



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
NATIONAL MARINE FISHERIES SERVICE
West Coast Region
1201 NE Lloyd Boulevard, Suite 1100
PORTLAND, OR 97232-1274

Refer to NMFS No:
WCRO-2022-00026

December 19, 2023

Todd Tillinger
Chief, Regulatory Branch
U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Seattle District
4735 East Marginal Way South, Bldg. 1202
Seattle, Washington 98134-2388

Re: Endangered Species Act Section 7(a)(2) Biological Opinion and Magnuson-Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management Act Essential Fish Habitat Response for Seattle Public Utilities' Fairview Stormwater Outfall Repair Project, King County, Washington (USACE No. NWS-2021-1054-WRD, HUC: 171100120400 – Lake Union)

Dear Mr. Tillinger:

Thank you for the U.S Army Corps of Engineers' (USACE) letter of January 6, 2022, requesting initiation of consultation with NOAA's National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) pursuant to section 7 of the Endangered Species Act of 1973 (ESA) (16 U.S.C. 1531 et seq.) for USACE authorization of Seattle Public Utilities' Fairview Stormwater Outfall Repair Project on Lake Union. Thank you, also, for your request for consultation pursuant to the essential fish habitat (EFH) provisions in Section 305(b) of the Magnuson–Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management Act [16 U.S.C. 1855(b)] for this action.

The enclosed document contains the biological opinion (opinion) prepared by the NMFS pursuant to section 7 of the ESA on the effects of the proposed action. In this opinion, the NMFS concludes that the proposed action would adversely affect but is not likely to jeopardize the continued existence of Puget Sound (PS) Chinook salmon and PS steelhead. The NMFS also concludes that the proposed action is likely to adversely affect designated critical habitat for PS Chinook salmon, but is not likely to result in the destruction or adverse modification of that designated critical habitat. This opinion also documents our conclusion that the proposed action is not likely to adversely affect southern resident (SR) killer whales and their designated critical habitat.

This opinion includes an incidental take statement (ITS) that describes reasonable and prudent measures (RPMs) the NMFS considers necessary or appropriate to minimize the incidental take associated with this action, and sets forth nondiscretionary terms and conditions that the USACE must comply with to meet those measures. Incidental take from actions that meet these terms and conditions will be exempt from the ESA's prohibition against the take of listed species.

WCRO-2022-00026



Section 3 of this document includes our analysis of the action's likely effects on EFH pursuant to Section 305(b) of the MSA. Based on that analysis, the NMFS concluded that the action would adversely affect designated freshwater EFH for Pacific Coast Salmon. Therefore, we have provided 1 conservation recommendation that can be taken by the USACE to avoid, minimize, or otherwise offset potential adverse effects on EFH. We also concluded that the action would not adversely affect EFH for Pacific Coast groundfish and coastal pelagic species. Therefore, consultation under the MSA is not required for those EFHs.

Section 305(b) (4) (B) of the MSA requires Federal agencies to provide a detailed written response to the NMFS within 30 days after receiving this recommendation. If the response is inconsistent with the EFH conservation recommendations, the USACE must explain why the recommendations will not be followed, including the scientific justification for any disagreements over the effects of the action and recommendations. In response to increased oversight of overall EFH program effectiveness by the Office of Management and Budget, the NMFS established a quarterly reporting requirement to determine how many conservation recommendations are provided as part of each EFH consultation and how many are adopted by the action agency. Therefore, we request that in your statutory reply to the EFH portion of this consultation you clearly identify the number of conservation recommendations accepted.

Please contact Donald Hubner in the North Puget Sound Branch of the Oregon/Washington Coastal Office at (206) 526-4359, or by electronic mail at Donald.Hubner@noaa.gov if you have any questions concerning this consultation, or if you require additional information.

Sincerely,



Kim W. Kratz, Ph.D
Assistant Regional Administrator
Oregon Washington Coastal Office

cc: Jacalen Printz, USACE

**Endangered Species Act (ESA) Section 7(a)(2) Biological Opinion and Magnuson-Stevens
Fishery Conservation and Management Act Essential Fish Habitat Response for the**

Seattle Public Utilities' Fairview Stormwater Outfall Repair Project
King County, Washington
(USACE No. NWS-2021-1054-WRD, HUC: 171100120400 – Lake Union)

NMFS Consultation Number: WCRO-2022-00026

Action Agencies: U.S. Army Corps of Engineers

Affected Species and NMFS' Determinations:


ESA-Listed Species	Status	Is Action Likely to Adversely Affect Species?	Is Action Likely To Jeopardize the Species?	Is Action Likely to Adversely Affect Critical Habitat?	Is Action Likely To Destroy or Adversely Modify Critical Habitat?
Chinook salmon (<i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i>) Puget Sound (PS)	Threatened	Yes	No	Yes	No
Steelhead (<i>O. mykiss</i>) PS	Threatened	Yes	No	N/A	N/A
killer whales (<i>Orcinus orca</i>) Southern resident (SR)	Endangered	No	No	No	No

Affected Essential Fish Habitat (EFH) and NMFS' Determinations:

Fishery Management Plan That Describes EFH in the Project Area	Does Action Have an Adverse Effect on EFH?	Are EFH Conservation Recommendations Provided?
Pacific Coast Salmon	Yes	Yes
Pacific Coast Groundfish	No	No
Coastal Pelagic Species	No	No

Consultation Conducted By: National Marine Fisheries Service,
West Coast Region

Issued By:



 Kim W. Kratz, Ph.D
 Assistant Regional Administrator
 Oregon Washington Coastal Office

Date: December 19, 2023

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BE – Biological Evaluation
BMP – Best Management Practices
CFR – Code of Federal Regulations
DIP – Demographically Independent Population
DPS – Distinct Population Segment
DQA – Data Quality Act
EF – Essential Feature
EFH – Essential Fish Habitat
ESA – Endangered Species Act
ESU – Evolutionarily Significant Unit
FR – Federal Register
FMP – Fishery Management Plan
GULD – General Use Level Designation (WDOE wastewater treatment certification)
HAPC – Habitat Area of Particular Concern
HUC – Hydrologic Unit Code
HPA – Hydraulic Project Approval
ITS – Incidental Take Statement
JARPA – Joint Aquatic Resource Permit Application
MPG – Major Population Group
MSA – Magnuson-Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management Act
NMFS – National Marine Fisheries Service
NOAA – National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
OHWM – Ordinary High-Water Mark
PAH – Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbon
PBF – Physical or Biological Feature
PFMC – Pacific Fishery Management Council
PS – Puget Sound
PSTRT – Puget Sound Technical Recovery Team
PSSTRT – Puget Sound Steelhead Technical Recovery Team
RPA – Reasonable and Prudent Alternative
RPM – Reasonable and Prudent Measure
SF – Square foot/feet
SPIF – Specific Project Information Form
SPU – Seattle Public Utilities
SR – Southern Resident (Killer Whales)
USACE – U.S. Army Corps of Engineers
VSP – Viable Salmonid Population
WCR – West Coast Region (NMFS)
WDFW – Washington State Department of Fish and Wildlife
WDOE – Washington State Department of Ecology

1. INTRODUCTION

This Introduction section provides information relevant to the other sections of this document and is incorporated by reference into Sections 2 and 3, below.

1.1 Background

The National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) prepared the biological opinion (opinion) and incidental take statement (ITS) portions of this document in accordance with section 7(b) of the Endangered Species Act (ESA) of 1973 (16 U.S.C. 1531 et seq.), as amended, and implementing regulations at 50 CFR part 402.

We also completed an essential fish habitat (EFH) consultation on the proposed action, in accordance with section 305(b)(2) of the Magnuson–Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management Act (MSA) (16 U.S.C. 1801 et seq.) and implementing regulations at 50 CFR part 600.

On July 5, 2022, the U.S. District Court for the Northern District of California issued an order vacating the 2019 regulations that were revised or added to 50 CFR part 402 in 2019 (“2019 Regulations,” see 84 FR 44976, August 27, 2019) without making a finding on the merits. On September 21, 2022, the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit granted a temporary stay of the district court’s July 5 order. On November 14, 2022, the Northern District of California issued an order granting the government’s request for voluntary remand without vacating the 2019 regulations. The District Court issued a slightly amended order two days later on November 16, 2022. As a result, the 2019 regulations remain in effect, and we are applying the 2019 regulations here. For purposes of this consultation and in an abundance of caution, we considered whether the substantive analysis and conclusions articulated in the biological opinion and incidental take statement would be any different under the pre-2019 regulations. We have determined that our analysis and conclusions would not be any different.

We completed pre-dissemination review of this document using standards for utility, integrity, and objectivity in compliance with applicable guidelines issued under the Data Quality Act (DQA) (section 515 of the Treasury and General Government Appropriations Act for Fiscal Year 2001, Public Law 106-554). The document will be available at the NOAA Library Institutional Repository [<https://repository.library.noaa.gov/welcome>]. A complete record of this consultation is on file at the Oregon Washington Coastal Office.

1.2 Consultation History

On January 6, 2022, the NMFS received a letter from the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (USACE) that requested consultation for their authorization of Seattle Public Utilities’ (SPU) Fairview Stormwater Outfall Repair Project on Lake Union (USACE 2022a). The request included SPU’s Joint Aquatic Resource Permit Application (JARPA; SPU 2021a), Biological Evaluation (BE) and Specific Project Information Form (SPIF; SPU 2021b), project drawings (SPU 2021c), and the USACE’s Permit Notification (USACE 2021).

On March 23, 2022, the NMFS informed USACE that we consider that the proposed action is likely to adversely ESA-listed salmonids and critical habitat. We also requested additional information, including more detailed drawings, and information about the proposed road repair work, and stormwater.

On April 19, 2022, the USACE and the NMFS received an email from SPU with 2 attachments (SPU 2022a) to respond to our request for more information. The first attachment was a document to reply to the NMFS’s questions (SPU 2022b), which include an embedded copy of the Washington State Department of Fish and Wildlife Hydraulic Project Approval (HPA) for the project (WDFW 2022). The second attachment was a set of revised project drawings (SPU 2022c). Later that day, the USACE requested formal consultation (USACE 2022b). The NMFS considers that formal ESA consultation and EFH consultation was initiated for the proposed action on April 19, 2022.

This opinion is based on the information in the documents identified above, and other additional information provided by SPU (SPU 2022d); recovery plans, status reviews, and critical habitat designations for ESA-listed PS Chinook salmon and PS steelhead; published and unpublished scientific information on the biology and ecology of those species; and relevant scientific and gray literature (see Literature Cited).

1.3 Proposed Federal Action

Under the ESA, “action” means all activities or programs of any kind authorized, funded, or carried out, in whole or in part, by Federal agencies (50 CFR 402.02). Under the MSA, federal action means any action authorized, funded, or undertaken, or proposed to be authorized, funded or undertaken by a federal agency (50 CFR 600.910).

The USACE proposes to authorize SPU to replace about 10 feet of failed 8-inch diameter stormwater outfall pipe, and to repair a 6-linear foot long section of rockery that would extend below the ordinary high-water mark (OHWM) under the outfall that is located along Fairview Avenue, on the northeast shore of Lake Union, in Seattle, Washington, (Figure 1).

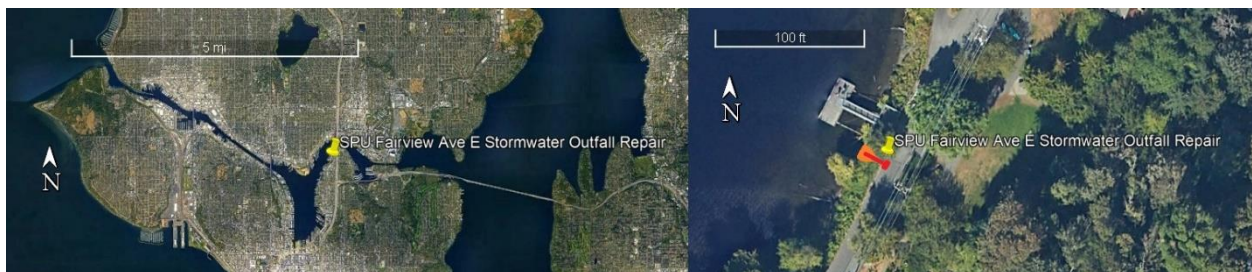


Figure 1. The project site on the northeast shore of Lake Union, in Seattle, Washington. In the righthand image, the locations of the proposed outfall pipe and stormwater treatment box are indicated in red, and the rockery repair is indicated in orange.

Project Overview

SPU's project would be conducted in coordination with the Seattle Dept. of Transportation (SDOT), which would simultaneously perform work above the OHWM to repair a 90-foot long section of road, and repair about 50 feet of embankment at the same location (Figure 2). However, because SDOT's road and embankment work would occur above the OHWM, the Corps has no jurisdiction over the work. Consequently, the Corps' permit and this consultation only consider SPU's outfall pipe replacement and rockery repair work.

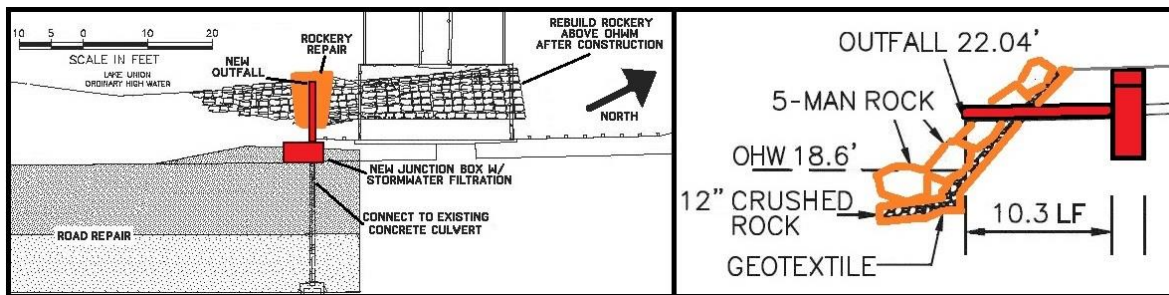


Figure 2. Overhead and profile drawings of SPU's proposed project components. Their proposed outfall, including a new stormwater treatment system, are indicated in red. Their section of repaired rockery is indicated in orange. SDOT's sections of road work and rockery repair are also shown for context but are not considered part of the proposed action (Adapted from Sheet 3 of 4 in SPU 2022c).

The stormwater catchment area for the outfall consists of a small urban landscape of about 104,600 square feet (SF; 2.4 acres). The area is comprised of about 46,400 SF (1.1 acres) of impervious surface (9,500 SF of roadway, 2,100 SF of sidewalk, and 34,800 SF of rooftop from a large multi-use building) and 58,200 SF (1.3 acres) of pervious area that includes Fairview Park and the Eastlake P-Patch (SPU 2022d).

SPU's project would require a total of about 10 days of work, including up to 3 days of in-water work, that would be conducted during the October 1 through April 15 in-water window for Lake Union. To further reduce environmental impacts, all work would be done in compliance with the best management practices (BMPs), conservation measures, and provisions detailed in the project's BE and HPA.

Working from land, the construction crew would clear and grub the project area as needed, then excavate the roadside and rockery as needed to replace the failed pipe, install the stormwater treatment system, and repair the rockery under the outfall. Where the replacement pipe would connect to the existing concrete stormwater culvert that runs under the road, they would dig a pit and install a Contech dual unit, four cartridge, StormFilter concrete catch basin stormwater treatment system that would also serve as a junction box between the new outfall pipe and the existing concrete stormwater culvert (Figure 2). The system would employ four 27-inch "Phosphosorb" cartridges (SPU 2022d).

Along the base of the rockery under the outfall, and just below the OHWM, they would excavate a 6-foot long, 3-foot wide, and 12-inch deep trench, and excavate just enough of the rockery

above the OHWM to remove the existing outfall pipe. The damaged pipe would be removed, a base of clean 2- to 4-inch quarry spall would be installed over geotextile fabric in the trench, the new 8-inch diameter, ductile iron pipe would be installed, and the trench would be backfilled with 3- and 5-man rock to complete the project. Disturbed areas would be revegetated with riparian-appropriate native plant species.

Other activities that could be caused by the proposed action

The NMFS also considered, under the ESA, whether or not the proposed action would cause any other activities that could affect our trust resources. We determined that the proposed action would result in the continued discharge of stormwater into Lake Union at the project site. Therefore, we included an analysis of the effects of the continued stormwater discharge in the effects section of this Opinion.

2. ENDANGERED SPECIES ACT BIOLOGICAL OPINION AND INCIDENTAL TAKE STATEMENT

The ESA establishes a national program for conserving threatened and endangered species of fish, wildlife, plants, and the habitat upon which they depend. As required by section 7(a)(2) of the ESA, each Federal agency must ensure that its actions are not likely to jeopardize the continued existence of endangered or threatened species or to adversely modify or destroy their designated critical habitat. Per the requirements of the ESA, Federal action agencies consult with the NMFS, and section 7(b)(3) requires that, at the conclusion of consultation, the NMFS provide an opinion stating how the agency's actions would affect listed species and their critical habitats. If incidental take is reasonably certain to occur, section 7(b)(4) requires the NMFS to provide an incidental take statement (ITS) that specifies the impact of any incidental taking and includes reasonable and prudent measures (RPMs) and terms and conditions to minimize such impacts.

The USACE determined that the proposed action is not likely to adversely affect PS Chinook salmon, PS steelhead, and designated critical habitat for PS Chinook salmon. They further determined that the proposed action would have no effect on any other species and critical habitats under NMFS jurisdiction. Because the NMFS concluded that the proposed action is likely to adversely affect PS Chinook salmon, PS steelhead, and designated critical habitat for PS Chinook salmon, the USACE requested, and the NMFS proceeded with, formal consultation. Additionally, because of the trophic relationship between PS Chinook salmon and SR killer whales, the NMFS analyzed the action's potential effects on SR killer whales and their designated critical habitat in the "Not Likely to Adversely Affect" Determinations section 2.12 (Table 1).

Table 1. ESA-listed species and critical habitat that may be affected by the proposed action.

ESA-listed species and or critical habitat likely to be adversely affected (LAA)				
Species	Status	Species	Critical Habitat	Listed / CH Designated
Chinook salmon (<i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i>) Puget Sound	Threatened	LAA	LAA	06/28/05 (70 FR 37160) / 09/02/05 (70 FR 52630)
steelhead (<i>O. mykiss</i>) Puget Sound	Threatened	LAA	N/A	05/11/07 (72 FR 26722) / 02/24/16 (81 FR 9252)
ESA-listed species and critical habitat not likely to be adversely affected (NLAA)				
Species	Status	Species	Critical Habitat	Listed / CH Designated
killer whales (<i>Orcinus orca</i>) southern resident	Endangered	NLAA	NLAA	11/18/05 (70 FR 57565) / 11/29/06 (71 FR 69054)

LAA = likely to adversely affect NLAA = not likely to adversely affect

N/A = not applicable. The action area is outside designated critical habitat, or critical habitat has not been designated.

2.1 Analytical Approach

This biological opinion includes both a jeopardy analysis and an adverse modification analysis. The jeopardy analysis relies upon the regulatory definition of “jeopardize the continued existence of” a listed species, which is “to engage in an action that reasonably would be expected, directly or indirectly, to reduce appreciably the likelihood of both the survival and recovery of a listed species in the wild by reducing the reproduction, numbers, or distribution of that species” (50 CFR 402.02). Therefore, the jeopardy analysis considers both survival and recovery of the species.

This biological opinion also relies on the regulatory definition of “destruction or adverse modification,” which “means a direct or indirect alteration that appreciably diminishes the value of critical habitat as a whole for the conservation of a listed species” (50 CFR 402.02).

The designation of critical habitat for PS Chinook salmon uses the terms primary constituent element or essential features. The 2016 final rule (81 FR 7414; February 11, 2016) that revised the critical habitat regulations (50 CFR 424.12) replaced those terms with “physical or biological features” (PBFs). The shift in terminology does not change the approach used in conducting a “destruction or adverse modification” analysis, which is the same regardless of whether the original designation identified primary constituent elements, essential features, or PBFs. In this biological opinion, we use the term PBF to mean primary constituent element or essential feature, as appropriate for the specific critical habitat.

The ESA Section 7 implementing regulations define effects of the action using the term “consequences” (50 CFR 402.02). As explained in the preamble to the final rule revising the definition and adding this term (84 FR 44976, 44977; August 27, 2019), that revision does not change the scope of our analysis, and in this opinion, we use the terms “effects” and “consequences” interchangeably.

We use the following approach to determine whether a proposed action is likely to jeopardize listed species or destroy or adversely modify critical habitat:

- Evaluate the range-wide status of the species and critical habitat expected to be adversely affected by the proposed action.
- Evaluate the environmental baseline of the species and critical habitat.
- Evaluate the effects of the proposed action on species and their critical habitat using an exposure–response approach.
- Evaluate cumulative effects.
- In the integration and synthesis, add the effects of the action and cumulative effects to the environmental baseline, and, in light of the status of the species and critical habitat, analyze whether the proposed action is likely to: (1) directly or indirectly reduce appreciably the likelihood of both the survival and recovery of a listed species in the wild by reducing the reproduction, numbers, or distribution of that species; or (2) directly or indirectly result in an alteration that appreciably diminishes the value of critical habitat as a whole for the conservation of a listed species.
- If necessary, suggest a reasonable and prudent alternative to the proposed action.

2.2 Range-wide Status of the Species and Critical Habitat

This opinion examines the status of each species that is likely to be adversely affected by the proposed action. The status is determined by the level of extinction risk that the listed species face, based on parameters considered in documents such as recovery plans, status reviews, and listing decisions. This informs the description of the species’ likelihood of both survival and recovery. The species status section also helps to inform the description of the species’ “reproduction, numbers, or distribution” for the jeopardy analysis. The opinion also examines the condition of critical habitat throughout the designated area, evaluates the conservation value of the various watersheds and coastal and marine environments that make up the designated area, and discusses the function of the PBFs that are essential for the conservation of the species.

Listed Species

Viable Salmonid Population (VSP) Criteria: For Pacific salmonids, we commonly use four VSP criteria (McElhany et al. 2000) to assess the viability of the populations that constitute the species. These four criteria (spatial structure, diversity, abundance, and productivity) encompass the species’ “reproduction, numbers, or distribution” as described in 50 CFR 402.02. When these parameters are collectively at appropriate levels, they maintain a population’s capacity to adapt to various environmental conditions and allow it to sustain itself in the natural environment.

“Spatial structure” refers both to the spatial distributions of individuals in the population and the processes that generate that distribution. A population’s spatial structure depends on habitat quality and spatial configuration, and the dynamics and dispersal characteristics of individuals in the population.

“Diversity” refers to the distribution of traits within and among populations. These range in scale from DNA sequence variation in single genes to complex life history traits.

“Abundance” generally refers to the number of naturally-produced adults that return to their natal spawning grounds.

“Productivity” refers to the number of naturally-spawning adults produced per parent. When progeny replace or exceed the number of parents, a population is stable or increasing. When progeny fail to replace the number of parents, the population is in decline.

For species with multiple populations, we assess the status of the entire species based on the biological status of the constituent populations, using criteria for groups of populations, as described in recovery plans and guidance documents from technical recovery teams. Considerations for species viability include having multiple populations that are viable, ensuring that populations with unique life histories and phenotypes are viable, and that some viable populations are both widespread to avoid concurrent extinctions from mass catastrophes and spatially close to allow functioning as metapopulations (McElhany et al. 2000).

The summaries that follow describe the status of the ESA-listed species, and their designated critical habitats, that occur within the action area and are considered in this opinion. More detailed information on the biology, habitat, and conservation status and trend of these listed resources can be found in the listing regulations and critical habitat designations published in the Federal Register and in the recovery plans and other sources at: <https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/species-directory/threatened-endangered>, and are incorporated here by reference.

Puget Sound (PS) Chinook Salmon

The PS Chinook salmon evolutionarily significant unit (ESU) was listed as threatened on June 28, 2005 (70 FR 37160). We adopted the recovery plan for this ESU in January 2007. The recovery plan consists of two documents: the Puget Sound salmon recovery plan (SSPS 2007) and the final supplement to the Shared Strategy’s Puget Sound salmon recovery plan (NMFS 2006). The recovery plan adopts ESU and population level viability criteria recommended by the Puget Sound Technical Recovery Team (PSTRT) (Ruckelshaus et al. 2002). The PSTRT’s biological recovery criteria will be met when all of the following conditions are achieved:

- The viability status of all populations in the ESU is improved from current conditions, and when considered in the aggregate, persistence of the ESU is assured;
- Two to four Chinook salmon populations in each of the five biogeographical regions of the ESU achieve viability, depending on the historical biological characteristics and acceptable risk levels for populations within each region;
- At least one population from each major genetic and life history group historically present within each of the five biogeographical regions is viable;
- Tributaries to Puget Sound not identified as primary freshwater habitat for any of the 22 identified populations are functioning in a manner that is sufficient to support an ESU-wide recovery scenario; Production of Chinook salmon from tributaries to Puget Sound not identified as primary freshwater habitat for any of the 22 identified populations occurs in a manner consistent with ESU recovery; and

- Populations that do not meet all the Viable Salmon Population (VSP) parameters are sustained to provide ecological functions and preserve options for ESU recovery.

General Life History: Chinook salmon are anadromous fish that require well-oxygenated water that is typically less than 63° F (17° C), but some tolerance to higher temperatures is documented with acclimation. Adult Chinook salmon spawn in freshwater streams, depositing fertilized eggs in gravel “nests” called redds. The eggs incubate for three to five months before juveniles hatch and emerge from the gravel. Juveniles spend from three months to two years in freshwater before migrating to the ocean to feed and mature. Chinook salmon spend from one to six years in the ocean before returning to their natal freshwater streams where they spawn and then die.

Chinook salmon are divided into two races, stream-types and ocean-types, based on the major juvenile development strategies. Stream-type Chinook salmon tend to rear in freshwater for a year or more before entering marine waters. Conversely, ocean-type juveniles tend to leave their natal streams early during their first year of life, and rear in estuarine waters as they transition into their marine life stage. Both stream- and ocean-type Chinook salmon are present, but ocean-type Chinook salmon predominate in Puget Sound populations. Chinook salmon are further grouped into “runs” that are based on the timing of adults that return to freshwater. Early- or spring-run chinook salmon tend to enter freshwater as immature fish, migrate far upriver, and finally spawn in the late summer and early autumn. Late- or fall-run Chinook salmon enter freshwater at an advanced stage of maturity, move rapidly to their spawning areas, and spawn within a few days or weeks. Summer-run fish show intermediate characteristics of spring and fall runs, without the extensive delay in maturation exhibited by spring-run Chinook salmon. In Puget Sound, spring-run Chinook salmon tend to enter their natal rivers as early as March, but do not spawn until mid-August through September. Returning summer- and fall-run fish tend to enter the rivers early-June through early-September, with spawning occurring between early August and late-October.

Yearling stream-type fish tend to leave their natal rivers late winter through spring, and move relatively directly to nearshore marine areas and pocket estuaries. Out-migrating ocean-type fry tend to migrate out of their natal streams beginning in early-March. Those fish rear in the tidal delta estuaries of their natal stream for about two weeks to two months before migrating to marine nearshore areas and pocket estuaries in late May to June. Out-migrating young of the year parr tend to move relatively directly into marine nearshore areas and pocket estuaries after leaving their natal streams between late spring and the end of summer.

Spatial Structure and Diversity: The PS Sound Chinook salmon ESU includes all naturally spawning populations of Chinook salmon from rivers and streams flowing into Puget Sound including the Straits of Juan De Fuca from the Elwha River, eastward, including rivers and streams flowing into Hood Canal, South Sound, North Sound and the Strait of Georgia in Washington. The ESU also includes the progeny of numerous artificial propagation programs (NWFSC 2015; Ford 2022). The PSTRT identified 22 extant populations, grouped into five major geographic regions, based on consideration of historical distribution, geographic isolation, dispersal rates, genetic data, life history information, population dynamics, and environmental and ecological diversity. The PSTRT distributed the 22 populations among five major

biogeographical regions, or major population groups (MPGs), that are based on similarities in hydrographic, biogeographic, and geologic characteristics (Table 2).

Table 2. Extant PS Chinook salmon populations in each biogeographic region (Ruckelshaus et al. 2002, NWFSC 2015).

Biogeographic Region	Population (Watershed)
Strait of Georgia	North Fork Nooksack River
	South Fork Nooksack River
Strait of Juan de Fuca	Elwha River
	Dungeness River
Hood Canal	Skokomish River
	Mid Hood Canal River
Whidbey Basin	Skykomish River
	Snoqualmie River
	North Fork Stillaguamish River
	South Fork Stillaguamish River
	Upper Skagit River
	Lower Skagit River
	Upper Sauk River
	Lower Sauk River
	Suiattle River
Upper Cascade River	
Central/South Puget Sound Basin	Cedar River
	North Lake Washington/ Sammamish River
	Green/Duwamish River
	Puyallup River
	White River
Nisqually River	

Hatchery-origin spawners are present in high fractions in most populations within the ESU, with the Whidbey Basin the only MPG with consistently high fractions of natural-origin spawners. Between 1990 and 2019, the fraction of natural-origin spawners has declined in many of the populations outside of the Skagit watershed, and the ESU overall remains at a “moderate” risk of extinction (Ford 2022).

Abundance and Productivity: Available data on total abundance since 1980 indicate that abundance trends have fluctuated between positive and negative for individual populations, but productivity remains low in most populations, and hatchery-origin spawners are present in high fractions in most populations outside of the Skagit watershed. Further, across the ESU, 10 of 22 MPGs show natural productivity below replacement in nearly all years since the mid-1980s, and the available data indicate that there has been a general decline in natural-origin spawner abundance across all MPGs over the most-recent fifteen years. Further, escapement levels for all populations remain well below the PSTRT planning ranges for recovery (Ford 2022). Based on the current information on abundance, productivity, spatial structure and diversity, the most recent 5-year status review concluded that the PS Chinook salmon ESU remains at “moderate”

risk of extinction, that viability is largely unchanged from the prior review, and that the ESU should remain listed as threatened (Ford 2022).

Limiting Factors: Factors limiting recovery for PS Chinook salmon include:

- Degraded floodplain and in-river channel structure
- Degraded estuarine conditions and loss of estuarine habitat
- Riparian area degradation and loss of in-river large woody debris
- Excessive fine-grained sediment in spawning gravel
- Degraded water quality and temperature
- Degraded nearshore conditions
- Impaired passage for migrating fish
- Severely altered flow regime

PS Chinook Salmon within the Action Area: The PS Chinook salmon most likely to occur in the action area would be fall-run Chinook salmon from the Cedar River and Sammamish River populations (Ford 2022; WDFW 2023a). Both stream- and ocean-type Chinook salmon are present in these populations, with the majority being ocean-types.

The Cedar River population is a relatively small native stock population with wild production (WDFW 2023b). Between 1980 and 2020, total abundance has fluctuated between about 600 and 1,600 spawners, with the average abundance trend (based on natural-origin spawning abundance) being slightly negative, and natural origin spawners fluctuating between about 50 and 80 percent (Ford 2022).

Sammamish River population is a small mixed stock population with composite production (WDFW 2023b). Between 1980 and 2020, total abundance has fluctuated between about 300 and 1,500 spawners, with the average abundance trend (based on natural-origin spawning abundance) being negative, and natural origin spawners fluctuating between about 10 and 50 percent (Ford 2022).

Adult and juvenile Chinook salmon primarily use the project site for freshwater migration, with juveniles also likely foraging while en route. Adult Chinook salmon pass through Chittenden Locks mid-June through September, with peak migration occurring in mid-August (City of Seattle 2008). Spawning occurs well upstream of the project area, between early August and late October. Juvenile Chinook salmon are found in Lake Washington between January and July, primarily in the littoral zone (Tabor et al. 2006). Juveniles emigrate through the ship canal and the locks between late-May and early-July, with the peak emigration in June (City of Seattle 2008).

Puget Sound (PS) steelhead

The PS steelhead distinct population segment (DPS) was listed as threatened on May 11, 2007 (72 FR 26722). In 2013, the Puget Sound Steelhead Technical Recovery Team (PSSTRT) identified 32 demographically independent populations (DIPs) within the DPS, based on genetic, environmental, and life history characteristics. Those DIPs are distributed among three

geographically-based MPGs; Northern Cascades, Central and South Puget Sound; and Hood Canal and Strait de Fuca (Myers et al. 2015) (Table 3). Critical habitat for Puget Sound steelhead DPS was designated by NMFS in 2016 (81 FR 9251, February 24, 2016). The NMFS adopted the steelhead recovery plan for the Puget Sound DPS in December, 2019.

Table 3. PS steelhead Major Population Groups (MPGs), Demographically Independent Populations (DIPs), and DIP Viability Estimates (Modified from Figure 58 in Hard *et al.* 2015).

Geographic Region (MPG)	Demographically Independent Population (DIP)	Viability
Northern Cascades	Drayton Harbor Tributaries Winter Run	Moderate
	Nooksack River Winter Run	Moderate
	South Fork Nooksack River Summer Run	Moderate
	Samish River/Bellingham Bay Tributaries Winter Run	Moderate
	Skagit River Summer Run and Winter Run	Moderate
	Nookachamps River Winter Run	Moderate
	Baker River Summer Run and Winter Run	Moderate
	Sauk River Summer Run and Winter Run	Moderate
	Stillaguamish River Winter Run	Low
	Deer Creek Summer Run	Moderate
	Canyon Creek Summer Run	Moderate
	Snohomish/Skykomish Rivers Winter Run	Moderate
	Pilchuck River Winter Run	Low
	North Fork Skykomish River Summer Run	Moderate
	Snoqualmie River Winter Run	Moderate
	Tolt River Summer Run	Moderate
Central and South Puget Sound	Cedar River Summer Run and Winter Run	Low
	North Lake Washington and Lake Sammamish Winter Run	Moderate
	Green River Winter Run	Low
	Puyallup River Winter Run	Low
	White River Winter Run	Low
	Nisqually River Winter Run	Low
	South Sound Tributaries Winter Run	Moderate
East Kitsap Peninsula Tributaries Winter Run	Moderate	
Hood Canal and Strait de Fuca	East Hood Canal Winter Run	Low
	South Hood Canal Tributaries Winter Run	Low
	Skokomish River Winter Run	Low
	West Hood Canal Tributaries Winter Run	Moderate
	Sequim/Discovery Bay Tributaries Winter Run	Low
	Dungeness River Summer Run and Winter Run	Moderate
	Strait of Juan de Fuca Tributaries Winter Run	Low
Elwha River Summer Run and Winter Run	Low	

In 2015, the PSSTRT concluded that the DPS is at “very low” viability; with most of the 32 DIPs and all three MPGs at “low” viability based on widespread diminished abundance, productivity, diversity, and spatial structure when compared with available historical evidence (Hard et al. 2015). Based on the PSSTRT viability criteria, the DPS would be considered viable when all three component MPG are considered viable. A given MPG would be considered viable when: 1) 40 percent or more of its component DIPs are viable; 2) mean DIP viability within the MPG exceeds the threshold for viability; and 3) 40 percent or more of the historic life history strategies

(i.e., summer runs and winter runs) within the MPG are viable. For a given DIP to be considered viable, its probability of persistence must exceed 85 percent, as calculated by Hard et al. (2015), based on abundance, productivity, diversity, and spatial structure within the DIP.

General Life History: PS steelhead exhibit two major life history strategies. Ocean-maturing, or winter-run fish typically enter freshwater from November to April at an advanced stage of maturation, and then spawn from February through June. Stream-maturing, or summer-run fish typically enter freshwater from May to October at an early stage of maturation, migrate to headwater areas, and hold for several months prior to spawning in the following spring. After hatching, juveniles rear in freshwater from one to three years prior to migrating to marine habitats (two years is typical). Smoltification and seaward migration typically occurs from April to mid-May. Smolt lengths vary between watersheds, but typically range from 4.3 to 9.2 inches (109 to 235 mm) (Myers et al. 2015). Juvenile steelhead are generally independent of shallow nearshore areas soon after entering marine water (Bax et al. 1978, Brennan et al. 2004, Schreiner et al. 1977), and are not commonly caught in beach seine surveys. Recent acoustic tagging studies (Moore et al. 2010) have shown that smolts migrate from rivers to the Strait of Juan de Fuca from one to three weeks. PS steelhead feed in the ocean waters for one to three years (two years is again typical), before returning to their natal streams to spawn. Unlike Chinook salmon, most female steelhead, and some males, return to marine waters following spawning (Myers et al. 2015).

Spatial Structure and Diversity: The PS steelhead DPS includes all naturally spawned anadromous steelhead populations in streams in the river basins of the Strait of Juan de Fuca, Puget Sound, and Hood Canal, Washington, bounded to the west by the Elwha River (inclusive) and to the north by the Nooksack River and Dakota Creek (inclusive). The DPS also includes six hatchery stocks that are considered no more than moderately diverged from their associated natural-origin counterparts (USDC 2014). PS steelhead are the anadromous form of *O. mykiss* that occur below natural barriers to migration in northwestern Washington State (Ford 2022). Non-anadromous “resident” *O. mykiss* (a.k.a. rainbow trout) occur within the range of PS steelhead but are not part of the DPS due to marked differences in physical, physiological, ecological, and behavioral characteristics (Hard et al. 2015). As stated above, the DPS consists of 32 DIPs that are distributed among three geographically-based MPG. An individual DIP may consist of winter-run only, summer-run only, or a combination of both life history types. Winter-run is the predominant life history type in the DPS (Hard et al. 2015).

Abundance and Productivity: Available data on total abundance since the late 1970s and early 1980s indicate that abundance trends have fluctuated between positive and negative for individual DIPs. The long-term abundance of adult steelhead returning to many rivers in Puget Sound has fallen substantially since estimates began for many populations in the late 1970s and early 1980s. Despite relative improvements in abundance and productivity for some DIPs between 2015 and 2019, particularly in the Central and South Puget Sound MPG, low productivity persists throughout the 32 DIPs, with most showing long term downward trends (Ford 2022). Since the mid-1980s, trends in natural spawning abundance have also been temporally variable for most DIPs but remain predominantly negative, well below replacement for most DIPs, and most DIPs remain small (Ford 2022). Over the time series examined, the over-all abundance trends, especially for natural spawners, remain predominantly negative or flat across the DPS, and general steelhead abundance across the DPS remains well below the level

needed to sustain natural production into the future (Ford 2022). The PSSTRT concluded that the PS steelhead DPS is currently not viable (Hard et al. 2015). The most recent 5-year status review reported an increasing viability trend for the Puget Sound steelhead DPS, but also reported that the extinction risk remains moderate for the DPS, and that the DPS should remain listed as threatened (Ford 2022).

Limiting Factors: Factors limiting recovery for PS steelhead include:

- The continued destruction and modification of steelhead habitat
- Widespread declines in adult abundance (total run size), despite significant reductions in harvest in recent years
- Threats to diversity posed by use of two hatchery steelhead stocks (Chambers Creek and Skamania)
- Declining diversity in the DPS, including the uncertain but weak status of summer run fish
- A reduction in spatial structure
- Reduced habitat quality through changes in river hydrology, temperature profile, downstream gravel recruitment, and reduced movement of large woody debris
- In the lower reaches of many rivers and their tributaries in Puget Sound where urban development has occurred, increased flood frequency and peak flows during storms and reduced groundwater-driven summer flows, with resultant gravel scour, bank erosion, and sediment deposition
- Dikes, hardening of banks with riprap, and channelization, which have reduced river braiding and sinuosity, increasing the likelihood of gravel scour and dislocation of rearing juveniles

PS Steelhead within the Action Area: The PS steelhead most likely to occur in the action area would be winter-run steelhead from the Cedar River DIP, and the North Lake Washington and Lake Sammamish DIP (Ford 2022; WDFW 2023a). Both DIPs are among the smallest within the PS steelhead DPS.

The Cedar River PS steelhead DIP is extremely small, and is of an unknown stock with natural production. The total annual abundance has fluctuated between 0 and about 900 individuals between 1984 and 2021, with a strong negative trend, such that no more than 10 returning adults are believed to have returned annually since 2007. The estimated total number of returning adults in 2021 was only 4 fish (WDFW 2023c).

The North Lake Washington and Lake Sammamish DIP is extremely small, and of unknown stock origin. The total annual abundance has fluctuated between 0 and about 916 individuals between 1984 and 1999, with a steep negative trend until 1994, after which it flattened no more than 10 returning adults. Abundance was only 4 adults during the last survey, which was done in 1999 (Ford 2022; WDFW 2023c).

Adult and juvenile steelhead salmon primarily use the project site for freshwater migration, with juveniles also likely foraging while en route. Returning adult steelhead typically pass through Chittenden Locks (aka Ballard Locks) and the Lake Washington Ship Canal between January and May, and may remain within Lake Washington through June (City of Seattle 2008). The timing of steelhead spawning across the basin is uncertain, but it occurs well upstream of the

project area. Juvenile steelhead of these 2 DIPs typically leave their natal streams and enter Lake Washington in April. They emigrate through the ship canal and the through the locks between April and May (City of Seattle 2008).

Critical Habitat

This section describes the status of designated critical habitat that would be affected by the proposed action by examining the condition and trends of physical or biological features (PBFs) that are essential to the conservation of the listed species throughout the designated areas. The PBFs are essential because they support one or more of the species' life stages (e.g., sites with conditions that support spawning, rearing, migration, and foraging).

The project site and surrounding area has been designated as critical habitat for PS Chinook salmon.

The NMFS designated critical habitat for PS Chinook salmon on September 2, 2005 (70 FR 52630). That critical habitat is located in 16 freshwater subbasins and watersheds between the Dungeness/Elwha Watershed and the Nooksack Subbasin, inclusively, as well as in nearshore marine waters of the Puget Sound that are south of the US-Canada border and east of the Elwha River, and out to a depth of 30 meters. Although offshore marine is an area type identified in the final rule, it was not designated as critical habitat for PS Chinook salmon.

The PBFs of salmonid critical habitat include: (1) Freshwater spawning sites with water quantity and quality conditions and substrate supporting spawning, incubation and larval development; (2) Freshwater rearing sites with: (i) Water quantity and floodplain connectivity to form and maintain physical habitat conditions and support juvenile growth and mobility; (ii) Water quality and forage supporting juvenile development; and (iii) Natural cover such as shade, submerged and overhanging large wood, log jams and beaver dams, aquatic vegetation, large rocks and boulders, side channels, and undercut banks; (3) Freshwater migration corridors free of obstruction and excessive predation with water quantity and quality conditions and natural cover such as submerged and overhanging large wood, aquatic vegetation, large rocks and boulders, side channels, and undercut banks supporting juvenile and adult mobility and survival; (4) Estuarine areas free of obstruction and excessive predation with: (i) Water quality, water quantity, and salinity conditions supporting juvenile and adult physiological transitions between fresh- and saltwater; (ii) Natural cover such as submerged and overhanging large wood, aquatic vegetation, large rocks and boulders, side channels; and (iii) Juvenile and adult forage, including aquatic invertebrates and fishes, supporting growth and maturation; (5) Nearshore marine areas free of obstruction and excessive predation with: (i) Water quality and quantity conditions and forage, including aquatic invertebrates and fishes, supporting growth and maturation; and (ii) Natural cover such as submerged and overhanging large wood, aquatic vegetation, large rocks and boulders, and side channels; and (6) Offshore marine areas with water quality conditions and forage, including aquatic invertebrates and fishes, supporting growth and maturation. The PBF for PS Chinook salmon CH are listed in Table 4.

Major tributary river basins in the Puget Sound basin include the Nooksack, Samish, Skagit, Sauk, Stillaguamish, Snohomish, Lake Washington, Cedar, Sammamish, Green, Duwamish,

Puyallup, White, Carbon, Nisqually, Deschutes, Skokomish, Duckabush, Dosewallips, Big Quilcene, Elwha, and Dungeness rivers and Soos Creek. Critical habitat throughout the Puget Sound basin has been degraded by numerous activities, including hydropower development, loss of mature riparian forests, increased sediment inputs, removal of large wood from the waterways, intense urbanization, agriculture, alteration of floodplain and stream morphology (i.e., channel modifications and diking), riparian vegetation disturbance, wetland draining and conversion, dredging, armoring of shorelines, marina and port development, road and railroad construction and maintenance, logging, and mining. Changes in habitat quantity, availability, and diversity, and flow, temperature, sediment load and channel instability are common limiting factors of critical habitat throughout the basin.

Table 4. Physical or biological features (PBFs) of designated critical habitat for PS Chinook salmon, with the corresponding life history events. Although offshore marine areas were identified in the final rule, none was designated as critical habitat.

Physical or Biological Features		Life History Event
Site Type	Site Attribute	
Freshwater spawning	Water quantity Water quality Substrate	Adult spawning Embryo incubation Alevin growth and development
Freshwater rearing	Water quantity and Floodplain connectivity Water quality and Forage Natural cover	Fry emergence from gravel Fry/parr/smolt growth and development
Freshwater migration	(Free of obstruction and excessive predation) Water quantity and quality Natural cover	Adult sexual maturation Adult upstream migration and holding Fry/parr/smolt growth, development, and seaward migration
Estuarine	(Free of obstruction and excessive predation) Water quality, quantity, and salinity Natural cover Forage	Adult sexual maturation and “reverse smoltification” Adult upstream migration and holding Fry/parr/smolt growth, development, and seaward migration
Nearshore marine	(Free of obstruction and excessive predation) Water quality, quantity, and forage Natural cover	Adult growth and sexual maturation Adult spawning migration Nearshore juvenile rearing
Offshore marine	Water quality and forage	Adult growth and sexual maturation Adult spawning migration Subadult rearing

Land use practices have likely accelerated the frequency of landslides delivering sediment to streams. Fine sediment from unpaved roads also contributes to stream sedimentation. Unpaved roads are widespread on forested lands in the Puget Sound basin, and to a lesser extent, in rural residential areas. Historical logging removed most of the riparian trees near stream channels. Subsequent agricultural and urban conversion permanently altered riparian vegetation in the river valleys, leaving either no trees, or a thin band of trees. The riparian zones along many

agricultural areas are now dominated by alder, invasive canary grass and blackberries, and provide substantially reduced stream shade and large wood recruitment (SSPS 2007).

Diking, agriculture, revetments, railroads and roads in lower stream reaches have caused significant loss of secondary channels in major valley floodplains in this region. Confined main channels create high-energy peak flows that remove smaller substrate particles and large wood. The loss of side-channels, oxbow lakes, and backwater habitats has resulted in a significant loss of juvenile salmonid rearing and refuge habitat. When the water level of Lake Washington was lowered 9 feet in the 1910s, thousands of acres of wetlands along the shoreline of Lake Washington, Lake Sammamish and the Sammamish River corridor were drained and converted to agricultural and urban uses. Wetlands play an important role in hydrologic processes, as they store water which ameliorates high and low flows. The interchange of surface and groundwater in complex stream and wetland systems helps to moderate stream temperatures. Thousands of acres of lowland wetlands across the region have been drained and converted to agricultural and urban uses, and forest wetlands are estimated to have diminished by one-third in Washington State (FEMAT 1993; Spence et al. 1996; SSPS 2007).

Loss of riparian habitat, elevated water temperatures, elevated levels of nutrients, increased nitrogen and phosphorus, and higher levels of suspended sediment, presumably from urban and highway runoff, wastewater treatment, failing septic systems, and agriculture or livestock impacts, have been documented in many Puget Sound tributaries (SSPS 2007).

Peak stream flows have increased over time due to paving (roads and parking areas), reduced percolation through surface soils on residential and agricultural lands, simplified and extended drainage networks, loss of wetlands, and rain-on-snow events in higher elevation clear cuts (SSPS 2007). In urbanized Puget Sound, there is a strong association between land use and land cover attributes and rates of coho spawner mortality likely due to runoff containing pollutants emitted from motor vehicles (Feist et al. 2011).

Dams constructed for hydropower generation, irrigation, or flood control have substantially affected PS Chinook salmon populations in a number of river systems. The construction and operation of dams have blocked access to spawning and rearing habitat, changed flow patterns, resulted in elevated temperatures and stranding of juvenile migrants, and degraded downstream spawning and rearing habitat by reducing recruitment of spawning gravel and large wood to downstream areas (SSPS 2007). These actions tend to promote downstream channel incision and simplification (Kondolf 1997), limiting fish habitat. Water withdrawals reduce available fish habitat and alter sediment transport. Hydropower projects often change flow rates, stranding and killing fish, and reducing aquatic invertebrate (food source) productivity (Hunter 1992).

Juvenile mortality occurs in unscreened or inadequately screened diversions. Water diversion ditches resemble side channels in which juvenile salmonids normally find refuge. When diversion headgates are shut, access back to the main channel is cut off and the channel goes dry. Mortality can also occur with inadequately screened diversions from impingement on the screen, or mutilation in pumps where gaps or oversized screen openings allow juveniles to get into the system. Blockages by dams, water diversions, and shifts in flow regime due to hydroelectric

development and flood control projects are major habitat problems in many Puget Sound tributary basins (SSPS 2007).

The nearshore marine habitat has been extensively altered and armored by industrial and residential development near the mouths of many of Puget Sound's tributaries. A railroad runs along large portions of the eastern shoreline of Puget Sound, eliminating natural cover along the shore and natural recruitment of beach sand (SSPS 2007). Degradation of the near-shore environment has occurred in the southeastern areas of Hood Canal in recent years, resulting in late summer marine oxygen depletion and significant fish kills. Circulation of marine waters is naturally limited, and partially driven by freshwater runoff, which is often low in the late summer. However, human development has increased nutrient loads from failing septic systems along the shoreline, and from use of nitrate and phosphate fertilizers on lawns and farms. Shoreline residential development is widespread and dense in many places. The combination of highways and dense residential development has degraded certain physical and chemical characteristics of the near-shore environment (HCCC 2005; SSPS 2007).

The PS Chinook salmon freshwater critical habitat at and adjacent to the project site primarily supports freshwater migration (NOAA 2023; WDFW 2023a).

2.3 Action Area

“Action area” means all areas to be affected directly or indirectly by the Federal action and not merely the immediate area involved in the action (50 CFR 402.02).

The project site is located in Seattle, Washington, on the northeast shore of Lake Union, along the Lake Washington Ship Canal (Figure 1). As described in section 2.5, water quality effects related to stormwater discharge would be the stressor with the greatest range of direct and indirect effects on fish, and the affected area would be limited to the freshwater and aquatic substrates between the project site and the Chittenden Locks. However, the trophic connectivity between PS Chinook salmon and the SR killer whales would extend the action area to the marine waters of Puget Sound. The described area overlaps with the geographic ranges of the ESA-listed species and the boundaries of designated critical habitats identified in Table 1. The action area also overlaps with areas that have been designated, under the MSA, as EFH for Pacific Coast salmon, Pacific Coast groundfish, and coastal pelagic species.

2.4 Environmental Baseline

The “environmental baseline” refers to the condition of the listed species or its designated critical habitat in the action area, without the consequences to the listed species or designated critical habitat caused by the proposed action. The environmental baseline includes the past and present impacts of all Federal, State, or private actions and other human activities in the action area, the anticipated impacts of all proposed Federal projects in the action area that have already undergone formal or early section 7 consultations, and the impact of State or private actions which are contemporaneous with the consultation in process. The consequences to listed species or designated critical habitat from ongoing agency activities or existing agency facilities that are

not within the agency's discretion to modify are part of the environmental baseline (50 CFR 402.02).

Climate Change

Climate change is a factor affecting the environmental baseline, aquatic habitats in general, and the status of the ESA-listed species considered in this opinion. Although its effects are unlikely to be spatially homogeneous across the region, climate change is likely to play an increasingly important role in determining the abundance and distribution of ESA-listed species and the conservation value of designated critical habitats in the Pacific Northwest. Major ecological realignments are already occurring in response to climate change (IPCC WGII 2022). Long-term trends in warming have continued at global, national, and regional scales. Global surface temperatures in the last decade (2010s) were estimated to be 1.09 °C higher than the 1850-1900 baseline period, with larger increases over land ~1.6 °C compared to oceans ~0.88 °C (IPCC WGI 2021). The vast majority of this warming has been attributed to anthropogenic releases of greenhouse gases (IPCC WGI 2021). Globally, 2014 through 2018 were the 5 warmest years on record both on land and in the ocean (NOAA NCEI 2022). Events such as the 2013 through 2016 marine heatwave (Jacox et al. 2018) have been attributed directly to anthropogenic warming. Global warming and anthropogenic loss of biodiversity represent profound threats to ecosystem functionality (IPCC WGII 2022). These two factors likely have interacting effects on ecosystem function.

Updated projections of climate change are similar to or greater than previous projections (IPCC WGI 2021). NMFS is increasingly confident in our projections of changes to freshwater and marine systems because every year brings stronger validation of previous predictions in both physical and biological realms. Retaining and restoring habitat complexity, access to climate refuges (both flow and temperature), and improving growth opportunity in both freshwater and marine environments are strongly advocated for in the recent literature (Siegel and Crozier 2020).

Climate change is systemic, influencing freshwater, estuarine, and marine conditions. Other systems are also being influenced by changing climatic conditions. Literature reviews on the impacts of climate change on Pacific salmon (Crozier 2015; 2016; 2017; Crozier and Siegel 2018; Siegel and Crozier 2019; 2020) have collected hundreds of papers documenting the major themes relevant for salmon. Below, we describe habitat changes relevant to Pacific salmon and steelhead, prior to describing how these changes result in the varied specific mechanisms impacting these species in subsequent sections.

Forests: Climate change will continue to impact forests of the western U.S., which dominate the landscape of many watersheds in the region. Forests are already showing evidence of increased drought severity, forest fire, and insect outbreaks (Halofsky et al. 2020). Additionally, climate change will affect tree reproduction, growth, and phenology, which will lead to spatial shifts in vegetation. Halofsky et al. (2018) projected that the largest changes will occur at low- and high-elevation forests, with expansion of low-elevation dry forests and diminishing high-elevation cold forests and subalpine habitats.

Forest fires affect salmon streams by altering sediment load, channel structure, and stream temperature through the removal of canopy. Holden et al. (2018) examined environmental factors contributing to observed increases in the extent of forest fires throughout the western U.S. They found strong correlations between the number of dry-season rainy days and the annual extent of forest fires, as well as a significant decline in the number of dry-season rainy days over the study period (1984-2015). Consequently, predicted decreases in dry-season precipitation, combined with increases in air temperature, will likely contribute to the existing trend toward more extensive and severe forest fires and the continued expansion of fires into higher elevation and wetter forests (Alizedeh 2021).

Agne et al. (2018) reviewed literature on insect outbreaks and other pathogens affecting coastal Douglas-fir forests in the Pacific Northwest and examined how future climate change may influence disturbance ecology. They suggest that Douglas-fir beetle and black stain root disease could become more prevalent with climate change, while other pathogens will be more affected by management practices. Agne et al. (2018) also suggested that due to complex interacting effects of disturbance and disease, climate impacts will differ by region and forest type.

Freshwater Environments: The following is excerpted from Siegel and Crozier (2019), who present a review of recent scientific literature evaluating effects of climate change, describing the projected impacts of climate change on instream flows:

The magnitude of low river flows in the western U.S., which generally occur in September or October, and are driven largely by summer conditions and the prior winter's precipitation. Although, low flows are more sensitive to summer evaporative demand than to winter precipitation, interannual variability is greater for winter precipitation. Malek et al. (2018), predicted that summer evapotranspiration is likely to increase in conjunction with declines in snowpack and increased variability in winter precipitation, which suggests that summer flows are likely to become lower, more variable, and less predictable over time.

The effect of climate change on ground water availability is likely to be uneven. Sridhar et al. (2018) coupled a surface-flow model with a ground-flow model to improve predictions of surface water availability with climate change in the Snake River Basin. Projections using RCP 4.5 and 8.5 emission scenarios suggested an increase in water table heights in downstream areas of the basin and a decrease in upstream areas.

As cited in Siegel and Crozier (2019), Isaak et al. (2018), examined recent trends in stream temperature across the Western U.S. using a large regional dataset. Stream warming trends paralleled changes in air temperature and were pervasive during the low-water warm seasons of 1996-2015 (0.18-0.35°C/decade) and 1976-2015 (0.14-0.27°C/decade). Their results show how continued warming will likely affect the cumulative temperature exposure of migrating sockeye salmon *O. nerka* and the availability of suitable habitat for brown trout *Salmo trutta* and rainbow trout *O. mykiss*. Isaak et al. (2018) concluded that most stream habitats will likely remain suitable for salmonids in the near future, with some becoming too warm. However, in cases where habitat access is currently restricted by dams and other barriers salmon and steelhead will be confined to downstream reaches typically most at risk of rising temperatures unless passage is restored (FitzGerald et al. 2020; Myers et al. 2018).

Streams with intact riparian corridors and that lie in mountainous terrain are likely to be more resilient to changes in air temperature. These areas may provide refuge from climate change for a number of species, including Pacific salmon. Krosby et al. (2018), identified potential stream refugia throughout the Pacific Northwest based on a suite of features thought to reflect the ability of streams to serve as such refuges. Analyzed features include large temperature gradients, high canopy cover, large relative stream width, low exposure to solar radiation, and low levels of human modification. They created an index of refuge potential for all streams in the region, with mountain area streams scoring highest. Flat lowland areas, which commonly contain migration corridors, were generally scored lowest, and thus were prioritized for conservation and restoration. However, forest fires can increase stream temperatures dramatically in short time-spans by removing riparian cover (Koontz et al. 2018), and streams that lose their snowpack with climate change may see the largest increases in stream temperature due to the removal of temperature buffering (Yan et al. 2021). These processes may threaten some habitats that are currently considered refugia.

Marine and Estuarine Environments: Along with warming stream temperatures and concerns about sufficient groundwater to recharge streams, a recent study projects nearly complete loss of existing tidal wetlands along the U.S. West Coast, due to sea level rise (Thorne et al. 2018). California and Oregon showed the greatest threat to tidal wetlands (100%), while 68% of Washington tidal wetlands are expected to be submerged. Coastal development and steep topography prevent horizontal migration of most wetlands, causing the net contraction of this crucial habitat.

Rising ocean temperatures, stratification, ocean acidity, hypoxia, algal toxins, and other oceanographic processes will alter the composition and abundance of a vast array of oceanic species. In particular, there will be dramatic changes in both predators and prey of Pacific salmon, salmon life history traits and relative abundance. Siegel and Crozier (2019) observe that changes in marine temperature are likely to have a number of physiological consequences on fishes themselves. For example, in a study of small planktivorous fish, Gliwicz et al. (2018) found that higher ambient temperatures increased the distance at which fish reacted to prey. Numerous fish species (including many tuna and sharks) demonstrate regional endothermy, which in many cases augments eyesight by warming the retinas. However, Gliwicz et al. (2018) suggest that ambient temperatures can have a similar effect on fish that do not demonstrate this trait. Climate change is likely to reduce the availability of biologically essential omega-3 fatty acids produced by phytoplankton in marine ecosystems. Loss of these lipids may induce cascading trophic effects, with distinct impacts on different species depending on compensatory mechanisms (Gourtay et al. 2018). Reproduction rates of many marine fish species are also likely to be altered with temperature (Veilleux et al. 2018). The ecological consequences of these effects and their interactions add complexity to predictions of climate change impacts in marine ecosystems.

Perhaps the most dramatic change in physical ocean conditions will occur through ocean acidification and deoxygenation. It is unclear how sensitive salmon and steelhead might be to the direct effects of ocean acidification because of their tolerance of a wide pH range in freshwater (Ou et al. 2015; Williams et al. 2019), however, impacts of ocean acidification and hypoxia on sensitive species (e.g., plankton, crabs, rockfish, groundfish) will likely affect salmon indirectly

through their interactions as predators and prey. Similarly, increasing frequency and duration of harmful algal blooms may affect salmon directly, depending on the toxin (e.g., saxitoxin vs domoic acid), but will also affect their predators (seabirds and mammals). The full effects of these ecosystem dynamics are not known but will be complex. Within the historical range of climate variability, less suitable conditions for salmonids (e.g., warmer temperatures, lower stream flows) have been associated with detectable declines in many of these listed units, highlighting how sensitive they are to climate drivers (Ford 2022, Lindley et al. 2009, Ward et al. 2015; Williams et al. 2016). In some cases, the combined and potentially additive effects of poorer climate conditions for fish and intense anthropogenic impacts caused the population declines that led to these population groups being listed under the ESA (Crozier et al. 2019).

Climate change effects on salmon and steelhead: In freshwater, year-round increases in stream temperature and changes in flow will affect physiological, behavioral, and demographic processes in salmon, and change the species with which they interact. For example, as stream temperatures increase, many native salmonids face increased competition with more warm-water tolerant invasive species. Changing freshwater temperatures are likely to affect incubation and emergence timing for eggs, and in locations where the greatest warming occurs may affect egg survival, although several factors impact inter-gravel temperature and oxygen (e.g., groundwater influence) as well as sensitivity of eggs to thermal stress. Changes in temperature and flow regimes may alter the amount of habitat and food available for juvenile rearing, and this in turn could lead to a restriction in the distribution of juveniles, further decreasing productivity through density dependence. For migrating adults, predicted changes in freshwater flows and temperatures will likely increase exposure to stressful temperatures for many salmon and steelhead populations, and alter migration travel times and increase thermal stress accumulation for ESUs or DPSs with early-returning (i.e. spring- and summer-run) phenotypes associated with longer freshwater holding times (FitzGerald et al. 2020). Rising river temperatures increase the energetic cost of migration and the risk of in-route or pre-spawning mortality of adults with long freshwater migrations, although populations of some ESA-listed salmon and steelhead may be able to make use of cool-water refuges and run-timing plasticity to reduce thermal exposure (Barnett et al. 2020; Keefer et al. 2018).

Marine survival of salmonids is affected by a complex array of factors including prey abundance, predator interactions, the physical condition of salmon within the marine environment, and carryover effects from the freshwater experience (Burke et al. 2013; Holsman et al. 2012). It is generally accepted that salmon marine survival is size-dependent, and thus larger and faster growing fish are more likely to survive (Gosselin et al. 2021). Furthermore, early arrival timing in the marine environment is generally considered advantageous for populations migrating through the Columbia River. However, the optimal day of arrival varies across years, depending on the seasonal development of productivity in the California Current, which affects prey available to salmon and the risk of predation (Chasco et al. 2021). Siegel and Crozier (2019) point out the concern that for some salmon populations, climate change may drive mismatches between juvenile arrival timing and prey availability in the marine environment. However, phenological diversity can contribute to metapopulation-level resilience by reducing the risk of a complete mismatch. Carr-Harris et al. (2018), explored phenological diversity of marine migration timing in relation to zooplankton prey for sockeye salmon *O. nerka* from the Skeena River of Canada. They found that sockeye migrated over a period of more than 50 days, and

populations from higher elevation and further inland streams arrived in the estuary later, with different populations encountering distinct prey fields. Carr-Harris et al. (2018) recommended that managers maintain and augment such life-history diversity.

Synchrony between terrestrial and marine environmental conditions (e.g., coastal upwelling, precipitation and river discharge) has increased in spatial scale causing the highest levels of synchrony in the last 250 years (Black et al. 2018). A more synchronized climate combined with simplified habitats and reduced genetic diversity may be leading to more synchrony in the productivity of populations across the range of salmon (Braun et al. 2016). For example, salmon productivity (recruits/spawner) has also become more synchronized across Chinook populations from Oregon to the Yukon (Dorner et al. 2018; Kilduff et al. 2014). In addition, Chinook salmon have become smaller and younger at maturation across their range (Ohlberger 2018). Other Pacific salmon species (Stachura et al. 2014) and Atlantic salmon (Olmos et al. 2020) also have demonstrated synchrony in productivity across a broad latitudinal range.

At the individual scale, climate impacts on salmon in one life stage generally affect body size or timing in the next life stage and negative impacts can accumulate across multiple life stages (Gosselin et al. 2021; Healey 2011; Wainwright and Weitkamp 2013). Changes in winter precipitation will likely affect incubation and/or rearing stages of most populations. Changes in the intensity of cool season precipitation, snow accumulation, and runoff could influence migration cues for fall, winter and spring adult migrants, such as coho and steelhead. Egg survival rates may suffer from more intense flooding that scours or buries redds. Changes in hydrological regime, such as a shift from mostly snow to more rain, could drive changes in life history, potentially threatening diversity within an ESU (Beechie et al. 2006). Changes in summer temperature and flow will affect both juvenile and adult stages in some populations, especially those with yearling life histories and summer migration patterns (Crozier and Zabel 2006; Crozier et al. 2010; Crozier et al. 2019).

At the population level, the ability of organisms to genetically adapt to climate change depends on how much genetic variation currently exists within salmon populations, as well as how selection on multiple traits interact, and whether those traits are linked genetically. While genetic diversity may help populations respond to climate change, the remaining genetic diversity of many populations is highly reduced compared to historic levels. For example, Johnson et al. (2018), compared genetic variation in Chinook salmon from the Columbia River Basin between contemporary and ancient samples. A total of 84 samples determined to be Chinook salmon were collected from vertebrae found in ancient middens and compared to 379 contemporary samples. Results suggest a decline in genetic diversity, as demonstrated by a loss of mitochondrial haplotypes as well as reductions in haplotype and nucleotide diversity. Genetic losses in this comparison appeared larger for Chinook from the mid-Columbia than those from the Snake River Basin. In addition to other stressors, modified habitats and flow regimes may create unnatural selection pressures that reduce the diversity of functional behaviors (Sturrock et al. 2020). Managing to conserve and augment existing genetic diversity may be increasingly important with more extreme environmental change (Anderson et al. 2015), though the low levels of remaining diversity present challenges to this effort (Freshwater 2019). Salmon historically maintained relatively consistent returns across variation in annual weather through the portfolio effect (Schindler et al. 2015), in which different populations are sensitive to

different climate drivers. Applying this concept to climate change, Anderson et al (2015) emphasized the additional need for populations with different physiological tolerances. Loss of the portfolio increases volatility in fisheries, as well as ecological systems, as demonstrated for Fraser River and Sacramento River stock complexes (Freshwater et al. 2019; Munsch et al. 2022).

Environmental conditions at the project site and the surrounding area

The project site is located in Seattle, Washington, on the northeast shore of Lake Union, along the Lake Washington Ship Canal (Figure 1). Although the action area includes the marine waters of Puget Sound, all detectable effects of the action would be limited to the freshwaters between the project site and the Chittenden Locks (Section 2.5). Therefore, this discussion focuses on habitat conditions in Lake Washington, and does not discuss Puget Sound habitat conditions.

The geography and ecosystems in and adjacent to Lake Union have been dramatically altered by human activity since European settlers first arrived in the 1800s. Historically, a small stream flowed from Lake Union to Shilshole Bay, with no surface water connection between Lake Union and Lake Washington. The waters of Lake Washington flowed south to the Duwamish River via the now absent Black River. The ship canal was created by intense dredging and excavation that began in the 1880s to provide a navigable passage between Lake Washington and the marine waters of Shilshole Bay. It was completed in 1916. As part of this, the Hiram M. Chittenden Locks (aka Ballard Locks) were constructed west of Salmon Bay to maintain navigable water levels in the canal and lakes. This permanently converted Salmon Bay from an estuary to freshwater.

The canal is 8.6 miles long, about 150 to 260 feet wide in the cuts, and widens at Portage Bay, Lake Union, and Salmon Bay (Figure 1). Flows through canal are highly controlled by the locks, and are typically very slow. The canal supports high levels of commercial and recreational vessel traffic. Very little natural shoreline exists along the banks of the ship canal. Instead of slopes that gently rise to the surface, as typically occurs along the banks of natural streams, the bank slope along most of the canal is vertical. In cross-section, the canal closely resembles an elongated box culvert along most of its length, and about 96% of the canal's banks are armored (City of Seattle 2008). The depths along the edges are typically between 10 and 20 feet, and the average depth in the navigational channel is about 30 feet.

The vast majority of the canal is lined by shipyards, industrial properties, large marinas, and residential piers. Unbroken urban development extends north and south immediately landward of both shorelines. With the exception of the southern shoreline of Portage Bay, and along the armored banks of the Fremont and Mountlake Cuts, very little riparian vegetation exists along the banks of the canal.

The artificial shorelines and widespread presence of overwater structures along the length of the canal and much of Lake Union provide habitat conditions that favor fish species that prey on juvenile salmonids, such as the non-native smallmouth bass. Other predators in the canal include the native northern pikeminnow and the non-native largemouth bass (Celedonia et al. 2008a and b; Tabor et al. 2010). Tabor et al. (2010) estimated that about 3,400 smallmouth bass and 2,500

largemouth bass, large enough to consume salmon smolt were in the ship canal. They also estimated that smallmouth bass consumed about 48,000 salmon smolts annually, while largemouth bass consumed about 4,200 smolts. Of those, over half were Chinook salmon. Predation appeared to be highest near Portage Bay in June when smolts made up approximately 50% of the diet for smallmouth bass, and about 45% for northern pikeminnow. Returning adult salmon and steelhead are often exposed to excessive predation by pinniped marine mammals (seals and sea lions) that feed on the fish that accumulate downstream of the fish ladder at the locks.

Water quality within the canal is influenced by the inflow of freshwater from Lake Washington, by point and non-point discharges all along the waterway, and by a saltwater lens that intrudes through the Ballard Locks. Industrial, commercial, and residential development has impacted water quality in the lake since before the canal was completed. Lumber and plywood mills, machine shops, metal foundries, fuel and oil facilities, concrete and asphalt companies, power plants, shipyards, marinas, commercial docks, and houseboats were quickly developed along the shoreline of the lake and canal. Virtually all of the early industrial, commercial, and residential facilities discharged untreated wastes directly to the lake and canal, some of which persisted into the 1940s and beyond. Stormwater drainage has, and continues to add to pollutant loading. Most of the direct discharge of raw sewage was stopped and the gas plant ceased operation during the 1960s.

Since 1979, water temperatures in the ship canal have increased an average of 1° Celsius (C) per decade, with temperatures that can reach 20 to 22° C during the summer and early fall, and the number of days that temperatures are in that range is increasing (City of Seattle 2010). Temperatures of 23 to 25° C can be lethal for salmon. Saltwater intrusion through the locks creates a wedge of high-density saltwater that can extend into and past Lake Union during low flow periods, and often becomes anoxic early in the summer as bacteria consume organics in the sediment. Dissolved oxygen concentrations range from 9.5 to 12.6 mg/L during the winter and spring, but can decrease to as low as 1 mg/L during the summer months.

Today, the overall water quality in the canal has improved substantially compared to the 1960s. However, the waters of the canal and Lake Union, including the project site, are identified on the current Washington State Department of Ecology (WDOE) 303(d) list of threatened and impaired water bodies for lead and temperature (Category 5). Other water quality listings at the project site include total phosphorus and bacteria (Category 1) (WDOE 2023). WDOE documents no sediment contamination at the project site.

The past and ongoing anthropogenic impacts described above have impacted these species and the attributes of critical habitat at the project site and surrounding areas. However, adult and juvenile PS Chinook salmon and PS steelhead continue to migrate through the project area annually.

2.5 Effects of the Action

Under the ESA, “effects of the action” are all consequences to listed species or critical habitat that are caused by the proposed action, including the consequences of other activities that are

caused by the proposed action (see 50 CFR 402.02). A consequence is caused by the proposed action if it would not occur but for the proposed action and it is reasonably certain to occur. Effects of the action may occur later in time and may include consequences occurring outside the immediate area involved in the action (see 50 CFR 402.17). In our analysis, which describes the effects of the proposed action, we considered the factors set forth in 50 CFR 402.17(a) and (b).

As described in Section 1.3, the USACE would authorize SPU to perform about 10 days of work, including up to 3 days of in-water work, that would be conducted during the October 1 through April 15 in-water window for Lake Union. Work would be done from the land. The project would replace a 10-foot long section of a stormwater outfall pipe, including the installation of a new cartridge filter stormwater treatment system, and repair about 6 linear feet of rockery under the outfall, which would extend about 2 feet below the OHWM of the lake (Figure 2).

The proposed action would cause temporary direct effects on fish and habitat resources through work-related elevated in-water noise and degraded water quality. The USACE's authorization of the project would also have the additional effect of extending the functional lives of the repaired outfall pipe and the repaired rockery by several decades beyond their existing conditions. Over that time, the proposed action would indirectly affect fish and habitat resources through outfall-related stormwater discharge and rockery-related artificial shoreline conditions.

The project's work window avoids the normal migration seasons for juvenile and adult PS Chinook salmon. Although the work window overlaps slightly with the normal migration seasons for juvenile and adult PS steelhead, PS steelhead are very rare in the Lake Washington watershed. Therefore, it is extremely unlikely that either species would be exposed to the direct effects of the proposed action. However, both species could be exposed to the action's long-term indirect effects which would occur year-round.

The normal behaviors of juvenile Chinook salmon in the freshwater emigration phase of their life cycle include a strong tendency toward shoreline obligation. This means that they are biologically compelled to follow and stay close to streambanks and shorelines. Consequently, some juvenile Chinook salmon are likely to pass through and forage within the project area during their annual emigration season. Out-migrating juvenile steelhead are much less tied to shoreline habitats. However, it is likely that over the proposed action's years-long effects some emigrating juvenile steelhead would occasionally pass through and forage within the project area.

Conversely, adults of both species are most likely to stay close to the center of the ship canal during their migration back to their natal streams. As such, they are very unlikely approach or linger near the project area. Further, based on their size and the cessation of feeding while in freshwater, especially for Chinook salmon, they are very unlikely to be measurably affected by exposure to any of the project's indirect effects. For this reason, the remainder of this analysis focuses on the juveniles of both species, and on the PBFs of PS Chinook salmon critical habitat.

2.5.1 Effects on Listed Species

Effects on species are a function of exposure and response. The duration, intensity, and frequency of exposure, and the life stage at exposure all influence the degree of response.

Work-related Direct Effects

Because both of those species are extremely unlikely to be present during the proposed work window, it is extremely unlikely that individuals of either species would be exposed to or affected by any work-related direct effects.

Stormwater

The continued discharge of stormwater through SPU's repaired outfall would adversely affect juvenile PS Chinook salmon and juvenile PS steelhead through direct exposure to water-borne pollutants, and indirectly through forage diminishment. SPU's outfall is located slightly above the OHWM along the shore of Lake Union, where it discharges stormwater from about 2.4 acres of urban landscape, about half of which, 1.1 acres, is impervious surface (9,500 SF of roadway, 2,100 SF of sidewalk, and 34,800 SF of rooftop from a large multi-use building), and 1.3 acres of pervious area (SPU 2022d). The major sources of pollutants in the stormwater discharged through the outfall would most likely consist of vehicle-related pollutants that accumulate on roadways within the outfall's catchment area (Mcintyre et al. 2015; McQueen et al. 2010; Peter et al. 2018; Spromberg et al. 2015), as well as pollutants that come from building rooftops (WDOE 2008, 2014).

The full suite of roadway-related chemicals now numbers in the thousands. However, three distinct but co-occurring classes of harmful vehicle-related pollutants have been identified, and are ubiquitous in roadway stormwater runoff: Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons (PAHs), N-(1,3-dimethylbutyl)-N'-phenyl-p-phenylenediamine (6PPD) and its abiotic transformation product 6PPD-quinone (6PPD-q) (NWFSC 2022a; 2022b), and metals, particularly copper and zinc.

Many common roofing materials leach metals, particularly arsenic, copper, and zinc (WDOE 2014). Rooftop structures such as air conditioners and ducting that are made of unprotected galvanized steel can leach high levels of zinc (WDOE 2008). Additionally, roof runoff is likely to contain pollutants that accumulate through atmospheric deposition (Lye 2009).

Fish can uptake contaminants directly through their gills, and through dietary exposure (Karrow et al. 1999; Lee and Dobbs 1972; McCain et al. 1990; Meador et al. 2006; Neff 1982; Varanasi et al. 1993). Depending on the pollutant, its concentration, and/or the duration of exposure, exposed fish may experience effects that can range from avoidance of an affected area, to reduced growth, altered immune function, and mortality (Beitinger and Freeman 1983; Brette et al. 2014; Feist et al. 2011; Gobel et al. 2007; Incardona et al. 2004, 2005, and 2006; McIntyre et al. 2012; Meadore et al. 2006; Sandahl et al. 2007; Spromberg et al. 2015). Beitinger and Freeman (1983) report that fish possess acute chemical discrimination abilities, and that exposure to very low concentrations of some water-borne pollutants can trigger strong avoidance behaviors.

PAH toxicity in fish, including salmonids, is often sub-lethal and delayed in time, but all fish species studied to date are vulnerable to PAH toxicity, with thresholds for severe developmental abnormalities often in the low parts-per-billion ($\mu\text{g/L}$) range. PAHs bioconcentrate to high levels in fertilized fish eggs, and have been shown to cause complete heart failure and extra-cardiac defects that often lead to mortality at or soon after hatching. In larval fish, PAH exposure has been shown to cause abnormal development of the heart, eye and jaw structure, and energy reserves (Harding et al. 2020; NWFSC 2022a; 2022b). In juvenile fish, PAHs can cause reduced growth, increased susceptibility to infection, and increased mortality (Eisler 1987; Meador et al. 2006; Varanasi et al. 1993). Gill tissues are highly susceptible to damage from PAHs present in the water (USACE 2016). Other effects include damage to the skin, fins, and eyes, as well as damage to internal organs such as liver tumors.

6PPD is a tire additive. It and 6PPD-q are highly toxic to salmonids, and are the primary cause of urban pre-spawn mortality syndrome in adult Puget Sound coho (Tian et al. 2020). The mechanisms underlying mortality in salmonids is under investigation, but likely involve cardiorespiratory disruption (NWFSC 2022a). Preliminary evidence indicates an uneven vulnerability in Puget Sound salmon and steelhead exposed to 6PPD/6PPD-q. Coho are extremely sensitive, with the onset of mortality normally occurring within the duration of a typical runoff event. The onset of mortality in Chinook salmon and steelhead is more delayed, whereas chum salmon are not known to experience the lethal response to exposure (Chow 2019; McIntyre et al. 2015 and 2018; NWFSC 2022a).

Copper is one of the most common heavy metals in stormwater originating from urban areas. Copper is highly toxic to aquatic biota, and ESA-listed salmon and steelhead can experience a variety of acute and chronic lethal and sub-lethal effects from exposure to it (NMFS 2014). In freshwater, exposure to dissolved copper at very low concentrations (between 0.3 to 3.2 $\mu\text{g/L}$) above background levels has been shown to cause avoidance of an area, to reduce salmonid olfaction, and to induce behaviors that increase juvenile salmon's vulnerability to predators (Giattina et al. 1982; Hecht et al. 2007; McIntyre et al. 2012; Sommers et al. 2016; Tierney et al. 2010). Also, copper bio-accumulates in invertebrates and fish (Feist et al. 2005; Layshock et al. 2021), is redox-active, and interacts with or alters many compounds in mixtures (Gauthier et al. 2015). Copper-PAH mixtures, which interact synergistically, are highly toxic through several exacerbating mechanisms: copper weakens cell membranes increasing absorption of PAHs, copper chelates or hastens and preserves the bio-accumulative toxicity of PAHs; and PAHs in turn increase the bio-accumulative and redox properties of Copper (Gauthier et al. 2015).

Zinc is another heavy metal commonly found in stormwater originating from urban areas. In freshwater, exposure to dissolved zinc at 5.6 $\mu\text{g/L}$ causes strong avoidance behaviors in rainbow trout, and at 560 $\mu\text{g/L}$ to cause mortality (Sprague 1968). In freshwater fish, zinc affects the gill epithelium, which leads to tissue hypoxia, reduced immunity, and may cause acute osmoregulatory failure, acidosis, and low oxygen tensions in arterial blood (Eisler 1993) and suffocation (WDOE 2008). The toxicity of mixtures of zinc with other metals is mostly additive, but the toxicity of zinc-copper mixtures is typically synergistic for freshwater fish and invertebrates (de March 1988; Skidmore 1964).

Water-borne pollutants: Stormwater would flow to Lake Union through the replaced outfall for the next several decades. The proposed Contech dual unit, four cartridge, StormFilter concrete catch basin stormwater treatment system with “Phosphosorb” cartridges has General Use Level Designation (GULD) from the WDOE for total suspended sediments (TSS; Basic) and for Phosphorus, with a finding that the system removes about 80% of TSS and at least 50% of total Phosphorous (WDOE 2017). Although the system isn’t designed to filter out 6PPD/6PPD-q, studies have shown running stormwater through bioretention components as simple as compost and sand can prevent the acute lethal effects of 6PPD/6PPD-q on coho salmon (Spromberg et al. 2015). Similarly, because some stormwater-born petroleum-based pollutants and metals would adsorb onto sediments, the system would probably reduce the concentration of those pollutants to some degree. Based on the available information, the proposed treatment system would remove most of the TSS and at least half of the phosphorus from the stormwater before it is discharged to Lake Union, and it would probably remove some of the 6PPD/6PPD-q, petroleum-based pollutants, and metals. However, it is almost certain that some harmful pollutants would pass through the system and be discharged to the lake.

The pollutant concentrations in the outfall’s discharges are uncertain and likely to be highly variable over time. They would also be additive to the background pollutant concentrations that exist at the project site from the high number of marinas and houseboat-mooring piers, the high levels of vessel operation, and the numerous outfalls that discharge stormwater into Lake Union. The periodicity and flow volumes of stormwater discharge events would be highly variable, with most occurring between fall and spring. Similarly, pollutant concentrations would be highly variable over time. Pollutant concentrations would be positively correlated with the volume of traffic in the service area, and with the length of time between precipitation events. The highest pollutant concentrations would likely occur near the start of heavy downpours that occur after extended dry periods that allow pollutants to build-up on roadways, parking areas, and rooftops. Lower concentrations would occur after the “first flush” of a given storm, as well as later in the rainy season when precipitation events are more frequent and limit the build-up of pollutants. Consequently, the distance from the outfall where pollutant concentrations would be too low to cause detectable direct and or indirect effects would also be highly variable.

The small size of the contributing basin, the relatively low levels of vehicular traffic in the area, and the inclusion of the stormwater treatment system supports the expectation that the affected area would be relatively small in most cases. However, because 6PPD/6PPD-q floats and remains highly toxic long after entering aquatic environments, and to be protective of ESA-listed resources, this assessment assumes that the area of affect for water-borne pollutants discharged from the subject outfall could extend to the Chittenden Locks.

Based on the best available information, the NMFS expects that within the area adjacent to the repaired outfall, action-related stormwater discharges would episodically cause the in-water pollutant concentrations to exceed thresholds for the onset of meaningful effects in exposed juvenile salmonids. The NMFS further expects that that over the life of the repaired outfall, the presence of pollutant concentrations above the threshold for the onset of meaningful effects in juvenile salmonids would occasionally overlap with the presence of some juvenile Chinook salmon and juvenile steelhead.

Forage Diminishment: Juvenile salmonids feed on planktonic organisms such as amphipods, copepods, and euphausiids, as well as the larvae of benthic species and fish (NMFS 2006). The proposed action is likely to reduce the availability and quality of these forage organisms through the introduction of stormwater-borne pollutants at the project site.

As discussed above, over the life of the repaired outfall, small amounts of pollutants that are harmful to fish and other aquatic organisms are likely to routinely enter the lake through the repaired stormwater outfall. Those pollutants would be biologically present in the water column until they evaporate at the surface, are diluted below detectable levels, and or settle to the bottom, where they are likely to accumulate. While present, some of those pollutants are likely to be taken up by small aquatic organisms, some of which would be consumed by juvenile PS Chinook salmon and juvenile PS steelhead that forage within the affected area.

Amphipods and copepods uptake contaminants such as PAHs from contaminated sediments (Landrum and Scavia 1983; Landrum et al. 1984; Neff 1982), and pass them to juvenile Chinook salmon and other small fish through the food web. Varanasi et al. (1993) found high levels of PAHs in the stomach contents of juvenile Chinook salmon in the contaminated Duwamish Waterway. They also reported reduced growth, suppressed immune competence, as well as increased mortality in juvenile Chinook salmon that was likely caused by the dietary exposure to PAHs. Meador et al. (2006) demonstrated that dietary exposure to PAHs caused “toxicant-induced starvation” with reduced growth and reduced lipid stores in juvenile Chinook salmon. The authors surmised that these impacts could severely impact the odds of survival in affected juvenile Chinook salmon.

Additionally, action-related pollutants may sicken or kill some planktonic and small benthic organisms, diminishing the number, size, and diversity of forage organisms that would be available within the affected area (Spromberg et al. 2016). When juvenile fish encounter areas of diminished prey availability, feeding efficiency is reduced, which can cause fitness impacts that would reduce the long-term survivability of impacted individuals. It can also increase intraspecific competition that may force less competitive individuals into even less supportive foraging areas, potentially increasing interspecific mortality (Auer et al. 2020; Biro and Stamps 2010).

Artificial shoreline

Over its extended functional life, the 6-foot wide section of repaired rockery would maintain habitat conditions at the project site that are likely to adversely affect juvenile PS Chinook salmon and juvenile PS steelhead through altered biological processes and artificial shoreline conditions. Because the juvenile Chinook salmon that annually emigrate through the ship canal and Lake Union would be biologically driven to follow as close to the shoreline as possible, it is extremely likely that some juvenile Chinook salmon would pass through the affected area annually. Although less driven to remain close to the shoreline during their emigration, over the life of the repaired rockery, it is extremely likely that some juvenile steelhead would occasionally pass through the affected area as well.

The exact impacts that the repaired rockery section would cause are uncertain, but when compared to a similar length of undisturbed lakeside habitat, the impacts could include increased water temperatures due to reduced shade due to absence of riparian vegetation, reduced availability and or quality of forage resources due to reduced input of terrestrial-origin organic material, and altered behaviors and increased exposure to predators due to artificial shoreline conditions. If considered in isolation, the impacts on biological processes and artificial shoreline conditions for the 6-foot wide section of repaired rockery might be too small to cause meaningful effects on juvenile salmonids. However, the section to be repaired is in the middle of a length of rock armoring that is over 50 feet long. Therefore, as a minimum, the impacts of the repaired and unrepaired sections would be additive to each other. So, to avoid underestimating potential impacts on listed resources, this assessment considers the contiguous 50 feet of rock armoring.

Combined with the surrounding rock armoring, the repaired rockery would continue to prevent the growth of riparian vegetation along that section of the lake shore. However, the continued absence of riparian vegetation at the project site is not expected to cause any meaningful increase of water temperature in Lake Union. This is because the project site is located along a lake shore where riparian vegetation can shade only a very small portion of the waterbody's total area, as compared to a narrow stream where riparian vegetation can completely shade the water. However, the reduced input of terrestrial-origin organic material that would result from the continued absence of riparian vegetation would maintain conditions that may reduce the availability and or quality of forage resources for juvenile salmonids at the site.

Combined with the surrounding rock armoring, the repaired rockery would maintain artificial shoreline conditions that are likely to alter the natural behaviors of emigrating juvenile salmonids. The artificial shoreline conditions would also decrease forage efficiency and increase exposure and vulnerability to predators for emigrating juvenile salmonids.

Studies show that juvenile salmonids tend to select natural banks over hardened ones, and that the habitat provided by armored banks is typically degraded as compared to natural banks. Juvenile salmonids are consistently more abundant along natural banks with wood, cobble, boulder, aquatic plants, and or undercut bank cover than they are along rip rap banks (Beamer and Henderson 1998; Peters et al. 1998). In a study of 667 bank stabilization structures of various designs in Washington State, fish densities were generally positively correlated with increased amounts of large woody debris and overhead vegetation within 30 cm of the water surface. Conversely, fish densities at sites that were stabilized by rip rap alone were consistently lower (Peters et al. 1998). Based on this information, it is likely that some migrating juvenile Chinook salmon would avoid the rockery, which may delay their migration past the site and or induce juveniles to swim in deeper water to avoid the rockery. Migratory delays are not likely for juvenile steelhead because shoreline obligation tends to cease after smoltification.

The deepened water that occurs along face of most rock revetments increases the energetic costs of foraging due to decreased forage density (Heerhartz and Toft 2015), which may be exacerbated by the reduced forage availability and or quality that would result from the lack of riparian vegetation at the site. Therefore, some of the emigrating juvenile salmonids that pass through the affected area are likely to experience some level of suboptimal forage resources and reduced forage efficiency.

The rockery may also increase juvenile salmonids' exposure and vulnerability to predation. The bankside habitat that is created by rip rap is often preferred by predatory species such as sculpins and trout. Sculpins are sedentary benthic fish that prey on juvenile salmonids. Edwards and Cunjak (2007) found that sculpins prefer unembedded rock and cobble substrates similar to riprap, and Peters et al. (1998) similarly found that trout larger than 200mm occur at greater densities along riprap than along natural banks. This information supports the expectation of increased levels of piscivorous predation on juvenile salmonids near riprap. Further, armoring typically steepens banks, which places juvenile salmonids in deeper waters where predators are more able to swim. Willette (2001) found that piscivorous predation of juvenile salmon increased fivefold when the juvenile salmon were forced to leave shallow nearshore habitats. Although Willette's study was done in marine waters, it is reasonable to expect that a similar increase in predation would occur in freshwater systems under similar conditions.

The small size of the affected area supports the expectation that, for any particular individual passing through the affected area, the probability of experiencing meaningful impacts that would be attributable to the artificial shoreline would be relatively low. However, it is very likely that over an entire emigration season, some of the juvenile PS Chinook salmon that pass through the affected area would experience reduced fitness or predation due to the conditions that would be maintained by the rockery. Over the life of the rockery, some of the juvenile PS steelhead that pass through the affected area would be similarly affected.

In summary: Some of the juvenile Chinook salmon and juvenile steelhead that annually swim through the affected area would be exposed to some combination of: 1) fitness impacts from direct exposure to water-borne pollutants; 2) fitness impacts from forage diminishment due to stormwater-borne pollutants and reduced input of terrestrial-origin organic material; 3) altered behaviors due to the presence of stormwater-borne pollutants and artificial shoreline conditions; and 4) increased exposure to predators due to artificial shoreline conditions. It is likely that some of the juvenile PS Chinook salmon that pass through the affected area would experience action-attributable reduced fitness or predation each emigration season, and that some of the juvenile PS steelhead that pass through the affected area would be similarly affected over the life of the outfall and rockery.

The annual numbers of either species that may be exposed to these stressors are unquantifiable with any degree of certainty, and are likely to be highly variable over time. Similarly, the intensity of effect, separately or in combination, that any individual may experience is uncertain likely to be highly variable over time. The best available information about the numerous routes taken by juvenile salmonids emigrating through the canal and Lake Union support the understanding that the juvenile PS Chinook salmon and juvenile PS steelhead that would annually emigrate through the project area would be small and variable subsets of their respective populations' cohorts.

Further, the probability of exposure to meaningful action-attributable in-water pollutant concentrations would be very low for most juvenile salmonids due to the temporal separation between their emigration seasons and the start of the storm season when pollutant concentrations are likely to be highest. Similarly, the small volumes of stormwater and the small size of the rockery support the expectation that, for any particular fish that passes along the project area, the

probability of meaningful trophic connectivity to action-attributable forage diminishment would be very low, as would be the probability of experiencing meaningful action-attributable behavioral effects and or predation. Therefore, the annual numbers of juvenile PS Chinook salmon and juvenile PS steelhead that would be meaningfully affected by action-attributable impacts would be too small to cause detectable population-level effects.

2.5.2 Effects on Critical Habitat

This assessment considers the intensity of expected effects in terms of the change they would cause in affected Primary Biological Features (PBFs) from their baseline conditions, and the severity of each effect, considered in terms of the time required to recover from the effect. Ephemeral effects are those that are likely to last for hours or days, short-term effects would likely last for weeks, and long-term effects are likely to last for months, years or decades.

Critical Habitat for PS Chinook salmon: The proposed action, including full application of the planned conservation measures and BMPs, is likely to adversely affect designated critical habitat for PS Chinook salmon as described below.

1. Freshwater spawning sites: – Outside of the expected range of detectable effects.
2. Freshwater rearing sites: – Outside of the expected range of detectable effects.
3. Freshwater migration corridors free of obstruction and excessive predation:
 - a. Obstruction and excessive predation – The proposed project would cause minor long-term adverse effects on this attribute. The repaired rockery would maintain conditions at the site that may alter migratory behaviors and or increase the risk of predation for some juvenile Chinook salmon that migrate past the project site.
 - b. Water quantity – The proposed project would cause no effect on this attribute.
 - c. Water quality – The proposed action would cause minor short- and long-term adverse effects on this attribute. Demolition and construction would cause short-term adverse effects on water quality that would be mostly contained within sediment curtains, and would persist no more than a low number of hours after work stops. Also, the repaired outfall would continue to discharge stormwater to Lake Union. The catchment area for the outfall is relatively small, and the project would include a stormwater treatment system, which currently doesn't exist. However, the treatment system isn't designed to remove metals or petroleum-based pollutants. Therefore, some fish-toxic pollutants would continue to enter Lake Union through the outfall. The range of detectable water quality impacts is protectively assumed to extend from the project site to the Chittenden Locks. The action would cause no measurable changes in water temperature or salinity.
 - d. Natural Cover – The proposed action would cause minor long-term adverse effects on this attribute. The repaired rockery would perpetuate conditions that act to limit the growth of riparian vegetation at the site, which would limit the availability of natural cover that would normally be provided by branches that fall into the water from riparian vegetation. The rockery would also prevent the formation of natural bank features that can also provide cover.

4. Estuarine areas free of obstruction and excessive predation: – Outside of the expected range of detectable effects.
5. Nearshore marine areas free of obstruction and excessive predation: – Outside of the expected range of detectable effects.
6. Offshore marine areas: – Outside of the expected range of detectable effects.

2.6 Cumulative Effects

“Cumulative effects” are those effects of future State or private activities, not involving Federal activities, that are reasonably certain to occur within the action area of the Federal action subject to consultation [50 CFR 402.02 and 402.17(a)]. Future Federal actions that are unrelated to the proposed action are not considered in this section because they require separate consultation pursuant to section 7 of the ESA.

Some continuing non-Federal activities are reasonably certain to contribute to climate effects within the action area. However, it is difficult if not impossible to distinguish between the action area’s future environmental conditions caused by global climate change that are properly part of the environmental baseline *vs.* cumulative effects. Therefore, all relevant future climate-related environmental conditions in the action area are described in the discussion of the environmental baseline (Section 2.4).

The current conditions of ESA-listed species and designated critical habitat within the action area are described in the Range-wide Status of the Species and Critical Habitat and Environmental Baseline sections above. The non-federal activities in and upstream of the action area that have contributed to those conditions include past and on-going bankside development, vessel activities, and upland urbanization, as well as upstream forest management, agriculture, road construction, water development, subsistence and recreational fishing, and restoration activities. Those actions were, and continue to be, driven by a combination of economic conditions that characterized traditional natural resource-based industries, general resource demands associated with settlement of local and regional population centers, and the efforts of conservation groups dedicated to restoration and use of natural amenities, such as cultural inspiration and recreational experiences.

The NMFS is unaware of any specific future non-federal activities that are reasonably certain to affect the action area. However, the NMFS is reasonably certain that future non-federal actions such as the previously mentioned activities are all likely to continue and increase in the future as the human population continues to grow across the region. Continued habitat loss and degradation of water quality from development and chronic input from point- and non-point pollutant sources will likely continue and increase into the future. Recreational and commercial use of the waters within the action area are also likely to increase as the human population grows.

The intensity of these influences depends on many social and economic factors, and therefore is difficult to predict. Further, the adoption of more environmentally acceptable practices and standards may gradually reduce some negative environmental impacts over time. Interest in

restoration activities has increased as environmental awareness rises among the public. State, tribal, and local governments have developed plans and initiatives to benefit ESA-listed PS Chinook salmon and PS steelhead. However, the implementation of plans, initiatives, and specific restoration projects are often subject to political, legislative, and fiscal challenges that increase the uncertainty of their success.

2.7 Integration and Synthesis

The Integration and Synthesis section is the final step in assessing the risk that the proposed action poses to species and critical habitat. In this section, we add the effects of the action (Section 2.5) to the environmental baseline (Section 2.4) and the cumulative effects (Section 2.6), taking into account the status of the species and critical habitat (Section 2.2), to formulate the agency's biological opinion as to whether the proposed action is likely to: (1) reduce appreciably the likelihood of both the survival and recovery of a listed species in the wild by reducing its numbers, reproduction, or distribution; or (2) appreciably diminish the value of designated or proposed critical habitat as a whole for the conservation of the species.

As described in more detail above in Section 2.4, climate change is likely to increasingly affect the abundance and distribution of the ESA-listed species considered in the opinion. It is also likely to increasingly affect the PBFs of designated critical habitats. The exact effects of climate change are both uncertain, and unlikely to be spatially homogeneous. However, climate change is reasonably likely to cause reduced instream flows in some systems, and may impact water quality through elevated in-stream water temperatures and reduced dissolved oxygen, as well as by causing more frequent and more intense flooding events.

Climate change may also impact coastal waters through elevated surface water temperature, increased and variable acidity, increasing storm frequency and magnitude, and rising sea levels. The adaptive ability of listed-species is uncertain, but is likely reduced due to reductions in population size, habitat quantity and diversity, and loss of behavioral and genetic variation.

The proposed action will cause direct and indirect effects on the ESA-listed species and critical habitats considered in this opinion well into the foreseeable future. However, the action's effects on water quality, substrate, and the biological environment are expected to be of such a small scale that no detectable effects on ESA-listed species or critical habitat through synergistic interactions with the impacts of climate change are expected.

2.7.1 ESA Listed Species

PS Chinook salmon and PS steelhead are both listed as threatened based on declines from historic levels of abundance and productivity, loss of spatial structure and diversity, and an array of limiting factors as a baseline habitat condition. Both species will be affected over time by cumulative effects, some positive – as recovery plan implementation and regulatory revisions increase habitat protections and restoration, and some negative – as climate change and unregulated or difficult to regulate sources of environmental degradation persist or increase. Overall, to the degree that habitat trends are negative, the effects on viability parameters of each

species are also likely to be negative. In this context we consider how the proposed action's impacts on individuals would affect the listed species at the population and ESU/DPS scales.

PS Chinook salmon

The long-term abundance trend of the PS Chinook salmon ESU is slightly negative. Reduced or eliminated accessibility to historically important habitat, combined with degraded conditions in available habitat due to land use activities appear to be the greatest threats to the recovery of PS Chinook salmon. Commercial and recreational fisheries also continue to impact this species. The most recent 5-year status review reported a general decline in natural-origin spawner abundance across all PS Chinook salmon MPGs over the most-recent fifteen years. It also reported that escapement levels remain well below the PSTRT planning ranges for recovery for all MPGs, and concluded that the PS Chinook salmon ESU remains at "moderate" risk of extinction (Ford 2022).

The PS Chinook salmon most likely to occur in the action area would be fall-run Chinook salmon from the Cedar River and the Sammamish River populations, both of which are part of the South Puget Sound MPG. Both populations are considered at high risk of extinction due to low abundance and productivity.

The project site is located along the east bank of Lake Union (Figure 1), which serves as a freshwater migration route to and from marine waters for adult and juvenile PS Chinook salmon from both affected populations. The environmental baseline within the action area has been degraded by the effects of nearby intense bankside development and maritime activities, and by nearby and upstream industry, urbanization, agriculture, forestry, water diversion, and road building and maintenance.

The action's in-water work window avoids the normal migration seasons for juvenile and adult PS Chinook salmon. However, over the next few decades, very small subsets of the emigrating juveniles that annually pass close to the project site would experience some combination of altered behaviors, reduced fitness, and predation due to action-related altered habitat conditions, but the annual numbers of meaningfully affected individuals is expected to be too low to cause any population-level effects.

Based on the best available information, the scale of the direct and indirect effects of the proposed action, when considered in combination with the degraded baseline, cumulative effects, and the impacts of climate change, would be too small to cause detectable effects on any of the characteristics of a viable salmon population (abundance, productivity, distribution, or genetic diversity) for the affected PS Chinook salmon populations. Therefore, the proposed action would not appreciably reduce the likelihood of survival and recovery of this listed species.

PS steelhead

The long-term abundance trend of the PS steelhead DPS is negative, especially for natural spawners. Abundance information is unavailable for about 1/3 of the DIPs. In most cases where no information is available, abundances are assumed to be very low. Although most DIPs for

which data are available experienced improved abundance over the last five years, 95% of those DIPs are at less than half of their lower abundance target for recovery. The extinction risk for the Puget Sound steelhead DPS is considered moderate. Reduced or eliminated accessibility to historically important habitat, combined with degraded conditions in available habitat due to land use activities appear to be the greatest threats to the recovery of PS steelhead. Fisheries activities also continue to impact this species Ford 2022.

The PS steelhead most likely to occur in the action area would be winter-run fish from the Cedar River DIP, and North Lake Washington and Lake Sammamish DIP. The Cedar River PS steelhead DIP is small, of unknown stock with natural production, but with a strongly negative long-term abundance trend. The North Lake Washington and Lake Sammamish DIP is extremely small, of unknown stock origin, with less than 10 adults returning annually since 1994.

The project site is located along the east bank of Lake Union (Figure 1), which serves as a freshwater migration route to and from marine waters for adult and juvenile PS steelhead from both affected DIPs. The environmental baseline within the action area has been degraded by the effects of nearby intense bankside development and maritime activities, and by nearby and upstream industry, urbanization, agriculture, forestry, water diversion, and road building and maintenance.

Based on the rarity of PS steelhead in the watershed, combined with the small project area and the relatively short duration of the project's in-water work, it is extremely unlikely that any steelhead would be directly exposed to work-related effects. However, over the life of the project, extremely low numbers of emigrating juveniles may pass close to the project site, where it is reasonably likely that some subset of the exposed individuals would experience some combination of altered behaviors, reduced fitness, and predation due to action-related altered habitat conditions, but the annual numbers of meaningfully affected individuals is expected to be too low to cause any population-level effects.

Based on the best available information, the scale of the direct and indirect effects of the proposed action, when considered in combination with the degraded baseline, cumulative effects, and the impacts of climate change, would be too small to cause detectable effects on any of the characteristics of a viable salmon population (abundance, productivity, distribution, or genetic diversity) for the affected PS steelhead DIPs. Therefore, the proposed action would not appreciably reduce the likelihood of survival and recovery of this listed species.

2.7.2 Critical Habitat

Critical habitat was designated for PS Chinook salmon to ensure that specific areas with PBFs that are essential to the conservation of that listed species are appropriately managed or protected. The critical habitat for PS Chinook salmon will be affected over time by cumulative effects, some positive – as restoration efforts and regulatory revisions increase habitat protections and restoration, and some negative – as climate change and unregulated or difficult to regulate sources of environmental degradation persist or increase. Overall, to the degree that trends are negative, the effects on the PBFs of critical habitat for PS Chinook salmon are also likely to be negative. In this context we consider how the proposed action's impacts on the

attributes of the action area's PBFs would affect the designated critical habitat's ability to support the conservation of PS Chinook salmon as a whole.

Past and ongoing land and water use practices have degraded salmonid critical habitat throughout the Puget Sound basin. Hydropower and water management activities have reduced or eliminated access to significant portions of historic spawning habitat. Timber harvests, agriculture, industry, urbanization, shoreline development, and point and non-point stormwater and wastewater discharges have adversely altered floodplain and stream morphology in many watersheds, diminished the availability and quality of estuarine and nearshore marine habitats, and reduced water quality across the region.

Global climate change is expected to increase in-stream water temperatures and alter stream flows, possibly exacerbating impacts on baseline conditions in freshwater habitats across the region. Rising sea levels are expected to increase coastal erosion and alter the composition of nearshore habitats, which could further reduce the availability and quality of estuarine habitats. Increased ocean acidification may also reduce the quality of estuarine habitats.

In the future, non-federal land and water use practices and climate change are likely to increase. The intensity of those influences on salmonid critical habitat is uncertain, as is the degree to which those impacts may be tempered by adoption of more environmentally acceptable land use practices, by the implementation of non-federal plans that are intended to benefit salmonids, and by efforts to address the effects of climate change.

The PBF for PS Chinook salmon critical habitat in the action area is limited to freshwater migration corridors free of obstruction and excessive predation. The site attributes of that PBF that would be affected by the action are freedom from obstruction and excessive predation, water quality, and natural cover. As described in the environmental baseline section, the project site is located along a heavily impacted waterway, and all three of these site attributes currently function at reduced levels as compared to undisturbed freshwater migratory corridors. As described in the effects section, the proposed action would cause minor long-term adverse effects on the identified site attributes.

Based on the best available information, the scale of the proposed action's effects, when considered in combination with the degraded baseline, cumulative effects, and the impacts of climate change, would be too small to cause any detectable long-term negative changes in the quality or functionality of the freshwater migration corridors PBF in the action area. Therefore, this critical habitat will maintain its current level of functionality, and retain its current ability for PBFs to become functionally established, to serve the intended conservation role for PS Chinook salmon.

2.8 Conclusion

After reviewing and analyzing the current status of the listed species and critical habitat, the environmental baseline within the action area, the effects of the proposed action, the effects of other activities caused by the proposed action, and cumulative effects, it is the NMFS' biological opinion that the proposed action is not likely to jeopardize the continued existence of PS

Chinook salmon and PS steelhead, nor is it likely to destroy or adversely modify designated critical habitat for PS Chinook salmon.

2.9 Incidental Take Statement

Section 9 of the ESA and Federal regulations pursuant to section 4(d) of the ESA prohibit the take of endangered and threatened species, respectively, without a special exemption. “Take” is defined as to harass, harm, pursue, hunt, shoot, wound, kill, trap, capture or collect, or to attempt to engage in any such conduct. “Harm” is further defined by regulation to include significant habitat modification or degradation that actually kills or injures fish or wildlife by significantly impairing essential behavioral patterns, including breeding, spawning, rearing, migrating, feeding, or sheltering (50 CFR 222.102). “Harass” is further defined by interim guidance as to “create the likelihood of injury to wildlife by annoying it to such an extent as to significantly disrupt normal behavioral patterns which include, but are not limited to, breeding, feeding, or sheltering.” “Incidental take” is defined by regulation as takings that result from, but are not the purpose of, carrying out an otherwise lawful activity conducted by the Federal agency or applicant (50 CFR 402.02). Section 7(b)(4) and section 7(o)(2) provide that taking that is incidental to an otherwise lawful agency action is not considered to be prohibited taking under the ESA if that action is performed in compliance with the terms and conditions of this incidental take statement (ITS).

2.9.1 Amount or Extent of Take

In the biological opinion, the NMFS determined that incidental take is reasonably certain to occur as follows:

Harm of juvenile PS Chinook salmon and juvenile PS steelhead from exposure to:

- Stormwater-related effects; and
- Artificial shoreline-related effects.

The NMFS cannot predict with meaningful accuracy the number of PS Chinook salmon and PS steelhead that are reasonably certain to be injured or killed annually by exposure to any of these stressors. The distribution and abundance of the fish that occur within an action area are affected by habitat quality, competition, predation, and the interaction of processes that influence genetic, population, and environmental characteristics. These biotic and environmental processes interact in ways that may be random or directional, and may operate across far broader temporal and spatial scales than are affected by the proposed action. Thus, the distribution and abundance of fish within the action area cannot be attributed entirely to habitat conditions, nor can the NMFS precisely predict the number of fish that are reasonably certain to be injured or killed if their habitat is modified or degraded by the proposed action. Additionally, the NMFS knows of no device or practicable technique that would yield reliable counts of individuals that may experience these impacts. In such circumstances, the NMFS uses the causal link established between the activity and the likely extent and duration of changes in habitat conditions to describe the extent of take as a numerical level of habitat disturbance. The most appropriate

surrogates for take are action-related parameters that are directly related to the magnitude of the expected take.

For this action, the timing of in-water work is applicable because the proposed in-water work window avoids the expected presence of PS Chinook salmon in the project area. Therefore, working outside of the proposed work window would increase the potential that PS Chinook salmon would be exposed to work-related stressors that they would otherwise not be exposed to.

In addition to the timing of the project, the size of the outfall's catchment area and the proposed stormwater treatment system are the best available surrogates for the extent of take of juvenile PS Chinook salmon and juvenile PS steelhead from exposure to stormwater-related effects. The size of the catchment area is appropriate because, any expansion of the area is likely to increase the volume of stormwater that would be discharged through the outfall, and it could increase the pollutant load in the stormwater, either of which could increase the number of exposed fish and or increase the pollutant concentration in the discharge, which would increase the intensity of response in exposed fish and their forage resources.

The proposed level of stormwater treatment, is appropriate because any reduction in the level of treatment from that of the proposed treatment system would increase the pollutant concentrations in the discharge, which would increase the intensity of response in exposed fish and their forage resources.

In summary, the extent of PS Chinook salmon and PS steelhead take for this action is defined as:

- In-water work to be completed between October 1 and April 15;
- The existing 2.4-acre catchment area as described in the proposed action section of this biological opinion; and
- Discharge of stormwater that has been treated by a Contech dual unit, four cartridge, StormFilter concrete catch basin stormwater treatment system with 27-inch "Phosphosorb" cartridges as described in the proposed action section of this biological opinion.

Exceedance of any of the exposure limits described above would constitute an exceedance of authorized take that would trigger the need to reinitiate consultation.

Although these take surrogates could be construed as partially coextensive with the proposed action, they nevertheless function as effective re-initiation triggers. If any of these take surrogates exceed the proposal, it could still meaningfully trigger re-initiation because the USACE has authority to conduct compliance inspections and to take actions to address non-compliance, including post-construction (33 CFR 326.4).

2.9.2 Effect of the Take

In the biological opinion, the NMFS determined that the amount or extent of anticipated take, coupled with other effects of the proposed action, is not likely to result in jeopardy to the species or destruction or adverse modification of critical habitat.

2.9.3 Reasonable and Prudent Measures

“Reasonable and prudent measures” are measures that are necessary or appropriate to minimize the impact of the amount or extent of incidental take (50 CFR 402.02).

The USACE shall require the applicant to:

1. Ensure the implementation of monitoring and reporting to confirm that the take exemption for the proposed action is not exceeded.

2.9.4 Terms and Conditions

In order to be exempt from the prohibitions of section 9 of the ESA, the Federal action agency must comply (or must ensure that any applicant complies) with the following terms and conditions. The USACE, and the applicant have a continuing duty to monitor the impacts of incidental take and must report the progress of the action and its impact on the species as specified in this ITS (50 CFR 402.14). If the entity to whom a term and condition is directed does not comply with the following terms and conditions, protective coverage for the proposed action would likely lapse.

1. The following terms and conditions implement reasonable and prudent measure 1:
 - a. The USACE shall require the applicant to develop and implement plans to collect and report details about the take of listed fish. That plan shall:
 - i. Require the applicant and or their contractor to maintain and submit records to verify that all take indicators are monitored and reported. Minimally, the records should include:
 1. Documentation of the timing and duration of in-water work to ensure that all in-water work is completed between October 1 and April 15; and
 2. Documentation of the stormwater treatment system that is installed to confirm that it matches the stormwater treatment system described in the proposed action section of this opinion.
 - ii. Require the applicant to establish procedures for the submission of the construction records and other materials to the appropriate USACE office, and to submit an electronic post-construction report to the NMFS within six months of project completion. Send the report to: projectreports.wcr@noaa.gov. Be sure to include Attn: WCRO-2022-00026 in the subject line.

2.10 Conservation Recommendations

Section 7(a)(1) of the ESA directs Federal agencies to use their authorities to further the purposes of the ESA by carrying out conservation programs for the benefit of the threatened and endangered species. Specifically, “conservation recommendations” are suggestions regarding discretionary measures to minimize or avoid adverse effects of a proposed action on listed species or critical habitat or regarding the development of information (50 CFR 402.02).

1. The USACE should require the applicant to install a stormwater filtration treatment system that is WDOE-certified for oil removal in addition to GULD certification.

2.11 Re-initiation of Consultation

This concludes formal consultation for the USACE’s authorization of Seattle Public Utilities’ Fairview Stormwater Outfall Repair project on Lake Union, King County, Washington.

Under 50 CFR 402.16(a): “Reinitiation of consultation is required and shall be requested by the Federal agency or by the Service where discretionary Federal agency involvement or control over the action has been retained or is authorized by law and: (1) If the amount or extent of taking specified in the incidental take statement is exceeded; (2) If new information reveals effects of the agency action that may affect listed species or critical habitat in a manner or to an extent not previously considered; (3) If the identified action is subsequently modified in a manner that causes an effect to the listed species or critical habitat that was not considered in the biological opinion or written concurrence; or (4) If a new species is listed or critical habitat designated that may be affected by the identified action.”

2.12 “Not Likely to Adversely Affect” Determinations

This assessment was prepared pursuant to section 7(a)(2) of the ESA, implementing regulations at 50 CFR 402 and agency guidance for preparation of letters of concurrence.

As described in Section 2 and below, the NMFS has concluded that the proposed action is not likely to adversely affect SR killer whales and their designated critical habitat. Detailed information about the biology, habitat, and conservation status and trends of these whales can be found in the listing regulations and critical habitat designations published in the Federal Register, as well as in the recovery plans and other sources at: <https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/species-directory/threatened-endangered>, which are incorporated here by reference.

Under the ESA, “effects of the action” means the direct and indirect effects of an action on the listed species or critical habitat, together with the effects of other activities that are interrelated or interdependent with that action (50 CFR 402.02). The applicable standard to find that a proposed action is not likely to adversely affect listed species or critical habitat is that all of the effects of the action are expected to be discountable, insignificant, or completely beneficial. Beneficial effects are contemporaneous positive effects without any adverse effects to the species or critical habitat. Insignificant effects relate to the size of the impact and should never reach the scale where take occurs. Discountable effects are those that are extremely unlikely to occur.

2.12.1 Effects on Listed Species

The effects analysis in this section relies heavily on the descriptions of the proposed action and project site conditions discussed in Sections 1.3 and 2.4, and on the analyses of effects presented in Section 2.5. As described in Section 2.5, the range of detectable action-related stressors would be limited to the freshwaters and substrates between the project site and the Chittenden Locks.

SR killer whales

The proposed action will cause no direct effects on SR killer whales or their critical habitat because all construction and its impacts would take place in freshwater, and SR killer whales and their designated critical habitat are limited to marine waters. However, the project may indirectly affect SR killer whales through the trophic web by affecting the quantity and quality of prey available to them. We therefore analyze that potential here but conclude that the effects on SR killer whales would be insignificant for at least two reasons.

First, as described in Section 2.5, the action would annually affect an extremely low number of juvenile Chinook salmon. The project's detectable effects on fish would be limited to an area no more than 300 feet around the project site, where small subsets of each year's juvenile PS Chinook salmon cohorts from the Cedar River and North Lake Washington populations could be briefly exposed to project-related impacts during the final portion their freshwater migration lifestage, and only very small subsets of the individuals that pass through the area are likely to be detectably affected by the exposure.

The exact Chinook salmon smolt to adult ratios are not known. However, even under natural conditions, individual juvenile Chinook salmon have a very low probability of surviving to adulthood (Bradford 1995). We note that human-caused habitat degradation and other factors such as hatcheries and harvest exacerbate natural causes of low survival such as natural variability in stream and ocean conditions, predator-prey interactions, and natural climate variability (Adams 1980, Quinones et al., 2014). However, based on the best available information, the annual numbers of project-affected juveniles would be too low to influence any VSP parameters for either population, or to cause any detectable reduction in adult Chinook salmon availability to SR killer whales in marine waters.

Second, as described in Sections 1.3, 2.2, and 2.5, the only PS Chinook populations that would be affected by the project would be the two Lake Washington populations that migrate through Lake Washington, and both populations are small. Total abundance between 1980 and 2020 has fluctuated between about 600 and 1,600 spawners for the Cedar River population, and 300 and 1,500 spawners for the Sammamish River population (Ford 2022). Consequently, the two populations, combined, make up a very small portion of the adult Chinook that are available to SR killer whales in marine waters. Therefore, based on the best available information, the proposed action is not likely to adversely affect SR killer whales.

2.12.2 Effects on Critical Habitat

This assessment considers the intensity of expected effects in terms of the change they would cause in affected physical or biological features (PBFs) from their baseline conditions, and the severity of each effect, considered in terms of the time required to recover from the effect. Ephemeral effects are those that are likely to last for hours or days, short-term effects would likely to last for weeks, and long-term effects are likely to last for months, years or decades.

SR killer whale Critical Habitat: Designated critical habitat for SR killer whales includes marine waters of the Puget Sound that are at least 20 feet deep. The expected effects on SR killer whale

critical habitat from completion of the proposed action, including full application of the conservation measures and BMP, would be limited to the impacts on the PBFs as described below.

1. Water quality to support growth and development

The proposed action would cause no detectable effects on marine water quality.

2. Prey species of sufficient quantity, quality, and availability to support individual growth, reproduction, and development, as well as overall population growth

The proposed actions would cause long-term undetectable effects on prey availability and quality. Action-related impacts would annually injure or kill extremely low numbers of individual juvenile Chinook salmon (primary prey), during the final portion their freshwater migration lifestage. However, the numbers of affected juvenile Chinook salmon would be too small to cause detectable effects on the numbers of available adult Chinook salmon in marine waters. Therefore, it would cause no detectable reduction in prey availability and quality.

3. Passage conditions to allow for migration, resting, and foraging

The proposed action would cause no detectable effects on passage conditions.

For the reasons expressed immediately above, the NMFS has concluded that the proposed action is not likely to adversely affect ESA-listed SR killer whales and their designated critical habitat.

3. MAGNUSON–STEVENS FISHERY CONSERVATION AND MANAGEMENT ACT ESSENTIAL FISH HABITAT RESPONSE

Section 305(b) of the MSA directs Federal agencies to consult with the NMFS on all actions or proposed actions that may adversely affect Essential Fish Habitat (EFH). Under the MSA, this consultation is intended to promote the conservation of EFH as necessary to support sustainable fisheries and the managed species' contribution to a healthy ecosystem. For the purposes of the MSA, EFH means “those waters and substrate necessary to fish for spawning, breeding, feeding, or growth to maturity”, and includes the physical, biological, and chemical properties that are used by fish (50 CFR 600.10). Adverse effect means any impact that reduces quality or quantity of EFH, and may include direct or indirect physical, chemical, or biological alteration of the waters or substrate and loss of (or injury to) benthic organisms, prey species and their habitat, and other ecosystem components, if such modifications reduce the quality or quantity of EFH. Adverse effects on EFH may result from actions occurring within EFH or outside of it and may include site-specific or EFH-wide impacts, including individual, cumulative, or synergistic consequences of actions (50 CFR 600.810). Section 305(b) of the MSA also requires the NMFS to recommend measures that can be taken by the action agency to conserve EFH. Such recommendations may include measures to avoid, minimize, mitigate, or otherwise offset the adverse effects of the action on EFH [CFR 600.905(b)].

This analysis is based, in part, on the EFH assessment provided by the USACE and the descriptions of EFH contained in the fishery management plan for Pacific Coast salmon

developed by the Pacific Fishery Management Council and approved by the Secretary of Commerce (PFMC 2014).

3.1 Essential Fish Habitat Affected By the Project

The project site is located along the east bank of Lake Union (Figure 1). The waters and substrate of Lake Union are designated as freshwater EFH for various life-history stages of Pacific Coast Salmon, which within the Lake Washington watershed include Chinook and coho salmon. Due to trophic links between PS Chinook salmon and SR killer whales, the project's action area also overlaps with marine waters that have been designated, under the MSA, as EFH for Pacific Coast Salmon, Pacific Coast Groundfish, and Coastal Pelagic Species. However, the action would cause no detectable effects on any components of marine EFH. Therefore, the action's effects on EFH would be limited to impacts on freshwater EFH for Pacific Coast Salmon, and it would not adversely affect marine EFH for Pacific Coast Salmon, or EFH for Pacific Coast groundfish and coastal pelagic species.

Freshwater EFH for Pacific salmon is identified and described in Appendix A to the Pacific Coast salmon fishery management plan, and consists of four major components: (1) spawning and incubation; (2) juvenile rearing; (3) juvenile migration corridors; and (4) adult migration corridors and holding habitat.

Those components of freshwater EFH for Pacific Coast Salmon depend on habitat conditions for spawning, rearing, and migration that include: (1) water quality (e.g., dissolved oxygen, nutrients, temperature, etc.); (2) water quantity, depth, and velocity; (3) riparian-stream-marine energy exchanges; (4) channel gradient and stability; (5) prey availability; (6) cover and habitat complexity (e.g., large woody debris, pools, aquatic and terrestrial vegetation, etc.); (7) space; (8) habitat connectivity from headwaters to the ocean (e.g., dispersal corridors); (9) groundwater-stream interactions; and (10) substrate composition.

As part of Pacific Coast Salmon EFH, five Habitat Areas of Particular Concern (HAPCs) have been defined: 1) complex channels and floodplain habitats; 2) thermal refugia; 3) spawning habitat; 4) estuaries; and 5) marine and estuarine submerged aquatic vegetation. The project area provides no known HAPC habitat features.

3.2 Adverse Effects on Essential Fish Habitat

The ESA portion of this document (Sections 1 and 2) describes the proposed action and its adverse effects on ESA-listed species and critical habitats, and is relevant to the effects on EFH for Pacific Coast Salmon. Based on the analysis of effects presented in Section 2.5 the proposed action will cause minor short- and long-term adverse effects on freshwater EFH for Pacific Coast Salmon as summarized below.

Freshwater EFH for Pacific Coast Salmon

1. Water quality: The proposed action would cause minor short- and long-term adverse effects on this attribute. Demolition and construction would cause short-term adverse effects on

water quality that would be mostly contained within sediment curtains, and would persist no more than a low number of hours after work stops. Also, the repaired outfall would continue to discharge stormwater to Lake Union. The catchment area for the outfall is relatively small, and the project would include a stormwater treatment system, which currently doesn't exist. However, the treatment system isn't designed to remove metals or petroleum-based pollutants. Therefore, some fish-toxic pollutants would continue to enter Lake Union through the outfall. The range of detectable water quality impacts is protectively assumed to extend from the project site to the Chittenden Locks. The action would cause no measurable changes in water temperature or salinity.

2. Water quantity, depth, and velocity: No changes expected.
3. Riparian-stream-marine energy exchanges: No changes expected.
4. Channel gradient and stability: No changes expected.
5. Prey availability: The proposed action would cause long-term minor adverse effects on this attribute. The continued low-level input of contaminants from discharged stormwater would contaminate some of the available prey and or slightly diminish the number, size, and diversity of prey organisms available at the project site. The range of detectable effects on this attribute is uncertain, but expected to be limited to low hundreds of feet around the outfall.
6. Cover and habitat complexity: The proposed action would cause minor long-term adverse effects on this attribute. The repaired rockery would perpetuate conditions that act to limit the growth of riparian vegetation at the site, which would limit the availability of natural cover that would normally be provided by branches that fall into the water from riparian vegetation. The rockery would also prevent the formation of natural bank features that can also provide cover.
7. Space: No changes expected.
8. Habitat connectivity from headwaters to the ocean: No changes expected.
9. Groundwater-stream interactions: No changes expected.
10. Substrate composition: No changes expected.

Habitat Areas of Particular Concern (HAPCs)

The project area provides no known HAPC habitat features.

3.3 Essential Fish Habitat Conservation Recommendations

The NMFS determined that the following conservation recommendations are necessary to avoid, minimize, mitigate, or otherwise offset the impact of the proposed action on EFH.

The proposed project includes design features and BMPs that would reduce impacts on the quantity and quality of Pacific Coast salmon EFH. The NMFS knows of no other reasonable measures that the applicant could include to further reduce the project's effects on the Cover and Habitat Complexity attribute. However, to reduce the action's impacts on the Water Quality and Prey Availability attributes:

1. The USACE should require the applicant to install a stormwater filtration treatment system that is WDOE-certified for oil removal in addition to GULD certification.

3.4 Statutory Response Requirement

As required by section 305(b)(4)(B) of the MSA, the USACE must provide a detailed written response to the NMFS within 30 days after receiving an EFH Conservation Recommendation. Such a response must be provided at least 10 days prior to final approval of the action if the response is inconsistent with any of the NMFS' EFH Conservation Recommendations unless the NMFS and the Federal agency have agreed to use alternative time frames for the Federal agency response. The response must include a description of the measures proposed by the agency for avoiding, minimizing, mitigating, or otherwise offsetting the impact of the activity on EFH. In the case of a response that is inconsistent with the Conservation Recommendations, the Federal agency must explain its reasons for not following the recommendations, including the scientific justification for any disagreements with the NMFS over the anticipated effects of the action and the measures needed to avoid, minimize, mitigate, or offset such effects [50 CFR 600.920(k)(1)].

In response to increased oversight of overall EFH program effectiveness by the Office of Management and Budget, the NMFS established a quarterly reporting requirement to determine how many conservation recommendations are provided as part of each EFH consultation and how many are adopted by the action agency. Therefore, we ask that in your statutory reply to the EFH portion of this consultation, you clearly identify the number of conservation recommendations accepted.

3.5 Supplemental Consultation

The USACE must reinitiate EFH consultation with the NMFS if the proposed action is substantially revised in a way that may adversely affect EFH, or if new information becomes available that affects the basis for the NMFS' EFH Conservation Recommendations [50 CFR 600.920(l)].

4. DATA QUALITY ACT DOCUMENTATION AND PRE-DISSEMINATION REVIEW

The Data Quality Act (DQA) specifies three components contributing to the quality of a document. They are utility, integrity, and objectivity. This section of the opinion addresses these DQA components, documents compliance with the DQA, and certifies that this opinion has undergone pre-dissemination review.

4.1 Utility

Utility principally refers to ensuring that the information contained in this consultation is helpful, serviceable, and beneficial to the intended users. The intended user of this opinion is the USACE. Other interested users could include the applicant, the WDFW, the governments and citizens of King County and the City of Seattle, and Native American tribes. Individual copies of this opinion were provided to the USACE. The document will be available at the NOAA Library Institutional Repository [<https://repository.library.noaa.gov/welcome>]. The format and naming adhere to conventional standards for style.

4.2 Integrity

This consultation was completed on a computer system managed by the NMFS in accordance with relevant information technology security policies and standards set out in Appendix III, ‘Security of Automated Information Resources,’ Office of Management and Budget Circular A-130; the Computer Security Act; and the Government Information Security Reform Act.

4.3 Objectivity

Information Product Category: Natural Resource Plan

Standards: This consultation and supporting documents are clear, concise, complete, and unbiased; and were developed using commonly accepted scientific research methods. They adhere to published standards including the NMFS ESA Consultation Handbook, ESA regulations, 50 CFR 402.01 et seq., and the MSA implementing regulations regarding EFH, 50 CFR part 600.

Best Available Information: This consultation and supporting documents use the best available information, as referenced in the References section. The analyses in this opinion and EFH consultation contain more background on information sources and quality.

Referencing: All supporting materials, information, data and analyses are properly referenced, consistent with standard scientific referencing style.

Review Process: This consultation was drafted by NMFS staff with training in ESA and MSA implementation, and reviewed in accordance with West Coast Region ESA quality control and assurance processes.

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