Appendix E Essential Fish Habitat Assessment

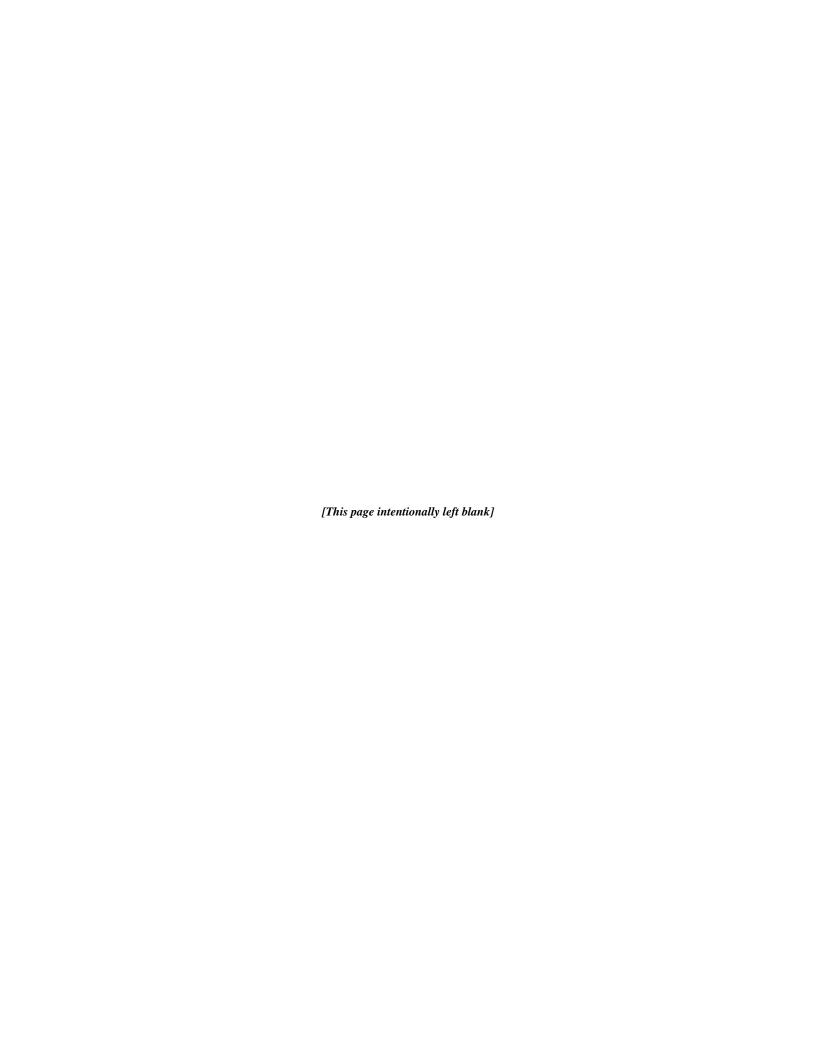


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Appendix E: Essential Fish Habitat Assessment

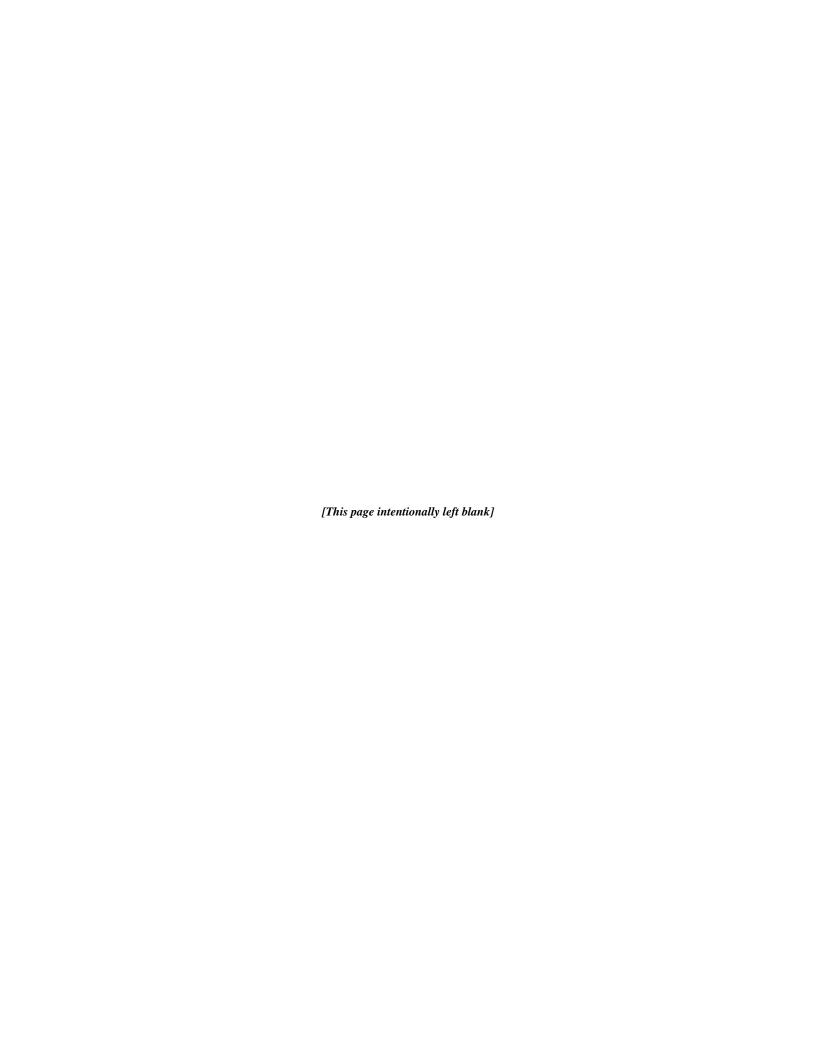
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Essential Fish Habitat Assessment for the Proposed Expansion of the Strategic Petroleum Reserve

Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas

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Appendix E Essential Fish Habitat Assessment

E.1 INTRODUCTION

This document presents the assessment of the Essential Fish Habitat (EFH) conducted by the Department of Energy (DOE) for the proposed expansion of the Strategic Petroleum Reserve (SPR). The assessment fulfills a requirement of the Magnuson-Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management Act of 1976, as amended through 1996 (Magnuson-Stevens Act).

This EFH assessment was prepared in conjunction with the Environmental Impact Statement prepared for consideration of the proposed expansion of the SPR.

The objectives of this EFH assessment are to describe how the actions proposed by DOE may affect EFHs designated by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, National Marine Fisheries Service (NOAA Fisheries) and Gulf of Mexico Fisheries Management Council (GMFMC) in the area of proposed project sites. According to the GMFMC, EFHs in the Gulf of Mexico include all estuarine and marine waters and substrates, as well as tidally influenced waters and substrates to the seaward limit of the Exclusive Economic Zone. The Exclusive Economic Zone is the area under national jurisdiction (up to 200-nautical miles [370 kilometers] wide) declared in line with the provisions of 1982 United Nations Convention of the Law of the Sea, within which the coastal nation has the right to explore and exploit, and the responsibility to conserve and manage, the living and non-living resources.

This assessment describes the proposed action and analyzes the direct and indirect effects on EFHs for the managed fish species, their habitat, and their major food sources. This assessment also presents the conclusions regarding the effects of the proposed action and alternatives and proposed mitigation measures.

E.2 PROJECT DESCRIPTION

The Strategic Petroleum Reserve (SPR) was created in the 1970s to protect the United States from interruptions in petroleum supplies that could be detrimental to our energy security, National security, and economy. Congress mandated creation of the SPR in the Energy Policy and Conservation Act (EPCA) of 1975, and established as a national goal the storage of up to 1 billion barrels of crude oil and petroleum products. The current storage capacity of the SPR is 727 million barrels (MMB). Section 301(e) of the Energy Policy Act (EPACT), Public Law 109-58, enacted on August 8, 2005, directs the Secretary of Energy to:

"... acquire petroleum in quantities sufficient to fill the Strategic Petroleum Reserve to the 1,000,000,000 barrel capacity authorized under Section 154(a) of the Energy Policy and Conservation Act ..."

and Section 303 directs:

"Not later than 1 year after the date of enactment of this Act, the Secretary shall complete a proceeding to select, from sites that the Secretary has previously studied, sites necessary to enable acquisition by the Secretary of the full authorized volume of the Strategic Petroleum Reserve. In such proceeding, the Secretary shall first consider and give preference to the five sites which the Secretary previously assessed in the Draft

Environmental Impact Statement, DOE/EIS-0165-D. However, the Secretary in his discretion may select other sites as proposed by a State where a site has been previously studied by the Secretary to meet the full authorized volume of the Strategic Petroleum Reserve."

In response to these directives the purpose and need for agency action is to fill the SPR to the full authorized 1,000,000,000-barrel capacity (1,000-MMB) and by selecting sites to expand the current 727 MMB storage capacity.

The SPR, which is operated by DOE, currently consists of four underground oil storage facilities along the Gulf Coast: two in Louisiana (Bayou Choctaw and West Hackberry) and two in Texas (Big Hill and Bryan Mound). In addition, an administrative facility is located in New Orleans, LA. At the storage facilities, crude oil is stored in caverns constructed by the solution mining of rock salt formations (salt domes). The four SPR facilities have a current storage capacity of 727 MMB.

E.2.1 Proposed Action and Alternatives

The proposed action is to expand SPR storage capacity from its existing storage capacity of 727 MMB to 1 billion barrels (1,000 MMB). To obtain the additional 273 MMB of storage capacity, DOE would develop one of the following new sites:

- Bruinsburg, MS (160 MMB);
- Chacahoula, LA (160 MMB);
- Richton, MS (160 MMB); or
- Stratton Ridge, TX (160 MMB).

In addition to developing a new site or a combination of two new sites, DOE would expand capacity at existing DOE SPR sites, namely Big Hill, TX and Bayou Choctaw, LA, and/or West Hackberry, LA. DOE will consider a 80 or 96 MMB capacity expansion at Big Hill, a 20 MMB capacity expansion at Bayou Choctaw, and no expansion or a 15 MMB capacity expansion at West Hackberry.

These combinations of potential new and expansion sites will allow DOE to assess a wide range of alternative configurations to achieve the 1 billion barrel storage capacity, as mandated by the Energy Policy Act of 2005. The assessment of each site will include consideration of ancillary offsite facilities including pipelines to crude oil transportation and distribution complexes.

For the proposed new and expansion sites, DOE would create oil storage caverns in underground rock salt formations, except for West Hackberry where DOE would buy existing caverns. Caverns would be constructed through a technique known as solution mining using fresh or salt water. Leaching generates approximately 80 MMB of concentrated brine wastewater per 10 MMB in cavern space created. This wastewater would be disposed of either by pipeline to diffusers in the Gulf of Mexico or to an array of underground injection wells.

To supply the water to a new site, a raw water intake (RWI) structure would be constructed offsite in a surface water body (a canal, the Intracoastal Waterway (ICW), the Mississippi River, the Gulf of Mexico, or the Leaf River). The water and brine systems for leaching caverns would be sized to supply up to 1.2 million barrels per day (MMBD) and the crude oil distribution system would be designed for drawdown up to one MMBD. The proposed expansions of existing SPR facilities would, in general, use the existing infrastructure and pipelines of the oil storage site. The location of the existing and proposed offshore pipelines and diffusers are shown in figures E.5-1 through E.5-4.

Brine from three of the sites (Bruinsburg, Bayou Choctaw, and West Hackberry) would be injected into the deep subsurface aquifer via injection wells. At the remaining sites listed below, brine would be discharged into the Gulf of Mexico through diffusers. Brine discharge via pipeline rights-of-way (ROWs) to the Gulf of Mexico would occur at the following proposed sites (see figure E.2-1: Proposed Locations of SPR Brine Diffusers in the Gulf of Mexico).

- Chacahoula, LA (new site, brine pipeline, and diffuser);
- Richton, MS (new site, brine pipeline, and diffuser);
- Stratton Ridge, TX (new site, brine pipeline, and diffuser); and
- Big Hill, TX (expansion of existing SPR brine would discharge through an existing diffuser).

E.3 ESSENTIAL FISH HABITAT

EFH is defined in the Sustainable Fisheries Act (1996) as those "waters and substrate necessary to fish for spawning, breeding, feeding, or growth to maturity." The identification of the different habitat types in the Gulf of Mexico region has several different types of EFH that are necessary for one commercially important species or another during different stages of their life cycle. EFH in the Gulf Coast region typically include some palustrine wetlands, estuarine wetlands, submerged aquatic vegetation (SAV), marine, estuarine, and tidally influenced water columns and sediment.

The different types of EFH identified in the proposed project areas would be affected by construction of the brine disposal pipelines and some of the crude oil pipelines, petroleum storage terminals, and RWIs. The daily operation of the facility, including periodic maintenance of pipeline ROWs and the discharge of brine and brine diffusion, would affect these habitats as well.

The following sites would have impacts to EFH from the listed elements:

- Chacahoula: brine discharge, brine, water, and oil pipelines, and RWI
- Richton: brine discharge, brine and oil pipeline, and Pascagoula terminal and RWI
- Stratton Ridge: brine discharge, brine and water pipeline, and RWI
- West Hackberry: site security buffer
- Big Hill: brine discharge (no construction impacts because discharge system exists)

E.3.1 Estuarine Emergent Wetlands

An estuary is a semi-enclosed coastal body of water which has a free connection with the open sea and within which sea water mixes with fresh water. The key feature of an estuary is that it is a mixing place for sea water and a stream or river to supply fresh water. A tide is a necessary component to maintain a dynamic relationship between the two waters.

Emergent wetlands are wetlands that are defined by erect, rooted, herbaceous hydrophytic plants. The estuarine environment is defined by the presence of ocean-derived salt with salinity greater than 0.5 percent, and the area is partially or wholly enclosed by land, but it is influenced by oceanic and freshwater sources. Estuarine emergent wetlands are defined in a similar way to estuarine environment,

Jackson MISSISSIPPI Bruinsburg * Richton W LOUISIANA TEXAS 3 Baton Rouge Pascagoula Bayou Choctaw New Orleans Richton Brine Disposal West Hackberry Houston Big Hill Chacahoula Big Hill Brine Disposal LOOP Stratton Ridge Chacahoula Brine Disposal Stratton Ridge Brine Disposal Proposed SPR Site City Brine Disposal Location Pipeline SPR Site Proposed for Expansion Kilometers 37.5 75 150 ICF20060807DBP002

Figure E.2-1: Proposed Locations of SPR Brine Diffusers in the Gulf of Mexico and Pipelines

characterized by erect, rooted, herbaceous hydrophytes, but are dominated by halophytic plants such as smooth cord grass (*Spartina alterniflora*).

The estuarine emergent wetlands are a prevalent habitat type along the Gulf Coast. The estuarine emergent wetlands go through periods during low tides when most of the water has receded from the vegetated area, leaving the plants and substrate exposed. These areas are important nurseries for juvenile species of fish and invertebrates. The vegetation provides protection and shelter from larger predators and offers habitat for the species to mature (Cowardin, 1979).

E.3.2 Tidally Influenced Palustrine Wetlands

Palustrine wetlands are one of the most prevalent habitat types along the Gulf Coast. The publication Classification of Wetlands and Deepwater Habitats of the United States (Cowardin et al., 1979), defines palustrine wetlands as active wave-formed or bedrock shoreline features lacking water depth less than 2m at low water. Palustrine wetlands can be tidal or non tidal and when tidally influenced can be particularly important habitat to the larvae and juveniles of certain fish and invertebrate species. Palustrine wetlands that are tidally influenced are typically considered EFH.

E.3.3 Mud, Sand, and Shell Substrates

The different commercially important species found in the Gulf Coast region show preferences to different types of substrates. Species such as shrimp would prefer the muddy substrate because it allows them to forage for food that lives in the substrate. Aside from the commercially important species that can be found in the area, many species of mollusks, polychaetes, oligochaetes, and annelids can be found in or on the muddy or sandy substrate.

The shell substrate is created by oysters that form large reefs, creating an entirely different substrate type. Similar to the sand and mud substrate, many other non-commercially important species can be found in this habitat. Some juvenile fish use these areas for feeding and protection from predators.

E.3.4 Submerged Aquatic Vegetation

SAV, as defined by the Gulf of Mexico Fishery Management Council, is "rooted vascular plants that, except for some flowering structures, live and grow below the water surface." SAV is a sensitive type of EFH, and often accommodates many managed species in the Gulf during some life stage. The offshore brine pipelines associated with Stratton Ridge and Richton may encounter SAV during the construction process. DOE would attempt during the more detailed design stage to avoid these areas during the formal pipeline survey and alignment. If construction through areas of SAV is unavoidable, DOE would complete a delineation, secure a jurisdictional determination from NOAA Fisheries, and develop a plan to minimize the impacts through the Section 404/401 permit process. DOE would prepare a compensation plan to mitigate any impacts to SAV that would be submitted to NOAA Fisheries and the appropriate agencies involved in the Section 404/401 permit.

Near Stratton Ridge, there are several different species of SAV that occur in the Galveston Bay ecosystem. The different types of SAV are shoalgrass (*Halodule wrightii*), wigeongrass (*Ruppia maritima*), and turtle grass (*Thalassia testudinum*). These grasses occur mostly to the northeast in Christmas Bay and Drum Lake, away from the brine pipeline ROW.

The brine pipeline associated with the proposed Richton site would pass near areas of seagrasses near the Gulf Islands National Seashore (GUIS). Figure E.5-1 shows the bathymetric contours in meters. Potential seagrass habitat occurs in water under 3 meters (10 feet) that is protected from wave action. The

location and abundance of seagrass beds are dynamic and affected by drought conditions and storms. The northern shores of GUIS in the Mississippi Sound are known to have seagrass beds.

The species of seagrasses that exist in the proposed Richton site are Turtle grass (*Thalassia testudinum*), shoalgrass (*Halodule wrightii*), wigeongrass (*Ruppia maritima*), and manatee grass (*Syringodium filiforme*). The seagrass beds are sporadically located throughout the system along the barrier islands. Shoalgrass, turtle grass, and manatee grass are found on the northern side of the barrier islands in the GUIS where they are protected from the higher wave energy of the open Gulf.

E.3.5 Tidal, Estuarine and Marine Water Columns

The water column makes up the largest portion of the habitat types in the aquatic environment. The pelagic ecosystem can be home to many species of commercially important fishes. Species such as greater amberjack, tunas, dolphinfish, and cobia are all pelagic species that are found in the Gulf of Mexico. The water column is equally important in the estuarine environment; many of the top tier predators and commercially important species can be found in the pelagic environment. The pelagic environment is home to phytoplankton, the primary producers of the water column, and the base of the food web. Several managed species, including red drum, brown shrimp, and white shrimp, have early life stages in inland tidal waters (discussed below).

E.3.6 Artificial Reefs

Artificial reefs are manmade structures that create habitat for marine life. These structures can include concrete rubble, sunken ships, and oil rigs (active and decommissioned). Objects used for creation of artificial reefs depend on the water depth. Shallow waters (72-102 feet, 21-31 meters) use concrete rubble, old bridges, and concrete scrap, and beyond 102 feet (31 meters) use decommissioned oil rigs, and even deeper waters that can be home to sunken ships (Texas Parks and Wildlife, 2006). Each of the states along the Gulf has created artificial reef programs that aim to aid operating companies in ecologically sound disposal of decommissioned oil rigs and ships for the conversion to artificial reefs. These artificial reefs provide new, artificial habitat for marine life in areas that may otherwise be devoid of benthic structure. Many fishes can be found associated with the artificial reefs, including snappers, groupers, jacks, sharks, and some reef species.

The larger artificial reefs, for the most part, are located in deeper waters than the proposed brine pipelines or diffusers—beyond 17 fathoms (102 feet, 31 meters). It is not expected that the brine disposal system, would adversely affect the artificial reefs of the Gulf of Mexico. The maximum depth at the terminus of the brine diffusers for any of the sites would be 47 feet (14 meters) for the proposed Richton site. This depth is within the limits of the use of concrete rubble for artificial reefs but not within the depth acceptable for the use of oil rigs and ships.

E.4 MANAGED SPECIES

Many species found in the Gulf of Mexico are highly valued for commercial purposes. Whether taken to market, processed for meal, or used for supplement extraction, these species require management for the prevention of over-harvesting. NOAA Fisheries and the equivalent state agencies are the two main bodies that work to manage fisheries in the United States. Under the guidance of the Magnuson-Stevens Fisheries Conservation and Management Act and the Sustainable Fisheries Act, NOAA Fisheries and the respective state agencies have created their own guidelines with limits and quotas for the management of the fisheries within their waters.

The species assessed in this document are those most likely to occur within the project areas. Other managed species were considered and determined to be unaffected by the proposed project because of two main factors: (1) they do not occur in shallow waters; or (2) they do not occur in the geographic project area.

E.4.1 Shrimp Fishery

The shrimp fishery is an economically important fishery in the Gulf of Mexico. The shrimp fishery is composed of three different species, which are harvested in commercial quantities throughout the Gulf Coast region. The three main species harvested are the brown, pink, and white shrimp. Each of these species has commercial importance throughout the different proposed project areas.

E.4.1.1 Brown Shrimp

Although they are most abundant in the central and western part of the Gulf of Mexico, brown shrimp (*Farfantepenaeus aztecus*) occur throughout the coastal Gulf region and its associated inshore estuarine and tidally influenced environments. Brown shrimp larvae are found offshore, but migrate to inshore estuaries and tidally influenced wetlands as postlarvae, with the height of migration occurring in late winter and early spring. The silt and mud substrate common to Gulf estuaries provides the juvenile brown shrimp diet, which includes detritus, algae, polychaetes, amphipods, nematodes, ostracods, chironomid larvae, and mysids (Lassuy, 1983). As adults, brown shrimp move from estuaries and tidally influenced wetlands to areas further offshore, and they can be found at water depths of up to 360 feet (109 meters). Adults will reach maturity within a year of moving offshore. Typically, fluctuations in temperature or salinity levels do not cause direct mortality. Postlarvae and juveniles have been collected in salinity levels up to 70 parts per thousand (GMFMC, 1998a), but that level may reduce vigor and increase vulnerability to predation. In addition, juveniles may leave estuaries early if large freshwater inflows occur and lower the salinity concentration (Larson et al., 1989).

E.4.1.2 Pink Shrimp

Pink shrimp (*Farfantepanaeus duorarum*) larvae begin life offshore, but juveniles move to estuarine and coastal bay nursery areas with soft sand or mud substrate mixture containing sea grasses. Recruitment of the postlarvae most often occurs in the spring and late fall during flood tides. The juveniles, which remain in nursery areas for 2 to 6 months, forage at night or in turbid conditions during the day. During this time, juvenile pink shrimp prey on a wide variety of organisms including foraminifera, diatoms, dinoflagellates, nematodes, polychaetes, and others (Bielsa, et al., 1983). Potential prey species for juvenile pink shrimp are vulnerable to dredging activities, such as would be required for laying and burying the brine pipelines, but they would recover quickly (Culter and Mahadevan, 1982). After the juveniles reach a certain length, they move offshore, with the principal peak of emigration from nurseries occurring in the fall. Adult pink shrimp are most commonly found at a depth of between 29 and 144 feet (9 and 44 meters), but have been found as deep as 361 feet (110 meters). Spawning for adult pink shrimp most often occurs in the spring, but they can spawn at any time year-round, usually at depths between 12 and 156 feet (4 and 48 meters).

Pink shrimp prefer different salinity levels at various life stages. Post-larval and juvenile shrimp are generally found at lower salinities in their estuarine environments, and they have been collected at salinities as low as between 12 and 5 parts per thousand, respectively. Adult pink shrimp prefer saltier oceanic water; they have been collected from seawater ranging in salinity from 25 to 45 parts per thousand (Bielsa et al., 1983).

E.4.1.3 White Shrimp

Like pink and brown shrimp, white shrimp (*Litopenaeus setiferus*) are offshore and estuarine dwellers that are pelagic as larvae and become demersal depending on their life stage. Two to three weeks after they hatch offshore, postlarval white shrimp travel to estuaries and tidally influenced wetlands that serve as nursery areas (Williams, et al., 1990). Juvenile white shrimp seek shallow water with muddy-sand bottoms, and they are invaluable for coastal food chains because they recycle organic matter by feeding on organic matter and detritus in the sediment (Williams, et al., 1990). As juveniles mature, they move to nearshore, demersal habitats that are less than 100 feet (30 meters) deep and generally prefer muddy substrates. Like the brown shrimp, white shrimp prefer higher salinity waters as they mature from the juvenile to adult life stage. Spawning will only occur in waters where salinity is at least 27 parts per thousand, and the depth is between 26 and 101 feet (8 and 31 meters).

E.4.2 Red Drum Fishery

The red drum (*Sciaenops ocellatus*) is one of the most economically important fish in the Gulf of Mexico. Although commercial harvest is not permitted, recreational capture is allowed. The red drum is common throughout the Gulf Coast system, most prevalent in the bays and estuaries, but it can be found in tidally influenced streams and wetlands and along the beachfronts in areas with elevated salinities. The majority of the life cycle is spent in bays and estuaries, and red drum only venture offshore for spawning. The eggs and early larval stage follow the currents and migrate back into the bays, estuaries, and tidally influenced streams and wetlands.

Red drum are found in—marine nearshore habitats, estuarine waters, and tidally influenced streams and wetlands—most commonly over sandy bottoms where they prey on fish, crabs, shrimp, sand dollars, and other invertebrates (Manooch, 1984). Larvae are found in vegetated or unvegetated bottoms in estuaries, tidally influenced systems, tidal flats, and open bays at temperatures ranging from 64 to 87 °F (18 to 31 °C), and salinities ranging from 16 to 36 parts per thousand. Optimal conditions are considered to be 77 °F (25 °C) and 30 parts per thousand for this species (Buckley, 1984; Holt, et al., 1981; Pattillo, et al., 1997; Peters and McMichaels, 1987). Early juveniles are found in backwaters, tidally influenced systems, tidal flats, primary and secondary bays, and open water mud bottoms at depths up to 9.8 feet (3 meters) and temperatures ranging from 54 to 90 °F (12 to 32 °C), and salinities from 0 to 45 parts per thousand (20 to 40 parts per thousand optimal) (Buckley, 1984; Holt, et al., 1981; Pattillo, et al., 1997; Peters and McMichaels, 1987; GMFMC, 1998b).

Juveniles cannot survive in ponds with less than 0.6 to 1.8 parts per million dissolved oxygen. Late juveniles are found in continental shelf and inshore waters at depths slightly greater than those of early juveniles, with temperatures ranging from 71 to 84 °F (22 to 29 °C) and salinities ranging from 25 to 45 parts per thousand (Buckley, 1984; Holt, et al., 1981; Pattillo, et al., 1997; Peters and McMichaels, 1987). Adult red drums are found in continental shelf and inshore waters at depths from 131 to 229 feet (40 to 70 meters), temperatures ranging from 35 to 91 °F (2 to 33 °C), and typical salinities of 30 to 35 parts per thousand, although the species can tolerate up to 50 parts per thousand (Lyczkowski-Shultz, et al., 1987; Holt, et al., 1981; Pattillo, et al., 1997; Peters and McMichaels, 1987).

E.4.3 Reef Fishery

In 1984, the Gulf of Mexico Reef Fishery Management Plan was one of the first to be developed by the Gulf Fishery Management Council. The goal outlined in the plan was to, "manage the reef fish fishery of the United States waters of the Gulf of Mexico to attain the greatest overall benefit to the nation with particular reference to food production and recreational opportunities on the basis of maximum sustainable yield as modified by relevant economic, social or ecological factors." A series of

amendments to the initial Reef Fishery Management Plan have provided updated policies for 42 species of reef fish that are of commercial or recreational importance in the Gulf of Mexico. Five families of fish—grouper, snapper, tilefish, triggerfish, and jack—account for approximately 95 percent of the reef fish landings in the Gulf. The vast majority of that (about 95 percent by weight) is made up of groupers and snappers (GMFMC, 2004).

The EFHs for reef fish species range from estuarine environments to offshore waters with depths of up to 1,640 feet (500 meters). Many of the species managed under the Reef Fish Management Plan occupy both benthic and pelagic environments depending on life-cycle phase. Larval reef fishes are planktonic, and they occupy the water column feeding on phytoplankton and smaller zooplankton. Some species of reef fish spend their larval phases in estuaries and inland seagrass beds before moving offshore as adults. Mature reef fish are generally demersal, and they are associated with high-relief bottom topographies (e.g., reefs, cliffs and outcroppings) on the continental shelf (GMFMC, 1998c).

Reef fish are also attracted to artificial reefs that may be intentionally constructed to encourage growth of fish stocks, or they may occur incidentally when a structure is constructed for different purposes but doubles as a reef environment. Petroleum operations, particularly in the northwest corner of the Gulf, have led to the construction of several artificial structures that are currently inhabited by Fishery Management Council-regulated species (GMFMC, 1998c).

E.4.3.1 Red Grouper

Red Grouper (*Epinephelus morio*) is the most widely distributed species of grouper and ranges throughout the Gulf of Mexico (Jory and Iversen, 1989). The larval stage for the red grouper lasts from 30 to 40 days, and the species is planktonic in the pelagic zone during that time (Moe, 1969). When the grouper matures to the juvenile phase of the life cycle, it is generally associated with inshore hard-bottom habitat, grassbeds, and rock formations where it preys on demersal crustaceans (Jory and Iversen, 1989). Adult groupers move farther offshore as they grow. They are most often found at depths of 100 to 400 feet (30 to 121 meters) (NOAA Fisheries, 2004). Groupers are most common in areas with average ocean salinities (30 to 35 parts per thousand), although young juveniles may move into waters where salinity is as low as 20 parts per thousand. Spawning adult groupers must inhabit water with salinity of at least 32 parts per thousand for the eggs to float (Hardy, 1978; Roe, 1976).

E.4.3.2 Greater Amberjack

Greater amberjacks (*Seriola dumerili*) are abundant in the Gulf of Mexico and are frequently encountered near structures such as reefs, sargassum patches, and oil rigs in waters ranging in depth from 65 to 1,099 feet (20 to 335 meters) (Duedero, et al., 1999; Massuti, et al., 1999). Greater amberjacks are top-level predators that feed on a variety of fishes, crustaceans, and cephalopods (Berry and Smith-Vaniz, 1977). Larvae are found in offshore open waters, most likely in warm, summer temperatures, and typical open Gulf salinity levels of 30 to 35 parts per thousand (Fahay, 1975; Thompson, 2005). Juveniles are pelagic, often associated with rip lines and floating structures, in waters with typical open Gulf salinity levels of 30 parts per thousand and above (Thompson, 2005). Adult greater amberjacks are also pelagic, but have been observed at depths ranging from surface to several hundred feet (meters) deep. Adults prefer waters with typical salinity levels of 30 parts per thousand and above, but become more scarce in waters with temperatures under 64 to 68 °F (18 to 20 °C) (Thompson, 2005; Berry and Smith-Vaniz, 1977; Fahay, 1975; Burch, 1979).

E.4.3.3 Tilefish

Tilefish (*Lopholatilus chamaeleonticeps*) are benthic and inhabit the outer continental shelf in the Gulf of Mexico at depths typically greater than 820 feet (250 meters) and temperatures ranging from 48 to 57 °F (9 to 14.4 °C) (Able, et al., 1987; Freeman and Turner, 1977). They are found in and around submarine canyons where they dig burrows in the sedimentary substrate (Nitschke, 2000). They predominately feed on crustaceans, fishes, and other benthic organisms (Freeman and Turner, 1977).

E.4.4 Coastal Migratory Pelagic Fishery

The coastal migratory pelagic fishery comprises many different species. Many top-tier predators such as cobia, dolphinfish, and mackerel are commercially and recreationally sought in the Gulf of Mexico. In addition to the top-tier predators, some primary consumers are important to many commercial fishermen (e.g., gulf menhaden).

E.4.4.1 Cobia

Cobia (*Rachycentron canadum*) are large pelagic fish that are distributed globally in tropical and subtropical waters including the coastal Gulf of Mexico. Cobia larvae occur in estuarine, nearshore and offshore locations, and they can be found near the surface or at depths of up to 984 feet (300 meters). The larvae are known to sustain greater salinity variation than more developed fish, and they can be reared at salinities as low as 19 parts per thousand (Ditty and Shaw, 1992; Hardy, 1978; Hassler and Rainville, 1975). Juvenile nursery and adult habitat overlap and include coastal areas, bays, and river mouths. Adult cobia, surviving on benthic invertebrates, follow general migration patterns—spring and summer in the northern Gulf, winter and fall in the southern Gulf. Spawning for cobia occurs in April through September in the northern Gulf of Mexico (Shaffer, et al., 1989; Boschung, 1957; Meyer and Franks, 1996; Knapp, 1951; Miles, 1949; Reid, 1954; Springer and Woodburn, 1960; Christmas and Waller, 1974). In addition to living in a narrow range of salinities, cobia are attracted to underwater structures such as pilings and wrecks, and they follow floating debris (Mills, 2000).

E.4.4.2 Dolphinfish

Dolphinfish (*Coryphaena hippurus*) are predatory oceanic fish that are limited to waters with high salinities (32 to 35 parts per thousand). They rarely travel to coastal waters (Oceanic Institute, 1993). Spawning of the species is poorly documented, but it is thought to occur nearly year-round in the Gulf, with a peak in the early fall. Dolphinfish larvae grow rapidly and reach maturity within one year of hatching. As with the adults, larvae and juveniles thrive in higher salinities and do not often occur in estuarine or coastal waters (GMFMC, 1998d). Young dolphinfish are most common at depths greater than 590 feet (180 meters), and adults can occur as deep as 5,900 feet (1,800 meters), although they are most common between 131 and 656 feet (40 and 200 meters) (Powles, 1981; Gibbs and Collette, 1959; Schuck, 1951; Ditty, et al., 1994). As with cobia, dolphinfish are attracted to floating objects and often aggregate around floating debris (Palko, et al., 1982). Dolphinfish also thrive in the Mississippi River plume, and they are particularly abundant in waters around the mouth of the Mississippi.

E.4.4.3 Gulf Menhaden

Gulf Menhaden (*Brevoortia patronus*) occur mostly inshore in the Mississippi Delta area in summer and largely move into deeper water in the fall. They feed in dense schools, filtering phytoplankton, but possibly also feed at the bottom. Spawning occurs from October to February, with a peak in January. Salinity tolerance ranges from 0.1 to 60 points per thousand, but the commercial catch is taken mostly

from salinity from 5 to 24 parts per thousand. Larvae stay in offshore waters for 3 to 5 weeks before moving into estuaries where they grow into adults (Patillo et al, 1997).

Commercial fisheries target this species because of the versatility they offer with products, from meal, to oils, to foodstuffs. Gulf menhaden are marketed fresh, salted, or canned, but mainly they are used as a source of fish oil and fishmeal. Construction of the SPR facilities and associated pipelines is not expected to have an impact on the commercial fishery.

E.4.4.4 King Mackerel

King mackerel (*Scomberomorus cavalla*) are found throughout the Gulf of Mexico, and they range throughout the neritic zone from close to shore to depths of 656 feet (200 meters). Spawning of king mackerel occurs throughout its range and peaks from May to October. Eggs and larvae are pelagic over depths of 98 to 590 feet (30 to 180 meters); optimally they grow in salinities more than 30 parts per thousand (Dwinell and Futch, 1973; Godcharles and Murphy, 1986; Nakamura, 1987). Although juveniles may occasionally use estuaries as nurseries, they generally live in nearshore shelf waters at depths of less than 29 feet (9 meters). As king mackerel grow, they prey on larger species of pelagic fish and squid, moving farther offshore to the edge of the continental shelf (Godcharles and Murphy, 1986).

E.4.4.5 Spanish Mackerel

Spanish Mackerel (*Scomberomorus maculates*) are primarily a neritic species, but in rare cases they inhabit inshore and estuarine waters (GMFMC, 1998d). Spanish mackerel larvae are most successful in inner continental shelf environments with salinity ranging from 28 to 37 parts per thousand, and at depths greater than 164 feet (50 meters) (Dwinell and Futch, 1973). Spanish mackerel is very similar to king mackerel in diet, and they prey primarily on pelagic fish, especially clupeids, engraulids, and carangids (GMFMC, 1998d).

E.4.5 Spiny Lobster Fishery

Although adult spiny lobsters (*Panulirus argus*) inhabit bays, lagoons, salty estuaries, and shallow banks, spawning for the spiny lobster takes place along the deeper reef fringes. After the larvae hatch, they live in the epipelagic for 6 to 12 months and exist in an offshore environment marked by relatively constant temperature and salinity, low levels of suspended sediments, and few pollutants (GMFMC, 1998f). Recruitment begins when the larval spiny lobsters adopt a secondary morphology with specialized abdominal pleopods that allow the lobsters to migrate to the nearshore. These migrations correspond with new and first quarter lunar phases (Marx and Herrnkind, 1986). The juvenile initially settle in macroalgae beds along rocky shorelines and feed on mollusks and other crustaceans. As the spiny lobster continues to grow and molt, it settles on larger biotic and abiotic structures. Adults eventually inhabit crevices in coral reefs and rock formations. Both the juveniles and adults are stenohaline, and optimally survive in water with a salinity of 32 to 36 parts per thousand (NOAA Panama City Laboratory, 2005; Buesa, 1979; Fields and Butler, 1994).

E.4.6 Highly Migratory Species

According the Fishery Conservation Amendments of 1990, (Public Law 101-627) highly migratory species (HMS) found in the deep waters of the Atlantic Ocean and Gulf of Mexico include: albacore tuna (*Thunnus alalunga*), bigeye tuna (*Thunnus obesus*), bluefin tuna (*Thunnus thynnus*), skipjack tuna (*Katsuwonus pelamis*), yellowfin tuna (*Thunnus albacares*), marlin (*Tetrapturus* spp. and *Makaira* spp.), oceanic sharks, sailfishes (*Istiophorus* spp.), and swordfish (*Xiphias gladius*). These HMS usually feed in deep water.

E.4.6.1 Albacore Tuna

Albacore tuna (*Thunnus alalunga*) are epipelagic and mesopelagic, and are found in oceanic surface waters between 60 to 67 °F (15 to 19 °C); deeper swimming, large albacore are found in waters of 56 to 78 °F (13 to 25 °C); temperatures as low as 49.1 °F (9.5 °C) may be tolerated for short periods. The species is known to concentrate along thermal discontinuities. It forms mixed schools with skipjack tuna (*Katsuwonus pelamis*), yellowfin tuna (*Thunnus albacares*), and bluefin tuna (*T. maccoyii*). Schools may be associated with floating objects including sargassum weeds. Primary prey includes fishes, crustaceans, and squids. Sexual maturity is reached at 35 inches (90 centimeters). Albacore tuna has high market demand.

E.4.6.2 Bigeye Tuna

Bigeye tuna (*Thunnus obesus*) occur in areas where water temperatures range from 55 to 84 °F (13 to 29 °C), but the optimum temperature for the species is between 62 and 71 °F (17 and 22 °C). Variation in occurrence is closely related to seasonal and climatic changes in surface temperature and thermocline. Juveniles and small adults collect in schools at the surface in monospecies groups or mixed with other tunas, and the schools may be associated with floating objects. Adults stay in deeper waters. Eggs and larvae are pelagic. Bigeyes feed on a wide variety of fishes, cephalopods, and crustaceans during the day and at night.

E.4.6.3 Blue Marlin

Blue Marlin (*Makaira nigricans*) is an oceanic species. Water color affects its occurrence, at least in the northern Gulf of Mexico, where the fish show preference for blue water. The species rarely gathers in schools, and it usually occurs as scattered individuals. Blue marlin feed mainly on fishes, but they also prey on octopods and squids. Feeding takes place during daytime. Sexual maturity in males is reached at about 32 inches (82 centimeters) in length and 90 pounds (40 kilograms) and for females 20 inches in length (50 centimeters) and 60 pounds (27 kilograms).

E.4.6.4 Bluefin Tuna

Bluefin Tuna (*Thunnus thynnus*) is primarily an oceanic species, but it can tolerate a wide range of temperatures, and seasonally it comes close to shore. It gathers in schools by size, and sometimes together with albacore, yellowfin, bigeye, skipjack tunas. It preys on small schooling fishes (anchovies, sauries, hakes) or on squids and red crabs. The species is pelagic and oceanodromous, and it is found in brackish to marine waters at a depth range 0 to 9,840 feet (0 to 3,000 meters). Bluefin tuna have become rare because of massive overfishing.

E.4.6.5 Skipjack Tuna

Skipjack tunas (*Katsuwonus pelamis*) are found in offshore waters. The larvae are restricted to waters with surface temperatures of 59 to 86 °F (15 to 30 °C). They exhibit a strong tendency to school in surface waters with birds, drifting objects, sharks, and whales and may show a characteristic behavior like jumping, feeding, foaming, etc. Skipjacks feed on fishes, crustaceans, cephalopods, and mollusks; cannibalism is common. They are preyed upon by large pelagic fishes. Skipjack tunas are marketed fresh, frozen or canned, dried-salted, and smoked. They spawn throughout the year in the tropics.

E.4.6.6 Swordfish

Swordfish are an oceanic species but sometimes are found in coastal waters. They generally live above the thermocline, preferring temperatures of 64 to 71 °F (18 °C to 22 °C). Larvae are frequently encountered at temperatures above 75 °F (24 °C). The larvae migrate toward temperate or cold waters in the summer, and then back to warm waters in the fall. Larger individuals may accumulate high concentrations of mercury in their flesh. In the Atlantic, spawning, which occurs in spring, takes place in the southern Sargasso Sea. The females grow faster than males. Age determination is difficult because the otoliths are very small and scales are missing in adults. Eggs are pelagic and measure 0.06 to 0.07 inches (1.6 to 1.8 millimeters). Newly hatched larvae are 0.16 inches (4 millimeters) long. The sword is well developed at a length of 0.37 inches (10 millimeters), and the young live pelagically in the upper water layers, where they quickly develop into voracious predators. The adults are opportunistic feeders, known to forage for their food from the surface to the bottom over a wide depth range. They use their sword to kill their prey, and feed mainly on fishes, crustaceans, and squids.

E.4.6.7 White Marlin

White Marlin (*Tetrapturus albidus*) are usually found above the thermocline. Its distribution varies seasonally, reaching higher latitudes in both the northern and southern hemispheres only during the respective warm seasons. The species is usually found in deep blue water (328 feet, 100 meters) with surface temperatures higher than 71 °F (22 °C) and salinities of 35 to 37 parts per thousand. Currents of 0.5 to 2 nautical miles per hour (0.9 to 3.7 kilometers per hour) occur over much of its habitat. White marlin feed on fishes and squids.

E.4.6.8 Yellowfin Tuna

Yellowfin Tuna (*Thunnus albacares*) are an oceanic species occurring above and below the thermoclines. They school primarily by size, either in monospecific or multispecies groups. Larger fish frequently gather in schools with porpoises, and they are associated with floating debris and other objects. Yellowfins feed on fishes, crustaceans, and squids. They are sensitive to low concentrations of oxygen, and therefore, they are not usually caught in waters deeper than 820 feet (250 meters) in the tropics. Peak spawning occurs in batches during the summer. Encircling nets are used to catch schools near the surface.

E.4.7 Stone Crab Fishery

The stone crab (*Menippe mercenaria*) fishery is a fairly small market in the northern Gulf of Mexico. The majority of the stone crab market comes from areas in southern Florida or southern Texas. The majority of the fishery is not located within the proposed project areas. Stone crabs do exist within the project area, but not in the larger numbers that exist in the southern Gulf of Mexico.

Stone crab larvae are hatched in the spring and fall in nearshore Gulf environments. The growth of the planktonic larvae depends on salinity and temperature, but stone crabs will usually progress through the larval stage in 14 to 27 days (Lindberg and Marshall, 1994). Juveniles settle in nearshore waters, and they can tolerate a broad range of temperature 46 to 100 °F (8 to 38 °C), and salinity (5 to 40 parts per thousand) (Brown, et al., 1992; Ong and Costlow, 1970). Both juveniles and adults are opportunistic carnivores. Adults dig and burrow to hide during hunting. Post-settlement juveniles hide in naturally occurring features such as shell hash habitat, sponges, and mats of seagrass (Culter and Mahadevan, 1982). Although they are occasionally found in the intertidal, adult stone crabs generally inhabit the shallow shelf seagrass flats and are specifically abundant in turtle grass (*Thalassia testudinum*). Adults

are euryhaline and can survive in a wide range of salinities; however, they are most common in water with salinity of at least 15 parts per thousand (NOAA Panama City Laboratory, 2005; GMFMC, 1998e).

E.4.8 Snapper Fishery

The snapper fishery comprises many different species, but the primary species sought is the red snapper. The red snapper fishery is strictly regulated because of the sensitivity of the species, and annual bag limits are set based on previous years' landings. The commercial fishing season for red snapper is during the summer, but recreational fishing can take place year round. Other snapper species are also sought, including the gray snapper.

E.4.8.1 Gray Snapper

Gray snappers (*Lutjanus griseus*) are found in coastal and offshore waters associated with seagrass, mangroves, estuaries, lagoons, deep channels, and reefs (NatureServe, 2005). Adults of the species tend to remain in the same area. Juvenile gray snapper prefer inshore areas such as seagrass beds (especially *Thalassia* seagrass), soft- and sand-bottom areas, and mangrove roots (Starck and Schroeder, 1971). Both adults and juveniles have been found in freshwater lakes and rivers in south Florida, which indicates a tolerance of a broad range of salinity levels. Juveniles are typically found in temperatures ranging from 55 to 97 °F (12 °C to 36 °C) and low salinities ranging from 0 to 66 parts per thousand (Rutherford, et al., 1989; Rutherford, et al., 1983). Adults occur in waters with depths of 0 to 591 feet (0 to 180 meters), temperatures from 56 to 90 °F (13 °C to 32 °C), and salinities ranging from 0 to 47 parts per thousand (NatureServe, 2005; Wang and Raney, 1971).

E.4.8.2 Vermillion Snapper

Vermillion snapper (*Rhomboplites aurobens*) is a member of the family Lutjanidae and typically inhabits inshore live-bottom, shelf edge, rock rubble, and rock outcrop areas. The species is an important recreational and commercial fishery in the south Atlantic and in the Gulf of Mexico. Vermillion snappers are distributed throughout the Gulf of Mexico to Brazil and along the Atlantic coast from North Carolina to Bermuda. Spawning in the Gulf of Mexico occurs from May to September. Some individuals spawn several times during this time period.

E.4.8.3 Lane Snapper

Adult lane snappers (*Lutjanus synagris*) are found in a variety of habitats throughout its range, but are most commonly observed over reefs and vegetated sandy bottoms in shallow inshore waters (Bester and Murray, 2005). Lane snappers also occur in seagrass beds associated with shrimping areas and offshore waters to depths of 1,300 feet (400 meters) (Bester and Murray, 2005). After they are established, adult lane snappers remain in the same area for their entire lives. Because the lane snapper lives in a wide range of habitats, they are opportunistic predators, feeding on a variety of prey such as smaller fishes, shrimp, cephalopods, gastropods, and crabs. Juveniles prefer protected inshore areas and are often found in waters of low salinity - 15 parts per thousand or less (Bester and Murray, 2005; Erhardt, 1976). Adults are typically found in waters at depths of 13 to 433 feet (4 to 132 meters), temperatures between 60 to 82 °C (16 °C and 29 °C), and high salinities of 30 parts per thousand or greater (Bullis and Jones, 1976; Erhardt, 1976).

E.4.8.4 Red Snapper

Red snapper (*Lutjanus campechanus*) larvae and juveniles are found in offshore continental shelf waters at depths ranging from 56 to 600 feet (17 to 183 meters), temperatures ranging from 63 to 85 °F (17 to 29

°C), and salinities ranging from 32 to 37 parts per thousand. Juveniles are most often observed in association with structures, objects, or small burrows and they are less likely to be observed over barren bottoms (Collins, et al., 1980; Moseley, 1966). Adults are found in large abundance off the Yucatan, Texas, and Louisiana coasts over areas of hard limestone or gravel bottoms and irregular bottom formations including deep reefs. Adult red snappers are found in waters at depths from 132 to 361 feet (40 to 110 meters), temperatures ranging from 57 to 86 °F (14 to 30 °C), and salinities ranging from 33 to 37 parts per thousand. The red snapper is a carnivorous fish, feeding primarily on a variety of smaller fishes, squid, octopus, crustaceans, and mollusks (Bester, 2005b).

E.4.8.5 Yellowtail Snapper

Adult yellowtail snappers (*Ocyurus chrysurus*) are semipelagic, and, typically are found over sandy or hard bottom areas near deep reefs at depths of 32 to 230 feet (10 to 70 meters) (Bester, 2005a). After they are established, adult yellowtail snappers tend to remain in the same area for long periods of time (Bester, 2005a). They feed predominately on benthic and pelagic reef fishes, crustaceans, and mollusks (Randall, 1967; GMFMC, 1980). Juveniles are found in and around shallow seagrass beds (especially *Thalassia* grass), shallow reef areas, mangrove roots, and jetties and pilings in preferred water temperatures of 63 to 85 °F (24 to 30 °C) (Thompson and Munro, 1974; Wallace, 1977). Adults are found on deeper reefs, and they tolerate temperatures ranging from 64 to 93 °F (18 to 34 °C) (GMFMC, 1980; Thompson and Munro, 1974; Roe, 1976).

E.5 ASSESSMENT OF IMPACTS AND MITIGATIVE MEASURES

As described in section E.2, all of the proposed new and expansion sites, except Bruinsburg and Bayou Choctaw, would affect EFH. In order to assess the extent and nature of EFH impacts, DOE used several techniques. The locations of the pipelines and the modeled brine plumes were overlain on the designated estuarine and marine EFH areas in the figures below for the Richton (figure E.5-1), Big Hill (figure E.5-2), Stratton Ridge (figure E.5-3), and Chacahoula (figure E.5-4) sites which would have brine discharges into the Gulf of Mexico. The brine plumes in these figures represent one of the two prevalent current directions. The influence of the brine plumes on EFH in both directions was assessed. The depiction of the other prevalent current direction can be found in the draft EIS Appendix C on the brine discharge modeling.

In order to identify the EFH impacts within the tidal reaches that extend inland, DOE used different methodologies depending on the location. For Louisiana sites, DOE overlaid a GIS layer of tidal reaches (LOSCO 1999) on top of the proposed project footprint to identify the approximate affected areas of EFH. For Texas and Mississippi, DOE used the National Wetland Inventory data of estuarine wetlands, along the proposed project footprint, to identify approximate affected areas of EFH.

Based on the designated EFH areas and the species' life histories presented in section E.4, DOE has identified the species of concern in table E.5-1. This table presents the overlap between tidal, estuarine and offshore EFH areas at each of the proposed new and expansion sites and the species that potentially would be affected.

The potential impacts to the EFH and managed fish species are common across all of the sites that have brine disposal pipelines and brine diffusers. This section is organized by impacts to the EFH types described in section E.3. Any impact to a site specific important resource within EFH type is highlighted within the section.

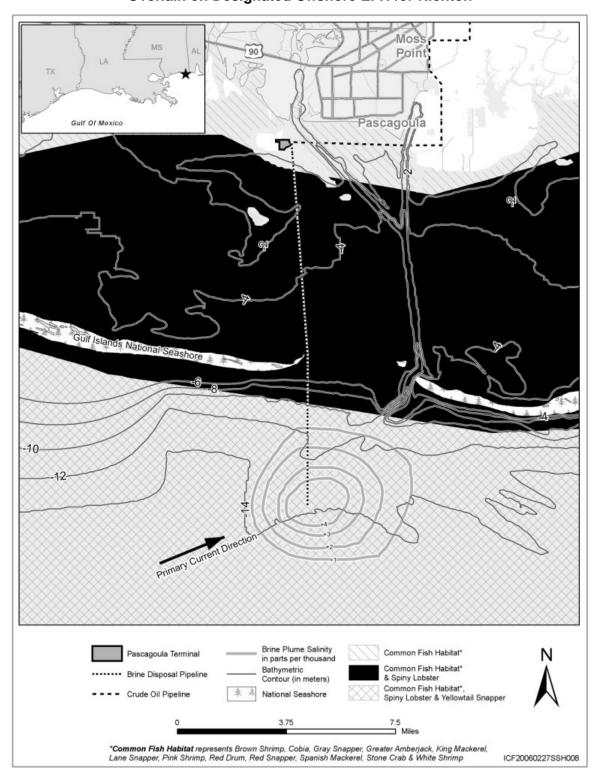
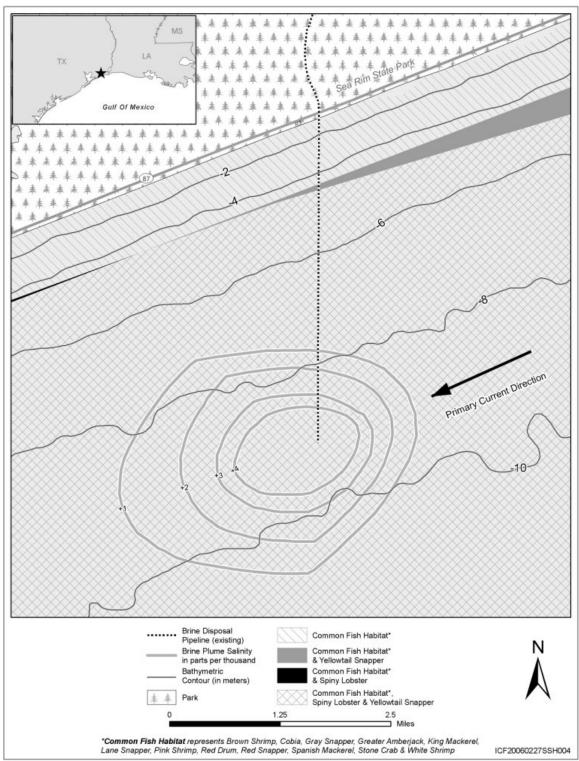


Figure E.5-1: Locations of the Brine Disposal Pipelines and the Modeled Brine Plumes
Overlain on Designated Offshore EFH for Richton

Figure E.5-2: Locations of the Brine Disposal Pipelines and the Modeled Brine Plumes Overlain on Designated Offshore EFH for Big Hill



Gulf Of Mexico Surfside Beach Raw Water Intake RWI ROW Common Fish Habitat* Brine Plume Salinity Common Fish Habitat* ****** Brine Disposal Pipeline in parts per thousand & Spiny Lobster Bathymetric Common Fish Habitat*, Contour (in meters) Spiny Lobster & Yellowtail Snappe *Common Fish Habitat represents Brown Shrimp, Cobia, Gray Snapper, Greater Amberjack, King Mackerel, Lane Snapper, Pink Shrimp, Red Drum, Red Snapper, Spanish Mackerel, Stone Crab & White Shrimp ICF20060227SSH002

Figure E.5-3: Locations of the Brine Disposal Pipelines and the Modeled Brine Plumes Overlain on Designated Offshore EFH for Stratton Ridge

Figure E.5-4: Locations of the Brine Disposal Pipelines and the Modeled Brine Plumes Overlain on Designated Offshore EFH for Chacahoula

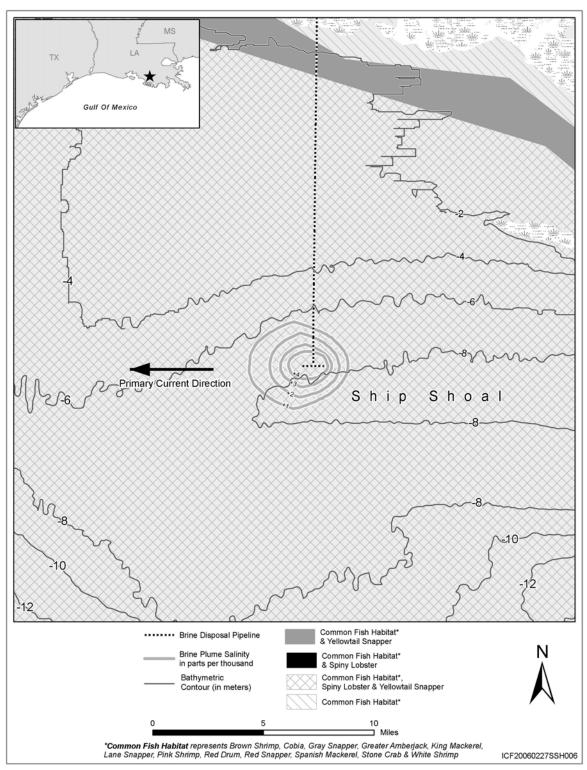


Table E.5-1: Managed Species Potentially Affected By The Candidate Alternatives

	Richton		Big Hill		Stratton Ridge		Chacahoula			West Hackberry					
	Tidal Reaches	Estuary	Offshore	Tidal Reaches	Estuary	Offshore	Tidal Reaches	Estuary	Offshore	Tidal Reaches	Estuary	Offshore	Tidal Reaches	Estuary	Offshore
Cobia			Х			Х			Х			Х			
Dolphinfish			Х			Х			Х			Х			
Greater Amberjack			Х			Х			Х			Х			
King Mackerel			Х		-	X		X	Х		-	Х			
Red Drum	Х	Х	X			Х	Х	Х	Х	X	Χ	Х	X		
Red Grouper			X		-	Х			Х			Х			
Spanish Mackerel			X			Х		Х	Х			Х			
Tilefish												Х			
Snapper															
Gray		Х				Х		Х	Х		Х				
Lane			Х			Х			Х			Х			
Red												Х			
Vermillion			Х		-						-	Х			
Yellowtail			Х			Х			Х			Х			
Gulf Stone Crab		X						X			X				
Stone Crab		Х	Х			Х		Х	Х		Х	Х			
Spiny Lobster			Х			Х		Х	Х		Х	Х			
Shrimp				-											
Brown	Х	Х	Х			Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х		
Pink		Х	Х			Х		Х	Х		Х	Х			
White	Х	Х	Х			Х	Х	Х	Х	X	Х	Х	X		

X – species or some life-stage of the species may be affected by some portion of the project

E.5.1 Impacts to the Estuarine and Tidally Influenced EFH

The following section describes construction and operation impacts to estuarine emergent wetlands, and tidally influenced palustrine wetlands from proposed pipelines and facilities. Most water bodies that are tidally influenced, including wetlands, rivers, and streams, are considered EFH for various early life stages of brown shrimp, white shrimp, and red drum. The majority of impacts to EFH would be temporary due to pipeline and site buffer construction, but includes some permanent impacts due to the construction of RWI structures and a marine terminal. Table E.5.1-1 summarizes the temporary and permanent impacts that would occur.

Table E.5.1-1: Temporary and Permanent Impacts to Estuarine and Tidally Influenced EFH (acres)

Type of Impact	West Hackberry	Stratton Ridge	Chacahoula	Richton	
Temporary Impacts	5	85	1033	159	
Permanent Loss	-	17	< 1	43	

1 acre = 0.405 hectares.

Construction Impacts

The construction of ROWs in inundated wetlands would involve a crane mounted on specially designed pontoons equipped with tracks, referred to locally as a "marsh buggy." The marsh buggy would travel along the centerline of the pipeline and excavate the trench. Where possible, staging areas would be set up on spud barges temporarily anchored in navigable waterways. As described in chapter 2 of the EIS, pipe would be fabricated at the temporary staging area, then floats would be attached to the pipe to minimize dragging through the wetland system, and the pipe would be pushed into the pipe trench. Once the section of pipe has been floated into place, the floats would be cut free and the pipe would be allowed to sink to the bottom of the trench. The marsh buggy would then backfill the trench with the excavated dredge material and the disturbed area would be restored. This process would keep the construction ROW to the minimum width necessary for the pipe trench and the temporary dredge spoil pile.

Impacts associated with pipelines would include the temporary loss of the vegetative community along the ROW and decreased functions and values of the surrounding wetlands due to increased turbidity, erosion, and sedimentation. In addition to the impacts within the ROW, for remote pipeline routes primarily associated with Chacahoula, temporary staging areas would be established within or adjacent to navigable waters.

Although pipeline construction would result in the removal of vegetation and other habitat disturbance, these impacts are expected to be temporary in nature. Construction activities within site buffer areas would also result in temporary impacts to EFH. After construction of pipeline ROWs and site buffers, DOE would re-establish vegetation and make sure that preconstruction contours are restored. The majority of EFH impacts are expected to be temporary.

The estuarine environment throughout most of the proposed project areas is already disturbed. Proposed pipeline ROWs follow existing utility/ pipeline corridors and canals wherever possible. Directional drilling through estuarine areas would also be used where practicable to minimize pipeline construction impacts to EFH. After construction, the original elevation contours would be restored to aid the revegetation of emergent estuarine wetlands. With proper monitoring and restoration, emergent wetland areas would be re-established within 2-3 years. Estuarine and tidally influenced wetlands would be affected by the proposed oil, raw water, and brine pipelines for the Stratton Ridge, Chacahoula, and Richton proposed storage sites.

Permanent removal of estuarine or tidally influenced wetland EFH would occur with the construction of the 17-acres (7-hectare) RWI structure for Stratton Ridge, and the 43-acre (17-hectare) Pascagoula terminal for the Richton alternative. Although the proposed location for the Chacahoula RWI structure is along the ICW, construction would affect only the water column and sediment. The Pascagoula RWI would be built on a platform and would only temporarily disturb the water column and sediment. Approximately 5 acres (2 hectares) of tidally-influenced palustrine scrub-shrub wetlands are located within the proposed security buffer of the West Hackberry expansion site. Impacts to this EFH would be considered a conversion because the habitat would be restored to palustrine emergent wetland post construction and retain some EFH functions. DOE would consult with NOAA Fisheries and USACE to avoid and minimize impacts to EFH and then to develop a mitigation plan to compensate for permanent impacts to EFH as part of the Section 404/401 permit process. The conceptual mitigation plan is discussed in appendix B and appendix O.

Operations and Maintenance Impacts

Operational impacts would be limited to surveying of pipelines and the occasional required pipeline maintenance. Woody vegetation that becomes established within the permanent ROW easement would be removed by marsh buggy. In emergent estuarine wetlands, the marsh conditions would be restored and ROW inspection would occur by flyby. If pipeline maintenance is required, the pipeline would be excavated and impacts would be similar to those experienced during pipeline construction.

Operation of the proposed Stratton Ridge, Chacahoula, and Richton (Pascagoula) RWI structures would not reduce water quantity within the ICW or Gulf of Mexico because they are tidally influenced, but may affect the salinity gradient. Small aquatic organisms would be impinged and entrained by the RWI operation and the habitat would be disturbed by the noise of the pumps. Impacts would be localized and affect a habitat that is already highly degraded by dredging and boat traffic.

Operation of the brine diffusion systems would not affect estuarine or tidally influenced wetlands. The brine discharge is far enough offshore that it would not affect these EFH.

E.5.2 Impacts to Submerged Aquatic Vegetation

Potential impacts to SAV would be related to the construction of offshore brine disposal pipelines for the Chacahoula, Richton, and Stratton Ridge alternatives. The pipeline alignments and diffuser systems for Stratton Ridge and Chacahoula would not be located in any known areas of SAV although some SAV is located in the area. The Richton pipeline would pass through the offshore managed areas of GUIS, between a shipping lane and Horn Island, a barrier island where SAV may present near or within the ROW.

Known seagrass beds are located on the north, wave protected side of Mississippi barrier islands in water less than 10 feet (3 meters) in depth (Riley 2006). Figure E.5-1 (Richton) shows the bathymetric contours in meters. Areas protected from wave action and less than 10 feet (3 meters) would be considered potential seagrass habitat. The species of seagrasses that may exist near the proposed ROW for Richton are shoalgrass, and wigeongrass, and the north shore of Petit Bois Island is reported to contain the last areas of turtle grass, and Manatee grass in the Mississippi Sound (Spencer 2006). Construction of the pipeline may remove seagrasses and other SAV and would cause temporary disturbance of the water column. DOE would continue consultation with NOAA Fisheries to identify a pipeline route that would avoid direct impacts to seagrass beds (if practicable) and minimize indirect impacts. DOE's consultation with NOAA Fisheries would also include a plan to compensate/mitigate for permanent impacts to EFH including SAV.

Indirect impacts to SAV, which include impacts from increased salinity and impacts from increased sedimentation and turbidity, would depend upon the proximity of SAV to the pipeline. During pipeline construction, increased turbidity and sedimentation would be temporary. Such conditions would persist approximately 1 to 2 days immediately following pipeline construction (NEBC, 2003). During brine diffusion operations, salinity may increase up to 4.32 parts per thousand above ambient conditions in the area immediately surrounding the brine diffuser (see Appendix C). As stated in Appendix C, this increase is generally within the range of normal variability. For the Richton alternative, the brine model predicts that brine plume contour closest to GUIS, which is the contour that indicates where the salinity may increase 1.0 parts per thousand above ambient conditions, is 11,600 feet (3536 meters) from Horn Island. DOE does not expect the minor increase in salinity or temporary increase in turbidity to adversely effect seagrass near the brine diffuser for the Richton alternative because many of the species located in those areas are tolerant of high salinities, such as shoalgrass. In addition, shoalgrass and manatee grass are relatively fast-growing species that often colonize disturbed habitats. However complete recovery from some disturbances can take several years or may never happen without intense restoration efforts.

During the more detailed planning and construction phases, DOE would survey the proposed pipeline ROWs and would attempt to avoid any areas of seagrass that may be affected by the Chacahoula, Richton, and Stratton Ridge alternatives. If some SAV beds would be affected by the selected alternative, permits/approvals would be required through the Section 404/401 permit and the EFH consultation process. This process would require compensation for the unavoidable impacts such as restoration or creation of new SAV beds. In addition, DOE would work with GUIS and other state and federal agencies to restore those areas or rehabilitate other beds nearby.

E.5.3 Impacts to Sediment

This section describes impacts to the sediment that is considered EFH. Most of the sediment related impacts would be from the construction of pipelines. Many of the stream crossings within the coastal areas would be directionally drilled under the stream bed so there would be little to no disturbance of EFH.

Construction Impacts

The disturbance of the sediment to allow for burial of the pipeline would be the most intrusive part of the project (table E.5.3-1). Because of the construction, the concentration of suspended sediment would increase in the project area causing an increase in turbidity for a 1- to 2-day period immediately following construction (NEBC, 2003).

Potential direct impacts to infaunal benthic communities resulting from the construction process include abrasion, clogging of filtration systems necessary for feeding and respiration, and burial and smothering. This impact also may be accompanied by harmful indirect effects such as changes in light attenuation leading to decreased feeding efficiency and changes in sediment composition (Berry, et al., 2003).

The survivorship of benthic invertebrates and other infauna in the project area is species- and location-specific. Many estuarine organisms have evolved mechanisms to survive changes in suspended and bedded sediment, and would not be affected by the project (Maurer, et al., 1986). Open water benthic organisms are less tolerant to sediment changes, and mortality rates would likely be higher offshore. Mature fish are fairly mobile, and likely they would leave the area during the construction process and return after completion.

The disturbance to suspended and bedded sediment may change the composition of the sediment, temporarily altering the distribution and relative abundance of organisms in the infaunal community. Complete recovery of soft-bottomed benthic communities may take up to 2 years from the time of construction (NEBC, 2003). Even though the recovery period is long, the project area affected by construction is small relative to the amount of sediment habitat that exists.

Table E.5.3-1: Estimated Surface Area in Acres of EFH Disturbed by Brine Pipeline Construction (In Offshore Environment)

	Big Hill (acres)	Stratton Ridge (acres)	Chacahoula (acres)	Richton (acres)
Temporary construction impact	N/A because replacement pipeline would not affect EFH	7	34	24

Note: The approximate area of disturbance was determined by calculating the length of the proposed offshore pipeline and the estimated width of the disturbance to sediments caused by the installation

Operations and Maintenance Impacts

Potential impacts from operations and maintenance are similar to those from construction. Portions of pipelines may need to be repaired or replaced in the future resulting in localized increases in suspended sediment and turbidity. These may temporarily affect aquatic infauna in the area.

E.5.4 Impacts to Water Column EFH

This section describes impacts to the water column from construction and brine discharge. Changes to water quality would affect the water column which is considered EFH. The impacts to EFH and managed species are also specifically discussed.

Construction Impacts

The construction methods used for the pipeline installation would depend on several factors including cost, distance crossed, and habitat type. There would be two different methods of offshore pipeline installation across the intertidal zone, including shallow draft barges and barge construction with a jet-blasting sled. Offshore pipelines would be strung together on barges and lowered to the floor of the Gulf of Mexico. After the entire offshore pipeline and diffuser had been strung together and placed on the floor of the Gulf of Mexico, a jet-sled would be used to bury the pipeline below the sediment. The jet-sled would direct high velocity water streams below the pipeline, thus removing the sediment below the pipeline and allowing it to sink.

The trenching method is a construction approach that permits low-cost construction and a shorter time frame. The construction impacts would be confined to the pipeline footprint and would be localized. The trenching method would disrupt habitat within the construction footprint only for a short time period during and immediately after construction (1-2 days).

Many of the stream crossings within the coastal areas would be directionally drilled under the stream bed so there would be little to no disturbance of EFH. However, for the purpose of estimating EFH impacts, DOE assumed that the entire ROW (approximately 150 feet wide) would be disturbed by construction activities. Section 3.7.2.1.2 of the DEIS provides a detailed discussion of how the pipeline and other infrastructure would be constructed.

Water quality impacts to the water column would be caused by increased suspension of sediments generated from construction activities. The suspension of sediment in the water column may lead to an increase in heavy metal concentration in suspension and solution, but the effect would be temporary and localized. The disturbance of the sediments during construction also may cause nutrients to become resuspended and thereby trigger growth of plankton populations.

The main impact on the water column would come from constructing the proposed brine and crude oil pipelines, the RWIs, and other infrastructure, which would increase turbidity within the water column. RWI for Stratton Ridge and Chacahoula are located along the ICW. In both Texas and Louisiana, the ICW is an actively dredged navigational waterway and the EFH within the waterway is frequently disturbed by these activities. The Pascagoula RWI for Richton would be located in the Gulf of Mexico. The water column would not be considered high quality habitat because these locations are frequently disturbed by dredging and boat traffic. The significance of this impact would depend on the type of substrate located along the ROW, the resettlement rate of the sediment, and the duration of the construction activities. For example, sediment particles of sand size or larger would settle quickly (in a matter of seconds) in the vicinity of the construction activity. Smaller silt and clay particles would be transported greater distances by the currents before settling back down to the bottom. If the current velocity is 1 foot per second (0.3 meters per second) and the silt particles take 60 seconds to settle, they might be transported 60 feet (18 meters) from the construction area. Because of the construction, the concentration of suspended sediment would increase in the project area causing an increase in turbidity for a 1- to 2-day period immediately following construction (NEBC, 2003).

There is some probability that the construction could disturb sediments that are contaminated, which would cause potential for contaminants to be released into the water column. DOE is not aware of different conditions among the alternatives that would make it more likely to encounter contaminated sediments in one alternative compared to another.

Disruption to the species of fish, the EFH, and their prey would occur during the construction of the pipelines, RWIs, and brine diffusers and their operation.

Potential direct impacts to infaunal benthic communities resulting from the construction process include abrasion, clogging of filtration systems necessary for feeding and respiration, and burial and smothering. This impact also may be accompanied by harmful indirect effects such as changes in light attenuation leading to decreased feeding efficiency and changes in substrate composition (Berry, et al., 2003).

The survivorship of benthic invertebrates and other infauna in the project area is species- and location-specific. Many estuarine organisms have evolved mechanisms to survive changes in suspended and bedded sediment, and would not be affected by the project (Maurer, et al., 1986). Open water benthic organisms are less tolerant to sediment changes, and mortality rates would likely be higher offshore. Mature fish are fairly mobile, and likely they would leave the area during the construction process and return after completion. Fish eggs and fish larvae that lie in the construction area would likely suffer increased mortality. RWIs located in designated EFH would cause some impingement on entrainment of aquatic organisms including managed species and their prey species.

Other common impacts would be caused indirectly to the EFHs or the species. A reduction in the prey for any of the managed species would have impacts to their populations. Prey reduction would result from the destruction of habitat, loss of food source, or incidental takings, which are impacts similar to those that affect the economically important species. In addition to mobile prey species, some sessile organisms would have an increased mortality from construction; however, the duration of the construction activities would be short and the affected areas would be relatively small.

During the construction phase of the proposed SPR project, the noise generated from the construction and support vessels may affect populations in the area. Depending on the species, the loudness (in decibels) and the frequency of the noise could create navigational disruption for some species of fishes. It is likely that noise and vibration from SPR project construction would cause species to leave the area. Once construction is complete, noise levels would return to normal and populations that vacated the area would return.

Operation and Maintenance Impacts

The operation of the brine diffusers is one aspect of the proposed SPR operations that would affect EFH. The operation of the brine diffuser system would cause some changes to the physiochemical makeup of the water column in the form of increased salinity. In addition to increasing the ambient salinity of the water near the diffusers, the brine can also introduce ions, metals, and other inorganics into the environment as contaminants.

Based on studies of water characteristics and currently operational brine diffusers, projected brine plume modeling (see appendix C) showed that at all of the proposed brine discharge sites—Stratton Ridge, Chacahoula, and Richton—salinity gradients would be generated if the caverns at proposed sites were developed. The brine diffuser at Big Hill already exists and is operating. Brine discharge at Big Hill would increase with the construction of new caverns for the proposed expansion of the storage site.

The brine discharge would be relatively constant for the duration of cavern solution mining (up to 5 years) and then would occur sporadically for drawdown or cavern maintenance. The brine discharge for Richton may persist longer than 4 to 5 years if low flows in the Leaf River limit the amount of water available for solution mining. If that occurred, there would be a reduction in the rate of brine discharge. The brine water would leave the diffusers at a rate of 30 feet per second (9 meters per second), at or near ambient temperature (68 °F, 20 °C), and at a concentration of approximately 263 parts per thousand. The diffusers would sit 4 feet (1 meter) above the bottom and use a maximum of 75 potential diffusion ports spaced 60 feet (18 meters) apart, although no site would require 75 ports to operate at maximum capacity. The diffusers' depths and distances offshore vary by site, and the ambient salinity generally ranges from 25 to 31 parts per thousand at all sites, depending on the magnitude and direction of current flows. Moving away from the brine port nozzles, the salinity would decrease as the brine solution dilutes into the ambient environment and moves down current (see appendix C).

For all brine plume models and impact assessments, the salinity of the brine was assumed to be 263 parts per thousand. This represents the saturation salinity for water at 68 °F (20 °C), which is slightly higher than the 250 parts per thousand levels previously observed at SPR diffusers in the past.

Brine plume modeling was conducted for both an average-sized plume under typical conditions and the maximum plume under the most extreme environmental conditions. The brine dispersion modeling report indicates that "the maximum scenario is associated with an 18 centimeters per second current" and that the "large, typical and maximum scenarios [are] based upon the average percent occurrence of 0 to 3, 6 to 12, and 15 to 20 centimeters per second (see appendix C). The models provided +4 parts per thousand, +3 parts per thousand, +2 parts per thousand, and +1 parts per thousand contours for the typical and maximum plumes centered on the first brine diffuser port for each site.

The brine plume contours were the largest at the Big Hill diffusion site because of its high brine discharge capacity of 1.3 MMBD. For Big Hill, the typical +4 parts per thousand contour is expected to cover an area of 1.2 square nautical miles (4.1 square kilometers), although that area would increase to 4.3 square nautical miles (15 square kilometers) under the maximum plume scenario. The total extent of the affected area for Big Hill, given by the area contained within the +1 part per thousand contour, was 7.2 square

nautical miles (25 square kilometers) under typical conditions, but ranged as high as 24 square nautical miles (84 square kilometers) for the maximum condition and the +1 part per thousand contour.

Brine contours were smaller at the other sites because of their lower diffusion capacities. Although the aerial extent of the brine plumes is large, the brine is heavier than seawater, and therefore, it spreads out along the seabed and does not reach the surface. Given the salinity and velocity of the brine exiting the diffusion ports, the maximum height for each plume is 18.5 feet (6 meters), which is well below the surface, even for the most shallow diffusion site, which is Stratton Ridge (30 feet, 9 meters).

The area immediately adjacent to the brine port nozzles would have a modeled estimated salinity increase of 4.3 parts per thousand over the naturally occurring concentration (25 to 31 parts per thousand). (The brine discharge modeling reports that the value of the typical plume would be 4.3 parts per thousand, and the value for the maximum plume would be 4.7 parts per thousand).

The area of the mixing zone at a concentration of 4 parts per thousand above ambient would vary by site and local conditions. At the Big Hill site, this plume would be as large as 4.3 square nautical miles (14.7 kilometers). Table E.5.4-1 highlights the ambient conditions at the sites. Table E.5.4-2 highlights the changes in the physiochemical characteristics that occur from the brine discharge.

Table E.5.4-1: Ambient Conditions at the Brine Diffuser Locations

	Т	exas	Louisiana	Mississippi
Parameter	Big Hill	Stratton Ridge	Chacahoula	Richton
Ambient bottom salinity – average (ppt)	31	31	31	31
Ambient bottom salinity - worst case (ppt)	25	25	31	25
Ambient surface salinity - average (ppt)	31	31	25	31
Ambient surface salinity - worst case (ppt)	25	25	31	25
Ambient bottom temperature - average (F/C)	68/20	68/20	25	68/20
Ambient bottom temperature - worst case (F/C)	59/15	59/15	68/20	59/15
Ambient surface temperature - average (F/C)	68/20	68/20	59/15	68/20
Ambient surface temperature - worst case (F/C)	59/15	59/15	68/20	59/15
Water depth (feet/meters)	33/10.1	30/9.1	59/15	47/14.3
Ambient bottom current - average (meters per second; foot/sec)	0.30/0.09	0.30/0.09	30/9.1	0.30/0.09
Ambient bottom current - worst case (meters per second; foot/sec)	0.10/0.03	0.10/0.03	0.30/0.09	0.10/0.03

ppt = parts per thousand; F = Fahrenheit; C = Celsius

Table E.5.4-2: Changes to Ambient Conditions at the Brine Diffuser Locations

	Texas		Louisiana	Mississippi
Parameter	Big Hill	Stratton Ridge	Chacahoula	Richton
Brine salinity (ppt)	263	263	263	263
Brine temperature (F/C)	68/20	68/20	68/20	68/20
Maximum number of ports	75	75	75	75
Number of open ports needed to reach maximum brine discharge rate	57	53	45	45

Table E.5.4-2: Changes to Ambient Conditions at the Brine Diffuser Locations

	Т	exas	Louisiana	Mississippi
Parameter	Big Hill	Stratton Ridge	Chacahoula	Richton
Port height above seafloor (feet/meters)	4/1.2	4/1.2	4/1.2	4/1.2
Port exit velocity (feet per second/meters per second)	30/9.1	30/9.1	30/9.1	30/9.1
Maximum brine discharge rate (MMBD)	1.3	1.2	1.0	1.1
Port diameter (inches/centimeters)	3/7.62	3/7.62	3/7.62	3/7.62
Port spacing (feet/meters)	60/18.3	60/18.3	60/18.3	60/18.3
Average area in plume for + 4 ppt salinity (nm ²)	1.2	1.1	see note A	0.9
Maximum area in plume for + 4 ppt salinity (nm²)	4.3	4.0	see note A	3.4
Maximum vertical extent of brine jets – average (feet)	19	19	19	19
Maximum vertical extent of brine jets – worst case (feet)	18	18	18	18
Water depth (feet/meters)	33/10.1	30/9.1	30/9.1	47/14.3
Salinity increase downcurrent (ppt)				
1 nautical miles (average)	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.7
1 nautical miles (worst case)	3.4	3.3	3.1	3.1
2 nautical miles (average)	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2
2 nautical miles (worst case)	2.5	2.4	2.2	2.2
3 nautical miles (average)	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9
3 nautical miles (worst case)	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.7
4 nautical miles (average)	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7
4 nautical miles (worst case)	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4

ppt = parts per thousand

A: Model predictions were calculated for Chacahoula, however not presented. This model was not designed to take into account the unique bathymetric conditions of Ship Shoal.

The maximum expected amount of brine diffusion varies depending on the selected site. The Big Hill brine diffuser, which is located approximately 3.9 miles (6.3 kilometers) offshore, has the highest discharge potential at 1.3 MMBD. Stratton Ridge, which is about 3 miles (4.9 kilometers) offshore, is close behind at 1.2 MMBD. The maximum discharge from Richton and Chacahoula are lower, both at 1.2 and 0.7 MBD. The diffuser at those sites is located much farther offshore at approximately 14 and 17.5 miles (22 and 28 kilometers), respectively.

In addition to raising ambient salinity levels, the introduced brine would cause a small increase in the concentration of metals and other inorganics in the project area. In previous studies of the West Hackberry and Bryan Mound sites, brine diffusion was accompanied by a slight increase in dissolved ion concentration compared to a control site, but all ranges were within the natural variability. The levels of nickel, copper, and lead did exceed Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) standards, but they were not significantly different from the levels observed at the control site. No evidence of any petroleum contamination was observed at either of the diffuser sites. Therefore, the operation of the brine diffusers is not expected to have a noticeable impact on water quality (Hann, et al., 1984). Past analyses on brine

nm² = nautical miles squared

contaminants showed that they can be present at slightly elevated levels around the diffusers, but that fish populations do not suffer adverse effects because the concentrations are low (Hann et. al, 1984).

The salinity increase from the brine diffusion is expected to have no significant adverse impact on the managed fishery species in the Gulf of Mexico. The aerial extent of the brine plumes are relatively small compared to the total area occupied by the commercially important species. Furthermore, the fish and shellfish species managed in the proposed project area generally demonstrate high tolerances to changes in salinity beyond the potential +4 parts per thousand maximum salinity in the contour area.

The shrimp fishery is the most profitable fishery in the Gulf of Mexico. Brown and white shrimp spend a large portion of their life cycle in estuarine environments, and they tolerate a wide range of salinity changes. Both species have been caught in salinity as high as 69 parts per thousand, which is almost double the highest projected value that can be attributed to the brine diffuser (Philips and James, 1988). Past studies indicate that a drastic increase in salinity may favor a switch in dominance from white shrimp to brown shrimp in the northern Gulf (Muncy, 1984). However, the overall impact on abundance of shrimp is expected to be negligible.

Other managed species, such as the finfish, also tolerate salinity ranges greater than what would be expected due to brine discharge. Menhaden, for example, can survive in salinities up to 60 parts per thousand, and snappers and red drum are found in salinities between 45 and 50 parts per thousand (Lassuy, 1983; Reagan, 1984). Due to the freshwater influx from the Mississippi River, Gulf of Mexico species are generally euryhaline and able to tolerate salinity changes beyond what SPR operations would cause. Even in cases where species avoid the high salinities of the brine plume, the ambient salinity would return to normal levels quickly after the discharge ceases in about 3 to 5 years when the solution mining is complete. The species would repopulate the affected area fairly quickly after that period. Brine discharge would also occur during cavern drawdown and cavern maintenance activities.

The species that would be most affected from the brine discharge is the spiny lobster. Unlike the other managed species in the project area, adult and juvenile spiny lobsters are stenohaline and survive optimally in a narrow range of salinities from 32 to 36 parts per thousand. Furthermore, lobsters are confined to the benthic environments most affected by brine diffusion. Given the potential salinity changes associated with SPR operations, the proposed project would put the lobsters within the most concentrated salinity plumes at risk. Past studies indicate that lobsters exposed to high salinities relocate to areas of lower salinities (Butler, et al., 2002). This behavior continues until more favorable salinities are reached or metabolic demands associated with salinity stress lead to mortality. Given the relatively small area of the highest salinity contours (+4 and +3 parts per thousand), few lobsters would be affected and many would be able to move out of the high salinity range. Overall impacts to lobster populations are expected to be small and temporary.

Although the direct impacts to managed species are not expected to be significant, the impacts to benthic communities around the diffusion sites would temporarily affect the productivity of the environment. The heavy brine tends to sink to the bottom, and it would have a disproportionate impact on benthic species. Many of the commercially managed species in the Gulf of Mexico are demersal, and thus, they rely on the benthic organisms for a food supply. Depending on their salinity tolerance, sessile organisms (mollusks, worms) may be killed by the high salinity plume, and mobile organisms (fish, crustaceans) may be driven out of the mixing zone. Further, owing to currents, tides, storms, and other local events, neither the size nor the location of the high-salinity plume would be constant. Rather, it would move with changing conditions and affect an area of the water column and bottom that overall is larger than that estimated by the steady state models.

Previous studies of the impact of brine diffusion on benthic biodiversity at the West Hackberry and Bryan Mound diffusion sites indicated a statistically significant drop in benthic biomass within a range of 656 to 6,889 feet (200 to 2,100 meters) from the diffusers (Hann, et al., 1984). These findings are consistent with studies conducted at desalination plants that found drops in benthic macrofauna abundance around their brine diffusers (Argyrou, 2000). The change in benthic productivity would deter commercially managed species from inhabiting the project area. However, DOE determined there would not be significant adverse impacts. The impacts would be localized considering the relatively small area of decreased productivity compared to the surrounding unaffected area in the nearshore and offshore areas of the Gulf of Mexico. The impacts would be short-term, not permanent, because they would occur during solution mining, cavern drawdown and maintenance and the benthic population should recover sometime following the termination of brine discharge.

A special case for the effect of brine diffusion on EFH would be posed by conditions at the Ship Shoal. Ship Shoal, located seaward of the Chacahoula site brine diffuser, is a depositional sand bar that rises from the seafloor of the 33 feet (10 meters) isobath to the 19 feet (6 meters) isobath. This sandy ecosystem is important for several fisheries, specifically white and brown shrimp and spotted sea trout. The shrimp are important commercial fisheries, while the seatrout is an important recreational fishery. In addition, Atlantic croaker is a predatory species that is found on the shoal, but has limited commercial or recreational value. The area is being considered as a harvest site for sand used in beach replenishment, and the Mineral Management Service (MMS) is conducting an environmental assessment of the potential impacts of using Ship Shoal as a sand harvest site.

The construction of the brine disposal pipeline and the brine diffusers would not be close enough to Ship Shoal to have a significant adverse effect. The operation of the brine diffuser for the Chacahoula site would cause minor changes in salinity concentration near the brine diffuser, but the saturated brine would diffuse in the direction of ambient conditions in a short distance. The placement of the diffuser in the trough landward of the shoal would keep the highest salinity changes away from the shoal. DOE modified the orientation of the proposed brine diffusers at Chacahoula so they would be perpendicular to the brine pipeline and parallel to the primary current direction (see figure E.5-4). This modification would ensure more complete mixing and modify the shape of the brine plume so that it would not cause a significant adverse impact to Ship Shoal.

The species found on Ship Shoal are euryhaline species, capable of tolerating a wide range of salinities. It is likely the brine would create a noticeable increase in salinity over present ambient conditions for a relatively small area, but the species present would be able to tolerate the small and moderate salinity changes to the water.

E.5.5 Environmental Consequences of the Proposed Action

The environmental consequences of the Proposed Action, with respect to EFH, would be temporary disturbances from construction activities and operation of the brine discharges and those RWI structures located in EFH. The species of concern are found throughout the Gulf of Mexico region, are not limited to a specific area, and they are generally mobile enough to avoid areas of disturbance. Most impacts caused by the construction activity would be localized to the immediate area of construction and would be temporary. The pipelines would be buried in the sediment and therefore would not permanently impact EFH or the water column. The only permanent footprint in EFH would be those from the brine diffuser ports, which are small (about 1 foot in diameter) and the Pascagoula terminal and Pascagoula RWI structure for the Richton alternative. The RWIs at Stratton Ridge and Chacahoula would also have a small but permanent footprint within the water column. The West Hackberry expansion would also cause a permanent conversion of 5 acres of scrub-shrub to emergent EFH. Organisms that are intolerant of wide fluctuations in salinity would be killed by the high salinity plume or driven out of the brine discharge

mixing zone. The detrimental impacts to prey populations and managed species from the brine discharges have been shown by previous research to occur in a relatively small area. The discharges would be a short term impact that would persist during the period of solution mining (3 to 5 years) and during cavern drawdown or maintenance. The discharges would comply with the National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (NPDES) discharge limits that would be established by the resource agency with jurisdiction for the alternative selected. The permit would ensure that the water quality standards would not be violated by the discharge. Water quality standards are developed to protect aquatic resources as well as human health. The RWI structures at Chacahoula, Stratton Ridge, and the Pascagoula RWI at Richton would cause impingement and entrainment of some managed species and their prey. This potential would be reduced through use of a relatively low intake velocity (0.5 ft/sec) and relatively small mesh size (0.5 inches).

In addition, for the selected alternative, DOE would secure a Section 404 permit from the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, a Section 401 Water Quality Certification from the state, and a Section 10 Permit from the Coast Guard (if appropriate) for the proposed construction within jurisdictional waters including wetlands. The permit would require avoidance and minimization of impacts to wetlands and waters (including EFH that qualifies as jurisdictional under Section 404) and compensation for unavoidable and permanent impacts. This compensation would require the preservation, restoration, or enhancement of other wetlands and waters or the purchase of credits from a wetland mitigation bank. DOE would continue to consult with NOAA Fisheries after selection of an alternative in the ROD to avoid and minimize impacts to EFH and then develop a mitigation plan to compensate for permanent impacts to EFH, as part of the Section 404/401 permit process. DOE would review the NOAA Fisheries Conservation Recommendations and implement those recommendations wherever practicable to ensure that there is no significant adverse impact to EFH and that adverse impacts are mitigated to the extent practicable.

E.5.6 Proposed Mitigation Measures and Guidelines for EFH Protection

For trenching construction activities near or adjacent to EFH, the use of silt curtains would help reduce the amount of sediment that is suspended in the water body. While all increased sedimentation cannot be completely avoided, minimizing the sediment load would minimize the effects on fish and benthic organisms downcurrent. For RWI construction within EFH, DOE would construct the facility within a cofferdam to limit water quality impacts.

Before construction begins, DOE and its contractor would examine the schedule and compare it to known spawning and migratory times of the year. This would be done to ensure construction would not interfere with routes used to reach spawning areas or impede migratory routes. This effort would minimize the disturbance to the EFH and to the species themselves during a sensitive time of year.

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