to 1994 is provided in Figure 14-3. Data collected by Commission staff site visits, and information extracted from the original registration files regarding the registered diversions may be found in Table 14-4.

**Table 14-1.** Surface water registrations for the Honokowai Hydrologic Unit, Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2015e)

FILEREF	Diversion ID	Stream Name	Active?	Notes
PIONEER MILL	953	Amalu	Yes	Diversion is on State-owned land; operator does not have a water lease
PIONEER MILL	959	Kapaloa	Yes	Diversion is on Kaanapali Land Management property

Since the enactment of HAR Title 13 Chapter 168, stream diversion works permits are required for the construction of new diversions or alteration of existing diversions, with the exception of routine maintenance. These permitted (as opposed to "registered") diversion works are not part of the Commission's verification effort, nor have any diversions been permitted in the Honokowai hydrologic unit.

**Figure 14-1.** Registered monthly average flow (million gallons per day, mgd) diverted from Kapaloa and Amalu streams in the Honokowai Hydrologic Unit, Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2018c)



## **Current Agricultural Demands**

Kaanapali Development Corp. (i.e., Kaanapali Land Company, LLC) operates a coffee farm on a number of parcels previously owned by Pioneer Mill Company and used for sugarcane cultivation. One area of the coffee farm has already been subdivided into 61 fee simple lots and sold with luxury housing. While these gentleman farm lots will continue to have some portion dedicated to coffee, there are specific parcels remaining in the Kaanapali Development Corp. portfolio exclusively dedicated to coffee as listed in Table 14-4.

**Table 14-2.** Selected off-stream water use statistics in the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui, Hawaii. (Source: CWRM, 2018b)

system	operator	Period of record	mean daily flow (mgd)	median flow (mgd)
Honokowai Diversion 959 registration (monthly flow including Amalu Diversion)	Pioneer Mill	1983-1987	4.33	3.90
Honokowai Ditch	Pioneer Mill	1989-1994	9.03	4.74
Honokowai Ditch	USGS	1912-1967	5.76	4.39

Figure 14-2. Mean daily flow in Honokowai Ditch from Kapaloa Stream in the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2018c)

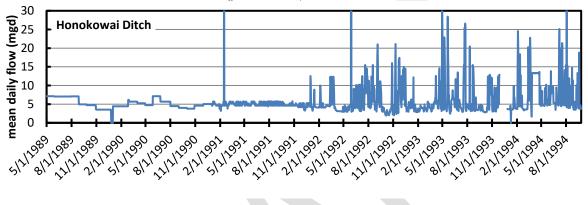




Table 14-3 Registered diversions in the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui.

[Source of photos are denoted at the end of each description; CWRM, Commission on Water Resource Management; Arrows (

pindicate general direction of natural water flow to and out of diversions; Chevrons (

pindicate direction of diverted surface water flow)

			Diversion	Active	Verified	Riparian	Rights Claim
Event ID	File Reference	Tax Map Key	Amount (cfs)	(Yes/No)	(Yes/No)	(Yes/No)	(Yes/No)
REG.959	PIONEER MILL	4-4-007-001	n/a	Yes	Yes	Yes	No

**Photos.** a) diversion structure across Kapaloa Stream from left bank; b) upstream view from diversion on Kapaloa Stream with natural flow and inflow water from Amalu Stream on right bank; c) downstream view from diversion on Kapaloa Stream; d) upstream view from catwalk across Kapaloa Stream; e) diversion intake for Honokowai Ditch; f) upstream view from diversion on Kapaloa Stream from right bank

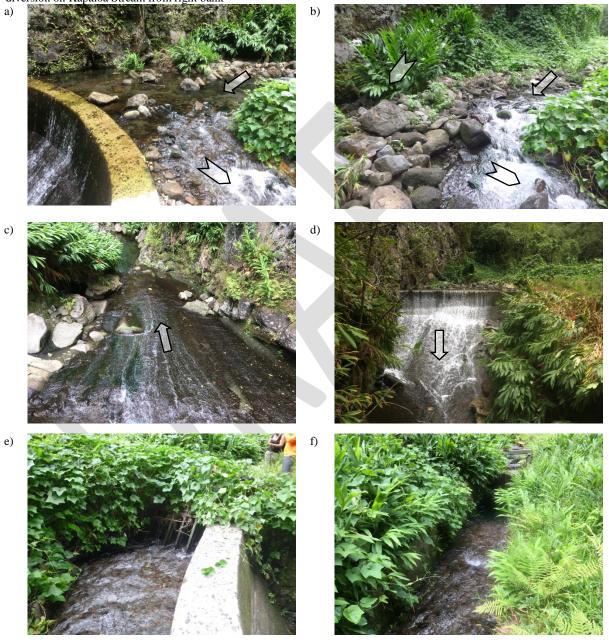


Table 14-3. Continued. Registered diversions in the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui.

		Tax Map	Diversion	Active	Verified	Riparian	Rights Claim
Event ID	File Reference	Key	Amount (cfs)	(Yes/No)	(Yes/No)	(Yes/No)	(Yes/No)
REG.953	PIONEER MILL	4-4007-004	n/a	Yes	Yes	No	No

**Photos.** upstream view of Amalu Stream at diversion 953 b) Amalu Stream diversion; c) Amalu Stream diversion intake on left bank into transmission tunnel; d) outflow from Amalu Stream transmission tunnel on right bank of Kapaloa Stream; e) Amalu Stream transmission tunnel; f) Amalu Stream transmission tunnel;



Table 14-3. Continued. Registered diversions in the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui.

			Diversion	Active	Verified	Riparian	Rights Claim	
Event ID	File Reference	Tax Map Key	Amount (cfs)	(Yes/No)	(Yes/No)	(Yes/No)	(Yes/No)	
REG.953	PIONEER MILL		n/a	Yes	Yes	No	No	

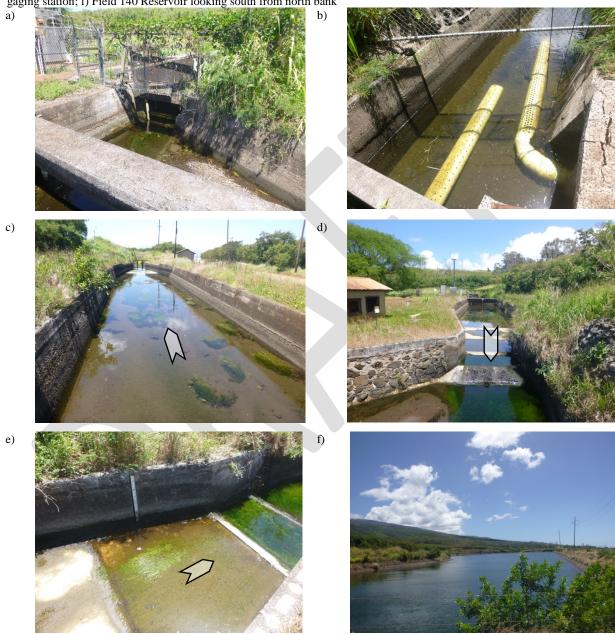
**Photos.** a) release point of sluice gate from Honokowai Ditch Intake to Kapaloa Stream; b) control gate and sluice gate on Honokowai Ditch before Honokowai Tunnel; c) Honokowai Ditch at USGS 16627000 staff gage; f) Honokowai Ditch at USGS 16627000 staff gage



Table 14-4. Additional components of the surface water irrigation system using water from the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui.

Event ID	Photo date	Tax Map Key	Diversion Amount (cfs)	Active (Yes/No)	Verified (Yes/No)	Riparian (Yes/No)	Rights Claim (Yes/No)
•	20170331	4-007-004	n/a	Yes	Yes	n/a	n/a

**Photos.** a) Honokohau Ditch at Mahinahina; b) Mahinahina Reservoir intake from Honokohau Ditch; c) Honokohau Ditch at Mahinahina before gaging station; d) Honokohau Ditch at Mahinahina gaging station; e) Honokohau Ditch at Mahinahina gaging station; f) Field 140 Reservoir looking south from north bank



Event ID	Photo date	Tax Map Key	Diversion Amount (cfs)	Active (Yes/No)	Verified (Yes/No)	Riparian (Yes/No)	Rights Claim (Yes/No)
	20170331		n/a	Yes	Yes	n/a	n/a

**Photos.** a) Control gate from Honokohau Ditch into Field 140 Reservoir; b) Honokohau Ditch before Field 140 Reservoir; c) Honokohau Ditch before Field 140 Reservoir looking north; d) Field 140 Reservoir from mauka bank; e) Honokohau Ditch after Field 140 Reservoir from south bank; Honokohau Ditch after Field 140 Reservoir



Table 14-3. [cont]

Event ID	Photo date	Tax Map Key	Diversion Amount (cfs)	Active (Yes/No)	Verified (Yes/No)	Riparian (Yes/No)	Rights Claim (Yes/No)
	20170331		n/a	Yes	Yes	n/a	n/a

**Photos.** a) Honokohau Ditch after Field 140 Reservoir before Honokowai Siphon; b) Honokohau Ditch before both north entrances to each Honokowai Siphon; c) Honokohau Ditch before Honokowai Siphon with control gates to second siphon; d) Honokowai Siphon north entrance blocked; e) control gate for emergency release at Honokowai Gulch; f) emergency



		Tax Map	Diversion	Active	Verified	Riparian	Rights Claim
Event ID	Photo date	Key	Amount (cfs)	(Yes/No)	(Yes/No)	(Yes/No)	(Yes/No)
	20170331		n/a	Yes	Yes	n/a	n/a

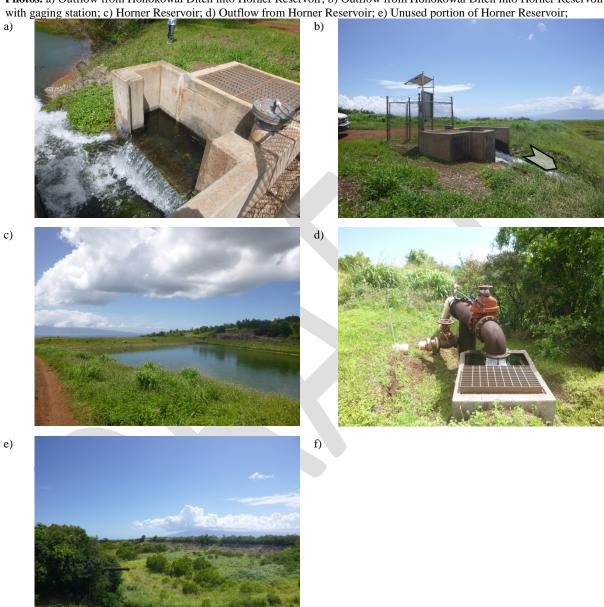
**Photos.** a) Control gate from Honokohau Ditch into Field 140 Reservoir; b) Honokohau Ditch before Field 140 Reservoir; c) Honokohau Ditch before Field 140 Reservoir looking north; d) Field 140 Reservoir from mauka bank; e) Honokohau Ditch after Field 140 Reservoir



Table 14-3. [cont]

		Tax Map	Diversion	Active	Verified	Riparian	Rights Claim
Event ID	Photo date	Key	Amount (cfs)	(Yes/No)	(Yes/No)	(Yes/No)	(Yes/No)
	20170518		n/a	Yes	Yes	n/a	n/a

Photos. a) Outflow from Honokowai Ditch into Horner Reservoir; b) Outflow from Honokowai Ditch into Horner Reservoir



Event ID	Photo date	Tax Map Key	Diversion Amount (cfs)	Active (Yes/No)	Verified (Yes/No)	Riparian (Yes/No)	Rights Claim (Yes/No)
-	20170308		n/a	Yes	Yes	n/a	n/a

**Photos.** a) Horner Reservoir outflow to irrigation filtration (black pipe) and into Honokohau Ditch; b) Honokohau Ditch after Horner Reservoir overflow before Wahikuli Flume; c) Honokohau Ditch at Wahikuli Flume with excess water released into gulch; d) north portal of Wahikuli Flume; e) north portal of Wahikuli Flume; f) Wahikuli Flume across Wahikuli Gulch with excess flow from ditch

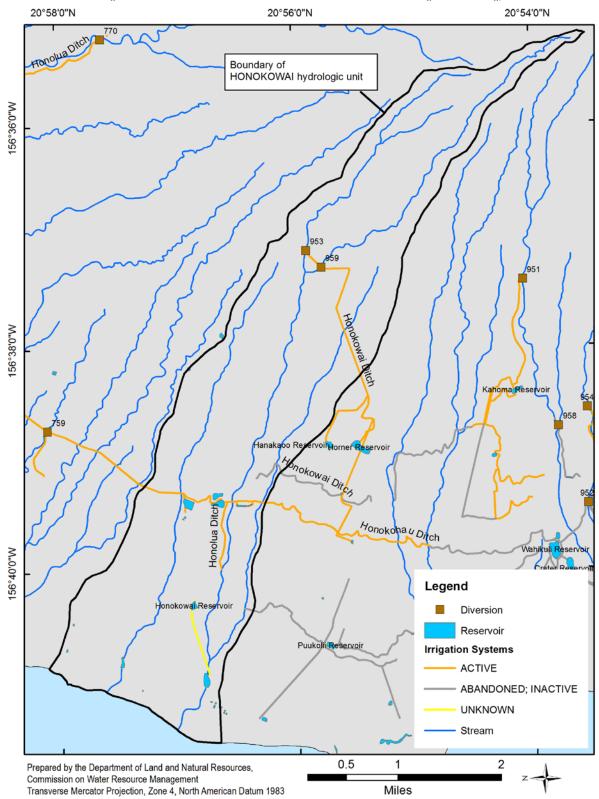


F 115	D	Tax Map	Diversion	Active	Verified	Riparian	Rights Claim
Event ID	Photo date	Key	Amount (cfs)	(Yes/No)	(Yes/No)	(Yes/No)	(Yes/No)
	20170308		n/a	Yes	Yes	n/a	n/a

**Photos.** a) Inflow to old irrigation filtration from Honokohau Ditch after Wahikuli Flume; b) Irrigation filtration; c) Honokohau Ditch at Hahakea Siphon; d) Hahakea Siphon from north bank; e) Cracks in Hahakea Siphon; f) Leakage from Hahakea Siphon into Hahakea Gulch



**Figure 14-3**. All registered diversions (ID) and ditches identified in the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2004d; State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2015g)



**Table 14-5.** Tax Map Key (TMK) parcel ID,ownership, parcel size (acres), and irrigation demand (million gallons per day, mgd) for coffee assuming 80% usage and 4600 gallons per acre per day. [Kaanapali Development Corp, KDC; State of Hawaii, SOH; Department of Hawaiian Home Lands, DHHL]

TMK	ownership	Size (Acre)	Coffee Irrigation Demand (mgd)
4-002-002	KDC	295.478	1.087
4-002-003	SOH (60 acres in cultivation)	165.207	0.221
4-002-008	SOH (29 acres in cultivation)	86.28	0.107
4-002-009	DHHL (not in cultivation)	4.69	0.017
4-004-013	KDC (110 acres in cultivation)	347.08	0.405
4-020-053	KDC	55.307	0.204
4-020-001	Topinka Family Trust	5.132	0.019
4-020-002	Pacific Principal Holdings, LLC	5.06	0.019
4-020-003	MacDonald, Derek	5.215	0.019
4-020-004	Sweety Trust	5.116	0.019
4-020-005	RS Blue, LLC	5.578	0.021
4-020-006	Scheibel, Jacqueline Family Trust	5.446	0.020
4-020-007	Scott, Worthy C Trust	8.321	0.031
4-020-008	GMWALK, LLC	5.722	0.021
4-020-009	PM Land Company, LLC	7.982	0.029
4-020-010	Miller, Halks Family Trust	4.422	0.016
4-020-011	Carver, Martin G	6.439	0.024
4-020-012	Sullivan, Thomas Warren Jr	5.038	0.019
4-020-013	Brunold, Justin	4.686	0.017
4-020-014	Nelson, Tomoko Bito	4.584	0.017
4-020-015	Muegge, Jack & Lyn Living Trust	5.746	0.021
4-020-016	Celestrial Properties, LLC	4.078	0.015
4-020-017	Howard, Dan & Cyndi Family Trust	4.271	0.016
4-020-018	Barber, Nick	5.445	0.020
4-020-019	Barber, Nick	5.326	0.020
4-020-020	Pinelli, Vincent Carl	4.948	0.018
4-020-021	Howard, Bradley D Gift Trust	4.901	0.018
4-020-022	Bell Court Partners	4.646	0.017
4-020-023	Latte Life, LLC	5.042	0.019
4-020-024	Mcelligott Family Trust	5.642	0.021
4-020-025	The 2003 Draffen Family Trust	5.458	0.020
4-020-026	Thibaut, Sharron/Christopher Family Trust	5.646	0.021
4-020-027	Discovery Investments, LTD	4.984	0.018
4-020-028	Nana, Ozair M Trust	4.457	0.016
4-020-029	PM Land Company, LLC	4.137	0.015
4-020-030	Guertin, Shwan M	4.742	0.017
4-020-031	Wilshere, Kevin Brian Trust	4.932	0.018
4-020-032	Guertin, Shawn Michael	4.951	0.018
4-020-033	Andronesi, Ieronim	4.037	0.015
4-020-034	Menehune Ventures, LLC	4.323	0.016
4-020-035	Fales, William Neil	5.188	0.019
4-020-036	Finnegan, Michael/Mi Ra Family Trust	4.466	0.016
4-020-037	Timmons, Trent	4.583	0.017
4-020-038	Prince, Dawn E	4.034	0.015

Table 14-3. (cont.)

TMK	ownership	Size (Acre)	Coffee Irrigation Demand (mgd)
4-020-039	Surdhar, Arvinder Singh	3.663	0.013
4-020-040	McKowne, Frank J	4.769	0.018
4-020-041	Knuppe Living Trust	5.82	0.021
4-020-042	Cahill, John Vincent	5.415	0.020
4-020-043	Kamapalia Trust	6.37	0.023
4-020-044	Fales, William Neil	4.804	0.018
4-020-045	Frederick, Kevin S	5.572	0.021
4-020-046	Barnes Family Inter Vivos Trust	3.879	0.014
4-020-047	Barnes, Matthew M Exempt Trust	4.234	0.016
4-020-048	Knuppe & Brown, LLC	5.076	0.019
4-020-049	Knuppe & Brown, LLC	6.615	0.024
4-020-050	Knuppe & Brown, LLC	6.615	0.024
4-020-051	Garcia, Jerald Mark	7.855	0.029
4-020-052	Davey, Christopher M H and Kathy M Trust	6.355	0.023
	Total =	1098.5	4.04

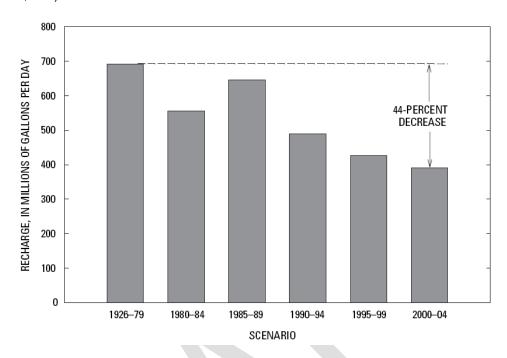
#### **Modifications of Ditch Systems and Groundwater Recharge**

Following the establishment of instream flow standards, one of the proposed measures to increase streamflow may be to decrease the amount of water diverted from streams. Such a measure has important implications to ground water recharge because it affects the amount of water available for irrigation. The effects of irrigation water on ground water recharge can be analyzed using the water budget equation<sup>5</sup>. Engott and Vana (2007) at the USGS conducted a study that estimated each of the water budget components for west and central Maui using data from 1926 to 2004. Components of the water budget include rainfall, fog drip, irrigation, runoff, evapotranspiration, and recharge. Results of the study were separated into six historical periods: 1926-79, 1980-84, 1985-89, 1990-94, 1995-99, and 2000-04. From 1979 to 2004, ground water recharge decreased 44 percent from 693 million gallons per day to 391 million gallons per day (Figure 14-4). The low recharge rate in 2004 coincides with the lowest irrigation and rainfall rates that were 46 percent and 11 percent lower than those in 1979, respectively. During this period, agricultural lands decreased 21 percent from 112,657 acres in 1979 to 88,847 acres in 2004. Further analysis revealed that a 20 percent decrease in irrigation rate could result in a 9 percent reduction in recharge. A similar study by Izuka et al. (2005) reported that a 34 percent decrease in irrigation rate constituted a 7 percent reduction in recharge in the Lihue basin in Kauai, Hawaii.

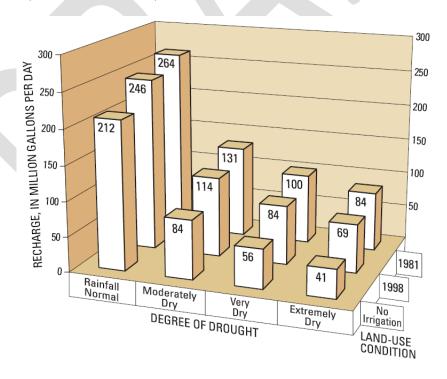
Droughts, or periods of lower than average rainfall, have been shown to drastically decrease ground water recharge. The period of drought that occurred in 1998-2002, during which rainfall was at least 30 percent lower than the average annual rainfall was estimated to reduce recharge by 27 percent in west and central Maui (Engott and Vana, 2007).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Water-budget is a balance between the amount of water leaving, entering, and being stored in the plant-soil system. The water budget method/equation is often used to estimate ground water recharge.

**Figure 14-4**. Estimated recharge for six historical periods between 1926 and 2004, central and west Maui, Hawaii. (Source: Engott and Vana, 2007)



**Figure 14-5.** Summary of estimated recharge, in million gallons per day, for various land-use and rainfall conditions in the Lihue Basin, Kauai, Hawaii. (Source: Izuka et al., 2005)



#### **Utilization of Important Agricultural Lands**

The Agricultural Lands of Importance to the State of Hawaii (ALISH) were completed by the State Department of Agriculture (HDOA) in 1977, with the assistance of the Soil Conservation Service (SCS), U.S. Department of Agriculture, and the College of Tropical Agriculture, University of Hawaii. Three classes of agriculturally important lands were established for Hawaii in conjunction with the SCS in an effort to inventory prime agricultural lands nationwide (Figure 14-7). Hawaii's effort resulted in the classification system of lands as: 1) Prime agricultural land; 2) Unique agricultural land; and 3) Other important agricultural land. Each classification was based on specific criteria such as soil characteristics, slope, flood frequency, and water supply. ALISH was intended to serve as a long-term planning guidance for land use decisions related to important agricultural lands. HDOA is currently in the process of developing agricultural incentives based on classifications of Important Agricultural Lands. Honokowai is comprised of nearly 53 percent of designated agricultural land. Decreasing the amount of water diverted at the ditches located affects the amount of water available for the irrigation of crops on these important agricultural lands.

**Table 14-6.** Agricultural Lands of Importance to the State of Hawaii and area distributions in the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015g)

Density	Area (mi <sup>2</sup> )	Percent of Unit
Prime agricultural land	3.042	36.35 %
Unclassified agricultural land	0.002	0.024 %
Other lands	0.491	5.861 %

As agricultural commodities changed substantially with the closure of largescale pineapple and sugarcane in the 1980s-2000s, the HDOA funded an updated baseline study of agricultural land use for 2015 (Figure 14-6). Much of the Honokowai hydrologic unit is currently fallow, although the diverted water supports the irrigation and non-potable needs of Kaanapali Coffee Farm and gentleman estates.

#### Irrigation Needs of the Honokowai Hydrologic Unit

The Commission funded the development of a GIS-based software program the utilizes the state of Irrigation Water Requirement Estimation Decision Support System, IWREDSS (State of Hawaii, Commission on Water Resource Management, 2015b) was developed by the College of Tropical Agriculture and Human Resources, University of Hawaii at Manoa for the State of Hawaii. IWREDSS is an ArcGIS-based numerical simulation model that estimates irrigation requirements (IRR) and water budget components for different crops grown in the Hawaiian environment. The model accounts for different irrigation application systems (e.g., drip, sprinkler, flood), and water application practices (e.g., field capacity versus fixed depth). Model input parameters include rainfall, evaporation, soil water holding capacities, depth of water table, and various crop water management parameters including length of growing season, crop coefficient<sup>6</sup>, rooting depth, and crop evapotranspiration.

Calibration and validation of the model was based on the crop water requirement data for different crops from the Hawaii region United States Department of Agriculture (USDA), Natural Resource Conservation Service (NRCS) Handbook 38 (NRCS-USDA, 1996). Relative errors between the net irrigation requirements (NIR) estimated by the model and those estimated by NRCS range from less than 1 percent to a 26 percent overestimate. This difference may be attributed to the general nature of the technique NRCS used in estimating NIR. Results of the regression analysis indicate a good correlation ( $R^2 = 0.97$ ) between the two techniques; however, the NIR calculations by NRCS were consistently 8

- 110 -

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Crop coefficient is an empirically derived dimensionless number that relates potential evapotranspiration to the crop evapotranspiration. The coefficient is crop-specific.

percent higher than those of the IWREDSS model. Overall, the model is an appropriate and practical tool that can be used to assess the IRR of crops in Hawaii.

Understanding that water demand is highly site, weather, application, and crop dependent, IWREDSS can still provide a useful approximation of water needs. According to the simulation results, the IRR for citrus trees is 4000-4500 gallons per acre per day (Table 14-7). The model calculates IRR based on long-term rainfall records available at the weather stations located nearest to the fields. Thus, the estimated IRR represents an average value for given drought scenarios as opposed to average or wet year conditions. However, the estimated IRR for the relative drought year frequencies could be extrapolated to represent the highest demand scenarios. Alternatively, water demand per tree can be used based on the number of trees planted.

**Table 14-7.** Mean drip irrigation demand estimates for various crops grown in Honokowai area based on IWREDSS scenarios modeled for two soil management techniques and two cover crop options given a 10 ft depth to water table. Irrigation Requirement (IRR) value in gallons per acre per day for the 1 in 5 year drought scenario is provided.

			estimated irrigation demand (gallons/acre/day) for a given drought frequency				
Crops	row crop management	soil management	1 in 2 (50%)	1 in 5 (20%)	1 in 10 (10%)	1 in 20 (5%)	
citrus	straight row	Poor	4105	4351	4459	4541	
	straight row	Good	4090	4338	4448	4530	
	contoured	Poor	4088	4336	4446	4528	
	contoured	Good	4083	4330	4439	4521	
avocado	straight row	Poor	4814	5218	5400	5538	
	straight row	Good	4760	5172	5357	5498	
	contoured	Poor	4755	5167	5353	5494	
	contoured	Good	4718	5137	5327	5471	
coffee	straight row	Poor	4640	5006	5171	5295	
	straight row	Good	4588	4963	5132	5260	
	contoured	Poor	4580	4958	5128	5257	
	contoured	Good	4550	4932	5104	5235	

To estimate the total current water demand for existing coffee cultivation as depicted in Figure 14-6 irrigated with drip irrication to field capacity under various management scenarios are identified in Table 14-8.

**Table 14-8.** Mean drip irrigation demand estimates for various crops grown in Honokowai area based on IWREDSS scenarios modeled for two soil management techniques and two cover crop options given a 10 ft depth to water table. Irrigation Requirement (IRR) value in inches (in) per year per acre, gallons per acre per day or total gallons per day for the 1 in 5 year drought scenario is provided.

crop management	soil management	in per acre	gpd per acre	Total demand mgd
straight row	Poor	64.404	4,791	1.281
straight row	Good	63.89	4,753	1.271
contoured	Poor	63.926	4,756	1.272
contoured	Good	63.531	4,726	1.264



# Figure 14-6. Current extent of coffee cultivation using water diverted from the Honokowai hydrologic unit by Kaanapali Land

## Long-term Development in West Maui

The Update currently being developed for the West Maui Community Plan analyzes the current and future population, affordable housing shortages, and other development needs for the Lahaina District. In 2017, only 31% of the housing units were owner occupied, with another 35% used as rentals, leaving 34% vacant for transient accommodations (Maui County, 2018b). This is in contrast to statewide in which 50% of all housing units are owner occupied and only 13% are vacant for transient accommodations. A large driver of this issue is the large volume of luxury homes constructed in West Maui, with median 2018 sales prices for Kapalua (\$3,000,000), Napili/Kahana/Honokowai (\$961,500), Kaanapali (\$1,762,250), Lahaina (\$835,00), and Olowalu (\$1,360,000) largely out of range for the median annual household income of just over \$100,000. The majority of West Maui home buyers are mainlanders (62.7%) or foreigners (8.4%), with local residents only accounting for 28.9% of home sales (DBEDT, 2016). A number of affordable (up to 160% of median household income) housing projects are in the works (Table 14-6), which should help with the projected 2040 demand of 13,358 housing units.

Table 14-9. Future affordable housing projects in West Maui. (source: Maui County 2018b)

Project	Developer	Status	units
Kaiaulu at Kaanapali	Aina Pacific, LLC	under construction	33 SF; 100% affordable
Kahoma Residential	West Maui Land	under construction	68 SF; 100% affordable
Kahoma Village	Stanford Carr Development Corp.	under construction	102 MF affordable; 101 SF market rate
Pailolo Place	Aina Pacific, LLC	pending final approval	42 SF; 100% affordable
Puleluhua	Maui Oceanview, LP	under construction	208 MF affordable; 618 MF market rate
Villages of Leialii	HI Housing Finance & Development Corp.	planned	200 MF; 100% affordable
Polanui Gardens	Kipa Centennial, LLC	planned	50 SF affordable; 16 Ag lots market rate
Makila Rural—East	Hope Builders, LLC	planned	50 SF affordable; 45 SF market rate
Makila Farms	Makila Kai, LLC	planned	16 SF affordable; 15 Ag lots market rate

Figure 14-7. Development plan for Kaanapali 2020, Maui. (Source: Kaanapali Land Management)

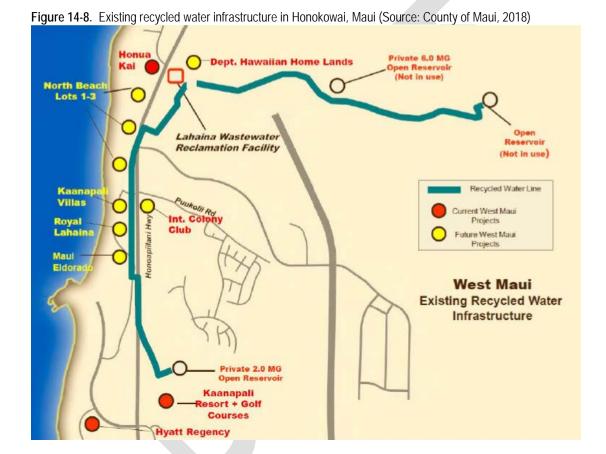


### **Availability of Alternative Resources: Ground water**

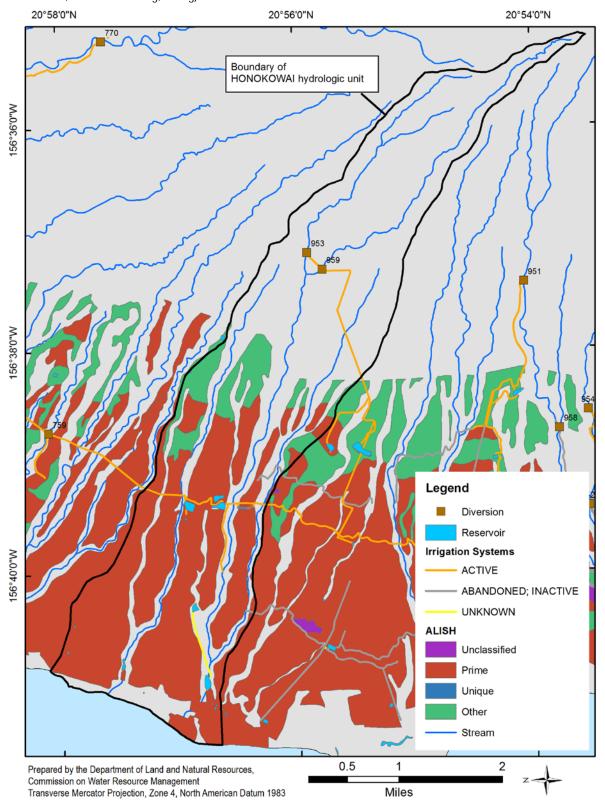
While the sustainable yield of the whole Lahaina Aquifer Sector is 34 million gallons per day, increasing access to ground water can be challenging as the underlying geology, interactions with nearby wells, and salinity issues limit the availability of ground water at low elevations. Further, the cost of finding, evaluating, and obtaining necessary approvals can be challenging with no guarentee of success. At higher elevations, pumping rates from the basal aquifer may be greater; however, electrical costs to pump from such an elevation and connectivity costs can limit the suitability of a source. Interconnectivity between public (e.g., Maui County, DHHL) and private (e.g., Kapalua Water, Hawaii Water Service) water systems may increase efficiency and resiliency during drought, when surface water sources may be limiting.

## **Availability of Alternative Resources: Recycled Water**

A substantial amount of surface water (~65%) diverted from West Maui streams is used for irrigating landscaping, golf courses, and parks (Maui County, 2018). Reducing the need to irrigate this type of vegetation, by planting alternative species that are more drought tolerant, will reduce demand for scare water supplies. Alternatively, recycled wastewater is available from the County's Lahaina Wastewater Reclamation Facility that serves the West Maui area from Kapalua to Kaanapali (Figure 14-7). The current dry weather treatment capacity is 9.0 mgd, with the resorts currently using the largest portion of recycled water. In 2014, the average production was 4.2 mgd, however, only a portion of the facility's effluent was treated to R-1 standards, since the current demand is only up to about 40% of production, or about 1.5 mgd. Kaanapali Resort uses the R-1 water for golf course and landscape irrigation.



**Figure 14-9**. Agricultural Lands of Importance to the State of Hawaii (ALISH) for the Honokowai hydrologic unit, Maui. (Source: State of Hawaii, Office of Planning, 2015g)



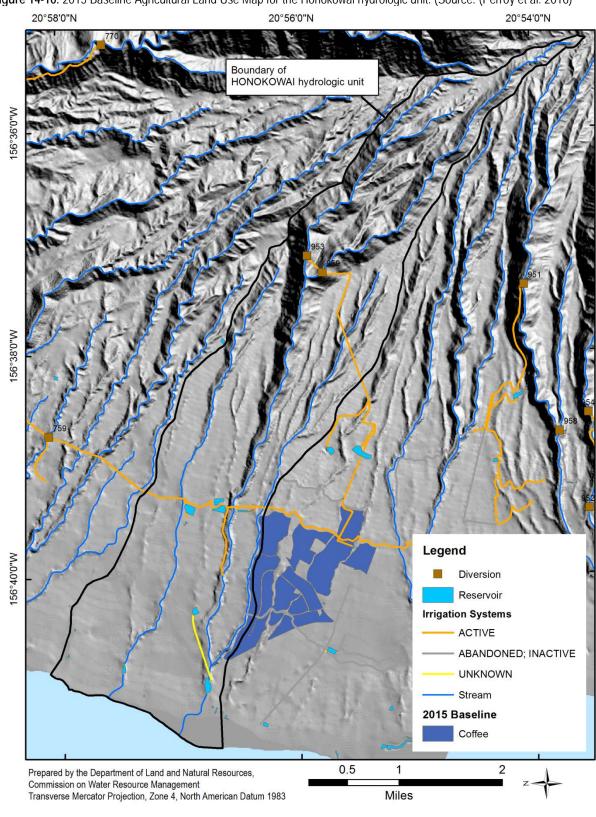


Figure 14-10. 2015 Baseline Agricultural Land Use Map for the Honokowai hydrologic unit. (Source: (Perroy et al. 2016)

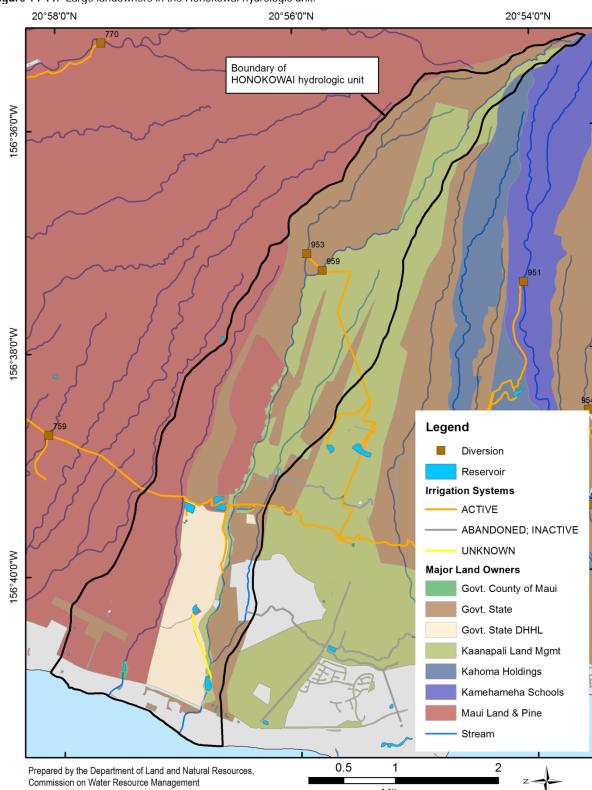


Figure 14-11. Large landowners in the Honokowai hydrologic unit.

Transverse Mercator Projection, Zone 4, North American Datum 1983

Miles

# 15.0 Bibliography

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# 16.0 Appendices

Appendix A Honokowai, Maui, Hawaii. June 2008.

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