



Tracy Perfors
BLM - Little Snake Field Office,
Attn: Lease Sale
455 Emerson St.,
Craig, CO 81625

December 14, 2015

Via electronic mail: blm_co_lsfo_2016_lease_sale@blm.gov

RE: Comments on the preliminary EA for the May 2016 Competitive Oil and Gas Lease Sale, Little Snake and White River Field Offices, Colorado
NEPA # DOI-BLM-CO-N050-2015-0092-EA

Dear Ms. Perfors:

The Center for Biological Diversity writes to submit the following comments on the preliminary environmental assessment (“PEA”) for the May 2016 Competitive Oil and Gas Lease Sale, Little Snake and White River Field Offices, Colorado.

The Center is a non-profit environmental organization dedicated to the protection of native species and their habitats through science, policy, and environmental law. The Center also works to reduce greenhouse gas emissions to protect biological diversity, our environment, and public health. The Center has over 850,000 members and activists, including those living in Colorado who have visited these public lands in the Little Snake and White River planning areas for recreational, scientific, educational, and other pursuits and intend to continue to do so in the future, and are particularly interested in protecting the many native, imperiled, and sensitive species and their habitats that may be affected by the proposed oil and gas leasing.

The Bureau of Land Management (“BLM”) Colorado is asking the public to review and comment on the PEA for the oil and gas lease sale of two parcels totaling 813.07 acres within the Little Snake Field Office (“LSFO”) that were nominated for the May 2016 Competitive Oil and Gas Lease Sale. The EA does not satisfy the requirements of the National Environmental Policy Act (“NEPA”), and its proposed lease sale violates the Mineral Leasing Act (“MLA”) and the Federal Lands Policy and Management Act (“FLPMA”). BLM should produce a full Environmental Impact Statement (“EIS”) for the lease sale, and if it decides to move forward with the sale, it must require controls on natural gas emissions and reinitiate consultation with the Fish and Wildlife Service as required by the Endangered Species Act (“ESA”).

Moreover, we are deeply concerned that new leasing within the LSFO would worsen the climate crisis. To preserve any chance of averting catastrophic climate disruption, the vast majority of all *proven* fossil fuels must be kept in the ground. Opening up new areas to oil and gas exploration and unlocking new sources of greenhouse gas pollution would only fuel greater

warming and contravenes BLM's mandate to manage the public lands "without permanent impairment of the productivity of the land and the quality of the environment."¹ BLM must end all new leasing in the LSFO and all other areas that it manages to limit the climate change effects of its actions.

Exploration and development would likely involve the highly controversial industry practices of hydraulic fracturing or "fracking" and horizontal drilling. As discussed further below these practices deplete enormous water resources, risk toxic spills, contaminate air, and fragment and degrade habitat for species. The extraction of fossil fuels with these dangerous techniques undermines the protection of our public lands. Full compliance with the spirit and objectives of NEPA and other federal environmental laws and regulations requires BLM to avoid these dangers altogether. Therefore BLM should also ban new hydraulic fracturing and other unconventional well stimulation activities in the planning area.

At the very least, BLM must fully address these issues in an Environmental Impact Statement ("EIS") and in an amended Resource Management Plan ("RMP"). The current LSFO 2011 RMP does not address the relatively new and dangerous extraction methods of fracking and horizontal drilling. Nor does it include any analyses of the impacts that potential greenhouse gas ("GHG") emissions of federal fossil fuels (leased and unleased) or fracking and horizontal drilling have on the environment, on BLM sensitive species, on shallow water table and wetlands, or on the increased risks from induced seismic activity. BLM must fully analyze the public health, environmental justice, and industrialization impacts of fossil fuel extraction and especially hydraulic fracturing across the entire LSFO planning area. Piecemeal analyses of individual lease sales do not provide the appropriate perspective for examining the cumulative effects of hydraulic fracturing and climate change impacts at the regional and landscape scale and for making land management decisions.

For the reasons set forth in this letter, we insist that BLM: (1) cease all new leasing of fossil fuels in the planning area, including oil and natural gas, at least until an updated, final, and approved RMP (that addresses issues such as fracking and GHG emissions) replaces the existing 2011 RMP; or, at a minimum (2) defer the proposed May 2016 Sale pending the plan revision, including consideration of a "keep it in the ground" and "no fracking" plan amendments. Should BLM proceed with the sale, BLM must: (1) initiate formal consultation with the Fish and Wildlife Service, as required by the Endangered Species Act ("ESA"); and (2) prepare a full EIS for the proposed lease sale in consideration of significant unexamined impacts from the consequences of leasing. Any such EIS must consider a full range of alternatives, including a no-leasing alternative and an alternative that disallows new hydraulic fracturing and other unconventional well stimulation activities, and require strict controls on natural gas emissions and leakage.

The "exploration and development" of this land likely involves the highly controversial industry practices of hydraulic fracking and horizontal drilling. The continued extraction of fossil fuels worsens the climate crisis, and endangers water, air, wildlife, public health, and local

¹ See 43 U.S.C. §§ 1701(a)(7), 1702(c), 1712(c)(1), 1732(a) (emphasis added); *see also id.* § 1732(b) (directing Secretary to take any action to "prevent unnecessary or undue degradation" of the public lands).

communities. It further undermines the protection of our public lands. Full compliance with the spirit and objectives of the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) and other federal environmental laws and regulations requires BLM to avoid these dangers altogether. Therefore BLM should cease new fossil fuel leasing, and ban new hydraulic fracturing and other unconventional well stimulation activities in the planning area. At the very least, the issue needs to be fully addressed in an Environmental Impact Statement (“EIS”) and in an amended Resource Management Plan (“RMP”).

The current LSFO 2011 RMP does not address the relatively new and dangerous extraction methods of hydraulic fracturing and horizontal drilling, nor does it include any analyses of the impact that potential greenhouse gas (“GHG”) emissions of federal fossil fuels (leased and unleased) have on resources including BLM sensitive species, on shallow water table and wetlands, or on the increased risks from induced seismic activity. Changes in conditions due to climate change, rapid population growth, increasing water scarcity, and strains on natural resources require a full look at the public health, environmental justice, and industrialization impacts of fossil fuel extraction and especially hydraulic fracturing across the entire LSFO planning area. Furthermore, they require a re-evaluation of conservation needs and objectives for increasingly scarce and/or fragile natural resources. Piecemeal analyses of individual lease sales do not provide the appropriate perspective for examining the cumulative effects of hydraulic fracturing at the regional and landscape scale and for making such land management decisions.

For the reasons set forth in this letter, we insist that BLM: (1) cease all new leasing of fossil fuels in the planning area, including oil and natural gas, at least until an updated, final, and approved RMP (that addresses issues such as fracking and GHG emissions) replaces the existing 2011 RMP; or, at a minimum (2) defer the proposed May 2016 Sale pending the plan revision, including consideration of a “keep it in the ground” and “no fracking” plan amendments. Should BLM proceed with the sale, BLM must: (1) initiate formal consultation with the Fish and Wildlife Service, as required by the Endangered Species Act (“ESA”); and (2) prepare a full EIS for the proposed lease sale in consideration of significant unexamined impacts from the consequences of leasing. Any such EIS must consider a full range of alternatives, including a no-leasing alternative and an alternative that disallows new hydraulic fracturing and other unconventional well stimulation activities, and require strict controls on natural gas emissions and leakage.

I. The Dangers of Hydraulic Fracking and Horizontal Drilling

New information never addressed in the 2011 LSFO RMP makes clear that the use of hydraulic fracturing within the area is both readily foreseeable and already occurring, with deadly consequences.²

NEPA regulations and case law require that BLM evaluate all “reasonably foreseeable” direct and indirect effects of its leasing. 40 C.F.R. § 1508.8; *Davis v. Coleman*, 521 F.2d 661,

² Joe Moylan, *Shell Oil announces plan to frack Moffat County wells*, CRAIG DAILY PRESS, March 7, 2013, available at <http://www.craigdaily.com/news/2013/may/07/shell-begin-fracturing-wells-month/>; Dennis Webb, *Craig man dies in blast at Moffatt fracking site*, GRAND JUNCTION DAILY SENTINEL, Jan. 3, 2013, available at <http://www.gjsentinel.com/news/articles/craig-man-dies-in-blast-8232at-moffat-8232fracking>

676 (9th Cir. 1975); *Center for Biological Diversity, et al. v. Bureau of Land Management, et al.*, 2013 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 52432; 43 ELR 20076 (N.D. Cal. March 31, 2013) (holding that oil and gas leases were issued in violation of NEPA where BLM failed to prepare an EIS and unreasonably concluded that the leases would have no significant environmental impact because the agency failed to take into account all reasonably foreseeable development under the leases). Oil and gas leasing is an irrevocable commitment to convey rights to use of federal land – a commitment with readily predictable environmental consequences that BLM is required to address. These include the specific geological formations, surface and ground water resources, seismic potential, or human, animal, and plant health and safety concerns present in the area to be leased.

The proposed leasing action is part of a dramatic recent increase in oil and gas leasing in the areas at issue, and reflects increased industry interest in developing Colorado’s fossil fuel resources. The entire basis for this surge of interest is the possibility that hydraulic fracturing and other advanced recovery techniques will allow the profitable exploitation of geologic formations previously perceived as insufficiently valuable for development. Mentions of hydraulic fracturing are scattered sparsely throughout the PEA, which implies that BLM acknowledges the likelihood that the dangerous and controversial practice would be employed if the proposed leases are developed. Hydraulic fracturing brings with it all of the harms to water quality, air quality, the climate, species, and communities associated with traditional oil and gas development, but also brings increased risks in many areas. An adequate analysis of the consequences of this practice, prior to irrevocable consequences, is therefore required at the leasing stage.

There are approximately 220 wells in the Cumulative Impact Analysis Areas (CIAAs) for both parcels. Although there are not yet any wells located on either of the parcels, “[t]he reasonably foreseeable development (RFD) scenario in the Little Snake RMP analyzed the drilling and development of 3,031 wells within the field office in the coming 20 years. This projection was based on historical oil and gas development and production activities, leasing, and economic factors.”³ The PEA does not indicate how many wells may be drilled within the parcels at issue, nor does the PEA discuss in the RFD Scenario what drilling techniques might be used on these parcels. The PEA also presents a misleading and inaccurate analysis by assuming, due to a 2-year negative trend in LSFO well starts, that drilling will follow the “Low scenario” from the LSFO RFD.⁴ Issuance of leases will lock in lessees’ rights to explore for and produce oil and gas for ten years (or more), and it is inappropriate to rely on a two-year slump in drilling activities to extrapolate that low prices and low interest in the area will continue for another decade or more.

The EA cannot ignore the demonstrated likelihood of increased use of hydraulic fracturing and/or other unconventional recovery techniques within the LSFO.⁵ Elements of these technologies have been used individually for decades. However, the combination of practices employed by industry recently is new: “Modern formation stimulation practices have become

³ Environmental Assessment for the May 2016 Competitive Oil & Gas Lease Sale (“PEA”) at 12.

⁴ PEA at 24.

⁵ See n.1 *supra*.

more complex and the process has developed into a sophisticated, engineered process in which production companies strive to design a hydraulic fracturing treatment to emplace fracture networks in specific areas.”⁶

Hydraulic fracturing, a dangerous practice in which operators inject toxic fluid underground under extreme pressure to release oil and gas, has greatly increased industry interest in developing tightly held oil and gas deposits such as those in the proposed lease area. The first aspect of this technique is the hydraulic fracturing of the rock. When the rock is fractured, the resulting cracks in the rock serve as passages through which gas and liquids can flow, increasing the permeability of the fractured area. To fracture the rock, the well operator injects hydraulic fracturing fluid at tremendous pressure. The composition of fracturing fluid has changed over time. Halliburton developed the practice of injecting fluids into wells under high pressure in the late 1940s;⁷ however, companies now use permutations of “slick-water” fracturing fluid developed in the mid-1990s.⁸ The main ingredient in modern fracturing fluid (or “frack fluid”) is generally water, although liquefied petroleum has also been used as a base fluid for modern fracking.⁹ The second ingredient is a “proppant,” typically sand, that becomes wedged in the fractures and holds them open so that passages remain after pressure is relieved.¹⁰ In addition to the base fluid and proppant, a mixture of chemicals are used, for purposes such as increasing the viscosity of the fluid, keeping proppants suspended, impeding bacterial growth or mineral deposition.¹¹

Frack fluid is hazardous to human health, although industry’s resistance to disclosing the full list of ingredients formulation of frack fluid makes it difficult for the public to know exactly how dangerous.¹² A congressional report sampling incomplete industry self-reports found that “[t]he oil and gas service companies used hydraulic fracturing products containing 29 chemicals that are (1) known or possible human carcinogens, (2) regulated under the Safe Drinking Water Act for their risks to human health, or (3) listed as hazardous air pollutants under the Clean Air Act.”¹³ Recently published scientific papers also describe the harmfulness of the chemicals often in fracking fluid. One study reviewed a list of 944 fracking fluid products containing 632 chemicals, 353 of which could be identified with Chemical Abstract Service numbers.¹⁴ The

⁶ Arthur, J. Daniel et al., *Hydraulic Fracturing Considerations for Natural Gas Wells of the Marcellus Shale* (Sep. 2008) (“Arthur”) at 2-9.

⁷ Tompkins, *How will High-Volume (Slick-water) Hydraulic Fracturing of the Marcellus (or Utica) Shale Differ from Traditional Hydraulic Fracturing?* Marcellus Accountability Project at 1 (Feb. 2011).

⁸ New York State Department of Environmental Conservation, *Revised Draft Supplemental Generic Environmental Impact Statement on the Oil, Gas and Solution Mining Regulatory Program, Well Permit Issuance for Horizontal Drilling and High-Volume Hydraulic Fracturing to Develop the Marcellus Shale and Other Low-Permeability Gas Reservoirs* at 5-5 (Sep. 7, 2011) (“NYDEC SGEIS”) at 5-5.

⁹ *Id.*; Arthur at 10; United States House of Representatives, Committee on Energy and Commerce, Minority Staff, *Chemicals Used in Hydraulic Fracturing* (Apr. 2011) (“Waxman 2011b”).

¹⁰ Arthur at 10.

¹¹ Arthur at 10.

¹² Waxman 2011b; *see also* Colborn, Theo et al., *Natural Gas Operations for a Public Health Perspective*, 17 *Human and Ecological Risk Assessment* 1039 (2011) (“Colborn 2011”); McKenzie, Lisa et al., *Human Health Risk Assessment of Air Emissions from Development of Unconventional Natural Gas Resources*, *Sci Total Environ* (2012), doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2012.02.018 (“McKenzie 2012”).

¹³ Waxman 2011b at 8.

¹⁴ Colborn 2011 at 1.

study concluded that more than 75 percent of the chemicals could affect the skin, eyes, and other sensory organs, and the respiratory and gastrointestinal systems; approximately 40 to 50 percent could affect the brain/nervous system, immune and cardiovascular systems, and the kidneys; 37 percent could affect the endocrine system; and 25 percent could cause cancer and mutations.¹⁵ Another study reviewed exposures to fracking chemicals and noted that trimethylbenzenes are among the largest contributors to non-cancer threats for people living within a half mile of a well, while benzene is the largest contributor to cumulative cancer risk for people, regardless of the distance from the wells.¹⁶

The impacts associated with the fracking-induced oil and gas development boom has caused some jurisdictions to place a moratorium or ban on fracking. For instance, in 2011 France became the first country to ban the practice.¹⁷ In May, Vermont became the first state to ban fracking. Vermont's governor called the ban "a big deal" and stated that the bill "will ensure that we do not inject chemicals into groundwater in a desperate pursuit for energy."¹⁸ New York State halted fracking within its borders in 2008, continued the moratorium in 2014 and banned the practice in 2015, stating "New York State officially banned fracking for natural gas by issuing its final environmental impact statement, concluding a seven-year review. The environmental agency said fracking posed risks to land, water, natural resources and public health."¹⁹ ²⁰ Also, New Jersey's legislature recently passed a bill that would prevent fracking waste, like toxic wastewater and drill cuttings, from entering its borders,²¹ and Pennsylvania, ground zero for the fracking debate, has banned "natural-gas exploration across a swath of suburban Philadelphia"²² Numerous cities and communities, like Buffalo, Pittsburgh, Raleigh, Woodstock, and Morgantown have banned fracking.²³

Separate from hydraulic fracturing, the second technological development underlying the recent shale boom is the use of horizontal drilling. Shale oil and shale gas formations are typically located far below the surface, and as such, the cost of drilling a vertical well to access the layer is high.²⁴ The shale formation itself is typically a thin layer; however, such that a vertical well only provides access to a small volume of shale—the cylinder of permeability

¹⁵ Colborn 2011 at 1.

¹⁶ McKenzie 2012 at 5.

¹⁷ Castelveccchi, Davide, *France becomes first country to ban extraction of natural gas by fracking*, Scientific American (Jun. 30, 2011).

¹⁸ CNN Staff Writer, *Vermont first state to ban fracking*, CNN U.S. (May 17, 2012).

¹⁹ Public News Service - NY, *Cuomo Declares: No Fracking for Now in NY*. See:

<http://www.publicnewsservice.org/2014-12-18/health-issues/cuomo-declares-no-fracking-for-now-in-ny/a43579-1>.

²⁰ RT Network. June 30, 2015. *It's official: New York bans fracking*. <https://www.rt.com/usa/270562-new-york-fracking-ban/>.

²¹ Tittel, Jeff, *Opinion: Stop fracking waste from entering New Jersey's borders* (Jul 14, 2012).

²² Philly.com, *Fracking ban is about our water*, The Inquirer (Jul. 11, 2012).

²³ CBS, *Pittsburgh Bans Natural Gas Drilling*, CBS/AP (Dec 8, 2010); Wooten, Michael *City of Buffalo Bans Fracking* (Feb. 9, 2011); The Raleigh Telegram, *Raleigh City Council Bans Fracking Within City Limits* (Jul. 11, 2012); Kemble, William, *Woodstock bans activities tied to fracking*, Daily Freeman (Jul. 19, 2012); MetroNews.com, *Morgantown Bans Fracking* (June 22, 2011), <http://www.wvmetronews.com/news.cfm?func=displayfullstory&storyid=46214>.

²⁴ See CITI at 9; United States Energy Information Administration, *Review of Emerging Resources: U.S. Shale Gas and Shale Oil Plays* at 4 (Jul. 2011) ("USEIA 2011"); Orszag, Peter, *Fracking Boom Could Finally Cap Myth of Peak Oil* (Jan. 31, 2011) ("Orszag").

surrounding the well bore.²⁵ Although hydraulic fracturing increases the radius of this cylinder of shale, this effect is often itself insufficient to allow profitable extraction of shale resources.²⁶ Horizontal drilling solves this economic problem: by drilling sideways along the shale formation once it is reached, a company can extract resources from a much higher volume of shale for the same amount of drilling through the overburden, drastically increasing the fraction of total well length that passes through producing zones.²⁷ The practice of combining horizontal drilling with hydraulic fracturing was developed in the early 1990s.²⁸

A third technological development is the use of “multi-stage” fracking. In the 1990s industry began drilling longer and longer horizontal well segments. The difficulty of hydraulic fracturing increases with the length of the well bore to be fractured, however, both because longer well segments are more likely to pass through varied conditions in the rock and because it becomes difficult to create the high pressures required in a larger volume.²⁹ In 2002 industry began to address these problems by employing multi-stage fracking. In multi-stage fracking, the operator treats only part of the wellbore at a time, typically 300 to 500 feet.³⁰ Each stage “may require 300,000 to 600,000 gallons of water,” and consequently, a frack job that is two or more stages can contaminate and pump into the ground over a million gallons of water.³¹

Notwithstanding the grave impacts that these practices have on the environment, this new combination of multi-stage slickwater hydraulic fracturing and horizontal drilling (hereinafter “fracking”) has made it possible to profitably extract oil and gas from formations that only a few years ago were generally viewed as uneconomical to develop.³² The effect of hydraulic fracturing on the oil and gas markets has been tremendous, with many reports documenting the boom in domestic energy production. A recent congressional report notes that “[a]s a result of hydraulic fracturing and advances in horizontal drilling technology, natural gas production in 2010 reached the highest level in decades.”³³ A 2011 U.S. EIA report notes how recently these changes have occurred, stating that “only in the past 5 years has shale gas been recognized as a ‘game changer’ for the U.S. natural gas market.”³⁴ With respect to oil, the EIA notes that oil production has been increasing, with the production of shale oil resources pushing levels even higher over the next decade:

Domestic crude oil production has increased over the past few years, reversing a decline that began in 1986. U.S. crude oil production increased from 5.0 million barrels per day in 2008 to 5.5 million barrels per day in 2010. Over the next 10 years, continued

²⁵ *Id.*

²⁶ *Id.*; Arthur at 8 (Figure 4).

²⁷ Venoco, Inc., Monterey Shale Focused Analyst Day Slide Show at 23 (May 26, 2010) (“Venoco Slide Show”), USEIA 2012a at 63.

²⁸ *Id.*

²⁹ NYDEC SGEIS at 5-93.

³⁰ *Id.*

³¹ *Id.*

³² CITI, *Resurging North American Oil Production and the Death of the Peak Oil Hypothesis* at 9 (Feb. 15, 2012) (“CITI”); USEIA 2011 at 4; Orszag.

³³ Waxman 2011b at 1.

³⁴ USEIA 2011 at 4.

development of tight oil, in combination with the ongoing development of offshore resources in the Gulf of Mexico, pushes domestic crude oil production higher.³⁵

Thus, it is evident that fracking, including fracking with the most recent techniques that have been associated with serious adverse impacts in other areas of the country, is poised to expand; it is further evident that the oil and gas industry is still exploring new locations to develop, and the nation has not yet seen the full extent of fracking's impact on oil and gas development and production.

In large part through the use of fracking, the oil and gas sector is now producing huge amounts of oil and gas throughout the United States, rapidly transforming the domestic energy outlook. Fracking is occurring in the absence of any adequate federal or state oversight. The current informational and regulatory void on the state level makes it even more critical that the BLM perform its legal obligations to review, analyze, disclose, and avoid and mitigate the impacts of its oil and gas leasing decisions.

The PEA hardly discusses fracking. It does mention some of the potential implications of the use of hydraulic fracturing, such as possibility of spills and contamination of ground and surface water. The Center's review of this material finds the PEA is severely deficient for purposes of the intended function of an environmental assessment, which is to determine whether or not a proposed action may have significant effects on the human environment. General information about hydraulic fracturing, however, fails to fill the gap in the PEA's analysis. The PEA contains no discussion whatsoever of the impact of fracking on specific geological formations, surface and ground water resources, seismic potential, or human, animal, and plant health and safety concerns present in the area to be leased.

II. BLM Has Violated the National Environmental Policy Act

BLM's EA fails to comply with the National Environmental Policy Act ("NEPA") because its analysis of environmental impacts fails to take a "hard look" at foreseeable impacts, arbitrarily refuses to consider relevant issues; and capriciously declines to prepare an environmental impact statement ("EIS") despite potentially significant impacts. A central reason for these failures is that the agency has arbitrarily and capriciously restricted, in its analysis, the amount of activity that could result from the lease sale.

1) Overview

NEPA demands that a federal agency prepare an EIS before taking a "major [f]ederal action[] significantly affecting the quality' of the environment." *Kern v. U.S. Bureau of Land Mgmt.*, 284 F.3d 1062, 1067 (9th Cir. 2002). In order to determine whether a project's impacts may be "significant," an agency may first prepare an EA. 40 C.F.R. §§ 1501.4, 1508.9. If the EA reveals that "the agency's action may have a significant effect upon the . . . environment, an EIS must be prepared." *Nat'l Parks & Conservation Ass'n v. Babbitt*, 241 F.3d 722, 730 (9th Cir. 2001) (internal quotations omitted). If the agency determines that no significant impacts are

³⁵ USEIA 2012a at 2

possible, it must still *adequately* explain its decision by supplying a “convincing statement of reasons” why the action’s effects are insignificant. *Blue Mountains Biodiversity Project v. Blackwood*, 161 F.3d 1208, 1212 (9th Cir. 1998) (emphasis added). Further, an agency must prepare all environmental analyses required by NEPA at “the earliest possible time.” 40 C.F.R. § 1501.2. “NEPA is not designed to postpone analysis of an environmental consequence to the last possible moment,” but is “designed to require such analysis as soon as it can reasonably be done.” *Kern*, 284 F.3d at 1072.

2) BLM Unlawfully Restricted Its Analysis

The PEA presents a misleading and inaccurate analysis by assuming, due to a 2-year negative trend in LSFO well starts, that drilling will follow the “Low scenario” of just 26 wells per year from the LSFO RFD.³⁶ However, issuance of leases would lock in lessees’ rights to explore for and produce oil and gas for ten years (or more). Therefore, it is inappropriate to rely on a two-year slump in drilling activities to extrapolate that low prices and low interest in the area will continue for another decade or more.

BLM has also unlawfully restricted its NEPA analysis by failing to analyze sufficiently site-specific impacts. The PEA impermissibly defers analysis of all site-specific indirect impacts, such as impacts of emissions of regulated air pollutants (including GHGs) associated with the development of oil and gas resources;³⁷ impacts to groundwater hydrology;³⁸ impacts to water quality and water quantity;³⁹ and site-specific mitigation measures to protect fluid mineral sources,⁴⁰ soil resources,⁴¹ groundwater and surface water resources,⁴² vegetation⁴³, special status animals,⁴⁴ and other vital resources to the APD (Applications for Permit to Drill) stage. However, if a lease is sold, the lessee acquires certain contractual rights constraining BLM authority. For example, according to 43 CFR § 3101.1-2, once a lease is issued to its owner, that owner has the “right to use as much of the lease lands as is necessary to explore for, drill for, mine, extract, remove and dispose of the leased resource in the leasehold” subject to specific nondiscretionary statutes and lease stipulations.

NEPA requires that an agency conduct all environmental analyses at “the earliest possible time.” 40 C.F.R. § 1501.2; *see also N. Alaska Env’tl. Ctr. v. Kempthorne*, 457 F.3d 969, 973, 977-78 (9th Cir. 2006); *N.M. ex rel. Richardson v. Bureau of Land Mgmt.*, 565 F.3d 683, 718 (10th Cir. 2009). In *Richardson*, the Tenth Circuit specifically found “issuing an oil and gas lease with a [No Surface Occupancy] stipulation constitutes” an irrevocable commitment of resources. 565 F.3d at 718. Under this decision, and the terms of the BLM’s own NEPA Handbook, the consequences of conveying the right to surface disturbance must be analyzed now, when the

³⁶ PEA at 24.

³⁷ PEA at 33

³⁸ PEA at 35

³⁹ PEA at 40.

⁴⁰ PEA at 38.

⁴¹ PEA at 39.

⁴² PEA at 41-42.

⁴³ PEA at 49.

⁴⁴ PEA at 48.

BLM still has the right to prohibit or regulate comprehensively the scope of surface activity.⁴⁵ Here, this means that BLM must make reasonable effort to anticipate and analyze all reasonably foreseeable impacts now, before it has leased the land and is unable to prevent environmental impacts.

3) BLM's PEA Fails to Take a Hard Look at Potential Impacts from the Lease Sale, Oil and Gas Development, and the Use of Hydraulic Fracking Technologies

NEPA establishes “action-forcing” procedures that require agencies to take a “hard look” at environmental consequences.” *Ctr. for Biological Diversity v. United States DOI*, 623 F.3d 633, 642 (9th Cir. 2010). Chief among these procedures is the preparation of an environmental impact statement (“EIS”). *Id.* As demonstrated by the agency’s generic and meager discussion of potential problems that could result from fracking and its failure to analyze the actual impacts of the lease sale, BLM’s PEA fails to take the requisite hard look at environmental impacts.

A. BLM Failed to Adequately Disclose or Analyze the Project’s Impacts to Water Resources

Oil and gas activities pose significant danger to water resources. This includes harms that are common to oil and gas operations in general, and damages fracking in particular can cause. While much remains to be learned about fracking,⁴⁶ it is clear that the practice poses serious threats to water resources. Across the U.S., in states where fracking or other types of unconventional oil and gas recovery has occurred, surface water and groundwater have been contaminated. Recent studies have concluded that water contamination attributed to unconventional oil and gas activity has occurred in several states, including Colorado,⁴⁷ Wyoming,⁴⁸ Texas,⁴⁹ Pennsylvania,⁵⁰ Ohio,⁵¹ and West Virginia.⁵²

⁴⁵ *Richardson*, 565 F.3d 718 & n.44 (citing BLM Handbook H-1624-1 (“By law, these impacts must be analyzed before the agency makes an irreversible commitment. In the fluid minerals program, this commitment occurs at the point of lease issuance.”)).

⁴⁶ United States Government Accountability Office, *Unconventional Oil and Gas Development – Key Environmental and Public Health Requirements* (2012); United States Government Accountability Office, *Oil and Gas – Information on Shale Resources, Development, and Environmental and Public Health Risks* (2012).

⁴⁷ Trowbridge, A. *Colorado Floods Spur Fracking Concerns*, CBS News, Sept. 17, 2013, available at http://www.cbsnews.com/8301-201_162-57603336/colorado-floods-spur-fracking-concerns/ (“Trowbridge 2013”) (accessed July 30, 2015).

⁴⁸ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, *Draft Investigation of Ground Water Contamination near Pavillion, Wyoming* (2011) (“USEPA Draft Pavillion Investigation”).

⁴⁹ Fontenot, Brian et al., *An Evaluation of Water Quality in Private Drinking Water Wells Near Natural Gas Extraction Sites in the Barnett Shale Formation*, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 47 (17), 10032–10040 DOI: 10.1021/es4011724, available at <http://pubs.acs.org/doi/abs/10.1021/es4011724> (“Fontenot 2013”).

⁵⁰ Jackson, Robert et al., *Increased Stray Gas Abundance in a Subset of Drinking Water Wells near Marcellus Shale Gas Extraction*, *Proc. Natl. Acad. of Sciences Early Edition*, doi: 10.1073/pnas.1221635110/-DCSupplemental (2013) (“Jackson 2013”).

⁵¹ Ohio Department of Natural Resources, *Report on the Investigation of the Natural Gas Invasion of Aquifers in Bainbridge Township of Geauga County, Ohio* (Sep. 2008) (“ODNR 2008”).

⁵² Begos, K., *Four States Confirm Water Pollution*, Associated Press, January 5, 2014, <http://www.usatoday.com/story/money/business/2014/01/05/some-states-confirm-water-pollution-from-drilling/4328859/> (accessed July 29, 2015); *see also* U.S. EPA, *Assessment of the Potential Impacts of Hydraulic*

BLM's analysis of potential impacts to water is woefully inadequate. The agency gives recognition to the impacts to water resources, but then improperly dismisses them by stating: "There are no direct impacts to [surface or groundwater] hydrology as a result of this lease sale. . . [T]he leasing and subsequent development of these parcels could add an additional impact to water resources into the future. Most of this impact would be phased in and lessened as individual wells are completed, interim reclamation is achieved, and older wells are plugged and abandoned. . . . Site-specific mitigation measures, including the requirement to use BLM approved BMPs to protect hydrologic resources, would be analyzed and added as COAs at the APD stage, as appropriate."⁵³

Uncertainty about the precise locations and technologies to be utilized, however, does not excuse BLM from its obligation to consider foreseeable impacts to water at the earliest possible juncture, the leasing stage. There is little assurance that BLM can protect local water resources. BLM appears to assume that it does not have to consider all site-specific impacts because it has authority to prevent oil and gas activities later at the APD stage. That belief is incorrect. The lease sale could result in impacts that BLM will not be able to avoid once the lease sale is finalized because the agency's ability to prevent lessees from engaging in lawful activities on issued leases will be limited. BLM regulations provide that lessees "have the right to use so much of the leased lands as is necessary to explore for, drill for, mine, extract, remove and dispose of all the leased resource in a leasehold subject to" limited conditions, including lease stipulations, "specific, nondiscretionary statutes," and limited "reasonable measures" that do not preclude all development activities. 43 C.F.R. § 3101.1-2.

The likelihood that the sale will result in fracking raises several issues that BLM must address:

- Where will the water come from and what are the impacts of extracting it?
- What chemicals will be used in the drilling and fracking process?
- How will BLM ensure the collection and disclosure of that information?
- What limitations will BLM place on the chemicals used in order to protect public health and the environment?
- What measures will BLM require to ensure adequate monitoring of water impacts, both during and after drilling?
- What baseline data is available to ensure that monitoring of impacts can be carried out effectively? How will BLM collect baseline data that is not currently available?
- Much of the fracking fluid return to the surface as toxic waste. Where will the discharge go?
- Is there the potential for subsurface migration of fracking fluids, or the potential for those fluids to escape into the groundwater by way of a faulty casing?
- What kinds of treatment will be required?
- What is the potential footprint and impact of the necessary treatment facilities?

The PEA's discussion of potential impacts to water resources fails to adequately and specifically address significant issues that are likely to arise from the sale, thereby violating the requirements of

Fracturing for Oil and Gas on Drinking Water Resources, External Review Draft (June 2015) ("EPA 2015"), available at http://ofmpub.epa.gov/eims/eimscomm.getfile?p_download_id=523539 (accessed July 30, 2015)..

⁵³ PEA at 34-36.

NEPA. This error is compounded by BLM's arbitrary reliance on a short-term drilling decline to assume that drilling levels will necessarily correspond to the "Low Scenario" in the LSFO RFD. BLM must at the very least prepare a full EIS that addresses the following issues.

1. Surface Water Contamination

Surface waters can be contaminated in many ways from unconventional well stimulation. In addition to storm water runoff, surface water contamination may also occur from chemical and waste transport, chemical storage leaks, and breaches in pit liners.⁵⁴ The spilling or leaking of fracking fluids, flowback, or produced water is a serious problem. Harmful chemicals present in these fluids can include volatile organic compounds ("VOCs"), such as benzene, toluene, xylenes, and acetone.⁵⁵ As much as 25 percent of fracking chemicals are carcinogens,⁵⁶ and flowback can even be radioactive.⁵⁷ As described below, contaminated surface water can result in many adverse effects to wildlife, agriculture, and human health and safety. It may make waters unsafe for drinking, fishing, swimming and other activities, and may be infeasible to restore the original water quality once surface water is contaminated. BLM should consider this analysis in the EIS.

i. Chemical and Waste Transport

Massive volumes of chemicals and wastewater used or produced in oil and gas operations have the potential to contaminate local watersheds. Between 2,600 to 18,000 gallons of chemicals are injected per hydraulically fracked well depending on the number of chemicals injected.⁵⁸

Several billions of gallons of wastewater are produced by oil and gas production per year.⁵⁹ Onshore oil and gas operations in the United States create about 56 million barrels of produced water *per day*.⁶⁰ California wells, for instance, produced roughly 3 billion barrels of wastewater in 2013, which is about 15 times the amount of oil the state produced.⁶¹

⁵⁴ Vengosh, Avner et al., A Critical Review of the Risks to Water Resources from Unconventional Shale Gas Development and Hydraulic Fracturing in the United States, Environ. Sci. Technol., DOI: 10.1021/es405118y (2014) ("Vengosh 2014").

⁵⁵ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Plan to Study the Potential Impacts of Hydraulic Fracturing on Drinking Water Resources (Nov. 2011) ("EPA Plan to Study Fracking Impacts").

⁵⁶ Colborn 2011.

⁵⁷ EPA Plan to Study Fracking Impacts; White, Ivan E., Consideration of radiation in hazardous waste produced from horizontal hydrofracking, National Council on Radiation Protection (2012).

⁵⁸ EPA 2015 at ES-12.

⁵⁹ California Division of Oil, Gas, and Geothermal Resources, 2014 Preliminary Report of California Oil and Gas Production Statistics at 3 (July 2015); California Department of Conservation Division of Oil, Gas, and Geothermal Resources, Producing Wells and Production of Oil, Gas, and Water by County - 2011, Excerpted from Final Report of 2011 California Oil and Gas Production Statistics (2012).

⁶⁰ U.S. Government Accountability Office, Energy-Water Nexus: Information on the Quantity, Quality, and Management of Water Produced during Oil and Gas Production, Report to the Ranking Member, Committee on Science, Space and Technology, House of Representatives at 13 (January 2012).

⁶¹ California Division of Oil, Gas, and Geothermal Resources, 2014 Preliminary Report of California Oil and Gas Production Statistics at 3 (July 2015); California Department of Conservation Division of Oil, Gas, and Geothermal Resources, Producing Wells and Production of Oil, Gas, and Water by County - 2011, Excerpted from Final Report of 2011 California Oil and Gas Production Statistics (2012).

Approximately 2,019 billion gallons of wastewater are produced by oil and gas production per year in Colorado.⁶² This waste can reach fresh water aquifers and drinking water.⁶³

Fluids must be transported to and/or from the well, which presents opportunities for spills.⁶⁴ Unconventional well stimulation relies on numerous trucks to transport chemicals to the site as well as collect and carry disposal fluid from the site to processing facilities. A U.S. GAO study found that up to 1,365 truck loads can be required just for the drilling and fracturing of a single well pad⁶⁵ while the New York Department of Conservation estimated the number of “heavy truck” trips to be about 3,950 per horizontal well (including unloaded and loaded trucks).⁶⁶ Accidents during transit may cause leaks and spills that result in the transported chemicals and fluids reaching surface waters. Chemicals and waste transported by pipeline can also leak or spill. There are also multiple reports of truckers dumping waste uncontained into the environment.⁶⁷

Surface pits, in which wastewater is often dumped, are a major source of pollution. In California, a farmer was awarded \$8.5 million in damages after his almond trees died when he irrigated them with well water that had been contaminated by nearby oil and gas operations. The contamination was traced to unlined pits where one of California’s largest oil and gas producers for decades dumped billions of gallons of wastewater that slowly leached pollutants into nearby groundwater.⁶⁸ Also, New Mexico data shows 743 instances of all types of oil and gas operations polluting groundwater – the source of drinking water for 90 percent of the state’s residents.⁶⁹ Underground waste injection wells are another major threat. This is of particular concern because the U.S. EPA has found that DOGGR’s Class II underground injection well program to be insufficiently protective of groundwater resources.⁷⁰

⁶² EPA 2015 at 8-5.

⁶³ Natural Resources Defense Council, Petition for Rulemaking Pursuant to Section 6974(a) of the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act Concerning the Regulation of Wastes Associated with the Exploration, Development, or Production of Crude Oil or Natural Gas or Geothermal Energy at 17 (Sep. 8, 2010) (“NRDC Petition for Rulemaking”).

⁶⁴ Warco, Kathy, *Fracking truck runs off road; contents spill*, Observer Reporter (Oct 21, 2010).

⁶⁵ U.S. Government Accountability Office, *Oil and Gas: Information on Shale Resources, Development, and Environmental and Public Health Risks*, GAO 12-732 (2012) at 33.

⁶⁶ New York Department of Environmental Conservation, *Revised Draft Supplemental Generic Environmental Impact Statement on the Oil, Gas and Solution Mining Regulatory Program*, Ch. 6 Potential Environmental Impacts (2011) at 6-303.

⁶⁷ Kusnetz, Nicholas, *North Dakota’s Oil Boom Brings Damage Along with Prosperity* at 4, ProPublica (June 7, 2012) (“Kusnetz North Dakota”); E&E News, *Ohio man pleads not guilty to brine dumping* (Feb. 15, 2013).

⁶⁸ See *No Fracking, Speak No Fracking* at 6; *see also* Miller, Jeremy, *Oil and Water Don’t Mix with California Agriculture*, High Country News (2012);

⁶⁹ New Mexico Oil and Conservation Division, *OGAP Analysis of data provided in New Mexico Energy, Minerals and Natural Resources Dep’t, Oil and Conservation Div., Cases Where Pit Substances Contaminated New Mexico’s Ground Water* (2008); *see generally* NRDC Petition for Rulemaking; Nicholas, Kusnetz, *A Fracking First in Pennsylvania: Cattle Quarantine*, ProPublica (July 2, 2010).

⁷⁰ NRDC Petition for Rulemaking at 20; Walker, James, *California Class II UIC Program Review*, Report submitted to Ground Water Office USEPA Region 9 at 119 (Jun. 2011); U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Region IX, Letter from David Albright, Manager Ground Water, to Elena Miller, State Oil and Gas Supervisor Dept of Conservation re California Class II Underground Injection Control (UIC) Program Review final report (July 18, 2011); Miller, Elena, Letter from Elena M. Miller, State Oil and Gas Supervisor, California Division of Oil, Gas, &

Produced waters that fracking operations force to the surface from deep underground can contain high levels of total dissolved solids, salts, metals, and naturally occurring radioactive materials.⁷¹ Flowback waters (i.e., fracturing fluids that return to the surface) may also contain similar constituents along with fracturing fluid additives such as surfactants and hydrocarbons.⁷² Given the massive volumes of chemicals and wastewater produced and their potentially harmful constituents, the potential for environmental disaster is real.

Also, many other extremely harmful spills and releases occur before those wastes reach storage or disposal sites, including spills from equipment failures, accidents, negligence, or intentional dumping.⁷³ Construction of oil and gas infrastructure, such as well pads and roads, can also harm water quality by increasing sediment levels.⁷⁴

The EIS should evaluate how often accidents can be expected to occur, and the effect of chemical and fluid spills. Such analysis should also include identification of the particular harms faced by communities near oil and gas fields. The EIS must include specific mitigation measures and alternatives based on a cumulative impacts assessment, and the particular vulnerabilities of environmental justice communities in both urban and rural settings.

ii. On-site Chemical Storage and Processing

Thousands of gallons of chemicals can be potentially stored on-site and used during hydraulic fracturing and other unconventional well stimulation activities.⁷⁵ These chemicals can be susceptible to accidental spills and leaks. Natural occurrences such as storms and earthquakes may cause accidents, as can negligent operator practices.

Some sites may also use on-site wastewater treatment facilities. Improper use or maintenance of the processing equipment used for these facilities may result in discharges of contaminants. Other spill causes include equipment failure (most commonly, blowout preventer failure, corrosion and failed valves) and failure of container integrity.⁷⁶

The EIS should examine and quantify the risks to human health and the environment associated with on-site chemical and wastewater storage, including risks from natural events and negligent operator practices. Again, such analysis must also include an analysis of potential impacts faced by environmental justice communities in both rural and urban settings.

Geothermal Resources to The Honorable Fran Pavley, California State Senate re hydraulic fracturing in California (February 16, 2011).

⁷¹ Brittingham, Margaret C. et al. Ecological Risks of Shale Oil and Gas Development to Wildlife, Aquatic Resources and their Habitats. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 2014, 48, 11034-11047, p. 11039.

⁷² *Id.*

⁷³ California Dept. of Fish and Game, Environmental Incident Report: Vintage Production California LLC Tar Creek Crude Oil and Produced Water Spills, January 30, 2007 and February 6, 2007.

⁷⁴ Entrekin, Sally, et al., Rapid Expansion of Natural Gas Development Poses a Threat to Surface Waters, 9 Front Ecol Environ 503, 507 (2011) (“Entrekin”).

⁷⁵ EPA 2015 at ES-10.

⁷⁶ EPA 2015 at ES-11.

2. Groundwater Contamination

Studies have reported many instances around the country of groundwater contamination due to surface spills of oil and gas wastewater, including fracking flowback.⁷⁷ Fracking and other unconventional techniques likewise pose inherent risks to groundwater due to releases below the surface, and these risks must be properly evaluated.⁷⁸ Once groundwater is contaminated, it is very difficult, if not impossible, to restore the original quality of the water. As a result, in communities that rely on groundwater drinking water supplies, groundwater contamination can deprive communities of usable drinking water. Such long-term contamination necessitates the costly importation of drinking water supplies.

Groundwater contamination can occur in a number of ways, and the contamination may persist for many years.⁷⁹ Surface spills and poorly constructed or abandoned wells are recognized as one of the most likely ways by which contaminants may reach groundwater. Faulty well construction, cementing, or casing,⁸⁰ as well as the injection of fracking waste underground, can all lead to leaks.⁸¹ Improper well construction and surface spills are cited as a confirmed or potential cause of groundwater contamination in numerous incidents at locations across the U.S. including but not limited to Colorado,⁸² Wyoming,⁸³ Pennsylvania,⁸⁴ Ohio,⁸⁵ West Virginia,⁸⁶ and Texas.⁸⁷ Also, fluids may contaminate groundwater by migrating through newly created or natural fractures.⁸⁸ These sorts of problems at the well are not uncommon. Dr. Ingraffea of Cornell has noted an 8.9 percent failure rate for wells in the Marcellus Shale.⁸⁹ Also, the Draft EPA Investigation of Ground Water Contamination near Pavillion, Wyoming, found

⁷⁷ See, e.g., Fontenot 2013, Jackson 2013.

⁷⁸ Vengosh 2014.

⁷⁹ Myers, Tom, Potential Contamination Pathways from Hydraulically Fractured Shale to Aquifers, National Groundwater Association (2012).

⁸⁰ NRDC, Water Facts at 2; Food & Water Watch 2012 at 7.

⁸¹ Kusnetz, North Dakota; Lustgarten, Abraham, Polluted Water Fuels a Battle for Answers, ProPublica (2012); Lustgarten, Abraham, Injection Wells: The Poison Beneath Us, ProPublica at 2 (2012); Lustgarten, Abraham, Whiff of Phenol Spells Trouble, ProPublica (2012).

⁸² Gross, Sherilyn A. et al., Abstract: Analysis of BTEX groundwater concentrations from surface spills associated with hydraulic fracturing operations, 63 J. Air and Waste Mgmt. Assoc. 4, 424 doi: 10.1080/10962247.2012.759166 (2013).

⁸³ USEPA Draft Pavillion Investigation.

⁸⁴ Darrah, Thomas H. et al., Noble Gases Identify the Mechanisms of Fugitive Gas Contamination in Drinking-Water Wells Overlying the Marcellus and Barnett Shales, Proc. Natl. Acad. Of Sciences Early Edition, doi: 10.1073/pnas.1322107111 (2014) (“Darrah 2014”).

⁸⁵ Begos, Kevin, *Some States Confirm Water Pollution from Oil, Gas Drilling*, Seattle Times Jan. 6, 2014, <http://www.seattletimes.com/business/some-states-confirm-water-pollution-from-oil-gas-drilling/> (accessed July 29, 2015) (“Begos, Seattle Times, Jan 6, 2014”). See also, ODNR 2008, *supra*.

⁸⁶ Begos, Seattle Times, Jan 6. 2014.

⁸⁷ Darrah 2014.

⁸⁸ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Draft Investigation of Ground Water Contamination near Pavillion, Wyoming (2011) (“EPA Draft Pavillion Investigation.”); Warner, Nathaniel R., et al., Geochemical Evidence for Possible Natural Migration of Marcellus Formation Brine to Shallow Aquifers in Pennsylvania, PNAS Early Edition (2012).

⁸⁹ Ingraffea, Anthony R., Some Scientific Failings within High Volume Hydraulic Fracturing Proposed Regulations 6 NYCRR Parts 550-556, 560, Comments and Recommendations Submitted to the NYS Dept. of Environmental Conservation (Jan 8, 2013).

that chemicals found in samples of groundwater were from fracked wells.⁹⁰ These results have been confirmed with follow-up analyses.⁹¹ Moreover, another study based on modeling found that active transport of fracking fluid from a fracked well to an aquifer could occur in less than 10 years.⁹²

Fracking fluid can also spill at the surface during the fracking process. For instance, mechanical failure or operator error during the process has caused leaks from tanks, valves, and pipes.⁹³ At the surface, pits or tanks can leak fracking fluid or waste.⁹⁴

Mechanical integrity, which refers to an absence of leakage pathways through the casing and cement, can degrade over time, eventually leading to mechanical integrity failures that may impact groundwater. Older wells that may not have been designed to withstand the stresses of hydraulic fracturing but which are reused for this purpose are especially vulnerable.⁹⁵ A well in which stimulation operations are being conducted may also “communicate” with nearby wells, which may lead to groundwater contamination, particularly if the nearby wells are improperly constructed or abandoned.⁹⁶ Nearby active and abandoned wells provided additional pathways for contamination. In the last 150 years, as many as 12 million “holes” have been drilled across the United States in search of oil and gas, many of which are old and decaying, or are in unknown locations.⁹⁷ Fracking can contaminate water resources by intersecting one of those wells. For instance, one study found at least nineteen instances of fluid communication in British Columbia and Western Alberta.⁹⁸

Current federal rules do not ensure well integrity. The well casing can potentially fail over time and potentially create pathways for contaminants to reach groundwater. Well casing failure can occur due to improper or negligent construction. The EIS should study the rates of

⁹⁰ EPA Draft Pavillion Investigation.

⁹¹ Drajem, Mark, *Wyoming Water Tests in Line with EPA Finding on Fracking*, Bloomberg (Oct. 11, 2012); U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, *Investigation of Ground Water Contamination near Pavillion, Wyoming Phase V Sampling Event - Summary of Methods and Results* (September 2012); Myers, Tom, *Review of DRAFT: Investigation of Ground Water Contamination near Pavillion Wyoming Prepared by the Environmental Protection Agency*, Ada OK (Apr. 30, 2012).

⁹² Myers, Tom, *Potential Contaminant Pathways from Hydraulically Fractured Shale to Aquifers* (Feb. 2012).

⁹³ Natural Resources Defense Council, *Water Facts: Hydraulic Fracturing can potentially Contaminate Drinking Water Sources at 2* (2012) (“NRDC, Water Facts”); Food & Water Watch, *The Case for a Ban on Fracking* (2012) (“Food & Water Watch 2012”) at 5.

⁹⁴ See, e.g., E&E Staff Writer, *Fracking Fluid leaks from wellhead in Colo.*, E&E News (Feb 14, 2013). (“At least 84,000 gallons of water contaminated from hydraulic fracturing seeped from a broken wellhead and into a field”); Michaels, Craig, et al., *Fractured Communities: Case Studies of the Environmental Impacts of Industrial Gas Drilling*, Riverkeeper (2010).at 12; NRDC *Petition for Rulemaking* at 20.

⁹⁵ EPA 2015 at 6-11.

⁹⁶ See Detrow, Scott. (2012) *Perilous Pathways: How Drilling Near An Abandoned Well Produced a Methane Geyser*, StateImpact Pennsylvania, National Public Radio (October 9, 2012), available at <https://stateimpact.npr.org/pennsylvania/2012/10/09/perilous-pathways-how-drilling-near-an-abandoned-well-produced-a-methane-geyser/> (accessed July 29, 2015); Alberta Energy Board, *Directive 083: Hydraulic Fracturing – Subsurface Integrity*, Alberta Energy Regulator (2013), available at <http://www.aer.ca/documents/directives/Directive083.pdf>.

⁹⁷ Kusnetz, Nicholas, *Deteriorating Oil and Gas Wells Threaten Drinking Water, Homes Across the Country*, ProPublica (April 4, 2011).

⁹⁸ BC Oil & Gas Commission, *Safety Advisory 2010-03, Communication During Fracture Stimulation* (2010).

well casing failures over time and evaluate the likelihood that well casing failures can lead to groundwater contamination.

Chemicals and naturally occurring substances can also migrate to groundwater through newly created fractures underground. Many unconventional techniques intentionally fracture the formation to increase the flow of gas or oil. New cracks and fissures can allow the additives or naturally occurring elements such as natural gas to migrate to groundwater. “[T]he increased deployment of hydraulic fracturing associated with oil and gas production activities, including techniques such as horizontal drilling and multi-well pads, may increase the likelihood that these pathways could develop,” which, “in turn, could lead to increased opportunities for impacts on drinking water sources.”⁹⁹ Fluids can also migrate through pre-existing and natural faults and fractures that may become pathways once the fracking or other method has been used.

Further, according to the EPA, “evidence of any fracturing-related fluid migration affecting a drinking water resources...could take years to discover.”¹⁰⁰ The EIS must consider long-term studies on the potential for fluid migration through newly created subsurface pathways. Fluid migration is of particular concern when oil and gas operations are close to drinking water supplies.

Unfiltered drinking water supplies, such as drinking water wells, are especially at risk because they have no readily available means of removing contaminants from the water. Even water wells with filtration systems are not designed to handle the kind of contaminants that result from unconventional oil and gas extraction.¹⁰¹ In some areas hydraulic fracturing may occur at shallower depths or within the same formation as drinking water resources, resulting in direct aquifer contamination.¹⁰² The EIS must disclose where the potential for such drilling exists.

Setbacks may not be adequate to protect groundwater from potential fracking fluid contamination. A recent study by the University of Colorado at Boulder suggests that setbacks of even up to 300-feet may not prevent contamination of drinking water resources.¹⁰³ The study found that 15 organic compounds found in hydraulic fracturing fluids may be of concern as groundwater contaminants based on their toxicity, mobility, persistence in the environment, and frequency of use. These chemicals could have 10 percent or more of their initial concentrations remaining at a transport distance of 300 feet, the average “setback” distance in the U.S. The effectiveness and feasibility of any setbacks considered as part of the PRMP must be evaluated.

⁹⁹ EPA 2015 at 6-55.

¹⁰⁰ EPA 2015 at 6-56 – 6-57.

¹⁰¹ Physicians Scientist & Engineers for Healthy Energy, Letter from Robert Howarth Ph.D. and 58 other scientists to Andrew M. Cuomo, Governor of New York State re: municipal drinking water filtration systems and hydraulic fracturing fluid (Sept 15, 2011), *available at* http://www.psehealthyenergy.org/data/Cuomo_ScientistsLetter_15Sep20112.pdf (accessed July 29, 2015).

¹⁰² EPA 2015 at ES-15.

¹⁰³ University of Colorado--Boulder, New study identifies organic compounds of potential concern in fracking Fluids (July 1, 2015), *available at* <http://www.colorado.edu/news/releases/2015/06/30/newstudyidentifiesorganiccompoundspotentialconcernfrackingfluids> (accessed July 29, 2015).

3. Disposal of Drilling and Fracking Wastes

Finally, disposal of wastes from oil and gas operations can also lead to contamination of water resources. Potential sources of contamination include:

- leaching from landfills that receive drilling and fracking solid wastes;
- spreading of drilling and fracking wastes over large areas of land;
- wastewaters discharged from treatment facilities without advanced “total dissolved solids” removal processes, or inadequate capacity to remove radioactive material removal; and
- breaches in pits or underground disposal wells.¹⁰⁴

The EIS must evaluate the potential for contamination from each of these disposal methods.

4. More Intensive Oil and Gas Development Will Increase Storm Water Runoff

Oil and gas operations require land clearance for access roads, pipelines, well pads, drilling equipment, chemical storage, and waste disposal pits. As a result, new oil and gas development will cause short-term disturbance as well as long-term disturbance within the planning area. While undisturbed land can retain greater amounts of water through plants and pervious soil, land that has been disturbed or developed may be unable to retain as much water, thereby increasing the volume of runoff. The area of land that is able to retain water will be significantly decreased if unconventional oil and gas extraction methods are permitted to expand.

Water from precipitation and snowmelt can serve as an avenue through which contaminants travel from an operation site to sensitive areas, including population centers. Contaminated water runoff may seep into residential areas, polluting streets, sidewalks, soil, and vegetation in urban areas, adversely affecting human health. Thus, not only do these oil and gas activities create pollution, they create greater conduits for storm water runoff to carry those pollutants from the operation site, into areas in which significant harm can be caused.

Rapid runoff, even without contaminants, can harm the environment by changing water flow patterns and causing erosion, habitat loss, and flooding. Greater runoff volumes may also increase the amount of sediment that is carried to lakes and streams, affecting the turbidity and chemical content of surface waters. Because a National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System permit is not required for oil and gas operations,¹⁰⁵ it is particularly important that the impact of runoff is considered as part of the NEPA process.

5. Fossil Fuel Development Depletes Enormous Amounts of Water

Some unconventional extraction techniques, most notably fracking, require the use of tremendous amounts of freshwater. Typically between 2 and 5.6 million gallons of water are required to frack each well.¹⁰⁶ Such high levels of water use are unsustainable. Water used in

¹⁰⁴ EPA 2015, 8-20, 8-36, 8-48, 8-65, 8-70.

¹⁰⁵ 33 U.S.C. § 1342(l)(2).

¹⁰⁶ U.S. Government Accountability Office 2012 at 17.

large quantities may lead to several kinds of harmful environmental impacts. The extraction of water for fracking can, for example, lower the water table, affect biodiversity, harm local ecosystems, and reduce water available to communities.¹⁰⁷

Withdrawal of large quantities of freshwater from streams and other surface waters will undoubtedly have an impact on the environment.¹⁰⁸ Withdrawing water from streams will decrease the supply for downstream users, such as farmers or municipalities. Rising demand from oil and gas operators has already led to increased competition for water between farmers and oil and gas operators. For example, in prior years, farmers in Colorado have paid at most \$100 per acre-feet of water in auctions held by cities with excess supplies, but in 2013 energy companies paid \$1200 to \$2,900 per acre-feet.¹⁰⁹ Reductions in stream flows may also lead to downstream water quality problems by diminishing the water bodies' capacity for dilution and degradation of pollutants. The EIS must examine these issues.

Furthermore, withdrawing large quantities of water from subsurface waters to supply oil and gas production will likely deplete and harm aquifers. Removing water from surface water or directly from underground sources of water faster than the rate that aquifers can be replenished will lower the volume of water available for other uses. Depletion can also lead to compaction of the rock formation serving as an aquifer, after which the original level of water volume can never be restored.¹¹⁰ Depleted aquifer water resources may also adversely affect agriculture, species habitat and ecosystems, and human health.

The freshwater in the area therefore would be greatly affected by the increased demand for water if fracking and other unconventional oil and gas extraction are permitted. A no-leasing-no-fracking alternative would preserve scarce water resources and keep critical sources of drinking water in the planning area safe and clean. The EIS must analyze where water will be sourced, how much, and the effects on water sources under different alternatives. All of these effects must be analyzed in the context of increasing water scarcity in Colorado due to climate change, drought, and increasing population growth.

6. *Oil and Gas Developments Harm Aquatic Life and Habitat*

The areas at stake in this lease sale are known to support a number of native fish regarded as BLM-sensitive, including: roundtail chub, bluehead sucker, flannelmouth sucker, mountain sucker, Colorado River cutthroat trout (CRCT), and the northern leopard frog. When streams and other surface waters are depleted, the habitat for countless plants and animals will be harmed, and the depletion places tremendous pressure on species that depend on having a constant and ample stream of water. Indeed, BLM admits, "cumulative water depletions from the upper Colorado River Basin are considered likely to jeopardize the continued existence of all four

¹⁰⁷ International Energy Agency, *Golden Rules for the Golden Age of Gas* at 31-32 (2012).

¹⁰⁸ See Entekin, Sally et al., *Rapid Expansion of Natural Gas Development Poses a Threat to Surface Waters*, 9 *Front Ecol. Environ.* 9, 503 (2011); EPA 2015 at 4-16.

¹⁰⁹ *Id.*

¹¹⁰ Freyman, Monika and Ryan Salmon, *Hydraulic Fracturing and Water Stress: Growing Competitive Pressures for Water*, CERES, 9 (2013) ("Freyman 2013"), available at <http://www.ceres.org/resources/reports/hydraulic-fracturing-water-stress-water-demand-by-the-numbers> (accessed July 29, 2015).

endangered Colorado River fishes, including the Colorado pikeminnow, humpback chub, bonytail, and razorback sucker, and would result in the destruction or adverse modification of their critical habitat.”¹¹¹ Such impacts must (a) be adequately analyzed in an EIS and (b) undergo full and up-to-date consultation with the Fish and Wildlife Service under Section 7 of the Endangered Species Act, using the best and most recent scientific data regarding Colorado River flows and the status of the four endangered fishes.

Physical habitats such as banks, pools, runs, and glides (low gradient river sections) are important yet susceptible to disturbance with changing stream flows. Altering the volume of water can also change the water’s temperature and oxygen content, harming some species that require a certain level of oxygenated water. Decreasing the volume of streamflow and stream channels by diverting water to fracking would have a negative impact on the environment and should be included in the EIS.

The physical equipment itself that is designed to intake and divert water may also pose a threat to certain wildlife. If not properly designed, such equipment and intake points may be a risk to wildlife. BLM further points out that releases of contaminants (e.g. wastewater, fracking fluids, and petroleum products) and sediments from roads, pad, and pipeline construction “can contribute to adverse changes in water quality and/or prompt system changes that can lead to mortality in aquatic vertebrates through acute or chronic toxicity . . .”¹¹² BLM’s statement that “BLM fluid mineral management cannot be expected to be influential on a system-wide basis”¹¹³ demonstrates BLM’s unreliability in protecting the local water resources, aquatic life, or wetlands.

The PEA suggests that BLM plans to rely on the 2008 “Programmatic Biological Opinion for Water Depletions Associated with Bureau of Land Management’s Fluid Mineral Program within the Upper Colorado River” (PBO) instead of completing a formal consultation regarding the effects of the lease sale’s water depletion effects on the endangered fish.¹¹⁴ PEA 47-48 (“Development associated with this lease sale would be covered by this agreement and water use would be entered into the LSFO water depletion log that is submitted to the BLM Colorado State Office at the end of each fiscal year. . . .”). The Service and BLM cannot reasonably rely on the PBO, because, as discussed below, the PBO does not anticipate the full scope of water use required by the LSFO RMP and other fluid mineral development activities in the Upper Colorado River Basin, including proposed development in the neighboring White River and Grand Junction Field Offices. Moreover, the PBO explicitly excludes any consideration of spill-related impacts to endangered fish. By failing to account for horizontal drilling’s water demands or the possibility of spills, reliance on the PBO severely underestimates the potential water depletion effects of fluid mineral development in the Upper Colorado watersheds affected. Reliance on the PBO in disclosing and analyzing the need to mitigate depletion impacts, therefore, is impermissible under both NEPA and ESA Section 7.

¹¹¹ PEA at 47.

¹¹² PEA at 52.

¹¹³ PEA at 52.

¹¹⁴ See Fish and Wildlife Service, “Programmatic Biological Opinion for Water Depletions Associated with Bureau of Land Management’s Fluid Mineral Program within the Upper Colorado River,” Dec. 19, 2008.

Given the great risks and inevitable harm to endangered and BLM-sensitive species, BLM must provide a complete analysis of impacts and mitigation measures, instead of kicking the can down the road and waiting until the APD stage to evaluate the significant impacts of the sale.

7. Harm to Wetlands

The proposed lease parcels host about 13 acres of seasonal wetlands. As discussed above, oil and gas development, and particularly the practice of fracking, pose an immense threat to water resources. It is inconceivable that fracking could be performed in these valley bottoms without disastrous impacts to the water resources and the native plants and animals that depend on these ecosystems. High volume removal of surface or groundwater can result in damage to wetlands, which rely on ample water supplies to maintain the fragile dynamics of a wetland habitat. Damage can also occur from spills of chemicals or wastewater, filling operations, and sediment runoff.¹¹⁵ BLM in its EIS must fully vet the impacts from every potential aspect of the proposed sale.

Many plant and animal species depend on wetland habitats, and even small changes can lead to significant impacts. Wetlands provide a variety of “eco-service” functions, including water purification, protection from floods, and functioning as carbon sinks.¹¹⁶ The ecological importance of wetlands is unquestionable, and their full protection is paramount. The EIS must analyze these potential impacts to wetlands, and the related, potential indirect impacts that may stem from such impacts.

B. BLM Failed to Adequately Disclose or Analyze the Project’s Harm to Air Quality

Although BLM generally estimated the “minimum indirect” impacts of leasing the nominated parcels,¹¹⁷ the agency avoided any attempt to properly estimate emissions and determine potential impacts to air quality. BLM’s excuse is that, “Since it is unknown if the parcels would be explored and/or developed, or the extent of any subsequent exploration and development on either a temporal or spatial scale, it is not possible to reasonably assess air quality impacts through dispersion modeling or another acceptable method at this time.”¹¹⁸ However, NEPA regulations and case law clearly establish that uncertainty about the precise extent and nature of environmental impacts does not relieve an agency of the obligation to disclose and analyze those impacts utilizing the best information available. See 40 C.F.R. § 1502.22(a),(b). “The BLM would continue to evaluate climatic variability and change in the future, and apply appropriate management techniques and

¹¹⁵ U.S. Department of Justice, *Trans Energy Inc. to Restore Streams and Wetland Damaged by Natural Gas Extraction Activities in West Virginia* (Sep. 2, 2014), available at <http://www.justice.gov/opa/pr/trans-energy-inc-restore-streams-and-wetland-damaged-natural-gas-extraction-activities-west> (accessed July 29, 2015); *See also*, Pennsylvania Department of Environmental Protection, Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, *DEP Fines Seneca Resources Corp. \$40,000 for Violations at Marcellus Operation in Tioga County* (Jul. 10, 2010), <http://www.portal.state.pa.us/portal/server.pt/community/newsroom/14287?id=14655&typeid=1> (accessed July 29, 2015).

¹¹⁶ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, *Wetlands and People*, available at <http://water.epa.gov/type/wetlands/people.cfm> (accessed July 29, 2015).

¹¹⁷ PEA at 22.

¹¹⁸ PEA at 22.

policy to address changing conditions as developments occur.”¹¹⁹ Given the likelihood that fracking and other similarly harmful techniques would be employed in the exploration and development of the parcels, BLM has an obligation to analyze and disclose the potential impacts resulting from such frequently used practices. BLM cannot excuse itself of this obligation on the account that the lease sale’s contribution to deterioration of the air quality in the region is “incremental,” or that “any future potential cumulative impact is speculative” or that “specific equipment configurations of such development are unknown.”¹²⁰ The purpose of an environmental assessment is for BLM to look at the impacts in total, and to take a hard look at all “reasonably foreseeable” impacts now, before leasing the land.

Oil and gas operations emit numerous air pollutants, including volatile organic compounds (VOCs), NO_x, particulate matter, hydrogen sulfide, and methane. Fracking operations are particularly harmful, emitting especially large amounts of pollution, including air toxic air pollutants. Permitting fracking and other well stimulation techniques will greatly increase the release of harmful air emissions in these and other regions. BLM should adopt a no-leasing-no-fracking alternative, which would prevent further degradation of local air quality, respiratory illnesses, premature deaths, hospital visits, as well as missed school and work days.

BLM’s analysis is further lacking because the agency also failed to identify environmental impact mitigation methods for controlling air pollution emissions, which violates NEPA’s requirement that the agency identify mitigation measures, 40 C.F.R. § 1508.25, and consider all reasonable alternatives. *Ctr. for Biological Diversity v. Nat’l Highway Traffic Safety Admin.*, 538 F.3d 1172, 1217 (9th Cir. Cal. 2008) (citing 40 C.F.R. § 1502.14(a)).

1. Types of Air Emissions

BLM failed to provide any analysis of the type, extent, or source of emissions from unconventional oil and gas extraction methods, such as fracking; instead BLM arbitrarily and capriciously restricted its analysis to conventional oil and gas. The rapid expansion of unconventional oil makes the impacts associated with fracking foreseeable.

Unconventional oil and gas operations emit large amounts of toxic air pollutants,¹²¹ also referred to as Hazardous Air Pollutants, which are known or suspected to cause cancer or other serious health effects, such as reproductive effects or birth defects, or adverse environmental effects.¹²² The reporting requirements recently implemented by the California South Coast Air Quality Management District (“SCAQMD”) have shown that at least 44 chemicals known to be air toxics have been used in fracking and other types of unconventional oil and gas recovery in California.¹²³ Through the implementation of these new reporting requirements, it is now known that operators have been using several types of air toxics in California, including crystalline silica, methanol, hydrochloric acid, hydrofluoric acid, 2-butoxyethanol, ethyl glycol monobutyl ether, xylene, amorphous silica fume, aluminum oxide, acrylic polymer, acetophenone, and

¹¹⁹ PEA at 33.

¹²⁰ PEA at 23.

¹²¹ Sierra Club et al. comments on New Source Performance Standards: Oil and Natural Gas Sector; Review and Proposed Rule for Subpart OOOO (Nov. 30, 2011) (“Sierra Club Comments”) at 13.

¹²² See <http://www3.epa.gov/airtoxics/allabout.html#what>

¹²³ Center for Biological Diversity, Air Toxics One Year Report, p. 1 (June 2014).

ethylbenzene. Many of these chemicals also appear on the U.S. EPA's list of hazardous air pollutants.¹²⁴ EPA has also identified six "criteria" air pollutants that must be regulated under the National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) due to their potential to cause primary and secondary health effects. Concentrations of these pollutants—ozone, particulate matter, carbon monoxide, nitrogen oxides, sulfur dioxide and lead—will likely increase in regions where unconventional oil and gas recovery techniques are permitted.

VOCs, from car and truck engines as well as the drilling and completion stages of oil and gas production, make up about 3.5 percent of the gases emitted by oil or gas operations.¹²⁵ The VOCs emitted include the BTEX compounds – benzene, toluene, ethyl benzene, and xylene – which are listed as Hazardous Air Pollutants.¹²⁶ There is substantial evidence showing the grave harm from these pollutants.¹²⁷ Recent studies and reports confirm the pervasive and extensive amount of VOCs emitted by unconventional oil and gas extraction.¹²⁸ In particular, a study covering sites near oil and gas wells in five different states found that concentrations of eight volatile chemicals, including benzene, formaldehyde and hydrogen sulfide, exceeded risk-based comparison values under several operational circumstances.¹²⁹ Another study determined that vehicle traffic and engine exhaust were likely the sources of intermittently high dust and benzene concentrations observed near well pads.¹³⁰ Recent studies have found that oil and gas operations are likely responsible for elevated levels of hydrocarbons such as benzene downwind of the Denver-Julesburg Fossil Fuel Basin, north of Denver.¹³¹ Another study found that oil and gas operations in this area emit approximately 55% of the VOCs in northeastern Colorado.¹³²

VOCs can form ground-level (tropospheric) ozone when combined with nitrogen oxides ("NO_x"), from compressor engines, turbines, other engines used in drilling, and flaring,¹³³ and sunlight. This reaction can diminish visibility and air quality and harm vegetation. Tropospheric ozone can also be caused by methane, which is leaked and vented at various stages of

¹²⁴ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, The Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990 List of Hazardous Air Pollutants, Technology Transfer Network Air Toxics Web Site, available at <http://www.epa.gov/ttnatw01/orig189.html> (accessed July 29, 2015).

¹²⁵ Brown, Heather, Memorandum to Bruce Moore, U.S.EPA/OAQPS/SPPD re Composition of Natural Gas for use in the Oil and Natural Gas Sector Rulemaking, July 28, 2011 ("Brown Memo") at 3.

¹²⁶ 42 U.S.C. § 7412(b).

¹²⁷ Colborn 2011; McKenzie 2012; Food & Water Watch 2012.

¹²⁸ McCawley, M., Air, Noise, and Light Monitoring Plan for Assessing Environmental Impacts of Horizontal Gas Well Drilling Operations (ETD-10 Project), West Virginia University School of Public Health, Morgantown, WV (2013) ("McCawley 2013"), available at <http://www.dep.wv.gov/oil-and-gas/Horizontal-Permits/legislativestudies/Documents/WVU%20Final%20Air%20Noise%20Light%20Protocol.pdf>; Center for Biological Diversity, Dirty Dozen: The 12 Most Commonly Used Air Toxics in Unconventional Oil Development in the Los Angeles Basin (Sept. 2013).

¹²⁹ Macey, G.P. et al., (2014). Air Concentrations of Volatile Compounds Near Oil and Gas Production: A Community-Based Exploratory Study, 13 Environmental Health 82 (2014) at 1.

¹³⁰ McCawley 2013.

¹³¹ Pétron, G. et al., Hydrocarbon Emissions Characterization in the Colorado Front Range – A Pilot Study, 117 J. GEOPHYSICAL RESEARCH D04304 (2012), at 8, 13 ("Pétron 2012).

¹³² Gilman, J.B. et al., Source Signature of Volatile Organic Compounds from Oil and Natural Gas Operations in Northeastern Colorado, 47 ENVTL. SCI & TECH. 1297, 1303 (2013).

¹³³ See, e.g., U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Oil and Gas Sector: Standards of Performance for Crude Oil and Natural Gas Production, Transmission, and Distribution: Background Technical Support Document for Proposed Standards at 3-6 (July 2011); Armendariz, Al, Emissions for Natural Gas Production in the Barnett Shale Area and Opportunities for Cost-Effective Improvements (2009) ("Armendariz") at 24.

unconventional oil and gas development, as it interacts with nitrogen oxides and sunlight.¹³⁴ In addition to its role as a greenhouse gas, methane contributes to increased concentrations of ground-level ozone, the primary component of smog, because it is an ozone precursor.¹³⁵ Methane's effect on ozone concentrations can be substantial. One paper modeled reductions in various anthropogenic ozone precursor emissions and found that "[r]educing anthropogenic CH₄ emissions by 50% nearly halves the incidence of U.S. high-O₃ events"¹³⁶ Like methane, VOCs and NO_x are also ozone precursors; therefore, many regions around the country with substantial oil and gas operations are now suffering from extreme ozone levels due to heavy emissions of these pollutants.¹³⁷ Ozone can result in serious health conditions, including heart and lung disease and mortality.¹³⁸ A recent study of ozone pollution in the Uintah Basin of northeastern Utah, a rural area that experiences hazardous tropospheric ozone concentrations, found that oil and gas operations were responsible for 98 to 99 percent of VOCs and 57 to 61 percent of NO_x emitted from sources within the Basin considered in the study's inventory.¹³⁹

Oil and gas operations can also emit hydrogen sulfide. The hydrogen sulfide is contained in the natural gas and makes that gas "sour."¹⁴⁰ Hydrogen sulfide may be emitted during all stages of operation, including exploration, extraction, treatment and storage, transportation, and refining. Long-term exposure to hydrogen sulfide is linked to respiratory infections, eye, nose, and throat irritation, breathlessness, nausea, dizziness, confusion, and headaches.¹⁴¹

The oil and gas industry is also a major source of particulate matter. The heavy equipment regularly used in the industry burns diesel fuel, generating fine particulate matter¹⁴² that is especially harmful.¹⁴³ Vehicles traveling on unpaved roads also kick up fugitive dust, which is particulate matter.¹⁴⁴ Further, both NO_x and VOCs, which as discussed above are

¹³⁴ Fiore, Arlene et al., *Linking Ozone Pollution and Climate Change: The Case for Controlling Methane*, 29 *Geophys. Res Letters* 19 (2002).

¹³⁵ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, *Oil and Gas Sector: New Source Performance Standards and National Emission Standards for Hazardous Air Pollutants Reviews Proposed Rule*, 76 Fed. Reg 52,738 (Aug 23, 2011).

¹³⁶ Fiore, Arlene et al., (2002); *see also* Martin, Randal et al., *Final Report: Uinta Basin Winter Ozone and Air Quality Study Dec 2010 - March 2011* (2011) at 7.

¹³⁷ Armendariz at 1, 3, 25-26; Wendy Koch, *Wyoming's Smog Exceeds Los Angeles' Due to Gas Drilling*, USA Today (May 9, 2011); Craft, Elena, *Environmental Defense Fund, Do Shale Gas Activities Play a Role in Rising Ozone Levels?* (2012); Colorado Dept. of Public Health and Environment, *Conservation Commission, Colorado Weekly and Monthly Oil and Gas Statistics* (July 6, 2012) at 12.

¹³⁸ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, *Integrated Science Assessment (ISA) for Ozone (O₃) and Related Photochemical Oxidants* (2013).

¹³⁹ Lyman, Seth and Howard Shorthill, *Final Report: 2012 Uintah Basin Winter Ozone & Air Quality Study*, Utah Department of Environmental Quality (2013); *see also* Gilman, Jessica et al., *Source signature of volatile organic compounds from oil and natural gas operations in northeastern Colorado*, *Envtl Sci and Technology* (Jan 14, 2013), DOI: 10.1021/es304119a.

¹⁴⁰ Sierra Club Comments.

¹⁴¹ USEPA, Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards, *Report to Congress on Hydrogen Sulfide Air Emissions Associated with the Extraction of Oil and Natural Gas (EPA-453/R-93-045)* at i (Oct. 1993) ("USEPA 1993").

¹⁴² Earthworks, *Sources of Oil and Gas Pollution* (2011).

¹⁴³ Bay Area Air Quality Management District, *Particulate Matter Overview, Particulate Matter and Human Health* (2012).

¹⁴⁴ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, *Regulatory Impact Analysis for the Proposed Revisions to the National Ambient Air Quality Standards for Particulate Matter* (June 2012), http://www.epa.gov/ttnecas1/regdata/RIAs/PMRIACombinedFile_Bookmarked.pdf at 2-2, ("EPA RIA")

heavily emitted by the oil and gas industry, are also particulate matter precursors.¹⁴⁵ Some of the health effects associated with particulate matter exposure are “premature mortality, increased hospital admissions and development of chronic respiratory disease.”¹⁴⁶

Fracking results in additional air pollution that can create a severe threat to human health. One analysis found that 37 percent of the chemicals found at fracked gas wells were volatile, and that of those volatile chemicals, 81 percent can harm the brain and nervous system, 71 percent can harm the cardiovascular system and blood, and 66 percent can harm the kidneys.¹⁴⁷ Also, the SCAQMD has identified three areas of dangerous and unregulated air emissions from fracking: (1) the mixing of the fracking chemicals; (2) the use of the silica, or sand, as a proppant, which causes the deadly disease silicosis; and (3) the storage of fracking fluid once it comes back to the surface.¹⁴⁸ Preparation of the fluids used for well completion often involves onsite mixing of gravel or proppants with fluid, a process which potentially results in major amounts of particulate matter emissions.¹⁴⁹ Further, these proppants often include silica sand, which increases the risk of lung disease and silicosis when inhaled.¹⁵⁰ Finally, as flowback returns to the surface and is deposited in pits or tanks that are open to the atmosphere, there is the potential for organic compounds and toxic air pollutants to be emitted, which are harmful to human health as described above.¹⁵¹

The EIS should study the potential for oil and gas operations sites in the planning area to emit such air toxics and any other pollutants that may pose a risk to human health, paying particular attention to the impacts of air pollution on environmental justice communities that already bear the burden of disproportionately high levels of air pollution. The EIS should rely on the most up-to-date information regarding the contribution of oil and gas operations to VOC and air toxics levels. Recent studies in Weld County show that existing emissions inventories likely underestimate the contribution of oil and gas operations to VOC levels by a factor of two.¹⁵² Further, researchers have found that existing emissions inventories vastly underestimate the contribution of oil and gas operations to hazardous air pollution concentrations in Weld County, suggesting that the health risk assessments conducted using these inventories are similarly inaccurate and therefore underestimate exposures and health risks.¹⁵³ This study estimated benzene emission rates and other VOCs using air quality measurements taken from an airplane

¹⁴⁵ EPA RIA at 2-2.

¹⁴⁶ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, National Ambient Air Quality Standards for Particulate Matter Proposed Rule, 77 Fed. Reg. 38,890, 38,893 (June 29, 2012).

¹⁴⁷ Colborn 2011 at 8.

¹⁴⁸ South Coast Air Quality Management District, Draft Staff Report on Proposed Rule 1148.2 - Notification and Reporting Requirements for Oil and Gas Wells and Chemical Suppliers (January 2013).at 15 (“SCAQMD Revised Draft Staff Report PR1148-2”).

¹⁴⁹ *Id.*

¹⁵⁰ South Coast Air Quality Management District, Response to Questions re Air Quality Risks of Hydraulic Fracturing in California, Submission to Joint Senate Hearing (2013) at 3.

¹⁵¹ SCAQMD Revised Draft Staff Report PR1148-2 at 15.

¹⁵² *Id.* at 1302; Pétron 2012 at 1, 18 (noting state and federal inventories likely underestimate hydrocarbon emissions from oil and gas operations by as much as factor of two).

¹⁵³ Pétron, G. et al., A New Look at Methane and Non-Methane Hydrocarbon Emissions from Oil and Natural Gas Operations in the Colorado Denver-Julesburg Basin, accepted for publication, online May 7, 2014, J.

GEOPHYSICAL RESEARCH: ATMOSPHERES, available at <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/2013JD021272/abstract>.

over Weld County. Current inventories estimating benzene emissions from oil and gas operators in the study area underestimated emissions by four to nine times. The study suggests that other hazardous air pollutants (such as toluene, ethylbenzene, etc.) could similarly be underestimated and that oil and gas sites could be a bigger source of benzene than vehicle emissions, previously thought to be the largest source in the area.

2. Sources of Air Emissions

Harmful air pollutants are emitted during every stage of unconventional oil and gas recovery, including drilling, completion, well stimulation, production, and disposal. Drilling and casing the wellbore require substantial power from large equipment. The engines used typically run on diesel fuel, which emits particularly harmful types of air pollutants when burned. Similarly, high-powered pump engines are used in the fracturing and completion phase. This too can amount in large volumes of air pollution. Flaring, venting, and fugitive emissions of gas are also a potential source of air emissions. Gas flaring and venting can occur in both oil and gas recovery processes when underground gas rises to the surface and is not captured as part of production. Fugitive emissions can occur at every stage of extraction and production, often leading to high volumes of gas being released into the air. Methane emissions from oil and gas production is as much as 270 percent greater than previously estimated by calculation.¹⁵⁴ Recent studies show that emissions from pneumatic valves (which control routine operations at the well pad by venting methane during normal operation) and fugitive emissions are higher than EPA estimates.¹⁵⁵

Evaporation from pits can also contribute to air pollution. Pits that store drilling waste, produced water, and other waste fluid may be exposed to the open air. Chemicals mixed with the wastewater—including the additives used to make fracking fluids, as well as volatile hydrocarbons, such as benzene and toluene, brought to the surface with the waste—can escape into the air through evaporation. Some pits are equipped with pumps that spray effluents into the air to hasten the evaporation process. Even where waste fluid is stored in so-called “closed loop” storage tanks, fugitive emissions can escape from tanks.

As mentioned above, increased truck traffic will lead to more air emissions. Trucks capable of transporting large volumes of chemicals and waste fluid typically use large engines that run on diesel fuel. Air pollutants from truck engines will be emitted not only at the well site, but also along truck routes to and from the site.

The EIS must provide an adequate analysis and disclosure of the effects the lease sale could have on air quality, including the impacts that would result from fracking. The EAs cannot postpone the discussion of air pollution and climate change impacts until site-specific plans are proposed. Because BLM must analyze impacts at “the earliest practicable time,” and no benefit would be gained from postponing the analysis, BLM must discuss these cumulative impacts before the lease sale.

¹⁵⁴ Miller 2013.

¹⁵⁵ Allen 2013; Harriss, Robert et al. Using Multi-Scale Measurements to Improve Methane Emission Estimates from Oil and Gas Operations in the Barnett Shale Region, Texas, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 2015, 49 (13), pp 7524–7526.

3. Impact of Increased Air Pollution

The potential harms resulting from increased exposure to the dangerous air pollutants described above are serious and wide ranging. The negative effects of criteria pollutants are well documented and are summarized by the U.S. EPA's website:

Nitrogen oxides (NO_x) react with ammonia, moisture, and other compounds to form small particles. These small particles penetrate deeply into sensitive parts of the lungs and can cause or worsen respiratory disease, such as emphysema and bronchitis, and can aggravate existing heart disease, leading to increased hospital admissions and premature death. NO_x and volatile organic compounds react in the presence of heat and sunlight to form ozone.

Particulate matter (PM) - especially fine particles - contains microscopic solids or liquid droplets that are so small that they can get deep into the lungs and cause serious health problems. Numerous scientific studies have linked particle pollution exposure to a variety of problems, including: premature death in people with heart or lung disease, increased mortality, nonfatal heart attacks, irregular heartbeat, aggravated asthma, decreased lung function, and increased respiratory symptoms, such as irritation of the airways, coughing or difficulty breathing.¹⁵⁶

Sulfur Dioxide (SO₂) – has been shown to cause an array of adverse respiratory effects including bronchoconstriction and increased asthma symptoms.¹⁵⁷ Studies also show a connection between short-term exposure and increased visits to emergency departments and hospital admissions for respiratory illnesses, particularly in at-risk populations including children, the elderly, and asthmatics.¹⁵⁸

Carbon Monoxide (CO) can cause harmful health effects by reducing oxygen delivery to the body's organs (like the heart and brain) and tissues. At extremely high levels, CO can cause death.¹⁵⁹ Exposure to CO can reduce the oxygen-carrying capacity of the blood. People with several types of heart disease already have a reduced capacity for pumping oxygenated blood to the heart, which can cause them to experience myocardial ischemia (reduced oxygen to the heart), often accompanied by chest pain (angina), when exercising or under increased stress.¹⁶⁰ For these people, short-term CO exposure further affects their body's already compromised ability to respond to the increased oxygen demands of exercise or exertion.¹⁶¹

¹⁵⁶ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Particulate Matter, (PM) <http://www.epa.gov/airquality/particulatepollution/health.html> (accessed July 30, 2015); Ostro, Bart et al., Long-term Exposure to Constituents of Fine Particulate Air Pollution and Mortality: Results from the California Teachers Study, 118 Environmental Health Perspectives 3 (2010)

¹⁵⁷ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Sulfur Dioxide <http://www.epa.gov/airquality/sulfurdioxide/health.html>, available at (accessed July 29, 2015).

¹⁵⁸ *Id.*

¹⁵⁹ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Carbon Monoxide, available at <http://www.epa.gov/airquality/carbonmonoxide/health.html> (accessed July 29, 2015).

¹⁶⁰ *Id.*

¹⁶¹ *Id.*

Ozone (O₃) can trigger or worsen asthma and other respiratory ailments.¹⁶² Ground level ozone can have harmful effects on sensitive vegetation and ecosystems. Ozone may also lead to loss of species diversity and changes to habitat quality, water cycles, and nutrient cycles.

Air toxics and hazardous air pollutants, by definition, can result in harm to human health and safety. The full extent of the health effects of exposure is still far from being complete, but already there are numerous studies that have found these chemicals to have serious health consequences for humans exposed to even minimal amounts. The range of illnesses that can result are summarized in a study by Dr. Theo Colborn, which charts which chemicals have been shown to be linked to certain illnesses.¹⁶³

Natural gas drilling operations result in the emissions of numerous non-methane hydrocarbons (NMHCs) that have been linked to numerous adverse health effects. A recent study that analyzed air samples taken during drilling operations near natural gas wells and residential areas in Garfield County, detected 57 chemicals between July 2010 and October 2011, including 44 with reported health effects.¹⁶⁴ For example:

Thirty-five chemicals were found to affect the brain/nervous system, 33 the liver/metabolism, and 30 the endocrine system, which includes reproductive and developmental effects. The categories with the next highest numbers of effects were the immune system (28), cardiovascular/blood (27), and the sensory and respiratory systems (25 each). Eight chemicals had health effects in all 12 categories. There were also several chemicals for which no health effect data could be found.¹⁶⁵

The study found extremely high levels of methylene chloride, which may be used as cleaning solvents to remove waxy paraffin that is commonly deposited by raw natural gas in the region. These deposits solidify at ambient temperatures and build up on equipment.¹⁶⁶ While none of the detected chemicals exceeded governmental safety thresholds of exposure, the study noted that such thresholds are typically based on “exposure of a grown man encountering relatively high concentrations of a chemical over a brief time period, for example, during occupational exposure.”¹⁶⁷ Consequently, such thresholds may not apply to individuals experiencing “chronic, sporadic, low-level exposure,” including sensitive populations such as

¹⁶² U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Ground Level Ozone, available at <http://www.epa.gov/airquality/ozonepollution/health.html> (accessed July 29, 2015).

¹⁶³ Colborn, Theo et al., Natural Gas Operations from a Public Health Perspective, 17 Human and Ecological Risk Assessment 1039 (2011) (“Colborn 2011”); Colborn, Theo, et al., An Exploratory Study of Air Quality near Natural Gas Operations, Human and Ecological Risk Assessment: An International Journal doi:10.1080/10807039.2012.749447 (2012); see note 120 & accompanying text below.

¹⁶⁴ Colborn et al. An Exploratory Study of Air Quality Near Natural Gas Operations, Human and Ecological Risk Assessment: An International Journal, Vol. 20, Iss. 1, 2014, pp. 21-22 (pages refer to page numbers in attached manuscript and not journal pages) (“Colborn 2014”), available at <http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/10807039.2012.749447>.

¹⁶⁵ Colborn 2014, p. 11.

¹⁶⁶ *Id.*, p. 10.

¹⁶⁷ *Id.*, pp. 11-12.

children, the elderly, and pregnant women.¹⁶⁸ For example, the study detected polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (PAH) levels that could be of “clinical significance,” as recent studies have linked low levels of exposure to lower mental development in children who were prenatally exposed.¹⁶⁹ In addition, government safety standards do not take into account “the kinds of effects found from low-level exposure to endocrine disrupting chemicals..., which can be particularly harmful during prenatal development and childhood.”¹⁷⁰

The EIS should incorporate a literature review of the harmful effects of each of these chemicals known to be used in fracking and other unconventional oil and gas extraction methods. Without knowing the effects of each chemical, the EIS cannot accurately project the true impact of unconventional oil and gas extraction.

4. Air Modeling

BLM should use air modeling to understand what areas and communities will most likely be affected by air pollution. It is crucial to gather independent data rather than relying on industry estimates, which may be inaccurate or biased. Wind and weather patterns, and atmospheric chemistry, determine the fate and transport of air pollution over a region, over time. The EIS should be informed by air modeling to show where the air pollution will flow.

C. BLM Failed to Adequately Disclose or Analyze the Project’s Impact on Climate Change

BLM claims that it cannot identify climate change impacts based on potential GHG emissions from any specific project’s “incremental contributions” to the global GHG burden. CEQ guidance on consideration of greenhouse gas emissions, although currently still in draft form, makes clear that agencies may not dismiss consideration of greenhouse gas emissions simply because a project would constitute a small fraction of national or global emissions.¹⁷¹ This demonstrates once again that a comprehensive look at the impacts of fossil fuel extraction, and especially fracking, across the entire northwestern Colorado planning area is absolutely necessary. The PEA and 2011 RMP do not address any of these important issues.

Piecemeal analyses of individual APDs or lease sales do not provide the appropriate perspective for examining the cumulative effects of fracking and resulting greenhouse gas emission at the regional and landscape scale. BLM states it will address emissions at the permitting stage:

The BLM is going to assess project-specific impacts on these resources during the parcel development plan analysis or permitting stage. There would be much more detailed information at the parcel development plan or permitting stage that would

¹⁶⁸ *Id.* p. 12.

¹⁶⁹ *Id.*, p. 10-11.

¹⁷⁰ *Id.*, p. 12.

¹⁷¹ See Council on Environmental Quality, Revised Draft Guidance on the Consideration of Greenhouse Gas Emissions and the Effects of Climate Change in NEPA Reviews (December 2014), *available at* https://www.whitehouse.gov/sites/default/files/docs/nepa_revised_draft_ghg_guidance_searchable.pdf

allow the BLM to properly estimate emissions and determine potential impacts to air quality. Substantial emission-generating activities cannot occur without further BLM analysis and approval of proposals for exploration and development operations.¹⁷²

This deferral of analysis to the permitting stage is illegal and impermissible, because it is now, at the leasing stage, where BLM is relinquishing its ability to decline to allow drilling altogether.

BLM has *never* comprehensively considered the cumulative climate change impacts of *all* potential fossil fuel extraction within the northwestern Colorado planning area, let alone across all BLM lands. But climate change is a problem of regional and global proportions resulting from the cumulative greenhouse gas emissions of countless individual sources, which cannot simply be addressed on a project-by-project basis and for making such land management decisions. Proceeding with new leasing proposals *ad hoc* in the absence of a comprehensive plan that addresses climate change and fracking is premature and risks irreversible damage before the agency and public have had the opportunity to weigh the full costs of oil and gas extraction and consider necessary limits on fracking.

Expansion of fossil fuel production will substantially increase the volume of greenhouse gases emitted into the atmosphere and jeopardize the environment and the health and well being of future generations. BLM's mandate to ensure "harmonious and coordinated management of the various resources *without permanent impairment of the productivity of the land and the quality of the environment*" requires BLM to limit the climate change effects of its actions.¹⁷³ Keeping all unleased fossil fuels in the ground and banning fracking and other unconventional well stimulation methods would lock away millions of tons of greenhouse gas pollution and limit the destructive effects of these practices.

According to a recent report by EcoShift Consulting commissioned by the Center and Friends of the Earth, unleased federal fossil fuels represent a significant source of potential greenhouse gas emissions:

- Potential GHG emissions of federal fossil fuels (leased and unleased) if developed would release up to 492 gigatons (Gt) (one gigaton equals 1 billion tons) of carbon dioxide equivalent pollution (CO₂e); representing 46 percent to 50 percent of potential emissions from all remaining U.S. fossil fuels.
- Of that amount, up to 450 Gt CO₂e have not yet been leased to private industry for extraction;

¹⁷² PEA at 23.

¹⁷³ See 43 U.S.C. §§ 1701(a)(7), 1702(c), 1712(c)(1), 1732(a) (emphasis added); see also *id.* § 1732(b) (directing Secretary to take any action to "prevent unnecessary or undue degradation" of the public lands).

- Releasing those 450 Gt CO₂e (the equivalent annual pollution of more than 118,000 coal-fired power plants) would be greater than any proposed U.S. share of global carbon limits that would keep emissions below scientifically advised levels.¹⁷⁴

In order to avoid catastrophic climate change, BLM must reduce, rather than increase, greenhouse gas emissions. This requires halting all new leasing and fracking within northwest Colorado, which would be a responsible step towards slowing the effects of climate change. The internationally agreed-on target for avoiding dangerous climate change and its disastrous consequences is limiting average global temperature rise caused by greenhouse gas pollution to two degrees Celsius (2°C), or 3.6 degrees Fahrenheit.¹⁷⁵ Climate experts have estimated that the world can emit 1,000 gigatons of carbon dioxide (1,000 GtCO₂ or 1 trillion tons of CO₂) after 2010 to have a reasonable chance of staying below 2°C of warming.¹⁷⁶ Given uncertainties, coupled with the dire predictions of climate change impacts, a more conservative carbon budget would be more prudent. Nonetheless, using this budget, the IPCC has found that proven fossil fuel reserves amount to **four to seven times more** than what we can afford to burn, to have only a *likely* chance of staying within the 2°C target.¹⁷⁷ In short, the vast majority of proven reserves must be kept in the ground for preserving a livable planet. Minimizing new fossil fuel production is critical. Opening up new areas to extraction and allowing more fracking, on the other hand, runs completely counter to slowing the effects of climate change.

BLM cannot ignore the mounting evidence proving that oil and gas operations are a major cause of climate change. This is due to emissions from the operations themselves, and emissions from the combustion of the oil and gas produced. Every step of the lifecycle process for development of these resources results in significant carbon emissions, including but not limited to:

¹⁷⁴ EcoShift Consulting et al., The Potential Greenhouse Gas Emissions of U.S. Federal Fossil Fuels (Aug. 2015), available at <http://www.ecoshiftconsulting.com/wp-content/uploads/Potential-Greenhouse-Gas-Emissions-U-S-Federal-Fossil-Fuels.pdf>,

¹⁷⁵ The Copenhagen Accord forged under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change talks formally recognized the international objective of limiting warming to 2°C above pre-industrial.

¹⁷⁶The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) is the leading international body for the assessment of climate change, established by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the World Meteorological Organization (WMO). In its Fifth Assessment Report, the IPCC reported that the remaining carbon budget to have a “likely” (at least 66%) chance of staying below 2°C is 1000 GtCO₂. See IPCC Climate Change 2014 Synthesis Report 63-64, available at http://ar5-syr.ipcc.ch/ipcc/ipcc/resources/pdf/IPCC_SynthesisReport.pdf.

¹⁷⁷ *Id.* at 63. In addition, a recent analysis by some of the world’s leading climate scientists estimated that burning the Earth’s proven fossil fuel reserves (i.e., those that are currently economically recoverable) would emit 4196 GtCO₂, over four times the 1000 GtCO₂ budget. See Raupach M. et al. Sharing a quota on cumulative carbon emissions. *Nature Climate Change* 4, 873-79 (2014), available at <http://www.nature.com/nclimate/journal/v4/n10/full/nclimate2384.html>. Analyses by the Carbon Tracker Initiative and Australian Climate Commission estimated that 80% of proven fossil fuel reserves must be kept in the ground to have a reasonable probability (75-80%) of staying below 2°C. This estimate includes only the fossil fuel reserves that are considered currently economically recoverable with a high probability of being extracted. See Carbon Tracker Initiative, *Unburnable Carbon – Are the world’s financial markets carrying a carbon bubble?* (2011), available at <http://www.carbontracker.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/09/Unburnable-Carbon-Full-rev2-1.pdf>; Steffen, Will et al., Australian Climate Commission. *The Critical Decade 2013: Climate Change Science, Risks and Responses* (2013), available at http://apo.org.au/files/Resource/ClimateCommission_The-Critical-Decade-2013.pdf

End-user oil and gas combustion emissions. The combustion of extracted oil, gas, and coal will add vast amounts of carbon dioxide to the atmosphere, further heating the climate and moving the Earth closer to catastrophic and irreversible climate change. Though much of the oil is used as gasoline to fuel the transportation sector, the produced oil may also be used in other types of products. The EIS should study all end-uses as contributors to climate change.

Combustion in the distribution of product. To the extent that distribution of raw and end-use products will rely on rail or trucks, the combustion of gasoline or diesel to transport these products will emit significant greenhouse gas emissions.

Emissions from Refineries and Production. Oil and gas must undergo intensive refinery and production processes before the product is ready for consumption. Refineries and their auxiliary activities constitute a significant source of emissions.

Vented emissions. Oil and gas wells and coal mining operations may vent gas that flows to the surface at times where the gas cannot otherwise be captured and sold. Vented gas is a significant source of greenhouse gas emissions and can also pose a safety hazard.

Combustion during construction and extraction operations. Operators rely on both mobile and stationary sources of power to construct and run their sites. The engines of drilling or excavation equipment, pumps, trucks, conveyors, and other types of equipment burn large amounts of fuel to operate. Carbon dioxide, methane, and nitrous oxide (another potent greenhouse gas) are emitted from oxidized fuel during the combustion process. Engines emit greenhouse gases during all stages of oil and gas recovery, including drilling rig mobilization, site preparation and demobilization, completion rig mobilization and demobilization, well drilling, well completion (including fracking and other unconventional extraction techniques), and well production. Transportation of equipment and chemicals to and from the site is an integral part of the production process and contributes to greenhouse gas emissions. Gas flaring is another important source of carbon dioxide emissions.

Fugitive emissions. Potent greenhouse gases can leak as fugitive emissions at many different points in the production process, especially in the production of gas wells. Recent studies suggest that previous estimates significantly underestimate leakage rates.¹⁷⁸

Natural gas emissions are generally about 84 percent methane.¹⁷⁹ Methane is a potent greenhouse gas that contributes substantially to global climate change. Its global warming potential is approximately 34 times that of carbon dioxide over a 100 year time frame and at least 86 times that of carbon dioxide over a 20 year time frame.¹⁸⁰ Oil and gas operations release

¹⁷⁸ Brandt, A. R. *et al.*, Methane leaks from North American natural gas systems, *343 Science* 733 (2014); Miller, S. M. *et al.* Anthropogenic Emissions of Methane in the United States, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* Early Edition, DOI: 10.1073/pnas.1314392110 (2013) (“Miller 2013”).

¹⁷⁹ Brown Memo to EPA at 3; Power, Thomas, *The Local Impacts of Natural Gas Development in Valle Vidal*, New Mexico, University of Montana (2005) (“Power”).

¹⁸⁰ Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, Chapter 8: Anthropogenic and Natural Radiative Forcing in Contribution of Working Group I to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, Table 8.7 (2013); Howarth, Robert, *et al.*, Methane and the greenhouse-gas footprint of natural gas from

large amounts of methane. While the exact amount is not clear, EPA has estimated that “oil and gas systems are the largest human-made source of methane emissions and account for 37 percent of methane emissions in the United States and is expected to be one of the most rapidly growing sources of anthropogenic methane emissions in the coming decades.”¹⁸¹ That proportion is based on an estimated calculation of methane emissions, rather than measured actual emissions, which indicate that methane emissions may be much greater in volume than calculated.¹⁸² BLM, in its PEA, concludes that the development of the lease “would have no measurable impact on the climate” and attempts to support this conclusion by showing that its RFD emissions “are a fraction of EPA modeled emissions from a 1500MW coal-fired power plant.”¹⁸³ Even assuming the accuracy of the EPA model and RFD assumptions, the fact that an individual lease sale involves less emission than one power plant is not a valid argument to forego climate analysis. Rather, it bolsters the argument that fossil fuel emissions should be considered in the context of a program-wide analysis. For natural gas operations, production generates the largest amount; however, these emissions occur in all sectors of the natural gas industry, from drilling and production, to processing, transmission, and distribution.¹⁸⁴ Fracked wells leak an especially large amount of methane, with some evidence indicating that the leakage rate is so high that shale gas is worse for the climate than coal.¹⁸⁵ In fact, a research team associated with the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration recently reported that preliminary results from a field study in the Uinta Basin of Utah suggest that the field leaked methane at an eye-popping rate of nine percent of total production.¹⁸⁶

For the oil industry, emissions result “primarily from field production operations . . . , oil storage tanks, and production-related equipment”¹⁸⁷ Emissions are released as planned, during normal operations and unexpectedly due to leaks and system upsets.¹⁸⁸ Significant sources of emissions include well venting and flaring, pneumatic devices, dehydrators and pumps, and compressors.¹⁸⁹

shale formations, *Climactic Change* (Mar. 31, 2011) (“Howarth 2011”); Shindell, Drew, Improved Attribution of Climate Forcing to Emissions, 326 *Science* 716 (2009).

¹⁸¹ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Natural Gas STAR Program, Basic Information, Major Methane Emission Sources and Opportunities to Reduce Methane Emissions (“USEPA, Basic Information”); *see also* Petron, Gabrielle, et al., Hydrocarbon emissions characterization in the Colorado Front Range: A pilot study, 117 *Journal of Geophysical Research* (2012).

¹⁸² Miller, S. M. et al. Anthropogenic Emissions of Methane in the United States, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. Early Edition*, DOI: 10.1073/pnas.1314392110 (2013).

¹⁸³ PEA at 32.

¹⁸⁴ USEPA, Basic Information.

¹⁸⁵ Howarth 2011; Brune, Michael, Statement of Sierra Club Executive Director Michael Brune Before the Committee on Oversight & Government Reform (May 31, 2012); Wang, Jinsheng, et al., Reducing the Greenhouse Gas Footprint of Shale (2011); Alvarez, Ramon et al., Greater focus needed on methane leakage from natural gas infrastructure, *Proc of Nat'l Acad. Science Early Edition* (Feb 13, 2012) at 3; *see also* Howarth, Robert, et al., Venting and Leaking of Methane from Shale Gas Development: Response to Cathles et al., (2012); Hou, Deyi, et al., Shale gas can be a double-edged sword for climate change, *Nature Climate Change* at 386 (2012)

¹⁸⁶ Tollefson, Jeff, Methane leaks erode green credentials of natural gas, *Nature News* (Jan 2, 2013).

¹⁸⁷ Williams, Megan & Cindy Copeland, Earthjustice, Methane Controls for the Oil and Gas Production Sector (2010).

¹⁸⁸ *Id.*

¹⁸⁹ USEPA, Basic Information.

The EIS must weigh the no-leasing-no-fracking alternative's climate-change benefits against the impacts of allowing new leasing and fracking, and address the following:

1. *Sources of Greenhouse Gases*

In performing a full analysis of climate impacts, BLM must consider all potential sources of greenhouse gas emissions (e.g. greenhouse gas emissions generated by transporting large amounts of water for fracking). BLM should also perform a full analysis of all gas emissions that contribute to climate change, including methane and carbon dioxide. The EIS should calculate the amount of greenhouse gas that will result on an annual basis from (1) each of the fossil fuels that can be developed within the planning area, (2) each of the well stimulation or other extraction methods that can be used, including, but not limited to, fracking, acidization, acid fracking, and gravel packing, and (3) cumulative greenhouse gas emissions expected over the long term (expressed in global warming potential of each greenhouse pollutant as well as CO₂ equivalent), including emissions throughout the entire fossil fuel lifecycle discussed above.

2. *Effects of Climate Change*

In addition to quantifying the total emissions that would result from the lease sale, an EIS should consider the social costs of these emissions, resulting from climate disruption's ecological and social effects. Although cost-benefit analysis is not necessarily the ideal or exclusive method for assessing contributions to an adverse effect as enormous, uncertain, and potentially catastrophic as climate change, BLM does have tools available to provide one approximation of external costs and has previously performed a "social cost of carbon" analysis in prior environmental reviews.¹⁹⁰ Its own internal memo identifies one available analytical tool: "For federal agencies the authoritative estimates of [social cost of carbon] are provided by the 2013 technical report of the Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Carbon, which was convened by the Council of Economic Advisers and the Office of Management and Budget."¹⁹¹ As explained in that report:

The purpose of the "social cost of carbon" (SCC) estimates presented here is to allow agencies to incorporate the social benefits of reducing carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions into cost-benefit analyses of regulatory actions that impact cumulative global emissions. The SCC is an estimate of the monetized damages associated with an incremental increase in carbon emissions in a given year. It is intended to include (but is not limited to) changes in net agricultural productivity, human

¹⁹⁰ See *High Country Conserv'n Advocates v. United States Forest Serv.*, 2014 U.S. Dist. Lexis 87820 (D. Colo. 2014) (invalidating environmental assessment ["EA"] for improperly omitting social cost of carbon analysis, where BLM had included it in preliminary analysis); Taylor, P. "BLM crafting guidance on social cost of carbon -- internal memo," Greenwire, April 15, 2015, available at <http://www.eenews.net/greenwire/stories/1060016810/>; BLM Internal Memo from Assistant Director of Resources and Planning Ed Roberson ("Roberson Internal Memo"), April 2015, available at http://www.eenews.net/assets/2015/04/15/document_gw_01.pdf (noting "some BLM field offices have included estimates of the [social cost of carbon] in project-level NEPA documents") (accessed July 29, 2015); see also Council on Environmental Quality, Revised Draft Guidance for Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Climate Change Impacts, p. 18, available at www.whitehouse.gov/administration/eop/ceq/initiatives/nepa/ghg-guidance (accessed Jul 29, 2015) (quantitative analysis required if GHGs > 25k tons/yr).

¹⁹¹ BLM, Roberson Internal Memo.

health, property damages from increased flood risk, and the value of ecosystem services due to climate change.¹⁹²

Leasing and development of unconventional wells could exact extraordinary financial costs to communities and future generations, setting aside the immeasurable loss of irreplaceable, natural values that can never be recovered. The EIS must provide an accounting of these potential costs in addition to the social cost of carbon.

Development of the planning area's oil and gas resources will fuel climate disruption and undercut the needed transition to a clean energy economy. A no-leasing alternative is, therefore, not only reasonable but also imperative. As BLM has not yet had a chance to consider a no-leasing-no-fracking alternative as part of the Battle Mountain RMP planning process, BLM should suspend new leasing until it properly considers this alternative in an updated RMP or in the EIS. BLM would be remiss to continue leasing when it has never stepped back and taken a hard look at this problem at the appropriate scale. Before allowing more oil and gas extraction in the planning area, BLM must: (1) comprehensively analyze the total greenhouse gas emissions which result from past, present, and potential future fossil fuel leasing and all other activities within the planning area, (2) consider their cumulative significance in the context of global climate change, carbon budgets, and other greenhouse gas pollution sources outside the planning area, and (3) formulate measures that avoid or limit their climate change effects. By continuing leasing in the absence of any overall plan addressing climate change BLM is effectively burying its head in the sand.

D. BLM has Failed to Adequately Disclose or Analyze the Impacts to Sensitive Species of Plants and Wildlife

As a preliminary matter, we concur with BLM's recommendation to defer leasing the 18 parcels, comprised of 14,960.23 acres, from this lease sale due to the concern that habitat for Greater Sage-Grouse is identified within the parcels.¹⁹³ The PEA fails, however, to provide a sufficient analysis of impacts to sensitive and ESA candidate species within the 2 parcels located within the boundaries of the LSFO which are offered for lease.

Migratory birds present in the proposed lease tracts that have been identified as either BLM-sensitive or associated with the most recent FWS list of Birds of Conservation Concern for Bird Conservation include Brewer's sparrow, flammulated owl, and Cassin's finch, all of which may become candidates for listing under the Endangered Species Act. The parcels are also known to support a number of native fish regarded as BLM-sensitive, including: roundtail chub,

¹⁹² See Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Carbon, United States Government, Technical Support Document: Technical Update of the Social Cost of Carbon for Regulatory Impact Analysis - Under Executive Order 12866, May 2013, available at https://www.whitehouse.gov/sites/default/files/omb/inforeg/social_cost_of_carbon_for_ria_2013_update.pdf (accessed July 29, 2015); see also Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Carbon, United States Government, Technical Support Document: Social Cost of Carbon for Regulatory Impact Analysis Under Executive Order 12866, Feb. 2010, available at <http://www.epa.gov/otaq/climate/regulations/scc-tsd.pdf> (accessed July 29, 2015).

¹⁹³ PEA at 7.

bluehead sucker, flannelmouth sucker, mountain sucker, and Colorado River cutthroat trout (“CRCT”). Furthermore, Columbian sharp-tailed grouse (CSTG), a BLM-sensitive species and CPW species of special concern, uses the deciduous shrubland and aspen woodlands encompassed by both parcels as winter range (most importantly from December 16 to March 15). Both parcels contain deciduous shrubland and aspen woodlands mapped as CSTG winter range. The nearest mapped production areas (i.e., nesting and brood-rearing habitat) are located a minimum 0.6 mile to the east and 1.25 miles to the north of the parcel boundaries.¹⁹⁴

The expansion of oil and gas development activities will harm wildlife through habitat destruction and fragmentation, stress and displacement caused by development-related activities (e.g., construction and operation activities, truck traffic, noise and light pollution), surface water depletion leading to low stream flows, water and air contamination, introduction of invasive species, and climate change. These harms can result in negative health effects and population declines. Because the allowance of destructive oil and gas extraction runs contrary to BLM’s policy of managing resources in a manner that will protect the quality of ecological values and provide habitat for wildlife,¹⁹⁵ a no-leasing-no-fracking alternative minimizing industrial development and its harmful effects on wildlife must be considered.

Although the PEA very briefly mentions some potential impacts to these imperiled species, it does not fully evaluate the likelihood of the impacts or the ultimate effects on populations. BLM must provide an analysis of the nature, intensity, and extent of potential impacts, along with supporting science and data; and further, it must consider the many effects that fracking in particular, and other unconventional methods, may have on these species. BLM provided only the briefest and generalized discussion. Again the general position that the development of the leases would represent “incremental additions” to the development activity and modification of these habitats is not a substitute for the required analysis of potential impacts from the sale. An EIS must be prepared to analyze the following issues.

1. Habitat Loss

Oil and gas development creates a network of well pads, roads, pipelines, and other infrastructure that lead to direct habitat loss and fragmentation, as well as displacement of wildlife from these areas due to increased human disturbance. Habitat loss occurs as a result of a reduction in the total area of the habitat, the decrease of the interior-to-edge ratio, isolation of one habitat fragment from another, breaking up of one habitat into several smaller patches of habitat, and decreasing the average size of a habitat patch.

The indirect effects from unconventional oil and gas development can often be far greater than the direct disturbances to habitat. The impacts from the well site—including noise, light, and pollution—extend beyond the borders of the operation site and will consequently render even greater areas uninhabitable for some wildlife. Species dependent on having an “interior” habitat will lose their habitat as operation sites or other infrastructure fragment previously buffered and secluded areas. These and other indirect effects can be far greater than the direct

¹⁹⁴ PEA at 47.

¹⁹⁵ 43 U.S. Code § 1701(a)(8).

disturbances to land. In the Marcellus shale of Pennsylvania, for instance, research shows that 8.8 acres of forest on average are cleared for each drilling pad along with associated infrastructure, but after accounting for ecological edge effects, each drilling station actually affected 30 acres of forest.¹⁹⁶

While individual well sites may cause some disturbance and destruction, the cumulative impacts of oil and gas production using unconventional methods must receive attention as well. While the actual well pads may only occupy a small proportion of a particular habitat, their impact can be much greater when their aggregate impact is considered. As discussed above, interior habitats will be destroyed by removing the buffer between the interior habitat and the operation site.

2. *Water Depletion*

Water depletion affects even those species whose habitats are far removed from the actual well site. The PEA admits, for example, “cumulative water depletions from the upper Colorado River Basin are considered likely to jeopardize the continued existence of all four endangered Colorado River fishes, including the Colorado pikeminnow, humpback chub, bonytail, and razorback sucker, and would result in the destruction or adverse modification of their critical habitat.”¹⁹⁷ Yet BLM determined that there was “no reasonable likelihood” of lease development causing harm to these endangered species. Rather than provide an adequate analysis or “convincing statement of reasons” for why the sale’s effects are insignificant, BLM shirks its obligations under NEPA, relying instead on the USFWS Programmatic Biological Opinion (PBO), which was prepared in 2008 and only generally addresses water depletions associated with fluid minerals development on BLM lands, as a substitute for the required analysis. BLM’s reliance on the PBO is improper as the PBO does not anticipate the full scope of water use potentially required by the oil and gas development that is likely to take place on the parcels. Consequently the PEA fails to address the serious threat to the endangered species.

The PBO relied on the 2008 Programmatic Biological Assessment (“PBA”) prepared by BLM for its water use estimate.¹⁹⁸ The PBA states that its projections for “drilling and completion” water use account for “fracking”¹⁹⁹; on the other hand, the PBA states that these projections apply to water use required for “Primarily Conventional Natural Gas Development,”²⁰⁰ which is undefined, and has no precise meaning. In recent years “*unconventional* natural gas development” has typically been used to denote the development of unconventional, “tight” gas reserves that require fracking.²⁰¹ It is thus entirely unclear to what

¹⁹⁶ Johnson, N., Pennsylvania energy impacts assessment: Report 1: Marcellus shale natural gas and wind, Nature Conservancy – Pennsylvania Chapter (2010) at 10.

¹⁹⁷ PEA at 47.

¹⁹⁸ Programmatic Biological Assessment for BLM’s Fluid Minerals Program in Western Colorado re: Water Depletions and effects on the Four Endangered Big River Fishes: Colorado pikeminnow (*Ptychocheilus lucius*), humpback chub (*Gila cypha*), bonytail chub (*Gila elegans*), and razorback sucker (*Xyrauchen texanus*), November 3, 2008.

¹⁹⁹ PBA at 5, 6-7

²⁰⁰ PBA at 8.

²⁰¹ NaturalGas.org, Unconventional Oil and Gas, available at “<http://naturalgas.org/overview/unconventional-ng-resources>”; Alberta Energy Regulator, “What is Unconventional Oil and Gas?,” available at,

extent the PBA took into account the freshwater needs of hydraulic fracturing for unconventional natural gas reserves other than coalbed methane development.

This is especially troubling, because hydraulic fracturing requires water volumes that far exceed the amounts used in conventional natural gas development.²⁰² Indeed, considering that these estimates did not account for the potential for water reuse and recycling,²⁰³ these estimates are remarkably low. According to FracFocus, a database reporting fracking fluid composition for individual wells, from January 2011 through February 2013, the median “total volume of water” use to frack an individual well in Rio Blanco County (which covers most of the WRFO area) was 2,248,291 gallons of water or 6.9 acre feet.²⁰⁴ The FracFocus figure only represents the volume of water used in fracking fluids, and thus does not include the amount of water needed to also drill and complete the well.²⁰⁵ But that figure (6.9 acre feet) is almost three times the PBO’s estimate of the amount of water needed for “drilling and completion,” plus fracking (2.41 acre feet).

Nor does the PBO take into account the much higher fresh water requirements of horizontal drilling. The PBO’s and PBA’s water depletion projections make no mention of this technique or its freshwater requirements. Indeed, water depletion logs submitted by BLM to Fish and Wildlife Service report on the water use of horizontal drilling separately from the water depletion of vertical wells. While vertical wells are assumed to require 2.62 acre feet of water (as estimated in the PBO) and BLM reports total number of vertical wells multiplied by this standard depletion factor, BLM’s logs report actual water use for horizontal drilling.²⁰⁶ Those logs show that horizontal drilling typically entails fresh water depletion much greater than 2.62 acre feet per well. The average water use of horizontal drilling projects from 2011-2014 in the Field Offices covered by the PBO (White River, Grand Junction, Kremmling, Colorado River Valley, Gunnison, Uncompahgre, San Juan Public Lands, and Little Snake) was 13.34 acre feet of

<https://www.aer.ca/about-aer/spotlight-on/unconventional-regulatory-framework/what-is-unconventional-oil-and-gas>; RFD, p. 15, 17 (“Mesaverde continuous, basin-centered, tight sand gas accumulation... contains the bulk of the technically recoverable reserve in the Basin”).

²⁰² See Clark, Corrie E. et al., Life Cycle Water Consumption for Shale Gas and Conventional Natural Gas, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 2013, 47 (20), pp 11829–11836, abstract available at <http://pubs.acs.org/doi/abs/10.1021/es4013855>.

²⁰³ See PBA at 9.

²⁰⁴ EPA, State-level Summaries of FracFocus 1.0 Hydraulic Fracturing Data, March 2015, pp. 1-2, 4, 14, available at http://www2.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-03/documents/ff_statesummarysheets_final_508.pdf.

²⁰⁵ “Drilling and completion” are separate steps from “hydraulic fracturing” of a well. “Drilling” refers to drilling the borehole into the earth; “fracking” refers to the process of injecting fracking fluids into the well to create high pressure that fractures underground formations and forces trapped hydrocarbons to the surface once the pressure is released; and “well completion” refers to isolating the well from the surrounding environment and turning it into an actively producing well. See Jiang, Mohan, et al. Life Cycle Water Consumption and Wastewater Generation Impacts of a Marcellus Shale Gas Well. *Environ Sci Technol.* 2014 Feb 4; 48(3): 1911–1920, p. 1912, available at <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3915742/> (describing steps of drilling, fracking, and completing a well); Kargbo, David M., et al. Natural Gas Plays in the Marcellus Shale: Challenges and Potential Opportunities, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 2010, 44, 5679–5684, pp. 5680-81, available at <http://pubs.acs.org/doi/pdf/10.1021/es903811p> (same); “How Does Well Completion Work?” Rigzone.com, available at http://www.rigzone.com/training/insight.asp?i_id=326 (describing well completion process).

²⁰⁶ BLM Water Depletion Logs Reported to Fish and Wildlife Service, 2009-2014 .

water.²⁰⁷ Recent horizontal drilling projects in the Grand Junction Field Office in 2014 depleted 68.3 and 70.8 acre feet of freshwater.²⁰⁸ The use of this technique is likely to increase.

High-volume fracking or “massive fracs” requiring millions of gallons of water may even be performed on vertical wells and directional non-horizontal wells in the LSFO.²⁰⁹ (“Although many horizontal wells are given massive fracs, many vertical wells and directional non-horizontal wells, such as those in the Williams Fork formation of western Colorado, are also given massive fracs.”). Again, the PBO erroneously assumes an average of 2.62 acre feet of water per well, although water use could far exceed this amount.

In addition, the water depletion logs disclose other oil and gas activities that have occurred over the past several years that are likely to continue and significantly impact water use in the Colorado River Basin. These activities were not accounted for in the PBO, although they are reasonably foreseeable as part of the lease sale. Infrastructure development projects, including pipeline and road improvement projects require high amounts of water (up to 29.1 and 9 acre feet of water in 2011, respectively),²¹⁰ but the PBO only accounts for water use associated with well production. Because new pipelines and roads are reasonably foreseeable to be constructed after the sale, the PBO must take into account the water depletion of these projects as well.

The PBO also grossly underestimates the amount of water that could be depleted in the rest of the Upper Colorado River Basin. For example, under the Grand Junction RMP, over half of all wells developed within the GJFO could be horizontal wells, but the PBO did not take into account the greater depletion effects of such wells.²¹¹ Water depletion records maintained by the BLM Colorado State Office, indicate that horizontal wells depleted an average of 13.34 acre-feet of water per well between 2011 and 2014,²¹² but the PBO assumed that within the Grand Junction planning area 0.77 acre-feet per well would be depleted.²¹³ The increased water use within the Grand Junction planning area and other parts of the upper Colorado River Basin necessarily affects the Service’s analysis of the lease sale’s effects on the endangered fish, as all BLM-authorized fluid mineral development activity within the Basin is part of a single programmatic action. Failure to take into account the greater water use projected in these other sub-watersheds would be arbitrary.

In addition, the PBA estimated very low average water use per well within the Dolores River Basin, a sub-watershed of the Upper Colorado River Basin. The PBA assumed that 1.1 acre-feet per well would be used to develop a single conventional well within the San Juan

²⁰⁷ *See id.*

²⁰⁸ BLM, 2014 Water Depletion Log.

²⁰⁹ Getches-Wilkinson Center for Natural Resources, Energy, and the Environment, Intermountain Oil and Gas BMP Project: Hydraulic Fracturing, available at <http://www.oilandgasbmeps.org/resources/fracing.php>.

²¹⁰ BLM, 2011 Water Depletion Log.

²¹¹ *See* Center for Biological Diversity Protest of Grand Junction RMP (2015) (May 11, 2015) at 3-9.

²¹² BLM 2011-2014 Water Depletion Logs submitted to Fish & Wildlife Service.

²¹³ PBA at 8.

Public Lands Center, which includes the Dolores River Basin, and that a total of 700 wells would be developed over a 15-year period in this area.²¹⁴

However, the Tres Rios RMP EIS--published in 2013, five years after the PBO was adopted--reveals that water use within the Dolores River Basin could be many times higher than this amount:

Substantial quantities of water are projected to be used in the drilling, fracturing, and completion process for both the [Gothic Shale Gas Play (“GSGP”)] and Paradox conventional development (Table 3.5.4). The major river basins affected by the projected development in the [Paradoxi Leasing Analysis Area] are the Dolores and San Juan River Basins. GSGP gas wells in the Paradox Basin would use approximately 7.9 to 13.1 acre-feet of water per well in the drilling and completion process. This level of water consumption is 6 to 11 times the amount of water used to drill and complete a conventional gas well and 11 to 18 times the amount of water used to drill and complete a CBM gas well. Paradox conventional gas wells would use 3.3 acre-feet of water per well in the drilling and completion process. This level of water use is 2.5 times the amount of water used to drill and complete other conventional wells and five times the amount of water used to drill and complete a CBM well.²¹⁵

The Tres Rios RMP EIS estimates that the total amount of water depletions within the Dolores River Basin over a 15-year period will be between 7,444 and 8,840 acre-feet, or approximately 496 acre-feet to 589 acre-feet per year.²¹⁶ This annual depletion rate is approximately ten times the PBA’s projection for the San Juan Public Lands Center (51.8 acre-feet per year), despite that the PBA’s estimate covers well development over a larger area.²¹⁷

In sum, because the PBO does not assess the full scope of anticipated fluid mineral development activities on endangered fish in the Upper Colorado Basin, BLM cannot reasonably rely on the PBO to assess the lease sale’s impacts on the endangered fish and its critical habitat. Further, because BLM has determined that any water depletion in the Upper Colorado River Basin may adversely affect the endangered fish,²¹⁸ BLM must complete formal consultation regarding the potential water depletions from this lease sale. Although BLM acknowledged that “water depletions attributable to oil and gas development contribute cumulatively to the deterioration of critical habitat for the endangered Colorado River fishes,” BLM found that these effects had been evaluated and mitigated through “programmatic consultation” with the FWS.²¹⁹ This does not substitute the required reinitiation of formal consultation, which arises “where discretionary Federal involvement or control over the action has been retained or is authorized by law and...[i]f new information reveals effects of the action that may affect listed species or

²¹⁴ PBA at 8.

²¹⁵ Tres Rios RMP EIS at 244.

²¹⁶ *Id.* at 245.

²¹⁷ The San Juan Public Lands Center includes the Columbine, Uncompahgre, and Gunnison Field Offices, Dolores Public Lands Center, and Pagosa Springs Public Lands Center. PBA at 8.

²¹⁸ PBA at 1; See also PEA at 47.

²¹⁹ PEA at 48.

critical habitat in a manner or to an extent not previously considered.” 50 CFR § 402.16(b). New information reveals that horizontal drilling, hydraulic fracturing, and other related infrastructure projects in the LSFO planning area will require water depletions “to an extent not previously considered.” *Id.* Before leasing these lands, BLM must formally consult or reinitiate formal consultation regarding the lease sale’s water depletion effects on the endangered fish.

Because of the high volume of water required for even a single well that uses unconventional extraction methods, the cumulative water depletion has a significant impact on the endangered species dependent upon water sources that serve to supply oil and gas operations. In addition, water depletion adversely impacts water temperature and chemistry, as well as amplifies the effects of harmful pollutants on wildlife that would otherwise be diluted without the depletion

3. *Contamination from Wastewater Causing Harm and Mortality*

BLM also erroneously failed to complete formal consultation with FWS regarding the heightened risk of spills and leaks that the lease sale poses to endangered fish and their habitat in the Upper Colorado Basin. BLM’s determination that “[t]here is no reasonable likelihood of lease development causing direct impacts” to the endangered fish populations fails to take into account the increased risk of leaks and spills that will occur with increased fluid mineral development. These leaks and spills will pollute nearby streams, rivers, and stream-connected groundwater, exposing endangered fish to toxic pollutants and degrading their habitat. BLM must therefore complete formal consultation regarding the increased risk of spills and leaks from oil and gas development on the endangered fish.

Accidental spills and leaks are foreseeable and likely to increase with the development of the lease. An analysis of spills reports within the Basin between January 1, 2008 and July 31, 2014 revealed 12 self-reported spills in the WRFO planning area that resulted in contamination of surface waters or groundwater, or an average of two spills per year.²²⁰ The number could actually be higher, as spills commonly go unreported.²²¹ Spills and leaks from oil and gas development routinely occur throughout the Upper Colorado Basin. Between January 2008 and

²²⁰ See Upper Colorado River Basin Spills (“Spills Data”). This document consists of data reporting spills in the Upper Colorado River Basin that we compiled from the following sources: Colorado: Colorado Oil and Gas Conservation Commission, <http://cogcc.state.co.us> (“inspection/incident” database for “spill/release”); Utah: Utah Department of Environmental Quality, http://eqspillsps.deq.utah.gov/Search_Public.aspx; New Mexico: State of New Mexico Oil Conservation Division, <https://wwwapps.emnrd.state.nm.us/ocd/ocdpermitting/Data/Incidents/Spills.aspx>. The analysis does not include data from Wyoming or Arizona.

²²¹ Souther, Sara, et al. Biotic Impacts of Energy Development from Shale: Research Priorities and Knowledge Gaps, *Front Ecol Environ* 2014; 12(6): 330-338, p. 332 (noting that companies routinely violated Pennsylvania’s spill reporting requirement; only 59% of documented spills were reported by the drilling company); Gulf Monitoring Consortium Report on Activities from April 2011 to October 20, pp. 3-6, available at <http://skytruth.org/gmc/wp-content/uploads/2012/05/Gulf-Monitoring-Consortium-Report.pdf> (uncovering evidence of non-reporting and chronic under-reporting of oil spills in Gulf of Mexico 2012, using analysis of National Response Center reports and comparison with satellite imagery); Samira Daneshgar Asl, John Amos, Paul Woods, Oscar Garcia-Pineda, Ian R. MacDonald, Chronic, Anthropogenic Hydrocarbon Discharges in the Gulf of Mexico, *Deep-Sea Research II*, available at <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0967064514003725> (peer-reviewed study by scientists at Florida State University validating previous report’s analysis).

July 2014, at least 135 spills or leaks resulted in releases to surface or groundwater in the Upper Basin – many of these from facilities under BLM’s jurisdiction.²²² With increasing oil and gas development expected to occur throughout the upper Basin,²²³ it is entirely foreseeable that the risk of spills in this region will only increase. Moreover, a substantial portion of these spills have occurred upstream from the confluence of the Colorado River and the Green River, in the Green River Subbasin, where some of the most conducive habitat for endangered fish conservation and recovery exists, including the only known spawning bar for razorback sucker in the Upper Colorado River Basin.²²⁴ The cumulative effects of this increased risk of spills on endangered fish in the region must also be accounted for in BLM’s analysis of the effects that the development of the lease potentially have on the endangered fish.

Accidental spills or intentional dumping of wastewater contaminate surface water and cause large-scale harm to wildlife. Numerous incidents of wastewater contamination from pipelines, equipment blowouts, and truck accidents have been reported, and have resulted in kills of fish, aquatic invertebrates, and trees and shrubs, as well as negative health effects for wildlife and domestic animals. Contamination incidents that have occurred actually demonstrate that wildlife harm from contamination is a real, not just theoretical, impact that must be considered. In 2013, a company admitted to dumping wastewater from fracking operations into the Acorn Fork Creek in Kentucky, causing a massive fish kill.²²⁵ Among the species harmed was the blackside dace, a threatened minnow species.²²⁶ An analysis of water quality of Acorn Creek and fish tissues taken shortly after the incident was exposed showed the fish displayed general signs of stress and had a higher rate of gill lesions, than fish in areas not affected by the dumping.²²⁷ The discharge of fracking wastewater into the Susquehanna River in Pennsylvania is suspected to be the cause of fish abnormalities, including high rates of spots, lesions, and intersex.²²⁸ In West Virginia, the permitted application of hydrofracturing fluid to an area of mixed hardwood forest caused extensive tree mortality and a 50-fold increase in surface soil concentrations of sodium and chloride.²²⁹

BLM’s EA also fails to take into account the unprecedented sheer volume of chemicals and wastewaters that will be generated by increased hydraulic fracturing in the LSFO. Millions

²²² Spills Data (all Upper Basin tab).

²²³ See PBA at 5

²²⁴ Valdez, R.A. and P. Nelson. 2004. Green River Subbasin Floodplain Management Plan. Upper Colorado River Endangered Fish Recovery Program, Project Number C-6, Denver, CO., available at <http://www.coloradoriverrecovery.org/documents-publications/technical-reports/hab/GreenFMP.pdf>.

²²⁵ Vaidyanathan, Gayathri, *Fracking Spills Cause Massive Ky. Fish Kill*, E&E News, Aug. 29. 2013, <http://www.eenews.net/greenwire/2013/08/29/stories/1059986559> (accessed July 30, 2015).

²²⁶ *Id.*

²²⁷ Papoulias, D.M. and A.L. Velasco. Histopathological analysis of fish from Acorn Fork Creek, Kentucky, exposed to hydraulic fracturing fluid releases, 12 Southwestern Naturalist (Special Issue 4):92 (2013).

²²⁸ Piette, Betsy, BP Oil Spill, Fracking Cause Wildlife Abnormalities, Workers World (April 27, 2012) available at http://www.workers.org/2012/us/bp_oil_spill_fracking_0503/; Pennsylvania Fish & Boat Commission, Ongoing Problems with the Susquehanna River smallmouth bass, a Case for Impairment (May 23, 2012), www.fish.state.pa.us/newsreleases/2012press/senate_susq/SMB_ConservationIssuesForum_Lycoming.pdf

²²⁹ Adams, Mary Beth, Land Application of Hydrofracturing Fluids Damages a Deciduous Forest Stand in West Virginia, 40 Journal of Environmental Quality 1340 (2011).

of pounds of fracking chemicals will be transported to the LSFO planning area, injected into the ground, and either reinjected underground or transported offsite for disposal.²³⁰

In addition, open air pits that store waste fluid pose risks for wildlife that may come into contact with the chemicals stored in the pits. Already, there have been several documented cases of animal mortality resulting from contact with pits. A field inspection of open pits in Wyoming found 269 bird carcasses, the likely cause of death being exposure to toxic chemicals stored in the open pits.²³¹ Open pits can also serve as breeding grounds for mosquitoes, which serve as a vector for West Nile virus, a threat to humans and animals alike. In Wyoming, an increase of ponds led to an increase of West Nile virus among greater sage-grouse populations.²³² Recently, new information has come to light that operators in California have been dumping wastewater into hundreds of unpermitted open pits.²³³ The EIS must take into account the impact of both unpermitted, illegal waste pits as well as those that are regulated.

4. *Invasive Species*

Invasive species may be introduced through a variety of pathways that would be increasingly common if oil and gas activity is allowed to expand. Machinery, equipment, and trucks moved from site to site can carry invasive plant species to new areas. In addition, materials such as crushed stone or gravel transported to the site from other locations may serve as a conduit for invasive species to migrate to the well site or other areas en route.

Aquatic invasive species may also spread more easily given the large amounts of freshwater that must be transported to accommodate new drilling and extraction techniques. These species may be inadvertently introduced to new habitats when water is discharged at the surface. Alternatively, hoses, trucks, tanks, and other water use equipment may function as conduits for aquatic invasive species to access new habitats.

5. *Climate Change*

Anthropogenic climate change poses a significant threat to biodiversity.²³⁴ Climate disruption is already causing changes in distribution, phenology, physiology, genetics, species interactions, ecosystem services, demographic rates, and population viability: many animals and plants are moving poleward and upward in elevation, shifting their timing of breeding and

²³⁰ See EPA, “Analysis of Hydraulic Fracturing Fluid Data from the FracFocus Chemical Disclosure Registry 1.0,” Webinar Presentation, March 2015, p. 14, available at http://www2.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-04/documents/fracfocus_public_webinars_508_0.pdf (noting that hundreds or thousands of pounds may be brought to, stored, and mixed on the well pad).

²³¹ See, e.g., Ramirez, P. Jr., Bird Mortality in Oil Field Wastewater Disposal Facilities, 46 Environ Mgmt 5: 820 (2010).

²³² Zou, Li et al., Mosquito Larval Habitat Mapping Using Remote Sensing and GIS: Implications of Coalbed Methane Development and West Nile Virus, 43 J. Med. Entomol. 5:1034 (2006).

²³³ Cart, Julie. *Hundreds of Illicit Oil Wastewater Pits Found in Kern County*, (Feb. 26, 2015), available at <http://www.latimes.com/local/lanow/la-me-ln-pits-oil-wastewater-20150226-story.html>.

²³⁴ Warren, R. et al., Quantifying the benefit of early climate change mitigation in avoiding biodiversity loss, 3 Nature Climate Change 678 (2013) (“Warren 2013”).

migration, and experiencing population declines and extinctions.²³⁵ Because climate change is occurring at an unprecedented pace with multiple synergistic impacts, climate change is predicted to significantly increase extinction risk for many species. The IPCC concludes that it is extremely likely that climate change at or above 4°C will result in substantial special extinction.²³⁶ Other studies have predicted similarly severe losses: 15-37 percent of the world's plants and animals committed to extinction by 2050 under a mid-level emissions scenario²³⁷; the extinction of 10 to 14 percent of species by 2100 if climate change continues unabated.²³⁸ Another recent study predicts the loss of more than half of the present climatic range for 58 percent of plants and 35 percent of animals by the 2080s under the current emissions pathway, in a sample of 48,786 species.²³⁹ Because expansion of oil and gas production in the planning area will substantially increase the emissions of greenhouse gases, this activity will further contribute to the harms from climate change to wildlife and ecosystems.

6. Population Impacts

Oil and gas development has been linked to population-level impacts on wildlife, including lower reproductive success of sage grouse and declines in the abundance of songbirds and aquatic species. For example, young greater-sage grouse avoided mating near infrastructure of natural-gas fields, and those that were reared near infrastructure had lower annual survival rates and were less successful at establishing breeding territories compared to those reared away from infrastructure.²⁴⁰ In Wyoming, an increasing density of wells was associated with decreased numbers of Brewer's sparrows, sage sparrows, and vesper sparrows.²⁴¹ In the Fayetteville Shale of central Arkansas, the proportional abundance of sensitive aquatic taxa, including darters, was negatively correlated with gas well density.²⁴² The EIS must consider the population-level impacts that oil and gas development may have on wildlife in the northwestern Colorado planning area.

²³⁵ Cahill, A.E. et al., How Does Climate Change Cause Extinction? Proceedings of the Royal Society B, doi:10.1098/rspb.2012.1890 (2012); Chen, I. et al., Rapid range shifts of species associated with high levels of climate warming, 333 Science 1024 (2011); Maclean, I.M.D., and R.J. Wilson, Recent ecological responses to climate change support predictions of high extinction risk, 108 Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. Early Edition 12337 (2011) ("Maclean and Wilson 2011"); Parmesan, C., Ecological and Evolutionary Responses to Recent Climate Change, 37 Annual Review of Ecology Evolution & Systematics 637 (2006); Parmesan, C., and G. Yohe, A globally coherent fingerprint of climate change impacts across natural systems, 421 Nature 37 (2003); Root, T.L. et al., Fingerprints of Global Warming on Wild Animals and Plants, 421 Nature 57 (2003); Warren, Rachel et al., Increasing Impacts of Climate Change Upon Ecosystems with Increasing Global Mean Temperature Rise, 106 Climatic Change 141 (2011). ("Warren 2011").

²³⁶ Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, *Climate Change 2014: Synthesis Report, Summary for Policy Makers IPCC Fifth Assessment Synthesis Report*, 18 (2014).

²³⁷ Thomas, C.D. et al., Extinction Risk from Climate Change, 427 Nature 8:145 (2004).

²³⁸ Maclean and Wilson 2011.

²³⁹ Warren 2013.

²⁴⁰ Holloran, M.J. et al., Yearling Greater Sage-Grouse Response to Energy Development in Wyoming, 74 Journal of Wildlife Management 1:65 (2010).

²⁴¹ Gilbert, Michelle M. & Anna D. Chalfoun, Energy Development Affects Populations of Sagebrush Songbirds in Wyoming, 75 The Journal of Wildlife Management 4:816 (2011).

²⁴² Green, Jessie J. et al., Abstract: Examining Community Level Variables of Fishes in Relation to Natural Gas Development, Southeastern Fishes Council, Annual Meeting Program, November 8 - 9, 2012, New Orleans, Louisiana (2012).

7. Metrics

BLM should conduct a full assessment of the direct and indirect impacts of unconventional oil and gas development activities on wildlife and ecosystems through a suite of comprehensive studies on all species and ecosystems that could be affected. The studies should be particularly detailed for federally and state listed species, federal and state candidates for listing, and state species of special concern. The studies should address the following impacts: (1) habitat loss, degradation, and fragmentation, including edge effects; (2) water depletion; (3) air and water contamination; (4) introduction of invasive species; (5) climate change impacts; (6) health and behavioral effects such as increased stress and changes in life history behaviors; (7) changes in demographic rates such as reproductive success and survival; and (8) potential for population-level impacts such as declines and extirpations. These studies should consider these harms individually and cumulatively.

8. *Columbian Sharp-Tailed Grouse*

The proposed action and EA are grossly deficient in terms of their analysis of and mitigation of impacts to Columbian Sharp-Tailed Grouse (“CSTG”), a BLM sensitive species. Both parcels contain known CSTG winter range and are as close as 0.6 miles to nesting and brood-rearing habitat.²⁴³ The only protections for this habitat are a timing limitation on initial drilling (though not production) activities within winter range.²⁴⁴ The EA then concedes that “The potential range and character of fluid mineral influences on CSTG would closely parallel those affecting greater sage-grouse, namely oil and gas development activity and its infrastructure can exert adverse influences on grouse behavior and demographics miles from the source of disturbance, prompting declines in lek persistence and male attendance, yearling and adult hen survival, and nest initiation rates and consistently elicits strong avoidance response in yearling age classes, nesting/brooding hens, and wintering birds.”²⁴⁵ Yet it considers, and adopts, none of the conclusions or management measures just recently adopted for the similarly-affected greater sage-grouse in the recent sage-grouse EIS and Management Plan Amendments for the Rocky Mountain Region, including Northwest Colorado.²⁴⁶ The PEA, for example, contains no discussion or analysis of BLM’s own core finding that the continued use of the traditional stipulations proposed here will “substantially influence” grouse populations.²⁴⁷ While we commend BLM for deferring greater sage-grouse habitat from the proposed sale pending analysis and incorporation of the RMP revisions (however insufficient those may be), the proposed sale nevertheless would lease CSTG winter, nesting, and brood-rearing habitat with only the same traditional stipulations found inadequate to conserve the similarly-affected greater sage-grouse, and with no analysis of the sale’s effect on local CSTG populations, cumulative effects on regional populations, or the BLM’s obligations under its sensitive species policy.

²⁴³ PEA at 47.

²⁴⁴ See Timing Limitation LS-104.

²⁴⁵ PEA at 48.

²⁴⁶ Bureau of Land Management, Record of Decision and Approved Resource Management Plan Amendments for the Rocky Mountain Region (Sept. 2015); Bureau of Land Management, Northwest Colorado Proposed Land-Use Plan Amendment and Final Environmental Impact Statement (May 2015).

²⁴⁷ NW CO Sage-Grouse FEIS 4-91.

E. BLM has Failed to Adequately Disclose or Analyze the Seismic Risks Posed by Unconventional Extraction Techniques and Underground Wastewater Disposal

BLM failed to include any analysis of the seismic risks posed by the lease sale. Earthquakes induced by fluid injection, or fracking, in the U.S. are a well-known threat to human health and safety and infrastructure.²⁴⁸ The PEA does not even mention this, which is a gross violation of NEPA.

If oil and gas development is allowed to proliferate in the planning area, increased unconventional oil and gas extraction and underground waste injection will increase the risk of induced seismicity. Induced seismic events could damage or destroy property and cause injuries or even death, especially in a state where earthquakes are rare and communities are typically not prepared for them. A no-leasing-no-fracking alternative would minimize these risks, while continued leasing and unconventional well development would increase them.

Research has shown that in regions of the central and eastern United States where unconventional oil and gas development has proliferated in recent years, earthquake activity has increased dramatically.²⁴⁹ More than 300 earthquakes with magnitude (M) ≥ 3 occurred between 2010 through 2012, compared with an average of 21 per year between 1967 and 2000.²⁵⁰ Moreover, although earthquakes with magnitude (M) ≥ 5.0 are very uncommon east of the Rocky Mountains, the number per year recorded in the midcontinent increased 11-fold between 2008 and 2011, compared to 1976 to 2007.²⁵¹ Mid-continent states experiencing elevated levels of seismic activity include Arkansas, Colorado, New Mexico, Ohio, Oklahoma, Texas, and Virginia.²⁵²

Research has linked much of the increased earthquake activity and several of the largest earthquakes in the U.S. midcontinent in recent years to the disposal of wastewater into deep injection wells, which is well-established to pose a significant seismic risk.²⁵³ Much of the fracking wastewater is a byproduct of oil and gas production and is routinely disposed of by injection into wells specifically designed and approved for this purpose. The injected fluids push stable faults past their tipping points, and thereby induce earthquakes.²⁵⁴ In 2015, a study published in *Science* found that, the unprecedented increase in earthquakes in the U.S. midcontinent began in 2009 has been caused solely by the instability caused by fluid injection wells

²⁴⁸See Ellsworth, W.L. Injection-Induced Earthquakes, 341 *Science* 1225942 (2013) (“Ellsworth 2013”); Keranen, Katie et al., Potentially Induced Earthquakes in Oklahoma, USA: Links Between Wastewater Injection and the 2011 Mw5.7 Earthquake Sequence, *Geology* doi:10.1130/G34045.1 (March 26, 2013) (“Keranen 2013”).

²⁴⁹*Id.*

²⁵⁰Ellsworth 2013.

²⁵¹Keranen 2013.

²⁵²Ellsworth 2013.

²⁵³*Id.*

²⁵⁴ Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory, Columbia University. Distant Quakes Trigger Tremors at U.S. Waste-Injection Sites, Says Study. July 11, 2013. Available at: <https://www.ldeo.columbia.edu/news-events/distant-quakes-trigger-tremors-us-waste-injection-sites-says-study> .

associated with fracking waste disposal.²⁵⁵ To put an exclamation point on this finding, a 4.7 magnitude earthquake struck northern Oklahoma that was felt in 7 additional states, leading the Oklahoma Geological Survey to reiterate the connection between disposal wells and earthquakes and to shut down the most high risk wells.²⁵⁶ Earthquakes at magnitudes (M) that are felt (M3 and M4) or destructive (M4 and M5) have been attributed to wastewater injection wells in at least five states - Arkansas, Colorado, Ohio, Oklahoma, and Texas. The largest of these was a M5.7 earthquake in Prague, Oklahoma, which was the biggest in the state's history, destroying 14 homes and injuring two people.²⁵⁷ Other large earthquakes attributed to wastewater injection include an M5.3 in Colorado,²⁵⁸ M4.9 in Texas,²⁵⁹ M4.7 in Arkansas,²⁶⁰ and M3.9 in Ohio.²⁶¹

The proliferation of unconventional oil and gas development, including increases in extraction and injection, will increase earthquake risk in Colorado. Accordingly, the EIS must fully assess the risk of induced seismicity cause by all unconventional oil and gas extraction and injection activities, including wastewater injection wells.

The analysis should assess the following issues based on guidance from the scientific literature, the National Research Council,²⁶² and the Department of Energy²⁶³:

- (1) whether existing oil and gas wells and wastewater injection wells in the area covered by the RMP have induced seismic activity, using earthquake catalogs (which provide an inventory of earthquakes of differing magnitudes) and fluid extraction and injection data collected by industry;
- (2) the region's fault environment by identifying and characterizing all faults in these areas based on sources including but not limited to the USGS Quaternary Fault and Fold database and the most recent Colorado Geological Survey Fault Activity Map GIS layer. In its analysis, BLM should assess its ability to identify all faults in these areas, including strike-slip faults and deep faults that can be difficult to detect;

²⁵⁵ M. Weingarten, S. Ge, J. W. Godt, B. A. Bekins, and J. L. Rubinstein. June 19, 2015. High-rate injection is associated with the increase in U.S. mid-continent seismicity. *Science*, VOL 348 ISSUE 6241, pages 1336-1340.

²⁵⁶ Chow, Lorraine. November 19, 2015. Strong Earthquake Rattles Oklahoma, Felt in 7 Other States, available at <https://ecowatch.com/2015/11/19/oklahoma-earthquake-fracking/>

²⁵⁷ Ellsworth 2013, Keranen 2013.

²⁵⁸ Rubinstein, J.L. et al., The 2001–present triggered seismicity sequence in the Raton Basin of southern Colorado/northern New Mexico, 104 *Bull. Seismol. Soc'y of America* 5 (2014).

²⁵⁹ Brown, W.A. et al. Abstract: Investigating the cause of the 17 May 2012 M4.8 earthquake near Timpson, East Texas, Abstract 84 *Seismol. Res. Lett* 374 (2013).

²⁶⁰ Horton, S., Disposal of Hydrofracking Waste Fluid by Injection into Subsurface Aquifers Triggers Earthquake Swarm in Central Arkansas with Potential for Damaging Earthquake, 83 *Seismol. Res. Lett.* 2 (2012).

²⁶¹ Kim, Won-Young, Induced Seismicity Associated with Fluid Injection into a Deep Well in Youngstown, Ohio, 118 *J. of Geophys. Res.: Solid Earth* 3506 (February 1, 2013).

²⁶² National Research Council, *Induced Seismicity Potential in Energy Technologies*. National Academies Press (2012).

²⁶³ U.S. Department of Energy, *Protocol for Addressing Induced Seismicity Associated with Enhanced Geothermal Systems*, DOE/EE-0662 (2012); U.S. Department of Energy, *Best Practices for Addressing Induced Seismicity Associated with Enhanced Geothermal Systems - Draft* (2013).

- (3) the background seismicity of oil- and gas-bearing lands including the history of earthquake size and frequency, fault structure (including orientation of faults), seismicity rates, failure mechanisms, and state of stress of faults;
- (4) the geology of oil- and gas-bearing lands including pore pressure, formation permeability, and hydrological connectivity to deeper faults;
- (5) the hazards to human communities and infrastructure from induced seismic activity; and
- (6) the current state of knowledge on important questions related to the risk and hazards of induced seismicity from oil and gas development activities, including:
 - (a) how the distance from a well to a fault affects seismic risk (i.e., locating wells in close proximity to faults can increase the risk of inducing earthquakes);
 - (b) how fluid injection and extraction volumes, rates, and pressures affect seismic risk;
 - (c) how the density of wells affects seismic risk (i.e., a greater density of wells affects a greater volume of the subsurface and potentially contacts more areas of a single fault or a greater number of faults);
 - (d) the time period following the initiation of injection or extraction activities over which earthquakes can be induced (i.e., studies indicate that induced seismicity often occurs within months of initiation of extraction or injection although there are cases demonstrating multi-year delays);
 - (e) how stopping extraction or injection activities affects induced seismicity (i.e., can induced seismicity be turned off by stopping extraction and injection and over what period, since studies indicate that there are often delays—sometimes more than a year—between the termination of extraction and injection activities and the cessation of induced earthquake activity);
 - (f) the largest earthquake that could be induced by unconventional oil and gas development activities in areas covered by the RMP, including earthquakes caused by wastewater injection; and
 - (g) whether active and abandoned wells are safe from damage from earthquake activity over the short and long-term.

F. BLM Must Prepare an Environmental Impact Statement

NEPA demands that a federal agency prepare an EIS before taking a “‘major [f]ederal action[] significantly affecting the quality’ of the environment.” *Kern v. U.S. Bureau of Land Mgmt.*, 284 F.3d 1062, 1067 (9th Cir. 2002). In order to determine whether a project’s impacts may be “significant,” an agency may first prepare an Environmental Assessment (“EA”). 40 C.F.R. §§ 1501.4, 1508.9. If the EA reveals that “the agency’s action may have a significant effect upon the . . . environment, an EIS must be prepared.” *Nat’l Parks & Conservation Ass’n v. Babbitt*, 241 F.3d 722,

730 (9th Cir. 2001) (internal quotations omitted). If the agency determines that no significant impacts are possible, it must still adequately explain its decision by supplying a “convincing statement of reasons” why the action’s effects are insignificant. *Blue Mountains Biodiversity Project v. Blackwood*, 161 F.3d 1208, 1212 (9th Cir. 1998). Further, an agency must prepare all environmental analyses required by NEPA at “the earliest possible time.” 40 C.F.R. § 1501.2. “NEPA is not designed to postpone analysis of an environmental consequence to the last possible moment,” but is “designed to require such analysis as soon as it can reasonably be done.” *Kern*, 284 F.3d at 1072.

BLM is therefore required under NEPA to prepare an EIS to support this proposed project. This is especially true in light of the likelihood that fracking would occur on the leases. *Center for Biological Diversity, et al. v. Bureau of Land Management, et al.*, 2013 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 52432; 43 ELR 20076 (N.D. Cal. March 31, 2013) (holding that oil and gas leases were issued in violation of NEPA where BLM failed to prepare an EIS and failed to properly address the significance factors for context and intensity in 40 C.F.R. § 1508.27).

In considering whether the lease sale would have significant effects on the environment, NEPA’s regulations require BLM to evaluate ten factors regarding the “intensity” of the impacts. 40 C.F.R. § 1508.27(b). The Ninth Circuit has held that the existence of any “one of these factors may be sufficient to require preparation of an EIS.” *Ocean Advocates*, 402 F.3d at 865; *Nat’l Parks & Conservation Ass’n*, 241 F.3d at 731. Several of these “significance factors” are implicated in the lease sale and clearly warrant the preparation of an EIS:

The degree to which the effects on the quality of the human environment are likely to be highly controversial.

The degree to which the possible effects on the human environment are highly uncertain or involve unique or unknown risks.

The degree to which the proposed action affects public health or safety.

The degree to which the action may adversely affect an endangered or threatened species or its habitat that has been determined to be critical under the Endangered Species Act of 1973.

40 C.F.R. § 1508.27(b)(4), (5), (2) & (9). See *Center for Biological Diversity, et al. v. Bureau of Land Management, et al.*, 2013 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 52432; 43 ELR 20076 (N.D. Cal. March 31, 2013) (holding that BLM failed to properly address the significance factors regarding controversy and uncertainty that may have been resolved by further data collection (citing *Native Ecosystems Council v. U.S. Forest Serv.*, 428 F.3d 1233, 1240 (9th Cir. 2005))). Here, individually and considered as a whole, there is no doubt that significant effects may result from the lease sale; thus, NEPA requires that BLM should have prepared an EIS for the action.

i. The effects on the human environment will be highly controversial

A proposal is highly controversial when “substantial questions are raised as to whether a project . . . may cause significant degradation” of a resource, *Nw. Env’tl. Def. Ctr. v. Bonneville*

Power Admin., 117 F.3d 1520, 1536 (9th Cir. 1997), or when there is a “substantial dispute [about] the size, nature, or effect of the” action. *Blue Mtns. Biodiversity*, 161 F.3d at 1212. A “substantial dispute exists when evidence, raised prior to the preparation of [a] . . . FONSI, casts serious doubt upon the reasonableness of an agency’s conclusions.” *Nat’l Parks & Conserv. Ass’n*, 241 F.3d at 736. When such a doubt is raised, “NEPA then places the burden on the agency to come forward with a ‘well-reasoned explanation’ demonstrating why those responses disputing the EA’s conclusions ‘do not . . . create a public controversy.’” *Id.* See also *Center for Biological Diversity, et al. v. Bureau of Land Management, et al.*, 2013 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 52432, 839; 43 ELR 20076 (N.D. Cal. March 31, 2013).

Here, the controversy regarding the lease sale is fully evident. This comment letter provides abundant evidence that oil and gas operations can cause significant impacts to human health, water resources, air quality, imperiled species, and seismicity. The potential for these significant impacts to occur is particularly clear in light of the potential for fracking to result from the lease sale.

Fracking is among the top, if not the most controversial energy issue facing America today. The controversy spans the public arena, scientific discourse, local governments, and the halls of Congress. At the request of Congress, EPA is conducting a study into the effects of fracking on drinking and ground water.²⁶⁴ Similarly, the New York Draft DEC concluded that the health and environmental risks from fracking supports its ban in New York State. In Nevada, several anti-fracking grassroots groups have emerged along with petitions to ban the practice in Nevada, which to date have garnered more than 3200 signatures.²⁶⁵ However, in addition to the presence of controversy, it is already evident, as discussed above, that fracking is harmful. Clearly, the level of controversy associated with fracking and its expansion in Little Snake in association with the lease sale is sufficient to trigger the need for an EIS. 40 C.F.R. § 1508.27(b)(4).

ii. The lease sale presents highly uncertain or unknown risks

An EIS must also be prepared when an action’s effects are “highly uncertain or involve unique or unknown risks.” 40 C.F.R. § 1508.27(b)(5). As the Ninth Circuit has held, “[p]reparation of an EIS is mandated where uncertainty may be resolved by further collection of data, or where the collection of such data may prevent speculation on potential . . . effects.” *Native Ecosystems Council v. U.S. Forest Serv.*, 428 F.3d 1233, 1240 (9th Cir. 2005) (internal citations omitted); *Blue Mtns. Biodiversity*, 161 F.3d at 1213-1214 (finding “EA’s cursory and inconsistent treatment of sedimentation issues . . . raises substantial questions about . . . the unknown risks to” fish populations). As one court recently explained regarding oil and gas

²⁶⁴ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Plan to Study the Potential Impacts of Hydraulic Fracturing on Drinking Water Resources (November 2011).

²⁶⁵ Petitions available at: http://petitions.moveon.org/sign/nevadas-public-health.fb28?source=c.fb&r_by=5006637
<http://org.credoaction.com/petitions/nevada-s-public-health-is-at-risk-we-want-a-moratorium-on-hydraulic-fracturing>
<http://petitions.moveon.org/sign/prevent-fracking-in-nevada/?source=search>
<http://org.credoaction.com/petitions/ban-fracing-in-nevada?source=facebook-share-button&time=1374605460>

leasing that may facilitate fracking, “BLM erroneously discounted the uncertainty from fracking that may be resolved by further data collection. ‘Preparation [of an EIS] is mandated where uncertainty may be resolved by further collection of data, or where collection of such data may prevent speculation on potential effects.’” *Center for Biological Diversity, et al. v. Bureau of Land Management, et al.*, 2013 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 52432, *42; 43 ELR 20076 (N.D. Cal. March 31, 2013) quoting *Native Ecosystems Council v. U.S. Forest Serv.*, 428 F.3d 1233, 1240 (9th Cir. 2005)).

While it is clear that oil and gas activities can cause great harm, there remains much to be learned about the specific pathways through which harm may occur and the potential degree of harm that may result. Additional information is needed, for example, about possible rates of natural gas leakage, the potential for fluids to migrate through the ground in and around the parcels, and the potential for drilling to affect local faults. NEPA clearly dictates that the way to address such uncertainties is through the preparation of an EIS.

iii. The lease sale poses threats to public health and safety

As discussed in great detail above, the oil and gas activities that may occur as a result of the lease sale could cause significant impacts to public health and safety. 40 C.F.R. § 1508.27(b)(2). Fracking would pose a grave threat to the region’s water resources, harm air quality, pose seismic risks, negatively affect wildlife, and fuel climate change.

As a congressional report noted, oil and gas companies have used fracking products containing at least 29 products that are known as possible carcinogens, regulated for their human health risk, or listed as hazardous air pollutants.²⁶⁶ The public’s exposure to these harmful pollutants alone would plainly constitute a significant impact. Operational accidents also pose a significant threat to public health. For example in August 2008, Newsweek reported that an employee of an energy-services company got caught in a fracking fluid spill and was taken to the emergency room, complaining of nausea and headaches.²⁶⁷ The fracking fluid was so toxic that it ended up harming not only the worker, but also the emergency room nurse who treated him. Several days later, after she began vomiting and retaining fluid, her skin turned yellow and she was diagnosed with chemical poisoning.²⁶⁸ Furthermore, and as previously discussed, information continues to emerge on the risk of earthquakes induced by wastewater injected into areas near faults. It is undeniable that these earthquakes pose risks to the residents of the area and points beyond

The use of fracking fluid, which is likely to occur as a result of the lease sale, poses a major threat to public health and safety and therefore constitutes a significant impact. BLM therefore must evaluate such impacts in an EIS.

²⁶⁶ Waxman, Henry et al., United States House of Representatives, Committee on Energy and Commerce, Minority Staff, *Chemicals Used in Hydraulic Fracturing* (Apr. 2011) (“Waxman 2011”)

²⁶⁷ Wiserman, Hannah, *Untested Waters: The Rise of Hydraulic Fracturing in Oil and Gas Production and the need to revisit Regulation*, 20 *Fordham Envtl. Law Rev.* 115 (2009) 138-39.

²⁶⁸ *Id.*

iv. The Lease Sale Action Will Adversely Affect Candidate and Agency Sensitive Species and Their Habitat

An EIS may also be required when an action “may adversely affect an endangered or threatened species or its habitat.” 40 C.F.R. § 1508.27(b)(9). Although a finding that a project has “some negative effects does not mandate a finding of significant impact,” an agency must nonetheless fully and closely evaluate the effects on listed species and issue an EIS if those impacts are significant. *Klamath-Siskiyou Wildlands Ctr. v. U.S. Forest Serv.*, 373 F. Supp. 2d 1069, 1081 (E.D. Cal. 2004) (finding agency’s conclusion that action “may affect, is likely to adversely affect” species due to “disturbance and disruption of breeding” and “degradation” of habitat is “[a]t a minimum, . . . an important factor supporting the need for an EIS”).

Impacts to BLM sensitive and other rare species threatened by the proposed lease have been highlighted in section “II” subsection “3(D)” of these comments.

G. BLM Must Ensure That the Federal Land Policy and Management Act and the Mineral Leasing Act Are Not Violated

The Mineral Leasing Act (“MLA”) requires BLM to demand lessees take all reasonable measures to prevent the waste of natural gas. The MLA states:

All leases of lands containing oil or gas, made or issued under the provisions of this chapter, shall be subject to the condition that the lessee will, in conducting his explorations and mining operations, use all reasonable precautions to prevent waste of oil or gas developed in the land, or the entrance of water through wells drilled by him to the oil sands or oil-bearing strata, to the destruction or injury of the oil deposits.

30 U.S.C. § 225; *see also id.* § 187 (stating that for the assignment or subletting of leases that “[e]ach lease shall contain . . . a provision . . . for the prevention of undue waste”). This statutory mandate is unambiguous and must be enforced. *Tenn. Valley Auth. v. Hill*, 437 U.S. 153, 184 n.29 (1978) (stating that “[w]hen confronted with a statute which is plain and unambiguous on its face,” “it is not necessary to look beyond the words of the statute.”). As already discussed in previous sections, oil and gas operations emit significant amounts of natural gases, including methane and carbon dioxide, which can be easily prevented.²⁶⁹

Pursuant to the Federal Land Policy and Management Act (“FLPMA”), BLM must “take any action necessary to prevent unnecessary or undue degradation of the [public] lands.” 43 U.S.C. § 1732(b). Written in the disjunctive, BLM must prevent degradation that is “unnecessary” and degradation that is “undue.” *Mineral Policy Ctr. v. Norton*, 292 F.Supp.2d 30, 41-43 (D. D.C. 2003). The protective mandate applies to BLM’s planning and management decisions. *See Utah Shared Access Alliance v. Carpenter*, 463 F.3d 1125, 1136 (10th Cir. 2006)

²⁶⁹ *See* U.S. Government Accountability Office, Federal Oil and Gas Leases, Opportunities Exist to Capture Vented and Flared Natural Gas, Which Would Increase Royalty Payments and Reduce Greenhouse Gases 20(2010)

(finding that BLM's authority to prevent degradation is not limited to the RMP planning process). Greenhouse gas pollution for example causes "undue" degradation. Even if the activity causing the degradation may be "necessary," where greenhouse gas pollution is avoidable, it is still "unnecessary" degradation. 43 U.S.C. § 1732(b).

In addition to being harmful to human health and the environment, the emissions from oil and gas operations are also an undue and unnecessary waste and degradation of public lands. Consequently, BLM's proposed gas and oil lease sale violates FLPMA. *See* 43 U.S.C. § 1732(b).

Conclusion

Unconventional oil and gas development and coal extraction not only fuel the climate crisis but entail significant public health risks and harms to the environment. Accordingly, the EIS should thoroughly analyze the alternative of no new fossil fuel leasing and no fracking or other unconventional well stimulation methods within the Little Snake planning area. Thank you for your consideration of these comments. The Center looks forward to reviewing a legally adequate EIS for this proposed oil and gas leasing action.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "My-Linh Le". The signature is fluid and cursive, with a large initial "M" and a long, sweeping underline.

My-Linh Le
Legal Fellow
Center for Biological Diversity