



CONVENTION ON MIGRATORY SPECIES

Distribution: General

UNEP/CMS/ScC18/Doc.10.2.2
1 June 2014

Original: English

18th MEETING OF THE SCIENTIFIC COUNCIL

Bonn, Germany, 1-3 July 2014

Agenda Item 10.2.2

RENEWABLE ENERGY TECHNOLOGIES AND MIGRATORY SPECIES: GUIDELINES FOR SUSTAINABLE DEPLOYMENT

Summary:

Within the framework of a joint initiative between the Secretariats of the Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals (CMS) and the Agreement on the Conservation of African-Eurasian Migratory Waterbirds (AEWA), on behalf of the entire CMS Family; the International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA); and BirdLife International UNDP/GEF/BirdLife Msb project a compilation of guidelines on how to avoid or mitigate impacts on migratory species of the deployment of renewable energy technology is being produced.

The document attached to this note was produced under consultancy, and constitutes a preliminary draft of the compilation. It is submitted to the 18th meeting of the Scientific Council for review.

RENEWABLE ENERGY TECHNOLOGIES AND MIGRATORY SPECIES: GUIDELINES FOR SUSTAINABLE DEPLOYMENT

(Prepared by the Secretariat)

1. The Secretariats of the Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals (CMS) and the Agreement on the Conservation of African-Eurasian Migratory Waterbirds (AEWA), on behalf of the entire CMS Family; the International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA) and BirdLife International UNDP/GEF/BirdLife Msb project have joined forces to carry out a review of the deployment of renewable energy technology and its actual or potential impacts on migratory species, and produce a set of guidelines on how to avoid or mitigate those impacts. Details about the initiative are provided in document UNEP/CMS/ScC18/Doc.10.2.
2. Under this cover note the preliminary draft of a compilation of guidelines on how to avoid or mitigate impacts on migratory species of the deployment of renewable energy technology is reproduced. The compilation has been produced under consultancy by Bureau Waardenburg bv and associated partners. It is submitted to the 18th meeting of the Scientific Council for review.
3. The production of this document was made possible thanks to financial contributions from the governments of Germany and Norway through the CMS and AEWA Secretariats, from BirdLife International through the UNDP/GEF Msb project and from IRENA.

Action requested:

The Scientific Council is invited to:

- (a) Consider the draft guidelines “*Renewable Energy Technologies and Migratory Species: Guidelines for sustainable deployment*”, and provide guidance towards their further development and finalization with a view to their being submitted to COP11 for consideration and adoption.

ANNEX

Renewable Energy Technologies and Migratory Species: Guidelines for sustainable deployment

J. van der Winden
F. van Vliet
A. Patterson
B. Lane
(editors)

Preliminary draft, 30 May 2014

Renewable Energy Technologies and Migratory Species: Guidelines for sustainable deployment

J. van der Winden¹

F. van Vliet¹

A. Patterson²

B. Lane³

(editors)

1. Bureau Waardenburg
2. ESS Group
3. Brett Lane & Associates



Boere
Conservation Consultancy



commissioned by: International Renewable Energy Agency, Convention on Migratory Species, African-Eurasian Waterbird Agreement and Birdlife International, UNDP/GEF/Birdlife Msb project

28 May 2014
report nr **xx-xxx**

Status: draft

Report nr.: xx-xx

Date of publication: 28 May 2014

Title: Renewable Energy Technologies and Migratory Species:
Guidelines for sustainable deployment.

Editors: F. van Vliet, A.Patterson, B. Lane
J. van der Winden

Autors
Photo credits cover page: H. Prinsen, A. Gymesi, M. Boonman, xxxxxxxx
PM

Number of pages incl. appendices: xxx

Project nr: 13-107

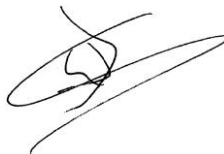
Project manager: drs. J. van der Winden.

Name & address client: International Renewable Energy Agency
IRENA Secretariat, C67 Office Building, Khalidiyah (32nd)
Street, 19th floor , procurement office
Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates

Reference client: PL/PO/2013/O/0132

Signed for publication: Teamleader Bird Ecology
drs. T. Boudewijn

Initials:



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Preface

To be prepared by IRENA and CMS family

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Step chart

Renewable energy technology deployment can have a range of potentially significant impacts on migratory species. It is, therefore, recommended that each country should take the following steps to avoid, minimize or mitigate such potential impacts. Each country should apply these steps at the appropriate planning stage in the development process. However, this step chart should be seen as an iterative process: if necessary, steps should be returned to and revised in response to new information and decisions.

Step 1: Develop and support strategic long term planning of renewable energy technology. Apply appropriate Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) procedures for decisions on the need of renewable energy technology on a national scale and apply similar appropriate Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) procedures on the construction of renewable energy plants once it has been decided that such renewable energy technology development is needed. Aspects of the risk for migratory species should be integrated into the EA procedures.

Step 2: Develop and support collaboration between all stakeholders (renewable energy technology developers, conservationists, governmental organisations) through support of Memoranda of Understanding on a volunteer basis, or, if necessary, impose the cooperation of renewable energy technology developers for strategic planning and mitigation of negative effects on migratory species through legislation.

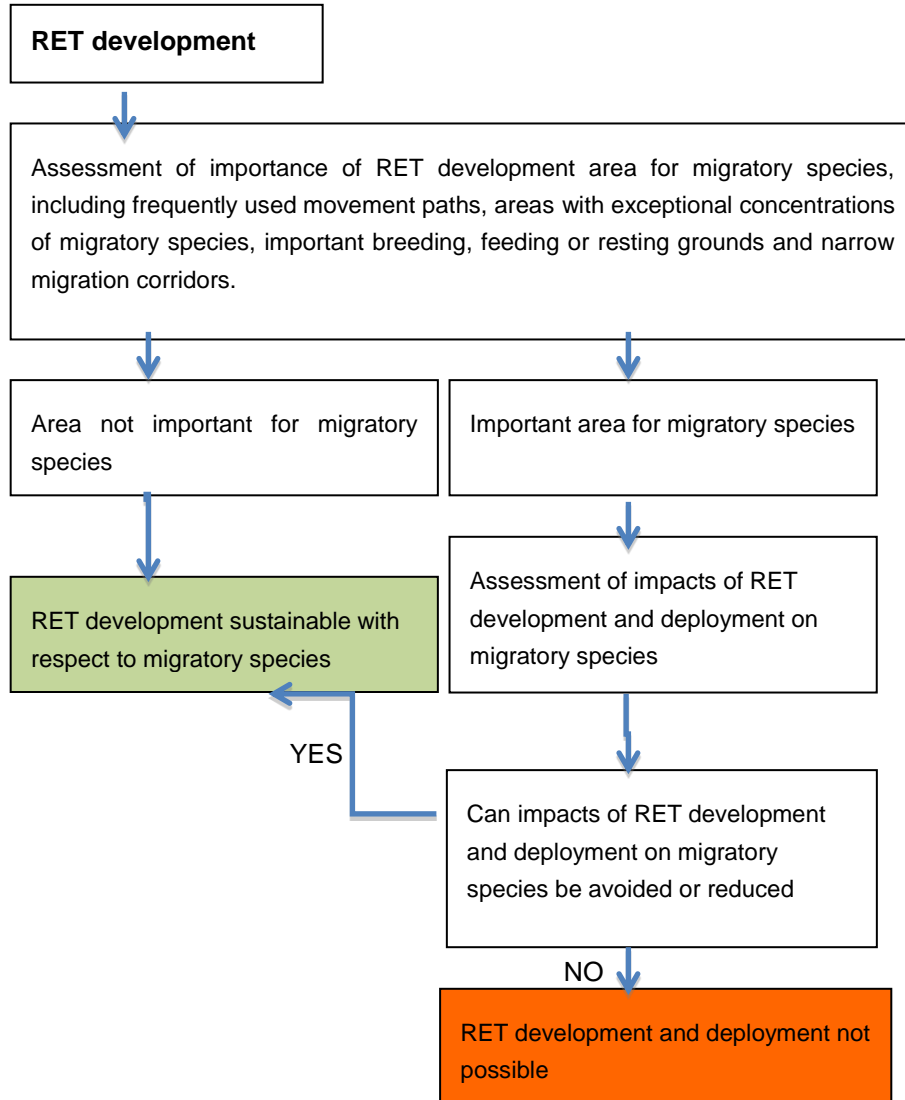
Step 3: Map hotspot areas for migratory species. Develop scientifically based databases and spatial datasets on important areas for migratory species, including frequently used movement paths, areas with exceptional concentrations of migratory species, important breeding, feeding or resting grounds and narrow migration corridors. These datasets enhance strategic planning in steps 1 and 2 and define priorities in step 4. If no data are available, such as from regular monitoring programmes, then field data must be collected for a minimum of one year.

Step 4: Consider measures for *avoidance* of impacts of new renewable energy technology developments on migratory species: siting, design, process, technology and 'no go' options.

Step 5: Consider measures for *mitigation* of impacts of new renewable energy technology developments on migratory species. These measures attempt to reduce the (severity of the) impact or to limit the exposure of receptors to impacts.

Step 6: Develop and support evaluation programs that use standardised protocols to monitor the effectiveness of mitigation measures as well as to improve mitigation techniques and the presence and movements of migratory species in order to assess the (species-specific) scale of impact.

Decision tree renewable energy technology (RET) development and deployment regarding migratory species



1 Introduction

A review of effects on migrating species

It is recognized that the production of all forms of energy from renewable sources makes a significant contribution to climate change mitigation (e.g. Rogelj *et al.* 2013, Edenhofer *et al.* 2012). By contributing to climate change mitigation, the production of renewable sources also makes a significant contribution to the conservation of biodiversity worldwide (Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity 2010, Gitay *et al.* 2002). Rapid climate change affects ecosystems and species ability to adapt with loss of biodiversity as a result. Notwithstanding the positive impacts on biodiversity via climate change mitigation, the deployment of renewable energy technologies (RET) can also have negative impacts on wildlife species, including migratory species.

The effects of RET deployment on migratory species is extensively reviewed in “Renewable Energy Technology Deployment and Migratory Species: an Overview” (Van der Winden *et al.* 2014). That review is published in the framework of the “Renewable Energy Technologies Deployment and Migratory Species project” (in short the “Renewable energy and migratory species project”). The International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA), in collaboration with the Secretariats of the Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals (CMS¹) and of the Agreement on the Conservation of African Eurasian Migratory Waterbirds (AEWA) and Birdlife initiated this project with the overall objective to contribute to the environmentally sound development of renewable energy. The international review provides important background information to this guidelines document, a second output of the project.

Guidelines for mitigation and avoiding impacts

In recent years many guideline documents have been published worldwide describing approaches and solutions to avoid/mitigate the conflict between RET deployment and wildlife. Most of these existing guidance documents are drawn up for a specific RET deployment and without special emphasis on migratory species. This current guideline report aims to integrate and summarize these key guidance documents in one overview with special focus on migratory species. It presents solutions, technical as well as legislative, devised for avoiding/mitigating impacts, including factors determining or constraining their effectiveness, which are being applied, and synthesizes lessons learned from past experiences. Detailed technical instructions on the construction of mitigation measures are outside the scope of these guidelines, for these we refer to existing technical literature. There are numerous examples of such detailed guidelines and explicit reference will be made to these, rather than repeating the content of these documents, even in summary form.

¹ Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals (CMS) and its associated agreements is defined as CMS Family. The project is relevant for the whole Family, but it is managed by the CMS and AEWA Secretariats on behalf of the Family.

The target groups for the final guidelines report are policy officers in the governments dealing with renewable energy technologies deployment as well as project developers. It may also be of interest to consultants, site managers, NGOs and other practitioners who are involved in the planning, design, implementation or approval of renewable energy plans or projects.

2 General guidelines

2.1 Introduction

There are some basic principles and approaches that apply to every form of renewable energy development. For example, all renewable energy deployment will make use of some form of infrastructure (e.g. aboveground power lines, belowground cables) to transport and/or further distribute the power generated to the (inter)national grid and will need access infrastructure for construction and maintenance crews. Below a brief guidance is given on such general aspects, referring mostly to other published guidelines on the topics of legislation, SEA/EIA procedures, transport infrastructure, power lines, and monitoring of impacts, respectively. This chapter concludes with a 'guide to guidance', which lists the recommended sources of information and guidance on these topics. If available, more specific guidance on these topics for each RET deployment will be presented in the following chapters 3-8.

2.2 Legislation, policy and SEA and EIA procedures

Legislation and policy

A wide range of legal and semi-legal obligations exist to stimulate renewable energy developers to reduce impacts of RET deployment on migratory species through strategic planning and/or applying appropriate mitigation or compensation measures. These obligations are incorporated in national legislation as well as in international conventions, treaties or Memoranda of Understanding.

Most countries have legislation that brings the construction and exploitation of renewable energy power plants (i.e. wind farms, hydropower dams, solar power stations, etc.) under a regime of an Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) taking into account existing national habitat and wildlife conservation legislation. It is a matter of how strict that conservation legislation is, for the overriding influence it has on:

- How RET deployment is placed in the landscape;
- What mitigation measures are applied;
- The decisions that no RET deployment can be constructed at certain places because of overriding conservation interests;
- The obligation to compensate negative impacts that cannot be mitigated.

An EIA procedure aims to find and develop the right siting of RET deployment so as to reduce the impact on landscape and biodiversity (in the broadest sense) to the minimum. Preferably, such an EIA is preceded by a Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) at a national or regional scale, which at an early stage aims to ensure that environmental and possibly other sustainability aspects are considered effectively in policy, plan and programme making and weighs the overall need to develop RET deployments (see below).

Currently, there are few international conservation instruments that have specific recommendations and actions formulated for their Parties on the possible impacts of RET deployment and migratory species, wind energy deployment being a notable exception. Most international important conservation instruments have more general obligations that ask for well-applied standardised SEA and EIA procedures (see below). Legislation specific for renewable energy deployment will be dealt with in the renewable energy deployment specific chapters.

SEA and EIA

Planning renewable energy deployment in a strategic manner over a wider geographical area is one of the most effective means of minimizing the impacts of renewable energy deployment on migratory species early on in the planning process. As many migratory species pass many countries or oceans international SEA is essential and yet to be developed. Strategic Environmental Assessments (SEAs) followed up with site specific Environmental Impact Assessments (EIAs) are the necessary tools to safeguard this and should be in place and applied.

The SEA is a means, by which environmental considerations are incorporated into policies, plans and programmes in order to achieve best possible outcome for all involved. This is particularly effective with respect to large scale planning of renewable energy power generation plants (i.e. wind farms, solar arrays, hydropower plants, etc.) as areas with least conflict can be identified proactively and sensitive areas can be avoided, well before reaching the individual project stage. The EIA process allows for the assessment of impacts at project level. Although project based and fairly late in the planning process this still provides a useful and essential mechanism for minimising impacts on migratory species.

Already at this early stage of the policy and decision-making, information on sensitive areas, migratory species presence and migration routes should be collected from available sources or, if not present, collected in a programme of field research over a period of at least one year to cover the full life cycle. This would also substantially help to avoid any later conflict with national and international conservation legislation if strictly protected species are possibly going to be killed or permanently disturbed by the renewable energy technology deployment.

The availability of migratory species data and presence of sensitive and/or protected areas before or during SEA and EIA procedures cannot be emphasised enough. Appropriate planning of renewable energy deployment, including available data on migratory species presence and migration routes, can already substantially reduce the problem of interactions between RET deployment and migratory species. Unfortunately, many developing countries may not have the resources to carry out detailed field research to collect relevant data. A facility should be made available that external funding can be provided to carry out basic survey work. For relative small projects, project developers should cover and embed expenses of base-line studies in the project budgets. For more extensive power plant construction programs this could

be facilitated by governments through National Development Agencies or international funds such as through the Global Environmental Facility (GEF). This should also work for countries that would like to replace and/or mitigate already existing dangerous facilities, e.g. wind farms with lattice towers.

More detailed information on the SEA and EIA process and its benefits for nature conservation can be obtained from RAMSAR Resolution X.17 '*Environmental Impact Assessment and Strategic Environmental Assessment: updated scientific and technical guidance, 2008*', the Bern Convention Technical Information document T-PVS/Inf15e_2013, titled '*Wind farms and birds: an updated analysis of the effects of wind farms on birds, and best practice guidance on integrated planning and impact assessment*' (Gove *et al.* 2013) and the AEWA Conservation Guidelines No. 11, titled '*Guidelines on how to avoid minimise or mitigate the impact of infrastructure developments and related disturbance affecting birds*' (Tucker & Treweek, 2008). These are helpful and practical documents providing steps necessary for planning and the application of SEA and EIA. Annex B of AEWA Guideline 11 lists international conventions and other legislation that requires impact assessments with related guidance in information documents.

2.3 Power lines

Renewable energy power generation plants need infrastructure to connect them to the energy grid. Especially where these connections exist as above ground power lines, impacts on migratory species are likely to occur. Aboveground power lines are one of the major causes of unnatural deaths for birds in large parts of the world, with an estimated many millions of victims of electrocution or collision each year. Also migratory bat species may be affected, especially the larger species, which may suffer from electrocution when using medium voltage power lines for roosting.

For detailed guidance on appropriate actions, both legislative as well as technical, best practice for constructing power lines, the state-of-the-art mitigation/avoiding measures and evaluation and monitoring practices we refer to AEWA/CMS '*Guidelines on how to avoid or mitigate impact of electricity power grids on migratory birds in the African-Eurasian region*' (Prinsen *et al.* 2011) and references therein. For detailed technical instructions on the construction of mitigation measures we refer to existing technical literature and recommend APLIC (2006, 2012), Haas *et al.* (2005) and Haas *et al.* (2008).

2.4 Transport infrastructure

Effects during the construction of renewable energy power generation plants, including access infrastructure, storage and work areas, generally reflect those for similar construction projects and can include mortality (e.g. road kills) as well as direct or indirect disturbance effects, increased access for poachers, habitat loss, habitat or migration route fragmentation and/or -degradation.

For detailed guidance we refer to AEWA Conservation Guidelines no. 11 'Guidelines on how to avoid, minimise or mitigate the impact of infrastructure developments and related disturbance affecting waterbirds' (Tucker & Treweek 2008) and 'Wildlife and Traffic: A European Handbook for Identifying Conflicts and Designing Solutions' (Luell *et al.* 2003).

2.5 Pre- and post construction monitoring

The accompanying review document 'Renewable energy technology deployment and migratory species: an overview' shows that for large parts of the world, notably Asia, Africa and South-America, limited research and monitoring data are available on the interaction of RET deployment and migratory species. Pre- and post construction monitoring for any new renewable energy development is key to collect more field data to get a better insight in the magnitude of the problem and the species involved in these larger regions.

It is important that pre- and post-construction surveys and monitoring adopt a standard and repeatable approach, consistent with methods used at other renewable energy developments. This will allow comparison between different renewable energy developments and thus the generation of more reliable estimates of impacts based on a range of studies. This in turn should help the more accurate prediction of impacts of future developments. Standardized post-construction monitoring is also needed to test the effectiveness of mitigation measures that are applied and test the predicted impacts. Finally, it should also assist cumulative impact assessments for particular species as the results of similar studies can be readily combined.

It is, therefore, critical that resources are allocated to implement pre- and post-construction monitoring and results of these monitoring programmes are reported or published for wider use.

RET deployment specific monitoring strategies (for instance monitoring of bat and bird casualties at wind farms) will be dealt with in the following chapters 3-8.

2.6 Recommended sources of information and guidance

This paragraph sums up recommended sources of information and guidance; these are the most recent and acknowledged guidelines on the relevant topic.

Strategic planning, legislation and SEA and EIA procedures

Burger, J. & M. Gochfeld,, 2012. A Conceptual Framework Evaluating Ecological Footprints and Monitoring Renewable Energy: Wind, Solar, Hydro, and Geothermal. *Energy and Power Engineering*, Vol. 4 No. 4, 2012, pp. 303-314. doi: 10.4236/epe.2012.44040.

Gove, B., R.H.W. Langston, A. McCluskie, J.D. Pullan & I. Scrase. Wind farms and birds: an updated analysis of the effects of wind farms on birds, and best practice guidance on integrated planning and impact assessment. RSPB/BirdLife in the UK. Technical document T-PVS/Inf(2013)15 to Bern Convention Bureau Meeting, Strasbourg, 17 September 2013.

Rajvanshi, A. 2008. Mitigation and compensation in environmental assessment. Chapter 17 in T.B Fischer, P. Gazzola, U. Jha-Thakur, I. Belcakova, and R. Aschemann, eds., Environmental Assessment Lecturers' Handbook, EC Penta Erasmus Mundus Project, February 2008. <http://www.twoeam-eu.net/handbook/05.pdf>.

Power lines

APLIC (Avian Power Line Interaction Committee), 2006. Suggested practices for avian protection on power lines: The state of the art in 2006. Edison Electric Institute, Washington, D.C. <http://www.aplic.org>

APLIC (Avian Power Line Interaction Committee), 2012. Mitigating bird collisions with power lines: the state of the art in 2012. Edison Electric Institute, Washington D.C. <http://www.aplic.org>

Haas, D., Nipkow, M., Fiedler, G., Schneider, R., Haas, W. & Schürenberg, B., 2005. Protecting birds from powerlines. Nature and Environment, No. 140. Council of Europe Publishing, Strassbourg.

Haas, D. & Schürenberg, B. (Eds), 2008. Bird electrocution; general principles and standards of bird protection at power lines (in German). Proceedings of the Conference 'Stromtod von Vögeln, Grundlagen und Standards zum Vogelschutz an Freileitungen' in Muhr am See, April 2006. Ökologie der Vögel, Band 26, Hamburg. <http://www.birdsandpowerlines.org>

Prinsen, H.A.M., J.J. Smallie, G.C. Boere & N. Pires (Compilers), 2011. Guidelines on how to avoid or mitigate impact of electricity power grids on migratory birds in the African-Eurasian region. CMS Technical Series No. XX, AEWA Technical Series No. XX, Bonn, Germany. http://www.cms.int/species/otis_tarda/meetings/MoS3/documents/GB_MoS3_Doc_07_4_3_Rev1_Guidelines_Infrastructure.pdf

Construction and infrastructure development

Luell, B., Bekker, G.J., Cuperus, R., Dufek, J., Fry, G., Hicks, C., Hlaváč, V., Keller, V., B., Rosell, C., Sangwine, T., Tørsløv, N., Wandall, B. le Maire, (Eds.) 2003. Wildlife and Traffic: A European Handbook for Identifying Conflicts and Designing Solutions.

Raab, R., Julius, E., Spakovszky, P. & Nagy, S. (2009): Guidelines for best practice on mitigating impacts of infrastructure development and afforestation on the Great Bustard. Prepared for the CMS Memorandum of Understanding on the conservation and management of the Middle-European population of the Great Bustard. BirdLife International. Brussels. http://www.cms.int/species/otis_tarda/meetings/MoS3/documents/GB_MoS3_Doc_07_4_3_Rev1_Guidelines_Infrastructure.pdf

Tucker, G. & Treweek, J. 2008. Guidelines on how to avoid, minimise or mitigate the impact of infrastructure developments and related disturbance affecting waterbirds. AEWA Conservation. Guidelines No. 11, AEWA Technical Series No. 26, Bonn, Germany.

http://www.unep-awa.org/publications/conservation_guidelines/pdf/cg_11.pdf

Renewable energy in general

Hötker, H., Thomsen, K.-M. & H. Jeromin, 2006. Impacts on biodiversity of exploitation of renewable energy sources: the example of birds and bats - facts, gaps in knowledge, demands for further research, and ornithological guidelines for the development of renewable energy exploitation. Michael-Otto-Institut imNABU, Bergenhusen.

3 Biomass energy

3.1 Main impacts

Bioenergy fuel production has the potential to negatively impact migratory wildlife, including birds and terrestrial mammals, primarily through alteration of habitat. The specific impacts to migratory wildlife from bioenergy fuel production are given below.

Fuel Crop Production

- Habitat loss for birds and terrestrial mammals due to conversion of natural habitats to croplands for bioenergy fuel production
- Reduction in food resources for birds and terrestrial mammals due to changes in habitat type

Construction

- Habitat loss to birds and terrestrial mammals due to construction of bioenergy conversion facilities.

3.2 Legislation, policy and SEA and EIA procedures

Legislation and Policy

There has been a great deal of interest in incorporating biomass energy into national energy portfolios in recent years. This is typically accomplished through the use of biofuels blended with traditional fossil-fuel based liquid transportation and heating fuels. However, relatively few policy initiatives or legislative actions have been implemented related to bioenergy fuel production and mitigating impacts to migratory wildlife. This is true also in tropical regions which have a high potential and interest in bioenergy production as well as significant and sensitive migratory wildlife and habitat resources. Examples of legislation and policy initiatives for two the world's largest producers of bioenergy, the United States and Brazil, are given in box 3.1.

Box 3.1 Examples of biofuel-related legislation in the Americas

United States

- American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009 – supports funding for a variety of alternative fuel and advanced vehicle technology grant programs, research and development initiatives, and fleet improvement programs.
- Emergency Economic Stabilization Act/Energy Improvement and Extension Act of 2008 – amends and extends existing biodiesel blending and production tax credits, extends existing alternative fuel excise tax, and extends the alternative fuelling infrastructure tax credit.
- Energy Independence and Security Act of 2007 – includes provisions to increase the supply of renewable alternative fuel sources by setting a mandatory Renewable Fuel Standard, which includes the use of cellulosic biofuels and biomass-based diesel fuels.

- Energy Policy Act of 2005 – established renewable electricity production tax credits for electricity generated from biomass crops that are planted exclusively for the purpose of being used to produce electricity.
- Farm Security and Rural Investment Act of 2002 – included significant incentives for biomass production and use and funded numerous projects from biomass production issues to improvements in refinery production processes.

Brazilian Biofuel Initiative

In a 105-page report (undated but 2009 or later) titled “The Future for Bioenergy and Biomass Brazil” by the Brazilian Association of Industry Biomass and Renewable Energy (ABIB), the words “wildlife” and “habitat” appeared only once. The Brazilian Biodiesel Production and Use Program (described in more detail below) also did not address impacts of biomass energy expansion on migratory wildlife or habitats. These examples demonstrate a lack of focus on the impacts to migratory wildlife and their habitats from biomass fuel crop cultivation and harvesting, including in ecologically diverse and sensitive tropical regions

Strategic Environmental Assessments (SEAs)

Strategic Environmental Assessments (SEAs) for bioenergy fuel production are an important tool for planning, managing, and mitigating the impacts of this renewable energy technology on migratory species. Because habitat loss can have a significant impact to migratory species, SEAs should be conducted for the purposes of planning and implementing large-scale bioenergy fuel production programs in the most environmentally- and socially-conscious manner practicable. An example of an SEA prepared biofuel production program is given in box 3.2.

Box 3.2. SEA biofuel program

The Government of Brazil in 2004 introduced a Biodiesel Production and Use Program (PNPB) which integrates the desire for energy security with rural development goals. The PNPB instituted a series of economic incentives, financing sources, and blend ratio requirements for the domestic production of biodiesel. One of the primary features of the PNPB is that it requires biodiesel refiners to purchase biomass crop (primarily palm oil) from small family farms, thereby encouraging renewable energy development and rural economic development (Langevin 2010). While successful in meeting these goals, the PNPB did not include a Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) of the growing biodiesel economy.

In response to this gap in knowledge, an SEA was proposed in 2011 to examine the possibilities of sustainably expanding palm oil biomass production in northern Brazil (de Carvalho 2011). The objectives of the SEA were to evaluate the expansion of palm oil production in order to define sustainable palm oil development thereby assisting with planning and decision-making. The SEA used a literature review and desktop spatial data analysis to identify degraded lands that would be preferable for palm oil expansion rather than more ecologically valuable habitats.

Environmental Impact Assessments (EIAs)

Environmental Impact Assessments are a crucial tool in determining the impacts of biomass fuel cultivation and harvesting practices to migratory wildlife and their habitats. EIAs for biomass fuel production should focus on the species that are primarily impacted by biomass energy developments, primarily grassland and forest bird species and terrestrial mammals. With regard to migratory birds, EIAs should aim to determine the importance of a potential project area for migratory birds, with respect to availability of resources (food, water, cover, breeding, etc.) and how the resources may be affected by the habitat changes entailed by the project. The presence of threatened or endangered species in the project area at any time during the annual life cycle of the species should also be considered as part of the EIA. The EIA should also identify potential mitigation measures that could help to lessen the impact to migratory species from the habitat changes that are expected to result from the project.

3.3 Best practice of mitigation

Many of the negative effects can be reduced or avoided through good practice in siting and sustainable land and forestry management, including planting strategies, the timing and method of harvesting and choice of crops. The principles of good practice listed below provide key points of good practice for biomass energy production, which could be exercised to minimise adverse impacts on migratory species and maximise benefits. For further information, practitioners need to refer to more detailed published guidance.

Siting

- Target biofuel production to degraded and abandoned cropland to avoid converting high-quality native habitat to biofuel production fields (Fargione et al. 2010).

Designing, sustainable land and forestry management

- Use native species rather than introduced species and/or row crops. This increases habitat heterogeneity and results in increased avian and insect biodiversity (Murray and Best 2003, Fargione et al. 2009, Fargione et al. 2010, Hartman 2011, Robertson et al. 2011).
- Use rotational or strip harvesting to improve species diversity. Examples can be found for improvement of biodiversity of migratory bird species in switchgrass fields by providing both tallgrass and shortgrass habitats (Murray and Best 2003, Roth et al. 2005, Bies et al. 2006).
- Target biofuel production to degraded and abandoned cropland to avoid converting high-quality native habitat to biofuel production fields (Fargione et al. 2010).
- Use biofuels that do not require additional land resources, such as wood/crop residues, animal/municipal wastes, cover crops, and algae (Fargione *et al.* 2009).

3.4 Pre- and post construction monitoring

Population surveys are critical in forming a basis of understanding of how biomass fuel cultivation can affect migratory species, primarily birds and terrestrial mammals. Baseline population studies should identify which species use habitats proposed for biofuel cultivation and how diversity and abundance of bird and mammal species changes with changing habitat, as well as seasonally based on crop harvest times. To fully characterize the effects of bioenergy crop cultivation on migratory, three habitat types should be surveyed: native habitats (i.e. prairies or forests), low-impact biomass crop (i.e., native grass or native tree species) cultivation areas, and high-impact biomass crop (i.e., non-native row crops) cultivation areas. Surveys in cultivation areas should be conducted pre- and post- harvest to identify changes in bird and mammal populations under different conditions of food and cover availability. Surveys should also be timed to coincide with different periods in the annual species lifecycle, specifically migration, breeding, and overwintering.

Ideally, population studies should be conducted before native prairie or grassland habitat is converted into biofuel cultivation areas. Surveys should quantify the diversity and abundance of migratory species, as well as identify whether the area hosts any threatened or endangered species. These types of surveys should inform siting decisions for biomass cultivation fields, with impact areas being those which provide the least valuable habitat to migratory birds, mammals, and rare species.

Surveys conducted in active biomass cultivation fields can serve to identify whether management actions could increase the value of the habitat for migratory birds or mammals. To achieve this goal, prudent management actions could include those discussed in the above section..

3.5 Recommended sources of information and guidance

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- The Heinz Center and The Pinchot Institute. 2009. Ensuring Forest Sustainability in the Development of Wood Biofuels and Bioenergy: Implications for Federal and States Policies.
- UNEP/GEF/UNIDO for biofuels, see: http://www.unido.org/fileadmin/user_media_upgrade/What_we_do/Topics/Energy_access/Guidelines_for_Decision_Makers_FINAL_WEB_20022014.pdf

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- Murray, L. D. and L. B. Best. 2003. Short-term bird response to harvesting switchgrass for biomass in Iowa. *The Journal of Wildlife Management* 67(3):611-21.
- Robertson, B. A., P. J. Doran, E. R. Loomis, J. R. Robertson, and D. W. Schemske. 2011. Avian use of perennial biomass feedstocks as post-breeding and migratory stopover habitat. *PLoS ONE* 6(3):e16941.
- Roth, A. M., D. W. Sample, C. A. Ribic, L. Paine, D. J. Undersander, and G. A. Bartelt. 2005. Grassland bird response to harvesting switchgrass as a biomass energy crop. *Biomass and Bioenergy* 28:490-498.

4 Geothermal energy

4.1 Main impacts

The various geothermal resource technologies differ in many respects, but they raise a common set of ecological issues concerning migratory species. The (potential) effects of the development and deployment of geothermal energy technologies on migratory species can be classified under one of the following headings:

Construction and decommissioning

1. Habitat loss for birds and mammals due to construction of geothermal power plants and infrastructures.
2. Habitat degradation for birds, mammals and fish due to effects on surface water quality (emission of wastes).
3. Habitat fragmentation for birds and mammals due to infrastructures and other structures (fences, buildings etc.).
4. Disturbance of birds and mammals due to construction activities.
5. Mortality of birds and mammals due to vehicle strikes.

Operation

1. Disturbance of birds and mammals due to noise, light and thermal disturbance.
2. Habitat degradation for birds, mammals and fish due to effects on surface water quality (emission of wastes), temperature and quantity (abstraction of water).

Most of the impact identified can be minimised by mitigation measures and monitoring along with proper environmental management procedures. The effects of transmission and/or transportation of the generated energy are not incorporated in the above enumeration, but are discussed in chapter 2.

4.2 Legislation, policy and SEA and EIA procedures

For a general description of legislation, policy and the importance of and guidelines for Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) and Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) we refer to paragraph 2.2.

Legislation and Policy

The institutional framework, legislation and legal constraints are borderlines to delimit development of geothermal deployment, especially in view of protection of migratory species. There is no legislation or policy specific for geothermal energy technology development and wildlife (migratory species). The legislative and regulatory framework for geothermal energy on a global scale and even within for instance the EU(http://geodh.eu/wp-content/uploads/2012/11/K4RES-H_Geothermal_Regulations.pdf) is very diverse. The relevant national legislation is spread throughout the mining, energy, environmental, water management and geological acts, sometimes in a contradicting way.

There are several reports presenting proposals for improving the regulatory framework for geothermal electricity in general, e.g. <http://www.geoelec.eu/wp-content/uploads/2011/09/D4.1-Report-on-Geothermal-Regulations.pdf> and <http://www.geoelec.eu/wp-content/uploads/2013/11/D6.2-Final-Report.pdf>.

Strategic Environmental Assessments

SEAs on large spatial scales can help to detect and avoid severe environmental impacts of geothermal energy developments. Although some countries have developed SEAs to address renewable energy development, these are rarely specific to geothermal energy. Some examples, without a special focus on migratory species, of general strategic geothermal planning are described in Box 4.1.

Box 4.1 Examples of strategic geothermal planning

USA: The United States, which possesses the world's largest installed geothermal energy capacity (Geothermal Energy Association 2013), has developed a Programmatic Environmental Impact Statement (PEIS) for Geothermal Leasing (BLM and USFS 2008) for federal lands in the western portion of the country. The PEIS evaluated various alternatives for allocating lands as being closed or available for leasing and analysed stipulations to protect sensitive resources. The PEIS also described the proposed amendments for federal land use plans to adopt recommended allocations, stipulations, procedures, and best management practices. http://permanent.access.gpo.gov/LPS123922/LPS123922/www.blm.gov/wo/st/en/prog/energy/geothermal/geothermal_nationwide/Documents/Final_PEIS.html

Peru: The Master Plan for Development of Geothermal Energy in Peru was developed on behalf of the Peruvian Ministry of Energy and Mines (Japan International Co-operation Agency 2013). This plan does not offer an explicit assessment of the environmental impacts of geothermal energy development in Peru. However, it does take into consideration minimization of deleterious environmental impacts by identifying environmentally sensitive areas. It also identifies areas for improvement, such as training of government agency staff in the environmental impact assessment process for geothermal energy projects.

Iceland: The Icelandic Government decided in 1997 to develop a Master Plan for all potential power projects in geothermal (and hydro). All proposed projects should be evaluated and categorized on various aspects but also on the basis of the impact that the power developments would have on the environment. The work was organized by a Steering committee of 16 members and some 50 experts were nominated for four working groups (including wildlife experts). It was not supposed to go into the details required for environmental impact assessment (EIA), but still finding those projects that are best suited for developments based on energy production, economy and protection of the nature. Experts assessed the potential impacts of the various proposed power projects on flora and fauna. They reviewed existing data for each proposed project and divided them by quality into three categories; good (A), fair (B) and unsatisfactory (C) and suggested several data collection tasks in order to improve the knowledge base for the project areas. To rank the proposed projects the working group considered several ways of carrying out the evaluation and selected eventually a three step procedure using multi criteria analysis. The first step was to assess site values, then in the second step the impact of the development was evaluated and finally in the third step the proposed projects were ranked from worst to best choice from environmental-cultural heritage point of view using analytical hierarchical process using site values and predicted impacts. <http://www.rammaaetlun.is/english>

Environmental Impact Assessments (EIAs)

In the context of migratory species, EIA's for geothermal energy developments should specifically focus on:

1. Migratory species: birds, mammals and fish.
2. The function and importance of the impact area for migrating species: are there frequently used movement paths, exceptional concentrations of migratory species, important breeding or feeding grounds of migratory species or spatial bottle-necks (narrow corridors).
3. Main impacts of geothermal energy technology deployment on migratory species: see paragraph 4.1.
4. Measures to avoid, minimize or reduce significant adverse impacts of geothermal energy technology deployment on migratory species: see paragraph 4.3

Box 4.2 Example of EIA for geothermal technology deployment

USA: The United States Departments of Interior and Agriculture have issued a Final Programmatic Environmental Impact Statement (PEIS) for Geothermal Leasing in the Western United States (2008) that outlines the general impacts and environmental concerns, including impacts to migratory wildlife, from geothermal energy development. The principles outlined in the PEIS can be applied generally to any EIA for future geothermal energy development.

http://permanent.access.gpo.gov/LPS123922/LPS123922/www.blm.gov/wo/st/en/prog/energy/geothermal/geothermal_nationwide/Documents/Final_PEIS.html

4.3 Best practice of mitigation

To determine whether the impact can be avoided or mitigated, what action can be taken, how effective the mitigation measure will be, and the cost-effectiveness of the measures, project- and site-specific factors must be evaluated. Develop a final set of mitigation measures for the project in consultation with the appropriate federal resource management agencies and stakeholders. Conduct these consultations early in the project development process and preferably prior to final project siting and design. This section discusses mitigation measures, based on the discussion of impacts described in §4.1.

(<http://teeic.indianaffairs.gov/er/geothermal/mitigation/eco/index.htm>).

Siting

- Avoid development in sensitive or priority migratory habitat by conducting pre-development site-specific assessments of potential migratory species to be affected and the importance of the area to those species.

Design

- Design pipeline corridors in an appropriate way. Avoid blocking animal migration routes, by burying pipes underground or elevating them to allow free movement of animals.
- Minimize habitat loss by directional drilling techniques.

- Avoid wildlife drinking geothermal wastewater by separated geothermal fluids isolated in securely fenced high density polyethylene (HDPE) lined sump ponds, prior to disposal through re-injection back into the reservoir.
- Supply potable water to wildlife at various points so that they are not tempted to drink geothermal wastewater particularly during dry weather conditions.
- Fence the waste brine conditioning ponds.
- Employment of injection technology at geothermal reservoir wells to reduce land subsidence and the contamination of local water bodies with wastewater.
- Cooling by re-injection of water and / or recycling. Cooling by re-injection of water and / or recycling.

Mitigation in operational phase

- Avoid wastage of water resources and harvest water during rainfall.

4.4 Pre- and post construction monitoring

Pre-construction monitoring / Baseline study

Monitoring efforts should be focused on siting of geothermal energy facilities with regard to land use by migratory wildlife species (birds, mammals, fish) especially threatened and endangered species. Determine the species at risk and gather information on which the prediction of the extent of the impact on birds can be based. Preconstruction monitoring should involve studies of the abundance, dispersal, activity and movement patterns of (sensitive) species. The results of general presence/absence and diversity and abundance surveys of migratory wildlife should inform siting decisions of geothermal energy facilities. The monitoring period should at least include all stages of the life cycle of the relevant species, which generally means a minimum monitoring period of 12 months.

Post construction monitoring

- Monitoring of populations of relevant migratory fauna
- Monitoring of water bodies (quantity, quality and temperature, flows) that are impacted (by abstraction and / or waste)

4.5 Recommended sources of information and guidance

Bureau of Land Management and United States Forest Service. 2008. Final Programmatic Environmental Impact Statement for Geothermal Leasing in the Western United States. <http://teeic.indianaffairs.gov/er/geothermal/mitigation/eco/index.html>

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- Japan International Cooperation Agency. 2013. Master plan for the development of geothermal energy in Peru. Final Report. Prepared for the Peruvian Ministry of Energy and Mines.
- Kagel, A., D. Bates, and K. Gawell. 2007. A guide to geothermal energy and the environment. Geothermal Energy Association.
- Matek, B. 2013. Geothermal Power: International Market Overview. Washington, D.C.: Geothermal Energy Association.
- Northrup, J. M. And G. Wittemyer. 2012. Characterising the impacts of emerging energy development on wildlife, with an eye towards mitigation. *Ecology Letters* 16:112-125.3.0 Hydropower.

5 Hydropower

5.1 Main impacts

The potential impacts of hydropower energy on ecological systems that provide habitat for migratory animals include:

- loss of migrating aquatic organisms, such as fish in operating hydro power-station turbines,
- changes in hydrological regimes on affected waterways,
- habitat loss through disturbance or displacement arising from reservoir creation,
- in-stream barriers to the migration of aquatic organisms, such as fish,
- poor water quality related to changes in flow regimes,
- sedimentation in waterways upstream of hydro energy facilities,

Migratory fish, birds, mammals and reptiles have the potential to be impacted by hydropower. The main impacts of hydropower energy on migratory species are summarized below for the construction, operational and decommissioning phases of projects. For a detailed description of the impacts of hydropower energy developments on the environment and migratory species we refer to the review document by Kumar (2011).

Construction and decommissioning

1. Mortality of fish, birds and reptiles through poaching, potential chemical spills and drainage of wetlands.
2. Habitat loss for fish, birds, mammals and reptiles.
3. Obstruction of movement for fish, aquatic mammals and freshwater turtles.
4. Habitat degradation for fish and freshwater turtles through changes in hydrology to areas downstream.
5. Habitat alteration for fish through changes in erosion and sedimentation downstream.

Operation

1. Direct mortality of fish and potentially turtles from turbines as well as changed water pressure as organisms pass through hydro power stations.
2. Habitat loss of shallow, fast flowing riverine habitats, riparian edges and fish spawning areas where hydro electric dams are constructed.
3. Habitat gain through the creation of large, deep water reservoirs for water storage.
4. Obstruction of movement by physical structure built across migration pathways for fish, aquatic mammals and freshwater turtles. Some amelioration through provision of fish ladders and lifts may be possible.
5. Seasonal hydrological and water temperature changes, including loss of fish spawning sites and spawning temperature triggers.
6. Habitat degradation downstream from altered water flows, leading to direct impact on fish and waterbirds, as well as impacts on the and prey of fish,

turtles, aquatic mammals and waterbirds. Alteration and also occur to riparian vegetation and sandbanks changing the geomorphology of the lower reaches of rivers, leading to a loss of nesting opportunities for fish, birds, aquatic mammals and reptiles (e.g. turtle breeding sites).

7. Proliferation of alien species.
8. Accumulation of toxic runoff from catchments in hydro electric reservoirs, leading to increased bio-accumulation in organisms that use the reservoir.
9. Reduced flooding rates downstream, leading to less frequent fish, turtle and waterbird breeding events.

5.2 Legislation, policy and SEA and EIA procedures

Legislation and policy

The legislation and policy in hydropower development and maintenance in relation to wildlife varies substantially among different continents and countries. Some examples of directives and policies are provided hereafter to underline this.

In Europe, the Water Framework Directive (2000) provides a legislative approach to managing and protecting water based on natural geographical and hydrological formations (river basins). One of the objectives of the Water Framework Directive (WFD) is that water will achieve good ecological and chemical status, to protect human health, water supply, natural ecosystems and biodiversity, which includes migratory species. For hydropower developments, the implementation of articles 5 and 6 of the WFD include the review of environmental impacts of human activity and guidelines for monitoring of surface water status.

The WFD is a framework for EU water policy and is complemented by other legislation regulating specific aspects of water use listed below.

- The Groundwater Directive (2006)
- The Environmental Quality Standards Directive (2008)
- Two Commission Decisions (2005 and 2008) on ecological status established a register of almost 1,500 sites included in a calibration exercise to allow for comparison of different countries' environmental standards, and published the results. This included waterway and related ecological standards

Canada is currently the world's third largest hydropower generator with more than 75GW of installed capacity, and there is scope to more than double its existing capacity. The Canadian Government's Budget Implementation Act (Bill C-38), enacted in June 2012, is intended to streamline the review process for all types of projects. While the Act is also intended to strengthen environmental protection, environmental groups in Canada hold different opinions. Some measures found in Bill C-38 are already in place, although other implementation policies and regulations are yet to be developed. For example, policies and regulations associated with changes to the Fisheries Act still need to be made. Until all measures have been fully

implemented, it will be difficult to discern if the Bill has improved approval processes for hydropower developers.

US policy-makers face the need to grow the overall share of renewable energy and manage an ageing generation and transmission infrastructure. As of March 2012, 29 States and the District of Columbia and Puerto Rico have Renewable Portfolio Standards (RPSs). Each state sets its own targets and designates which technologies will be eligible. While hydropower is recognized as a fully renewable resource, its inclusion as an eligible technology varies from state to state. Where RPSs include hydropower, there are often conditions on size, location, or age that limit its eligibility. However, there has been a trend in recent years towards more inclusive treatment of hydropower. In January 2013, the Hydropower Regulatory Efficiency Act was unanimously passed as a policy to promote the growth of mini and run-of-river hydropower through streamlining the permitting process for such types of hydropower. Also in January 2013, the American Taxpayer Relief Act included a one-year extension of the Production Tax Credit (PTC) for renewable energy development. Environmental concerns related to fish passage has led to the removal of some dams in the US. This often involves deciding on trade-offs between ecosystem restoration and the current socio-economic benefits of the projects.

In Latin America, hydropower is the main source of power generation, accounting for roughly 65% of all electricity generated. Altogether, Latin America's installed hydropower capacity totalled 153 GW at the end of 2010. South America offers a diverse picture on renewable energy development, with some countries leading, and others still reliant mostly on fossil fuels. Several countries are undergoing assessments of potential and policy reforms. Paraguay, for example, undertook an assessment of national hydropower potential throughout 2012 to identify project locations. Argentina has completed its 2030 Plan including an Energy Policy Main Axis focusing on hydropower and nuclear with the goal to reduce gas in the electricity market from 52% to 30%. Similarly Chile published its National Energy Strategy 2012-2030, which intends to increase the market share of hydropower from the current 34% to 48%.

Over the next 10 years, electricity consumption in Brazil is expected to grow at an average rate of 4.5% per year from 443 TWh in 2011 to 736 TWh in 2021. Industry is expected to account for around 50% of the country's electricity consumption in 2021. To meet this additional demand and to ensure national energy security, the Brazilian Government has been promoting the construction of new hydropower. Hydropower currently generates 80% of Brazil's electricity but there remains significant untapped potential.

Colombia's energy policy is defined by the National Energy Plan 2006-2025, and the Integral Energy Strategy (2003-2020). Within the planned and contracted generation expansion of 4GW through 2021, 3GW will be made up of hydropower. Recent studies indicate that wind power is available when Colombia's energy needs are

highest; that is, during the dry seasons and in the early evenings. Policymakers are therefore investigating the joint operation of wind and hydropower plants in some basins and the creation of smart grids with storage hydropower backing up wind power and other renewables (IHA 2013).

SEA

A Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) enables a framework to be set to identify the least desirable siting options and rule them out in the early stages of the planning process for a particular type of development. An SEA can be undertaken for both project implementation and project operation, and include evaluation of associated works and infrastructure, scoping of cumulative impacts, the role and capacity of third parties, and impacts associated with primary suppliers, using appropriate expertise and with no significant gaps (International Hydropower Association 2010). Baseline data must be collected to establish and document the pre-project condition of the affected environment, against which post-project changes can be compared. For hydropower developments the SEA process is described in detail in International Hydropower Association (2010). Some examples of strategic hydropower planning are described in Box 5.1

Box 5.1 Examples of strategic hydropower planning

Mekong River: The Mekong River Commission is an inter-governmental river basin organisation that provides the institutional framework to implement the 1995 Mekong Agreement for regional cooperation in the Mekong Basin. The SEA seeks to identify the potential opportunities and risks by assessing alternative Mekong hydropower development strategies (International Centre for Environmental Management 2010).

Vietnam: The International Centre for the Environmental Management prepared a pilot SEA that focused on the potential effects of planned hydropower on biodiversity. The pilot provided a methodology and set of tools for assessing biodiversity effects of hydropower at the strategic level. It also identified geographic areas and groups of projects in the 6th PDP which require more intensive appraisal and mitigation to ensure their sustainability and minimise their negative impacts on biodiversity and on the economy (International Centre for the Environmental Management 2007).

United States: The United States Department of Energy commissioned an assessment of energy potential from new stream-reach hydroelectric development (Kao *et al.* 2014). This assessment used key technical, environmental and socioeconomic characteristics to identify opportunities for new hydropower development in 3 million streams. The products developed through this assessment are designed to be flexible so that they can be customized to meet the analytical needs of individual stakeholders.

EIA

An Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) is important to distinguish the impacts a specific hydropower development will have on the local environment and to identify mitigation strategies. In the context of migratory species, EIA's for hydropower

developments should specifically focus on the importance of the area for migrating fish as well as also aquatic mammals and freshwater turtles. The impacts on the migratory pathways of diadromous fish species should especially be examined, and the EIA should include a plan for mitigating the impacts to migratory fish species and other migratory wildlife that will be affected by the deployment of the technology. In addition, the possible implications of altered flow regimes (often driven by varying power demand) for flooding and wetland filling downstream of hydropower dams must be investigated as this can affect significant breeding concentrations of both migratory fish and birds. The possible barrier effects and detrimental effects on habitats of migratory species should be considered. Sample guidelines have been provided by Energy Sector Management Assistance Program (2012).

Box 5.2. Examples of EIA hydropower planning

Americas: The construction of new hydroelectric dams in North America has stalled in recent decades and many older dams have been or are being decommissioned. Conversely, this renewable energy technology is growing in Latin America, particularly in the Amazon River basin, which has enormous potential for hydropower development. In Brazil, EIAs are required by law for projects which may negatively impact wildlife, including hydroelectric power facilities. Robust and defensible EIAs for hydropower projects should include an analysis of alternatives to the proposed project, including a “no-action” alternative in which no project is constructed, as well as an analysis of the existing environmental resources and the expected impacts to those resources as a result of the project. There are many examples of EIAs that have been conducted for hydropower facilities in the United States, which use this model. EIAs for hydropower facilities should focus on impacts to aquatic resources in the affected river system and terrestrial resources that will be affected due to permanent flooding or submersion of formerly upland habitats. The impacts on the migratory pathways of diadromous fish species should especially be examined, and the EIA should include a plan for mitigating the impacts to migratory fish species and other migratory wildlife that will be affected by the deployment of the technology

5.3 Best practice of mitigation

Planning

Siting

Impacts to habitat due to siting will vary greatly depending on the location of the hydropower development. Hydropower projects have the potential to fragment and transform aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems, alter downstream flows and alter natural habitats, migratory patterns, floodplain ecosystems, downstream fisheries and natural flood cycles that may affect biodiversity. The most effective way to avoid adverse effects of hydropower developments on migratory species of all taxa, is to plan hydropower energy away from critical or sensitive habitat on, adjacent to or downstream from the development. Large scale facilities have the potential to

eliminate unique valley bottom habitats which may represent critical habitat for threatened species (Office of Investment Policy, 2012).

Furthermore it can be recommended to improve existing hydropower facilities and design new facilities to account for and minimize injury and mortality related to pressure changes in migratory fish during turbine passage (Brown et al. 2012).

Mitigation

Construction and decommissioning

There are many mitigation measures to reduce or avoid impacts on migratory species from the construction of hydropower developments. The following are some examples.

- Siting to avoid critical habitat loss
- Not placing large dams on the main-stem of a river system thereby permitting large-scale migration of river-dependent fauna
- Avoid siting in areas characterised by high erosion rates
- Rescue and replanting of protected plant species from terrestrial habitat eliminated by reservoir creation
- Establishment and maintenance of minimum flows in the river to meet downstream needs of the ecosystem and to provide for the migration needs of aquatic organisms
- Consider and design effective fishways or fish ladders to allow passage of migratory fish species past dams
- Improvements in turbine, spillway, and over flow design have proven to be highly successful in minimising fish and other aquatic organism mortality and injury
- Consider restoring or mitigating the impacts of reservoirs on downstream ecosystems through managed floods and a program of enhanced 'environmental flows', with these flows considered of equal status to power generation and irrigation water flows.
- Periodic releases from large reservoirs may be useful in increasing sediment and nutrient flows to downstream habitats in riverine environments
- Compensate for terrestrial habitat eliminated by reservoir creation by establishing managed habitat elsewhere (i.e. environmental offsets)
- Revegetation and conservation of forested areas in upstream catchment areas can reduce sedimentation in reservoirs, prolonging their operating life and maintaining their capacity.
- Time construction to avoid sensitive periods (e.g. during key breeding and migration seasons for aquatic organisms).

As a specific example, a construction period was limited to the 4-month non-nesting period in a year to protect reproductive activities of large resident raptors. (Okutadami & Otori Expansion Hydropower Project, Japan).

For detailed guidelines for the mitigation of the construction and decommissioning of hydropower facilities refer to: International Energy Agency 2006a, 2006b, 2012, and Office of Investment 2012.

Operation

The following has been adapted from International Energy Agency 2006b.

Operational phase mitigation focuses on key issues, with those most relevant to migratory species including:

- Biological diversity
- Hydrological regimes
- Fish migration and river navigation
- Water quality
- Reservoir impoundment

Biological diversity – The measures below are critical to ensure that the impacts of hydropower development on biological diversity are mitigated.

- Understanding the influence of the project on the surrounding environment and selection and implementation of appropriate conservation measures based on the EIA
- Regeneration of vegetation by planting
- Conservation of a river ecosystem by maintaining minimum flow levels to mimic natural hydrological regimes
- Implementing measures to prevent invasion of alien species throughout the duration of projects
- Monitoring after the measures are implemented to evaluate their effectiveness and adaptive management informed by monitoring results.

Hydrological regimes - The measures below are important to mitigate the potentially detrimental impacts of changes in hydrological regime.

- Maintaining river flow rates at levels needed to maintain the ecological function of the river and its associated habitats, many of which may be important for migratory aquatic animals.
- Increase flow rates at fish passageway entry points to deter downstream fish passage through turbines and to encourage downward migration (Fjelstad *et al.* 2012).
- Reservoir management that considers the requirements of any migratory species that utilise the habitats created by the reservoir (e.g. seasonal passage of fish or waterbirds)
- The judicious use of weirs, designed not to obstruct fish passage, to create areas of permanent water in rivers affected by reduced flows from the operation of hydropower dams, thereby creating refuge habitat at critical times of year or during drought for migratory and other aquatic species.
- Monitoring after the measures are undertaken to evaluate their effectiveness and adaptive management in response to monitoring findings.

Fish migration and river navigation - The measures below are will promote fish migration and reduce mortality rates and damage to fish which pass through hydraulic turbines or spillways.

- Installation of artificial fish passageways to reconnect fragmented rivers and restore fish movements. Installation and monitoring should account for both upstream and downstream migration movements, species migration routes, river flow rates and discharge before and after a facility, spatial distribution of habitats, behavior of species, population recruitment dynamics, and life history stages (Agostinho et al. 2011, Godinho and Kynard 2009, and Pompeu et al. 2012).
- Installation of measures to attract and direct fish away from the intake to hydro power stations (acoustic type, mercury lamp, sodium lamp).
- When designing fish passageways, fish biologists and engineers should collaborate on passageway design to solve fish passage problems (Godinho and Kynard 2009).

Water quality - The following are to be implemented to improve water quality in reservoirs and downstream areas.

- Temperature control considering the growth of fish by installing selective water intake facilities
- Reduction in water turbidity by selecting the operation of dams and constructing bypass tunnels
- Eliminate the occurrence of abnormal odour or taste of the water in reservoirs by installing full thickness aeration and circulation facilities.

Reservoir impoundment - The measures below can mitigate environmental impacts relating to impoundment of reservoirs.

- Reductions in the scale of regulating reservoir levels and preservation of wetlands by maintaining appropriate water levels in reservoirs
- Environmental research to explore the feasibility and consequences of alternative reservoir water level regimes, with managed levels reflecting optimum environmental outcomes.

5.4 Pre- and post construction monitoring

Monitoring requires the collection, analysis, interpretation and reporting of specific physical and biological information. Preconstruction monitoring is essential to collate data on the ecology of a site to provide baseline data and is part of the planning process. This baseline data can be used to undertake an EIA and generate mitigation measures for the project. Post construction monitoring should be undertaken in a way where the results can be compared to baseline data and to assess if mitigation measures are effective.

Pre-construction monitoring / Baseline study

Fish – Monitoring should aim to collate information that is needed to predict the environmental impacts of the hydropower development and provide the necessary baseline data for long-term monitoring. Preconstruction monitoring should be undertaken over a minimum two year period and involve studies on the following:

- Water quality
- Aquatic habitat
- Aquatic macroinvertebrates
- Fish communities (abundance and behaviour)
- Fish breeding areas (upstream from hydropower facility) and non-breeding areas (up- or downstream of facility)

Physical Environmental Monitoring – A range of physical attributes of waterways should be monitored and/or modelled from historical catchment and climate data as part of baseline investigations for assessing environmental impacts and for monitoring the impacts of the operational phase of hydropower projects. These include:

- Water depth and velocity
- Sediment parameters
- Shoreline erosion and, where relevant, peat breakdown
- Sediment deposition upstream and downstream of the hydropower facility
- Dissolved oxygen and water temperature, including pre-construction and operational seasonal patterns
- Total dissolved gas pressure both upstream and downstream of the hydropower facility.

Post-construction monitoring

Fish – Post construction monitoring of fish should continue for at least several years, and ideally on an ongoing basis. It should use the same methods, sites and timing of sampling as the preconstruction monitoring. In this way, a monitoring program will be integrated and consistent, providing a more efficient, comparable and statistically powerful assessment of project impacts.

Guidelines

For detailed guidelines on aquatic monitoring of hydropower developments refer to Lewis et. al. (2013). Furthermore it should be stressed that the standards derived by the “World Commission on Dams” framework need to be applied.

5.5 Recommended sources of information and guidance

The following resources are the most recent and acknowledged guidelines on environmental impacts and mitigation of hydropower energy.

- Energy Sector Management Assistance Program, 2012. Sample Guidelines: Cumulative Environmental Impact Assessment for Hydropower Projects in Turkey. Ankara, Turkey.
- International Centre for Environmental Management, 2007. Pilot Strategic Environmental Assessment in the Hydropower Sub-sector, Vietnam. Final Report: Biodiversity Impacts of the hydropower components of the 6th Power Development Plan. Prepare for The World Bank, MONRE, MOI & EVN, Hanoi, Vietnam.
- International Centre for Environmental Management, 2010. MRC Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) of hydropower on the Mekong mainstream, Hanoi, Viet Nam.
- International Energy Agency, 2006a. Implementing agreement for hydropower technologies and programmes - Annex III, Hydropower and environment: present context and guidelines for future actions, Volume I: Summary and recommendations.
- International Energy Agency, 2006b. Implementing agreement for hydropower technologies and programmes - Annex VIII, Hydropower good practice: environmental mitigation measures and benefits. New Energy Foundation, Japan.
- International Energy Agency, 2012. Technology Roadmap – Hydropower. International Energy Agency, Paris, France.
- International Hydropower Association, 2010. Hydropower Sustainability Assessment Protocol.
- Lewis, F.J.A., A.J. Harwood, C. Zyla, K.D. Ganshorn, and T. Hatfield. 2013. Long term Aquatic Monitoring Protocols for New and Upgraded Hydroelectric Projects. DFO Can. Sci. Advis. Sec. Res. Doc. 2012/166. ix + 88p.
- Kumar, A., T. Schei, A. Ahenkorah, R. Caceres Rodriguez, J.-M. Devernay, M. Freitas, D. Hall, A. Killingtveit, Z. Liu, 2011: Hydropower. In IPCC Special Report on Renewable Energy Sources and Climate Change Mitigation [O. Edenhofer, R. Pichs-Madruga, Y. Sokona, K. Seyboth, P. Matschoss, S. Kadner, T. Zwickel, P. Eickemeier, G. Hansen, S. Schlomer, C. von Stechow (eds)], Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA.
- Office of Investment, 2012. Overseas Private Investment Corporation – Environmental Guidance – Renewable Energy – Hydropower.
- World Commission on Dams framework: <http://www.internationalrivers.org/resources/dams-and-development-a-new-framework-for-decision-making-3939>

6 Ocean energy

6.1 Main impacts

Development of ocean energy projects within the coastal and marine environment has the potential to impact migratory fish, sea turtles, birds, marine mammals, and crustaceans and squid. Impacts to these species groups include habitat loss and degradation, mortality, physiological effects, and obstruction to movement. These are explained in detail below.

Construction

- Habitat loss for fish, sea turtles, marine mammals, and crustaceans and squid
- Habitat degradation for fish, sea turtles, birds, marine mammals, and crustaceans and squid
- Direct mortality for birds, sea turtles, and marine mammals

Operation

- Direct mortality for fish, sea turtles, birds, and marine mammals
- Habitat loss for fish, sea turtles, birds, and crustaceans and squid
- Habitat degradation for fish, sea turtles, birds, marine mammals, and crustaceans and squid
- Obstruction for movement for fish, sea turtles, and marine mammals.

6.2 Legislation, policy and SEA and EIA procedures

Legislation and policy

Countries with high potential for development of ocean energy technology have established ocean policies that identify overarching values, goals, and strategies for management and use of their ocean resources. These policy initiatives often include the goal of developing renewable ocean energy within the territorial waters of the country. See box 6.1 for examples of ocean policy initiatives for two countries with a high potential for renewable ocean energy development: Canada and the US.

Box 6.1 Examples of marine wildlife legislation Americas

Canada's Oceans Act, passed in 1997, mandates that the national strategy of ocean use will be based on the principles of sustainable development and the integrated management of activities in coastal and marine waters. The Oceans Act calls for the Minister of Fisheries and Oceans to lead and facilitate the development of a national ocean management strategy, which includes development and deployment of renewable energy technology as well as the protection of the marine environment, presumably including migratory species and their habitats.

The United States established a National Ocean Policy in 2010 that provides a framework for a comprehensive and integrated ecosystem-based management approach to ocean policy. The National Ocean Policy Implementation Plan acknowledges the need to develop renewable ocean energy technologies and begin generating electricity from these sources, while at the same time protecting marine resources through the use of sound spatial planning and sustainable development.

SEA

Strategic Environmental Assessments (SEAs) for ocean energy development are an important tool in planning, deploying, and managing renewable ocean energy developments. SEAs should consider all facets of the environmental and social impacts of a network of utility-scale ocean energy technology deployments and provide a strategic vision and guidelines for assessing impacts to the environment before, during, and after construction of the project. SEAs should consider the cumulative effects of multiple ocean energy technology deployments in conjunction with other renewable and non-renewable energy developments in a given region. SEAs should also identify areas that are potentially suitable for ocean energy technology deployment (pending the completion of an EIA, discussed below) and, because habitat loss is such a significant impact to migratory species, SEAs should protect areas that should not be developed due to the presence of significant natural resources, such as critical habitat for migratory wildlife. An example of two SEAs that were prepared in Canada, a country with a high potential for ocean energy development, are given in the box 6.2.

Box 6.2 examples for SEA energy potential Canada

Canada has a high ocean energy generation potential and in the mid-2000s the Nova Scotia Department of Energy commissioned a Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) for tidal energy demonstration-scale and utility-scale projects in the Bay of Fundy. The SEA included an analysis of the interactions between marine renewable energy technology and the environment, including migratory species, and how different phases of tidal energy technology deployment would likely impact the various aspects of the marine environment. As a follow-up to the Bay of Fundy SEA, a second SEA was commissioned by the Government of Nova Scotia for marine renewable energy in the Cape Breton coastal region. The background report to support the Cape Breton SEA was completed in 2012. The background report details the existing environmental conditions of the Cape Breton region, including the communities of migratory wildlife that are present in the area: sea birds, marine mammals, and migratory fish species to support future planning for ocean energy technology deployments in the region.

EIA

Environmental Impact Assessments (EIAs) should be conducted as part of any renewable ocean energy development project that has the potential to impact migratory species or their habitats, including migratory birds, bats, marine mammals, sea turtles, fish, crustaceans, and squid. The United States Department of Interior has issued a Final Programmatic Environmental Impact Statement (PEIS) for Alternative Energy Development and Production on the Outer Continental Shelf (2007) that outlines the existing ocean resources in the area proposed for development, provide an analysis of alternatives to the proposed project, outline the expected impacts to natural resources from the proposed project, and offer monitoring and mitigation strategies that will assist in minimizing impacts to migratory wildlife and

their habitats. An example EIA for ocean energy development was prepared by the United States Department of the Interior in 2007. The Programmatic Environmental Impact Statement (PEIS) for Alternative Energy Development and Production on the Outer Continental Shelf identifies the general impacts and environmental concerns, including impacts to migratory marine wildlife, from renewable ocean energy development in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans and the Gulf of Mexico. The principles outlined in the PEIS can be applied generally to any renewable ocean energy project around the world.

6.3 Best practice of mitigation

Siting and planning

- A thorough site selection and review process should be implemented to avoid locating the development in major migration corridors or sensitive habitats (Boehlert *et al.* 2008).
- Construction, maintenance, and decommissioning activities should be scheduled to avoid important migration periods when migratory species would potentially be in the area to reduce negative interactions with migratory wildlife.

Mitigation

- Minimize the use of slack or loose tether and anchor lines to reduce entanglement risk to species (Boehlert *et al.* 2008).
- Use observers on board construction, maintenance, and decommissioning vessels to avoid disturbance to visible migrating marine species in the work area, including sea turtles and marine mammals.
- Use noise-deflecting devices (e.g. bubble walls or baffles) around the work site during high-decibel generating phases of construction to avoid physiological impacts to marine mammals and sea turtles.
- Undersea cables within the ocean energy development array and at the landfall connection should be buried to depths within the sediment that will minimize or eliminate the impacts from EMF to sea turtles and marine mammals.

6.4 Pre- and post construction monitoring

Pre- and post-construction monitoring is important in the planning, construction, and operation of ocean energy facilities. Additionally, performing monitoring activity *during* construction is an important element in mitigating impacts to marine migratory species. Along with offshore wind energy developments, monitoring during construction is likely essential for ocean energy facility. It is recommended to employ adaptive monitoring of new developments through the planning, construction, and operational phases through carefully designed protocols to inform similar and future projects being proposed (Witt *et al.* 2011, ORPC 2013).

Pre-construction monitoring studies should focus on diversity and abundance of marine migratory wildlife in the area of potential affect and habitat characterization

of the area with respect to resources available for marine migratory wildlife. This baseline information should contribute to decisions on siting of ocean energy facilities, types of ocean energy technologies to be employed at a specific site, and appropriate mitigation measure to be used during and after construction. Pre-construction surveys for birds should involve studies of the diversity, abundance, dispersal, and activity of migratory bird species, especially those with a greater likelihood of being affected by the proposed project. This monitoring should involve all significant stages in the annual life cycle of migratory birds, including migration, breeding, and over-wintering. Pre-construction surveys for migratory marine species (including fish, sea turtles, marine mammals, squid, and crustaceans) should focus on studying the migration patterns from a geographical and temporal standpoint and whether the proposed project area provides critical resources for migratory marine species or hosts concentrations of these species at any time during the year.

Conducting monitoring during ocean energy facility construction can be a significant factor in avoiding impacts to migratory marine wildlife during active construction operations. Monitoring during construction should occur whenever there is a possibility that migratory marine species are expected to be in the project area during construction. Sea turtles and marine mammals are likely the two taxa of migratory marine wildlife that have the highest potential to be affected by construction activities, especially those that produce underwater noise. The auditory capacities of sea turtles and marine mammals can be damaged by loud undersea noises that can occur during marine construction activities, such as pile driving, drilling, blasting, or pounding. The extent to which these construction techniques are used at a project site should determine the intensity of monitoring for sea turtles and marine mammals during construction. When sea turtles or marine mammals are detected in the vicinity of noise-generating activities with the potential to cause auditory harm, mitigation measures should be employed to avoid this impact.

Post-construction monitoring can be used to evaluate the effectiveness of mitigating measures and compare predicted effects with actual outcomes. If necessary and feasible, adjustments in the operation of ocean energy facilities can be made to avoid impacts to migratory marine wildlife during critical periods. Post-construction studies for all migratory species that may be affected by ocean energy facilities should be comparable to pre-construction studies to allow for direct comparisons of results. Post-construction studies should determine whether migratory species continue to use the project area with the same frequency as before construction of the project, whether the community structure of various taxa has changed (and if so, how), and whether the project appears to be causing negative (or positive) impacts to migratory species that continue to use the project area for feeding, movement, cover, or breeding. The effects of noise and the electromagnetic field generated by undersea cables on marine migratory species is an important consideration for post-construction studies.

6.5 Recommended sources of information and guidance

- ACCOBAMS-MOP5/2013/Doc23. Implementation of underwater noise mitigation measures by industries: operational and economic constraints. (under preparation)
- ACCOBAMS-MOP5/2013/Doc24. Methodological guide: Guidance on Underwater Noise Mitigation Measures (under preparation).
http://www.accobams.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1164%3Amop5-working-documents-and-resolutions&catid=34&Itemid=65
- [USDOE] United States Department of Energy. 2009. Ocean Energy Technology Overview.
- [USDOI] United States Department of the Interior. 2007. Programmatic Environmental Impact Statement for Alternative Energy Development and Production and Alternate Use of Facilities on the Outer Continental Shelf. Volume II, Chapter 5.

6.6 Literature

- AECOM. 2012. Marine Renewable Energy: Background Report to Support a Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) for the Cape Breton Coastal Region, inclusive of the Bras D'or Lakes. Prepared by AECOM for the Nova Scotia Department of Energy.
- Boehlert, G. W., G. R. McMurray, and C. E. Tortorici (eds.). 2008. Ecological effects of wave energy in the Pacific Northwest. U.S. Department of Commerce, NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS-F/SPO-92.
- [OEER] Offshore Energy Environmental Research. 2008. Fundy Tidal Energy Strategic Environmental Assessment: Final Report. Prepared by the OEER Association for the Nova Scotia Department of Energy.
- [ORPC] Ocean Renewable Power Company. 2013. Cobscook Bay Tidal Energy Project 2012 Environmental Monitoring Report Final Draft. FERC Project No. P012711-005. Accessed online at: http://www.orpc.co/permitting_doc/environmentalreport_Mar2013.pdf
- [USDOI] United States Department of the Interior. 2007. Programmatic Environmental Impact Statement for Alternative Energy Development and Production and Alternate Use of Facilities on the Outer Continental Shelf. Volume II, Chapter 5.
- Witt, M. J., E. V. Sheehan, S. Bearhop, A. C. Broderick, D. C. Conley, S. P. Cotterell, E. Crow, W. J. Grecian, C. Halsband, D. J. Hodgson, P. Hosegood, R. Inger, P. I. Miller, D. W. Sims, R. C. Thompson, K. Vanstaen, S. C. Votier, M. J. Attrill, and B. J. Godley. 2011. Assessing wave energy effect on biodiversity: the Wave Hub experience. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society A* 370:502-529.

7 Solar energy

7.1 Main impacts

The potential impacts of solar energy on ecological systems include direct mortality of migratory animals, habitat loss, disturbance or displacement of individuals and populations, and habitat degradation. The main impacts of solar developments on migratory species are summarized below. There were no distinct differences between construction, decommissioning and operation phases.

1. Mortality of birds, mammals and insects
2. Habitat loss for birds, mammals and insects.
3. Habitat degradation / fragmentation for birds, mammals and insects.
4. Disturbance / displacement of birds, mammals and insects.

For the purpose of sourcing and formulating guidance on best practice for the environmentally sensitive development of solar energy projects, it has been assumed that it will occur in a terrestrial setting and that lake, waterway and marine or ocean habitats will not be where most solar energy development is located.

7.2 Legislation, policy and SEA and EIA procedures

For a general description of legislation, policy and the importance of and guidelines for Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) and Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) we refer to paragraph 2.2. The following paragraph describes relevant instruments and strategies that are specific to solar energy developments.

Legislation and policy

In Europe, the Habitats and Birds Directives provide guidelines for the protection of biodiversity. Article 6 of the Habitats Directive set out a series of guidelines that must be applied to plans and projects that are likely to have a significant effect on a Natura 2000 site. For solar energy developments, the implementation of article 6 of the Habitats Directive includes the performance of Appropriate Assessments for development projects that affect Special Areas of Conservation (SACs), many of which include key migratory wildlife habitats.

Development and deployment of solar energy technology in the Western Hemisphere is currently concentrated primarily in the United States. Other New World nations either have relatively little solar energy potential, are currently focused on fossil fuel-based electricity generation, or rely on other forms of renewable energy (such as hydropower). Several US states have established minimum percentage requirements for solar energy generation and offer financing, tax incentives, and loans for the development of this resource. At the national level, the US Departments of Energy and the Interior have several policy programs designed to encourage the deployment of solar energy. The Western Solar Plan (discussed in detail below) integrates

strategic planning for solar energy development in the southwestern US, and the SunShot Initiative aims to make solar energy cost-competitive with fossil fuel-based energy by 2020. With regard to migratory species and their habitats, the Western Solar Plan identifies the need to consider these issues when developing and siting future solar energy facilities.

Relevant international nature and biodiversity Conventions and Agreements (see also Annex I in European Union (2011) and Annex 4 in Wilhelmsson et al. 2010)

- The Agreement of the Conservation of Small Cetaceans of the Baltic and North Sea (ASCOBANS) – Resolution on adverse effects of sound, vessels and other forms of disturbance on small cetaceans adopted in 2006.
- Convention on Environmental Impact Assessment in a Transboundary Context (Espoo, 1991)
- Protocol on Strategic Environmental Assessment (Kyiv, 2003)
- United Nation’s Law of Seas. [PM needs checking for relevance]

SEA

Strategic Environmental Assessments (SEAs) should be consulted in the planning stage to determine appropriate sites for solar energy developments. SEAs inform developers of effective and efficient ways to detect and avoid environmental impacts. Areas with least environmental and social impact and largest economic benefit should be chosen for large-scale solar developments.

A good example of a strategic environmental assessment for the deployment of solar energy projects has been undertaken for the south western United States of America. This assessment, termed a Programmatic Environmental Impact Statement (PEIS) was prepared by the US Department of the Interior, the US Bureau of Land Management (BLM) and the US Department of Energy (DoE). It aims to provide guidance on the development of utility scale solar energy projects on public land in six key sunshine states in the south west United States. It provides guidance on where solar energy development can occur on public land where they will not compromise other resource uses. It is assumed that solar energy development is a ‘single use’ and that it will largely exclude alternative uses. It identifies a series of Solar Energy Zones in which government will prioritise and facilitate the development of utility-scale solar energy developments. At least 30 utility-scale solar energy projects have been approved in the region in the past four years, with an additional 70 pending project applications.

Of relevance to the protection of migratory species and their habitats, the areas below are explicitly stated as exclusion areas for solar energy development. **Box n.n** provides a listing of all the exclusion zones. It is significant that many of these exclusions rely on legal protections for habitats and species or groups of species (e.g. threatened species) that rest in other legislation. The excluded areas include (but are not limited to):

Box. 7.1 Examples of exclusion zones for solar power planning US

- All Areas of Critical Environmental Concern (ACECs) identified in applicable land use plans (including Desert Wildlife Management Areas [DWMAs] in the California Desert District planning area).
- All designated and proposed critical habitat areas for species protected under the Endangered Species Act (ESA) of 1973 (as amended) as identified in respective recovery plans (http://ecos.fws.gov/tess_public/TESSWebpageRecovery?sort=1).
- All areas where the BLM has made a commitment to state agency partners and other entities to manage sensitive species habitat, including but not limited to sage grouse core areas, nesting habitat, and winter habitat; Mohave ground squirrel habitat; flat-tailed horned lizard habitat; and fringe-toed lizard habitat.
- Greater sage-grouse habitat (currently occupied, brooding, and winter habitat) as identified by the BLM in California, Nevada, and Utah, and Gunnison's sage-grouse habitat (currently occupied, brooding, and winter habitat) as identified by the BLM in Utah.^c
- In California, lands classified as Class C in the California Desert Conservation Area (CDCA) planning area.
- All Desert Tortoise translocation sites identified in applicable land use plans, project-level mitigation plans or Biological Opinions.
- All Big Game Migratory Corridors identified in applicable land use plans.
- All Big Game Winter Ranges identified in applicable land use plans.
- Research Natural Areas identified in applicable land use plans.
- Wild, Scenic, and Recreational Rivers designated by Congress, including any associated corridor or lands identified for protection through an applicable river corridor plan.
- Segments of rivers determined to be eligible or suitable for Wild or Scenic River status identified in applicable land use plans, including any associated corridor or lands identified for protection through an applicable land use plan.
- Old Growth Forest identified in applicable land use plans.
- 31. In California, BLM-administered lands proposed for transfer to the National Park Service with the concurrence of the BLM

EIA

An Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) is necessary for all potential solar developments to determine the risk the development may pose to the environment. For migratory species the EIA will consider all migratory species that have the potential to occur in the region and assess how significant an impact could be on the species population and its associated habitat.

The United States of America again provides some excellent examples of comprehensive EIA's of utility-scale solar energy facilities, The United States Department of Interior has issued a Draft Programmatic Environmental Impact Statement (PEIS) for Solar Energy Development (2010) that outlines the general

impacts and environmental concerns, including impacts to migratory wildlife, from solar energy development in the southwestern United States. The principles outlined in the DPEIS can be applied generally to any future large-scale solar energy development. Site-specific EIAs should also be completed for proposed solar projects to determine the existing environmental conditions, expected project impacts, and recommended mitigation measures that apply specifically to the proposed project. Good examples include:

- Crescent Dunes, Nevada; and
- Genesis Solar Energy Project, California

7.3 Best practice of mitigation

Planning

The following are the major measures taken to avoid impacts on migratory species during the planning stage of a development project. These measures are equally applicable to solar energy development projects.

- Site selection is the key to minimising impacts
- Consult any applicable strategic environmental assessments and ecological values mapping to identify areas where solar developments are appropriate
- Carry out site-specific EIA including appropriate surveys for migratory wildlife
- Review other existing information on species and habitats in the study area.
- Contact appropriate agencies early in the planning process to identify potential migratory species that may be present in the study area
- Avoid legally protected areas (eg, Ramsar sites, sites of national or sub-national value), and other sensitive sites such as wetlands, significant bird and bat roosts and significant wildlife breeding concentrations or migratory gathering sites)
- Design the development to avoid or minimise impacts to aquatic habitats
- Develop solar energy technology on lands of lower conservation value to reduce development impacts on areas of higher conservation value
- Avoid surface water or groundwater withdrawals that affect sensitive habitats and habitats occupied by threatened or migratory species. The capability of local surface water or groundwater supplies to provide adequate water for cooling, if required, should be considered early in project siting and design.
- Solar energy facilities should not be located near water sources that attract migratory birds.
- Minimise the number of stream crossings when locating access roads. When stream crossings cannot be avoided, use fill ramps rather than stream bank cutting. Design stream crossings to provide in-stream conditions that allow for and maintain movement and safe passage of fish
- Locate tall structures to avoid known flight paths of birds and bats
- Investigate whether habitat management at the site level could provide benefits for birds and biodiversity

- Engage with governments, utility companies, consultants and conservation organisations and other stakeholder to ensure best available sources are utilised.
- Use alternative types of solar energy technology such as parabolic troughs, dish engines, and photovoltaic systems instead of using a central tower facility (Roeb et al 2011). Decrease the number of evaporation ponds or use alternative types of solar energy technology that do not use evaporation ponds. If evaporation ponds are required based on the type of solar facility, those ponds should be fenced and netted when possible (McCrary et al. 1986, Solar PEIS 2010).
- When using a central tower solar facility, the occurrence and intensity of standby points should be kept to a minimum to decrease the occurrence of burning mortality to birds (McCrary et al. 1986).
- Develop solar energy technology closer to cities and in areas that are already impacted (Marquis 2009).
- Avoid developing solar energy technology in areas that are important migratory corridors and flyways (Solar PEIS 2010).
- Use buried High Voltage Direct Current (HVDC) cables rather than overhead transmission lines to minimize habitat fragmentation and collision risks to birds.

In addition to planning for minimal impacts on migratory species and biodiversity in general, scope exists at solar farm sites to enhance habitat (see Box 7.2)

Box 7.2 Solar energy planning UK

An example of best practice guidance for planning solar energy development in the UK (BRE 2014) includes guidelines for preparing Biodiversity Management Plans (BMP's) for solar farms which have relevance to the protection of migratory non-marine wildlife and their habitats, as well as integrating enhancement of biodiversity into the planning and on-ground management of solar energy farms:

- “- Identify key elements of biodiversity on site, including legally protected species, species and habitats of high conservation value... and designated areas in close proximity to the proposed site;*
- identify any potential impacts arising from the site's development, and outline mitigations to address these;*
- detail specific objectives for the site to benefit key elements of biodiversity and the habitat enhancements that are planned to achieve these;*
- contribute to biodiversity in the wider landscape and local ecological networks by improving connectivity between existing habitats;*
- identify species for planting and suitable sources of seed and plants;*
- consider wider enhancements, such as nesting and rooting boxes;*
- summarise a management regime for habitats for the entire life of the site;*
- provide a plan for monitoring the site; and adapting management as appropriate to the findings of this monitoring;*
- set out how the site will be decommissioned.”*

Mitigation

Construction and decommissioning

The following mitigation measures can be adapted to solar developments to minimise impacts to migratory species.

- Time construction to avoid sensitive periods (eg, during the breeding season)
- Hedgerows between sections may reduce collision risks to waterfowl

Operation

Reduction of bird mortality - The following mitigation measures can be adapted to solar developments to minimise impacts to migratory bird species.

- Time maintenance operations to avoid sensitive periods
- Minimise lighting to what is needed for safety and security objectives. Turn off all unnecessary lighting at night to limit attracting migratory birds
- Use fencing, netting and wire grids to ensure evaporation ponds are not accessible to birds and other fauna. This is to reduce the possibility of a) attraction b) drowning c) poisoning
- Placing of white strips along the edges of the panels to reduce the similarity of panels to water, to deter birds and insects
- Avian deterrence techniques, including: facility habitat management; prey control; anti-perching technology; nest-proofing; netting or other enclosures; scaring or chasing through the use of trained dogs or raptors; and radar and long-range focused bio-acoustic or visual deterrence.

The Crescent Dunes and Genesis solar projects in Nevada, USA and California, USA respectively provide excellent examples of proposals for monitoring and mitigating the impacts of utility-scale solar energy projects on biodiversity. It is noteworthy that these measures include compensatory or offset measures that are both direct (habitat protection) and indirect (research).

The former project EIA included a 'Wildlife Mitigation and Monitoring Plan' that includes measures to ensure construction occurs outside the migratory bird nesting season and that the cooling water evaporation ponds are managed to deter use by birds. The plan also includes measures to mitigate and compensate for impacts on non-migratory and threatened fauna species.

see: http://www.blm.gov/pgdata/etc/medialib/blm/nv/field_offices/battle_mountain_field/blm_information/nepa/crescent_dunes_solar.Par.86958.File.dat/Appendix%20E.pdf

The conditions of certification for the Genesis plant represent current practice and are very comprehensive in their coverage of flora, fauna and habitat impacts of the proposed solar plant

see: http://www.blm.gov/pgdata/etc/medialib/blm/ca/pdf/palmsprings/genesis.Par.19404.File.dat/Vol2_Genesis%20PA-FEIS_Apdx-G-Certification.pdf

Recent environmental impact practice has included measures to compensate for impacts through the provision of environmental offsets. The examples from the United States mentioned above include such measures, although they lie outside a

formal offset policy regime of government. An example of an environmental offsets policy is that from Australia where impacts on listed migratory species (and other matters of national environmental significance) protected under the federal *Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act 1999* are required to be offset. A direct (i.e. habitat) offset is considered the most important component of the offset, with research and monitoring projects that don't contribute to on-ground outcomes given a much lower weighting in the offset mix. There is a risk that this emphasis, while aimed rightly at securing the remaining habitats for significant species, could stifle innovative research on habitat and population recovery methods that ultimately may secure the future of a species. The best balance between direct and indirect offsets may vary depending on the species affected. (see: <http://www.environment.gov.au/system/files/resources/12630bb4-2c10-4c8e-815f-2d7862bf87e7/files/offsets-policy.pdf>)

7.4 Pre- and post construction monitoring

Monitoring is an essential component managing biodiversity at solar developments. Pre construction monitoring programs should be designed to identify key indicators and establish baseline conditions for migratory species and their habitats. The monitoring results must be collected in a way that they can be measured and compared consistently over time to determine if mitigation measures have been effective. Monitoring at solar developments focuses on biodiversity including species richness and abundance of birds and reptiles, health of grasslands and maintenance of any plantings or habitat restoration works undertaken by the project. Monitoring should be performed before and after construction of the solar development in a comparable way. An adaptive management approach should be adopted whereby the results of monitoring inform the ongoing management of the site.

Pre-construction monitoring / Baseline study

An important aspect of the preconstruction monitoring program is determining the biological risks associated with the proposed solar development and undertaking an EIA. The EIA will identify risks and ways to mitigate the risks. Preconstruction monitoring will involve recording the species richness and abundance at the study area. Threatened and migratory species at the study area should be monitored in all stages of the cycle of the targeted species. Preconstruction monitoring should be undertaken for a sufficient period to gather information on all relevant periods a migratory species is present at the affected site, and take account of natural variability to the extent practicable.

Post-construction monitoring

Birds – Post construction monitoring should continue for a period sufficient to establish whether a significant impact has occurred to affected migratory species. It must include the same methods, sites and timing of sampling as the preconstruction monitoring. Any mortality or injury of a migratory species at a solar development

should be recorded and reported at all times. Where possible, a national program, under the auspices of a national body, such as an industry association or government body, should assemble data on the impacts of solar energy facilities on migratory fauna and publish it each year.

7.5 Recommended sources of information and guidance

As there are a limited number of utility-scale solar energy developments, guidance on mitigating and managing impacts on migratory wildlife are also limited. A good starting point is:

Patton, T., L. Almer, H. Hartmann, and K.P. Smith, 2013, *An Overview of Potential Environmental, Cultural, and Socioeconomic Impacts and Mitigation Measures for Utility-Scale Solar Development*, ANL/EVS/R-13/5, prepared by Environmental Science Division, Argonne National Laboratory, Argonne, IL, June. Argonne National Laboratory, Chicago, USA.

Information on how to integrate biodiversity conservation outcome into solar energy projects can be found at:

BRE 2014. Biodiversity guidance for solar developments. Eds G E Parker and L Greene. BRE National Solar Centre.

The previously mentioned strategic environmental assessment and mitigation plans and conditions of certification from the south-western United States are also highly informative.

8 Wind energy

8.1 Main impacts

The potential impacts of wind farms on ecological systems include habitat loss through disturbance or displacement, barrier effects and collision-related mortality. Underwater sounds during offshore wind farm construction and electromagnetic fields of underwater cables have been noted as potential negative factors for marine life. The main impacts of wind farms on migratory species are summarized below for both the phase of construction and/or decommissioning and the operational phase. For a detailed description of the impacts of wind energy developments on migratory species we refer to the review document (van der Winden *et al.* 2014).

Construction and decommissioning

1. Habitat loss for birds, bats, terrestrial mammals, fish, squid and crustaceans.
2. Habitat degradation / fragmentation for birds, bats, fish and squid.
3. Disturbance / displacement of birds, bats, marine mammals, terrestrial mammals, fish, squid and crustaceans.
4. Physiological effects on marine mammals, fish and squid.
5. Mortality of marine mammals, fish and crustaceans.
6. Habitat gain for fish, squid and crustaceans.

Operation

1. Mortality of birds and bats.
2. Disturbance / displacement of birds, (bats), marine mammals and fish.
3. Changes in community structure of fish and crustaceans.
4. Physiological effects on fish and crustaceans.

The effects of transmission and/or transportation of the generated energy are not incorporated in the above enumeration, but are discussed in chapter 2.

8.2 Legislation, policy and SEA and EIA procedures

For a general description of legislation, policy and the importance of and guidelines for Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) and Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) we refer to paragraph 2.2. The following paragraph describes relevant instruments and strategies that are specific for wind energy developments.

Legislation and policy

In Europe, the Habitats and Birds Directives provide guidelines for the protection of biodiversity. Article 6 of the Habitats Directive set out a series of guidelines that must be applied to plans and projects that are likely to have a significant effect on a Natura 2000 site. For wind energy developments, the implementation of article 6 of the Habitats Directive including the performance of Appropriate Assessments is described

in detail in: Guidance Document, Wind energy developments and Natura 2000 (European Union 2011).

Relevant international nature and biodiversity Conventions and Agreements (see also Annex I in European Union 2011 and Annex 4 in Wilhelmsson et al. 2010)

- Bern Convention on the Conservation of European Wildlife and Natural Habitats – Resolution on minimising adverse effects of wind power generation on wildlife, adopted by the Convention Standing Committee in December 2004.
- Bonn Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals (CMS) – Resolution on wind turbines and migratory species adopted by the Conference of the Parties in 2002.
- The African-Eurasian Waterbird Agreement (AEWA) – Resolution on renewable energy and migratory waterbirds, adopted in 2012: Calls upon contracting parties to undertake specific measures to reduce the potential negative impact of terrestrial as well as marine wind farms on waterbirds.
- The Agreement of the Conservation of Populations of European Bats (EUROBATS) – Resolution on the potential impact of wind farms on bats adopted in 2003.
- The Agreement of the Conservation of Small Cetaceans of the Baltic and North Sea (ASCOBANS) – Resolution on adverse effects of sound, vessels and other forms of disturbance on small cetaceans adopted in 2006.
- Convention for the Protection of the Marine Environment of the North-East Atlantic (OSPAR) – OSPAR Guidance on Environmental considerations for Offshore Wind Farm Development (2008).
- Convention on Environmental Impact Assessment in a Transboundary Context (Espoo, 1991) – Parties shall establish an environmental impact assessment procedure that permits public participation for (amongst others) major installations for the harnessing of wind power for energy production (Annex I).
- Protocol on Strategic Environmental Assessment (Kyiv, 2003) – A strategic environmental assessment shall be carried out for (amongst others) installations for the harnessing of wind power for energy production (Annex II).

Box 8.1 Netherlands: 1% criterion for mortality of birds and bats

In the framework of the Dutch nature legislation criteria have been developed for acceptable effects on wildlife. For mortality of wind turbines on birds and bats the 1% additional annual mortality criterion has been proposed in procedures and is currently accepted by the law. It is been deduced for the ORNIS committee criterion for sustainable hunting stating that ‘small numbers’ are any sample of less than 1% of the total annual mortality rate of the population in question” (average value).

Legislation and policy specifically related to marine life

National and international guidelines and regulations exist for monitoring and mitigation of the effects of wind farms on marine mammals. Recommendations, guidelines and regulations with relevance to effects on the environment of underwater noise and/or offshore wind farms, have been prepared by many international fora,

such as the European Commission, the US Marine Mammal Commission, OSPAR, UNCLOS, CMS, ASCOBANS and IWC. They are relevant given that they can, are, or should be taken up at the national level. International recommendations, guidelines and regulations include the EIA Directive, the European Habitats Directive, the European Integrated Maritime Policy, the Marine Strategy Framework Directive, Agreement on the conservation of small cetaceans of the Baltic, North East Atlantic, Irish and North Seas (ASCOBANS) and the Convention on migratory species (CMS). For a description of the relevance of these to marine mammals in relation to offshore wind farms we refer to ICES (2010).

ICES (2010) stated that there were important differences in national guidelines on the mitigation of effects of offshore wind farms. They did however provide examples of guidelines in some countries for preventing and/or mitigating negative effects on marine mammals in the framework of the construction of offshore wind-farms (see table 3 in ICES 2010).

Legislation for (offshore) wind farms in the US

Future offshore wind energy facilities in US federal waters are regulated by the Bureau of Ocean Energy Management (BOEM) in conjunction with several other agencies. Future offshore wind developments in the United States must comply with various environmental laws designed to protect wildlife, including migratory species, and their habitats. These include:

- The National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 – requires a comprehensive analysis of potential impacts to the environment from any project that involves a major review by the federal government. This analysis must include an analysis of alternative scenarios to the proposed development and offer a monitoring and mitigation strategy when natural resources are expected to be impacted.
- The Endangered Species Act of 1973 – any project that may result in negative impacts to species listed under the Endangered Species Act (ESA) must receive approval from the US Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) and/or the National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS).
- The Marine Mammals Protection Act of 1972 – provides for the protection of all marine mammals – regardless of other conservation status – including cetaceans, pinnipeds, and the polar bear (*Ursus maritimus*). Offshore wind developers must consider the potential species affected by their development and offer mitigation measures, monitoring, and reporting.
- The Magnuson-Stevens Fishery Convention and Management Act – requires the designation and protection of Essential Fish Habitats (EFH) for federally-managed fish species. As part of the environmental assessment for proposed offshore wind facilities, an EFH assessment must be complete and submitted to NMFS for consultation.
- The National Marine Sanctuaries Act – provides for the creation and protection of National Marine Sanctuaries to preserve special marine resources. Offshore wind projects may not be built in any designated marine sanctuaries, and the potential

effects to any nearby sanctuaries must be reviewed during the environmental assessment of offshore wind projects.

Onshore wind projects are also subject to a series of federal laws, including some of those listed above, as well as state and local regulations. Offshore wind projects in state waters (less than 3 nautical miles from land) are also subject to state regulations.

SEA

The most effective way to detect and avoid severe environmental impacts of wind energy developments is to perform Strategic Environmental Assessments (SEAs) on large spatial scales. SEAs enable strategic planning and siting of wind energy developments in areas with least environmental and social impact and largest economic benefit. Some good practice examples of strategic wind farm planning are described in Box 8.2. According to the Directive 2001/42/EC, national or international plans and programmes within the European Member States with likely significant environmental impacts shall be subject to an SEA, this includes large scale wind energy development.

Box 8.2 Examples of strategic wind farm planning

Scotland: Scottish Natural Heritage has adopted a strategic locational guidance note for onshore wind farms, which includes a series of sensitivity maps. Altogether 5 maps have been developed, of which 2 describe sensitivity associated with landscape and recreation interests and 2 describe sensitivity arising from biodiversity and earth science interests. The final map combines these sensitivities into three broad zones representing three relative levels of opportunities and constraints. Overall the maps provide a broad overview of where there is likely to be greatest scope for wind farm development and where there are the most significant constraints in natural heritage terms. (Summary of the text in: Guidance Document, Wind energy developments and Natura 2000, European Union 2011). See also:

<http://www.snh.gov.uk/planning-and-development/renewable-energy/onshore-wind>.

Drôme Region, France: In 2005, the regional authorities of the Drôme Region in France decided to develop a wind energy plan for the entire region. Detailed zonation maps were prepared in close consultation and dialogue with all interest groups. Each one identified different areas of high, medium or low potential in term of wind resources, relevant public utilities and access to grid connections. Based on wildlife sensitivity maps for specific species, a synthesis map was prepared to demarcate areas of particular environmental sensitivity. These detailed maps are intended to provide an early warning system of potential conflicts with these important species so that wind farms can be planned in function of this knowledge. (Summary of the text in: Guidance Document, Wind energy developments and Natura 2000, European Union 2011). See also: http://www.drôme.equipement.gouv.fr/rubrique.php3?id_rubrique=146.

Offshore wind farms Denmark: Within the framework of a long-term national energy policy, in Denmark 23 offshore wind farm locations (within 7 larger areas) were assessed. Locations have been selected within the framework of strategic planning approach, taking into account e.g. wind conditions, nature values, visibility and grid connections. (Summary of the text in: Guidance Document, Wind energy developments and Natura 2000, European Union 2011). See also: <http://ec.europa.eu/ourcoast/download.cfm?fileID=983>.

The Netherlands: The Dutch Government strives to concentrate large-scale onshore wind energy developments in those areas that are 'most appropriate'. Therefore the Dutch Government developed a vision on onshore wind energy, which was adopted in March 2014. In total 11 areas in the Netherlands are designated for large-scale wind energy developments. The impact of wind energy on the natural environment was one of the criteria used to identify the 'most appropriate' areas for large-scale wind energy. See also:

<http://www.rijksoverheid.nl/onderwerpen/duurzame-energie/nieuws/2014/03/31/kabinet-volgt-provincies-in-aanwijzing-11-gebieden-voor-windenergie-op-land.html>.

Offshore wind farms in North and South America: There are currently no significant utility-scale offshore wind energy facilities anywhere in the waters off North or South America, however several proposals for developing such facilities are pending and work to support these proposals is underway. The United States has begun the process of leasing blocks of the Outer Continental Shelf to wind power developers within the Exclusive Economic Zone of the United States in the northwest Atlantic Ocean. A strategic plan developed by the US Department of Energy was released in 2011 to support the potential for offshore wind development in that country. The *National Offshore Wind Strategy* is meant to guide the actions of regulators to promote offshore wind development in a responsible manner. The report also acknowledges the shortage of available information on the impacts of siting and operation of an offshore wind energy facility may impact environmental resources, including migratory species, in US waters. (United States Department of Energy 2011).

EIA

To determine the impacts of specific wind energy plans or projects on the natural environment, performance of an Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) is crucial. (See for instance: Bowyer *et al.* 2009, European Union 2011, Ledec *et al.* 2011, Gove *et al.* 2013). In the context of migratory species, EIA's for wind energy developments should include all potentially affected taxa. Specifically the EIA should focus on the effects on birds, bats and marine life (offshore), as these species groups are most affected by the construction and/or operation of wind farms. For both offshore and onshore wind farms the possible detrimental effects on habitats of migratory species should also be considered. A detailed description of Environmental Impact Assessment for Wind Farm Developments is given by UNDP-CEDRO (2011) and Gove *et al.* (2013). For specific guidelines on pre-construction monitoring, which is often necessary to support EIAs, we refer to §8.4.

8.3 Best practice of planning and mitigation

8.3.1 Planning

Siting

The most effective way to avoid adverse effects of wind energy facilities on migratory species of all taxa, is to plan wind energy away from rare species habitats and main migration routes. Critical sites include e.g. migratory bottlenecks, wetlands, coastal areas and mountain ridges. On a local scale attraction of collision prone species to

the wind farm area should be avoided by carefully considering the design of the surrounding area including land use.

Wind farm configuration

The extent of adverse effects of wind energy facilities on birds partly depends on the configuration of the wind farm. A larger space in between turbines lowers the collision rate of birds and may also be experienced as less threatening as a barrier by local foraging or breeding birds. To avoid barrier effects, long lines of turbines should be placed parallel to the main migration/flight route and corridors can be planned in between large clusters of turbines, to provide safe flight routes through the area. This will also lower the collision risk as it enhances the possibilities for birds to safely pass the wind farm.

Turbine type

The collision rate of local birds (short distance flights) decreases when the space underneath the rotor blades increases. In the operational phase, larger turbines seem to have a smaller disturbing effect on small ground-breeding birds than smaller turbines. Using solid turbine towers instead of lattice constructions avoids perching opportunities for birds of prey. For bats the information on the influence of turbine type (e.g. height, rotor area) on bat mortality is not conclusive. For marine life the underwater structure is most important. For certain foundation types pile driving is not needed, which avoids disturbance of marine life, e.g. marine mammals and fish, resulting from pile driving noise. However, the choice for a specific type of foundation largely depends on the characteristics of the seabed and water depth. Therefore pile driving cannot always be avoided.

References describing mitigating measures concerning siting, configuration or turbine type: Hötker *et al.* (2006), Wilhelmsson *et al.* (2010), BirdLife Europe (2011), U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (2012).

8.3.2 Mitigation

Murphy (2010) assessed the marine renewables energy industry in relation to marine mammals synthesising the work carried out by the ICES working group on marine mammal ecology. For offshore wind turbines an overview is provided of sources of impact, relevant impact studies, research needs and mitigation measures during construction (including site surveying prior to construction), operation and decommissioning. Information extracted from this work is included in the following paragraphs.

Construction and decommissioning

Marine mammals (and other marine life affected by noise) - The ICES working group on marine mammal ecology identified the following mitigation measures for construction of offshore wind turbines in general: construction should occur during periods with low abundance and noise emissions from other sources (e.g. ships, boats) should be

reduced (ICES 2010). Specific for pile driving they identified various mitigation measures including the detection of the presence of marine mammals using visual observers, the use of acoustic deterrent devices, using ramp up procedures, reducing radiated energy at relevant frequencies, limiting installation to periods with low marine mammal abundance and identifying other technical possibilities to install the wind turbines (e.g. alternative constructions such as tripod, jacket or gravity foundations, floating or platforms and/or other methods than pile driving such as installation by a water jet or drilling). Decommissioning of offshore wind turbines is fundamentally similar to the removal of other types of offshore structures, such as oil and gas platforms. An option to avoid negative impacts could be to leave the structures in place (Wilhelmsson *et al.* 2010).

The effectiveness of some of these mitigation measures is discussed in several documents, such as:

- An assessment of the potential for acoustic deterrents to mitigate the impact on marine mammals of underwater noise arising from the construction of offshore wind farms was carried out by SMRU Ltd. in 2007.
- The development of noise mitigation measures in offshore wind farm construction by Koschinski & Lüdemann in 2013 covering bubble curtains, isolation casings, cofferdams, hydro sound dampers and acoustic improvements of the piling process (Koschinski & Lüdemann 2013).

Operation

For the operational phase mitigation generally focuses on the reduction of mortality of birds and bats, as this is the effect with the highest impact on ecological systems.

Reduction of bird mortality - The most effective measure is the temporary shutdown of turbines in high-risk periods, such as peaks in migratory activity or foraging flights or situations with strong winds (from a specific direction). The timing of these high-risk periods differs between sites and largely depends on the landscape and geographical location of the wind farm. Guidance for a best practice approach for using this so-called 'shutdown-on-demand' is given in Collier & Poot (in prep.).

Additionally, several other mitigation strategies to reduce the collision rate for birds are discussed in literature. The effectiveness of these measures is, however, a matter of discussion and examples of actual application of these measures are limited. Some examples are:

- Increasing the visibility of wind turbines using contrast patterns on the blades, or ultraviolet paint.
- Placing dummy turbines at the end of lines or edges to reduce collision victims under birds that try to avoid wind farms.
- Using scaring devices as deterrents to reduce flight intensity in a wind farm.
- Reduce the intensity of lights and maximise the interval between flashes to avoid attraction of birds to wind turbines.

See for instance: Hötker *et al* (2006), Drewitt & Langston (2006).

Reduction of bat mortality – Currently only one mitigation measure has demonstrated effective reductions of fatalities of bats. Targeted curtailment i.e. stopping or slowing down the rotor blades of a wind turbine during periods of high bat activity is the only known method that effectively limits bat mortality. Curtailment obviously reduces energy production and it is therefore essential to limit curtailment to those periods with high bat activity. Increasing the cut-in speed (the lowest wind speed at which the blades of a turbine will begin rotating) and changing the blade angles of turbines to reduce operations during periods of low wind speeds has been shown to reduce bat mortality by 44 – 93%, with $\leq 1\%$ loss in total annual power output in this specific case. There are a few curtailment methods which are more precise: bat friendly curtailment algorithms developed in Germany (Behr et al. 2011) and the French system called Chirotech. See also Lagrange *et al.* (2012), Arnett *et al.* (2013).

Additionally, several other mitigation strategies to reduce the collision rate for bats are discussed in literature. The effectiveness of these measures is, however, a matter of discussion and examples of actual application of these measures are limited. Some examples are:

- Deter or scare away bats using ultrasound, light or radar.
- Adapt landscape features to influence the presence and activity of bats at the wind farm location.
- Lower the amount of insects attracted to wind turbines (and thereby possibly attraction of bats) by painting the turbines purple.

See for instance: Nicholls & Racey (2009), Long *et al.* (2010), Arnett *et al.* (2011).

Limiting the impact of noise emission on marine mammals - Potential impacts on marine mammals during the operational phase may be minimised by the modification of turbines and foundations to reduce noise emission at relevant frequencies, carry out large maintenance operations in periods with the number of marine mammals in the area are low and select service vessels based on minimal impact (ICES 2010).

8.4 Pre- and post construction monitoring

This paragraph focuses on pre- and post construction monitoring of (habitats of) birds, bats and marine life, as wind energy developments generally pose a specific threat to these species groups. For a general description of the importance of and guidelines for pre- and post construction monitoring we refer to chapter 2.

Pre- and post construction monitoring are discussed separately in this paragraph, but in practice they are closely linked. Several guidelines documents prescribe the use of a BACI-design (Before, After, Control, Impact) for pre- and post construction monitoring. This means that monitoring should be performed before and after

construction of the wind farm in a comparable way and monitoring should be performed within the wind farm area and in one or more control areas.

Pre-construction monitoring / Baseline study

Birds – An important function of preconstruction monitoring is to determine the species at risk and gather information on which the prediction of the extent of the impact on birds can be based. Preconstruction monitoring should involve studies of the abundance, dispersal, activity and flight patterns of (sensitive) bird species. The monitoring generally includes studies of bird migration and surveys for breeding, staging and wintering birds. Methods that can be applied are visual and acoustic survey techniques as well as the use of automated systems like for instance radar or radio telemetry. Offshore surveys can be done by airplane, from a ship or from a platform in or nearby the wind farm area. The monitoring period should at least include all stages of the life cycle of the relevant species (breeding, wintering, migration), which generally means a minimum monitoring period of 12 months. To predict the number of collision victims for birds, the use of collision rate models is highly recommended. Information gathered during preconstruction monitoring should be used as input information for these models.

Bats – Also for bats the preconstruction monitoring should primarily point out the species at risk and landscape features used by bats. The monitoring should include activity surveys as well as roost surveys. The activity surveys should include all different functional stages (e.g. migration, foraging, dispersion of colonies). Many different methods can be applied and depending on the specific situation the most appropriate method should be selected. Examples of methods are surveys with hand held or automated bat detectors, radio tracking, trapping, night vision equipment (infrared or thermal camera's) and radar. Consideration should be given to the height at which surveys may need to be undertaken. Surveys are often carried out at ground level, but in many situations information on bat activity at rotor height is needed. Using site-specific opportunities, like for instance a tower or meteorological mast present at the wind farm area, bat detectors can be placed at height to gather this information.

Marine life – The baseline study or preconstruction monitoring should focus on the species and abundance of marine life (mammals, fish, squid, crustaceans) and the importance and function of the area for these species. Additionally also the migration patterns and timing of migration of e.g. marine mammals and fish should be determined. The baseline study should also determine whether the project area provides critical resources for migratory marine species.

With respect to baseline monitoring to be able to assess effects of offshore wind farms on marine mammals the ICES working group on marine mammal ecology advised (in paragraph 4.5):

- the establishment of means for efficient dissemination of results of common interest and making previous EIA reports and previously collected baseline data available for subsequent studies and assessments.

- to encourage multinational studies and encourage management decisions regarding offshore wind farms to be based on appropriate populations and/or management units for the relevant marine mammal species, irrespective of national borders.
- As the development of offshore wind farms extends further offshore and into new waters, monitoring should be extended to include all commonly occurring marine mammal species and marine mammals species of particular concern.
- Geographical location of offshore wind farms should consider the distribution of marine mammals throughout the year, time of day and under typical weather and hydrographical conditions.
- to increase efforts to develop common measurement standards for both noise and marine mammal abundance.

Post-construction monitoring

Birds – Post-construction monitoring should be linked to preconstruction monitoring and the same type of surveys should be performed to obtain information on actual effects. Additionally bird mortality can be quantified using collision victim searches. These studies should also assess search efficiency and scavenging rates to be able to determine actual collision rates.

Bats – Also for bats the actual effects of the operation of the wind farm should be determined by linking the post construction monitoring to the baseline study. Similar to birds, the actual collision rate can be determined based on collision victim surveys, including assessment of search efficiency and scavenging rates. For bats the direct impact due to the functioning of wind farms is not yet fully understood as in most cases the cause of collision is unknown. Therefore, also studies on the (foraging) behaviour of bats close to wind turbines are important.

Marine life – After construction of the wind farm monitoring should be linked to the baseline study so actual effects of the operation of the wind farm on marine life can be assessed. This means that also after construction the presence of marine life should be determined as well as the function of the area for the species present. Additionally, information on operational underwater noise generation can be gathered in combination with information on the behaviour of e.g. fish or marine mammals in a wide range around the wind farm. Finally, also the influence of the electromagnetic field generated by underwater cables can be assessed by linking post construction distribution and abundance of species with data gathered before construction of the wind farm.

With respect to impact monitoring of offshore wind farms on marine mammals the ICES working group on marine mammal ecology advised (in paragraph 4.5):

- to increase the effort to characterise sources of underwater noise related to the construction and operation of offshore wind farms. As part of this, common standards for measurement and characterization of underwater noise should be developed (e.g. Southall *et al.*, 2007, de Jong *et al.*, 2010);

- to develop methods to assess cumulative effects on marine mammals of the underwater noise level caused by the simultaneous construction and operation at nearby sites;
- to step up research on the behaviour of marine mammals as a consequence of increased underwater noise levels, in particular how changes ultimately affect population parameters;
- to increase efforts to characterise fundamental properties of the auditory system of marine mammals and the way noise affects physiology and behaviour.

Guidelines

- For detailed guidelines on pre- and post construction monitoring of birds in onshore wind farms we refer to: Jenkins *et al.* (2011).
- Guidelines on pre- and post construction monitoring of birds in offshore situations can be found in: Fox *et al.* (2006).
- Guidelines for studies on search efficiency and scavenger removal are provided by: Smallwood (2007).
- Examples of papers describing collision rate models are: Tucker (1996), Troost (2008), Band (2012) and Smales *et al.* (2013).
- For detailed guidance on pre- and post construction monitoring of bats in both offshore and onshore wind farms we refer to: Rodrigues *et al.* (2008).
- Guidelines on preconstruction monitoring of bats in onshore wind farms are given by: Hundt *et al.* (2011).
- Detailed guidance on pre- and post construction monitoring of nocturnally active birds and bats in (onshore) wind farms is given by: Kunz *et al.* (2007).
- National guidelines on monitoring and mitigating effects of wind farms include for Germany: BSH (2007a; 2007b; 2008), for the UK: Cefas (2004), DEFRA (2005), JNCC (in consultation), and for The Netherlands: Prins *et al.* (2008).
- In 2009 SMRU Ltd carried out a strategic review of Offshore Wind Farm Monitoring Data Associated with FEPA Licence Conditions with respect to marine mammals. They reviewed marine mammal monitoring programmes carried out to assess effects of offshore wind farms in the UK and Denmark and provided recommendations for future monitoring (Cefas 2010).
- Legal requirements to carry out marine mammal monitoring vary between countries (see for example paragraph 8.2 legislation, policy and SEA and EIA procedures of this chapter and table 3 ICES 2010).

8.5 Recommended sources of information and guidance

This paragraph sums up recommended sources of information and guidance specific for wind energy developments. These are the most recent and acknowledged guidelines on the relevant topic.

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9 Synthesis / conclusion

This chapter summarizes some first conclusions and recommendations. It needs improvement and agreement with IRENA and CMS policy and strategy.

Conclusions

- The available information on guidelines for RET and effects on migratory species is highly diverse. E.g. for wind energy and hydropower dams comprehensive and good documents and procedures are available while specific guidelines for effects of geothermal energy on wildlife are lacking or not specific for this technology
- for each technology guidelines and examples for guidelines are provided including national and regional impact assessment procedures as well as best practice mitigation examples
- the chapters can be read separately and thus provide information for users interested in a specific RET
- the guidelines focus on impacts exclusively for the operational phase of the specific RET. The construction phase is dealt with in general and references are given for overview guidelines or EIA procedures for infrastructure.

Recommendations

- Strengthening national and international legislation. A policy should be developed for supra-national impacts on populations or migratory pathways. Cumulative impacts are expected to increase in future. An international SEA for RET development will help identify potential cumulative effects across borders. The SEA should take into account planned as well as existing developments from other sectors, to ensure that cumulative developments do not produce unexpected barriers or hazards.
- Develop and implement and propose internationally accepted ecologically based impact criteria such as the 1% additional annual mortality criterion for wildlife as currently used in The Netherlands for birds and bats.
- Proper national SEA and EIA procedures should be implemented for RET development. Ensure that migratory species are considered within these processes. Most impacts on migratory species are related to inadequate planning and siting as well as scale.
- Map hotspot areas for migratory species. Develop scientifically based databases and spatial datasets on important areas for migratory species, including frequently used movement paths, areas with exceptional concentrations of migratory species, important breeding, feeding or resting grounds and narrow migration corridors.
- Good examples for specific RET related legislation should be proposed for countries without appropriate legislation. Good examples are mitigation

obligations concerning effective fishways or fish ladders to allow passage of migratory fish species past dams.

- Pre- en post-construction monitoring. Develop and support evaluation programs that use standardised protocols to monitor the effectiveness of mitigation measures as well as to improve mitigation techniques and the presence and movements of migratory species in order to assess the (species-specific) scale of impact.

Gaps in knowledge:

This section needs to be completed

- population effects on migration scale for offshore and coastal areas (birds) for international wind energy projects
- mortality criteria for impact assessments for many species groups
- mitigation for effect of geothermal energy on wildlife
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Annexes