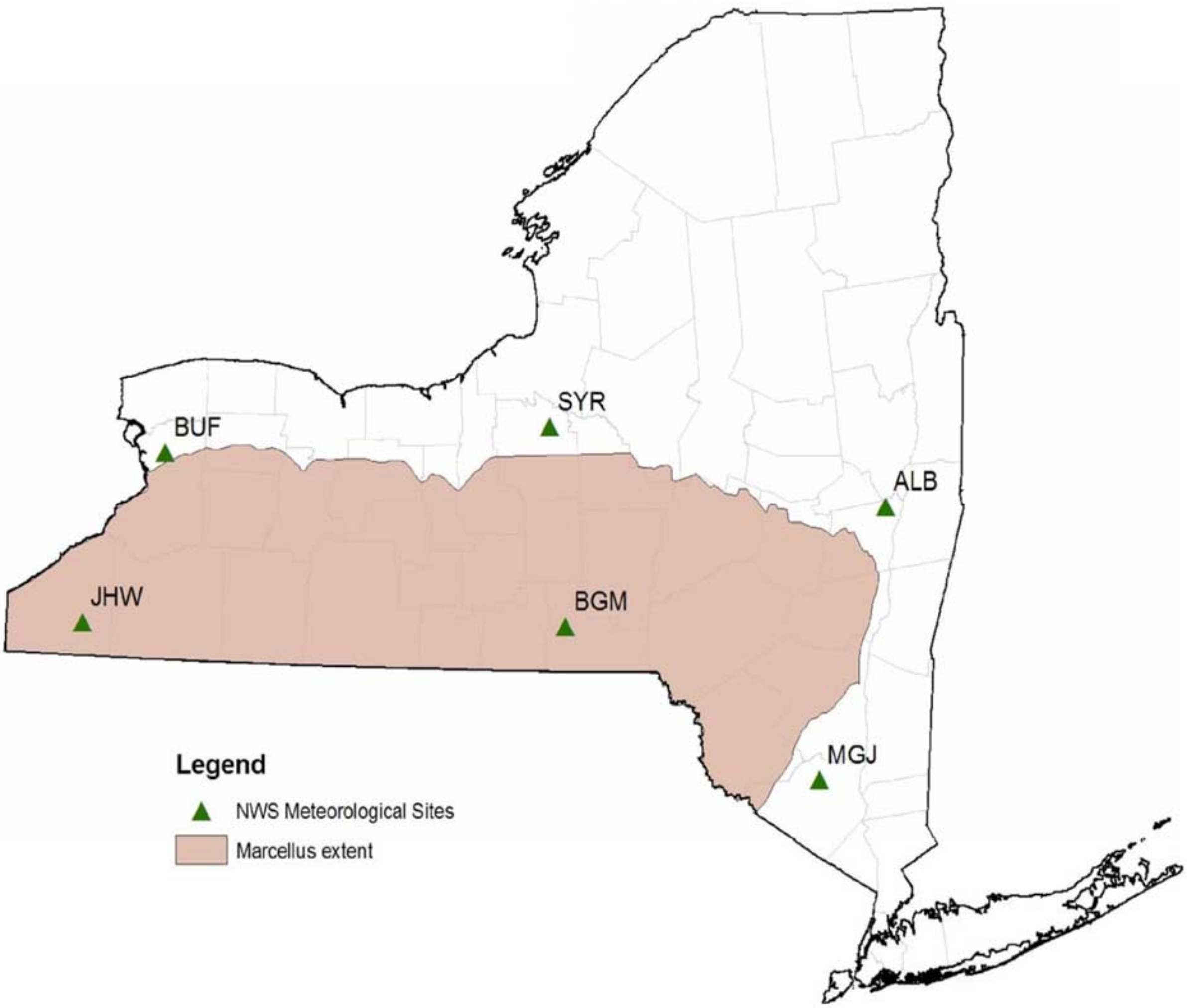
Table 6.20 - Engine Tiers and Use in New York with Recommended Mitigation Controls Based on the Modeling Analysis (New July 2011)

Engine Type (year in place)	Sample Percent in Use	Reduction factors in Emissions	Control measures considered and determined "practical" based on availability, use practice and cost.
Drilling: Tier 1 - 1996 (five @ 500hp)	25	Others relative to Tier 1	Would need PM traps and SCR.
Drilling: Tier 2 - 2002	49	2.7 1.6	No PM controls nor SCR necessary for NAAQS.
Drilling: Tier 3 - 2006	22	2.7 2.6	No PM controls nor SCR necessary for NAAQS.
Drilling: Tier 4 - Interim (not mandated) - 2011	0	40 5.1	Would likely have PM traps built in. No SCR necessary.
Drilling: Tier 4 - 2014	0	40 23.	Would have PM traps and SCR built in.
Completion: Tier 1 - 2000 (15 @ 2250 Hp)	Assumed same as for drilling	Others relative to Tier 1	Based on modeling, propose not to allow Tier 1 engines. Alternative is traps/SCR, plus more mitigation.
Completion: Tier 2 - 2006		2.7 1.6	Would need PM trap and SCR.
Completion: Tier 4 Interim - 2011		5.3 3.5	Would likely have PM traps and SCR built in or would use in-cylinder control for PM.
Completion: Tier 4 - 2015		13 3.5	Would have PM traps and SCR built in.

Note: 3.5% of engines in use are Uncertified or Tier "0". These will not be allowed to be used in NY

Figure 6.10 - Marcellus Shale Extent Meteorological Data Sites



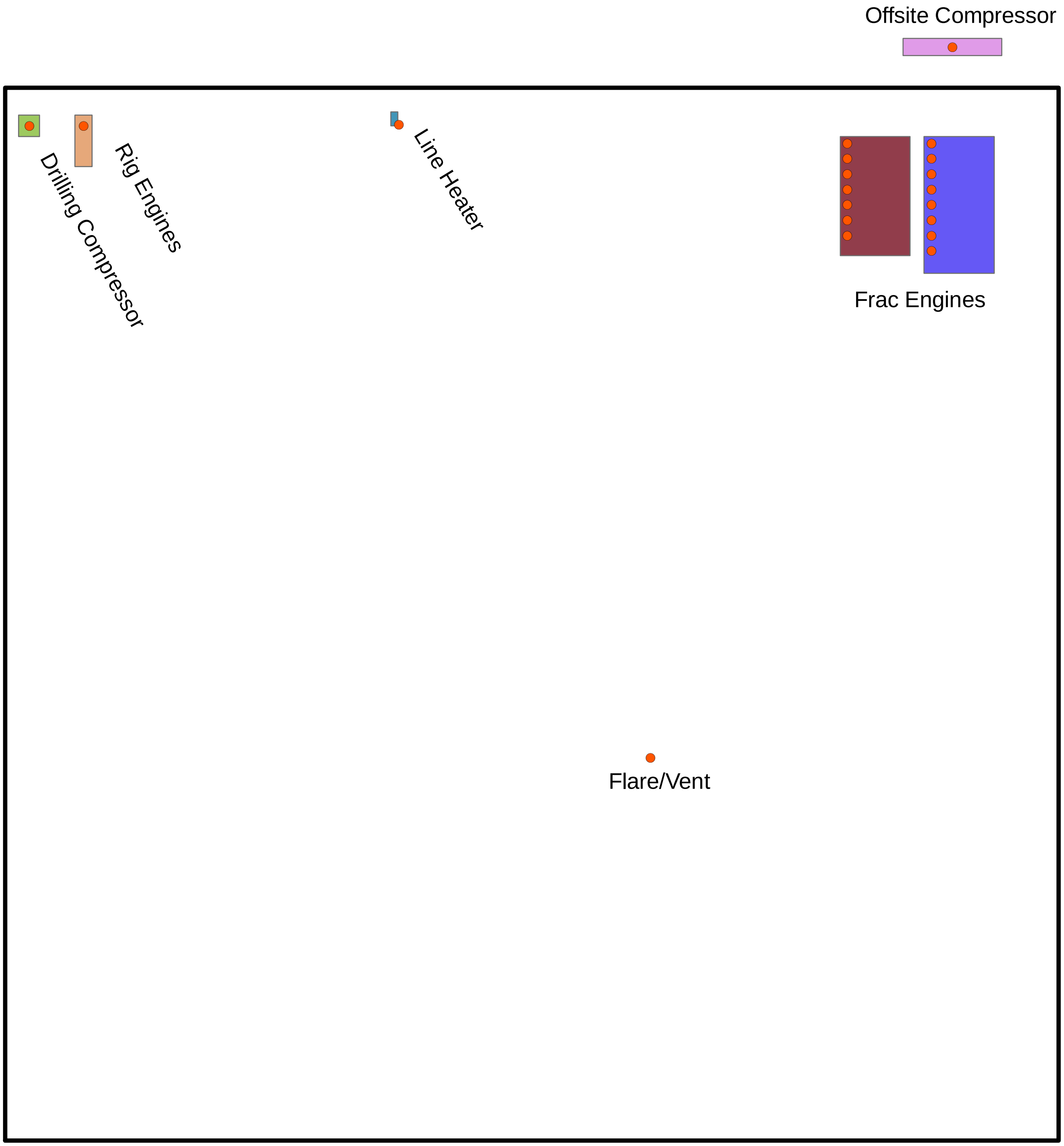
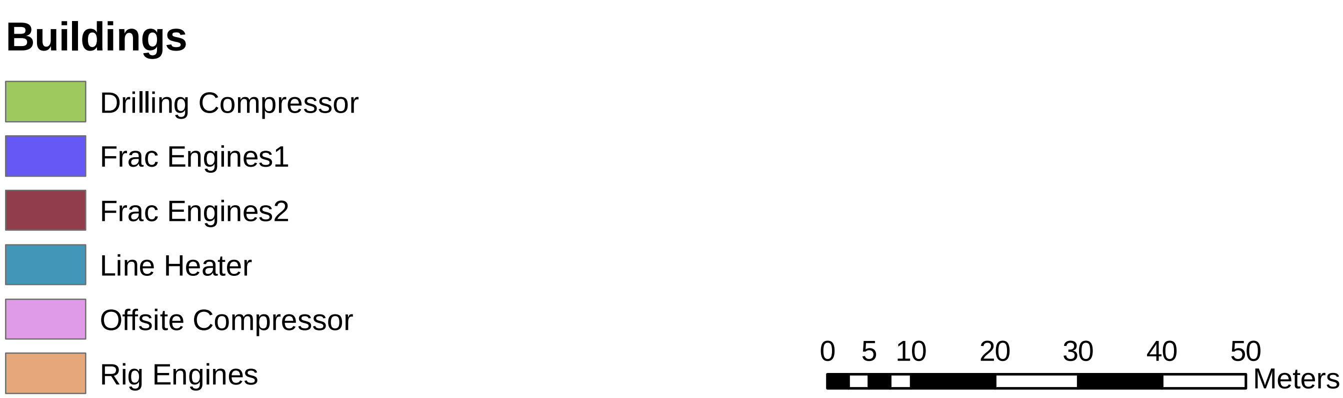


Figure 6.11- Location of Well Pad Sources of Air Pollution Used in Modeling



6.5.3 Regional Emissions of O_3 Precursors and Their Effects on Attainment Status in the SIP

This section addresses a remaining issue, as stressed by EPA Region 2[364] that the initial analysis did not provide a quantitative discussion of the potential regional emissions of the O_3 precursors, as contemplated in the Final Scoping for the 2009 draft SGEIS. The specific items relate to the impact of these drilling operations on the SIP for O_3 nonattainment purposes, as well as the impact of cumulative emissions from both stationary and mobile sources.

The initial analysis lacked information on the regional emissions of the cumulative well drilling activities in the whole of Marcellus Shale due to the lack of detail from industry on the likely number of wells to be drilled annually and associated emissions. It was determined that information and available data from similar shale development areas would not be suitable for a calculation of these emissions due to a variety of factors. Thus, the Department requested this emission information from industry and received the necessary data in the ALL/IOGA-NY Information Report referenced previously and in a follow-up request for mileage data for on-road truck traffic, as discussed below. The following narrative is intended to address concerns with the regional emissions as these relate to ozone attainment and similar SIP issues.

Attainment Status and Current Air Quality

The most recent nonattainment areas that have been designated by EPA are those for the 1997 8-hour ozone of 0.08 ppm (effectively 84 ppb), 1-hour ozone (0.12 ppm), annual and the 24-hour PM2.5 national ambient air quality standards (NAAQS) of 15 and 35 $\mu g/m^3$, respectively. In March 2008, EPA promulgated a revision of the 8-hour ozone NAAQS by setting the standard as 0.075 ppm. Nonattainment areas for the new standard have not as yet been established due to current efforts by EPA to reconsider a more restrictive NAAQS. EPA proposed its reconsideration of the 2008 ozone NAAQS in January 2010 taking comment on lowering the NAAQS to between 0.060 ppm and 0.070 ppm. EPA is expected to complete its reconsideration in July 2011.

Ozone and particulate matter are two of six pollutants regulated under the CAA as “criteria pollutants.” Data from Department monitors through 2010 indicate that monitored air concentrations in the established nonattainment areas for O_3 and PM2.5, as well as in the area

[364] Comments of EPA Region 2 in letter from John Filippelli dated (12/30/09), pages 2-3.

underlain by the Marcellus Shale, do not exceed the currently applicable NAAQS. In addition, there are no areas in New York State that are classified as nonattainment for the remaining four criteria pollutants: CO, lead, NO_2 and SO_2. EPA has recently promulgated revisions to the lead, SO_2 and NO_2 NAAQS and has established new monitoring requirements for the lead and NO_2 NAAQS, as well as new modeling requirements for the SO_2 NAAQS. As a result of these new requirements, the Department cannot yet determine whether ambient air quality complies with these NAAQS values. However, the Department has proposed to EPA to classify the whole state as "unclassifiable" with respect to the NO_2 1-hour NAAQS and would have to submit a recommendation to EPA on SO_2 1-hour NAAQS. As data becomes available in the next few years, the Department would assess the data and recommend to EPA designation of all areas in the State as either attainment or nonattainment.

For O_3, the Department has a wealth of information to compare against the current, but delayed, 2008 NAAQS and the range of the reconsidered NAAQS. Under the 2008 Ozone NAAQS, current air quality in the Poughkeepsie-Newburgh, NYC and Jamestown metropolitan areas would make these areas nonattainment. If the O_3 NAAQS is set at the lower values proposed by EPA, more areas of the state, including those in the Marcellus Shale play, would also be nonattainment.

State Implementation Plans

The process by which states meet their obligations to improve air quality under the CAA, (for example, the applicable NAAQS for criteria pollutants) is established in SIPs. A major component of SIPs is the establishment of emission reduction requirements through the promulgation of new regulatory requirements that work to achieve those reductions. The combined effect of both state and federal requirements is to reduce the level of pollutants in the air and bring each nonattainment area into attainment. These requirements, which apply to both stationary and mobile sources, apply to both new and existing sources and are intended to limit emissions to a level that would not result in an exceedance of a NAAQS, thus preserving the attainment status of that area. In order to judge the potential effects of the projected O_3 and PM2.5 precursors in the Marcellus Shale on the SIP process, the Department has looked at the level of these emissions relative to the baseline emissions and has come to certain conclusions on the approach necessary to assure the goal of NAAQS compliance.

Projected Emissions and Current/Potential Control Measures

The primary contributors (emission sources) to ozone pollution include those that emit compounds known as “precursors” that result in the formation of ozone. The two most important precursors are NO_x and VOCs. PM2.5, another pollutant, is also directly emitted or formed from precursors, such as ammonia, sulfur oxides and NO_x. New York State and the federal government have promulgated emission rules that apply to the sources of these pollutants in order to protect air quality and prevent exceedances of the ambient air standards. In the case of Marcellus Shale gas resource development, most emissions resulting from natural gas well production activities are expected to come from the operation of internal combustion non-road engines used in drilling and hydraulic fracturing, as well as engines that provide the power for gas compression. Additional associated emissions occur with on road truck traffic used for transportation of equipment and hydraulic fracturing fluid components.

Engine emissions have long been known to be a significant source of air pollution. As a result, control requirements for these sources have been in place for many years, and have been updated as engine technology and control methods have improved. Regulations and limits exist on both the federal and state level, and effectively mitigate the effect of cumulative emissions on air quality and the SIP. In New York, these measures include:

<u>Particulate Matter</u>
Locomotive Engines and Marine Compression-Ignition Engines Final Rule
Heavy Duty Diesel (2007) Engine Standard
Part 227: Stationary Combustion Installations

<u>Sulfur</u>
Federal Nonroad Diesel Rule
6 NYCRR Part 225: Fuel Composition and Use

<u>NO_x & VOCs</u>
Part 217: Motor Vehicle Emissions
Part 218: Emission Standards for Motor Vehicles and Motor Vehicle Engines

Part 248: New York State Diesel Emissions Reduction Act (DERA)

Small Spark-Ignition Engines

Federal On-board Vapor Recovery

In addition, to address mobile sources emissions which might occur due to diesel trucks idling during the drilling operations, Subpart 217-3 of the New York State ECL specifically addresses this issue by limiting heavy duty vehicle idling to less than five consecutive minutes when the heavy duty vehicle is not in motion, except as otherwise permitted. Enforcement of this regulation is performed by Department Conservation Officers and violation can result in a substantial fine.

The above requirements for stationary sources apply statewide and not just in nonattainment areas due to New York's status as part of an Ozone Transport Region state. This differs from other areas such as the Barnett Shale project in which different standards apply inside and outside of the Dallas/Fort Worth nonattainment area. Furthermore, additional requirements and potential controls specific to the operations for the Marcellus Shale gas development were addressed in Section 6.5.1 with respect to the well pad and the compressor station (e.g., NSPS and NESHAPs requirements per 40 CFR 60, subpart ZZZZ and Part 63, subpart HH). Certain of these measures restrict the emissions of O_3 precursors to the maximum extent possible with current control measure. In addition to the mandatory requirements that are in place as a result of the above rules that directly affect the types of emissions that are expected with the development of Marcellus Shale gas resources, there are a number of other recommended measures that have been incorporated in previous sections to further reduce the emissions associated with these operations and mitigate the cumulative impacts:

1. NO_x emission controls (i.e., SCRs) and particulate traps on all diesel completion equipment engines and on older tier drilling engines (see section 6.5.2);

2. Condensate and oil storage tanks should be equipped with vapor recovery units (see section 6.5.1.5); and

3. The institution of a fugitive control program to prevent leaks from valves, tanks, lines and other pressurized production operations and equipment (see section on greenhouse gas remediation).

Use of controls for excess gas releases, such as flares by REC should be implemented wherever practicable (see section 6.5.2). In addition, other measures such as the use of more modern equipment and electric motors instead of diesel engines, where available, are recommended.

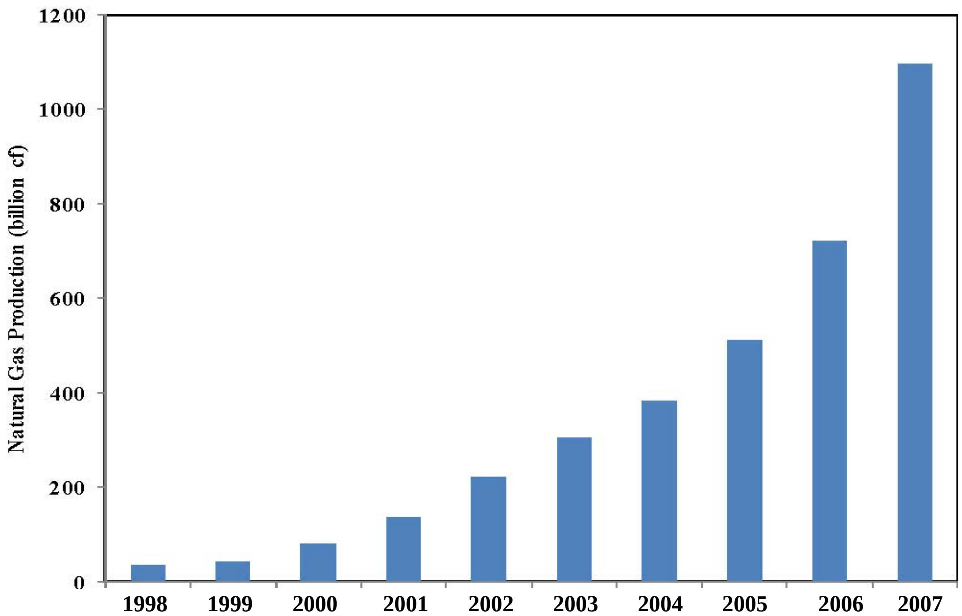
Regional NO_x and VOC Emission Estimates and Comparison to Estimates from another Gas-Producing Region

In order to assist the Department to develop a full understanding of the cumulative and regional emissions and impacts of developing the gas resources of the Marcellus Shale, available information from similar activities in other areas of the country has been reviewed. Notably, certain information from the Barnett Shale formation of north Texas, which has undergone extensive development of its oil and gas resources, was reviewed. The examination of the development of the Barnett Shale could be instructive in developing an approach to emissions control and mitigation efforts for the Marcellus Shale. As a result, the Department has examined one commonly referenced study and source of information on the regulation and control of air pollution from the development of the Barnett Shale.

First, the development of the gas resources of the Marcellus Shale, as with the Barnett Shale, not be spatially distributed evenly across the geographic extent of the region, but would likely concentrate in different areas at different times, depending on many factors and limitations, including the price of natural gas at any given moment, the ease of drilling one area versus another, and other legal/environmental constraints such as potential drilling in watersheds. As such, industry cannot project at this time as to where impacts may concentrate regionally within the Marcellus Shale region. Furthermore, well development would occur over time, wherein initially there would be a "ramping-up" period, followed by a nominal "peak" drilling period, and then a leveling off or dropping off period. Some of these factors and caveats are discussed in the ALL/IOGA-NY Information Report.

Thus, the cumulative impacts of gas well drilling within the Marcellus Shale would also vary depending on what point in time those impacts are measured as the development of the gas resource expands over time. As an example of how well development proceeded in the Barnett Shale, the Figure 6.12 indicates that gas production rose dramatically from 1998-2007. This chart is being used by the Department for illustration purposes only to indicate the timeframes which might be involved in the Marcellus development and not as an actual indication of expected development. Preliminary information from Pennsylvania indicates a more rapid increase in gas well drilling and production.

Figure 6.12 - Barnett Shale Natural Gas Production Trend, 1998-2007[365]



As drilling activities “ramp up,” the potential for greater environmental impacts likewise increase. In estimating the air emissions of drilling in the Marcellus Shale, a worst case (conservative) scenario of drilling and development was developed by IOGA-NY in response to an information request from the Department. The estimates are provided in the ALL/IOGA-NY Information Report. There are a number of caveats associated with these estimates so the absolute magnitudes of emissions should be interpreted accordingly. However, an estimate of worst case emissions are projected for the maximum likely number of wells (2216) to be drilled in the Marcellus Shale for the “peak” year of operations and the emission factors and duration of operations provided in the previous industry report (8/26/09) used in the modeling assessment.

[365] Taken from Armendariz (SMU), 2009, p. 2.

Some of the factors which were included in the estimates noted in the ALL/IOGA-NY Information Report include:

- Average emission rates for dry gas are used for every well for every phase of development;
- Maximum number of wells (both horizontal and vertical) in any year;
- No credit is taken for any mitigation measures, permit emissions controls, or state and federal regulatory requirements that are expected to reduce these estimates;
- Drilling emissions are conservatively estimated at 25 days for the horizontal wells;
- Heater emissions are included year-round in the production estimates; however, they would be seasonal and would take place during the non-ozone season;
- Off-pad compressor emissions are included in the production estimates; however, it is anticipated that most well pads would not include a compressor;
- No credit is taken for the rolling nature of development; i.e., that all wells would not be drilled or completed at the same time, on the same pad;
- No credit is taken for improved nonroad engine performance and resultant reduced NO_x emissions from the higher tier engines that would be phased in over time; and
- No credit is taken for reduced emission completions which would significantly reduce flaring and hence related NO_x and VOC emissions.

The ALL/IOGA-NY Industry Information Report predicted the ozone precursor emissions depicted in Table 6.21.

Table 6.21 - Predicted Ozone Precursor Emissions (Tpy)

	Drilling	**Completion**	**Production**	**Totals**
Horizontal - NO_x	8,376	5,903	8,347	22,626
Vertical - NO_x	409	345	927	1,681
Total NO_x	8,785	6,248	9,274	24,307
Horizontal - VOC	352	846	5,377	6,575
Vertical - VOC	17	81	597	695
Total VOC	369	927	5,974	7,270

It is seen that the total for NO_x emissions for the horizontal wells is made up of 37% each from drilling and production and 26% from completion. It is to be noted that for the latter emissions, about half is associated with potential flaring operations. For VOC emissions for the horizontal wells, the production sources dominate (82% of total). This is related to the dehydrator emissions assumed to operate for a full year. It is also noted that the completion VOC emissions are due to venting and flaring. Based on the above numbers, IOGA-NY concluded the impact from the development of the Marcellus at a worst-case peak development rate would add 3.7% to existing NO_x emissions on a statewide basis. This was based on the 2002 baseline emission inventory (EI) year used in New York's 2007 SIP demonstration for the 8-hr ozone standard[366]. A more germane comparison would be to the "upstate" area emissions where Marcellus Shale area is located. This comparative increase would be 10.4% for the same EI year. These upstate area emissions exclude the nine-county New York ozone nonattainment area, as well as the counties north and east of the area underlain by the Marcellus Shale.

The total NO_x emissions increase from this example is deemed significant, but does not account for the number of mitigation measures imposed and recommended in the revised SGEIS. For example, the use of SCR control to reduce NO_x emissions by 90% from the completion equipment engines would reduce the completion emission by about half, while the minimization of flaring operations by the use of REC would reduce the rest of these completion emissions down to a very small value which would significantly reduced the relative percentage. In addition, as noted by the IOGA-NY Information Report, the production sources used in the estimates of NO_x emissions are not likely to be used the full year and might not be even needed at many wells. Furthermore, the estimated drilling emissions assume the maximum number of days would be needed for each well and the associated use of older tier engines throughout the area and over the long-term. Thus, the relative percent of Marcellus well drilling emissions to the existing baseline is highly likely to be substantially less than the value above using the worst case estimates.

The IOGA-NY also concluded that the total VOC emissions of 7,270 Tpy from the development of the Marcellus Shale would add 0.54% to existing VOC emissions on a statewide basis. Using

[366] Ozone Attainment Demonstration for NY Metro Area - Final Proposed Revision, Appendix B, pp. 10-11 http://www.dec.ny.gov/chemical/37012.html.

the same baseline EI year as for NO_x, the relative increase for VOCs would be 1.3%. This increase is deemed small and also does not account for recommended mitigation measures such as the minimization of gas venting by REC.

The above NO_x and VOC relative emission comparisons do not include the contribution from the on road truck traffic associated with Marcellus Shale operations and which had to be estimated by the Department. The ALL/IOGA-NY Information Report included the light and heavy truck trips, but not the associated average mileage which is necessary to calculate emissions. Thus, the Department requested an average Vehicle Miles Traveled (VMT) for the two truck types and ALL Consulting provided the data in a response letter.[367] Based on this information, the Department projected the NO_x and VOC emissions from on road truck as discussed in the next subsection.

Effects of Increased Truck Traffic on Emissions

The initial modeling analysis did not address on-road mobile source emissions resulting from the drilling operations, specifically, diesel truck emissions, except at the well pad. The Department has analyzed the impact of increased emissions from truck traffic in the Marcellus Shale affected counties. As part of this analysis, the Department utilized estimates of VMT provided by ALL Consulting/IOGA-NY in response to the Department's information request to determine the environmental impacts of project related truck emissions. Industry estimated that the weighted average one way VMT for both light and heavy duty trucks to be approximately 20 to 25 miles for both horizontal and vertical wells.

The Department used these estimated average VMT for heavy-duty and light-duty trucks and the number of truck trips contained in the ALL/IOGANY Information Report to calculate the total additional VMT associated with drilling activities. These VMT, along with other existing New York-specific data were input to the EPA's Motor Vehicle Emission Simulator (MOVES) model to estimate NO_x and VOC emissions for the various truck activities. EPA Region 2 commented on the SGEIS and requested the use of the MOVES model. As EPA's approved mobile source model, MOVES incorporates revised EPA emission factors for various on-road mobile source activities and associated pollutants. The resulting emissions support a comparison of how traffic

[367] All Consulting letter of March 16, 2011 from Daniel Arthur to Brad Gill of IOGANY.

directly related to the drilling operations impacts the overall mobile emissions that normally would occur throughout the Marcellus Shale drilling area.

The estimated emissions of NO_x and VOCs (and well as other pollutants) that result from the additional light and heavy duty truck traffic expected with Marcellus well drilling are detailed in Appendix 18C. The emissions for the counties in the area underlain by the Marcellus Shale are presented for both the existing baseline activities as well as those associated with the drilling activities. In addition, the absolute and percent differences which represent the additional truck emissions are shown.

The results show that the total NO_x and VOC emissions are estimated to be 687 and 70 Tpy, respectively, and are expected to increase the existing baseline emissions by 0.66% and 0.17%. The maximum increase for any pollutant is 0.8%. These increases are deemed very small. In addition, the traffic related NO_x and VOC emissions are noted to be small fractions of the corresponding increased emissions due to other activities associated with gas drilling, as summarized in the last subsection. For example, the traffic related NO_x emissions are about 3% of the total NO_x emissions given in the above mentioned summary table. A simple estimate of traffic related emissions of PM2.5 per pad, using the total emissions and the number of maximum wells is shown in Appendix 18C to be 0.01 Tpy which is comparable to the previously estimated pad specific PM2.5 emissions noted in the modeling section which was estimated with the EPA MOBILE6 model.

Based on these results, the Department concluded that the estimated truck related emissions would be captured during the standard development of the mobile inventories for the SIP. These estimates are also noted to be within the variability associated with the MOVES model inputs.

Comparison to Barnett Shale Emission

A referenced report[368] on the Barnett Shale oil and gas production prepared by Southern Methodist University (SMU) for the Environmental Defense Fund (EDF) has been noted as a source of emission calculation schemes and resultant regional emissions for that region of Texas. In terms of the projected emissions of NO_x and VOCs, while caution should be exercised in

[368] Armendariz (SMU), 2009.

making comparisons between the two areas, a picture of emissions from the Barnett Shale may be a useful point of departure for understanding the magnitude and types of emissions to be expected with the development of the Marcellus Shale. The Department has not undertaken a review of the rationale or the methodologies used in the SMU report and is also aware of the Texas Commission on Environmental Quality (TCEQ)'s critique of the report.[369] Since the report, TCEQ has undertaken a detailed emission inventory development program to better characterize the sources and to quantify the corresponding emissions.

For the present purposes, it is necessary to provide a brief outline of the potential differences between the gas development activities and associated sources between the Barnett report and the industry projections for the Marcellus Shale. For example, the SMU report provided the relative amount of emissions from different source categories and corresponding NO_x and VOC emissions, as presented in Table 6.22 below. For comparison, the industry-provided emissions summarized above are 66.7 and 20 tons per day (Tpd) for NO_x and VOCs, respectively. However, the latter do not include some of the sources tabulated in the SMU report such that a straightforward comparison is not possible. Nonetheless, the SMU report notes that the largest group of VOC sources was condensate tank vents. Table 6.22 also indicates that fugitive emissions from production operations have a significant contribution to the VOC totals.

Table 6.22 - Barnett Shale Annual Average Emissions from All Sources[370]

Source	2007 Pollutants, Tons per day(Tpd)		2009 Pollutants, Tons per day (Tpd)	
	NOx	VOC	NOx	VOC
Compressor Engine Exhausts	51	15	46	19
Condensate And Oil Tanks	0	19	0	30
Production Fugitives	0	17	0	26
Well Drilling and Completion	5.5	21	5.5	21
Gas Processing	0	10	0	15
Transmission Fugitives	0	18	0	28
Total Daily Emissions (Tpd)	**56**	**100**	**51**	**139**

[370] Adapted from Armendariz (SMU), 2009 p. 24.

These might explain the differences in VOC emissions in that industry does not expect to use condensate tanks in New York due to the dry gas encountered in the Marcellus Shale. In addition, these tank emissions, if used, would be controlled by vapor recovery systems as noted in Section 6.5.2. In addition, all efforts would need to be made by industry to minimize fugitive emissions as recommended in the greenhouse gas emission mitigations section which would reduce concomitant VOC emissions.

The SMU report also provides charts which compare the total NO_x plus VOC emissions from the Barnett oil and gas sources to totals from on-road source categories in the Dallas-Fort Worth area, concluding that the former are larger than the on road emissions in some respects. However, these comparisons are not transferrable to the Marcellus Shale situation in New York not only because VOC emissions dominate these totals, but also since the comparisons are to a specific regional mix of sources not representative of the situation to be encountered in New York. On face value, the absolute magnitude of these total emissions is much larger than even a "worst-case" scenario for the Marcellus Shale.

Again, no firm predictions or projections can be made at this time as to where or when gas drilling impacts may concentrate regionally within the Marcellus Shale, but the Department would continue to avail itself of the knowledge and lessons learned from similar regional shale gas development projects in other parts of the country.

Further Discussions and Conclusions

There are stringent regulatory controls already in place for controlling emissions from stationary and mobile sources in New York. With additional required emission controls recommended in the revised SGEIS for the operations associated with drilling activities, coupled with potential deployment of further emission controls arising from upcoming O_3 SIP implementation actions, the Department is confident that the effect of cumulative impacts from the development of gas resources in the multi-county area underlain by the Marcellus Shale would be adequately mitigated. Thus, the Department would be able to continue to meet attainment goals that it has set forth in cooperation with EPA. In addition to eliminating the use of uncertified and certain older tier engines and requiring specific mitigation measures to substantially reduce PM and NO_x emissions in order to meet NAAQS, the Department would review the need for certain additional mitigation prior to finalizing the SGEIS. As part of the information, the Department is seeking from industry an implementation timeline to expedite the use of higher tier drilling and completion equipment engines in New York. Furthermore, as the Department readies for the soon to be announced revised O_3 NAAQS and potential revisions to the PM2.5 NAAQS, the need for imposing further controls on drilling engines not being currently required to be equipped with PM traps and SCR would be revisited. If it is determined that further mitigation is necessary, further controls would be required. The review would consider the relatively high contribution to regional emissions of NO_x from the drilling engines and result from regional modeling of O_3 precursors which would be performed in preparation of the Ozone SIP.

Regional photochemical air quality modeling is a standard tool used to project the consequences of regional emission strategies for the SIP. The application of these models is very time and resource intensive. For example, these require detailed information on the spatial distribution of the emissions of various species of pollutants from not only New York sources, but from those in neighboring states in order to properly determine impacts of NO_x and VOC precursor emissions on regional O_3 levels. At present, detailed necessary information for the proper applications of this modeling exercise is lacking. However, as part of its commitment to the EPA, and in cooperation with the Ozone Transport Commission to consider future year emission strategies for the Ozone SIP, the Department would include the emissions from Marcellus Shale operations in subsequent SIP modeling scenarios. As such, properly quantified emissions specifically resulting from Marcellus Shale operations would be included in future SIP inventories to the extent that the information becomes available. Interim to this detailed modeling, the Department would perform a screening level regional modeling exercise by adding the projected emissions associated with New York's portion of the Marcellus Shale drilling to the baseline inventory which is currently being finalized. This modeling would guide the Department's finalization of the SGEIS. In addition to the availability of the regional modeling results, the Department has recommended that a monitoring program be undertaken by industry to address both regional and local air quality concerns as discussed in the next section.

6.5.4 Air Quality Monitoring Requirements for Marcellus Shale Activities

In order to fully address potential for adverse air quality impacts beyond those analyzed in the SGEIS relate to associated activities which are either not fully known at this time or verifiable by

the assessments to date, it has been determined that a monitoring program would be undertaken. For example, the consequences of the increased regional NO_x and VOC emissions on the resultant levels of ozone and PM2.5 cannot be fully addressed by only modeling at this stage due to the lack of detail on the distribution of the wells and compressor stations. In addition, any potential emissions of certain VOCs at the well sites due to fugitive emissions, including possible endogenous level, and from the drilling and gas processing equipment at the compressor station (e.g. glycol dehydrators) are not fully quantifiable. Thus, it has been determined that an air monitoring plan is necessary to address these regional concerns as well as to verify the local-scale impact of emissions from the three phases of gas field development: drilling, completion and production. The monitoring plan discussed herein is determined to be the level of effort necessary to assure that the overall activities of the gas drilling in the Marcellus Shale would not cause adverse regional or local air quality impacts. The monitoring is an integral component of the requirements for industry to undertake to satisfy the SEQRA findings of acceptable air quality levels.

Based on the results from the Department's assessments of gas production emissions, and in consideration of the well permitting approach and the modeling analysis, an air monitoring plan has been developed to address the level of effort necessary to determine and distinguish both background and drilling related concentrations of pertinent pollutants. In addition, a review of previous monitoring activities for shale drilling conducted by the TCEQ[371] and the PADEP[372] was undertaken to better characterize the monitoring needs and instrumentation. The approach selected as best suited for monitoring for New York Marcellus Shale activities combines a regional and local scale monitoring effort aimed at different aspects of emission impact characterization. These two efforts are as follows:

[371] See: http://www.bseec.org/content/tceq-full-review-armendariz-study-barnett-shale-pollution.

[372] See: http://www.dep.state.pa.us/dep/deputate/airwaste/aq/toxics/toxics.htm.

1) Regional level monitoring: In order to assess the impact of regional emissions of precursors including VOCs and NO_x, monitoring for O_3 and PM2.5 would need to be conducted at two locations. One would be a "background" site and another would need to be placed at a downwind location sited to reflect the likely impact area from the atmospheric transport and conversion of the precursors into secondary pollutants. These would enhance the current Department O_3 monitoring in the area. These sites would also need to be equipped with air toxics monitors so that pollutant levels can be compared to each other and to other existing sites; and

2) Near-field/local scale monitoring at various locations in the Marcellus Shale: This monitoring can be intermittent but would be carried out in areas expected to be directly impacted by one or more wells and compressor stations. The data from this monitoring effort would be used to assess the significance of the various known drilling related activities and to identify specific pollutants that may pose a concern. In addition, possible fugitive emissions of certain VOCs should be monitored to locate and mitigate emissions, beyond those necessary for worker safety purposes. The Department has identified specific well drilling activities and pollutants which have been found to be related to these activities and recommends that these are included in the near-field monitoring program See Table 6.23.

Table 6.23 - Near-Field Pollutants of Concern for Inclusion in the
Near-Field Monitoring Program (New July 2011)

Well Pad and Related Activity	Pollutants of Concern
Drilling and Completing (completion equipment) Engines	1-Hour NO_2 and 24-hour PM2.5
Gas venting (could be potentially mitigated by REC)	BTEX, formaldehyde, H_2S or another odorant.
Glycol dehydrator and condensate tanks at either the well pad or at the compressor station (if wet gas is present)	BTEX, benzene, and formaldehyde.
Leaks and fugitives	Methane and VOC emissions

The near-field local scale monitoring is expected to be performed periodically with field campaigns typically lasting a few days when activities are occurring at the well pad and when the compressor station is operational and operating near maximum gas flow conditions. Since the scope of gas related emissions from one area of operation to another is limited, it is anticipated that after a few intensive near-field monitoring campaigns, adequate and representative data would be gathered to understand the potential impacts of the various phases of gas drilling and production. At that point, the level of effort and the further need for the short term monitoring would be evaluated. In addition to the near-field monitoring, it is anticipated that a similar level of short term monitoring would be conducted on a limited basis at a nearby residential location or in a representative community setting to determine the actual exposure to the public.

However, based on the results from the TCEQ and PADEP monitoring, the potential for finding relatively higher concentrations would likely be in close proximity to the well pad and compressor station.

It is expected that the cost and implementation of this monitoring would be the responsibility of industry. To carry out this monitoring plan, a specific set of monitoring equipment and procedures would be necessary. Some of these deviate from the “traditional” compliance oriented monitoring plans; for example, due to the relatively short term and intensive monitoring required at various locations of activities, the suggested approach would be to operate a mobile equipped unit. Department monitoring staff has longstanding expertise in conducting this type of monitoring over the last two decades. The most recent local-scale monitoring project carried out by the Department was the Tonawanda Community Air Quality Monitoring project.

As an alternative to industry implementing this monitoring plan in a repetitive company by company stepwise fashion as gas development progresses, it is the Department ’s preference that the monitoring be undertaken by the Department’s Division of Air Resources monitoring staff. However, this alternative cannot be carried out with current Department staff or equipment and would only be possible with additional staff and equipment resources. This alternative is preferred from a number of standpoints, including:

1) Overall program cost would be reduced because each operator would not be responsible for their own monitoring program. Even if the operators are able to hire a common consultant, there would be complexities in allocation the work to various locations;

2) The Department would not have to “oversee” contractor work hired either by industry or by the Department;

3) The timing and production of data analysis would be simplified and reports would be under the Department’s control;

4) The Department can utilize certain existing monitor sites for the regional monitoring program;

5) The central coordination would minimize the overall costs of the monitoring; and

6) The Department would have the ability to monitor near the compressor stations which might not be within the control of the drilling operators.

If the Department was to receive the necessary funding and staff to conduct the monitoring, the following table identifies some of the specifics associated with the expected level of monitoring.

Table 6.24 - Department Air Quality Monitoring Requirements for Marcellus Shale Activities (New July 2011)

Monitoring Parameters	**Purpose of Monitoring**	**Proposed Scheme and Instrumentation Needs.**
Regional scale O_3, PM2.5, NO_2 and add toxics.	To assess the impact of regional VOC and NO_x emissions on Ozone and PM2.5 levels.	Add a Department monitoring trailer to a new site in Binghamton, plus add toxics at existing Pinnacle site and the new site.
Local/near field monitoring for BTEX, methane, formaldehyde, sulfur (plus O_3, PM2.5 and NO_2)	To assess impacts close-by to well pads, compressor stations and associated equipment (e.g. glycol dehydrator, condensate tanks). Also, limited follow- up in nearby communities.	Purpose-built vehicle with generators as a mobile laboratory. A less desirable alternative is a “stationary” trailer which would need days for initialization.
Intermittent methane and VOC leaks from sources (e.g. fugitive)	To detect and initiate company mitigation of fugitive leaks.	Forward Looking Infrared (FLIR) cameras- one for routine inspections, second to respond to complaints.
“Saturated” BTEX and other VOC species monitoring	To verify the spatial extent of the mobile monitoring results.	Manually operated canister samplers which can be analyzed for 1 to 24-hour concentrations of various toxics.

This monitoring would be the minimum level of effort necessary to properly characterize the air quality in the affected areas for the pollutants which have been identified as possibly requiring mitigation measures or having an effect due to regional emissions. In developing the monitoring approach, Department staff has reviewed the results of the monitoring conducted by TCEQ and PADEP to learn from their experiences, as well as from our own toxics monitoring experiences. To that end, it was determined that a mobile unit with the necessary equipment which would best perform the monitoring for both near-field and representative community based areas. The use of an open path Fourier-transform Infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy used in the PADEP study was evaluated, but deemed unnecessary due to the fact that the mobile unit would be detecting the same pollutants at lower more health relevant detection levels. To overcome the potential concern with spatial representativeness of the near-field monitoring program, the Department recommends augmenting the mobile vehicle with manually placed canisters which could be used on a limited basis to provide a wider areal coverage during the various activities and as a secondary confirmation of the mobile unit results.

The monitoring plan outlined above would be used to address public concerns with the actual pollutant levels in the areas undergoing drilling activities. In addition, it could assist in the identification of the level of conservatism used in the emission estimates for the well pads, the Marcellus area region, and modeling analysis which have been noted as concerns.

6.5.5 Permitting Approach to the Well Pad and Compressor Station Operations

The discussions in subsection 6.5.1.8 of the regulatory applicability section outline the approach which the Department has determined is in line with regulatory permitting requirements and which best address the issues surrounding the air permitting of the three phases of gas drilling, completion and production. The use of the compressor station air permit application process to determine the regulatory disposition and necessary control measures on a case-by-case basis is in keeping with the approach taken throughout the country, as affirmed by EPA in a number of instances. This review process would allow the proper determination of the applicable regulations to both the compressor station and all associated well operations in defining the facility to which the requirements should apply. In concert with the strict operational restrictions determined in the modeling section necessary for the drilling and completion equipment engines, the self-imposed operational and emission limits put forth by industry would assure compliance with all applicable standards. To further assure that these restrictions are adhered to for all well operations, a set of necessary conditions identified in Section 7.5.3 and Appendix 10 will be included in DMN well permits.

DMN Well Drilling Permit Process Requirements

Based on industry's self-imposed limitations on operations and the Department's determination of conditions necessary to avoid or mitigate adverse air quality impacts from the well drilling, completion and production operations, mitigation noted in Chapter 7 would be imposed in the well permitting process.

6.6 Greenhouse Gas Emissions

On July 15, 2009, the Department's Office of Air, Energy and Climate issued its *Guide for Assessing Energy Use and Greenhouse Gas Emissions in an Environmental Impact Statement*.[373] The policy reflected in the guide is used by Department staff in reviewing an environmental impact statement (EIS) when the Department is the lead agency under SEQRA and energy use or GHG emissions have been identified as significant in a positive declaration, or as a result of scoping, and, therefore, are required to be discussed in an EIS. Following is an assessment of potential GHG emissions for the exploration and development of the Marcellus Shale and other low-permeability gas reservoirs using high-volume hydraulic fracturing.

SEQRA requires that lead agencies identify and assess adverse environmental impacts, and then mitigate or reduce such impacts to the extent they are found to be significant. Consistent with this requirement, SEQRA can be used to identify and assess climate change impacts, as well as the steps to minimize the emissions of GHGs that cause climate change. Many measures that would minimize emissions of GHGs would also advance other long-established State policy goals, such as energy efficiency and conservation; the use of renewable energy technologies; waste reduction and recycling; and smart and sustainable economic growth. The *Guide for Assessing Energy Use and Greenhouse Gas Emissions in an Environmental Impact Statement* is

[373] http://www.dec.ny.gov/docs/administration_pdf/eisghgpolicy.pdf.

not the only State policy or initiative to promote these goals; instead, it furthers these goals by providing for consideration of energy conservation and GHG emissions within EIS reviews.[374]

The goal of this analysis is to characterize and present an estimate of GHG emissions for the siting, drilling and completion of 1) single vertical well, 2) single horizontal well, 3) four-well pad (i.e., four horizontal wells at the same site), and respective first-year and post first-year emissions of CO_2, and other relative GHGs, as both short tons and as carbon dioxide equivalents (CO_2e) expressed in short tons, for exploration and development of the Marcellus Shale and other low-permeability gas reservoirs using high volume hydraulic fracturing. In addition, the major contributors of GHGs are to be identified and potential mitigation measures offered.

6.6.1 Greenhouse Gases

The two most abundant gases in the atmosphere, nitrogen (comprising 78% of the dry atmosphere) and oxygen (comprising 21%), exert almost no greenhouse effect. Instead, the greenhouse effect comes from molecules that are more complex and much less common. Water vapor is the most important greenhouse gas, and CO_2 is the second-most important one.[375] Human activities result in emissions of four principal GHGs: CO_2, methane (CH_4), nitrous oxide (N_2O) and the halocarbons (a group of gases containing fluorine, chlorine and bromine). These gases accumulate in the atmosphere, causing concentrations to increase with time. Many human activities contribute GHGs to the atmosphere.[376] Whenever fossil fuel (coal, oil or gas) burns, CO_2 is released to the air. Other processes generate CH_4, N_2O and halocarbons and other GHGs that are less abundant than CO_2, but even better at retaining heat.[377]

6.6.2 Emissions from Oil and Gas Operations

GHG emissions from oil and gas operations are typically categorized into 1) vented emissions, 2) combustion emissions and 3) fugitive emissions. Below is a description of each type of emission. For the noted emission types, no distinction is made between direct and indirect emissions in this analysis. Further, this GHG discussion is focused on CO_2 and CH_4 emissions

[374] http://www.dec.ny.gov/docs/administration_pdf/eisghgpolicy.pdf.

[375] http://ipcc-wg1.ucar.edu/wg1/Report/AR4WG1_Print_FAQs.pdf.

[376] http://ipcc-wg1.ucar.edu/wg1/Report/AR4WG1_Print_FAQs.pdf.

[377] http://www.dec.ny.gov/energy/44992.html.

as these are the most prevalent GHGs emitted from oil and gas industry operations, including expected exploration and development of the Marcellus Shale and other low-permeability gas reservoirs using high volume hydraulic fracturing. Virtually all companies within the industry would be expected to have emissions of CO_2 - and, to a lesser extent, CH_4 and N_2O - since these gases are produced through combustion. Both CH_4 and CO_2 are also part of the materials processed by the industry as they are produced in varying quantities, from oil and gas wells. Because the quantities of N_2O produced through combustion are quite small compared to the amount of CO_2 produced, CO_2 and CH_4 are the predominant oil and gas industry GHGs.[378]

6.6.2.1 Vented Emissions

Vented sources are defined as releases resulting from normal operations. Vented emissions of CH_4 can result from the venting of natural gas encountered during drilling operations, flow from the flare stack during the initial stage of flowback, pneumatic device vents, dehydrator operation, and compressor start-ups and blowdowns. Oil and natural gas operations are the largest human-made source of CH_4 emissions in the United States and the second largest human-made source of CH_4 emissions globally. Given methane's role as both a potent greenhouse gas and clean energy source, reducing these emissions can have significant environmental and economic benefits. Efforts to reduce CH_4 emissions not only conserve natural gas resources but also generate additional revenues, increase operational efficiency, and make positive contributions to the global environment.[379]

6.6.2.2 Combustion Emissions

Combustion emissions can result from stationary sources (e.g., engines for drilling, hydraulic fracturing and natural gas compression), mobile sources and flares. Carbon dioxide, CH_4, and N_2O are produced and/or emitted as a result of hydrocarbon combustion. Carbon dioxide emissions result from the oxidation of the hydrocarbons during combustion. Nearly all of the fuel carbon is converted to CO_2 during the combustion process, and this conversion is relatively independent of the fuel or firing configuration. Methane emissions may result due to incomplete

[378] IPIECA and API, December 2003, p. 5-2.

[379] http://www.epa.gov/gasstar/documents/ngstar_mktg-factsheet.pdf.

combustion of the fuel gas, which is emitted as unburned CH_4. Overall, CH_4 and N_2O emissions from combustion sources are significantly less than CO_2 emissions.[380]

6.6.2.3 Fugitive Emissions

Fugitive emissions are defined as unintentional gas leaks to the atmosphere and pose several challenges for quantification since they are typically invisible, odorless and not audible, and often go unnoticed. Examples of fugitive emissions include CH_4 leaks from flanges, tube fittings, valve stem packing, open-ended lines, compressor seals, and pressure relief valve seats. Three typical ways to quantify fugitive emissions at a natural gas industry site are 1) facility level emission factors, 2) component level emission factors paired with component counts, and 3) measurement studies.[381] In the context of GHG emissions, fugitive sources within the upstream segment of the oil and gas industry are of concern mainly due to the high concentration of CH_4 in many gaseous streams, as well as the presence of CO_2 in some streams. However, relative to combustion and process emissions, fugitive CH_4 and CO_2 contributions are insignificant.[382]

6.6.3 Emissions Source Characterization

Emissions of CO_2 and CH_4 occur at many stages of the drilling, completion and production phases, and can be dependent upon technologies applied and practices employed. Considerable research – sponsored by the API, the Gas Research Institute (GRI) and the EPA – has been directed towards developing relatively robust emissions estimates at the national level.[383] The analytical techniques and emissions factors, and mitigation measures, developed by the these agencies were used to evaluate GHG emissions from activities necessary for the exploration and development of the Marcellus Shale and other low-permeability gas reservoirs using high-volume hydraulic fracturing.

In 2009, NYSERDA contracted ICF International (ICF) to assist with supporting studies for the development of the SGEIS. ICF's work included preparation of a technical analysis of potential impacts to air in the form of a report finalized in August 2009.[384] The report, which includes a

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[380] API 2004; amended 2005. p 4-1.
[381] ICF Task 2, 2009, p. 21.
[382] IPIECA and API, December 2003., p. 5-6.
[383] New Mexico Climate Change Advisory Group, November 2006, , pp. D-35.
[384] ICF Task 2, 2009.

discussion on GHGs, provided the basis for the following in-depth analysis of potential GHGs from the subject activity. ICF's referenced study identifies drilling, completion and production operations and equipment that contribute to GHG emission and provides corresponding emission rates, and this information facilitated the following analysis by identifying system components on an operational basis. As such, wellsite operations considered in the SGEIS were divided into the following phases for this GHG analysis:

- Drilling Rig Mobilization, Site Preparation and Demobilization;
- Completion Rig Mobilization and Demobilization;
- Well Drilling;
- Well Completion (includes hydraulic fracturing and flowback); and
- Well Production.

Transport of materials and equipment is an integral component of the oil and gas industry. Simply stated, a well cannot be drilled, completed or produced without GHGs being emitted from mobile sources. The estimated required truck trips per well and corresponding fuel usage for the below noted phases requiring transportation, except well production, were provided by industry.[385]

<u>Drilling Rig Mobilization, Site Preparation and Demobilization</u>

Drill Pad and Road Construction Equipment
Drilling Rig
Drilling Fluid and Materials
Drilling Equipment (casing, drill pipe, etc.)

<u>Completion Rig Mobilization and Demobilization</u>

Completion Rig

[385] ALL Consulting, 2011, Exhibits 19B, 20B.

Well Completion

Completion Fluid and Materials
Completion Equipment (pipe, wellhead)
Hydraulic Fracturing Equipment (pump trucks, tanks)
Hydraulic Fracturing Water
Hydraulic Fracturing Sand
Flow Back Water Removal

Well Production[386]

Production Equipment (5 – 10 Truckloads)

Mileage estimates for both light duty and heavy duty trucks were used to determine total fuel usage associated with site preparation and rig mobilizations, well completion and well production activities. As further discussed below, when actual or estimated fuel use data was not available, VMT formed the basis for estimating CO_2 emissions.

Three distinct types of well projects were evaluated for GHG emissions as follows:

- Single-Well Vertical Project;
- Single-Well Horizontal Project; and
- Four -Well Pad (i.e., four horizontal wells at the same site).

For rig and equipment mobilizations for each of the project types noted above, it was assumed that all work involving the same activity would be finished before commencing a different activity. In other words, the site would be prepared and the drilling rig mobilized, then all wells (i.e., one or four) would be drilled, followed by the completion of all wells (i.e., one or four) and subsequent production of all wells (i.e., one or four). A number of operators have indicated to the Department that activities on multi-well pads would be conducted sequentially, whenever possible, to realize the greatest efficiency but the actual order of work events and number of wells on a given pad may vary. Nevertheless, four wells was the number of wells selected for

[386] NTC Consultants. *Impacts on Community Character of Horizontal Drilling and High Volume Hydraulic Fracturing in the Marcellus Shale and Other Low-Permeability Gas Reservoirs*, September 2009.

the multi-well pad GHG analysis because industry indicated that number would be the maximum number of wells drilled at the same site in any 12 consecutive months.

Stationary engines and equipment emit CO_2 and/or CH_4 during drilling and completion operations. However, most are not typically operating at their full load every hour of each day while on location. For example, certain engines may be shut down completely or operating at a very low load during bit trips, geophysical logging or the running of casing strings. Consequently, for the purpose of this analysis and as noted in Table 6.25 and Table 6.26 below, it was assumed that engines and equipment for drilling and completion operations generally operate at full load for 50% of their time on location. Exceptions to this included engines and equipment used for hydraulic fracturing and flaring operations. Instead of relying on an assumed time frame for operation for the many engines that drive the high-pressure high-volume pumps used for hydraulic fracturing, an average of the fuel usage from eight Marcellus Shale hydraulic fracturing jobs performed on horizontally drilled wells in neighboring Pennsylvania and West Virginia was used.[387] In addition, flaring operations and associated equipment were assumed to be operating at 100% for the entire estimated flaring period.

Table 6.25 - Assumed Drilling & Completion Time Frames for Single Vertical Well (New July 2011)

Operation	Estimated Duration (days / hrs.)	Assumed Full Load Operational Duration for Related Equipment (days / hrs.)
Well Drilling	13 / 312	6½ / 156
Completion	¼ / 6 (hydraulic fracturing) 1 / 24 (rig)	¼ / 6 (hydraulic fracturing) ½ / 12 (rig)
Flaring	3 / 72	3 / 72

Table 6.26 - Assumed Drilling & Completion Time Frames for Single Horizontal Well (Updated July 2011)

Operation	Estimated Duration (days / hrs.)	Assumed Full Load Operational Duration for Related Equipment (days / hrs.)
Well Drilling	25 / 600	12½ / 300
Completion	2 / 48 (hydraulic fracturing) 2 / 48 (rig)	2 / 48 (hydraulic fracturing) 1 / 24 (rig)
Flaring	3 / 72	3 / 72

387 ALL Consulting, 2009, Table 11, p. 10.

Stationary engines and equipment also emit CO_2 and/or CH_4 during production operations. In contrast to drilling and completion operations, production equipment generally operates around the clock (i.e., 8,760 hours per year) except for scheduled or intermittent shutdowns.

6.6.4 Emission Rates

The primary reference for emission rates for stationary production equipment considered in this analysis is the GRI's *Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry*. Table GHG-1 "Emission Rates for Well Pad" in Appendix 19, Part A shows greenhouse gas (GHG) emission rates for associated equipment used during natural gas well production operations. Table GHG-1 was adapted from an analysis of potential impacts to air performed in 2009 by ICF International under contract to NYSERDA. GHG emission rates for flaring during the completion phase were also obtained from the ICF International study. The emission factors in the table are typically listed in units of pounds emitted per hour for each piece of equipment or are based on gas throughput. The emissions rates specified in the table were used to determine the annual emissions in tons for each stationary source, except for engines used for rig and hydraulic fracturing engines, using the below equation. The *Activity Factor* represents the number of pieces of equipment or occurrences.

$$\text{Emissions (tons/yr.)} = \text{Emissions Factor (lbs./hr)} \times \text{Duration (yr.)} \times (8{,}760 \text{ hrs/yr.}) \times (1 \text{ US short ton}/2{,}000 \text{ lbs}) \times \text{Activity Factor}$$

A material balance approach based on fuel usage and fuel carbon analysis, assuming complete combustion (i.e., 100% of the fuel carbon combusts to form CO_2), is the preferred technique for estimating CO_2 emissions from stationary combustion engines.[388] This approach was used for the engines required for conducting drilling and hydraulic fracturing operations. Actual fuel usage, such as the volume of fuel needed to perform hydraulic fracturing, was used where available to determine CO_2 emissions. For emission sources where actual fuel usage data was not available, estimates were made based on the type and use of the engines needed to perform the work. For GHG emission from mobile sources, such as trucks used to transport equipment and materials, where fuel use data was not available VMT was used to estimate fuel usage. The calculated fuel used was then used to determine estimated CO_2 emissions from the mobile

[388] API, 2004; amended 2005., p. 4-3.

sources. A sample calculation showing this methodology for determining combustion emissions (CO_2) from mobile sources is included as Appendix 19, Part B.

Carbon dioxide and CH_4 emissions, the focus of this analysis, are produced from the flaring of natural gas during the well completion phase. Emission rates and calculations from the flaring of natural gas are presented in the previously mentioned 2009 ICF International report. In that report, it was determined that approximately 576 tons of CO_2 and 4.1 tons of CH_4 are emitted each day for a well being flared at a rate of 10 MMcf/d. ICF International's calculations assumed that 2% of the gas by volume goes uncombusted. ICF International relied on an average composition of Marcellus Shale gas to perform its emissions calculations.

6.6.5 Drilling Rig Mobilization, Site Preparation and Demobilization

Transportation combustion sources are the engines that provide motive power for vehicles used as part of wellsite operations. Transportation sources may include vehicles such as cars and trucks used for work-related personnel transport, as well as tanker trucks and flatbed trucks used to haul equipment and supplies. Light-duty and heavy-duty vehicles use is accounted for and differentiated in this analysis.[389] The fossil fuel-fired internal combustion engines used in transportation are a significant source of CO_2 emissions. Small quantities of CH_4 and N_2O are also emitted based on fuel composition, combustion conditions, and post-combustion control technology. Estimating emissions from mobile sources is complex, requiring detailed information on the types of mobile sources, fuel types, vehicle fleet age, maintenance procedures, operating conditions and frequency, emissions controls, and fuel consumption. The EPA has developed a software model, MOBILE Vehicle Emissions Modeling Software, that accounts for these factors in calculating exhaust emissions (CO_2, HC, CO, NO_x, particulate matter, and toxics) for gasoline and diesel fueled vehicles. The preferred approach for estimating CH_4 and N_2O emissions from mobile sources is to assume that these emissions are negligible compared to CO_2.[390]

An alternative to using modeling software for determining CO_2 emissions for general characterization is to estimate GHG emissions using VMT, which includes a determination of

[389] ALL Consulting, 2011, Exhibits 19B, 20B.

[390] API, 2004; amended 2005, pp. 4-32, 4-33.

estimated fuel usage, or use a fuel usage estimate if available. These methodologies were used to calculate the tons of CO_2 emissions from mobile sources related to the subject activity. A sample CO_2 emissions calculation using fuel consumption is shown in Appendix 19, Part B. Table GHG-2 in Appendix 19, Part A includes CO_2 emission estimates for transporting the equipment necessary for constructing the access road and well pad, and moving the drilling rig to and from the well site. For horizontal wells, Table GHG-2 assumes that the same rig stays on location and drills both the vertical and lateral portions of a well.

As previously mentioned, because all activities are assumed to be performed sequentially requiring a single rig move, the GHG emissions presented in Table GHG-2 are representative of either a one-well project or four-well pad. As shown in the table, approximately 15 tons of CO_2 emissions are expected from a mobilization of the drilling rig, including site preparation. Site preparation for a single vertical well would be less due to a smaller pad size but for simplification site preparation is assumed the same for all well scenarios considered. The calculated CO_2 emissions shown in this table and all other tables included in this analysis have been rounded up to the next whole number.

6.6.6 Completion Rig Mobilization and Demobilization

Table GHG-3 in Appendix 19, Part A includes CO_2 emission estimates for transporting the completion rig to and from the wellsite. As shown in the table, approximately 4 tons of CO_2 emissions may be generated from a mobilization of the completion rig. For simplification, transportation associated with rig mobilization for the completion rig was assumed to be the same as that for the drilling rig. It is acknowledged that this assumption is conservative.

6.6.7 Well Drilling

Vertical wells may be drilled entirely using compressed air as the drilling fluid or possibly with air for a portion of the well and mud in the target interval. For horizontal wells, drilling activities would typically include the drilling of the vertical and lateral portions of a well using compressed air and mud (or other fluid) respectively. Regardless of the type of well, drilling activities are dependent on the internal combustion engines needed to supply electrical or hydraulic power to: 1) the rotary table or topdrive that turns the drillstring, 2) the drawworks, 3) air compressors, and 4) mud pumps. Carbon dioxide emissions occur from the engines needed to perform the work required to spud the well and reach its total depth. Table GHG-4 in Appendix 19, Part A includes estimates for CO_2 emissions generated by these stationary sources. As shown in the table, approximately 83 tons of CO_2 emissions per single vertical well would be generated as a result of drilling operations. Tables GHG-5 and GHG-6 show CO_2 emissions of 194 tons and 776 tons for the drilling of a single horizontal well and four-well pad, respectively.

6.6.8 Well Completion

Well completion activities include 1) transport of required equipment and materials to and from the site, 2) hydraulic fracturing of the well, 3) a flowback period, including flaring, to clean the well of fracturing fluid and excess sand used as the hydraulic fracturing proppant, 4) drilling out of hydraulic fracturing stage plugs and the running of production tubing by the completion rig and 5) site reclamation. Mobile and stationary engines, and equipment used during the aforementioned completion activities emit CO_2 and/or CH_4. Tables GHG-7, GHG-8 and GHG-9 in Appendix 19, Part A include estimates of individual and total emissions of CO_2 and CH_4 generated during the completion phase for a single vertical well, single horizontal well and a four-well pad, respectively.

Similar to the above discussion regarding mobilization and demobilization of rigs, transport of equipment and materials, which results in CO_2 emissions, is necessary for completion of wells. The results of this evaluation are shown in Tables GHG-7, GHG-8 and GHG-9 of Appendix 19, Part A. GHG emissions of CO_2 from transportation provided in the tables rely on estimated fuel usage for both light and heavy trucks. A sample calculation for determining CO_2 emissions based on fuel usage is shown in Appendix 19, Part B. As shown in Table GHG-7, transportation related completion-phase emissions of CO_2 for a single vertical well is estimated at 12 tons. For the single horizontal well and the four-well pad (see Table GHG-8 and GHG-9), transportation related completion-phase CO_2 emissions are estimated at 31 to 115 tons, respectively.

Hydraulic fracturing operations require the use of many engines needed to drive the high-pressure high-volume pumps used for hydraulic fracturing (see multiple “Pump trucks” in the Photos Section of Chapter 6). As previously discussed and shown in Table GHG-5 in Appendix 19, Part A, an average (i.e., 29,000 gallons of diesel) of the fuel usage from eight Marcellus Shale hydraulic fracturing jobs performed on horizontally drilled wells in neighboring

Pennsylvania and West Virginia was used to calculate the estimated amount of CO_2 emitted during hydraulic fracturing. Fuel usage for the single vertical well was prorated to account for less time pumping (i.e., one-eighth). Tables GHG-7, GHG-8 and GHG-9 show that approximately 54 tons and 325 tons of CO_2 emissions per well would be generated as a result of single vertical well and single horizontal well hydraulic fracturing operations, respectively.

Subsequent to hydraulic fracturing in which fluids are pumped into the well, the direction of flow is reversed and flowback waters, including reservoir gas, are routed through separation equipment to remove excess sand, then through a line heater and finally through a separator to separate water and gas on route to the flare stack. Generally speaking, flares in the oil and gas industry are used to manage the disposal of hydrocarbons from routine operations, upsets, or emergencies via combustion.[391] However, only controlled combustion events would be flared through stacks used during the completion phase for the Marcellus Shale and other low-permeability gas reservoirs. A flaring period of 3 days was considered for this analysis for the vertical and horizontal wells respectively although the actual period could be either shorter or longer.

Initially, only a small amount of gas recovered from the well is vented for a relatively short period of time. If a sales line is available, once the flow rate of gas is sufficient to sustain combustion in a flare, the gas is flared until there is sufficient flowing pressure to flow the gas into the sales line.[392] Otherwise, the gas is flared and combusted at the flare stack. As shown in Tables GHG-7 and GHG-8 in Appendix 19, Part A, approximately 1,728 tons of CO_2 and 12 tons of CH_4 emissions are generated per well during a three-day flaring operation for a 10 Mmcf/d flowrate. As mentioned above, the actual duration of flaring may be more or less. The CH_4 emissions during flaring result from 2% of the gas flow remaining uncombusted. ICF computed the primary CO_2 and CH_4 emissions rates using an average Marcellus gas composition.[393] The duration of flaring operations may be shortened by using specialized gas recovery equipment, provided a gas sales line is in place at the time of commencing flowback from the well. Recovering the gas to a sales line, instead of flaring it, is called a REC and is

[391] API, 2004; amended 2005. p. 4-27.

[392] ALL Consulting, 2009. p. 14.

[393] ICF Task 2, 2009, p. 28.

further discussed in Chapter 7 as a possible mitigation measure, and in Appendix 25 (REC Executive Summary included by ICF for its work in support of preparation of the SGEIS).

The final work conducted during the completion phase consists of using a completion rig, possibly a coiled-tubing unit, to drill out the hydraulic fracturing stage plugs and run the production tubing in the well. Assuming a fuel consumption rate of 25 gallons per hour and an operating period of 24 hours, the rig engines needed to perform this work emit CO_2 at a rate of approximately 4 tons per single vertical well and 7 tons per single horizontal well. No stage plug milling is normally required and less tubing is run for a single vertical well as compared to a horizontal well, and less completion time results in less GHG emissions. After the completion rig is removed from the site, earth moving equipment would be transported to the site and the area would be reworked and graded, which adds another 9 tons of CO_2 emissions for either a one-well project or four-well pad. Tables GHG-7, GHG-8 and GHG-9 in Appendix 19, Part A show CO_2 emissions from these final stages of work during the well completion phase for a single vertical well, single horizontal well and a four-well pad, respectively. Site work for a single vertical well would be less due to a smaller pad size but for simplification, site work is assumed the same for all well scenarios considered.

6.6.9 Well Production

GHGs from the well production phase include emissions from transporting the production equipment to the site and then operating the equipment necessary to process and flow the natural gas from the well into the sales line. Carbon dioxide emissions are generated from the trucks needed to haul the production equipment to the wellsite. As previously stated, GHG emissions of CO_2 from transportation rely on estimated fuel usage where available or VMT, which ultimately requires a determination of fuel usage. Such emissions associated with well production activities, include those from transportation related to the removal of production brine, as discussed below. The estimated VMT for each case was then used to determine approximate fuel use and resultant CO_2 emissions. As shown in Tables GHG-10, GHG-11 and GHG-12 in Appendix 19, Part A, transportation needed to haul production equipment to a wellsite for a one-well project and a four-well pad results in first-year CO_2emissions of approximately 3 tons and 11 tons, respectively.

Well production may require the removal of production brine from the site which, if present, is stored temporarily in plastic, fiberglass or steel brine production tanks, and then transported off-site for proper disposal or reuse. The trucks used to haul the production brine off-site generate CO_2 emissions. Transportation estimates were used to determine CO_2 emissions from each well development scenario, and emission estimates are presented in Tables GHG-10, GHG-11 and GHG-12 in Appendix 19, Part A. Table GHG-10 presents CO_2 and CH_4 emissions for a one-well project for the period of production remaining in the first year after the single vertical well is drilled and completed. For the purpose of this analysis, the duration of production for a single vertical well in its first year was estimated at 349 days (i.e., 365 days minus 16 days to drill & complete) and for a single horizontal well in its first year 331 days (i.e., 365 days minus 34 days to drill & complete). Table GHG-13 shows estimated annual emissions for a single vertical well or single horizontal well commencing in year two, and producing for a full year. Table GHG-12 presents CO_2 and CH_4 emissions for a four-well pad for the period of production remaining in the first year after all ten wells are drilled and completed. For the purpose of this analysis, the duration of production for the ten-well pad in its first year was estimated at 229 days (i.e., 365 days minus 136 days to drill & complete). Instead of work phases occurring sequentially, actual operations may include concurrent well drilling and producing activities on the same well pad. Table GHG-14 shows estimated annual emissions for a four-well project commencing in year two, and producing for a full year.

GHGs in the form of CO_2 and CH_4 are emitted during the well production phase from process equipment and compressor engines. Glycol dehydrators, specifically their vents, which are used to remove moisture from the natural gas in order to meet pipeline specifications and dehydrator pumps, generate vented CH_4 emissions, as do pneumatic device vents which operate by using gas pressure. Compressors used to increase the pressure of the natural gas so that the gas can be put into the sales line typically are driven by engines which combust natural gas. The compressor engine's internal combustion cycle results in CO_2 emissions while compression of the natural gas generates CH_4 fugitive emissions from leaking packing systems. All packing systems leak under normal conditions, the amount of which depends on cylinder pressure, fitting and alignment of the packing parts, and the amount of wear on the rings and rod shaft.[394] The emission rates

[394] http://www.epa.gov/gasstar/documents/ll_rodpack.pdf.

presented in Table GHG-1, Appendix 19, Part A "Emission Rates for Well Pad" were used to calculate estimated emissions of CO_2 and CH_4 for each stationary source for a single vertical well, single horizontal well and four-well pad using the equation noted in Section 6.6.4 and the corresponding Activity Factors shown in Tables GHG-10, GHG-11, GHG-12, GHG-13 and GHG-14 in Appendix 19, Part A. Based on the specified emissions rates for each piece of production equipment, the calculated annual GHG emissions presented in the Tables show that the compressors, glycol dehydrator pumps and vents contribute the greatest amount of CH_4 emissions during the this phase, while operation of pneumatic device vents also generates vented CH_4 emissions. The amount of CH_4 vented in the compressor exhaust was not quantified in this analysis but, according to Volume II: Compressor Driver Exhaust, of the 1996 Final Report on Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry, compressor exhaust accounts for "about 7.9% of methane emissions from the natural gas industry."

6.6.10 Summary of GHG Emissions

As previously discussed, wellsite operations were divided into the following five phases to facilitate GHG analysis: 1) Drilling Rig Mobilization, Site Preparation and Demobilization, 2) Completion Rig Mobilization and Demobilization, 3) Well Drilling, 4) Well Completion (includes hydraulic fracturing and flowback) and 5) Well Production. Each of these phases was analyzed for potential GHG emissions, with a focus on CO_2 and CH_4 emissions. The results of these phase-specific analyses for a single vertical well, single horizontal well and four-well pad are detailed in Tables GHG-15, GHG-16, GHG-17, GHG-18 and GHG-19 in Appendix 19, Part A. In addition, the tables include estimates of GHG emissions occurring in the first year and each producing year thereafter for each project type.

The goal of this review is to characterize and present an estimate of total annual emissions of CO_2, and other relative GHGs, as both short tons and CO_2e expressed in short tons for exploration and development of the Marcellus Shale and other low-permeability gas reservoirs using high volume hydraulic fracturing. To determine CO_2e, each greenhouse gas has been assigned a number or factor that reflects its global warming potential (GWP). The GWP is a measure of a compound's ability to trap heat over a certain lifetime in the atmosphere, relative to the effects of the same mass of CO_2 released over the same time period. Emissions expressed in equivalent terms highlight the contribution of the various gases to the overall inventory.

Therefore, GWP is a useful statistical weighting tool for comparing the heat trapping potential of various gases.[395] For example, Chesapeake Energy Corporation's July 2009 Fact Sheet on greenhouse gas emissions states that CO_2 has a GWP of 1 and CH_4 has a GWP of 23, and that this comparison allows emissions of greenhouse gases to be estimated and reported on an equal basis as CO_2e.[396] However, GWP factors are continually being updated, and for the purpose of this analysis as required by the Department's 2009 *Guide for Assessing Energy Use and Greenhouse Gas Emissions in an Environmental Impact Statement*, the 100-Year GWP factors provided in below Table 6.27 were used to determine total GHGs as CO_2e. Tables GHG-15, GHG-16, GHG-17, GHG-18 and GHG-19 in Appendix 19, Part A include a summary of estimated CO_2 and CH_4 emissions from the various operational phases as both short tons and as CO_2e expressed in short tons.

Table 6.27 - Global Warming Potential for Given Time Horizon[397]

Common Name	**Chemical Formula**	**20-Year GWP**	**100-Year GWP**	**500-Year GWP**
Carbon dioxide	CO_2	1	1	1
Methane	CH_4	72	25	7.6

Table 6.28 is a summary of total estimated CO_2 and CH_4 emissions for exploration and development of the Marcellus Shale and other low-permeability gas reservoirs using high volume hydraulic fracturing, as both short tons and as CO_2e expressed in short tons. The below table includes emission estimates for the first full year in which drilling is commenced and subsequent producing years for each project type (i.e., single vertical well, single horizontal well and four-well pad), sourcing of equipment and materials.

The noted CH_4 emissions occurring during the production process and compression cycle represent ongoing annual GHG emissions. As noted above, for the purpose of assessing GHG impacts, each ton of CH_4 emitted is equivalent to 25 tons of CO_2. Thus, because of its recurring nature, the importance of limiting CH_4 emissions throughout the production phase cannot be overstated.

[395] API, August 2009. http://www.api.org/ehs/climate/new/upload/2009_GHG_COMPENDIUM.pdf.

[396] Chesapeake Energy Corp., July 2009. *Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Reductions* Fact Sheet.

[397] Adapted from Forster, et al. 2007, Table 2.14. Chapter 2, p. 212. http://ipcc-wg1.ucar.edu/wg1/Report/AR4WG1_Print_Ch02.pdf.

Table 6.28 - Summary of Estimated Greenhouse Gas Emissions (Revised July 2011)

	CO_2 (tons)	**CH_4 (tons)**	**CH_4 Expressed as CO_2e (tons)[398]**	**Total Emissions from Proposed Activity CO_2e (tons)**
Estimated First-Year Green House Gas Emissions from Single Vertical Well	8,660	246	6,150	14,810
Estimated First-Year Green House Gas Emissions from Single Horizontal Well	8,761	240	6,000	14,761
Estimated First-Year Green House Gas Emissions from Four-Well Pad	13,901	402	10,050	23,951
Estimated Post First-Year Annual Green House Gas Emissions from Single Vertical or Single Horizontal Well	6,164	244	6,100	12,264
Estimated Post First-Year Annual Green House Gas Emissions from Four-Well Project	6,183	565	14,125	20,300

[398] Equals CH_4 (tons) multiplied by 25 (100-Year GWP).

Some uncertainties remain with respect to quantifying GHG emissions for the subject activity. For the potential associated GHG emission sources, there are multiple options for determining the emissions, often with different accuracies. Table 6.29, which was prepared by the API, illustrates the range of available options for estimating GHG emissions and associated considerations. The two types of approaches used in this analysis were the “Published emission factors” and “Engineering calculations” options. These approaches, as performed, rely heavily on a generic set of assumptions with respect to duration and sequencing of activities, and size, number and type of equipment for operations that would be conducted by many different companies under varying conditions. Uncertainties associated with GHG emission determinations can be the result of three main processes noted below.[399]

- Incomplete, unclear or faulty definitions of emission sources;
- Natural variability of the process that produces the emissions; and
- Models, or equations, used to quantify emissions for the process or quantity under consideration.

Nevertheless, while the results of potential GHG emissions presented in above Table 6.28 may not be precise for each and every well drilled, the real benefit of the emission estimates comes from the identification of likely major sources of CO_2 and CH_4 emissions relative to the activities associated with gas exploration and development. It is through this identification and understanding of key contributors of GHGs that possible mitigation measures and future efforts can be focused in New York. Following, in Chapter 7, is a discussion of possible mitigation measures geared toward reducing GHGs that would be required, with emphasis on CH_4.

[399] API, August 2009, p. 3-30. http://www.api.org/ehs/climate/new/upload/2009_GHG_COMPENDIUM.pdf.

Table 6.29 - Emission Estimation Approaches – General Considerations[400]

Types of Approaches	General Considerations
Published emission factors	· Accounts for average operations or conditions · Simple to apply · Requires understanding and proper application of measurement units and underlying standard conditions · Accuracy depends on the representativeness of the factor relative to the actual emission source · Accuracy can vary by GHG constituents (i.e., CO_2, CH_4, and N_2O)
Equipment manufacturer emission factors	· Tailored to equipment-specific parameters · Accuracy depends on the representativeness of testing conditions relative to actual operating practices and conditions · Accuracy depends on adhering to manufacturers inspection, maintenance and calibration procedures · Accuracy depends on adjustment to actual fuel composition used on-site · Addition of after-market equipment/controls will alter manufacturer emission factors
Engineering calculations	· Accuracy depends on simplifying assumptions that may be contained within the calculation methods · May require detailed data
Process simulation or other computer modeling	· Accuracy depends on simplifying assumptions that may be contained within the computer model methods · May require detailed input data to properly characterize process conditions · May not be representative of emissions that are due to operations outside the range of simulated conditions
Monitoring over a range of conditions and deriving emission factors	· Accuracy depends on representativeness of operating and ambient conditions monitored relative to actual emission sources · Care should be taken when correcting to represent the applicable standard conditions · Equipment, operating, and maintenance costs must be considered for monitoring equipment
Periodic or continuous[a] monitoring of emissions or parameters[b] for calculating emissions	· Accounts for operational and source specific conditions · Can provide high reliability if monitoring frequency is compatible with the temporal variation of the activity parameters · Instrumentation not available for all GHGs or applicable to all sources · Equipment, operating, and maintenance costs must be considered for monitoring equipment
Footnotes and Sources: [a] Continuous emissions monitoring applies broadly to most types of air emissions, but may not be directly applicable nor highly reliable for GHG emissions. [b] Parameter monitoring may be conducted in lieu of emissions monitoring to indicate whether a source is operating properly. Examples of parameters that may be monitored include temperature, pressure and load.	

[400] API August 2009, p. 3-9, http://www.api.org/ehs/climate/new/upload/2009_GHG_COMPENDIUM.pdf.

6.7 Naturally Occurring Radioactive Materials in the Marcellus Shale

Chapter 4 explains that the Marcellus Shale is known to contain NORM concentrations at higher levels than surrounding rock formations, and Chapter 5 provides some sample data from Marcellus Shale cuttings. Activities that have the potential to concentrate these constituents through surface handling and disposal may need regulatory oversight to ensure adequate protection of workers, the general public, and the environment. Gas wells can bring NORM to the surface in the cuttings, flowback fluid and production brine, and NORM can accumulate in pipes and tanks (pipe scale and sludge.) Based upon currently available information it is anticipated that flowback water will not contain levels of NORM of significance, whereas production brine is known to contain elevated NORM levels. Radium-226 is the primary radionuclide of concern from the Marcellus.

Elevated levels of NORM in production brine (measured in picocuries/liter or pCi/L) may result in the buildup of pipe scale containing elevated levels of radium (measured in pCi/g). The amount and concentration of radium in the pipe scale would depend on many conditions, including pressures and temperatures of operation, amount of available radium in the formation, chemical properties, etc. Because the concentration of radium in the pipe scale cannot be measured without removing or disconnecting the pipe, a surrogate method is employed, conducting a radiation survey of the pipe exterior. A high concentration of radium in the scale would result in an elevated radiation exposure level at the pipe's exterior surface (measured in mR/hr) and can be detected with a commonly used survey instrument. The Department of Health would require a radioactive materials license when the radiation exposure levels of accessible piping and equipment are greater than 50 microR/hr (μR/hr). Equipment that exhibits dose rates in excess of this level will be considered to contain processed and concentrated NORM for the purpose of waste determinations.

Oil and gas NORM occurs in both liquid (production brine), solid (pipe scale, cuttings, tank and pit sludges), and gaseous states (produced gas). Although the highest concentrations of NORM are in production brine, it does not present a risk to workers because the external radiation levels are very low. However, the build-up of NORM in pipes and equipment (pipe scale and sludge) has the potential to expose workers handling (cleaning or maintenance) the pipe to increased radiation levels. Also wastes from the treatment of production brines may contain concentrated

NORM and therefore may require controls to limit radiation exposure to workers handling this material as well as to ensure that this material is disposed of in accordance with 6 NYCRR § 380.4.

Radium is the most significant radionuclide contributing to oil and gas NORM. It is fairly soluble in saline water and has a long radioactive half life - about 1,600 years (Table 6.30). Radon gas, which under most circumstances is the main human health concern from NORM, is produced by the decay of radium-226, which occurs in the uranium-238 decay chain. Uranium and thorium, which are naturally occurring parent materials for radium, are contained in mineral phases in the reservoir rock cuttings, but have very low solubility. The very low concentrations and poor water solubility are such that uranium and thorium pose little potential health threat.

Table 6.30 - Radionuclide Half-Lives

Radionuclide	**Half-life**	**Mode of Decay**
Ra-226	1,600 years	alpha
Rn-222	3.824 days	alpha
Pb-210	22.30 years	beta
Po-210	138.40 days	alpha
Ra-228	5.75 years	beta
Th-228	1.92 years	alpha
Ra-224	3.66 days	alpha

In addition to exploration and production (E&P) worker protection from NORM exposure, the disposal of NORM-contaminated E&P wastes is a major component of the oil and gas NORM issue. This has attracted considerable attention because of the large volumes of production brine (>109 billion bbl/yr; API estimate) and the high costs and regulatory burden of the main disposal options, which are underground injection in Class II UIC wells and offsite treatment. The Environmental Sciences Division of Argonne National Laboratory has addressed E&P NORM disposal options in detail and maintains a Drilling Waste Management Information System website that links to regulatory agencies in all oil and gas producing states, as well as providing detailed technical information.

In NYS the disposal of processed and concentrated NORM in the form of pipe scale or water treatment waste is subject to regulation under Part 380. Because disposal of Part 380 regulated waste is prohibited in Part 360 regulated solid waste landfills, this waste would require disposal in out-of-state facilities approved to accept NORM wastes. Disposal facilities that can accept this type of waste include select RCRA C facilities and low-level radioactive waste disposal sites.

6.8 Socioeconomic Impacts[401]

This section provides a discussion of the potential socioeconomic impacts on the Economy, Employment, and Income (Section 6.8.1); Population (Section 6.8.2); Housing (Section 6.8.3); Government Revenues and Expenditures (Section 6.8.4); and Environmental Justice (Section 6.8.5). A more detailed discussion of the potential impacts, as well as the assumptions used to estimate the impacts, is provided in the Economic Assessment Report, which is available as an addendum to this SGEIS.

To estimate the socioeconomic impacts associated with the use of high-volume hydraulic fracturing techniques for extracting natural gas, several assumptions must be made about the amount of natural gas development that would occur, the expected rate of development, the length of time over which that development would occur, and the distribution of this development throughout the state.

For the purposes of this SGEIS, the expected rate of development is measured by the number of wells constructed annually. Two different levels of development are analyzed – a low development scenario, and an average development scenario. These development scenarios were developed by the Department based on information the Department had requested from the Independent Oil & Gas Association of New York (IOGA-NY). IOGA-NY started with an estimated average rate of development based on the following assumptions:

[401] Section 6.8, in its entirety, was provided by Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C., August 2011, and was adapted by the Department.

- Approximately 67% of the area covered by the Marcellus and Utica shale is developable;
- Approximately 90% of wells would be horizontal wells, with an average of 160 acres/well; and
- Approximately 10% of wells would be vertical wells, with an average of 40 acres/well.

For the low rate of development, DEC assumed a rate of 25% of IOGA-NY's estimated average rate of development.

Table 6.31 provides a highlight of the major assumptions for each of these scenarios. In both scenarios, the maximum build-out of new wells is assumed to be completed in Year 30. Under the low development scenario, a total of 9,461 horizontal wells and 1,071 vertical wells are assumed to be constructed at maximum build-out (e.g., Year 30). Under the average development scenario a total of 37,842 horizontal wells and 4,284 vertical wells are assumed to be constructed at maximum build-out (e.g., Year 30). The high development scenario, which is analyzed in the Economic Assessment Report, assumes a total of 56,508 horizontal and 6,273 vertical wells are constructed at maximum build-out (e.g., Year 30).

Analysis of the high development scenario is not included in this socioeconomic section of the SGEIS in order to be conservative in assessing the positive potential economic benefits of high-volume hydraulic fracturing in New York State. The high development scenario was used as the conservative assumption of activity for all other sections of this SGEIS.

Economic realities, including diminishing marginal returns associated with drilling wells further from the fairway in less than ideal locations, and the exclusion of high-volume hydraulic fracturing wells from certain sensitive locations, would make it highly unlikely that the maximum build-out under the high development scenario would occur. Therefore, only the low and average development scenarios are discussed throughout this section.

These development scenarios are designed to provide order-of-magnitude estimates for the following socioeconomic analysis and are in no way meant to forecast actual well development levels in the Marcellus and Utica Shale reserves in New York State. These scenarios should be viewed as a "best estimate" of the range of possible amounts of development that could occur in New York State.

Table 6.31 - Major Development Scenario Assumptions (New August 2011)

	Scenarios	
	Low	**Average**
Total Wells Constructed (Year 1 to Year 30)		
Horizontal	9,461	37,842
Vertical	1,071	4,284
Total	**10,532**	**42,126**
Maximum Number of New Wells Developed per Year (Year 10 to Year 30)		
Horizontal	371	1,484
Vertical	42	168
Total	**413**	**1,652**

Both development scenarios assume a consistent timeline for development and production. Development is assumed to occur for a period of 30 years, starting with a 10-year "ramp-up" period. The number of new wells constructed each year is assumed to reach the maximum in Year 10 and to continue at this level until Year 30, when all new well construction is assumed to end. This assumption, which does not significantly affect the socioeconomic impact analysis, was used to remain consistent with other sections of the SGEIS. In actuality, well development would more likely gradually ramp up, reach a peak, and then gradually ramp down as fewer and fewer wells were completed. However, this curve would not necessarily be smooth.

It is unlikely that new well construction would occur under a steady, constant rate. Economic factors such as the price of natural gas, input costs, the price of other energy sources, changes in technology, and the general economic conditions of the state and nation would all affect the yearly rate of well construction and the overall level of development of the gas reserves. The actual track of well construction would likely be much more cyclical in nature than as described in the following sections.

The average development scenario should be viewed as the upper boundary of possible development, while the low development scenario should be viewed as the likely lower boundary of possible development. As shown in Table 6.31, the maximum number of new wells developed in a year under the low development scenario is 371 horizontal and 42 vertical wells, and the maximum number of new wells developed in a year under the average development scenario is 1,484 horizontal and 168 vertical wells.

Each newly constructed well is assumed to have an average productive life of 30 years. For example, wells constructed in Year 1 are assumed to still be producing in Year 30, and wells constructed in Year 10 are assumed to produce until Year 40. Because of the assumption of a 30-year development period, wells constructed in Year 30 are assumed to be productive until Year 60. Assuming a 30-year development period and a 30-year production life for each well, the number of productive wells in New York State would be expected to grow until Year 30, at which point, the number of productive wells would peak. After Year 30, with no new wells being constructed, the number of wells in production would begin to decline. Because the number of annual wells approved and developed each year is different for the two development scenarios, the peak number of operating wells at Year 30 also differs for each scenario.

Under both development scenarios, natural gas production in New York State would occur from Year 1 until Year 60, with Year 30 having the maximum number of wells in production. After Year 30, producing wells would gradually decline until Year 60, at which time it is assumed that production stops.

As discussed in Section 1, no site-specific project locations are being evaluated in the SGEIS. Therefore, for purposes of analysis, three distinct regions were identified within the area where potential drilling may occur in order to take a closer look at the potential impacts at the regional and local levels. The three regions were selected to evaluate differences between areas with a high, moderate, and low production potential; areas that have experienced gas development in the past and areas that have not experienced gas development in the past; and differences in land use patterns. The three representative regions and the respective counties within the region are:

- Region A: Broome County, Chemung County, and Tioga County;
- Region B: Delaware County, Otsego County; and Sullivan County; and
- Region C: Cattaraugus County and Chautauqua County

This analysis is not intended to imply that impacts would occur only in these three regions. Impacts would occur at the local and regional levels wherever high-volume hydraulic fracturing wells are constructed. The actual locations of these wells have not yet been determined, and they could be constructed wherever there is low-permeable shale. Similar to the development scenarios described above, the representative regions are designed to give a range of possible socioeconomic impacts. Therefore, the results of the local and regional analysis should also be seen as order-of-magnitude estimates for the range of possible impacts. Further descriptions of the regions are provided in Section 2.3.11.

6.8.1 Economy, Employment, and Income

The following discusses the potential impacts on the economy, employment and income for New York State, and the local areas within each of the three regions (Regions A, B and C).

6.8.1.1 New York State

Economy and Employment

Development of low-permeability natural gas reservoirs in the Marcellus and Utica shale by high-volume hydraulic fracturing would be expected to have a significant, positive impact on the economy of New York State. Construction and operation of the new natural gas wells are expected to increase employment, earnings, and economic output throughout the state. According to statistics collected and calculations made by the Marcellus Shale Education and Training Center (the Center), in Pennsylvania, an average natural gas well using the high-volume hydraulic fracturing technique requires 410 individuals working in 150 different occupations. The manpower requirements to drill a single well were calculated to be 11.53 full-time equivalent (FTE) construction workers (Marcellus Shale Education and Training Center 2009).

A full-time equivalent worker is defined as one worker working eight hours a day for 260 days a year, or several workers working a total of 2,080 hours in a year. While the Center found that up to 410 individuals are required to build one well, only 11.53 FTE workers were needed. Typically, a high-volume hydraulic fracturing well is constructed over a 3- to 4-month period, and many of the individuals and occupations are needed for only a very short duration. Therefore, to accurately assess the economic impacts of constructing a high-volume hydraulic fracturing well, the FTE workforce was considered.

The Center also calculated the work force requirements for operating a well as 0.17 FTE workers, or approximately 354 person hours per year. In other words, approximately 1 FTE worker is required to operate and maintain every 6 wells in production (Marcellus Shale Employment and Training Center 2009). Unlike the construction workforce that drills the well within a few months and is finished, the operational workforce is required for the productive life of the well. For the purposes of this analysis, a 30-year productive life has been assumed for each well drilled. Therefore, for every new well drilled, 0.17 FTE workers are employed for 30 years.

In its study, the Marcellus Shale Employment and Training Center did not differentiate between the labor requirements needed to drill a horizontal versus a vertical well. Typically, it is much more costly and labor-intensive to drill a high-volume hydraulic fracturing horizontal well than it is to drill a high-volume hydraulic fracturing vertical well. Therefore, in an effort to be conservative and not overstate the positive economic impacts, a factor was applied to the 11.53 FTE figure for vertical wells in the estimates used for this analysis. This factor was calculated using the average depth of a vertical well compared to the average depth of a high-volume hydraulic-fracturing horizontal well. The resulting ratio of 0.2777 was applied to the 11.53 FTE labor requirement to estimate the overall labor requirements of a vertical well.

Using the workforce requirement figures developed by the Marcellus Shale Employment and Training Center and the two development scenarios described above, the expected impacts on employment and earnings from high-volume hydraulic fracturing were projected for New York State as a whole.

As shown in Table 6.32, annual direct construction employment is directly related to the number of wells drilled in a given year. At the maximum well construction rate assumed for each development scenario, total annual direct construction employment is predicted to range from 4,408 FTE workers under the low development scenario to 17,634 FTE workers under the average development scenario. These employment figures correspond to the annual construction of 413 horizontal and vertical wells under the low development scenario and 1,652 horizontal and vertical wells under the average development scenario. In order to reach the full build-out potential used in the scenarios, it is assumed that construction employment and new well construction would remain at these levels for 20 years, starting in Year 10 (see Table 6.32).

The maximum direct production employment under each development scenario is also shown in Table 6.32. These figures represent the peak production year (Year 30), when the maximum build-out potential has been reached before any of the wells have stopped producing. The preceding and the following years all would have fewer production workers. At the peak, production employment would be expected to range from 1,790 FTE workers under the low development scenario to 7,161 FTE workers under the average development scenario (Table 6.32).

Table 6.32 - Maximum Direct and Indirect Employment Impacts on New York State under Each Development Scenario (New August 2011)

	Total Employment (in number of FTE jobs)	
Scenario	**Low**	**Average**
Direct Employment Impacts		
Construction Employment[1]	4,408	17,634
Production Employment[2]	1,790	7,161
Indirect Employment [3]	7,293	29,174
Total Employment Impacts	13,491	53,969
Total Employment as a Percent of New York State 2010 Labor Force	0.2%	0.7%

Source: U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis 2011a; NYSDOL 2010.

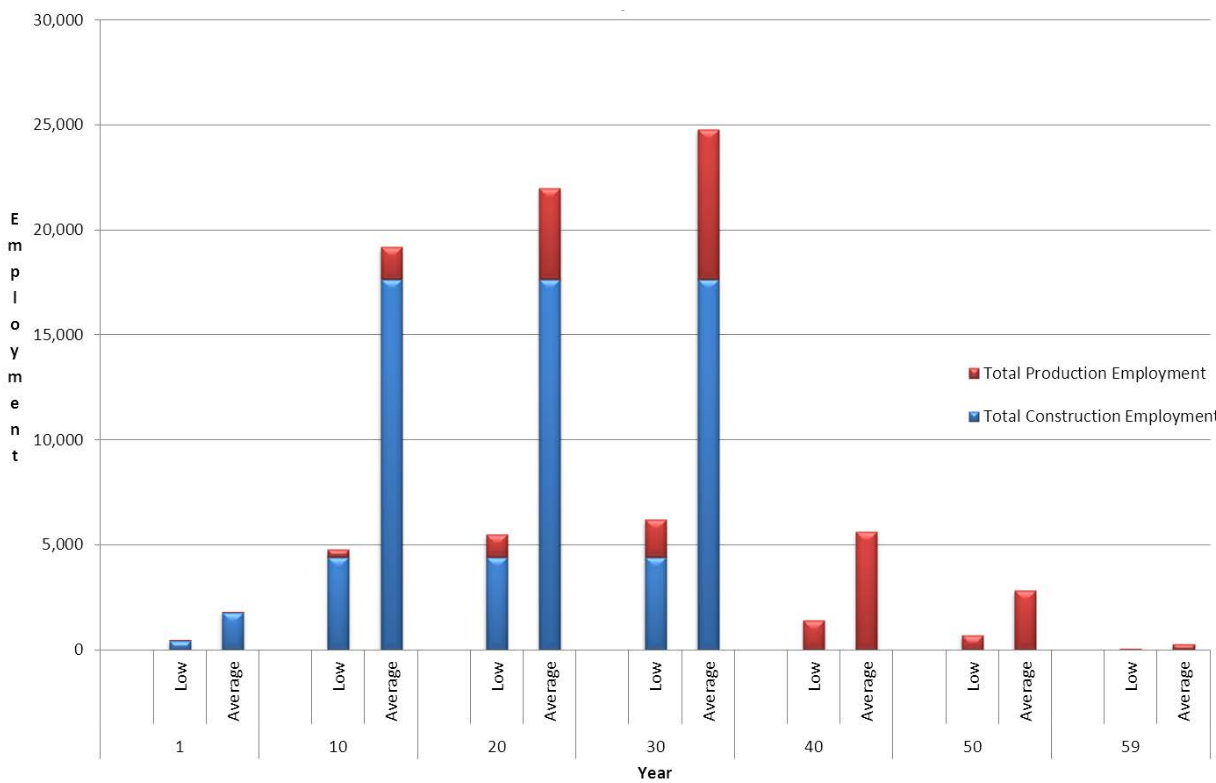
1 These figures represent the maximum annual construction employment under each scenario and correspond to construction employment in Years 10 – 30. See Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C., 2011, Economic Assessment Report for expected construction employment for all other years.

2 These figures represent the maximum annual production employment under each scenario. These figures correspond to production employment in Year 30. See Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C., 2011, Economic Assessment Report for expected production employment for all other years.

3 Type I direct employment multipliers for the oil and gas extraction industry from the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis, Regional Input-Output Modeling System (RIMS II) were used to estimate the indirect employment impacts.

Figure 6.13 illustrates the projected direct employment in New York State that would result from implementation of each development scenario over the 60-year time frame. The figure shows how construction and production employment levels are expected to vary, with peak direct employment occurring in Year 30.

Figure 6.13 – Projected Direct Employment in New York State Resulting from Each Development Scenario (New August 2011)

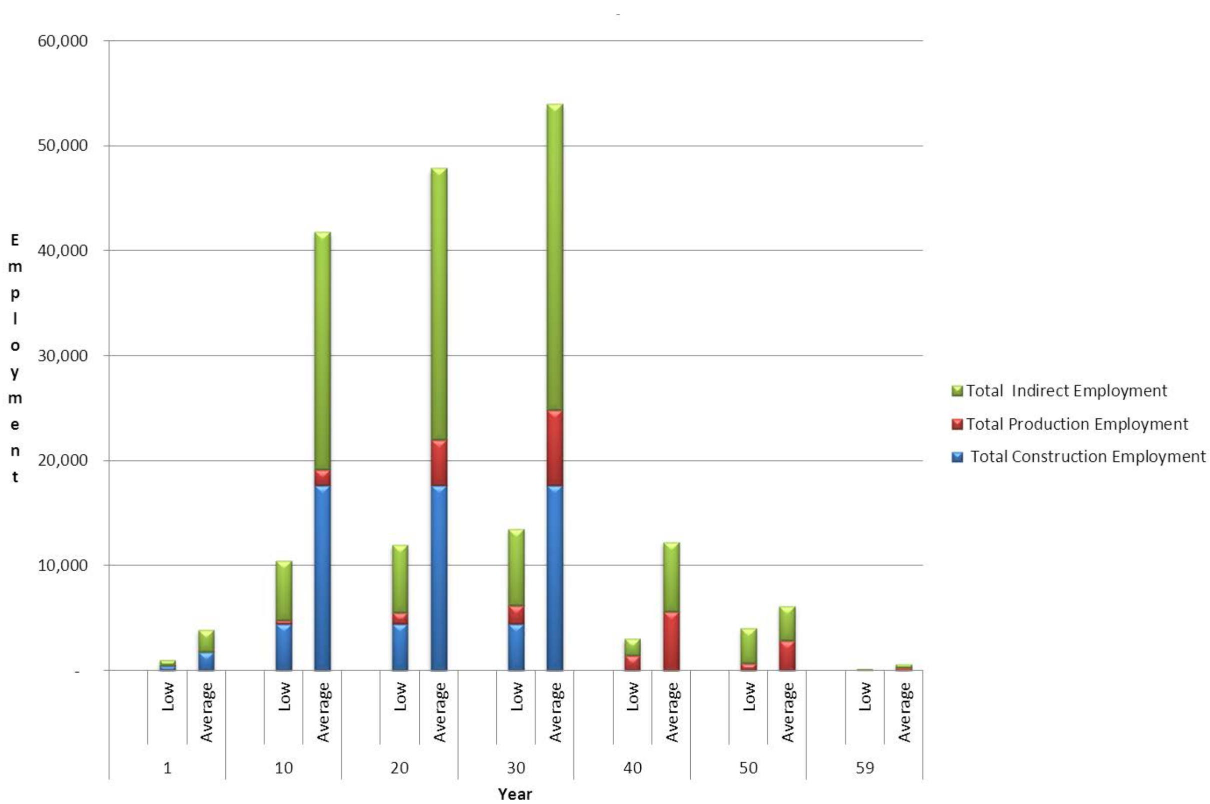


In addition to the direct employment impacts described above, the proposed drilling would also indirectly generate additional employment in other sectors of the economy. As the new construction and operations workers spend a portion of their payroll in the local area, and as the natural gas companies purchase materials from suppliers in New York State, the overall demand for goods and services in the state would expand. Revenues at the wholesale and retail outlets and service providers within the state would increase. As these merchants respond to this increase in demand, they may, in turn, increase employment at their operations and/or purchase more goods and services from their providers. These providers may then increase employment in their establishments and/or spend a portion of their income in the state, thus "multiplying" the positive economic impacts of the original increase in construction/production spending. These "multiplier" effects would continue on until all of the original funds have left New York State's economy through either taxes or savings, or through purchases from outside the state.

Indirect employment impacts are expected to range from an additional 7,293 FTE workers under the low development scenario to an additional 29,174 FTE workers under the average development scenario. These annual figures represent the year with the maximum employment (Year 30). The years before and after this date would have less direct and indirect employment.

In total, at peak employment years, state approval of drilling in the Marcellus and Utica Shales is expected to generate between 13,491 and 53,969 direct and indirect jobs, which equates to 0.2% and 0.6%, respectively, of New York State's 2010 total labor force, depending on the level and intensity of development that occurs (see Table 6.32). Figure 6.14 graphically illustrates the projected total employment in New York State that would result from each development scenario. As shown on the figure, total employment levels would be highest in Year 10 through Year 30. Once new well construction ends in Year 31, the direct and indirect employment would be greatly reduced.

Figure 6.14 - Projected Total Employment in New York State Resulting from Each Development Scenario (New August 2011)



The majority of these indirect jobs would be concentrated in the construction, professional, scientific, and technical services; real estate and rental/leasing; administrative and waste management services; management of companies and enterprises; and manufacturing industries.

Income

The increase in direct and indirect employment would have a positive impact on income levels in New York State. Table 6.33 provides estimates of the maximum direct and indirect employee earnings that would be generated under each development scenario. When well construction reaches its maximum levels (Year 10 through Year 30), total annual construction earnings are projected to range from $298.4 million under the low development scenario to nearly $1.2 billion under the average development scenario. Employee earnings from operational employment are expected to range from $121.2 million under the low development scenario to $484.8 million under the average development scenario in Year 30, the year that the maximum number of operational workers are assumed to be employed.

Table 6.33 - Maximum Direct and Indirect Annual Employee Earnings Impacts on New York State under Each Development Scenario (New August 2011)

	Total Employee Earnings ($ millions)	
Scenario	**Low**	**Average**
Direct Earnings Impacts		
Construction Earnings[1]	$298.4	$1,193.8
Production Earnings[2]	$121.2	$484.8
Indirect Employee Earnings Impacts[2,3]	$202.3	$809.2
Total Employee Earnings Impacts	$621.9	$2,487.8
Total Employee Earnings as a Percent of New York State's 2009 Total Wages	0.1%	0.5%

Source: U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis 2011a; NYDOL 2009.

1 These figures represent the maximum annual change in construction earnings under each scenario and correspond to construction earnings in Years 10 - 30. See Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C., 2011, Economic Assessment Report for expected construction earnings for all other years.

2 These figures represent the maximum annual production earnings and indirect employee earnings under each development scenario. These figures correspond to operations earnings in Year 30. See Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C., 2011, Economic Assessment Report for expected operation earnings for all other years.

3 Type I direct earnings multipliers for the oil and gas extraction industry from the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis, Regional Input-Output Modeling System (RIMS II) were used to estimate the indirect employment impacts.

As described above, the construction and production activities would also generate significant indirect economic impacts. Indirect employee earnings are anticipated to range from $202.3 million under the low development scenario to $809.2 million under the average development scenario in Year 30. The total direct and indirect impacts on employee earnings are projected to range from $621.9 million to $2.5 billion per year at peak production and construction levels in Year 30. These figures equate to increases of between 0.1% and 0.5% of the total wages and salaries earned in New York State during 2009 (see Table 6.33).

Owners of the subsurface mineral rights where wells are drilled will also experience a significant increase in income and wealth. Royalty payments to property owners typically amount to 12.5% or more of the annual value of production of the well (NYSDEC 2007a). These royalty payments, particularly in the initial stages of well production when natural gas production is at its peak, can result in significant increases in income. Signing bonuses/bonus bids also can provide significant additional income to property owners.

6.8.1.2 Representative Regions

As noted above, three representative regions were selected to show the range of possible socioeconomic impacts that could occur at the local and regional levels. This analysis in no way is meant to imply that impacts will occur only in these three regions.

For purposes of this analysis, it is assumed that 50% of all new well construction would occur in Region A (Chemung, Tioga, and Broome counties); 23% would occur in Region B (Otsego, Delaware, and Sullivan counties); 5% would occur in Region C (Chautauqua and Cattaraugus counties); and the remaining 22% of new well construction would occur in the rest of New York State. Geological data on the extent and thickness of the low-permeability shale in New York State, including the Marcellus Shale and Utica Shale fairways, were the basis for these assumptions.

Table 6.34 details the major assumptions for each development scenario for each representative region. In all cases, total development is assumed to be reached at Year 30. As shown in the table, Region A is anticipated to receive the majority of the new well construction. The analysis of Region A is designed to show the upper bound of potential regional economic impacts. Under the low development scenario, a total of 5,281 new wells would be constructed in the counties of Tioga, Chemung, and Broome. Under the average development scenario, a total of 21,067 new wells would be constructed in Region A. The projected maximum number of new wells developed per year in Region A would range from 207 to 826 wells, depending on the development scenario considered. The projected maximum number of new wells developed per year in Region B would range from 2,425 to 9,690 wells, depending on the development scenario (see Table 6.34).

In contrast, Region C is assumed to experience a much smaller level of well development than Region A or Region B. The analysis of Region C is designed to show the lower bound of potential regional economic impacts. Under the low development scenario, a total of 534 new wells would be constructed in Region C. Under the average development scenario, a total of 2,095 new wells would be constructed in Region C. The maximum number of new wells constructed each year in Region C is assumed to be 21 wells under the low development scenario and 82 wells under the average development scenario. The remaining 22% of the development would occur in the rest of the state (see Table 6.34).

Table 6.34 - Major Development Scenario Assumptions for Each Representative Region (New August 2011)

	Scenarios	
	Low	**Average**
Region A		
Total Wells Constructed (Year 1 to Year 30)		
Horizontal	4,743	18,923
Vertical	538	2,144
Total	5,281	21,067
Maximum Number of New Wells Developed per Year (Year 10 to Year 30)		
Horizontal	186	742
Vertical	21	84
Total	207	826
Region B		
Total Wells Constructed (Year 1 to Year 30)		
Horizontal	2,170	8,697
Vertical	255	993
Total	2,425	9,690
Maximum Number of New Wells Developed per Year (Year 10 to Year 30)		
Horizontal	85	341
Vertical	10	39

	Scenarios	
	Low	**Average**
Total	95	380
Region C		
Total Wells Constructed (Year 1 to Year 30)		
Horizontal	483	1,888
Vertical	51	207
Total	534	2,095
Maximum Number of New Wells Developed per Year (Year 10 to Year 30)		
Horizontal	19	74
Vertical	2	8
Total	21	82
Rest of State		
Total Wells Constructed (Year 1 to Year 30)		
Horizontal	2,065	8,334
Vertical	227	940
Total	2,292	9,274
Maximum Number of New Wells Developed per Year (Year 10 to Year 30)		
Horizontal	81	327
Vertical	9	37
Total	90	364

Economy and Employment

The proposed approval of the use of high-volume hydraulic fracturing technique would have a significant positive economic impact at the regional and local levels. Using the same methodology described above for the statewide analysis, the FTE labor requirements needed to construct and operate these wells were estimated for each region. Table 6.35 provides the maximum direct and indirect employment impacts that are predicted to occur under each development scenario for each region.

In Region A, which is used to define an upper boundary of the regional socioeconomic impacts, it is projected that direct construction employment would range from 2,204 FTE construction workers at the maximum employment levels under the low development scenario to 8,818 FTE construction workers at the maximum employment levels under the average development scenario. The new production employment in the region is expected to range from 895 to 3,581 FTE production workers per year.

In contrast, employment impacts are not anticipated to be as large in Region C, which is used to define a lower boundary for the regional socioeconomic impacts. At the maximum employment levels under the low development scenario, an estimated 221 new FTE constructions workers and 90 new FTE production workers would be needed for drilling and maintaining the new natural gas wells. These figures would increase to 882 new FTE construction workers and 358 new FTE production workers under the average development scenario (see Table 6.35).

Table 6.35 - Maximum Direct and Indirect Employment Impacts on Each Representative Region under Each Development Scenario (New August 2011)

	Total Employment (in number of FTE jobs)	
Scenario	**Low**	**Average**
Region A		
Direct Employment Impacts		
Construction Employment[1]	2,204	8,818
Production Employment[2]	895	3,581
Indirect Employment Impacts[3]	650	2,600
Total Employment Impacts	3,749	14,999
Total Employment as a Percentage of Region A's 2010 Total Labor Force	2.3%	9.3%
Region B		
Direct Employment Impacts		
Construction Employment[1]	1,014	4,056
Production Employment[2]	412	1,647
Indirect Employment Impacts[3]	191	762
Total Employment Impacts	1,617	6,465
Total Employment as a Percentage of Region B's 2010 Total Labor Force	1.8%	7.3%
Region C		
Direct Employment Impacts		
Construction Employment[1]	221	882
Production Employment[2]	90	358
Indirect Employment Impacts[3]	66	263
Total Employment Impacts	377	1,503
Total Employment as a Percentage of Region C's 2010 Total Labor Force	0.4%	1.4%

Source: U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis 2011a; NYSDOL 2010.

1 These figures represent the maximum annual construction employment under each scenario and correspond to construction employment in Years 10 – 30. See Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C., 2011, Economic Assessment Report for expected construction employment for all other years.

2 These figures represent the maximum annual production employment under each scenario. These figures correspond to production employment in Year 30. See Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C., 2011, Economic Assessment Report for expected operation employment for all other years.

3 Separate Type I direct employment multipliers for the oil and gas extraction industry from the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis, Regional Input-Output Modeling System (RIMS II), were used for each region to estimate the indirect employment impacts.

Figure 6.15, Figure 6.16, and Figure 6.17 illustrate the projected direct employment in each representative region that would result from implementation of each development scenario over the 60-year time frame. The figures show how construction and production employment levels are expected to vary, with the peak direct employment occurring in Year 30.

Figure 6.15 - Projected Direct Employment in Region A Resulting from Each Development Scenario (New August 2011)

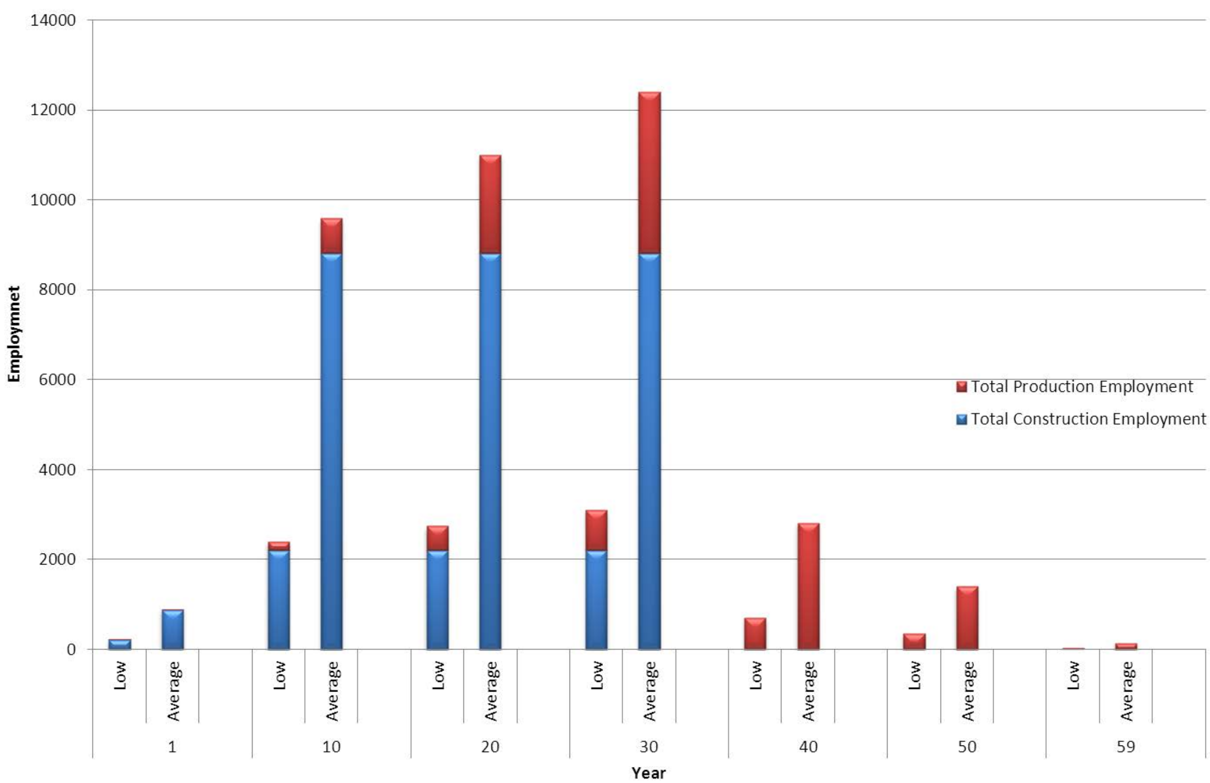


Figure 6.16 - Projected Direct Employment in Region B Resulting from
Each Development Scenario (New August 2011)

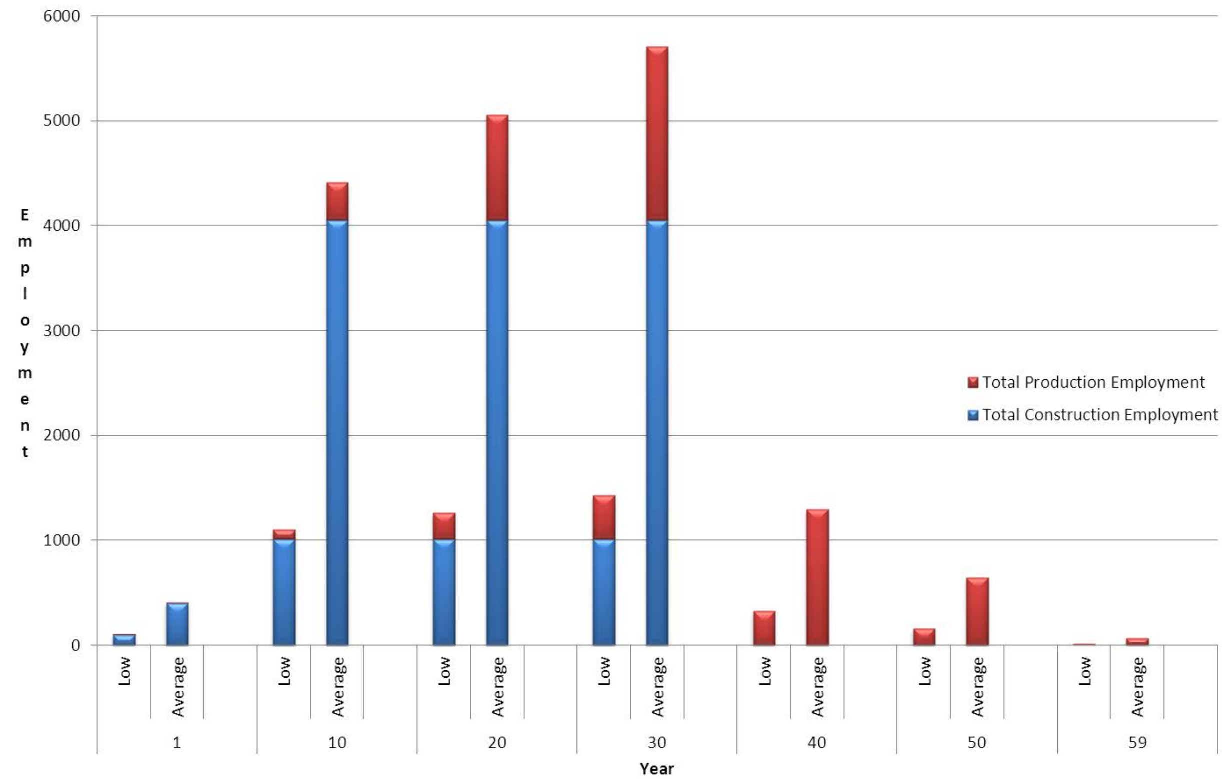
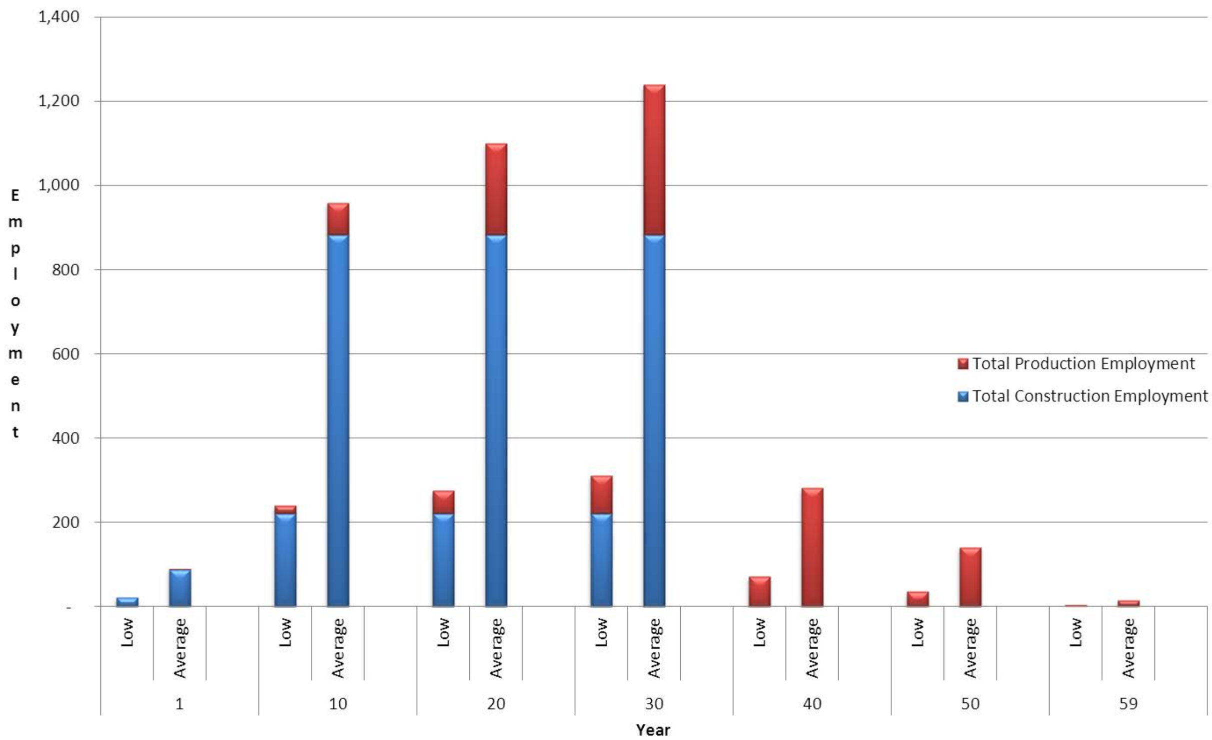


Figure 6.17 - Projected Direct Employment in Region C Resulting from
Each Development Scenario (New August 2011)



As described previously for the statewide impacts, in addition to the direct employment impacts, the proposed drilling would also indirectly generate additional employment in other sectors of the economy. As the new construction and operations workers spend a portion of their payroll in the local area, and as the natural gas companies purchase materials from regional suppliers, the overall demand for goods and services in the region would expand. Revenues at the region's wholesale and retail outlets and service providers would increase. As these merchants respond to this increase in demand, they may, in turn, increase employment at their operations and/or purchase more goods and services from their providers. These providers may then increase employment in their establishments and/or spend a portion of their income in the region, thus "multiplying" the positive economic impacts of the original increase in construction/operation spending. These "multiplier" effects would continue on until all of the original funds have left the region's economy through either taxes or savings, or through purchases from outside the region.

Indirect employment impacts are expected to range from a high of 650 to 2,600 indirect workers in Region A to a low of 66 to 263 indirect workers in Region C, depending on the development scenario. Direct employment multipliers of 1.4977 for Region A, 1.3272 for Region B, and 1.4657 for Region C for the oil and gas extraction industry were used in this analysis (U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis 2011b; 2011c; 2011d). In contrast, New York State as a whole had a direct employment multiplier of 2.1766 for the oil and gas extraction industry (U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis 2011a).

The employment and earnings multipliers in these regions are much smaller than in New York State as a whole, underscoring the fact that portions of these study areas do not have as well-developed, self-sufficient, and diverse economies as the state as a whole. In particular, the low multipliers reflect the fact that much of the goods and services that would be needed to construct and operate the new wells would be purchased outside the regions.

However, it can be expected that as the natural gas industry matures in these regions, more local suppliers and service providers would enter the markets and be able to respond to the natural gas industry's needs. As time goes by, a larger portion of the indirect economic impacts would remain in the region, further stimulating the local economies.

Figure 6.18, Figure 6.19, and Figure 6.20 graphically illustrate the projected total employment in Region A, Region B, and Region C, respectively, that would result from each development scenario. As shown on the figures, total employment levels would be greatest in Year 10 through Year 30. Once new well construction ends in Year 30, the projected direct and indirect employment would be greatly reduced.

Figure 6.18 – Projected Total Employment in Region A Under Each Development Scenario (New August 2011)

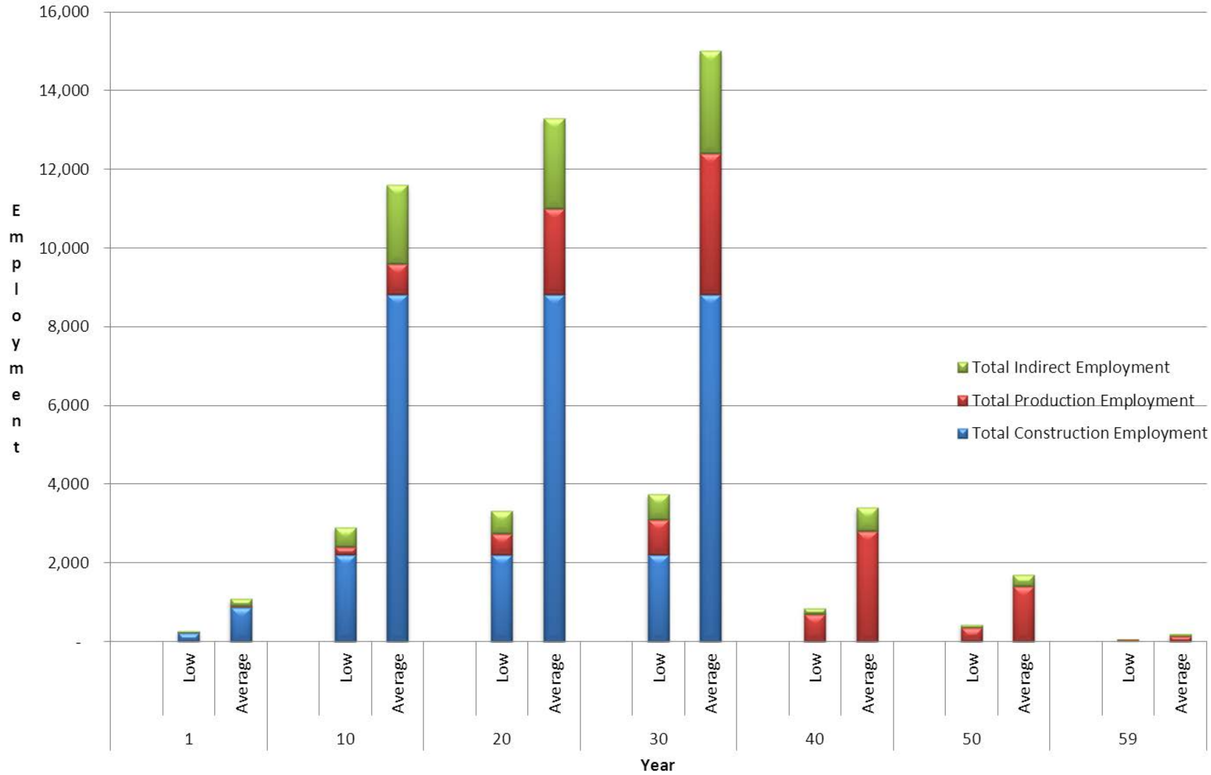


Figure 6.19 - Projected Total Employment in Region B Under Each Development Scenario (New August 2011)

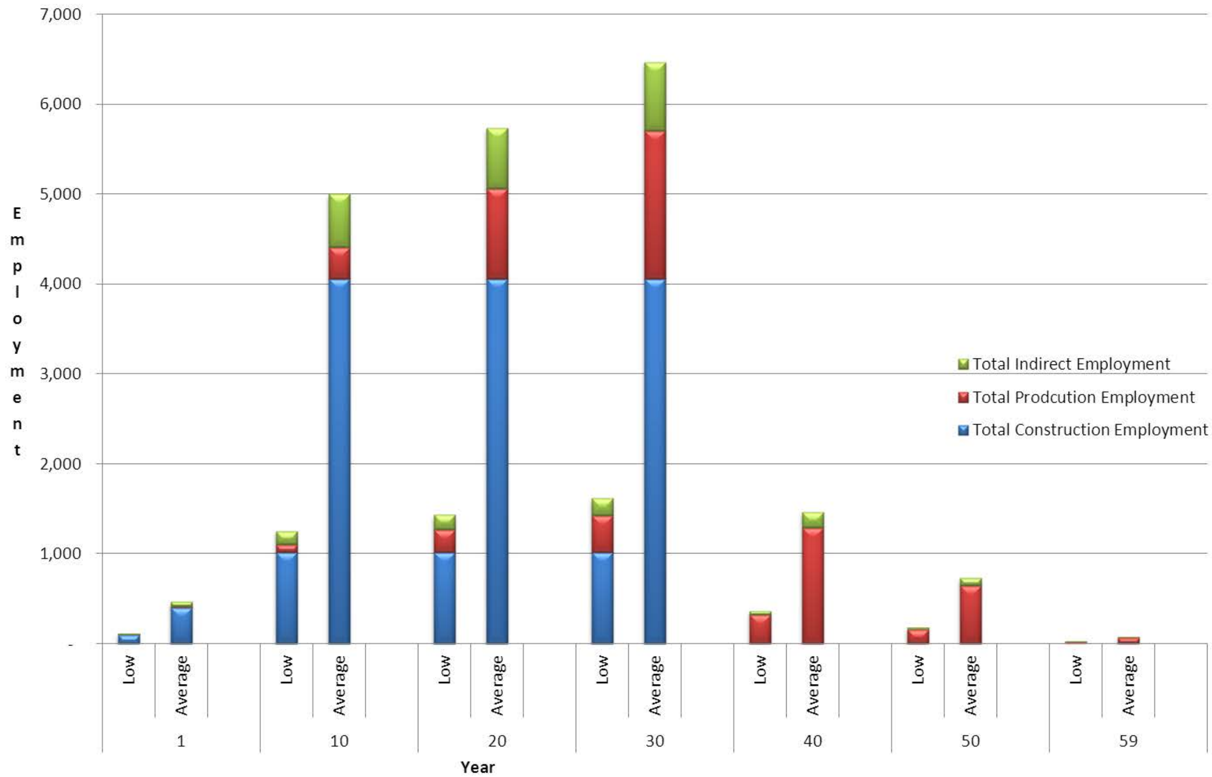
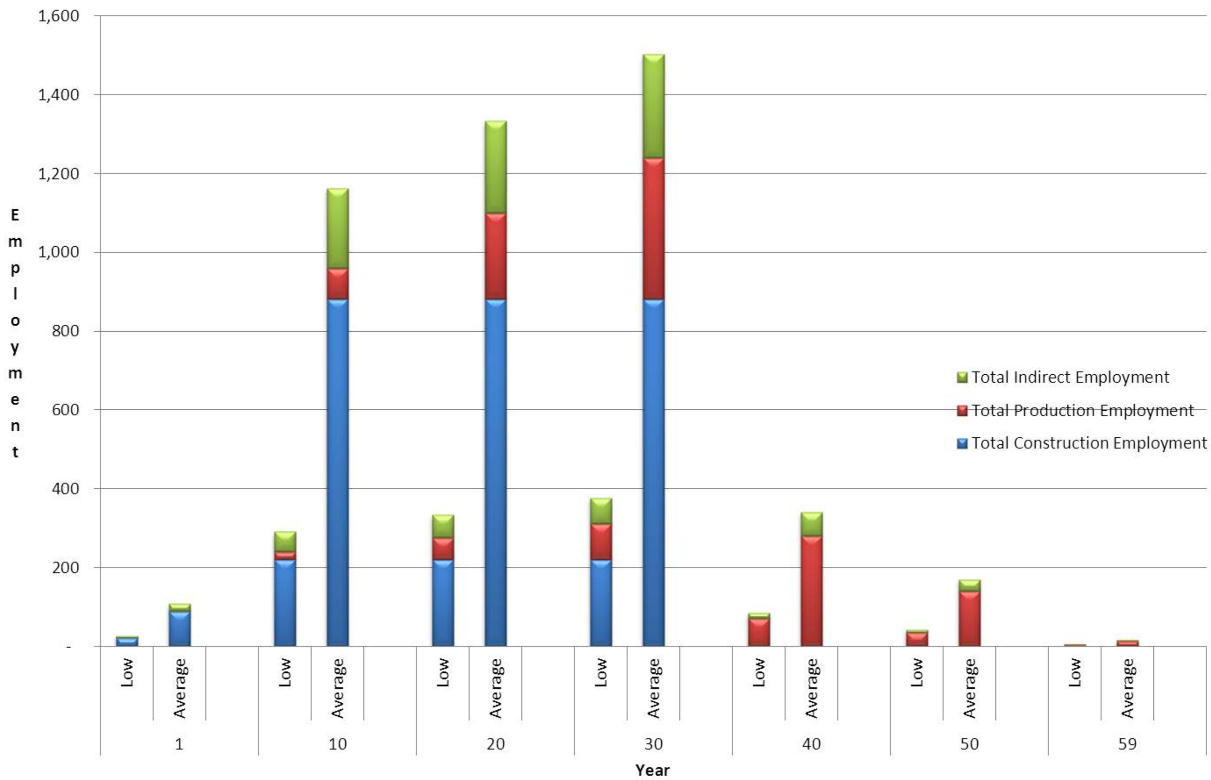


Figure 6.20 - Projected Total Employment in Region C Under Each Development Scenario (New August 2011)



The proposed use of high-volume hydraulic fracturing would have a significant, positive impact on employment in New York State as a whole and in the affected communities. However, the distribution of these positive employment impacts would not be evenly distributed throughout the state or even throughout the areas where low-permeable shale is located. Many geological and economic factors would interact to determine the exact location that wells would be drilled. The location of productive wells would determine the distribution of impacts.

In some regions in the state where drilling is most likely to occur, the increases in employment may be so large that these regions may experience some short-term labor shortages. The increase in direct and indirect employment related to the natural gas extraction industry could drive wage rates up in the areas in the short term and make it more difficult for existing industries to recruit and retain qualified workers. In addition, the increase in wage rates could have a short-term, negative impact on existing industries as it would increase their labor costs. These potential short-term labor impacts would be less severe because specialized labor from outside the region would likely be required for certain jobs, and the existence of employment opportunities would cause the migration of workers into the region. In addition, the positive employment impacts from well construction and development—and the related economic impacts derived from that employment—would generate more in-migration to the region. In time, the additional new residents to the areas would expand the regional labor force and reduce the pressure on labor costs.

Income

The increase in direct and indirect employment would have a positive impact on income levels in regions where natural gas development occurs. Table 6.36 provides estimates of the maximum direct and indirect employee earnings that would be generated under each development scenario. When well construction reaches its maximum levels (Year 10 to Year 30), total annual construction earnings in a region could range from a low of $15.0 million in Region C under the low development scenario to nearly $597.0 million under the average development scenario in Region A. In Year 30, the year that the maximum number of production workers are assumed to be employed, regional employee earnings from production employment could range from a low of $6.1 million in Region C under the low development scenario to a high of $242.4 million in Region A under the average development scenario.

Table 6.36 - Maximum Direct and Indirect Earnings Impacts on Each Representative Region under Each Development Scenario (New August 2011)

	Employee Earnings ($ millions)	
Scenario	**Low**	**Average**
Region A		
Direct Employment Impacts		
Construction Earnings[1]	$149.2	$597.0
Production Earnings[2]	$60.6	
Indirect Earnings Impacts[3]	**$44.0**	**$176.0**
Total Earnings Impacts	**$253.8**	**$1,015.4**
Total Earnings as a Percentage of Region A's 2009 Total Wages	4.7%	18.7%
Region B		
Direct Earnings Impacts		
Construction Earnings[1]	$68.6	$274.6
Production Earnings[2]	$27.9	$111.5
Indirect Earnings Impacts[3]	**$12.9**	**$51.6**

	Employee Earnings ($ millions)	
Scenario	**Low**	**Average**
Total Earnings Impacts	**$109.4**	**$437.7**
Total Earnings as a Percentage of Region B's 2009 Total Wages	4.8%	19.3%
Region C		
Direct Earnings Impacts		
Construction Earnings[1]	$15.0	$59.7
Production Earnings[2]	$6.1	$24.2
Indirect Earnings Impacts[3]	$4.5	$17.8
Total Earnings Impacts	$25.6	$101.7
Total Earnings as a Percent of Region C's 2009 Total Wages	0.9%	3.7%

Source: U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis 2011b, 2011c, 2011d; NYSDOL 2009.

1 These figures represent the maximum annual construction earnings under each scenario and correspond to construction earnings in Years 10 – 30. See Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C., 2011, Economic Assessment Report for expected construction earnings for all other years.

2 These figures represent the maximum annual production earnings under each development scenario. These figures correspond to production employee earnings in Year 30. See Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C., 2011, Economic Assessment Report for expected production and indirect employee earnings for all other years.

3 Separate Type I direct earnings multipliers for the oil and gas extraction industry from the US Bureau of Economic Analysis, Regional Input- Output Modeling System (RIMS II) for each region were used to estimate the indirect employment impacts.

Total employee earnings in all of the regions are expected to increase significantly. Region A would experience annual increases in employee earnings of approximately $254 million to $1.0 billion, or 4.7% to 18.7% of the 2009 total wages and salaries for the region. Similarly, Region B would experience annual increases in employee earnings of approximately $109 million to $438 million, or 4.8% to 19.3% of 2009 total wages and salaries for the region. Region C would also experience a significant impact in its annual employee earnings. Employee earnings in this region would increase from approximately $26 million to $102 million, or 0.9% to 3.7% of the 2009 total wages and salaries for the region (see Table 6.36).

Owners of the subsurface mineral rights where wells are drilled would also experience a significant increase in income and wealth. Royalty payments to property owners typically amount to 12.5% or greater of the annual value of production of the well (NYSDEC 2007a). These royalty payments, particularly in the initial stages of well production when natural gas production is at its peak, could result in significant increases in income. In addition, mineral rights owners often receive large signing bonuses/bonus bids as part of the lease agreements.

Impacts on Other Industries

The proposed high-volume hydraulic-fracturing operations would affect not only the size of the regional economies as described above, but would also have an impact on other industries in the economy.

As previously described, suppliers of the natural gas extraction industry would experience significant increases in demand for their goods and services. Over time, these industries would expand and their importance in the regional economies would likewise increase. As shown in Section 2.3.11, Economy, Employment, and Income, the industries expected to experience the greatest indirect, or secondary, growth due to expansion of the natural gas extraction industry would be real estate; the professional, scientific, and technical industries; the management of companies and enterprises; construction; and manufacturing industries. For every $1 million change in the final demand generated in the natural gas extraction industry, a corresponding significant level of output would be generated in these industries. Typically, a change in final demand in an industry is defined as the change in output of that industry multiplied by the value or price of its output. In this case, a $1 million increase in the value of output from the natural gas extraction industry would generate $47,100 in the real estate and rental and leasing industry; $30,500 in the professional, scientific, and technical services industry; and $27,600 in the management of companies and enterprises industry. See Section 2.3.15 for a discussion of indirect impacts on other industries in New York State.

Each of these secondary industries would experience increases in their output, employment, income and value added. As a result, industries that supply these secondary industries would also experience a positive economic impact, and they would expand as demand for their goods and services increases. Secondary, and eventually even tertiary, suppliers would start to tailor their products to meet the needs of the natural gas extraction industry.

Conversely, some industries in the regional economies may contract as a result of the proposed natural gas development. Negative externalities associated with the natural gas drilling and production could have a negative impact on some industries such as tourism and agriculture. Negative changes to the amenities and aesthetics in an area could have some effect on the number of tourists that visit a region, and thereby impact the tourism industry. However, as shown by the tourism statistics provided for Region C, Cattaraugus and Chautauqua Counties still have healthy tourism sectors despite having more than 3,900 active natural gas wells in the region.

Similarly, agricultural production in the heavily developed regions may experience some decline as productive agricultural land is taken out of use and is developed by the natural gas industry. Property values also may experience some increase as a result of the natural gas development and the resulting increase in economic activity. The potential increase in land prices, which is one of the main factors of production for agriculture, could impact the industry's input costs in areas experiencing the most intense development.

6.8.2 Population

This section presents a summary of the population and demographic findings of the Economic Assessment Report (2011) written by Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C.

As described previously, three representative regions were selected to assess the range of potential socioeconomic impacts that could occur at the local and regional levels. The designation of these areas as representative regions does not mean that the impacts would necessarily be limited to those areas. Until the production potential of low-permeability reservoirs is proven, it is not possible to predict where every potential high-volume hydraulically fractured well may be sited; wells could be developed anywhere there is low-permeability shale. The local and regional impacts presented here are intended only to provide order-of-magnitude estimates for the range of potential impacts. See the Economic Assessment Report for a more detailed discussion on the selection of these representative regions.

To assess the maximum potential population impacts, the discussion below is based on a hypothetical situation in which all workers hired for the construction and production phases of the natural gas wells either migrate into the regions from other areas, or workers migrate into the regions from other areas to fill positions which local construction and production workers vacate to work on the natural gas wells. Although this hypothetical situation is used to examine the maximum potential population impacts, it is more likely that the actual outcome would be less than described. Not all workers employed during the construction and production phases would necessarily live in New York State or one of the representative regions. Particularly in the case of well development and production in the Southern Tier, existing natural gas workers currently residing in Pennsylvania, for example, may simply choose to maintain their residency in Pennsylvania and commute to work in New York.

In addition, actual population impacts may also be less than what is described in the following section because some currently unemployed or underemployed local workers could be hired to fill some of the construction and production positions, thereby, reducing the total in-migration to the region.

The hiring of currently employed local workers (i.e., those workers that leave existing jobs to work in the natural gas industry) is not expected to reduce total in-migration to the regions as it is assumed that the jobs these local workers are leaving would need to be filled. Given the finite number of workers in the regional labor force, any growth in the total number of jobs available in regional economies not filled by currently unemployed or underemployed persons would lead to in-migration to the areas.

The following additional assumptions were used to project population impacts:

- The majority of construction jobs and related population migration to the regions would be temporary and transient in nature in the beginning of the well development phase. As well construction continues, these jobs would gradually be filled by permanent residents.

- Transient construction workers are assumed to temporarily relocate to the region for a short-duration and are assumed to not be accompanied by their households. Permanent construction workers are assumed to relocate to the region for the duration of the well development phase and would be accompanied by their entire households.

- Production jobs and related population migration to the regions would be permanent and entire households would relocate to the regions.

- Natural gas development and production would not “crowd out” employment in other unrelated industrial sectors, and employment in these sectors would remain unchanged.

- Job vacancies created when local employees leave existing industries to take jobs in the natural gas extraction industry would be filled.

- The 2010 average household sizes in New York State (2.64 persons per household), Region A (2.47 persons per household), Region B (2.52 persons per household), and Region C (2.49 persons per household) were used in estimating the population impacts associated with permanent construction and production jobs (USCB 2010).

- There would be no involuntary displacement of persons due to construction of the natural gas wells, as no buildings would be demolished to make way for wells and wells need to be drilled at least 500 feet away from private wells and 100 feet from inhabited dwellings.

6.8.2.1 New York State

Both transient and permanent population impacts are expected to occur as a result of natural gas well construction. Given the highly specialized nature of natural gas construction, workers with the skills required to complete a high-volume hydraulic fracturing operation would not be currently available in New York State or in the representative regions. If high-volume hydraulic fracturing operations were to begin in New York State, most of the skilled workers would initially need to be recruited from outside the state and would be both temporary and transient in nature.

As the industry matures and as more natural gas development occurs in the state and representative regions, more local persons would acquire the requisite skills needed for these jobs, and recruitment from within the existing labor force would therefore increase. Also, as the industry expands and development becomes more assured, the incentive for previously transient workers to become permanent residents within the state or representative regions would increase. Therefore, it would be expected that eventually there would be a decline in the number of transient construction workers and an increase in the number of permanent construction workers.

In an effort to estimate the mix of transient and permanent construction workers, data collected by the Marcellus Shale Education and Training Center on the occupational composition of the natural gas workforce and data from the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis’ 2008 National Employment Matrix were used to help forecast the amount of local labor that would be employed in natural gas well development (Marcellus Shale Education and Training Center 2009; U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis 2011e). Initially no more than 23% of the construction workforce is expected to be hired locally. Due to New York State's small existing natural gas industry, the remaining 77% of the workforce would have specialized skills that would most likely be unavailable among New York's labor force in Year 1. Given the newness of the industry, it is assumed that, in Year 1, 77% of the total workforce would be transient workers from outside the state.

As the natural gas industry matures the number of qualified workers in the state and representative regions would increase. This pool of qualified workers would expand as existing local residents gain the requisite skills and/or formerly transient workers permanently relocate to the state or representative regions. The total number of transient construction workers would gradually increase as the rate of well development increased until Year 10 when the maximum number of transient construction workers under both development scenarios is reached. From Years 11 to 30 the transient population would gradually decrease as a proportion of the total construction workforce. By Year 30 it is assumed that the natural gas industry would be sufficiently mature that 90% of all workers could be hired locally. Table 6.37 shows the transient, permanent, and total construction employment for select years. See the Economic Assessment Report for a more detailed discussion of how these figures were derived.

Table 6.37 - Transient, Permanent and Total Construction Employment Under Each Development Scenario for Select Years: New York State (New August 2011)

	Low Scenario			**Average Scenario**		
Year	**Transient**	**Permanent**	**Total Construction Employment**	**Transient**	**Permanent**	**Total Construction Employment**
1	342	97	439	1,370	389	1,759
5	1,517	693	2,210	6,051	2,766	8,817
10	2,409	1,999	4,408	9,639	7,995	17,634
15	1,759	2,649	4,408	7,038	10,596	17,634
20	1,181	3,227	4,408	4,725	12,909	17,634
25	740	3,668	4,408	2,959	14,675	17,634
30	441	3,967	4,408	1,763	15,871	17,634

Since the natural gas wells are expected to stay in operation for 30 years, production workers are assumed to be permanent workers who reside close to where the wells are located. Thus, these workers would live in or relocate their families to the area. Wells drilled in Year 1 are expected to remain in operation until Year 30; wells drilled in Year 30 would remain in operation until Year 60.

It is assumed that the households of permanent construction workers and production workers would, on average, be the same size as existing New York households (i.e., 2.64 persons, including the single worker). Therefore, in projecting population impacts, it is anticipated that transient construction workers would be temporary residents unaccompanied by family members, whereas permanent construction workers and all production workers would be permanent residents accompanied by an average of 1.64 family members.

Based on the above assumptions, Table 6.38 displays, for New York State as a whole and for each development scenario, the estimated transient and permanent populations resulting from construction and production activities for Years 1, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, and 59.

Table 6.38 - Estimated Population Associated with Construction and Production Employment for Select Years: New York State (New August 2011)

		Transient Population	Permanent Population		
Production Year	**Development Scenario**	**Construction**	**Construction**	**Production**	**Total**
1	Low	342	256	18	275
	Average	1,370	1,026	74	1,100
10	Low	2,409	5,277	1,019	6,296
	Average	9,639	21,107	4,079	25,186
20	Low	1,181	8,519	2,872	11,392
	Average	4,725	34,080	11,492	45,572
30	Low	441	10,473	4,726	15,198
	Average	1,763	41,898	18,905	60,803
40	Low	0	0	3,707	3,707
	Average	0	0	14,829	14,829
50	Low	0	0	1,853	1,853
	Average	0	0	7,413	7,413
59[1]	Low	0	0	185	185
	Average	0	0	742	742

Note:

[1] Year 59 is used instead of Year 60 since it is assumed that all operational wells would cease production at the beginning of Year 60.

Under the low development scenario, between Years 10 and 30, it is projected that a maximum of 4,408 construction workers would temporarily or permanently migrate into the areas. The maximum transient construction workforce would occur in Year 10, with an estimated 2,409 transient workers. (During this same year, there would be 1,999 permanent workers relocating to the area.) Under the average development scenario, between Years 10 and 30, it is projected that a maximum of 17,634 construction workers would temporarily or permanently migrate to the well construction areas. The maximum transient workforce would occur in Year 10, with an estimated 9,639 transient workers. (During this same time period, there would be 7,995 permanent workers relocating to the area.) The population impact of the maximum number of transient workers, 9,639 transient workers for the average development scenario, represents less than 0.1% of the total present population of New York State, indicating that transient workers would have only a minor short-term population impact at the state level.

Under the low development scenario, the number of persons permanently migrating to the impacted areas to construct and operate the wells is projected to reach its maximum of 15,198 persons during Year 30 (see Table 6.39). Under the average development scenario during Year 30, it is projected that 60,803 persons would permanently migrate to the impacted areas. Since it is assumed that permanent construction and production workers would relocate with their households, these population estimates include the permanent construction and production workers and members of their households. The maximum impact on the permanent population under the average development scenario is 60,803 persons in Year 30. This figure represents approximately 0.3% of the total present population of New York State, indicating that some long-term population impact could occur at the state level as a result of the operation of the new natural gas wells.

Table 6.39 - Maximum Temporary and Permanent Impacts Associated with
Well Construction and Production: New York State (New August 2011)

Region	Total 2010 Existing Population[1]	Development Scenario	Maximum Transient Impacts[2]	% Increase from Total Existing 2010 Population	Maximum Permanent Impacts [3]	% Increase from Total Existing 2010 Population
New York State	19,378,102	Low	2,409	>0.1%	15,198	>0.1%
		Average	9,639	>0.1%	60,803	0.3%

Notes:

1 Existing population from U.S. Census Bureau's *2010 Census of Population* (USCB 2010).

2 Maximum transient impacts occur during Year 10. For details on the population impacts for all other years, see Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C., 2011, Economic Assessment Report.

3 Maximum operational impacts occur during production year 30, when the number of producing wells is at a maximum. For details on population impacts for all other years, see Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C., 2011, Economic Assessment Report.

According to the population projections developed by Jan K. Vink of the Cornell University Program on Applied Demographics, the population of New York State is expected to increase by 1,037,344 persons over the next 20 years (i.e., by an average of approximately 52,000 persons per year) (Cornell University 2009). Consequently, the maximum cumulative population impact of 60,803 persons, which occurs during production year 30, is slightly more than one year's projected incremental population growth for New York State.

Although the maximum population impacts would be relatively minor at the level of the whole state, natural gas wells would not be spread evenly across the state; they would be concentrated in particular areas where the influx of construction workers and production workers and their families may have more significant population impacts. Similarly, because new wells would not be developed evenly over time due to swings in well development activity, the population impacts would be greater in some years than in others.

In addition to direct employment (employment impacts from construction and production), there are projected indirect employment impacts from the development of hydraulic fracturing operations in the area underlain by the Marcellus and Utica Shales (see Section 6.8.1.1). Given the relatively high unemployment rates currently being experienced in these regions, it is likely that some of these new, indirectly created jobs (e.g., gas station clerks, hotel lobby personnel, etc.) would be filled by local, previously unemployed or underemployed persons. These indirect employment impacts would reduce local unemployment and help stimulate the local economies. The impacts associated with the influx of construction workers, both transient and permanent, would last as long as wells are being developed in an area, whereas the impacts associated with the production phase could last up to 60 years.

6.8.2.2 Representative Regions

Table 6.40, Table 6.41, and Table 6.42 show the estimated transient, permanent, and total construction employment for Regions A, B, and C under the low and average development scenario.

Table 6.40 - Transient, Permanent, and Total Construction Employment Under Each Development Scenario for Select Years for Representative Region A (New August 2011)

	Low Scenario			Average Scenario		
Year	**Transient**	**Permanent**	**Total Construction Employment**	**Transient**	**Permanent**	**Total Construction Employment**
1	171	48	219	686	194	880
5	758	347	1,105	3,026	1,383	4,409
10	1,205	999	2,204	4,820	3,998	8,818
15	880	1,324	2,204	3,520	5,298	8,818
20	591	1,613	2,204	2,363	6,455	8,818
25	370	1,834	2,204	1,480	7,338	8,818
30	220	1,984	2,204	882	7,936	8,818

Table 6.41 - Transient, Permanent, and Total Construction Employment Under Each Development Scenario for Select Years for Representative Region B (New August 2011)

	Low Scenario			Average Scenario		
Year	**Transient**	**Permanent**	**Total Construction Employment**	**Transient**	**Permanent**	**Total Construction Employment**
1	79	22	101	315	89	404
5	349	159	508	1,392	636	2,028
10	554	460	1,014	2,217	1,839	4,056
15	405	609	1,014	1,619	2,437	4,056
20	272	742	1,014	1,087	2,969	4,056
25	170	844	1,014	681	3,375	4,056
30	101	913	1,014	406	3,650	4,056

Table 6.42 - Transient, Permanent, and Total Construction Employment Under Each Development Scenario for Select Years for Representative Region C (New August 2011)

	Low Scenario			Average Scenario		
Year	**Transient**	**Permanent**	**Total Construction Employment**	**Transient**	**Permanent**	**Total Construction Employment**
1	17	5	22	69	19	88
5	75	35	110	303	138	441
10	121	100	221	482	400	882
15	88	133	221	352	530	882
20	59	162	221	236	646	882
25	37	184	221	148	734	882
30	22	199	221	88	794	882

Table 6.43 shows the maximum population impacts associated with transient and permanent construction workers and permanent production workers for the three representative regions. As noted above, the three representative regions were selected to assess the range of potential socioeconomic impacts that could occur at the local and regional levels, and the projected local and regional impacts presented here are intended to provide order-of-magnitude estimates for the range of potential impacts. In constructing Table 6.43 it was assumed, as discussed above, that a portion of the construction workers would be temporary, transient residents in an area and would not be accompanied by members of their households. The remainder of the construction workers would be permanent residents. The proportion of permanent workers to transient workers would gradually increase over time. All production workers are assumed to be permanent residents and would relocate their families to the area. Since the households of permanent construction and production workers are assumed to be the same size as average households in their respective regions, permanent workers are assumed to be accompanied by an average of 1.47 family members in Region A, 1.52 family members in Region B, and 1.49 family workers in Region C.

Table 6.43 - Maximum Temporary and Permanent Impacts Associated with Well Construction and Production

Region	Total 2010 Existing Population[1]	Development Scenario	Maximum Transient Impacts[2]	% Increase from Total Existing 2010 Population	Maximum Permanent Impacts [3]	% Increase from Total Existing 2010 Population
A	340,555	Low	1,205	0.4%	7,111	2.1%
		Average	4,820	1.4%	28,447	8.4%
B	187,786	Low	554	0.3%	3,339	1.8%
		Average	2,217	1.2%	13,348	7.1%
C	215,222	Low	121	<0.1%	720	0.3%
		Average	482	0.2%	2,868	1.3%

Notes:

1 Existing population from US Census Bureau's *2010 Census of Population* (USCB 2010).

2 Maximum transient impacts occur during Year 10. For details on the population impacts for all other years, see Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C., 2011, Economic Assessment Report.

3 Maximum permanent impacts occur during production Year 30, when the number of producing wells is at a maximum. For details on population impacts for all other years, see Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C., 2011, Economic Assessment Report.

The upper bound of the potential impacts is found in Region A under the average development scenario, when in Year 10 there are projected to be 4,820 unaccompanied transient workers, representing 1.4% of the region's total population. The upper bound of the potential impacts from permanent population changes can be found in Region A under the average development scenario in Year 30, when 28,447 permanent construction and production workers and their household members would be residing in the region. This figure represents 8.4% of the existing population in Region A. According to the population projections presented in Section 2.3.11, in the absence of gas well development, Region A is expected to experience a future population decrease and to have a 2030 population of 279,675 persons, a decrease of 60,880 persons, equal to 17.9% of the total existing population. The influx of workers and their family members associated with gas well development, which totals 28,447persons in Year 30 under the average development scenario, would offset approximately 47% of the projected population decline in Region A and would, therefore, have a beneficial impact.

Under the average development scenario, Region B is projected to have a maximum of 2,217 unaccompanied, transient construction workers and 13,348 permanent construction and production workers and their family members residing in the region. Note that maximum transient population impacts occur in Year 10, while the maximum permanent population impacts occur in Year 30. The maximum transient population would account for 1.2% of the existing population in Region B, and the maximum permanent population would account for 7.1% of the existing population, respectively. According to population projection figures presented in Section 2.34.11, in the absence of gas well development, Region B is expected to experience a future population decrease and to have a 2030 population of 183,031 persons, a decrease of 4,755 persons, equal to 2.5% of the total existing population. The influx of workers and their family members associated with gas well development, which totals 13,348 persons in Year 30 under the average development scenario, would more than offset the projected population decline in Region B but would not add significantly to the existing population.

The lowest maximum potential population impact is found in Region C under the low development scenario, when in Year 10 only 121 unaccompanied, transient construction workers are expected to reside in the region. Under the same development scenario 720 permanent construction and production workers and their families would reside in Region C in Year 30, representing a total of approximately 1.3% of the existing population. Note that maximum transient population impacts occur in Year 10, while the maximum permanent population impacts occur in Year 30. In contrast, under the average development scenario in Year 30, Region C is projected to have a maximum of 482 unaccompanied, transient construction workers and a maximum of 2,868 permanent construction and production workers and household members in the region. The maximum transient population represents 0.2% of the existing population, and the maximum permanent population represents 1.3% of the existing population. According to population projection figures presented in Section 2.3.11, in the absence of gas well development, Region C is expected to experience a future population decrease and to have a 2030 population of 188,752 persons, a decrease of 26,470 persons, equal to 12.3% of the total existing population. The influx of permanent workers and their family members associated with gas well development, totaling 2,868 persons in Year 30 under the average development scenario, would offset more than 10% of the projected population decline in Region C and would have a small-scale beneficial impact.

Because natural gas wells would not be evenly distributed across the regions, there may be more significant localized population impacts. Depending on the distribution of the wells and the phasing of well development, which depends partly on the price of natural gas, shale gas production may create localized growth in individual small towns. Also, because the development of new wells would not be distributed evenly over time due to swings in well development activity, downswings may cause periods of smaller-than-projected population impacts, while upswings may cause larger-than-projected population impacts.

6.8.3 Housing

This section describes the potential impacts on housing resources and property values that could result from the development of natural gas reserves in low-permeability shale in New York State. Statewide and regional impacts are discussed separately in the following section. For the purposes of this analysis, three representative regions were selected to examine the range of potential regional impacts. This analysis in no way is meant to imply that impacts would occur only in these three regions. Local- and regional-level impacts would occur wherever high-volume hydraulic fracturing wells are constructed. Currently, the actual locations of these wells have not yet been determined, and wells could be sited anywhere there is low-permeability shale. As described in previous sections, two development scenarios were analyzed for a 60-year period. Only the impacts that would occur during maximum build-out conditions (Year 10 for the transient workers and Year 30 for the permanent workers) are presented in this SGEIS. Impacts for all other years are presented in the Economic Assessment Report.

6.8.3.1 New York State

As previously described in Section 6.8.1 (Economy, Employment, and Income), total construction employment in New York State that would result from the development of low-permeability natural gas reserves is projected to range from 4,408 new workers under the low development scenario to 17,634 new workers under the average development scenario. Initially, the majority of the construction workers are assumed to be temporary, transient workers. As the natural gas fields are developed over time, it is assumed that an increasing number of these workers would become permanent residents. Production employment is projected to range from 1,790 workers under the low development scenario to 7,161 workers under the average development scenario.

Table 6.44 presents estimates of the maximum temporary, transient employment that would occur in Year 10 and the maximum permanent employment that would occur in Year 30. Transient employment includes those construction workers who would only temporarily relocate to the area during well construction. Permanent employment includes permanent construction workers and permanent production workers, as discussed more fully in Section 6.8.2, Population.

Table 6.44 - Maximum[1] Estimated Employment by Development Scenario
for New York State (New August 2011)

Development Scenario	Transient Employment (FTE)	Permanent[2] Employment (FTE)
Low	2,409	5,757
Average	9,639	23,032

1 Maximum transient employment occurs in Year 10, while maximum permanent employment occurs in Year 30.

2 Permanent employment includes both permanent construction and production employment.

Note: Maximum transient employment and maximum permanent employment are reached in two different years. Therefore, the figures for transient employment and permanent employment in this table cannot be added to equal total employment. See Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C., 2011, Economic Assessment Report for year-by-year employment details.

Temporary Housing

The construction phase is expected to have a short-term impact on temporary housing resources in New York State. New York State is currently not a major oil or gas producing state and, therefore, does not have a large work force skilled in oil and natural gas extraction. Thus, it is anticipated that workers specialized in gas exploration and drilling would travel into New York from other states where gas exploration and drilling is more significant. In the beginning, much of the workforce would need to be imported from other states. Over time, an experienced workforce would be created within New York, and the need for out-of-state workers would decline.

Typically, construction of a high-volume hydraulic fracturing well is completed in 3 to 4 months. Therefore, the transient workers needed to drill these wells would likely only temporarily relocate to a specific area, and once that well was completed they would move on to another site. The influx of workers who would move from one well development site to another would increase the demand for transient housing, such as rental properties and hotel/motel rooms, thereby decreasing the rental and hotel/motel vacancy rates within the state. Decreased rental and hotel/motel vacancy rates would provide short-term economic benefits to some owners of rental housing and hotels/motels within the state and in certain areas may increase prices charged for these temporary housing units.

Table 6.45 identifies the total stock of rental housing units, the existing supply of vacant housing units for rent, and the rental vacancy rate in New York State as a whole. Assuming a worst-case scenario where each projected transient construction worker would require one rental-housing unit, New York State as a whole could easily supply rental housing to construction workers under all development scenarios with existing vacant units at maximum build-out. Therefore, the impact on the supply of rental housing resources during the construction phase would be negligible at the statewide level. Impacts at a the regional and local levels are discussed below.

Table 6.45 - New York State Rental Housing Stock (2010) (New August 2011)

Total Rental Inventory	For Rent	Rental Vacancy Rate (%)
3,632,743	200,039	5.5

Source: USCB 2010.

Permanent Housing

Some migration of workers into New York State would be expected to occur as a result of the construction and production phase of the high-volume hydraulic fracturing operations. Initially, there would not be enough workers specialized in gas production to meet the demand. Therefore, it would be expected that these workers would move into New York State from states where the natural gas extraction industry is more developed. However, over time, an experienced workforce would be created within the state, and the need for out-of-state workers would decline.

Table 6.46 identifies the existing supply of vacant housing units for sale or rent in New York State. Seasonal, recreational, and occasional-use units and units rented or sold but not occupied were not included in these totals. Assuming a worst-case scenario at maximum build-out, it is anticipated that each projected permanent construction and production worker would require one permanent housing unit. Given that assumption, New York State has more than enough houses for sale to provide permanent housing units to the new permanent workers. Therefore, the impact on the supply of permanent housing units would be negligible at the statewide level.

Table 6.46 - Availability of Owner-Occupied Housing Units (2010) (New August 2011)

Total Number of Housing Units	For Sale	For Rent
8,108,103	77,225	200,039

Source: USCB 2010.

Based on the above discussion, it can be concluded that at the statewide level, New York State as a whole has a more than sufficient supply of rental properties and housing units to cope with the additional workers employed under each of the development scenarios at maximum build-out in Year 30. Regional and local impacts are discussed below.

6.8.3.2 Representative Regions

Table 6.47 identifies the maximum transient and permanent employment in Regions A, B, and C. See Section 6.8.1 and 6.8.2 for a detailed discussion of the derivation of these numbers.

Table 6.47 - Maximum Transient and Permanent Employment by Development Scenario and Region (New August 2011)

Region	Maximum Transient Employment (in FTE)[1]	Maximum Permanent Employment[2]
Region A		
Low	1,205	2,879
Average	4,820	11,517
Region B		
Low	554	1,325
Average	2,217	5,297
Region C		
Low	121	289
Average	482	1,152

1 Maximum transient employment occurs in Year 10.

2 Maximum permanent employment occurs in Year 30 and includes both permanent construction and production employment.

Note: Maximum transient employment and maximum permanent employment are reached in two different years. Therefore, the figures for transient employment and permanent employment in this table cannot be added to equal total employment. See Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C., 2011, Economic Assessment Report, for year-by-year employment details.

Temporary Housing

The construction phase would be expected to have a short-term, mixed impact on the rental housing stock in the representative regions. As described above, given the short-term nature of well construction, it is unlikely that many of the construction workers would initially permanently relocate to the region. However, as the natural gas development industry developed in the region and long-term employment became more likely, more construction workers would choose to permanently relocate to the regions.

In most cases, transient construction workers would temporarily reside in nearby population centers and commute to the development sites. Once the well is completed, they would move on to another area. The influx of a large number of transient construction workers into these regions would be expected to increase the demand for temporary housing, such as rental properties, hotel/motel rooms, and RV camp sites, thereby decreasing rental and hotel/motel vacancy rates throughout the region. Decreased rental and hotel/motel vacancy rates are expected to provide short-term economic benefits to some owners of rental housing and hotels/motels in these regions, but it could also cause a shortage of temporary housing in the most affected areas. The increase in demand may also increase the price charged for these units.

In areas of Pennsylvania where Marcellus shale drilling activity is occurring, it has been difficult at times to accommodate the influx of new workers (Kelsey 2011). There have been reports of large increases in rent in Bradford County, Pennsylvania, as a result of the influx of out-of-area workers (Lowenstein 2010). There have also been “frequent reports” of landlords not renewing leases with existing tenants in anticipation of leasing at higher rates to incoming workers, and reports of an increased demand for motel and hotel rooms, increased demand at RV campsites and increases in home sales (Kelsey 2011). Such localized increases in the demand for housing have raised concerns about the difficulties caused for existing local, low-income residents to afford housing (Kelsey 2011).

The impacts on temporary housing described above for Bradford County, while acute in the short-term, may decline in the long-term as more workers establish permanent residences in the area and as the market has time to respond to the shortage in temporary housing. As more hotel/motel rooms are constructed, and more rental properties become available, the shortages of existing units would decline and subsequently rental prices would also decline.

As with the situation in areas in Pennsylvania undergoing early Marcellus shale development, it is likely that most of the workers employed during the construction phase would relocate from outside of Regions A, B, and C, as natural gas well exploration and drilling require specialized skilled workers (Marcellus Shale Education and Training Center 2009).

Table 6.48 identifies the total rental inventory, the existing supply of vacant housing units for rent, the rental vacancy rate, and the number of hotel/motel rooms in Regions A, B, and C. Assuming a worst-case scenario, where each incoming temporary worker would require one rental housing unit or hotel/motel room at maximum transient employment levels (Year 10), Regions B and C have more vacant rental units than incoming workers under both scenarios. Region A also has more hotel/motel rooms and vacant rental units than the number of incoming workers under both development scenarios. However, the average development scenario would utilize the majority (69.5%) of the rental properties and hotel/motel rooms in Region A, thereby, causing shortages for the existing renters/ hotel users.

Table 6.48 - Availability of Rental Housing Units (New August 2011)

Region	Total Rental Inventory	For Rent	Rental Vacancy Rate (%)	Hotel/Motel Rooms
Region A	48,955	3,824	7.8	3,110
Region B	24,558	2,604	10.6	3,705
Region C	29,127	2,624	9.0	1,987

Source: USCB 2009.

In Regions B and C under both development scenarios and in Regions A under the low development scenario, the existing stock of rental housing is sufficient to meet the needs of incoming workers; thus, no additional rental housing would need to be constructed. However, rent increases caused by the increased demand for rental housing could make such housing unaffordable for existing low-income tenants, and increased demand for hotel/motel rooms would be likely to cause price increases in these sectors.

Under the average development scenario, shortages of rental housing would likely occur in Region A. The use of seasonal, recreational, or occasional use housing units as rental properties could potentially reduce the impact of increased demand on rental housing in these regions. However, it is likely that rents and hotel/motel room rates would remain elevated until additional rental housing and motels/hotels were constructed to meet the higher level of demand. The higher rents would negatively impact existing low-income residents, who may not be able to find affordable rental housing within the regions. The higher motel/hotel rates and/or the fewer available rooms may discourage some visitors from coming to these regions and thereby have the potential to reduce tourism in those areas.

The above analysis was completed on a regional level and included all rental units in a two- or three-county area. However, temporary housing impacts may occur and be more severe at an even more local level. If several well pads were developed at the same the time in the same area, there would be an even larger concentration of workers and a greater demand for temporary housing in that immediate area and in the population centers located near the general vicinity of the development. Although data on commuting patterns by occupation show that temporary construction workers typically are willing to commute farther than other workers, there still could be a significant increase in local housing demand. Therefore, the localized impacts in areas where there is a high concentration of natural gas wells may be greater than those described above.

Permanent Housing

The permanent construction and production workers are expected to have a long-term, mixed impact on the permanent housing stock in the representative regions. Given the need to have natural gas operators with specialized skills, many of the production workers would relocate from areas outside the representative regions. New production workers recruited from outside the region would typically be offered permanent employment and would likely require permanent housing. In addition, as the natural gas industry expands in the representative regions and the long-term construction employment becomes more permanent in the region, more construction workers would choose to live permanently in the regions and simply commute between well sites. These additional construction and production workers would increase the demand for permanent housing. In addition, the increased economic activity that would take place in these regions as a result of natural gas development would further increase the demand for permanent housing and reduce homeowner and rental vacancy rates in the region.

Table 6.49 identifies the number of vacant permanent housing units for sale or rent in Regions A, B, and C. Seasonal, recreational, and occasional-use units and units rented or sold but not occupied were not included in this table. The following analysis assumes a worst-case scenario where all new permanent construction workers and all production workers would relocate to the region and require one permanent housing unit each at maximum build-out (Year 30) to purchase or rent. However, in actuality this may overstate the regional impacts. Many of the permanent worker positions could be filled by currently unemployed or underemployed workers from the local areas, thus reducing the overall demand for permanent housing.

Given this worse-case assumption, Regions A, B, and C would be able to absorb the additional demand for permanent housing units under the low development scenario. Regions A, B, and C would not be able to meet the increased demand for permanent housing units under the average development scenario.

Table 6.49 - Availability of Housing Units (New August 2011)

Region	Total Number of Housing Units	For Sale	For Rent
Region A	151,135	1,516	3,824
Region B	111,185	1,989	2,604
Region C	108,031	1,278	2,624

Source: USCB 2010.

No additions to the permanent housing stock would be required under the low development scenarios in which regions could absorb additional demand for permanent housing. However, it is expected that house prices would rise initially in response to the increased demand for permanent housing, resulting in difficulties for low-income residents seeking to buy a home and capital gains for owners of existing homes. In the long-term, additional housing construction would take place and prices would level off as the supply of housing units caught up with the demand for these units.

Under the average development scenario in which regions do not have enough homes for sale or rent to meet the potential demand from incoming permanent workers, the incoming workers and existing residents would compete for the existing stock of permanent housing units, resulting in an increase in housing prices. Over time, builders and landowners would respond to the higher prices by constructing more permanent housing units. However, before such homes are constructed, a period of particularly high prices would be expected. Low-income residents that do not already own property or currently rent might face difficulties in finding affordable homes to buy, and owners of existing homes would experience capital gains.

The above analysis was completed on a regional level and included all permanent housing units in a two- or three-county area. Permanent housing impacts may occur and be more severe on a more local level. If, for example, production workers are expected to report to only a few centralized facilities, the demand for permanent housing near these facilities would be greater than for the region as a whole. This may place a strain on the permanent housing stock in such areas, and the impacts may be even greater than those described above.

6.8.3.3 Cyclical Nature of the Natural Gas Industry

The demand for housing, both temporary and permanent, would be expected to change over time. The demand for housing would be the greatest in the period during which the wells in an area are being developed, and demand would decline thereafter. This would create the possibility of an excess supply of such housing after the well development period (Kelsey 2011). If well development in a region occurs in some areas earlier than in others, then housing shortages and surpluses may occur at the same time in different areas within the same region.

The natural gas market can be volatile, with large swings in well development activity. Downswings may cause periods of temporary housing surplus, while upswings may exacerbate housing shortages within the regions.

6.8.3.4 Property Values

At this level of analysis, it is impossible to predict the actual impacts of developing the Marcellus and Utica shale natural gas reserves on individual property values. However, some predictions can be made with regard to the general impact of mineral rights on property values and the impact of well development on adjacent properties.

Significant increases in property value are expected where the subsurface mineral rights and land are held jointly with land ownership and the exploitation of the subsurface resources is not limited in some way. Because the owners of subsurface mineral rights typically receive royalty payments equal to or greater than 12.5% of the total value of production, the development of natural gas reserves would be expected to substantially increase the value of their property. Properties where the mineral rights are not held jointly with land ownership, or where there is some restriction on drilling, would not experience this increase in value.

Property values could also be affected by the impacts associated with developing natural gas resources. Gas well development could impact local environmental resources and cause noise and vibration impacts, and trucks servicing the well development could also impact the surrounding areas. Once wells are in place, the local impacts would be less and there would be much less traffic moving to and from the wells. Pipelines would be constructed to carry the natural gas from the wells. Construction of the pipelines would have an impact on the landscape and would result in the maintenance of cleared rights-of-way once the pipeline is in place. Gas compressor stations would also be constructed to maintain the pressure of the gas in the pipelines, and there would be noise and air emissions associated with their operation.

It is possible that these various impacts, particularly those associated with the construction phase, could reduce the value of properties close to the wells relative to similar properties not located close to wells. In order to assess the potential impact these negative externalities would have on property values in the affected regions, a review of economic literature was undertaken. A number of studies have been conducted to provide quantitative estimates of the impact of wells on property values. These studies are discussed and reviewed below. As with much economic and econometric literature, the following studies are based on data gathered for specific geographical locations at specific times. While the findings of these studies are analogous to the current situation discussed in this SGEIS, the findings should only be used as an indication of direction and the magnitude of possible impacts on property values. Characteristics of individual housing markets and the nature of the gas development activities would vary dramatically from site to site, thus the findings in the following reports should not be viewed as an actual estimate of impacts. BBC Research and Consulting (2001) examined the impact of coal bed methane wells on property values in La Plata County, Colorado, between 1989 and the first half of 2000. The authors used a hedonic approach (i.e., an approach that links property values to their attributes and the attributes of surrounding areas) to estimate the impact of having a well on a property and having a well near to, but not on, a property. The authors found that having a well on a property was associated with a 22% reduction in the value of the property; that having a well within 550 feet of a property increased its value; and that having a well located between 551 feet and 2,600 feet from a property had a negative impact on a property’s value. The authors attributed the positive impact on property values of having a well located within 550 feet of a property to the prevention of further gas well development in that area due to a spacing order and setback conditions that prevented well drilling close to existing wells (BBC Research and Consulting 2001).

Boxall, Chan, and McMillan (2005) examined the impact of small to medium size oil and gas production facilities on rural residential property values using data from central Alberta, Canada. In this study, the authors found a statistically significant negative relationship between property values and the presence of oil and gas facilities within approximately of 2.5 miles of rural residential properties. The presence of oil and gas facilities within 2.5 miles of rural residential properties was estimated to reduce property values between 4% and 8%, with the potential to double the impact, depending on the level and composition of the nearby industry activities (Boxall et al. 2005).

Integra Realty Resources (2011) conducted a study of the impact of natural gas wells on property values in and around Flower Mound, a community approximately 28 miles northwest of downtown Dallas, Texas, where gas drilling is a recent development. The authors used four methods to estimate the impact of wells on property values: (1) examining the relationship between distance to a well site and property values; (2) comparing the sales prices of properties close to a well and comparable properties not close to a well; (3) a statistical analysis of the relationship between property attributes, including proximity to a well and values; and (4) surveying market participants (principally realty agents). With regard to the relationship between the distance between properties and well sites, they found that within Flower Mound itself there was a negative impact on property values when houses are immediately adjacent to well sites; however, this negative impact diminishes quickly with increasing distance from the well. The impact was found to be between -2% and -7% of property values. The results of the comparable sales analysis indicated that, in most cases, there was little correlation between proximity to a well site and property values. However, within Flower Mound itself and for properties in excess of $250,000 in selling price, proximity to a well had a negative impact of between -3% and -14% on property values. The statistical analysis found no statistically significant relationship between property values and proximity to a well site. Finally, market participants reported that proximity to a well site had an impact on the time required to sell a property; however, this impact was most pronounced during the actual process of well development and diminished thereafter (Integra Realty Resources 2011).

Fruits (2005) studied the impact of the South Mist Pipeline Extension on residential property values in Clackamas and Washington counties, Oregon. In his analysis, Fruits performed three statistical tests using the hedonic housing price approach and found no statistically significant impact from natural gas pipeline development on residential property values (Fruits 2005).

Palmer (2008) also looked at the impact of the South Mist Pipeline Extension on residential property values in Clackamas and Washington counties, Oregon. Palmer, working on behalf of Palomar Gas Transmission LLC, conducted a market study using data from 2004 to 2008 that compared sales of properties along pipeline corridors with comparable sales of non-affected properties. Palmer found no measurable impact on property values resulting from the construction and operation of natural gas pipelines (Palmer 2008).

In conclusion, the above literature review suggests that being in proximity to a well could reduce the value of a property, but that proximity to a gas pipeline might not reduce the value of a property. The proposed natural gas development would have an overall regional effect of increasing property values due to the expected in-migration of construction and operations workers and the increased economic activity that would occur in the area. Likewise, properties that still included unexploited sub-surface mineral rights would increase in value due to the potential of receiving royalty payments. However, not all properties in the region would increase in value, as residential properties located in close proximity to the new gas wells would likely see some downward pressure on price. This downward pressure would be particularly acute for residential properties that do not own the subsurface mineral rights.

6.8.4 Government Revenue and Expenditures

This section discusses the potential fiscal impacts on state and local government entities that would occur as a result of the proposed development of low-permeability shale natural gas reserves. Impacts on major revenue sources for the state and local governments are discussed, as are expected changes in state and local government expenditures that could occur as a result of the use of the high-volume hydraulic-fracturing technique.

Given the uncertainty associated with the actual level of future development of these reserves, the rate of extraction that would occur, and the actual geographic location where development would take place, it is impossible to definitively quantify the fiscal impacts of this action. However, some estimates have been made. These estimates should be viewed only as order-of-magnitude estimates and not as actual revenue or cost projections.

6.8.4.1 New York State

The proposed high-volume hydraulic fracturing operations would have a significant positive impact on revenues collected by New York State. Revenues in the state would increase directly as a result of lease payments for natural gas development that would occur under state-owned land and indirectly from an increase in tax revenues generated by the natural gas development and the resulting increase in economic activity throughout the state. No surface access would be granted for high-volume hydraulic fracturing operations on most state-owned lands. However, the subsurface natural gas deposits under state-owned lands could be accessed by surface operations located on privately owned lands. If the subsurface natural gas deposits under state-owned lands were extracted, New York State would receive lease payments and royalties for the mineral rights.

Currently, New York State receives lease payments for any existing or planned natural gas development on state-owned lands that are leased. These payments would also be received for any new subsurface mineral rights that are leased and/or any new wells drilled in the low-permeability shale that would access subsurface natural gas reserves under state-owned lands.

Delay rentals (i.e., rental payments that are provided to the owner of the mineral rights before drilling and production occurs) and bonus bid payments would accrue to the state when developers first purchase the right to exploit the subsurface minerals under state-owned lands. Royalty payments of 12.5% or more of gross revenues would also be provided to the state for any natural gas reserves extracted from under state-owned lands.

At this point in the planning processes it is impossible to accurately assess the exact location where these wells would be drilled and whether or not these wells would be located on private lands that could access underground reserves under state-owned lands. Therefore, it is impossible to estimate the total royalty and lease payments that would accrue to the state. However, these payments are not expected to be large relative to the total New York State budget. Currently, New York State receives approximately $746,000 in lease payments per year for all oil and natural gas developments on state-owned lands.

The state would indirectly receive a significant increase in its revenue streams as a result of the proposed drilling in low-permeability shale. As described in Section 6.8.1 (Economy, Employment, and Income), high-volume hydraulic fracturing operations would increase employment and income throughout the state. Up to $621.9 million to $2.5 billion in employee earnings would be directly and indirectly generated per year at maximum build-out, depending on the development scenario.

As a result, New York State would experience a large increase in its personal income tax receipts. In 2008 the effective personal income tax rate for all taxpayers in New York State was 5.0%. If this tax rate were used for estimation purposes, at maximum build-out the state could receive between $31 million and $125 million a year in personal income tax receipts, depending on the level of development assumed.

In addition to the personal income tax, the state would also experience some increase in its corporate tax receipts. Corporate income in the state would increase both directly, as the natural gas developers profit from the extraction of the gas in the low-permeability shale, and indirectly due to the resulting increase in economic activity in the state. However, given the many benefits in the New York State tax code for energy companies, such as expensing, depletion and depreciation deductions, the taxable income from the natural gas industry would be greatly reduced. In addition, New York State offers an investment tax credit (ITC) that could substantially reduce most, if not, all of the net income generated by these energy development companies. Also the sale of the natural gas generated by these companies may not take place in New York and, therefore, may not be subject to New York State corporate tax (NYSDTF 2011a).

Other tax receipts would also increase. Revenues generated from sales and use tax would also register an increase as industry purchased the materials needed to develop these natural gas reserves that are not exempt from state and local sales tax. However, many of the materials needed to construct these wells would be tax-exempt, including such things as piping, drill rigs, service rigs, vehicles, tools and supplies, pollution control equipment, and services to real property (NYSDTF 2011a).

The direct, indirect, and induced economic activity associated with the high-volume hydraulic fracturing would further expand sales tax receipts as the new workers spend a portion of the increased earnings in the state.

High-volume hydraulic fracturing operations would also result in some significant negative fiscal impacts on the state. The increased truck traffic required to deliver equipment, supplies, and water and sand to the well sites would increase the rate of deterioration of the state's road system. Additional capital outlays would be required to maintain the same level of service on these roads for their projected useful life. Depending on the exact location of well pads, the state may also be required to upgrade roads and interchanges under its jurisdiction in order to handle the additional truck traffic. The potential increase in accidents and possible additional hazardous materials spills resulting from the increased truck traffic also would require additional expenditures. Finally, approval of transportation plans/permits would place additional administrative costs on the New York State Department of Transportation.

Additional environmental monitoring, oversight, and permitting costs would also accrue to the state. In order to protect human health and the environment, New York State would be required to spend substantial funds to review permit applications, to ensure that permit requirements were met, safe drilling techniques were used, and best available management plans were followed, and to enforce against violations. In addition, the state would experience administrative costs associated with the review of well permit applications and leasing requirements, and enforcement of regulations and permit restrictions. All of these factors could result in significant added costs for New York State's government.

6.8.4.2 Representative Regions

Development of the natural gas reserves would have a significant fiscal impact on local governments wherever drilling would take place. These impacts would be both positive and negative in nature. As described above, local government entities who take part in sales tax revenue sharing schemes would experience a substantial increase in sales tax receipts as a result of the additional economic activity that would occur within their jurisdictions. Local government entities that receive proceeds from ad valorem property taxes would see significant increases to their tax rolls and property tax receipts.

As described previously in Section 2.3.11.4, Government Revenues and Expenditures, producing natural gas wells are taxable for ad valorem real property tax purposes in New York State. Therefore, every new natural gas well operating in a local government's jurisdiction would increase that government's tax base and the total assessed value of property.

In New York State, producing natural gas wells are taxed based on the value of their production for ad valorem property tax purposes. Each year the New York State Office of Real Property Tax Service determines the "unit of production value" for a region. This unit value is then multiplied by the total amount of natural gas produced, and the state equalization rate is then applied to determine the total assessed value of the natural gas well. Applicable property tax rates are then applied to this assessed value to determine the ad valorem property tax levy. See Section 2.3.11.4, Government Revenues and Expenditures, for more details.

Using the above-mentioned formula, an estimate of local property tax revenues can be generated and extrapolated for each development scenario. Using industry estimates for the productivity of horizontal and vertical high-volume hydraulic fracturing wells, the following property tax analysis has been completed for Year 30, the year of maximum impact. See the Economic

Assessment Report for a more detailed discussion of the methodology used to estimate property tax impacts and to see data for other years.

In order to predict the change in property tax revenues that would result from the proposed development of the low-permeability shale natural gas reserves, annual production of the wells was forecasted. Many factors affect the annual production of a natural gas well. Typically, production initially starts out at a maximum level and then declines quickly until it reaches a slower rate of decline. Production then continues at this lower level for approximately 30 years. Horizontal high-volume hydraulic-fracturing wells produce more natural gas than vertical high-volume hydraulic-fracturing wells. This discrepancy has been accounted for in the analysis. For a more detailed description of projected production levels, see the Economic Assessment Report.

For the purposes of this analysis, the 2010 unit of production value for the Medina formation was used to estimate the real property tax payments of a representative horizontal high-volume hydraulic fracturing well in Broome County. When the Marcellus Shale and Utica Shale reserves are developed in New York State, specific unit of production values would be developed for that specific formation and the specific drilling techniques used in that formation. Depending on the results of that analysis, the unit of production value could vary substantially from the Medina values utilized in this report. Table 6.50 shows the estimated annual real property tax payments for a typical high-volume hydraulic-fracturing horizontal well in Broome County in each year of its operational life using the Medina formation unit of production value. See the Economic Assessment Report for additional examples.

Table 6.50 - Example of the Real Property Tax Payments From a Typical Horizontal Well (New August 2011)

County:			**Broome**
2010 Final Gas Unit of Production Value			$11.19
2010 Overall Full-Value Tax Rate[1]			35.5
Production Year	**Annual Production (millions of cubic feet)**	**Assessed Value of Production[2]**	**Property Tax Payment[3]**
1	803.00	$8,985,570	$318,988
2	354.05	$3,961,820	$140,645
3	258.00	$2,887,020	$102,489
4	201.43	$2,253,946	$80,015
5	165.93	$1,856,701	$65,913
6	144.50	$1,616,955	$57,402
7	130.00	$1,454,700	$51,642
8	119.00	$1,331,610	$47,272
9	109.93	$1,230,061	$43,667
10	103.20	$1,154,850	$40,997
11	98.04	$1,097,107	$38,947
12	93.14	$1,042,252	$37,000
13	88.48	$990,139	$35,150
14	84.06	$940,633	$33,392
15	79.86	$893,601	$31,723
16	75.86	$848,921	$30,137
17	72.07	$806,475	$28,630
18	68.47	$766,151	$27,198
19	65.04	$727,844	$25,838
20	61.79	$691,451	$24,547
21	58.70	$656,879	$23,319
22	55.77	$624,035	$22,153
23	52.98	$592,833	$21,046
24	50.33	$563,191	$19,993
25	47.81	$535,032	$18,994
26	45.42	$508,280	$18,044
27	43.15	$482,866	$17,142
28	40.99	$458,723	$16,285
29	38.94	$435,787	$15,470
30	37.00	$413,997	$14,697
Total Property Tax Payments for the Productive Life of the Well			**$1,448,735**

Sources: NYSDTF 2011b, 2011c, 2011d, 2011e; All Consulting 2011.

Notes:

1 Full-value tax rates are tax rates that have been already been equalized. Therefore, these numbers should not be multiplied by the state equalization rate.

2 Calculated as Annual Production multiplied by 1,000 (to calculate the number of 1,000s of cubic feet) multiplied by the 2010 Final Gas Unit of Production Value (applied to each 1,000 cubic feet).

3 Calculated as Assessed Value multiplied by the Overall Full-Value Tax Rate divided by 1,000.

In estimating real property tax payments for vertical high-volume hydraulic fracturing wells it was initially assumed that each well would produce at the same average level of production as existing wells (in 2009) in the region. However, average annual production for existing wells in Region A was approximately 317.9 million cubic feet per year. This figure was deemed to be too optimistic, so a figure of 90 million cubic feet per year was used instead for Region A production. The 90 million cubic feet per year corresponds to production levels of vertical wells currently operating in the Marcellus formation in Pennsylvania (NYSDEC 2011). Region B currently has no producing natural gas wells, and its Marcellus and Utica Shale formations are similar to those found in Region A (NYSDEC 2011). Therefore, a production level of 90 million cubic feet per year was also used for Region B. In contrast, due to the geological characteristics of Region C, high-volume hydraulic fracturing vertical wells are not anticipated to have the same level of production as in Region A or Region B. High-volume, hydraulic fracturing vertical wells in Region C are anticipated to have production levels similar to other vertical wells currently operating in the region (NYSDEC 2011). Therefore, in Region C it is assumed that each well would produce at the same average level of production as existing wells (in 2009) in the region.

Table 6.51 shows the estimated annual real property tax payment from a typical vertical well. The example uses the overall full-value tax rate, which averages the property tax levies in Broome County from all taxing jurisdictions, including county, town, village, school district, and other taxing districts, and the 2010 Medina formation unit of production value. As described previously, once Marcellus Shale or Utica Shale formations become developed in New York State, specific unit of production values would be developed for that specific formation and the specific drilling techniques used in that formation. Depending on the results of that analysis, the unit of production value could vary substantially from the Medina values utilized in this report.

Table 6.51 - Example of the Real Property Tax Payments from a Typical Vertical Well (New August 2011)

County:	Broome
2010 Final Gas Unit of Production Value	$11.19
2010 Overall Full-Value Tax Rate	35.5
Annual Production (millions of cubic feet)	90
Assessed Value of Production of Well[1]	$1,007,100
Annual Property Tax Payment[2]	$35,752

Source: NYSDTF 2011b, 2011c, 2011d, 2011e; NYSDEC 1994-2006, 2007b, 2008, 2009.

Notes:

1 Calculated as Annual Production multiplied by 1,000 (to calculate the number of 1,000s of cubic feet) multiplied by the Final Gas Unit of Production Value (applied to each 1,000 cubic feet).

2 Calculated as Assessed Value of Production of Well multiplied by the Overall Full-Value Tax Rate divided by 1,000.

As shown on Table 6.52, the projected change in total assessed value and property tax receipts that would result under any of the development scenarios would be significant. Annual property tax receipts at the peak production year (Year 30) would range from $9.1 million in Chautauqua County to $77.5 million in Broome County under the low development scenario. For Year 30, annual property tax receipts under the average development scenario would range from $35.4 million in Chautauqua County to $309.3 million in Broome County, and annual property tax receipts under the high development scenario would range from $53.1 million in Chautauqua County to $460.0 million in Broome County (see Table 6.52).

Table 6.52 - Projected Change in Total Assessed Value and Property Tax Receipts[1] at Peak Production (Year 30), by Region (New August 2011)

	Low Development Scenario		**Average Development Scenario**	
	Change in Assessed Value ($ million)	**Total Property Tax Receipts ($ million)**	**Change in Assessed Value ($ million)**	**Total Property Tax Receipts ($ million)**
Region A				
Broome County	$3,345	$119	$13,342	$474
Chemung County	$1,930	$66	$7,700	$264
Tioga County	$2,458	$76	$9,803	$302
Total Region A	$7,732	$261	$30,845	$1,040
Region B				
Delaware County	$1,498	$32	$5,996	$127
Otsego County	$1,040	$20	$4,164	$82
Sullivan County	$1,006	$26	$4,024	$105
Total Region B	$3,544	$78	$14,184	$314

	Low Development Scenario		Average Development Scenario	
	Change in Assessed Value ($ million)	**Total Property Tax Receipts ($ million)**	**Change in Assessed Value ($ million)**	**Total Property Tax Receipts ($ million)**
Region C				
Cattaraugus County	$406	$14	$1,583	$56
Chautauqua County	$329	$11	$1,283	$41
Total Region C	$735	$25	$2,866	$97
Total Regions A, B, and C	$42,856	$364	$47,895	$1,451

Source: NYSDTF 2011b, 2011c, 2011d, 2011e.

1 Property tax receipts are calculated using the overall full-value tax rate for each county. Therefore, the property tax receipts figure estimates property taxes collected from all levels of government, including county, town, village, school district, and other special taxing districts.

Note: Totals may not sum due to rounding.

The increase in ad valorem property taxes would have a significant positive impact on the finances of local government entities. While these figures are not directly comparable to the current county revenues and expenditures data presented in Section 2.3.11.4, Government Revenue and Expenditures, the figures can be used to show the order of magnitude of these impacts. The total property tax receipts shown above were calculated using the overall full-value tax rate, meaning the impact figures presented above include town, village, school district, and other special taxing districts revenue as well county property tax receipts.

In addition to the positive fiscal impacts discussed above, local governments would also experience some significant negative fiscal impacts resulting from the development of natural gas reserves in the low-permeability shale. As described in previous sections, the use of high-volume hydraulic-fracturing drilling techniques would increase the demand for governmental services and thus increase the total expenditures of local government entities. Additional road construction, improvement, and repair expenditures would be required as a result of the increased truck traffic that would occur. Additional expenditures on emergency services such as fire, police, and first aid would be expected as a result of the increased traffic and construction and production activities. Also additional expenditures on public water supply systems may also be required. Finally, if substantial in-migration occurs in the region as a result of drilling and production, local governments would be required to increase expenditures on other services, such as education, health and welfare, recreation, housing, and solid waste management to serve the additional population.

6.8.5 Environmental Justice

As described in previous sections, there is potential for some localized negative impacts to occur as a result of allowing high-volume hydraulic fracturing. Therefore, implementation of such projects could have localized negative impacts on environmental justice populations if the projects are sited in identified environmental justice areas. However, specific project site locations have not been selected at this time.

Currently, natural gas well permit applications are exempt from requirements in NYSDEC Commissioner Policy 29, Environmental Justice and Permitting (CP-29); therefore, additional environmental justice screening would not be required for individual well permit applications. However, some of the auxiliary permits/approvals that would be needed prior to well construction may require environmental justice screening.

When necessary, project applicants would determine whether the proposed project area is urban or rural and would perform a geographic information system (GIS)-based analysis at the census tract or block group level to identify potential environmental justice areas. If a potential environmental justice area is identified by the preliminary screening, additional community outreach activities would be required.

6.9 Visual Impacts[402]

The visual impacts associated with vertical drilling in the Marcellus and Utica Shales would be similar to those discussed in the 1992 GEIS (NYSDEC 1992). Horizontal drilling and high-volume hydraulic fracturing are, in general, similar to those discussed in the 1992 GEIS (NYSDEC 1992), although changes that have occurred in the industry over the last 19 years may affect visual impacts. These visual impacts would typically result from the introduction of new landscape features into the existing settings surrounding well pad locations that are inconsistent with (i.e., different from) existing landscape features in material, form, and function. The

[402] Section 6.9, in its entirety, was provided by Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C., August 2011, and was adapted by the Department.

introduction of these new landscape features would result in changes to visual resources or visually sensitive areas and would be perceived as negative or detrimental by regulating agencies and/or the viewing public.

The visual impacts of horizontal drilling and high-volume hydraulic fracturing would result from four general on-site processes associated with the development of viable well locations: construction, well development (drilling and fracturing), operation or production, and post-production reclamation. The greatest visual impacts would be associated with the construction of well pads and associated facilities, which would create new long-term features within surrounding landscapes, and well drilling and completion activities at viable well locations, which would be temporary and short-term in nature. Additional off-site activities could also result in visual impacts, including the presence of increased workforce personnel and vehicular traffic, and the use of existing or development of new off-site staging areas or contractor/storage yards.

The visual impacts of horizontal drilling and hydraulic fracturing would vary depending on topographic conditions, vegetation characteristics, the time of year, the time of day, and the distance of one or more well sites from visual resources, visually sensitive areas, or other visual receptors.

6.9.1 Changes since Publication of the 1992 GEIS that Affect the Assessment of Visual Impacts

A number of changes to equipment and drilling procedures since the 1992 GEIS have the potential to result in visual impacts over a larger surrounding area and/or visual impacts over a longer period of time. These changes can generally be separated into three categories: changes in equipment and drilling techniques; changes in the size of well pads; and changes in the nature and duration of drilling and hydraulic-fracturing activities.

6.9.1.1 Equipment and Drilling Techniques

The 1992 GEIS stated that drill rigs ranged in height from 30 feet for a small cable tool rig to 100 feet or greater for a large rotary rig. By comparison, the rigs currently used by the industry for horizontal drilling can be 140 feet or greater in height and have more supporting equipment. While a substantial amount of on-site equipment, including stationary tanks, compressors, and trucks, would be periodically present at each site during specific times of well development (drilling and fracturing), the amount of necessary on-site equipment during these times is similar to that addressed in the 1992 GEIS.

6.9.1.2 Changes in Well Pad Size and the Number of Water Storage Sites

The typical area that would undergo site clearing for an individual well pad has increased since 1992, from approximately 2 acres per site to an average of approximately 3.5 acres per site. The pad size was increased to accommodate the necessary on-site equipment for drilling and hydraulic-fracturing activities and to accommodate drill sites with multiple well pads. Since multiple wells can be drilled from the same pad, this change has resulted in fewer, but larger pads.

In addition, separate large areas for water storage are often developed in the vicinity of well pad sites. These areas look somewhat similar to well pads because of their overall size and because of the presence of specific types of equipment (primarily tanks and trucks). However, they may contain specific landscape features associated with water procurement or storage features, including large graveled areas for truck traffic, water impoundment areas, and water storage tanks that are positioned on-site as needed.

6.9.1.3 Duration and Nature of Drilling and Hydraulic-Fracturing Activities

Since 1992 there have been a number of changes in the duration of drilling and hydraulic fracturing. In the 1992 GEIS, drilling time was described as an approximately one- to two-week or longer period, and there was no mention of the time required for hydraulic fracturing (NTC 2011). Currently, to complete a horizontal well takes 4 to 5 weeks of drilling, including hydraulic fracturing.

Since 1992 the industry has been trending, where possible, toward the development of multi-well pads rather than single-well pads. Multi-well pads are slightly larger, but the equipment used is often the same. Based on current industry practice, a taller rig (170 feet in total height) with a larger footprint and substructure may be used to drill multiple wells from a single pad. In some instances, smaller rigs may be used to drill the initial hole and conductor casing to just above the kick-off point, the depth at which a vertical borehole begins to turn into a horizontal borehole.

The larger rig is then used for the final horizontal portion of the hole. Typically, one or two wells are drilled and the rig is then removed.

If the well(s) are productive, the rig is brought back and the remaining wells are drilled and stimulated by the injection of hydraulic fracturing additives. There is the possibility that all wells on a pad would be drilled, stimulated, and completed consecutively, reducing the duration of visual impacts that would occur during drilling and hydraulic-fracturing activities. However, state law requires that all wells on a multi-well pad be drilled within three years of starting the first well (NTC 2011).

6.9.2 New Landscape Features Associated with the Different Phases of Horizontal Drilling and Hydraulic Fracturing

This section discusses the various visual impacts that may be associated with on-site horizontal drilling and high-volume hydraulic fracturing activities during the construction, development (drilling and fracturing), production, and reclamation phases. Visual impacts would occur in the vicinity of the different sites associated with horizontal drilling and hydraulic fracturing, such as at well pads, water impoundment and extraction sites, and the large equipment that may be present on these sites (e.g., drilling rigs), as well as at the locations of off-site areas such as contractor/equipment storage yards and staging areas, pipeline and compressor station locations, gravel pits, and disposal areas (Rumbach 2011). Additional off-site activities that may result in impacts on visual resources or visually sensitive areas during one or more of these phases are discussed in Section 6.9.3.

6.9.2.1 New Landscape Features Associated with the Construction of Well Pads

New landscape features that would be associated with the construction of well sites include open, level areas averaging approximately 3.5 acres in size that would serve as the well pad; construction equipment, including bulldozers, graders, backhoes, and other large equipment to construct level areas using clearing, cutting, filling and grading techniques; trucks for hauling equipment and materials; and worker vehicles. Newly created sites would appear as open, level areas with newly exposed earthen areas, albeit mulched or otherwise protected for erosion control, similar to the appearance of the construction activities for a water impoundment area as shown in Photo 5.22 in Section 5.7.2.

Photo 6.1 below shows a well site where wells have already been drilled and completion operations are underway. The photograph shows evidence of grading, cutting, and filling activities; the use of gravel for site preparation; and mulching along an earthen embankment to prevent erosion—all activities implemented during construction activities. A portion of a newly created linear right-of-way for a connecting pipeline is shown on the hillside in the background of the photo. The red and blue tanks shown in Photo 6.1 are discussed in greater detail in Section 6.9.2.2.

Photo 6.1 - A representative view of completion activities at a recently constructed well pad (New August 2011)

Photo 6.2 below shows the same recently constructed well pad that is currently under development, but from a different angle. In the foreground of the photograph below, the newly created access road leading to the well pad is shown. Erosion control measures and materials are also shown in the photograph, including channeling, gravel fill and hay bales in the channel, and mulching on topsoil or spoil piles to the left of the access road to minimize erosion. Additional

views of access roads are presented in Photos 5.1 through 5.4 in Section 5.1.1 and in Photo 6.2. Tanks, vehicles, and other equipment are discussed in greater detail in Section 6.9.2.2.

Photo 6.2 - A representative view of completion activities at a recently constructed well pad, showing a newly created access road in foreground (New August 2011)

If water impoundment sites are necessary, they would be located in the same general area as well sites, approximately the same size as a well site, and also be generally level. However, they would also contain one or more large earthen embankments encircling plastic-lined ponds. See Photo 6.3 below. Photos 5.20 and 5.22 in Section 5.7.2 contain additional representative views of water impoundment sites.

Photo 6.3 - A representative view of a newly constructed water impoundment area (New August 2011)

If water procurement sites are necessary, such sites would be located near water withdrawal locations (typically rivers or other large sources of water) and would consist of large, newly created graveled areas sufficiently sized for tanker truck use and equipped with on-site water pumps and metering equipment, as shown in Photo 6.4. Photos 5.19a and 5.19b in Section 5.7.2 contain additional representative views of water procurement sites.

Photo 6.4 - A representative view of a water procurement site (New August 2011)

Additional areas associated with the construction of well sites would include newly created access roads and pipeline rights-of-way for connector pipelines (see Photo 6.1 and Photo 6.2). These sites would typically be narrow, linear features, as opposed to the large open areas needed for well pads and water impoundment or procurement sites.

6.9.2.2 New Landscape Features Associated with Drilling Activities at Well Pads

New landscape features that would be associated with drilling activities include drill rigs of various heights and dimensions, including the rotary rigs as described in the 1992 GEIS, with heights ranging from 40 to 45 feet for single rigs and 70 to 80 feet for double rigs. Currently, the industry also uses triple rigs that can be more than 100 feet in height. As discussed in Section 5.2.1, only the rig used to drill the horizontal portion of the well is likely to be significantly larger than what is described in the 1992 GEIS. This rig may be a triple, with a substructure height of about 20 feet, a mast height of about 150 feet, and a surface footprint of about 14,000 square feet, which would include auxiliary equipment. Auxiliary equipment would include on-site tanks for holding water, fuel, and drilling mud; generators; compressors; solids control equipment (shale shaker, de-silter, desander); a choke manifold; an accumulator; pipe racks; and the crew's office space.

Photo 6.16, Photo 6.17, and Photo 6.20 show what a typical well pad may look like during the drilling of wells at a well pad. These photos show the industrial appearance of the well pad during the drilling phase, which would appear dramatically different from the pad's surrounding setting for the approximately 4- to 5-week duration of drilling activities.

6.9.2.3 New Landscape Features Associated with Hydraulic Fracturing Activities at Well Pads

New landscape features that would be associated with fracturing activities include an extensive array of equipment, which would cover almost the entire well pad. Photo 6.5 shows what a typical well site may look like during the hydraulic fracturing of wells at a well pad. This view is upslope of a well site that is under development. The photo shows the industrial appearance of the well site during the hydraulic fracturing phase, which would appear dramatically different from the site's surrounding setting for the 3- to 5-day duration of hydraulic fracturing activities. This view includes a water impoundment site (visible in the right background of the photo) and a portion of new right-of-way for a connector pipeline (visible on another hillside in the left background of the photo).

Photo 6.5 - A representative view of active high-volume hydraulic fracturing (New August 2011)

The equipment typically present during hydraulic fracturing includes the following:

- storage tanks that contain the water and additives used for hydraulic fracturing (rectangular red tanks on well site shown in Photo 6.5);
- tanks containing chemicals used in the fracturing process or for storage of liquefied natural gas produced during hydraulic fracturing (blue rectangular tanks on well site shown in Photo 6.5);
- compressors (large cylindrical blue equipment and smaller dark green equipment with stacks or vents shown in Photo 6.5) used for pumping product through various hoses and pipelines;
- miscellaneous trucks, including tractor trailers and other large trucks for hauling sand and hydraulic fracturing additives , pipe-hauling trucks, welding and other mechanical support trucks, and a crane; and
- miscellaneous worker vehicles (almost all of the white or silver vehicles shown in Photo 6.5).

6.9.2.4 New Landscape Features Associated with Production at Viable Well Sites

New landscape features associated with production at productive well sites would be relatively minimal. Following the establishment of viable wells, all of the fracturing equipment and vehicles shown in Photo 6.5 above would be removed from the site, and the site would be landscaped with either gravel or low-lying grassy vegetation. Some aboveground structures would be installed and remain on-site for the duration of production, including one or more wellheads, small storage tanks, and a metering system for the pipeline connections; however, these new aboveground structures would be small, less prominent landscape features, which over time would become part of the existing setting of the well site and its surrounding area. Photo 6.12, Photo 6.13, Photo 6.17, and Photo 6.20 at the end of Chapter 6 show the appearance of well sites during the production phase and the appearance of the same well sites during the earlier fracturing phase.

6.9.2.5 New Landscape Features Associated with the Reclamation of Well Sites

If well sites are restored to their original topographic configuration and vegetative cover, on-site aboveground structures associated with well production are removed and new landscape features are introduced. The new landscape features would temporarily include bare areas, which would be created by the large-scale earthmoving activity necessary to re-create the pre-existing terrain conditions, and newly placed erosion control materials and vegetation to prevent erosion and facilitate the successful reestablishment of vegetation covers, which would, over time, revert to pre-existing vegetation patterns and species.

6.9.3 Visual Impacts Associated with the Different Phases of Horizontal Drilling and Hydraulic Fracturing

Impacts on visual resources or visually sensitive areas such as those identified in Section 2.3.12 would result at or in the vicinity of individual well locations. The following five general categories of visual impacts result from horizontal drilling and high-volume hydraulic-fracturing activities:

- construction-related impacts associated with the preparation of drill sites, including the construction of access roads, connecting pipelines, and other ancillary facilities; work during this phase progresses in a linear fashion, with impacts at any one location occurring for up to several weeks;

- development-related impacts associated with the drilling of wells, including the presence of drill rigs and equipment during the drilling phase; work during this phase progresses over an approximately 2- to 3-week period;

- development-related impacts associated with the fracturing of wells, including the presence of storage tanks, compressors, trucks, and other equipment that supports fracturing activities; work during this phase progresses over an approximately 2- to 3-week period;

- operational impacts associated with active well sites, which include the presence of production equipment if the well site is viable; this low-impact phase involves small pieces of equipment and pipeline connections for up to 30 years; and

- reclamation impacts associated with the removal of production equipment and the restoration of well site locations when operations are complete.

6.9.3.1 Visual Impacts Associated with Construction of Well Pads

Construction-related impacts on visual resources or visually sensitive areas such as those identified in Section 2.3.12 would result from clearing and site preparation activities associated with access roads, well pads, connecting gas pipelines, retaining structures, and other support facilities such as water impoundments and water procurement sites. They would also include the impacts of site-specific construction-related traffic on both new and existing road systems. The end product of construction-related activities would be the creation of well sites and support facilities that are new landscape features within the surrounding existing setting, which may be incompatible with existing visual settings and land uses.

These construction-related visual impacts may be direct (i.e., impact the existing visual setting of a well location) or indirect (i.e., impact the existing visual setting of areas in the vicinity of a well location, including views that contain a well location). These visual impacts would be temporary or of short-term duration (i.e., a matter of months while construction is underway), and may generally be perceived as negative throughout their duration. These impacts on visual resources or visually sensitive areas would be both site-specific (i.e., within views that contain individual well locations) and cumulative (i.e., within views of areas or regions that contain concentrations of well locations).

6.9.3.2 Visual Impacts Associated with Drilling Activities on Well Pads

Development-related impacts on visual resources or visually sensitive areas such as those identified in Section 2.3.12 would result from the introduction of new and visible landscape features and activities into the existing settings that surround well locations. During drilling activities, such landscape features would include the newly created well pad sites, including associated access roads, pipeline rights-of-way, and other aboveground site facilities or structures such as water impoundment areas; the tall drill rigs; and on-site equipment to support drilling activities, such as on-site tanks for holding water, fuel, and drilling mud; generators; compressors; solids control equipment; a choke manifold; an accumulator; pipe racks; and the crew's office space.

Drilling rigs, which can reach heights of 150 feet or more, would be the most visible sign of drilling activity and when viewed from relatively short distances, such as from 1,000 feet to 0.5 miles, are relatively prominent landscape features. Because drilling may operate 24 hours a day, additional nighttime visual impacts may occur from rig lighting and open flaring (Rumbach 2011, Upadhyay and Bu 2010). Additional new and visible landscape features would include traffic related to the drilling of wells, including worker vehicles and heavy equipment used to drill wells at each well site.

Drilling-related visual impacts may be direct (i.e., impact the existing visual setting of a well location) or indirect (i.e., impact the existing visual settings of areas surrounding a well location, including views that include a well location). These visual impacts would be temporary or of short-term duration (i.e., a matter of weeks while drilling is underway), and would generally be perceived as negative throughout their duration, primarily because of the high visibility of drilling activities from surrounding vantage points. While drilling activities are generally considered temporary or of short-duration, they may occur a number of times at well locations over a three-year period following the date that the initial drilling on a well site commences. These impacts on visual resources or visually sensitive areas would be both site-specific (i.e., within views that contain individual well locations) and cumulative (i.e., within views of areas or regions that contain concentrations of well locations).

6.9.3.3 Visual Impacts Associated with Hydraulic Fracturing Activities at Well Sites

Fracturing-related impacts on visual resources or visually sensitive areas such as those identified in Section 2.3.12 would result from the introduction of new and visible landscape features and activities into the existing settings that surround well locations. During fracturing activities, such landscape features would include the newly created well pad sites, including: associated access roads, pipeline rights-of-way, and other aboveground site facilities or structures such as water impoundment areas; on-site equipment such storage vessels, trucks, and other equipment within containment areas; and buildings or other aboveground structures. On-site equipment would be the most visible sign of fracturing activity and, when viewed from relatively short distances (i.e., from 1,000 feet to 0.5 miles) are relatively prominent landscape features. Additional new and visible landscape features would include traffic related to the development of wells, including worker vehicles and heavy equipment used at each well site.

Fracturing-related visual impacts may be direct (i.e., impact the existing visual setting of a well location) or indirect (i.e., impact the existing visual settings of areas surrounding a well location, including views that include a well location). These visual impacts would be temporary or of short-term duration (i.e., a matter of weeks while hydraulic fracturing is underway) and would generally be perceived as negative throughout their duration, primarily because of the high visibility of fracturing activities from surrounding vantage points. While fracturing activities are generally considered temporary and of short duration, they would occur a number of times during the three-year period during which all wells at a well location would have to be drilled and fractured, and then episodically at well locations over the lifetime of the well, if hydraulic fracturing activities are repeated at wells to keep them viable (in production). These impacts on visual resources or visually sensitive areas would be both site-specific (i.e., within views that contain individual well locations) and cumulative (i.e., within views of areas or regions that contain concentrations of well locations).

6.9.3.4 Visual Impacts Associated with Production at Well Sites

Operations-related impacts on visual resources or visually sensitive areas such as those identified in Section 2.3.12 would result from extraction activities at viable well sites. The visual impacts of production would be less intrusive in surrounding landscapes, primarily because minimal on-site equipment is necessary during productions. Well site locations would consist of large, level grassy or graveled areas, with wellhead locations and small aboveground facilities for extraction and transfer of product into gas lines. Thousands of similar wellhead installations are already present in the area underlain by the Marcellus and Utica Shales in New York and may be considered relatively unobtrusive landscape features (see Photo 6.11 through Photo 6.20 at the end of Chapter 6). Although there would be some traffic associated with operations, including worker vehicles and equipment needed for operation and maintenance activities, the presence of such traffic would be substantially less than the traffic generated during construction and development (drilling and fracturing) of the wells.

Production-related visual impacts would be direct (i.e., directly impact the existing visual setting of a well location) and indirect (i.e., indirectly impact the existing settings within viewsheds that would contain a well location, including views of and from visual resources or visually sensitive areas that would also contain a well location) and would be of long-term duration (i.e., a number of years while active well sites remain viable). Operations-related visual impacts may initially be considered as having the potential for high visibility from surrounding vantage points, particularly when well locations are developed. However, over the lifetime of wells at a well location, which could be as long as 30 years from the commencement of drilling, operation-related activities at viable well pad locations would become integral features within their surrounding landscapes. These impacts on visual resources or visually sensitive areas would be both site-specific (i.e., within views that contain individual well locations) and cumulative (i.e., within views of areas or regions that contain concentrations of well locations).

6.9.3.5 Visual Impacts Associated with the Reclamation of Well Sites

Reclamation-related impacts on visual resources or visually sensitive areas such as those identified in Section 2.3.12 would result from the removal of on-site well equipment and structures and from site restoration activities. Site restoration activities would include recontouring the terrain at well sites to reestablish pre-existing topographic conditions and planting appropriate vegetative cover to reestablish appropriate site-specific vegetation species and growth patterns. Subsequent periodic reclamation-related visual impacts may also result from post-restoration inspection or monitoring and measures needed to ensure the successful reestablishment and succession of vegetation.

Reclamation-related visual impacts would be direct (i.e., directly impact the existing visual setting of a well location) and indirect (i.e., indirectly impact the existing settings within viewsheds that would contain a well location, including views of and from visual resources or visually sensitive areas that would also contain a well location). The duration of these temporary impacts would range from short term to long term. For example, removing well equipment and structures, recontouring the terrain, and replanting appropriate vegetation to reestablish pre-existing conditions would be of short-term duration (a matter of weeks or months). However, reclamation of forested areas may be of long-term duration.

Additional post-reclamation restoration activities may be necessary to ensure successful reestablishment of vegetation, consisting of periodic inspection or monitoring and implementation of any corrective actions to facilitate successful revegetation (such as corrective erosion control measures or vegetative replanting efforts). These activities would be episodic and may range from short-term to long term duration (from several months to as long as 1 to 3 years) to ensure successful revegetation. The potential impacts of short- to long-term inspection and monitoring activities on visual resources or visually sensitive areas during restoration are expected to be episodic and generally range from neutral to beneficial as vegetation succession proceeds.

All of the reclamation-related impacts on visual resources or visually sensitive areas would be both site specific (e.g., within views that contain individual well locations) and cumulative (e.g., within views of areas or regions containing concentrations of well locations).

6.9.4 Visual Impacts of Off-site Activities Associated with Horizontal Drilling and Hydraulic Fracturing

Section 6.9.3 discusses the nature of impacts on visual resources or visually sensitive areas that may be associated with on-site horizontal drilling and hydraulic-fracturing activities. However, off-site activities that could occur during one or more of the construction, development (drilling and fracturing), production, and reclamation phases also may result in additional indirect impacts on visual resources or visually sensitive areas, particularly during the periodic influx of specialized workforces during various phases of development. Such off-site activities may include changes in traffic volumes and patterns, depending on the phase of development occurring at one or more well sites in an area; and the development and/or use of existing or new contractor yards or equipment storage areas or other staging areas that may be necessary at various times (Upadhyay and Bu 2010).

The periodic and temporary influx of specialized workforces at various phases of development may also result in increased use of recreational vehicle or other camping areas (areas with cabins or designated for tent camping) for temporary or seasonal housing. While such camping areas may experience a congested appearance during such an influx, these areas are specifically designed for recreational vehicle or other camping activities, and the use of such areas in accordance with facility-specific occupancy rates may not be considered a negative impact on visual resources or visually sensitive areas.

The appearance and movement of specialized and large equipment and vehicles would result in temporary increases in traffic volumes and changes to traffic patterns, which would occur at various times during the construction, development (drilling and fracturing), and reclamation phases. This additional specialized traffic would occur on existing interstates, highways, and secondary roads and could result in increased congestion at intersections and bottlenecks (e.g., curves or bridges) or during particular hours (such as in the mornings and afternoons during the school year). This traffic would generally result in the increased visibility of construction- or production-related vehicles in the surrounding landscape. The new or increased presence of such specialized traffic may be considered a negative impact, particularly on highways and secondary roads that typically do not experience such construction-related traffic.

Additional cumulative visual impacts from traffic during the construction and development (drilling and fracturing) phase may occur where a number of wells are developed near each other at the same time, resulting in increased amounts of traffic. For areas with multiple well sites, this potential increase in traffic during the construction and development (drilling and fracturing) phase could increase the extent and duration of cumulative visual impacts. This potential cumulative visual impact from traffic used to construct and develop multiple well sites in an area might be reduced if the same operator develops multiple pads, because the same equipment may be used in phases to reduce the overall need and cost for the movement of equipment and materials.

The development of new and/or use of existing contractor yards or equipment storage areas or other staging areas may be necessary at various times during the construction, development (drilling and fracturing), and reclamation phases. Such areas may have a congested appearance during their use. If existing, previously developed contractor/storage yards or staging areas are used for such activities, their temporary and periodic use would be consistent with their existing setting and would have no new impact on visual resources or visually sensitive areas. However, if new yards or staging areas have to be created, the temporary and periodic use of such areas may represent a new impact on visual resources or visually sensitive areas.

6.9.5 Previous Evaluations of Visual Impacts from Horizontal Drilling and Hydraulic Fracturing

In 2010, students associated with the Department of City and Regional Planning at Cornell University, in Ithaca, New York, conducted a visual impact assessment of the hydraulic drilling process currently utilized in the Marcellus Shale region in Pennsylvania (specifically in Bradford County) (Upadhyay and Bu 2010). The purpose of this visual impact assessment was to describe the various activities and landscape features associated with horizontal drilling and hydraulic fracturing at individual well sites and across regions, and to examine the impacts or prominence of new landscape features at well sites in views from surrounding areas at specific distances and/or during different times of the day and year.[403]

The study also included evaluations of the potential for impacts on visual resources or visually sensitive areas at three existing well sites in Bradford County, Pennsylvania, using criteria presented in the New York State Environmental Quality Review (SEQR) Visual EAF Addendum. The evaluations were conducted to determine the way visual impacts from such sites would be considered in accordance with New York State guidelines for assessing visual impacts under the SEQR process. In addition, the visual impact study included predictive modeling for the appearance of one or more new well sites within views from State Route 13

[403] The visual impact assessment considered the visual impacts of only two well sites. Visual impact analysis was conducted primarily during the day; while some photodocumentation of the appearance of well sites was included in the visual impact assessment, the distances of nighttime views of the well sites were not specified. The assessment did not conduct analyses for the well sites during all phases of development (i.e., construction, development, production, and reclamation). The assessment also did not conduct similar analyses for off-site activities that might result in visual impacts (i.e., at areas used for temporary worker housing, areas experiencing high levels of construction or production-related traffic, or at contractor/storage yards or staging areas).

near Cayuga Heights and from Cornell University's Libe Slope, which are considered locally significant visually sensitive areas by the City of Ithaca, and recommended potential mitigation measures to minimize or mitigate negative impacts on visual resources or visually sensitive areas.

In the 2010 visual impact assessment, the descriptions and photographs of the various phases of horizontal drilling and hydraulic-fracturing activities that resulted in new landscape features in Bradford County, Pennsylvania, are generally consistent with the descriptions and photographs of the same processes presented in Section 6.9.2 and appear to correspond to the same phases of well development (construction, well development (drilling and fracturing), production, and reclamation) that are discussed above in Section 6.9.3.

Upadhyay and Bu's evaluation of existing visual impacts consisted of examining the daytime visibility of two different well locations in Bradford County, Pennsylvania, from various distances ranging from 1,000 feet to 3.5 miles from the sites.[404] The results of this study cannot be considered definitive because the visibility of only two well sites was examined and the examination was conducted primarily during daylight hours. However, the visibility of the two well sites appeared to be relatively limited at distances ranging from 0.5 to 3.5 miles away (Upadhyay and Bu 2010). The relatively restricted daytime visibility appears to be the result of perspective (i.e., landscape features associated with well sites do not appear as prominent features within the landscape at distances of a mile or more) and/or effective screening by sloping terrain and vegetative cover.

The 2010 visual impact assessment also included four nighttime photographs of well sites in Bradford County, Pennsylvania. Lighting for nighttime on-site operations or production

[404] Regions within the area underlain by the Marcellus and Utica Shales in New York have settings similar to that of Bradford County, Pennsylvania; thus, similar visual impacts from well sites may be expected. However, a number of different, if not unique, geographic conditions or settings are present in the Marcellus and Utica Shale area in New York, including: a large number of lakes and rivers and other natural areas used for recreational purposes and possessing scenic qualities; a number of regions that are primarily rolling agricultural land rather than sloping forestland (resulting in potentially increased visibility of landscape features from greater distances); and a number of cities connected by interstate and state highways (resulting in the potential for an increase in the number of views of and from visual resources or visually sensitive areas that would contain well sites, and in the potential for an increase in size of the viewing public). These different or unique geographic conditions and settings contain associated visual resources and visually sensitive areas, including those described above in Section 2.4, that may be affected by new landscape features associated with well sites (including off-site areas and activities) and that would be noticeable to the viewing public.

activities and lighting on equipment are visible in these views; a nighttime view of flaring from at least one well site is also presented in the visual impact assessment (Upadhyay and Bu 2010). Similar documentation of the nighttime appearance of well sites during the drilling phase was also provided in the Southern Tier Central Regional Planning and Development Boards (STC) approved Marcellus Tourism Study (Rumbach 2011).

While these photographs present the potential impacts of horizontal drilling and hydraulic-fracturing activities on visual resources and visually sensitive areas at night, a number of factors should be reflected in the analysis of nighttime impacts on visual resources or visually sensitive areas. First, the nighttime impacts of lighting or flaring would be temporary and limited primarily to the well development phase of horizontal drilling and hydraulic fracturing. Flaring would only occur during initial flowback at some wells, and the potential for flaring would be limited to the extent practicable by permit conditions, such that the duration of nighttime impacts from flaring typically would not occur for longer than three days. Second, the aesthetic qualities of visual resources or visually sensitive areas are typically not accessible (i.e., visible) at night. Third, the majority of the viewing public would typically not be present at the locations of most types of visual resources or visually sensitive areas during nighttime hours, with the exception of campgrounds, lakes, rivers, or other potentially scenic areas where recreational activities may extend into evening and nighttime hours for part of the year, or with the exception of nighttime drivers, whose view of flaring would be transient. Therefore, it is likely that the temporary negative impacts of any nighttime lighting and flaring would be either visible to only a small segment of the viewing public, or visible by a larger segment of the viewing public but only on a seasonal short-term basis.

The 2010 visual impact assessment (Upadhyay and Bu 2010) also included an evaluation of three well sites in Bradford County, Pennsylvania, using the criteria listed in NYSDEC's Visual Environmental Assessment Form (NYSDEC 2011a). These three sites are in settings that are similar to areas within the area underlain by the Marcellus and Utica Shales in New York.

Two of the three well sites were in the production phase; the third site contained an active drill rig, suggesting that it was in the drilling phase. All of the sites were in rural areas where there were no visual resources or visually sensitive areas as described in Section 2.3.12. All of the sites were in close proximity to other similar well sites and were visible from local nearby roadways and from a distance of 0.5 to 3 miles away. At two sites, agricultural and forest vegetation would provide seasonal screening; the third site was on or near the top of a hill and was visible from a larger surrounding area, despite the presence of forest vegetation (Upadhyay and Bu 2010).

Although no conclusions about the significance of potential visual impacts were made based on the criteria listed in NYSDEC's Visual Environmental Assessment Form (NYSDEC 2011a), it is likely that none of these well sites would be considered to have any significant visual impacts, primarily because no visual resources or visually sensitive areas as described in Section 2.3.12 are present, and it is likely that no further assessment or mitigation of visual impacts as described in NYSDEC Program Policy DEP-00-2 would be recommended or determined to be necessary.

Upadhyay and Bu's visual impact assessment also conducted limited three-dimensional modeling to examine the potential visual impacts of well sites during the drilling phase, when drill rigs are on-site, in two landscapes in the Ithaca area in Tompkins County, New York. Tompkins County, including the Ithaca area, is within the area underlain by the Marcellus and Utica Shales in New York. The two landscapes used for modeling consisted of (1) a view facing west of slopes on the western side of Cayuga Lake, from southbound Route 13 near Cayuga Heights (Cayuga Heights is a neighboring town along Cayuga Lake, just north of Ithaca on Route 13); and (2) a view facing west of upland well sites on the western side of Cayuga Inlet from Libe Slope on the Cornell University campus in Ithaca. The vantage points of both photos are estimated to be approximately 2.5 miles from the modeled well site locations. None of the modeled well sites appear to be prominent new landscape features within these locally designated scenic views. These results support similar conclusions made above, which were based on the daytime photographs of the existing wells in Bradford County, Pennsylvania, from various vantage points along surrounding local roads, i.e., that the visibility of new landscape features associated with well sites tends to be minimal from distances beyond 1 mile.

The potential for visual impacts from other new landscape features associated with the horizontal drilling and hydraulic fracturing process, such as interconnections with natural gas pipelines, was also considered in the STC's Marcellus Tourism Study (Rumbach 2011). This study suggested that potential impacts from the creation of new pipeline-rights-of-way might result in changes in vegetation patterns, primarily through the creation of new and visible corridors, particularly where forest would be removed. In addition, the study considered the potential for cumulative visual impacts of multiple well sites and associated off-site facilities across a relatively large area such as the STC region (which is comprised of Steuben, Schuyler, and Chemung counties). The overall conclusion of the STC's Marcellus Tourism Study was that cumulative visual impacts of multiple well sites and their associated off-site facilities may result from the creation of an industrial landscape that is not compatible with the current scenic qualities that are recognized for the STC region (Rumbach 2011).

The evaluation of existing and potential visual impacts of multiple well sites and their associated offsite facilities by Upadhyay and Bu (2010) and Rumbach (2011) generated information and conclusions that were considered when developing the visual impacts presented in Section 6.9.3 for the different phases of well site development in the area underlain by the Marcellus and Utica Shales in New York.

6.9.6 Assessment of Visual Impacts using NYSDEC Policy and Guidance

An assessment of a project's potential for visual impacts is generally part of the SEQR process and is triggered for Type I or unlisted projects, particularly when a Full Environmental Assessment Form (EAF) is required (NYSDEC 2011b). An addendum to the Full EAF, the Visual EAF Form, evaluates the potential for visual impacts and is required for those projects that may have an effect on aesthetic resources (NYSDEC 2011c).

The Visual EAF Form provides additional information on a project's potential visual impacts and their magnitude, including: information on the visibility of the project from visual resources and visually sensitive areas such as those described in Section 2.3.12; whether the visibility of the project is seasonal and whether the public uses any of the identified visual resources or visually sensitive areas during seasons when the project may be visible; a description of the surrounding visual environment; whether there are any similar projects within a 3-mile radius; the annual number of viewers likely to observe the proposed project; and the situation or activity in which the viewers are engaged while viewing the proposed project (NYSDEC 2011a).

In the event that significant resources such as those described in Section 2.3.12 are present and have viewsheds that contain proposed well sites, a formal visual assessment consistent with the procedures outlined in NYSDEC DEP-00-2 would be conducted. This formal visual assessment would consist of developing, “at a minimum, a line-of-sight profile, or depending upon the scope and potential significance of the activity, a digital viewshed” (such as computer-generated models or visual simulations) to determine whether a significant visual resource or visually sensitive area is within potential viewsheds of the proposed project (NYSDEC 2000).

Procedures for formal visual assessments would use control points established by NYSDEC staff and would include a worst-case scenario. A worst-case scenario for visual assessments is established using control points that reveal any project visibility at a visually significant resource. Generally, control points for the worst-case scenario are located in an attempt to reveal the tallest facility or project component. In addition, the impact area that would be evaluated in the formal visual assessment would be determined by NYSDEC staff and may be as large as a 5-mile-radius area around a project’s various components (NYSDEC 2000).

NYSDEC staff would verify the potential significance of impacts on visual resources or visually sensitive areas using the qualities of the specific resource(s) and the juxtaposition of the project’s components (using viewshed and/or line-of-sight profiles) as the guide for determining significance. If determined significant, visual impacts may require mitigation in accordance with NYSDEC DEP-000-2 guidelines (NYSDEC 2000). Procedures for mitigation are discussed in greater detail in Section 7.9.

6.9.7 Summary of Visual Impacts

The potential impacts of well development on visual resource and visually sensitive areas such as those identified in Section 2.3.12 are summarized below in Table 6.53.These potential impacts may result from on-site activities associated with construction, drilling, fracturing, production and reclamation; off-site activities associated with increased traffic; and the use of off-site areas for construction, staging, and housing. Given the generic nature of this analysis and the lack of specific well pad locations to evaluate for potential visual impacts, the impacts presented in this section are not resource-specific. Generic mitigation measures for these potential generic impacts are presented in Section 7.9.

Table 6.53 - Summary of Generic Visual Impacts Resulting from Horizontal Drilling and Hydraulic Fracturing in the Marcellus and Utica Shale Area of New York (New August 2011)

Description of Activity	Description of Typical New Landscape Features	Description of Potential Visual Impacts
On-site Well Pad Construction	• Newly created well pads - open, level areas averaging approximately 3.5 acres in size • Newly created linear features such as access roads and connecting pipelines • Newly created water impoundment areas (if necessary) • Construction equipment, including bulldozers, graders, backhoes, and other large equipment for clearing, cutting, filling and grading activities • Trucks for hauling equipment and materials • Worker vehicles	• Direct impacts - on the existing visual setting of a well location • Indirect impacts - on the existing visual setting of areas in the vicinity of a well location, including views that contain a well location • Temporary or short-term duration - during the weeks or months while construction is underway • Negative - because of the introduction of new features into the landscape • Site-specific - within views that contain individual well locations • Cumulative - within views of areas or regions that contain concentrations of well locations
On-site Well Drilling	• Drill rigs of varying heights and dimensions • Auxiliary on-site equipment such as storage tanks for water, fuel, and drilling mud; generators; compressors; solids control equipment; a choke manifold; an accumulator; pipe racks; and the crew's office space • Trucks for hauling equipment and materials • Worker vehicles	• Direct impacts - on the existing visual setting of a well location • Indirect impacts - on the existing visual settings of areas surrounding a well location, including views that include a well location • Temporary - during the weeks while drilling is underway • Periodic - during the times when drilling may occur over a three-year period following the date that the initial drilling on a well site commences • Negative - throughout the duration of drilling, primarily because of the high visibility of drilling activities from surrounding vantage points • Site-specific - within views that contain individual well locations • Cumulative – within views of areas or regions that contain concentrations of well locations

Description of Activity	Description of Typical New Landscape Features	Description of Potential Visual Impacts
On-site Well Fracturing	• On-site equipment such as storage tanks for water, fuel, and fracturing additives; compressors; cranes; pipe racks; and the crew's office space • Trucks, including tractor trailers and other large trucks for hauling sand and fracturing additives, pipe-hauling trucks, welding and other mechanical support trucks • Worker vehicles	• Direct impacts – on the existing visual setting of a well location • Indirect impacts - on the existing visual settings of areas surrounding a well location, including views that include a well location • Temporary or short-term duration – during the weeks while hydraulic fracturing is underway • Periodic - during the times when fracturing may occur over the lifetime of the well(s) • Negative - throughout their duration, primarily because of the high visibility of fracturing activities from surrounding vantage points. • Site-specific - within views that contain individual well locations • Cumulative – within views of areas or regions that contain concentration of well locations
Well Production	• Operating well pads - open, level areas averaging approximately 0.5 to 1.0 acre in size, maintained in grassy or graveled conditions • Wellhead locations and small aboveground facilities for the pumping and transfer of product into gas lines. • Access road maintained in graveled condition • Connecting pipeline right-of-way maintained with grassy vegetation	• Direct impacts - on the existing visual setting of a well location • Indirect impacts - on the existing settings within viewsheds that contain a well location • Long-term duration - during the years while active well sites remain viable • Negative - during short-term period of initial development • Neutral - during long-term period of production over a potential 30-year period • Site specific - within views that contain individual well locations • Cumulative – within views of areas or regions that contain concentrations of well locations

Description of Activity	Description of Typical New Landscape Features	Description of Potential Visual Impacts
On-site Well Site Reclamation	• Initial bare areas resulting from the removal of wellheads and small aboveground facilities used during production; recontouring to pre-existing terrain conditions; and revegetation efforts • Subsequent vegetated areas reverting to pre-existing vegetation patterns and species	• Direct impacts - on the existing visual setting of a well location • Indirect impacts - on the existing settings within viewsheds that would contain a well location • Temporary to short term - during removal of well equipment and structures, recontouring terrain, and replanting of vegetation • Periodic and long-term - during periodic inspection or monitoring and implementation of any corrective actions to facilitate successful revegetation for several months to as long as one to three years • Neutral to beneficial - as vegetation succession proceeds • Site specific - within views that contain individual well locations • Cumulative – within views of areas or regions containing concentrations of well locations
Off-site changes in traffic volumes and patterns	• Increased traffic during the construction, drilling and fracturing, and reclamation phases of well development • Increased traffic would be local (at one or more well sites in close proximity) • Increased traffic may be regional (in areas where numerous multi-well sites are under development)	• Direct impacts - on the existing visual setting of a well location • Indirect impacts - on the existing settings within viewsheds that contain a well location • Temporary and periodic - during specific phases of well development (construction, drilling, fracturing, and reclamation) • Negative - due to the appearance and movement of high numbers of specialized and large equipment and vehicles • Site specific - at specific well locations • Cumulative – within views of areas or regions containing concentrations of well locations under development at the same time

Description of Activity	Description of Typical New Landscape Features	Description of Potential Visual Impacts
Off-site periodic and temporary influx of specialized workforces at various phases of development	• Increased use of local recreational vehicle or other camping areas (areas with cabins or designated for tent camping) for temporary or seasonal housing. • Increased local worker traffic during and after working hours	• Direct impacts - on the existing visual setting of off-site housing locations and on local roads • Indirect impacts - on the existing settings within viewsheds that would contain off-site housing and local roads • Temporary and periodic - during specific phases of well development (construction, drilling, fracturing, and reclamation) • Neutral to negative - occupancy of existing off-site housing locations would be consistent with capacity, but local traffic may result in congestion during and after work hours • Site-specific – at specific housing locations and along local roads
Off-site contractor yards or equipment storage areas or other staging areas	• Increased traffic and activity associated with construction and use of new contractor yards, equipment storage areas or other staging areas • Increased traffic and activity associated with use of existing contractor yards, equipment storage areas, or other staging areas	• Direct impacts - on the existing visual setting of an off-site yard, storage area, or staging area • Indirect impacts - on the existing settings within viewsheds that contain an off-site yard, storage area, or staging area • Temporary and periodic - during specific phases of well development (construction, drilling, fracturing, and reclamation) • Negative - due to the appearance and movement of high numbers of specialized and large equipment and vehicles • Site specific – at specific off-site yard, storage area, or staging area locations

6.10 Noise [405]

The noise impacts associated with horizontal drilling and high volume hydraulic fracturing are, in general, similar to those addressed in the 1992 GEIS. The rigs and supporting equipment are somewhat larger than the commonly used equipment described in 1992, but with the exception of specialized downhole tools, horizontal drilling is performed using the same equipment, technology, and procedures as used for many wells that have been drilled in New York. Production-phase well site equipment is very quiet and has negligible impacts.

The greatest difference with respect to noise impacts, however, is in the duration of drilling. A horizontal well takes four to five weeks of drilling at 24 hours per day to complete. The 1992 GEIS anticipated that most wells drilled in New York with rotary rigs would be completed in less than one week, though drilling could extend two weeks or longer.

High-volume hydraulic fracturing is also of a larger scale than the water-gel fracs addressed in 1992. These were described as requiring 20,000 to 80,000 gallons of water pumped into the well at pressures of 2,000 to 3,500 pounds per square inch (psi). High-volume hydraulic fracturing of a typical horizontal well could require, on average, 3.6 million gallons of water and a maximum pumping pressure that may be as high as 10,000 to 11,000 psi. This volume and pressure would result in more pump and fluid handling noise than anticipated in 1992. The proposed process requires three to five days to complete. There was no mention of the time required for hydraulic fracturing in 1992.

There would also be significantly more trucking and associated noise involved with high-volume hydraulic fracturing than was addressed in the 1992 GEIS.

Site preparation, drilling, and hydraulic fracturing activities could result in temporary noise impacts, depending on the distance from the site to the nearest noise-sensitive receptors.

Typically, the following factors are considered when evaluating a construction noise impact:

[405] Section 6.10, in its entirety, was provided by Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C., August 2011, and was adapted by the Department.

- Difference between existing noise levels prior to construction startup and expected noise levels during construction;
- Absolute level of expected construction noise;
- Adjacent land uses; and
- The duration of construction activity.

In order to evaluate the potential noise impacts related to the drilling operation phases, a construction noise model was used to estimate noise levels at various distances from the construction site during a typical hour for each phase of construction. The algorithm in the model considered construction equipment noise specification data, usage factors, and distance. The following logarithmic equation was used to compute projected noise levels:

$$Lp1 = Lp2 + 10\log(U.F./10) - 20\log(d2/d1):$$

where:

Lp1	=	the average noise level (dBA) at a distance (d2) due to the operation of a unit of equipment throughout the day;
Lp2	=	the equipment noise level (dBA) at a reference distance (d1);
U.F.	=	a usage factor that accounts for a fraction of time an equipment unit is in use throughout the day;
d2	=	the distance from the unit of equipment in feet; and
d1	=	the distance at which equipment noise level data is known.

Noise levels and usage factor data for construction equipment were obtained from industry sources and government publications. Usage factors were used to account for the fact that construction equipment use is intermittent throughout the course of a normal workday.

Once the average noise level for the individual equipment unit was calculated, the contribution of all major noise-producing equipment on-site was combined to provide a composite noise level at various distances using the following formula:

$$Leq_{total} = 10\log\left(10^{\frac{Leq_1}{10}} + 10^{\frac{Leq_2}{10}} + 10^{\frac{Leq_3}{10}} ...etc.\right)$$

Using this approach, the estimated noise levels are conservative in that they do not take into consideration any noise reduction due to ground attenuation, atmospheric absorption, topography, or vegetation.

6.10.1 Access Road Construction

Newly constructed access roads are typically unpaved and are generally 20 to 40 feet wide during the construction phase and 10 to 20 feet wide during the production phase. They are constructed to efficiently provide access to the well pad while minimizing potential environmental impacts.

The estimated sound pressure levels (SPLs) produced by construction equipment that would be used to build or improve access roads are presented in Table 6.54 for various distances. The composite result is derived by assuming that all of the construction equipment listed in the table is operating at the percent utilization time listed and by combining their SPLs logarithmically.

These SPLs might temporarily occur over the course of access road construction. Such levels would not generally be considered acceptable on a permanent basis, but as a temporary, daytime occurrence, construction noise of this magnitude and duration is not likely to result in many complaints in the project area.

Table 6.54 - Estimated Construction Noise Levels at Various Distances for
Access Road Construction (New August 2011)

Construction Equipment	Quantity	Usage Factor %	Lmax SPL @ 50 Feet (dBA)	Distance in Feet/SPL (dBA)					
				50 (adj.)	250	500	1,000	1,500	2,000
Excavator	2	40	81	80	66	60	54	50	48
Grader	2	40	85	84	70	64	58	54	52
Bulldozer	2	40	82	81	67	61	55	51	49
Compactor	2	20	83	79	65	59	53	49	47
Water truck	2	40	76	75	61	55	49	45	43
Dump truck	8	40	76	81	67	61	55	52	49
Loader	2	40	79	78	64	58	52	48	46
Composite Noise Level				**89**	**75**	**69**	**63**	**59**	**57**

Source: FHWA 2006.

Key:

adj = adjusted.

dBA = A-weighted decibels.

L_{max} = maximum noise level.

SPL = Sound Pressure Level.

6.10.2 Well Site Preparation

Prior to the installation of a well, the site must be cleared and graded to make room for the placement of the necessary equipment and materials to be used in drilling and developing the well. The site preparation would generate noise that is associated with a construction site, including noise from bulldozers, backhoes, and other types of construction equipment. The A-weighted SPLs for the construction equipment that typically would be utilized during well pad preparation are presented in Table 6.55 along with the estimated SPLs at various distances from the site. Such levels would not generally be considered acceptable on a permanent basis, but as a temporary, daytime occurrence, construction noise of this magnitude and duration is not likely to result in many complaints in the project area.

Table 6.55 - Estimated Construction Noise Levels at Various Distances for Well Pad Preparation (New August 2011)

Construction Equipment	Quantity	Usage Factor %	Lmax SPL @ 50 Feet (dBA)	Distance in Feet/SPL (dBA)					
				50 (adj.)	250	500	1,000	1,500	2,000
Excavator	1	40	81	77	63	57	51	47	45
Bulldozer	1	40	82	78	64	58	52	48	46
Water truck	1	40	76	72	58	52	46	42	40
Dump truck	2	40	76	75	61	55	49	45	43
Pickup truck	2	40	75	74	60	54	48	44	42
Chain saw	2	20	84	80	66	60	54	50	48
	Composite Noise Level			**84**	**70**	**64**	**58**	**55**	**52**

Source: FHWA 2006.

Key:

adj = adjusted.

dBA = A-weighted decibels.

L_{max} = maximum noise level.

SPL = Sound Pressure Level.

6.10.3 High-Volume Hydraulic Fracturing – Drilling

High-volume hydraulic fracturing involves various sources of noise. The primary sources of noise were determined to be as follows:

- Drill Rigs. Drill rigs are typically powered by diesel engines, which generate noise emissions primarily from the air intake, crankcase, and exhaust. These levels fluctuate depending on the engine speed and load.

- Air Compressors. Air compressors are typically powered by diesel engines and generate the highest level of noise over the course of drilling operations. Air compressors would be in operation virtually throughout the drilling of a well, but the actual number of operating compressors would vary. However, more compressed air capacity is required as the drilling advances.

- Tubular Preparation and Cleaning. Tubular preparation and cleaning is an operation that is conducted as drill pipe is placed into the wellbore. As tubulars are raised onto the drill floor, workers physically hammer the outside of the pipe to displace internal debris. This process, when conducted during the evening hours, seems to generate the most concern from adjacent landowners. While the decibel level is comparatively low, the acute nature of the noise is noticeable.

- Elevator Operation. Elevators are used to move drill pipe and casing into and/or out of the wellbore. During drilling, elevators are used to add additional pipe to the drill string as the depth increases. Elevators are used when the operator is removing multiple sections of pipe from the well or placing drill pipe or casing into the wellbore. Elevator operation is not a constant activity and its duration is dependent on the depth of the well bore. The decibel level is low.

- Drill Pipe Connections. As the depth of the well increases, the operator must connect additional pipe to the drill string. Most operators in the Appalachian Basins use a method known as "air-drilling." As the drill bit penetrates the rock the cuttings must be removed from the wellbore. Cuttings are removed by displacing pressurized air (from the air compressors discussed above) into the well bore. As the air is circulated back to the surface, it carries with it the rock cuttings. To connect additional pipe to the drill string, the operator will release the air pressure. It is the release of pressure that creates a higher frequency noise impact.

Once initiated, the drilling operation often continues 24 hours a day until completion and would therefore generate noise during nighttime hours, when people are generally involved in activities that require lower ambient noise levels. Certain noise-producing equipment is typically operated on a fairly continuous basis during the drilling process. The types and quantities of this equipment are presented in Table 6.56 for rotary air drilling and in Table 6.57 for horizontal drilling (see Photo 6.6), along with the estimated A-weighted individual and composite SPLs that would be experienced at various distances from the operation. An analysis of both types of drilling is included since according to industry sources, in accessing the natural gas formation, rotary air drilling is often used for the vertical section of the well and then horizontal drilling is used for making the turn and completing the horizontal section.

Table 6.56 - Estimated Construction Noise Levels at Various Distances for Rotary Air Well Drilling (New August 2011)

Construction Equipment	Quantity	Sound Power Level (dBA)	Distance in Feet/SPL[1] (dBA)					
			50 (adj.)	250	500	1,000	1,500	2,000
Drill rig drive engine	1	105	71	57	51	45	41	38
Compressors	4	105	77	63	57	51	47	45
Hurricane booster	3	81	51	37	31	25	22	19
Compressor exhaust	1	85	51	37	31	25	21	18
Composite Noise Level			**79**	**64**	**58**	**52**	**48**	**45**

Source: Confidential Industry Source.

[1] SPL = Sound Pressure Level

Key:

adj = adjusted to quantity.

Table 6.57 - Estimated Construction Noise Levels at Various Distances for Horizontal Drilling (New August 2011)

Construction Equipment	Quantity	Sound Level	Distance	Distance in Feet/SPL (dBA)					
				50 (adj.)	250	500	1000	1500	2000
Rig drive motor	1	105[2]	0	71	57	51	45	41	38
Generator	3	81[2]	0	51	37	31	25	22	19
Top drive	1	85[1]	5	65	51	45	39	35	33
Draw works	1	74[1]	10	60	46	40	34	30	28
Triple shaker	1	85[1]	15	75	61	55	49	45	43
Composite Noise Level				**76**	**62**	**56**	**50**	**47**	**44**

Source: Confidential Industry Source.

[1] SPL = Sound Pressure Level

Key:

adj = adjusted to quantity.

Photo 6.6 - Electric Generators, Active Drilling Site (New August 2011)

Intermittent operations that occur during drilling include tubular preparation and cleaning, elevator operation, and drill pipe connection blowdown. These shorter-duration events may occur at intervals as short as every 20 to 30 minutes during drilling. Noise associated with the drilling activities would be temporary and would end once drilling operations cease.[406]

6.10.4 High-Volume Hydraulic Fracturing – Fracturing

During the hydraulic fracturing process, water, sand, and other additives are pumped under high pressure into the formation to create fractures. To inject the required water volume and achieve the necessary pressure, up to 20 diesel-pumper trucks operating simultaneously are necessary (see Photo 6.7 and Photo 6.8). Typically the operation takes place over two to five days for a single well. Normally, hydraulic fracturing is only performed once in the life of a well. The sound level measured for a diesel- pumper truck under load ranges from 110 to 115 dBA at a distance of 3 feet. Noise from the diesel engine varies according to load and speed, but the main component of the sound spectrum is the fundamental engine rotation speed. The diesel engine

[406] Page 4, - Notice of Determination of Non-Significance – API# 31-015-22960-00, Permit 08828 (February 13, 2002)

sound spectrum, which peaks in the range of 50 Hz to 250 Hz, contains higher emissions in the lower frequencies.

Table 6.58 presents the estimated noise levels that may be experienced at various distances from a hydraulic fracturing operation, based on 20 pumper trucks operating at a sound power level of 110 dBA and 20 pumper trucks operating at a sound power level of 115 dBA.

Table 6.58 - Estimated Construction Noise Levels at Various Distances for High-Volume Hydraulic Fracturing (New August 2011)

Construction Equipment	Quantity	SPL[1] (dBA)	Distance (feet)	Quantity Adjusted Sound Level	Distance in Feet/SPL[1] (dBA)					
					50	250	500	1000	1500	2000
Pumper truck	20	110	3	123	99	85	79	73	69	67
Pumper truck	20	115	3	128	104	90	84	78	74	72

Source: Confidential Industry Source.

[1] SPL = Sound Pressure Level

Photo 6.7 - Truck-mounted Hydraulic Fracturing Pump (New August 2011)

Photo 6.8 - Hydraulic Fracturing of a Marcellus Shale Well Site (New August 2011)

The existing sound level in a quiet rural area at night may be as low as 30 dBA at times. Since the drilling and hydraulic fracturing operations are often conducted on a 24-hour basis, these operations, without additional noise mitigations, may result in an increase in noise of 37 to 42 dB over the quietest background at a distance of 2,000 feet. As indicated previously, according to NYSDEC guidance, sound pressure increases of more than 6 dB may require a closer analysis of impact potential, depending on existing SPLs and the character of surrounding land use and receptors, and an increase of 6 dB(A) may cause complaints. Therefore, mitigation measures would be required if increases of this nature would be experienced at a receptor location.

Table 6.59 presents the estimated duration of the various phases of activity involved in the completion of a typical installation. Multiple well pad installations would increase the drilling and hydraulic fracturing duration in a given area.

Table 6.59 - Assumed Construction and Development Times (New August 2011)

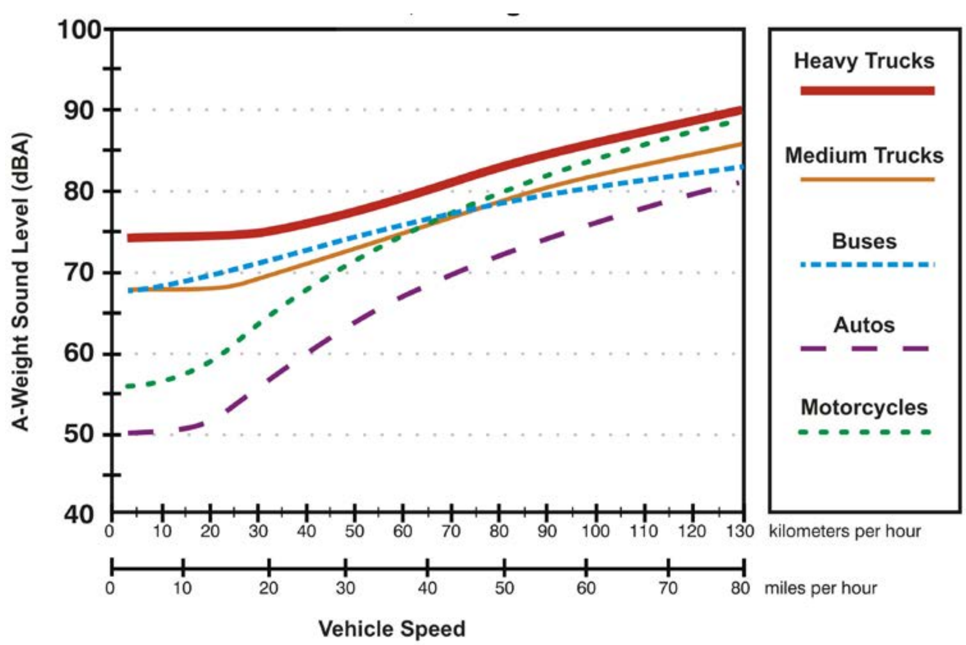
Operation	Estimated Duration (days)
Access roads	3 - 7
Site preparation/well pad	7 - 14
Well drilling	28 - 35
Hydraulic fracturing single well	2 - 5

6.10.5 Transportation

Similar to any construction operation, drill sites require the use of support equipment and vehicles. Specialized cement equipment and vehicles, water trucks, flatbed tractor trailers, and delivery and employee vehicles are the most common forms of support machinery and vehicles. Cement equipment would generate additional noise during operations, but this impact is typically short lived and is at levels below that of the compressors described above.

The noise levels generated by vehicles depend on a number of variable conditions, including vehicle type, load and speed, nature of the roadway surface, road grade, distance from the road to the receptor, topography, ground condition, and atmospheric conditions. Figure 6.21 depicts measured noise emission levels for various vehicles and cruise speeds at a distance of 50 feet on average pavement. As shown in the figure, a heavy truck passing by at 50 miles per hour would contribute a noise level of approximately 83 dBA at 50 feet from the road in comparison to a passing automobile, which would contribute approximately 73 dBA at 50 feet. Although a truck passing by would constitute a short duration noise event, multiple truck trips along a given road could result in higher hourly Leq noise levels and impacts on noise receptors close to main truck travel routes. The noise impact of truck traffic would be greater for travel along roads that do not normally have a large volume of traffic, especially truck traffic.

Figure 6.21 - A-Weighted Noise Emissions: Cruise Throttle, Average Pavement (New August 2011)



FHWA 1998.

In addition to the trucks required to deliver the drill rig and its associated equipment, trucks are used to bring in water for drilling and hydraulic fracturing, sand for hydraulic fracturing additive, and frac tanks. Trucks are also used for the removal of flowback for the site. Estimates of truck trips per well and truck trips over time during the early development phase of a horizontal and a vertical well installation are presented in Section 6.11, Transportation.

Development of multiple wells on a single pad would add substantial additional truck traffic volume in an area, which would be at least partially offset by a reduction in the number of well pads overall.

This level of truck traffic could have negative noise impacts on those living in proximity to the well site and access road. Like other noise associated with drilling, this would be temporary. Current regulations require that all wells on a multi-well pad be drilled within three years of starting the first well. Thus, it is possible that someone living in proximity to the pad would experience adverse noise impacts intermittently for up to three years.

6.10.6 Gas Well Production

Once the well has been completed and the equipment has been demobilized, the pad is partially reclaimed. The remaining wellhead production does not generate a significant level of noise.

Operation and maintenance activities could include a truck visit to empty the condensate collection tanks on an approximately weekly basis, but condensate production from the Marcellus Shale in New York is not typically expected. Mowing of the well pad area occurs approximately two times per year. These activities would result in infrequent, short-term noise events.

6.11 Transportation Impacts[407]

While the trucking for site preparation, rig, equipment, materials, and supplies is similar for horizontal drilling to what was anticipated in 1992**,** the water requirement of high–volume hydraulic fracturing could lead to significantly more truck traffic than was discussed in the GEIS in the regions where natural gas development would occur. This section presents (1) industry

[407] Section 6.11, in its entirety, was provided by Ecology and Environment Engineering, P.C., August 2011, and was adapted by the Department.

estimates on the number of heavy- and light-duty trucks needed for horizontal well drilling as compared to vertical drilling that already takes place, (2) comparisons and reasonable scenarios with which to gauge potential impacts on the existing road system and transportation network, (3) potential impacts on roadways and the transportation network, and (4) potential impacts on rail and air service.

6.11.1 Estimated Truck Traffic

The Department requested information from the Independent Oil & Gas Association of New York (IOGA-NY) to estimate the number of truck trips associated with well construction.

6.11.1.1 Total Number of Trucks per Well

Table 6.60 presents the total estimated number of one-way (i.e., loaded) truck trips per horizontal well during construction, and Table 6.61 presents the total estimated number of one-way truck trips per vertical well during construction. Information is further provided on the distribution of light- and heavy-duty trucks for each activity associated with well construction. Table 6.62 summarizes the total overall light- and heavy-duty truck trips per well for both vertical and horizontal wells. The Department assumed that all truck trips provided in the industry estimates were one-way trips; thus, to obtain the total vehicle trips, the numbers were doubled to obtain the round-trips across the road network (Dutton and Blankenship 2010).

As discussed in 1992 regarding conventional vertical wells, trucking during the long-term production life of a horizontally drilled single or multi-well pad would be insignificant.

IOGA-NY provided estimates of truck trips for two periods of development, as shown in Table 6.60 and Table 6.61: (1) a new well location completed early on in the development life of the field, and (2) a well location completed during the peak development year. During the early well pad development, all water is assumed to be transported to the site by truck. During the peak well pad development, a portion of the wells are assumed to be accessible by pipelines for transport of the water used in the hydraulic fracturing.

As shown in comparing the number of truck trips per well in Table 6.60 and Table 6.61, the truck traffic associated with drilling a horizontal well with high-volume hydraulic fracturing is 2 to 3 times higher than the truck traffic associated with drilling a vertical well.

Table 6.60 - Estimated Number of One-Way (Loaded) Trips Per Well:
Horizontal Well[1] (New August 2011)

Well Pad Activity	Early Well Pad Development (all water transported by truck)		Peak Well Pad Development (pipelines may be used for some water transport)	
	Heavy Truck	**Light Truck**	**Heavy Truck**	**Light Truck**
Drill pad construction	45	90	45	90
Rig mobilization[2]	95	140	95	140
Drilling fluids	45		45	
Non-rig drilling equipment	45		45	
Drilling (rig crew, etc.)	50	140	50	140
Completion chemicals	20	326	20	326
Completion equipment	5		5	
Hydraulic fracturing equipment (trucks and tanks)	175		175	
Hydraulic fracturing water hauling[3]	500		60	
Hydraulic fracturing sand	23		23	
Produced water disposal	100		17	
Final pad prep	45	50	45	50
Miscellaneous	-	85	-	85
Total One-Way, Loaded Trips Per Well	**1,148**	**831**	**625**	**795**

Source: All Consulting 2010.

1. Estimates are based on the assumption that a new well pad would be developed for each single horizontal well. However, industry expects to initially drill two wells on each well pad, which would reduce the number of truck trips. The well pad would, over time, be developed into a multi-well pad.
2. Each well would require two rigs, a vertical rig and a directional rig.
3. It was conservatively assumed that each well would use approximately 5 million gallons of water total and that all water would be trucked to the site. This is substantially greater than the likely volume of water that would be trucked to the site.

Table 6.61 - Estimated Number of One-Way (Loaded) Trips Per Well: Vertical Well (New August 2011)

Well Pad Activity	**Early Well Pad Development (all water transported by truck)**		**Peak Well Pad Development (pipelines may be used for some water transport)**	
	Heavy Truck	**Light Truck**	**Heavy Truck**	**Light Truck**
Drill pad construction	32	90	25	90
Rig mobilization	50	140	50	140
Drilling fluids	15		15	
Non-rig drilling equipment	10		10	
Drilling (rig crew, etc.)	30	70	30	70
Completion chemicals	10	72	10	72
Completion equipment	5		5	
Hydraulic fracturing equipment (trucks and tanks)	75		75	
Hydraulic fracturing water hauling	90		25	
Hydraulic fracturing sand	5		5	
Produced water disposal	42		26	
Final pad prep	34	50	34	50
Miscellaneous	0	85	0	85
Total One-Way, Loaded Trips Per Well	**398**	**507**	**310**	**507**

Source: All Consulting 2010.

Table 6.62 - Estimated Truck Volumes for Horizontal Wells Compared to Vertical Wells (New August 2011)

	Horizontal Well with High-Volume Hydraulic Fracturing		**Vertical Well**	
	Heavy Truck	**Light Truck**	**Heavy Truck**	**Light Truck**
Light-duty trips	831	795	507	507
Heavy-duty trips	1,148	625	389	310
Combined Total	**1,975**	**1,420**	**905**	**817**
Total Vehicle Trips	**3,950**	**2,840**	**1,810**	**1,634**

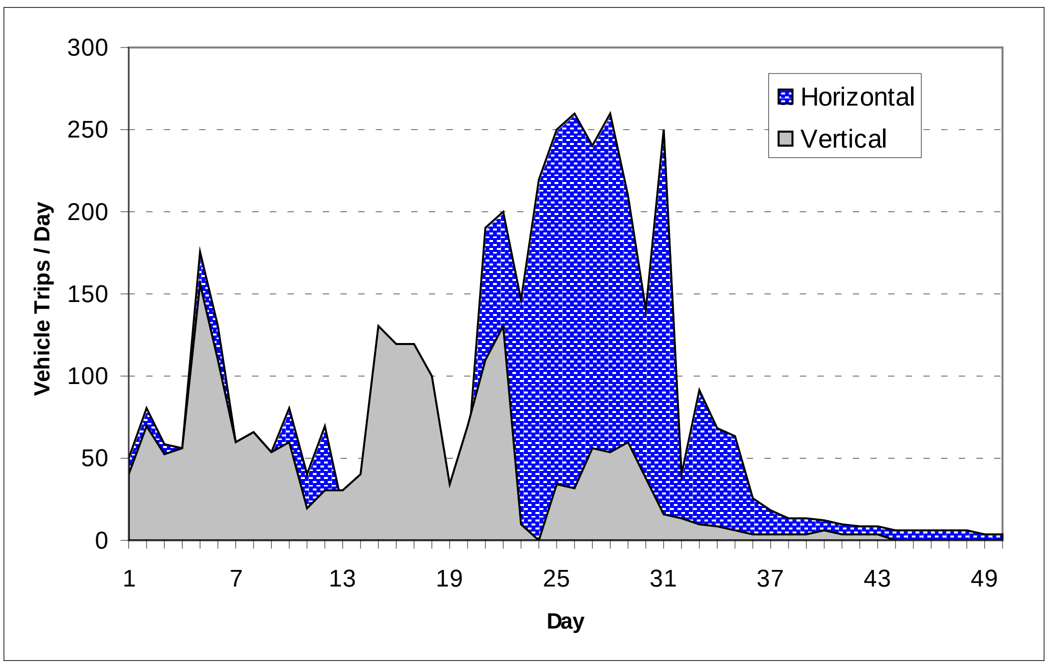
Source: Dutton and Blankenship 2010

Note: The first three rows in this table are round trips; total vehicle trips are one-way trips.

6.11.1.2 *Temporal Distribution of Truck Traffic per Well*

Figure 6.22 shows the daily distribution of the truck traffic over the 50-day period of early well pad development of a horizontal well and a vertical well (Dutton and Blankenship 2010). As seen in the figure, certain phases of well development require heavier truck traffic (peaks in the graph). Initial mobilization and drilling is comparable between horizontal and vertical wells; however, from Day 20 to Day 35, the horizontal well requires significantly more truck transport than the vertical well.

Figure 6.22 - Estimated Round-Trip Daily Heavy and Light Truck Traffic,
by Well Type - Single Well (New August 2011)



Source: Dutton and Blankenship 2010.

6.11.1.3 *Temporal Distribution of Truck Traffic for Multi-Well Pads*

The initial exploratory development using horizontal wells and high-volume hydraulic fracturing would likely involve a single well on a pad. However, commercial demand would likely expand development, resulting in multiple wells being drilled on a single pad, with each horizontal well extending into a different sector of shale. Thus, horizontal wells would be able to access a larger sector of the shale from a single pad site than would be possible for traditional development with vertical wells. This means there would be less truck traffic for the development of the pad itself.

There is a tradeoff, however, as each horizontal well utilizing the high-volume hydraulic fracturing method of extraction would require more truck trips per well than vertical wells (Dutton and Blankenship 2010).

Two development scenarios were proposed to estimate the truck traffic for horizontal and vertical well development for multi-well pads (Dutton and Blankenship 2010). The key parameters and assumptions are as follows:

Multi-pad Development Scenario 1: Horizontal Wells with High-Volume Hydraulic Fracturing:

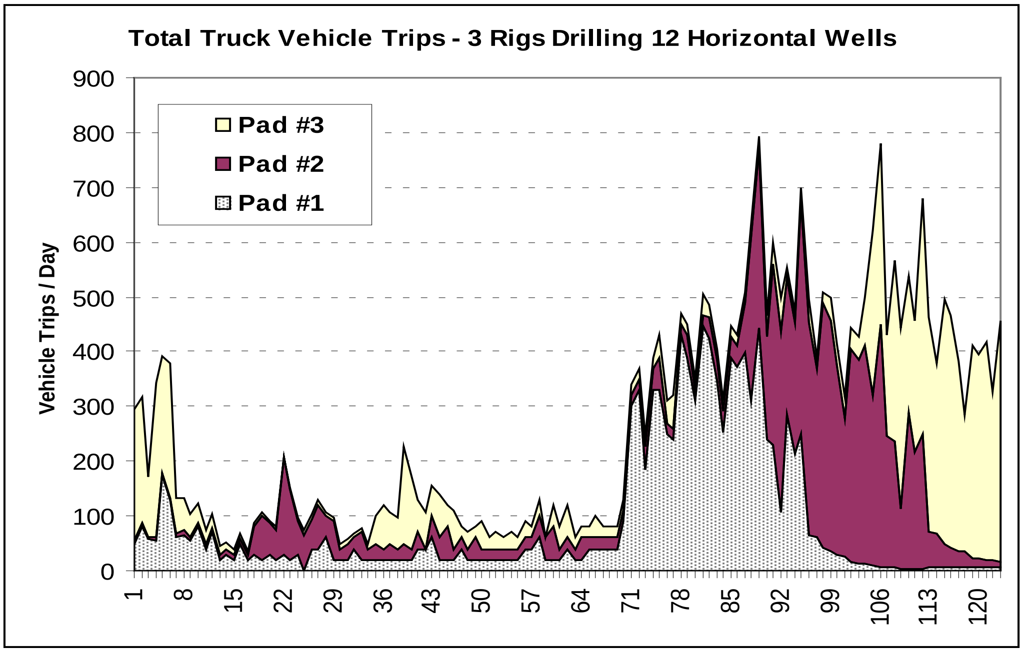
- Three rigs operated over a 120-day period.
- Each rig drills four wells in succession, then moves off to allow for completion.
- All water needed to complete the fracturing is hauled in via truck.
- Fracturing and completion of the four wells occurs sequentially and tanks are brought in once for all four wells.
- At an average of 160 acres per well, the three rigs develop a total of 1,920 acres of land.

Multi-pad Development Scenario 2: Vertical Wells

- Four rigs operated over a 120-day period
- Each rig drills four wells, moving to a new location after drilling of a well is completed.
- All water needed to complete the fracturing is hauled in via truck.
- Fracturing and completion of each well occurs after the rig relocates to a new location.
- At an average of 40 acres per well, the four rigs develop a total of 640 acres of land.

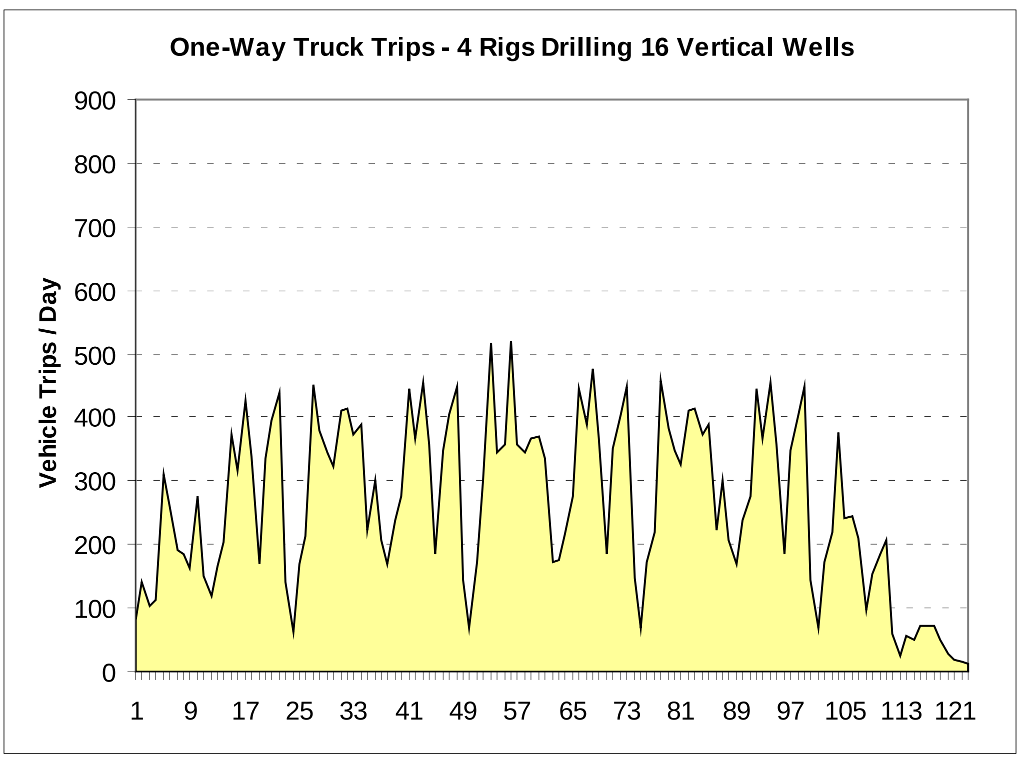
The extra yield of horizontal wells was compensated for by assuming that four vertical rigs were utilized during the same time span as three horizontal rigs. The results of these two development scenarios on a day-by-day basis are depicted in Figure 6.23 and Figure 6.24. As shown, the number of vehicle trips varies depending on the number of wells per pad. Horizontal wells have the highest volume of truck traffic in the last five weeks of well development, when fluid is utilized in high volumes. This is in contrast to the more conventional vertical wells (see Figure 6.24), where the volume of truck traffic is more consistent throughout the period of development.

Figure 6.23 - Estimated Daily Round-Trips of Heavy and Light Truck Traffic - Multi Horizontal Wells (New August 2011)



Source: Dutton and Blankenship 2010.

Figure 6.24 - Estimated Round-Trip Daily Heavy and Light Truck Traffic - Multi Vertical Wells (New August 2011)



Source: Dutton and Blankenship 2010.

The major conclusions to be drawn from this comparison of the truck traffic resulting from the use of horizontal and vertical wells are as follows (Dutton and Blankenship 2010):

- Peak-day traffic volumes given sequential completions with multiple rigs drilling horizontal wells along the same access road could be substantially higher than those for multiple rigs drilling vertical wells.

- The larger the area drained per horizontal well and the drilling of multiple wells from a pad without moving a rig offsets some of the increase in truck traffic associated with the high-volume fracturing.

- Based on industry data and other assumptions applied for these scenarios, the total number of vehicle trips generated by the three rigs drilling 12 horizontal wells is roughly equivalent to the number of vehicle trips associated with four rigs drilling 16 vertical wells. However, the horizontal wells require three-times the amount of land (1,920 acres for horizontal wells versus 640 acres for vertical wells). Thus, developing the same amount of land using vertical wells would either require three times longer, or would require deployment of 12 rigs during the same period, effectively tripling the total number of trips and result in peak daily traffic volumes above the levels associated with horizontal wells.

Based upon the information presented in these two development scenarios, utilizing horizontal wells and high-volume hydraulic fracturing rather than vertical wells to access a section of land would reduce the total amount of truck traffic. However, because vertical well hydraulic fracturing is not as efficient in its extraction of natural gas, it is not always economically feasible for operators to pursue. Currently, it is estimated that 10% of the wells drilled to develop low-permeability reservoirs with high-volume hydraulic fracturing will be vertical. Thus, the number of permits requested by applicants and issued by NYSDEC has not been fully reached. Horizontal drilling with high-volume hydraulic fracturing would be expected to result in a substantial increase in permits, well construction, and truck traffic over what is present in the current environment.

6.11.2 Increased Traffic on Roadways

As described in Section 6.8, Socioeconomics, three possible development scenarios are being assessed in this SGEIS to reflect the uncertainties associated with the future development of natural gas reserves in the Marcellus and Utica Shales – a high, medium and low development scenario. Each development scenario is defined by the number of vertical and horizontal wells drilled annually. (A summary of the development scenarios is provided in Section 6.8). Based on the number of wells estimated in each development scenario and the estimated number of truck trips per well as discussed above in Section 6.1.1, the total estimated truck trips for all wells developed annually is provided in Table 6.63. Annual trips are projected for Years 1 through 30 in 5-year increments. Estimated truck trips are provided for the three representative regions (Regions A, B, and C), New York State outside of the three regions, and statewide.

The proposed action would also have an impact on traffic on federal, state, county, regional local roadways. Given the generic nature of this analysis, and the lack of specific well pad locations to permit the identification of specific road-segment impacts, the projected increase in average annual daily traffic (AADT) and the associated impact on the level of service on specific roadway segments, interchanges, and intersections cannot be determined. The AADT on roadways can vary significantly, depending largely on functional class, and particularly whether the count was taken in heavily populated communities or in proximity to heavily traveled intersections/interchanges. Trucks traveling on higher level roadways along arterials and major collectors are not anticipated to have a significant impact on traffic patterns and traffic flow, as these roads are designed for a high level of vehicle traffic, and the anticipated increase in the level of traffic associated with this action would only represent a small, incremental change in existing conditions. However, certain local roads and minor collectors would likely experience congestion during certain times of the day or during certain periods of well development.

Table 6.64 illustrates this variation by providing the highest and lowest AADT on three functional class roads in three counties, one in each of the representative regions. The counts presented are the lowest and highest counts on the identified road in the designated functional class in the county.

On some roads, truck traffic generated by high-volume hydraulic fracturing operations may be small compared to total AADT, as would be the case on I-17 in Binghamton, where AADT was approximately 77,000 vehicles. In other cases, and particularly on collectors and minor arterials, traffic from high-volume hydraulic fracturing could be a large share of AADT. Truck traffic from high-volume hydraulic fracturing operations could also be a large share of total daily truck traffic on specific stretches of certain interstates and be much larger than existing truck volumes on lower functional class roads that serve natural gas wells or link the wells to major truck heads such as water supply, rail trans-loading, and staging areas.

Table 6.63 - Estimated Annual Heavy Truck Trips (in thousands) (New August 2011)

	Region A			Region B			Region C								
Counties	**Broome, Chemung, Tioga,**			**Delaware, Otsego, Sullivan**			**Cattaraugus, Chautauqua**			**Rest of New York State**			**State-Wide Totals**		
Low Development Scenario															
Year	**Horizontal**	**Vertical**	**Total**	**Horizontal**	**Vertical**	**Total**	**Horizontal**	**Vertical**	**Total**	**Horizontal**	**Vertical**	**Total**	**Horizontal**	**Vertical**	**Total**
1	4,334	226	4,561	2,053	113	2,166	456	0	456	1,597	113	1,710	8,441	453	8,893
5	21,216	1,245	22,460	9,809	566	10,375	2,053	113	2,166	9,353	453	9,806	42,431	2,376	44,807
10	42,431	2,376	44,807	19,391	1,132	20,522	4,334	226	4,561	18,478	1,018	19,496	84,634	4,752	89,387
15	42,431	2,376	44,807	19,391	1,132	20,522	4,334	226	4,561	18,478	1,018	19,496	84,634	4,752	89,387
20	42,431	2,376	44,807	19,391	1,132	20,522	4,334	226	4,561	18,478	1,018	19,496	84,634	4,752	89,387
25	42,431	2,376	44,807	19,391	1,132	20,522	4,334	226	4,561	18,478	1,018	19,496	84,634	4,752	89,387
30	42,431	2,376	44,807	19,391	1,132	20,522	4,334	226	4,561	18,478	1,018	19,496	84,634	4,752	89,387
Average Development Scenario															
Year	**Horizontal**	**Vertical**	**Total**	**Horizontal**	**Vertical**	**Total**	**Horizontal**	**Vertical**	**Total**	**Horizontal**	**Vertical**	**Total**	**Horizontal**	**Vertical**	**Total**
1	16,881	1,018	17,900	7,756	453	8,209	1,597	113	1,710	7,528	339	7,868	33,763	1,924	35,686
5	84,634	4,752	89,387	39,009	2,150	41,159	8,441	453	8,893	37,184	2,150	39,334	169,269	9,505	178,773
10	169,269	9,505	178,773	77,791	4,413	82,203	16,881	905	17,786	74,597	4,187	78,783	338,538	19,009	357,547
15	169,269	9,505	178,773	77,791	4,413	82,203	16,881	905	17,786	74,597	4,187	78,783	338,538	19,009	357,547
20	169,269	9,505	178,773	77,791	4,413	82,203	16,881	905	17,786	74,597	4,187	78,783	338,538	19,009	357,547
25	169,269	9,505	178,773	77,791	4,413	82,203	16,881	905	17,786	74,597	4,187	78,783	338,538	19,009	357,547
30	169,269	9,505	178,773	77,791	4,413	82,203	16,881	905	17,786	74,597	4,187	78,783	338,538	19,009	357,547
High Development Scenario															
Year	**Horizontal**	**Vertical**	**Total**	**Horizontal**	**Vertical**	**Total**	**Horizontal**	**Vertical**	**Total**	**Horizontal**	**Vertical**	**Total**	**Horizontal**	**Vertical**	**Total**
1	25,322	1,471	26,793	11,634	679	12,313	2,509	113	2,623	11,178	566	11,744	50,644	2,829	53,473
5	126,381	7,015	133,397	58,172	3,168	61,340	12,547	679	13,226	55,663	3,055	58,718	252,763	13,917	266,680
10	252,763	13,917	266,680	116,344	6,450	122,793	25,322	1,358	26,680	111,097	6,110	117,207	505,525	27,835	533,360
15	252,763	13,917	266,680	116,344	6,450	122,793	25,322	1,358	26,680	111,097	6,110	117,207	505,525	27,835	533,360
20	252,763	13,917	266,680	116,344	6,450	122,793	25,322	1,358	26,680	111,097	6,110	117,207	505,525	27,835	533,360
25	252,763	13,917	266,680	116,344	6,450	122,793	25,322	1,358	26,680	111,097	6,110	117,207	505,525	27,835	533,360
30	252,763	13,917	266,680	116,344	6,450	122,793	25,322	1,358	26,680	111,097	6,110	117,207	505,525	27,835	533,360

Table 6.64 - Illustrative AADT Range for State Roads (New August 2011)

Functional Class	County	Route	AADT Range, (1,000s)	Estimated Average Truck Volume (1,000s)
Interstate	Delaware	88	11 - 12	2.40
Arterial	Delaware	28	1 - 6	0.30
Collector	Delaware	357	2 - 4	0.02
Interstate	Broome	17	7 - 77	7.00
Arterial	Broome	26	2 - 33	1.00
Collector	Broome	41	1	0.01
Interstate	Cattaraugus	86	8 - 13	2.00
Arterial	Cattaraugus	219	6 - 11	1.00
Collector	Cattaraugus	353	1 - 6	0.20

AADT and Trucks rounded to the nearest 1,000.

Source: NYSDOT 2011

Although truck traffic is expected to significantly increase in certain locations, most of the projected trips would be short. The largest component of the truck traffic for horizontal drilling would be for water deliveries, and these would involve very short trips between the water procurement area and the well pad. Since the largest category of truck trips involve water trucks (600 of 1,148 heavy truck trips; see Table 6.60), it is anticipated that the largest impacts from truck traffic would be near the wells under construction or on local roadways.

Development of the high-volume hydraulic fracturing gas resource would also result in direct and indirect employment and population impacts, which would increase traffic on area roadways. The Department, in consultation with NYSDOT, will undertake traffic monitoring in the regions where well permit applications are most concentrated. These traffic studies and monitoring efforts will be conducted and reviewed by NYSDOT and used to inform the development of road use agreements by local governments, road repairs supported by development taxes, and other mitigation strategies described in Chapter 7.13.

6.11.3 Damage to Local Roads, Bridges, and other Infrastructure

As a result of the anticipated increase in heavy- and light-duty truck traffic, local roads in the vicinity of the well pads are expected to be damaged. Road damage could range from minor fatigue cracking (i.e., alligator cracking) to significant potholes, rutting, and complete failure of the road structure. Extra truck traffic would also result in extra required maintenance for other local road structures, such as bridges, traffic devices, and storm water runoff structures. Damage could occur as normal wear and tear, particularly from heavy trucks, as well as from trucks that may be on the margin of the road and directly running over culverts and other infrastructure that is not intended to handle such loads.

As discussed in Section 2.3.14, the different classifications of roads are constructed to accommodate different levels of service, defined by vehicle trips or vehicle class. Typically, the higher the road classification, the more stringent the design standards and the higher the grade of materials used to construct the road. The design of roads and bridges is based on the weight of vehicles that use the infrastructure. Local roads are not typically designed to sustain a high level of vehicle trips or loads and thus oftentimes have weight restrictions.

Maintenance and repair of the road infrastructure in New York currently strains the limited budgets of the New York State Department of Transportation (NYSDOT) as well as the county and local agencies responsible for local roads. Heavy trucks generally cause more damage to roads and bridges than cars or light trucks due to the weight of the vehicle. A general “rule of thumb” is that a single large truck is equivalent to the passing of 9,000 automobiles (Alaska Department of Transportation and Public Facilities 2004). The higher functional classes of roads, such as the interstate highways, generally receive better and more frequent maintenance than the local roads that are likely to receive the bulk of the heavy truck traffic from the development of shale gas.

Some wells would be located in rural areas where the existing roads are not capable of accommodating the type of truck or number of truck trips that would occur during well development. In addition, intersections, bridge capacities, bridge clearances, or other roadway features may prohibit access to a well development site under current conditions. Applicants would need to improve the roadway to accommodate the anticipated type and amount of truck traffic, which would be implemented through a road use agreement with the local municipality. This road use agreement may include an excess maintenance agreement to provide compensation for impacts. These criteria are discussed further in Section 7.13, Mitigating Transportation and

Road Use Impacts. Section 7.13 also discusses additional ways that compensatory mitigation may be applied to pay for damages.

Actual costs associated with local roads and bridges cannot be determined because these costs are a factor of (1) the number, location, and density of wells; (2) the actual truck routes and truck volumes; (3) the existing condition of the roadway; (4) the specific characteristics of the road or bridge (e.g., the number of lanes, width, pavement type, drainage type, appurtenances, etc.); and (5) the type of treatment warranted. However, based on a sample of 147 local bridges with a condition rating of 6 (i.e., Fair to Poor) in Broome, Chemung, and Tioga counties, estimates of replacement costs could range from $100,000 to $24 million per bridge, and averaged $1.5 million per bridge. The NYSDOT estimates that bridges with a condition rating of 6 or below would be impacted by the projected increase in truck traffic, resulting in accelerated deterioration, and warrant replacement. Because these routes were often built to lower standards, heavy trucks would have a much greater impact than other types of traffic.

According to the NYSDOT, the costs of repair to damaged pavement on local roads also varies widely depending on the type of work necessary and the characteristics of the road. Low-level maintenance treatments such as a single course overlay, would range from $70,000 to $150,000 per lane mile. Higher-level maintenance such as rubberizing and crack and seat rehabilitation would range from $400,000 to $530,000 per lane mile. Full-depth reconstruction can range from $490,000 to $1.9 million per lane mile.

6.11.4 Damage to State Roads, Bridges, and other Infrastructure

For roads of higher classification in the arterial or major collector categories, the general construction of the roads would be adequate to sustain the projected travel of heavy- and light-trucks associated with horizontal drilling and high-volume hydraulic fracturing. However, there would be an incremental deterioration of the expected life of these roads due to the estimated thousands of vehicle trips that would occur because of the increase in drilling activity. These larger roads are part of the public road network and have been built to service the areas of the state for passenger, commercial, and industrial traffic; however, the loads and numbers of heavy trucks proposed by this action could effectively reduce the lifespan of several roads, requiring unanticipated and early repairs or reconstruction, which would burden of the State and its taxpayers.

When the cumulative and induced impacts of the total high-volume hydraulic fracturing gas development are considered, the resulting traffic impacts can be considerable. The principal cumulative traffic impacts would occur during drilling and well development. Impacts on the road, bridge, and other infrastructure would be primarily from the cumulative impact of heavy trucking.

Actual costs to roads of higher functional classification cannot be determined because these costs are a factor of (1) the number, location and density of wells; (2) the actual truck routes and truck volumes; (3) the existing condition of the roadway; (4) the specific characteristics of the road or bridge (e.g., the number of lanes, width, pavement type, drainage type, appurtenances, etc.); and (5) the type of treatment warranted, similar to the local roads discussed above.

However, based on a sample of 166 state bridges with a condition rating of 6 (i.e., Fair to Poor) in Broome, Chemung, and Tioga counties, estimates of replacement costs could range from $100,000 to $31 million per bridge, and averaged $3.3 million per bridge. The NYSDOT estimates that bridges with a condition rating of 6 or below would be impacted by the projected increase in truck traffic, resulting in accelerated deterioration, and warrant replacement.

According to the NYSDOT, the costs of repair to damaged pavement on state roads also varies widely depending on the type of work necessary and the characteristics of the road. Low-level maintenance treatments such as a single-course overlay, would range from $90,000 to $180,000 per lane mile. Higher-level maintenance such as rubberizing and crack and seat rehabilitation would range from $540,000 to $790,000 per lane mile. Full depth reconstruction can range from $910,000 to $2.1 million per lane mile.

Depending on the volume and location of high-volume hydraulic fracturing, there is a possibility that a number of bridges and certain segments of state roads would require higher levels of maintenance and possibly replacement. The extent of such road work that would be attributable to high-volume hydraulic fracturing cannot be calculated because the proportion of truck and vehicular traffic attributable to such operations compared to truck and vehicular traffic attributable to other industries on any particular road would vary significantly. On collectors and minor arterials, there is a potential for greater impacts from this activity because these routes were often built to lower standards, and thus, heavy trucks would have a much greater impact than other types of traffic. As a result, actual contribution of heavy trucks to road and bridge deterioration would be greater than suggested by their proportion to total traffic. Conversely, any additional traffic on higher functional class roads, and especially interstates and major arterials, would result in little impact because these roads were built to higher construction and pavement standards.

6.11.5 Operational and Safety Impacts on Road Systems

An increase in the amount of truck traffic, and vehicular traffic in general, traveling on both higher and lower level local roads would most likely increase the number of accidents and breakdowns in areas experiencing well development. These potential breakdowns and accidents would require the response of public safety and other transportation-related services (e.g., tow trucks). Local road commissions and the NYSDOT would also likely incur costs associated with operational and safety improvements.

The costs of implementing operational and safety improvements on local roads would vary widely depending on the type of treatment required. Improvements on turn lanes could cost from $17,000 to $34,000, and the provision of signals and intersection could cost from approximately $35,000 for the installation of flashing red/yellow signals and from $100,000 to $150,000 for the installation of three-color signals.

The costs of addressing operational and safety impacts on state roads also would vary widely depending on the type of treatment required. The most common treatments include constructing turn lanes, with costs ranging from $20,000 to $40,000 on state roads, and installing signals and intersections, where costs range from approximately $35,000 for the installation of flashing red/yellow signals and from $100,000 to $150,000 for the installation of three-color signals.

The cost of addressing capacity and flow constraints stemming from high levels of truck traffic or direct and indirect employment and population traffic volumes are much greater, however, and might approach $1 million per lane per mile (roughly the cost of full reconstruction), not including the costs of acquiring rights-of-way.

6.11.6 Transportation of Hazardous Materials

Vertical wells do not require the volumes of chemicals that would require consideration of hazardous chemicals beyond the use of diesel fuel for the equipment on the surface. The truck traffic supporting the development of the horizontal wells involving high-volume hydraulic fracturing would be transporting a variety of equipment, supplies, and potentially hazardous materials.

As described in Section 5.4 of the SGEIS, fracturing fluid is 98% freshwater and sand and 2% or less chemical additives. There are 12 classes of chemical additives that could be in the hazardous waste water being trucked to or from a location. Additive classes include: proppant, acid, breaker, bactericide/biocide, clay stabilizer/control, corrosion inhibitor, cross linker, friction reducer, gelling agent, iron control, scale inhibitor, and surfactant. These classes are described in full detail in Section 5.4, Table 5.6. Although the composition of fracturing fluid varies from one geologic basin or formation to another, the range of additive types available for potential use remains the same. The selection may be driven by the formation and potential interactions between additives, and not all additive types would be utilized in every fracturing job (see Section 5.4). Table 5.7 (Section 5.4) shows the constituents of all hydraulic fracturing-related chemicals submitted to NYSDEC to date for potential use at shale wells within New York. Only a handful of these chemicals would be utilized at a single well. Data provided to NYSDEC to date indicates that similar fracturing fluids are needed for vertical and horizontal drilling methods.

Trucks transporting hazardous materials to the various well locations would be governed by USDOT regulations, as discussed in Section 5.5 and Chapter 8. Transportation of any hazardous materials always carries some risks from spills or accidents. Hazardous materials are moved daily across the state without incident, but the additional transport resulting from horizontal drilling poses an additional risk, which could be an adverse impact if spills occur.